The 30 Year Horizon

Manuel Bronstein  William Burge  Timothy Daly
James Davenport  Michael Dewar  Martin Dunstan
Albrecht Fortenbacher  Patrizia Gianni  Johannes Grabmeier
Jocelyn Guidry  Richard Jenks  Larry Lambe
Michael Monagan  Scott Morrison  William Sit
Jonathan Steinbach  Robert Sutor  Barry Trager
Stephen Watt  Jim Wen  Clifton Williamson
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New Foreword

On October 1, 2001 Axiom was withdrawn from the market and ended life as a commercial product. On September 3, 2002 Axiom was released under the Modified BSD license, including this document. On August 27, 2003 Axiom was released as free and open source software available for download from the Free Software Foundation’s website, Savannah.

This document is a complete “re-implementation” of the original Axiom book by Jenks and Sutor. Virtually every line has been reviewed and rewritten into the new Axiom pamphlet format. Changes were made to reflect the new Axiom system. Additional material was added and some previous examples were rewritten. This is intended to be a “living” document with material referenced or gathered automatically from other parts of the system documentation. Future plans include adding active examples (moving graphics, in-line command prompts) using Active-DVI.

Axiom has been in existence for over thirty years. It is estimated to contain about three hundred man-years of research and has, as of September 3, 2003, 143 people listed in the credits. All of these people have contributed directly or indirectly to making Axiom available. Axiom is being passed to the next generation. I’m looking forward to future milestones.

With that in mind I’ve introduced the theme of the “30 year horizon”. We must invent the tools that support the Computational Mathematician working 30 years from now. How will research be done when every bit of mathematical knowledge is online and instantly available? What happens when we scale Axiom by a factor of 100, giving us 1.1 million domains? How can we integrate theory with code? How will we integrate theorems and proofs of the mathematics with space-time complexity proofs and running code? What visualization tools are needed? How do we support the conceptual structures and semantics of mathematics in effective ways? How do we support results from the sciences? How do we teach the next generation to be effective Computational Mathematicians?

The “30 year horizon” is much nearer than it appears.

Tim Daly
Stamford, CT, U.S.A
November 10, 2003 ((iHy))
You are holding in your hands an unusual book. Winston Churchill once said that the empires of the future will be empires of the mind. This book might hold an electronic key to such an empire.

When computers were young and slow, the emerging computer science developed dreams of Artificial Intelligence and Automatic Theorem Proving in which theorems can be proved by machines instead of mathematicians. Now, when computer hardware has matured and become cheaper and faster, there is not too much talk of putting the burden of formulating and proving theorems on the computer’s shoulders. Moreover, even in those cases when computer programs do prove theorems, or establish counter-examples (for example, the solution of the four color problem, the non-existence of projective planes of order 10, the disproof of the Mertens conjecture), humans carry most of the burden in the form of programming and verification.

It is the language of computer programming that has turned out to be the crucial instrument of productivity in the evolution of scientific computing. The original Artificial Intelligence efforts gave birth to the first symbolic manipulation systems based on LISP. The first complete symbolic manipulation or, as they are called now, computer algebra packages tried to imbed the development programming and execution of mathematical problems into a framework of familiar symbolic notations, operations and conventions. In the third decade of symbolic computations, a couple of these early systems—REDUCE and MACSYMA—still hold their own among faithful users.

Axiom was born in the mid-70’s as a system called Scratchpad developed by IBM researchers. Scratchpad/Axiom was born big—its original platform was an IBM mainframe 3081, and later a 3090. The system was growing and learning during the decade of the 80’s, and its development and progress influenced the field of computer algebra. During this period, the first commercially available computer algebra packages for mini and microcomputers made their debut. By now, our readers are aware of Mathematica, Maple, Derive, and Macsyma. These systems (as well as a few special purpose computer algebra packages in academia) emphasize ease of operation and standard scientific conventions, and come with a prepared set of mathematical solutions for typical tasks confronting an applied scientist or an engineer. These features brought a recognition of the enormous benefits of computer algebra to the widest circles of scientists and engineers.

The Scratchpad system took its time to blossom into the beautiful Axiom product. There is no rival to this powerful environment in its scope and, most importantly, in its structure and organization. Axiom contains the basis for any comprehensive and elaborate mathematical development. It gives the user all Foundation and Algebra instruments necessary to develop a computer realization of sophisticated mathematical objects in exactly the way a mathematician would do it. Axiom is also the basis of a complete scientific cyberspace—it provides an environment for mathematical objects used in scientific computation, and the means of controlling and communicating between these objects. Knowledge of only a few Axiom language features and operating
principles is all that is required to make impressive progress in a given domain of in-
terest. The system is powerful. It is not an interactive interpretive environment operating
only in response to one line commands—it is a complete language with rich syntax and
a full compiler. Mathematics can be developed and explored with ease by the user of
Axiom. In fact, during Axiom’s growth cycle, many detailed mathematical domains
were constructed. Some of them are a part of Axiom’s core and are described in this
book. For a bird’s eye view of the algebra hierarchy of Axiom, glance inside the book
cover.

The crucial strength of Axiom lies in its excellent structural features and unlimited
expandability—it is open, modular system designed to support an ever growing number
of facilities with minimal increase in structural complexity. Its design also supports the
integration of other computation tools such as numerical software libraries written in
FORTRAN and C. While Axiom is already a very powerful system, the prospect of
scientists using the system to develop their own fields of Science is truly exciting—the
day is still young for Axiom.

Over the last several years Scratchpad/Axiom has scored many successes in theoreti-
cal mathematics, mathematical physics, combinatorics, digital signal processing, crypt-
ography and parallel processing. We have to confess that we enjoyed using Scratch-
pad/Axiom. It provided us with an excellent environment for our research, and allowed
us to solve problems intractable on other systems. We were able to prove new diophan-
tine results for \( \pi \); establish the Grothendieck conjecture for certain classes of linear
differential equations; study the arithmetic properties of the uniformization of hyper-
eLLiptic and other algebraic curves; construct new factorization algorithms based on
formal groups; within Scratchpad/Axiom we were able to obtain new identities needed
for quantum field theory (elliptic genus formula and double scaling limit for quantum
gravity), and classify period relations for CM varieties in terms of hypergeometric se-
ries.

The Axiom system is now supported and distributed by NAG, the group that is well
known for its high quality software products for numerical and statistical computations.
The development of Axiom in IBM was conducted at IBM T.J. Watson Research Center
at Yorktown, New York by a symbolic computation group headed by Richard D. Jenks.
Shmuel Winograd of IBM was instrumental in the progress of symbolic research at
IBM.

This book opens the wonderful world of Axiom, guiding the reader and user through
Axiom’s definitions, rules, applications and interfaces. A variety of fully developed
areas of mathematics are presented as packages, and the user is well advised to take
advantage of the sophisticated realization of familiar mathematics. The Axiom book is
easy to read and the Axiom system is easy to use. It possesses all the features required
of a modern computer environment (for example, windowing, integration of operating
system features, and interactive graphics). Axiom comes with a detailed hypertext in-
terface (HyperDoc), an elaborate browser, and complete on-line documentation. The
HyperDoc allows novices to solve their problems in a straightforward way, by provid-
ing menus for step-by-step interactive entry.

The appearance of Axiom in the scientific market moves symbolic computing into a
higher plane, where scientists can formulate their statements in their own language and receive computer assistance in their proofs. Axiom’s performance on workstations is truly impressive, and users of Axiom will get more from them than we, the early users, got from mainframes. Axiom provides a powerful scientific environment for easy construction of mathematical tools and algorithms; it is a symbolic manipulation system, and a high performance numerical system, with full graphics capabilities. We expect every (computer) power hungry scientist will want to take full advantage of Axiom.

David V. Chudnovsky

Gregory V. Chudnovsky
Introduction to Axiom

0.1 Introduction to Axiom

Welcome to the world of Axiom. We call Axiom a scientific computation system: a self-contained toolbox designed to meet your scientific programming needs, from symbolics, to numerics, to graphics.

This introduction is a quick overview of what Axiom offers.

0.1.1 Symbolic Computation

Axiom provides a wide range of simple commands for symbolic mathematical problem solving. Do you need to solve an equation, to expand a series, or to obtain an integral? If so, just ask Axiom to do it.

Given

\[
\int \left( \frac{1}{(x^3 (a+bx)^{1/3})} \right) \, dx
\]

we would enter this into Axiom as:

\[
\text{integrate}(1/(x**3 * (a+b*x)**(1/3)),x)
\]

which would give the result:

\[
\begin{align*}
-2 b^2 x^2 \sqrt{3} \log \left( \sqrt[3]a \sqrt[b x+a-a]{a} + \sqrt[3]a \sqrt[b x+a+a]{a} \right) + \\
4 b^2 x^2 \sqrt{3} \log \left( \sqrt[3]a \sqrt[b x+a-a]{a} \right) + \\
12 b^2 x^2 \arctan \left( \frac{2 \sqrt{3} \sqrt[3]a \sqrt[b x+a-a]{a} + a \sqrt{3}}{3 a} \right) + \\
(12 b x - 9 a) \sqrt{3} \sqrt[3]a \sqrt[b x+a+a]{a}
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Union(Expression Integer,...)

Axiom provides state-of-the-art algebraic machinery to handle your most advanced symbolic problems. For example, Axiom’s integrator gives you the answer when an answer exists. If one does not, it provides a proof that there is no answer. Integration is just one of a multitude of symbolic operations that Axiom provides.
0.1.2 Numeric Computation

Axiom has a numerical library that includes operations for linear algebra, solution of equations, and special functions. For many of these operations, you can select any number of floating point digits to be carried out in the computation.

Solve \( x^{49} - 49x^4 + 9 \) to 49 digits of accuracy. First we need to change the default output length of numbers:

\[
digits(49)
\]

and then we execute the command:

\[
solve(x^{*49}-49\cdot x^{*4}+9 = 0, 1.e-49)
\]

\[
[x = -0.6546536706904271136718122105095984761851224331556, \\
x = 1.08692139565385950849393035954893289009213388763, \\
x = 0.6546536707252755271739694686066136764835361487607661]
\]

Type: List Equation Polynomial Float

The output of a computation can be converted to FORTRAN to be used in a later numerical computation. Besides floating point numbers, Axiom provides literally dozens of kinds of numbers to compute with. These range from various kinds of integers, to fractions, complex numbers, quaternions, continued fractions, and to numbers represented with an arbitrary base.

What is 10 to the 90-th power in base 32?

\[
radix(10^{90}, 32)
\]

returns:

\[
FMM30955CSEIV0ILKH820CN317PICQUOQMD0FV6TP0000000000000000
\]

Type: RadixExpansion 32

The AXIOM numerical library can be enhanced with a substantial number of functions from the NAG library of numerical and statistical algorithms. These functions will provide coverage of a wide range of areas including roots of functions, Fourier transforms, quadrature, differential equations, data approximation, non-linear optimization, linear algebra, basic statistics, step-wise regression, analysis of variance, time series analysis, mathematical programming, and special functions. Contact the Numerical Algorithms Group Limited, Oxford, England.
0.1.3 Graphics

You may often want to visualize a symbolic formula or draw a graph from a set of numerical values. To do this, you can call upon the Axiom graphics capability.

Draw \( J_0(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}) \) for \(-20 \leq x, y \leq 20\).

\[
\text{draw}(5*\text{besselJ}(0, \sqrt{x^2+y^2}), x=-20..20, y=-20..20)
\]

Figure 1: \( J_0(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}) \) for \(-20 \leq x, y \leq 20\)

Graphs in Axiom are interactive objects you can manipulate with your mouse. Just click on the graph, and a control panel pops up. Using this mouse and the control panel, you can translate, rotate, zoom, change the coloring, lighting, shading, and perspective on the picture. You can also generate a PostScript copy of your graph to produce hardcopy output.
HyperDoc presents you windows on the world of Axiom, offering on-line help, examples, tutorials, a browser, and reference material. HyperDoc gives you on-line access to this document in a "hypertext" format. Words that appear in a different font (for example, Matrix, factor, and category) are generally mouse-active; if you click on one with your mouse, HyperDoc shows you a new window for that word.

As another example of a HyperDoc facility, suppose that you want to compute the roots of \( x^{49} - 49x^4 + 9 \) to 49 digits (as in our previous example) and you don’t know how to tell Axiom to do this. The “basic command” facility of HyperDoc leads the way. Through the series of HyperDoc windows shown in Figure 2 on page 4 and the specified mouse clicks, you and HyperDoc generate the correct command to issue to compute the answer.

0.1.5 Interactive Programming

Axiom’s interactive programming language lets you define your own functions. A simple example of a user-defined function is one that computes the successive Legendre polynomials. Axiom lets you define these polynomials in a piece-wise way.
The first Legendre polynomial.
\[ p(0) = 1 \]

Type: Void

The second Legendre polynomial.
\[ p(1) = x \]

Type: Void

The \( n \)-th Legendre polynomial for \( n > 1 \).
\[ p(n) = \frac{(2n-1)x p(n-1) - (n-1) p(n-2)}{n} \]

Type: Void

In addition to letting you define simple functions like this, the interactive language can be used to create entire application packages. All the graphs in the Axiom images section were created by programs written in the interactive language.

The above definitions for \( p \) do no computation—they simply tell Axiom how to compute \( p(k) \) for some positive integer \( k \).

To actually get a value of a Legendre polynomial, you ask for it.

What is the tenth Legendre polynomial?
\[ p(10) \]

Compiling function \( p \) with type Integer -> Polynomial Fraction Integer

Compiling function \( p \) as a recurrence relation.
\[
\frac{46189}{256} x^{10} - \frac{109395}{256} x^{8} + \frac{45045}{128} x^{6} - \frac{15015}{128} x^{4} + \frac{3465}{256} x^{2} - \frac{63}{256}
\]

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer
Axiom applies the above pieces for \( p \) to obtain the value of \( p(10) \). But it does more: it creates an optimized, compiled function for \( p \). The function is formed by putting the pieces together into a single piece of code. By compiled, we mean that the function is translated into basic machine-code. By optimized, we mean that certain transformations are performed on that code to make it run faster. For \( p \), Axiom actually translates the original definition that is recursive (one that calls itself) to one that is iterative (one that consists of a simple loop).

What is the coefficient of \( x^{90} \) in \( p(90) \)?

\[
\text{coefficient}(p(90),x,90)
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
56882655420520178222345823742658185356149744909517577371252455362671811195264
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

In general, a user function is type-analyzed and compiled on first use. Later, if you use it with a different kind of object, the function is recompiled if necessary.

### 0.1.6 Data Structures

A variety of data structures are available for interactive use. These include strings, lists, vectors, sets, multisets, and hash tables. A particularly useful structure for interactive use is the infinite stream:

Create the infinite stream of derivatives of Legendre polynomials.

\[
[D(p(i),x) \text{ for } i \in 1..]
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
&1, 3x, \frac{15}{2} x^2 - \frac{3}{2} x^3 + \frac{35}{2} x^4 - \frac{15}{8} x^5, \\
&\frac{693}{8} x^5 - \frac{315}{4} x^3 + \frac{105}{8} x^4 - \frac{3003}{16} x^6 - \frac{3465}{16} x^4 + \frac{945}{16} x^2 - \frac{35}{16}, \\
&\frac{6435}{16} x^7 - \frac{9009}{16} x^5 + \frac{3465}{16} x^3 - \frac{315}{16} x, \\
&\frac{109395}{128} x^8 - \frac{45045}{32} x^6 + \frac{45045}{64} x^4 - \frac{3465}{32} x^2 + \frac{315}{128}, \\
&\frac{230945}{128} x^9 - \frac{109395}{32} x^7 + \frac{135135}{64} x^5 - \frac{15015}{32} x^3 + \frac{3465}{128} x^1,
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Stream Polynomial Fraction Integer
Streams display only a few of their initial elements. Otherwise, they are “lazy”: they only compute elements when you ask for them.

Data structures are an important component for building application software. Advanced users can represent data for applications in optimal fashion. In all, Axiom offers over forty kinds of aggregate data structures, ranging from mutable structures (such as cyclic lists and flexible arrays) to storage efficient structures (such as bit vectors). As an example, streams are used as the internal data structure for power series.

What is the series expansion of $\log(\cot(x))$ about $x = \pi/2$?

\[
\text{series}(\log(\cot(x)), x = \%pi/2)
\]

\[
\log \left(-\frac{2x + \pi}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{3} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{7}{90} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^4 + \frac{62}{2835} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^6 + \\
\frac{127}{18900} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^8 + \frac{146}{66825} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^{10} + O\left(\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^{11}\right)
\]

Type: GeneralUnivariatePowerSeries(Expression Integer, x, pi/2)

Series and streams make no attempt to compute all their elements! Rather, they stand ready to deliver elements on demand.

What is the coefficient of the 50-th term of this series?

\[
\text{coefficient}(\%, 50)
\]

\[
44590788901016030052447242300856550965644 \\
7131469286438669111584090881309360354581359130859375
\]

Type: Expression Integer

### 0.1.7 Mathematical Structures

Axiom also has many kinds of mathematical structures. These range from simple ones (like polynomials and matrices) to more esoteric ones (like ideals and Clifford algebras). Most structures allow the construction of arbitrarily complicated “types.”

Even a simple input expression can result in a type with several levels.

\[
\text{matrix} \left[ \left[ x + \%i, 0 \right], \left[ 1, -2 \right] \right]
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
x + i & 0 \\
1 & -2
\end{bmatrix}
\]
The Axiom interpreter builds types in response to user input. Often, the type of the result is changed in order to be applicable to an operation.

The inverse operation requires that elements of the above matrices are fractions.

\[
\text{inverse(\%)} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{1}{x+i} & 0 \\
\frac{1}{2x+2i} & -\frac{1}{2}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Union(Matrix Fraction Polynomial Complex Integer, ...)

### 0.1.8 Pattern Matching

A convenient facility for symbolic computation is “pattern matching.” Suppose you have a trigonometric expression and you want to transform it to some equivalent form.

Use a \textit{rule} command to describe the transformation rules you need. Then give the rules a name and apply that name as a function to your trigonometric expression.

Introduce two rewrite rules.

\[
\text{sinCosExpandRules := rule}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\sin(x+y) &\Rightarrow \sin(x)*\cos(y) + \sin(y)*\cos(x) \\
\cos(x+y) &\Rightarrow \cos(x)*\cos(y) - \sin(x)*\sin(y) \\
\sin(2x) &\Rightarrow 2*\sin(x)*\cos(x) \\
\cos(2x) &\Rightarrow \cos(x)^2 - \sin(x)^2 \\
\sin(y + x) &\Rightarrow \cos(x)\sin(y) + \cos(y)\sin(x), \\
\cos(y + x) &\Rightarrow -\sin(x)\sin(y) + \cos(x)\cos(y), \\
\sin(2x) &\Rightarrow 2\cos(x)\sin(x), \\
\cos(2x) &\Rightarrow -\sin(x)^2 + \cos(x)^2
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Ruleset(Integer,Integer,Expression Integer)

Apply the rules to a simple trigonometric expression.

\[
\text{sinCosExpandRules(sin(a+2*b+c))}
\]
\( -\cos(a)\sin(b)^2 - 2\cos(b)\sin(a)\sin(b) + \cos(a)\cos(b)^2\) \sin(c) - \\
\cos(c)\sin(a)\sin(b)^2 + 2\cos(a)\cos(b)\cos(c)\sin(b) + \\
\cos(b)^2\cos(c)\sin(a)

Type: Expression Integer

Using input files, you can create your own library of transformation rules relevant to your applications, then selectively apply the rules you need.

### 0.1.9 Polymorphic Algorithms

All components of the Axiom algebra library are written in the Axiom library language. This language is similar to the interactive language except for protocols that authors are obliged to follow. The library language permits you to write “polymorphic algorithms,” algorithms defined to work in their most natural settings and over a variety of types.

Define a system of polynomial equations \( S \).

\[
S := [3\times^3 + y + 1 = 0, y^2 = 4] \\
\]

\[
[y + 3\times^3 + 1 = 0, y^2 = 4] \\
\]

Type: List Equation Polynomial Integer

Solve the system \( S \) using rational number arithmetic and 30 digits of accuracy.

\[
solve(S, 1/10**30) \\
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
-2, x = \frac{1757879671211184245283070414507}{2535301200456458802993406410752}, \\
y = 2, x = -1
\end{bmatrix} \\
\]

Type: List List Equation Polynomial Fraction Integer

Solve \( S \) with the solutions expressed in radicals.

\[
\text{radicalSolve}(S) \\
\]


While these solutions look very different, the results were produced by the same internal algorithm! The internal algorithm actually works with equations over any “field.” Examples of fields are the rational numbers, floating point numbers, rational functions, power series, and general expressions involving radicals.

### 0.1.10 Extensibility

Users and system developers alike can augment the Axiom library, all using one common language. Library code, like interpreter code, is compiled into machine binary code for run-time efficiency.

Using this language, you can create new computational types and new algorithmic packages. All library code is polymorphic, described in terms of a database of algebraic properties. By following the language protocols, there is an automatic, guaranteed interaction between your code and that of colleagues and system implementers.
A Technical Introduction

Axiom has both an interactive language for user interactions and a programming language for building library modules. Like Modula 2, PASCAL, FORTRAN, and Ada, the programming language emphasizes strict type-checking. Unlike these languages, types in Axiom are dynamic objects: they are created at run-time in response to user commands.

Here is the idea of the Axiom programming language in a nutshell. Axiom types range from algebraic ones (like polynomials, matrices, and power series) to data structures (like lists, dictionaries, and input files). Types combine in any meaningful way. You can build polynomials of matrices, matrices of polynomials of power series, hash tables with symbolic keys and rational function entries, and so on.

Categories define algebraic properties to ensure mathematical correctness. They ensure, for example, that matrices of polynomials are OK, but matrices of input files are not. Through categories, programs can discover that polynomials of continued fractions have a commutative multiplication whereas polynomials of matrices do not.

Categories allow algorithms to be defined in their most natural setting. For example, an algorithm can be defined to solve polynomial equations over any field. Likewise a greatest common divisor can compute the “gcd” of two elements from any Euclidean domain. Categories foil attempts to compute meaningless “gcds”, for example, of two hashtables. Categories also enable algorithms to be compiled into machine code that can be run with arbitrary types.

The Axiom interactive language is oriented towards ease-of-use. The Axiom interpreter uses type-inferencing to deduce the type of an object from user input. Type declarations can generally be omitted for common types in the interactive language.

So much for the nutshell. Here are these basic ideas described by ten design principles:

0.1.11 Types are Defined by Abstract Datatype Programs

Basic types are called domains of computation, or, simply, domains. Domains are defined by Axiom programs of the form:

Name(...): Exports == Implementation

Each domain has a capitalized Name that is used to refer to the class of its members. For example, Integer denotes “the class of integers,” Float, “the class of floating point numbers,” and String, “the class of strings.”

The “...” part following Name lists zero or more parameters to the constructor. Some basic ones like Integer take no parameters. Others, like Matrix, Polynomial and List, take a single parameter that again must be a domain. For example, Matrix(Integer)
denotes “matrices over the integers,” Polynomial (Float) denotes “polynomial with floating point coefficients,” and List (Matrix (Polynomial (Integer))) denotes “lists of matrices of polynomials over the integers.” There is no restriction on the number or type of parameters of a domain constructor.

SquareMatrix(2,Integer) is an example of a domain constructor that accepts both a particular data value as well as an integer. In this case the number 2 specifies the number of rows and columns the square matrix will contain. Elements of the matrices are integers.

The Exports part specifies operations for creating and manipulating objects of the domain. For example, type Integer exports constants 0 and 1, and operations “+”, “-”, and “*”. While these operations are common, others such as odd? and bit? are not. In addition the Exports section can contain symbols that represent properties that can be tested. For example, the Category EntireRing has the symbol noZeroDivisors which asserts that if a product is zero then one of the factors must be zero.

The Implementation part defines functions that implement the exported operations of the domain. These functions are frequently described in terms of another lower-level domain used to represent the objects of the domain. Thus the operation of adding two vectors of real numbers can be described and implemented using the addition operation from Float.

0.1.12 The Type of Basic Objects is a Domain or Subdomain

Every Axiom object belongs to a unique domain. The domain of an object is also called its type. Thus the integer 7 has type Integer and the string "daniel" has type String.

The type of an object, however, is not unique. The type of integer 7 is not only Integer but NonNegativeInteger, PositiveInteger, and possibly, in general, any other “subdomain” of the domain Integer. A subdomain is a domain with a “membership predicate”. PositiveInteger is a subdomain of Integer with the predicate “is the integer > 0?”. Subdomains with names are defined by abstract datatype programs similar to those for domains. The Export part of a subdomain, however, must list a subset of the exports of the domain. The Implementation part optionally gives special definitions for subdomain objects.

0.1.13 Domains Have Types Called Categories

Domain and subdomains in Axiom are themselves objects that have types. The type of a domain or subdomain is called a category. Categories are described by programs of the form:

Name(...): Category == Exports
The type of every category is the distinguished symbol \texttt{Category}. The category \texttt{Name} is used to designate the class of domains of that type. For example, category \texttt{Ring} designates the class of all rings. Like domains, categories can take zero or more parameters as indicated by the “...” part following \texttt{Name}. Two examples are \texttt{Module(R)} and \texttt{MatrixCategory(R,Row,Col)}.

The \texttt{Exports} part defines a set of operations. For example, \texttt{Ring} exports the operations “0”, “1”, “+”, “-”, and “*”. Many algebraic domains such as \texttt{Integer} and \texttt{Polynomial(Float)} are rings. \texttt{String} and \texttt{List(R)} (for any domain \texttt{R}) are not.

Categories serve to ensure the type-correctness. The definition of matrices states \texttt{Matrix(R: Ring)} requiring its single parameter \texttt{R} to be a ring. Thus a “matrix of polynomials” is allowed, but “matrix of lists” is not.

Categories say nothing about representation. Domains, which are instances of category types, specify representations.

\section{Operations Can Refer To Abstract Types}

All operations have prescribed source and target types. Types can be denoted by symbols that stand for domains, called “symbolic domains.” The following lines of Axiom code use a symbolic domain \texttt{R}:

\begin{verbatim}
R: Ring
power: (R, NonNegativeInteger): R -> R
power(x, n) == x ** n
\end{verbatim}

Line 1 declares the symbol \texttt{R} to be a ring. Line 2 declares the type of \texttt{power} in terms of \texttt{R}. From the definition on line 3, \texttt{power(3, 2)} produces 9 for \texttt{x = 3} and \texttt{R = Integer}. Also, \texttt{power(3.0, 2)} produces 9.0 for \texttt{x = 3.0} and \texttt{R = Float}. \texttt{power("oxford", 2)} however fails since "oxford" has type \texttt{String} which is not a ring.

Using symbolic domains, algorithms can be defined in their most natural or general setting.

\section{Categories Form Hierarchies}

Categories form hierarchies (technically, directed-acyclic graphs). A simplified hierarchical world of algebraic categories is shown below. At the top of this world is \texttt{SetCategory}, the class of algebraic sets. The notions of parents, ancestors, and descendants is clear. Thus ordered sets (domains of category \texttt{OrderedSet}) and rings are also algebraic sets. Likewise, fields and integral domains are rings and algebraic sets. However fields and integral domains are not ordered sets.

\begin{verbatim}
SetCategory +----- Ring ---- IntegralDomain ---- Field
|                 |
\end{verbatim}
0.1.16 Domains Belong to Categories by Assertion

A category designates a class of domains. Which domains? You might think that \texttt{Ring} designates the class of all domains that export 0, 1, “+”, “−”, and “∗”. But this is not so. Each domain must \emph{assert} which categories it belongs to. The \texttt{Export} part of the definition for \texttt{Integer} reads, for example:

\begin{verbatim}
Join(OrderedSet, IntegralDomain, ...) with ...
\end{verbatim}

This definition asserts that \texttt{Integer} is both an ordered set and an integral domain. In fact, \texttt{Integer} does not explicitly export constants 0 and 1 and operations “+”, “−” and “∗” at all: it inherits them all from \texttt{Ring}. Since \texttt{IntegralDomain} is a descendant of \texttt{Ring}, \texttt{Integer} is therefore also a ring.

Assertions can be conditional. For example, \texttt{Complex(R)} defines its exports by:

\begin{verbatim}
Ring with ... if R has Field then Field ...
\end{verbatim}

Thus \texttt{Complex(Float)} is a field but \texttt{Complex(Integer)} is not since \texttt{Integer} is not a field.

You may wonder: “Why not simply let the set of operations determine whether a domain belongs to a given category?”. Axiom allows operation names (for example, \texttt{norm}) to have very different meanings in different contexts. The meaning of an operation in Axiom is determined by context. By associating operations with categories, operation names can be reused whenever appropriate or convenient to do so. As a simple example, the operation \texttt{<} might be used to denote lexicographic-comparison in an algorithm. However, it is wrong to use the same \texttt{<} with this definition of absolute-value:

\begin{verbatim}
abs(x) == if x < 0 then −x else x
\end{verbatim}

Such a definition for \texttt{abs} in Axiom is protected by context: argument \texttt{x} is required to be a member of a domain of category \texttt{OrderedSet}.

0.1.17 Packages Are Clusters of Polymorphic Operations

In Axiom, facilities for symbolic integration, solution of equations, and the like are placed in “packages”. A \emph{package} is a special kind of domain: one whose exported
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operations depend solely on the parameters of the constructor and/or explicit domains. Packages, unlike Domains, do not specify the representation.

If you want to use Axiom, for example, to define some algorithms for solving equations of polynomials over an arbitrary field $F$, you can do so with a package of the form:

$$\text{MySolve}(F: \text{Field}): \text{Exports} \Rightarrow \text{Implementation}$$

where \text{Exports} specifies the \textbf{solve} operations you wish to export from the domain and the \text{Implementation} defines functions for implementing your algorithms. Once Axiom has compiled your package, your algorithms can then be used for any $F$: floating-point numbers, rational numbers, complex rational functions, and power series, to name a few.

0.1.18 The Interpreter Builds Domains Dynamically

The Axiom interpreter reads user input then builds whatever types it needs to perform the indicated computations. For example, to create the matrix

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} x^2 + 1 & 0 \\ 0 & x/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

using the command:

$$M = \left[ \begin{array}{cc} x^2 + 1 & 0 \\ 0 & x/2 \end{array} \right]::\text{Matrix}(\text{POLY(\text{FRAC(INT)})})$$

the interpreter first loads the modules Matrix, Polynomial, Fraction, and Integer from the library, then builds the \textit{domain tower} “matrices of polynomials of rational numbers (i.e. fractions of integers)”.

You can watch the loading process by first typing

)set message autoload on

In addition to the named domains above many additional domains and categories are loaded. Most systems are preloaded with such common types. For efficiency reasons the most common domains are preloaded but most (there are more than 1100 domains, categories, and packages) are not. Once these domains are loaded they are immediately available to the interpreter.

Once a domain tower is built, it contains all the operations specific to the type. Computation proceeds by calling operations that exist in the tower. For example, suppose
that the user asks to square the above matrix. To do this, the function “*” from Matrix is passed the matrix $M$ to compute $M \ast M$. The function is also passed an environment containing $R$ that, in this case, is Polynomial (Fraction (Integer)). This results in the successive calling of the “*” operations from Polynomial, then from Fraction, and then finally from Integer.

Categories play a policing role in the building of domains. Because the argument of Matrix is required to be a Ring, Axiom will not build nonsensical types such as “matrices of input files”.

0.1.19 Axiom Code is Compiled

Axiom programs are statically compiled to machine code, then placed into library modules. Categories provide an important role in obtaining efficient object code by enabling:

- static type-checking at compile time;
- fast linkage to operations in domain-valued parameters;
- optimization techniques to be used for partially specified types (operations for “vectors of $R$”, for instance, can be open-coded even though $R$ is unknown).

0.1.20 Axiom is Extensible

Users and system implementers alike use the Axiom language to add facilities to the Axiom library. The entire Axiom library is in fact written in the Axiom source code and available for user modification and/or extension.

Axiom’s use of abstract datatypes clearly separates the exports of a domain (what operations are defined) from its implementation (how the objects are represented and operations are defined). Users of a domain can thus only create and manipulate objects through these exported operations. This allows implementers to “remove and replace” parts of the library safely by newly upgraded (and, we hope, correct) implementations without consequence to its users.

Categories protect names by context, making the same names available for use in other contexts. Categories also provide for code-economy. Algorithms can be parameterized categorically to characterize their correct and most general context. Once compiled, the same machine code is applicable in all such contexts.

Finally, Axiom provides an automatic, guaranteed interaction between new and old code. For example:

- if you write a new algorithm that requires a parameter to be a field, then your algorithm will work automatically with every field defined in the system; past, present, or future.
• if you introduce a new domain constructor that produces a field, then the objects
of that domain can be used as parameters to any algorithm using field objects
defined in the system; past, present, or future.

These are the key ideas. For further information, we particularly recommend your
reading chapters 11, 12, and 13, where these ideas are explained in greater detail.

0.2 Using Axiom as a Pocket Calculator

At the simplest level Axiom can be used as a pocket calculator where expressions
involving numbers and operators are entered directly in infix notation. In this sense
the more advanced features of the calculator can be regarded as operators (e.g \(\sin\), \(\cos\),
etc).

0.2.1 Basic Arithmetic

An example of this might be to calculate the cosine of 2.45 (in radians). To do this one
would type:

\[
\cos 2.45
\]

\[\approx 0.7702312540473073417\]

\[\text{Type: Float}\]

Before proceeding any further it would be best to explain the previous three lines.
Firstly the text “(1) \rightarrow ” is part of the prompt that the Axiom system provides when
in interactive mode. The full prompt has other text preceding this but it is not relevant
here. The number in parenthesis is the step number of the input which may be used to
refer to the results of previous calculations. The step number appears at the start of the
second line to tell you which step the result belongs to. Since the interpreter probably
loaded numerous libraries to calculate the result given above and listed each one in the
process, there could easily be several pages of text between your input and the answer.
The last line contains the type of the result. The type \texttt{Float} is used to represent real
numbers of arbitrary size and precision (where the user is able to define how big ar-
bitrary is – the default is 20 digits but can be as large as your computer system can
handle). The type of the result can help track down mistakes in your input if you don’t
get the answer you expected.

Other arithmetic operations such as addition, subtraction, and multiplication behave as
expected:

\[6.93 \times 4.1328\]
but integer division isn’t quite so obvious. For example, if one types:

\[ \frac{4}{6} \]

\[ \frac{2}{3} \]

Type: Fraction Integer

a fractional result is obtained. The function used to display fractions attempts to produce the most readable answer. In the example:

\[ \frac{4}{2} \]

\[ 2 \]

Type: Fraction Integer

the result is stored as the fraction \( \frac{2}{1} \) but is displayed as the integer 2. This fraction could be converted to type Integer with no loss of information but Axiom will not do so automatically.

### 0.2.2 Type Conversion

To obtain the floating point value of a fraction one must convert (conversions are applied by the user and coercions are applied automatically by the interpreter) the result to type Float using the “::” operator as follows:

\[ (4.6) :: Float \]

4.6
Although Axiom can convert this back to a fraction it might not be the same fraction you started with as due to rounding errors. For example, the following conversion appears to be without error but others might not:

\[
\%::\text{Fraction Integer}
\]

\[
\frac{23}{5}
\]

where “%” represents the previous result (not the calculation).

Although Axiom has the ability to work with floating-point numbers to a very high precision it must be remembered that calculations with these numbers are not exact. Since Axiom is a computer algebra package and not a numerical solutions package this should not create too many problems. The idea is that the user should use Axiom to do all the necessary symbolic manipulation and only at the end should actual numerical results be extracted.

If you bear in mind that Axiom appears to store expressions just as you have typed them and does not perform any evaluation of them unless forced to then programming in the system will be much easier. It means that anything you ask Axiom to do (within reason) will be carried with complete accuracy.

In the previous examples the “::” operator was used to convert values from one type to another. This type conversion is not possible for all values. For instance, it is not possible to convert the number 3.4 to an integer type since it can’t be represented as an integer. The number 4.0 can be converted to an integer type since it has no fractional part.

Conversion from floating point values to integers is performed using the functions \texttt{round} and \texttt{truncate}. The first of these rounds a floating point number to the nearest integer while the other truncates (i.e. removes the fractional part). Both functions return the result as a floating point number. To extract the fractional part of a floating point number use the function \texttt{fractionPart} but note that the sign of the result depends on the sign of the argument. Axiom obtains the fractional part of $x$ using $x - \text{truncate}(x)$:

\[
\text{round}(3.77623)
\]

\[4.0\]

\text{Type: Float}

\[
\text{round}(-3.77623)
\]
0.2.3 Useful Functions

To obtain the absolute value of a number the `abs` function can be used. This takes a single argument which is usually an integer or a floating point value but doesn’t necessarily have to be. The sign of a value can be obtained via the `sign` function which returns \(-1, 0, \) or \(1\) depending on the sign of the argument.

\[ \text{abs}(4) \]

\[ 4 \]

Type: PositiveInteger

\[ \text{abs}(-3) \]

\[ 3 \]
abs(-34254.12314)

34254.12314

Type: Float

sign(-49543.2345346)

-1

Type: Integer

sign(0)

0

Type: NonNegativeInteger

sign(234235.42354)

1

Type: PositiveInteger

Tests on values can be done using various functions which are generally more efficient than using relational operators such as = particularly if the value is a matrix. Examples of some of these functions are:

positive?(-234)

false

Type: Boolean

negative?(-234)

true
null

null

null

null

null
prime?(-37)

false

Type: Boolean

Some other functions that are quite useful for manipulating numerical values are:

\sin(x) \quad \text{Sine of } x
\cos(x) \quad \text{Cosine of } x
\tan(x) \quad \text{Tangent of } x
\arcsin(x) \quad \text{Arcsin of } x
\arccos(x) \quad \text{Arccos of } x
\arctan(x) \quad \text{Arctangent of } x
\gcd(x,y) \quad \text{Greatest common divisor of } x \text{ and } y
\text{lcm}(x,y) \quad \text{Lowest common multiple of } x \text{ and } y
\max(x,y) \quad \text{Maximum of } x \text{ and } y
\min(x,y) \quad \text{Minimum of } x \text{ and } y
\text{factorial}(x) \quad \text{Factorial of } x
\text{factor}(x) \quad \text{Prime factors of } x
\text{divide}(x,y) \quad \text{Quotient and remainder of } x/y

Some simple infix and prefix operators:

+ \quad \text{Addition} \quad - \quad \text{Subtraction}
- \quad \text{Numerical Negation} \quad \sim \quad \text{Logical Negation}
\text{/}\text{\textbackslash} \quad \text{Conjunction (AND)} \quad \text{\textbackslash/} \quad \text{Disjunction (OR)}
\text{and} \quad \text{Logical AND (\text{/}\text{\textbackslash})} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{Logical OR (\text{\textbackslash/})}
\text{not} \quad \text{Logical Negation} \quad ** \quad \text{Exponentiation}
* \quad \text{Multiplication} \quad / \quad \text{Division}
\text{quo} \quad \text{Quotient} \quad \text{rem} \quad \text{Remainder}
< \quad \text{less than} \quad > \quad \text{greater than}
\leq \quad \text{less than or equal} \quad \geq \quad \text{greater than or equal}

Some useful Axiom macros:

%i \quad \text{The square root of } -1
%e \quad \text{The base of the natural logarithm}
%pi \quad \text{Pi}
%\text{infinity} \quad \text{Infinity}
%\text{plusInfinity} \quad \text{Positive Infinity}
%\text{minusInfinity} \quad \text{Negative Infinity}
0.3 Using Axiom as a Symbolic Calculator

In the previous section all the examples involved numbers and simple functions. Also none of the expressions entered were assigned to anything. In this section we will move on to simple algebra (i.e. expressions involving symbols and other features available on more sophisticated calculators).

0.3.1 Expressions Involving Symbols

Expressions involving symbols are entered just as they are written down, for example:

\[ x^{\text{Squared}} := x^{\ast\ast}2 \]

\[ x^2 \]

Type: Polynomial Integer

where the assignment operator “:=” represents immediate assignment. Later it will be seen that this form of assignment is not always desirable and the use of the delayed assignment operator “==” will be introduced. The type of the result is Polynomial Integer which is used to represent polynomials with integer coefficients. Some other examples along similar lines are:

\[ x_{\text{Dummy}} := 3.21 \ast x^{\ast\ast}2 \]

\[ 3.21 x^2 \]

Type: Polynomial Float

\[ x_{\text{Dummy}} := x^{\ast\ast}2.5 \]

\[ x^2 \sqrt{x} \]

Type: Expression Float

\[ x_{\text{Dummy}} := x^{\ast\ast}3.3 \]

\[ x^3 \sqrt[3]{x} \]

Type: Expression Float
xyDummy := x**2 - y**2

\[-y^2 + x^2\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

Given that we can define expressions involving symbols, how do we actually compute the result when the symbols are assigned values? The answer is to use the \texttt{eval} function which takes an expression as its first argument followed by a list of assignments. For example, to evaluate the expressions \texttt{xDummy} and \texttt{xyDummy} resulting from their respective assignments above we type:

\texttt{eval(xDummy,x=3)}

\texttt{37.540507598529552193}

Type: Expression Float

\texttt{eval(xyDummy, [x=3, y=2.1])}

\texttt{4.59}

Type: Polynomial Float

\subsection*{0.3.2 Complex Numbers}

For many scientific calculations real numbers aren’t sufficient and support for complex numbers is also required. Complex numbers are handled in an intuitive manner and Axiom, which uses the \texttt{%i} macro to represent the square root of \(-1\). Thus expressions involving complex numbers are entered just like other expressions.

\((2/3 + %i)^3\)

\[-\frac{46}{27} + \frac{1}{3} i\]

Type: Complex Fraction Integer

The real and imaginary parts of a complex number can be extracted using the \texttt{real} and \texttt{imag} functions and the complex conjugate of a number can be obtained using \texttt{conjugate}: 
The function \texttt{factor} can also be applied to complex numbers but the results aren't quite so obvious as for factoring integer:

\begin{verbatim}
144 + 24*%i
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{144 + 24 i}

\texttt{Type: Complex Integer}

\section*{0.3.3 Number Representations}

By default all numerical results are displayed in decimal with real numbers shown to 20 significant figures. If the integer part of a number is longer than 20 digits then nothing after the decimal point is shown and the integer part is given in full. To alter the number of digits shown the function \texttt{digits} can be called. The result returned by this function is the previous setting. For example, to find the value of \(\pi\) to 40 digits we type:

\begin{verbatim}
digits(40)
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{20}

\texttt{Type: PositiveInteger}
As can be seen in the example above, there is a gap after every ten digits. This can be changed using the `outputSpacing` function where the argument is the number of digits to be displayed before a space is inserted. If no spaces are desired then use the value 0. Two other functions controlling the appearance of real numbers are `outputFloating` and `outputFixed`. The former causes Axiom to display floating-point values in exponent notation and the latter causes it to use fixed-point notation. For example:

```
outputFloating(); %

0.3141592653589793238462643383279502884197E1
```

```
outputFloating(3); 0.00345
```

```
0.345E−2
```

```
outputFixed(); %

0.00345
```

```
outputFixed(3); %

0.003
```

```
outputGeneral(); %

0.00345
```
Note that the semicolon ‘;’ in the examples above allows several expressions to be entered on one line. The result of the last expression is displayed. Remember also that the percent symbol ‘%’ is used to represent the result of a previous calculation.

To display rational numbers in a base other than 10 the function \texttt{radix} is used. The first argument of this function is the expression to be displayed and the second is the base to be used.

\begin{verbatim}
radix(10**10,32)
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{9A0NP00}

Type: RadixExpansion 32

\begin{verbatim}
radix(3/21,5)
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{0.032412}

Type: RadixExpansion 5

Rational numbers can be represented as a repeated decimal expansion using the \texttt{decimal} function or as a continued fraction using \texttt{continuedFraction}. Any attempt to call these functions with irrational values will fail.

\begin{verbatim}
decimal(22/7)
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{3.142857}

Type: DecimalExpansion

\begin{verbatim}
continuedFraction(6543/210)
\end{verbatim}

\[31 + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{3}\]

Type: ContinuedFraction Integer

Finally, partial fractions in compact and expanded form are available via the functions \texttt{partialFraction} and \texttt{padicFraction} respectively. The former takes two arguments, the first being the numerator of the fraction and the second being the denominator. The latter function takes a fraction and expands it further while the function \texttt{compactFraction} does the reverse:
To extract parts of a partial fraction the function \texttt{nthFractionalTerm} is available and returns a partial fraction of one term. To decompose this further the numerator can be obtained using \texttt{firstNumerator} and the denominator with \texttt{firstDenom}. The whole part of a partial fraction can be retrieved using \texttt{wholePart} and the number of fractional parts can be found using the function \texttt{numberOfFractionalTerms}:

```plaintext
t := partialFraction(234,40)
6 - 3/2^2 + 3/5
Type: PartialFraction Integer

wholePart(t)
```
6

Type: PositiveInteger

numberOfFractionalTerms(t)

2

Type: PositiveInteger

p := nthFractionalTerm(t,1)

\[ -\frac{3}{2^2} \]

Type: PartialFraction Integer

firstNumer(p)

-3

Type: Integer

firstDenom(p)

2^2

Type: Factored Integer

0.3.4 Modular Arithmetic

By using the type constructor \texttt{PrimeField} it is possible to do arithmetic modulo some prime number. For example, arithmetic module 7 can be performed as follows:

x : PrimeField 7 := 5

5

Type: PrimeField 7
The first example should be read as:

Let \( x \) be of type \texttt{PrimeField(7)} and assign to it the value 5.

Note that it is only possible to invert non-zero values if the arithmetic is performed modulo a prime number. Thus arithmetic modulo a non-prime integer is possible but the reciprocal operation is undefined and will generate an error. Attempting to use the \texttt{PrimeField} type constructor with a non-prime argument will generate an error. An example of non-prime modulo arithmetic is:

\[
y : \texttt{IntegerMod 8} := 11
\]

Note that polynomials can be constructed in a similar way:

\[
(3a^4 + 27a - 36) : : \texttt{Polynomial PrimeField 7}
\]

\[
3a^4 + 6a + 6
\]

Type: \texttt{Polynomial PrimeField 7}
0.4 General Points about Axiom

0.4.1 Computation Without Output

It is sometimes desirable to enter an expression and prevent Axiom from displaying the result. To do this the expression should be terminated with a semicolon “;”. In a previous section it was mentioned that a set of expressions separated by semicolons would be evaluated and the result of the last one displayed. Thus if a single expression is followed by a semicolon no output will be produced (except for its type):

\[
2 + 4*5;
\]

Type: PositiveInteger

0.4.2 Accessing Earlier Results

The “%” macro represents the result of the previous computation. The “%%” macro is available which takes a single integer argument. If the argument is positive then it refers to the step number of the calculation where the numbering begins from one and can be seen at the end of each prompt (the number in parentheses). If the argument is negative then it refers to previous results counting backwards from the last result. That is, “%%(-1)” is the same as “%”. The value of “%%(0)” is not defined and will generate an error if requested.

0.4.3 Splitting Expressions Over Several Lines

Although Axiom will quite happily accept expressions that are longer than the width of the screen (just keep typing without pressing the Return key) it is often preferable to split the expression being entered at a point where it would result in more readable input. To do this the underscore “_” symbol is placed before the break point and then the Return key is pressed. The rest of the expression is typed on the next line, can be preceded by any number of whitespace chars, for example:

\[
2_\_ \\
+ _ \\
3
\]

Type: PositiveInteger
The underscore symbol is an escape character and its presence alters the meaning of the characters that follow it. As mentioned above whitespace following an underscore is ignored (the Return key generates a whitespace character). Any other character following an underscore loses whatever special meaning it may have had. Thus one can create the identifier “a+b” by typing “a_+b” although this might lead to confusions. Also note the result of the following example:

ThisIsAVeryLong_
VariableName

ThisIsAVeryLongVariableName

Type: Variable ThisIsAVeryLongVariableName

0.4.4 Comments and Descriptions

Comments and descriptions are really only of use in files of Axiom code but can be used when the output of an interactive session is being spooled to a file (via the system command \texttt{spool}). A comment begins with two dashes “- -” and continues until the end of the line. Multi-line comments are only possible if each individual line begins with two dashes.

Descriptions are the same as comments except that the Axiom compiler will include them in the object files produced and make them available to the end user for documentation purposes.

A description is placed before a calculation begins with three “+++” signs and a description placed after a calculation begins with two plus symbols “+”. The so-called “plus plus” comments are used within the algebra files and are processed by the compiler to add to the documentation. The so-called “minus minus” comments are ignored everywhere.

0.4.5 Control of Result Types

In earlier sections the type of an expression was converted to another via the “::” operator. However, this is not the only method for converting between types and two other operators need to be introduced and explained.

The first operator is “$” and is used to specify the package to be used to calculate the result. Thus:

\[(2/3)$\texttt{Float} \]

\[0.6666666666 6666666667\]
Type:  Float

tells Axiom to use the “/” operator from the Float package to evaluate the expression 2/3. This does not necessarily mean that the result will be of the same type as the domain from which the operator was taken. In the following example the sign operator is taken from the Float package but the result is of type Integer.

%102: sign(2.3)$Float
Type:  Integer

The other operator is “@” which is used to tell Axiom what the desired type of the result of the calculation is. In most situations all three operators yield the same results but the example below should help distinguish them.

%103: (2 + 3)::String
"5"
Type:  String

(2 + 3)@String

An expression involving @ String actually evaluated to one of type PositiveInteger. Perhaps you should use :: String.

(2 + 3)$String

The function + is not implemented in String.

If an expression X is converted using one of the three operators to type T the interpretations are:
:: means explicitly convert X to type T if possible.
$ means use the available operators for type T to compute X.
@ means choose operators to compute X so that the result is of type T.

0.5 Data Structures in Axiom

This chapter is an overview of some of the data structures provided by Axiom.
0.5.1 Lists

The Axiom List type constructor is used to create homogenous lists of finite size. The notation for lists and the names of the functions that operate over them are similar to those found in functional languages such as ML.

Lists can be created by placing a comma separated list of values inside square brackets or if a list with just one element is desired then the function list is available:

```
[4]
```

```
[4]
Type: List PositiveInteger
```

```
list(4)
```

```
[4]
Type: List PositiveInteger
```

```
[1,2,3,5,7,11]
```

```
[1,2,3,5,7,11]
Type: List PositiveInteger
```

The function append takes two lists as arguments and returns the list consisting of the second argument appended to the first. A single element can be added to the front of a list using cons:

```
append([1,2,3,5],[7,11])
```

```
[1,2,3,5,7,11]
Type: List PositiveInteger
```

```
cons(23,[65,42,19])
```

```
[23,65,42,19]
Type: List PositiveInteger
```
Lists are accessed sequentially so if Axiom is asked for the value of the twentieth element in the list it will move from the start of the list over nineteen elements before it reaches the desired element. Each element of a list is stored as a node consisting of the value of the element and a pointer to the rest of the list. As a result the two main operations on a list are called \texttt{first} and \texttt{rest}. Both of these functions take a second optional argument which specifies the length of the first part of the list:

\begin{verbatim}
first([1,5,6,2,3])
1
Type: PositiveInteger

first([1,5,6,2,3],2)
[1,5]
Type: List PositiveInteger

rest([1,5,6,2,3])
[5,6,2,3]
Type: List PositiveInteger

rest([1,5,6,2,3],2)
[6,2,3]
Type: List PositiveInteger
\end{verbatim}

Other functions are \texttt{empty?} which tests to see if a list contains no elements, \texttt{member?} which tests to see if the first argument is a member of the second, \texttt{reverse} which reverses the order of the list, \texttt{sort} which sorts a list, and \texttt{removeDuplicates} which removes any duplicates. The length of a list can be obtained using the “\#” operator.

\begin{verbatim}
empty?([7,2,-1,2])
false
Type: Boolean
\end{verbatim}
member?(-1,[7,2,-1,2])

\texttt{true}

Type: Boolean

reverse([7,2,-1,2])

\[2,-1,2,7]\]

Type: List Integer

sort([7,2,-1,2])

\[-1,2,2,7]\]

Type: List Integer

removeDuplicates([1,5,3,5,1,1,2])

\[1,5,3,2]\]

Type: List PositiveInteger

#\[7,2,-1,2]\]

4

Type: PositiveInteger

Lists in Axiom are mutable and so their contents (the elements and the links) can be modified in place. Functions that operator over lists in this way have names ending in the symbol “!”. For example, \texttt{concat!} takes two lists as arguments and appends the second argument to the first (except when the first argument is an empty list) and \texttt{setrest!} changes the link emanating from the first argument to point to the second argument:

\texttt{u := [9,2,4,7]}

\[9,2,4,7]\]
Type: List PositiveInteger

concat!(u,[1,5,42]); u

[9,2,4,7,1,5,42]

Type: List PositiveInteger

endOfu := rest(u,4)

[1,5,42]

Type: List PositiveInteger

part0fu := rest(u,2)

[4,7,1,5,42]

Type: List PositiveInteger

setrest!(endOfu,part0fu); u

[9,2,4,7,1]

Type: List PositiveInteger

From this it can be seen that the lists returned by first and rest are pointers to the original list and not a copy. Thus great care must be taken when dealing with lists in Axiom.

Although the nth element of the list l can be obtained by applying the first function to n – 1 applications of rest to l, Axiom provides a more useful access method in the form of the “." operator:

u.3

Type: PositiveInteger
The operation \( u.i \) is referred to as *indexing into* \( u \) or *elting into* \( u \). The latter term comes from the \texttt{elt} function which is used to extract elements (the first element of the list is at index 1).

\texttt{elt}(u,4)
If a list has no cycles then any attempt to access an element beyond the end of the list
will generate an error. However, in the example above there was a cycle starting at
the third element so the access to the sixth element wrapped around to give the third
element. Since lists are mutable it is possible to modify elements directly:

\[ u.3 := 42; u \]

\[ [9, 2, 42, 7, 1] \]

Type: List PositiveInteger

Other list operations are:

\[ L := [9, 3, 4, 7]; \#L \]

4

Type: PositiveInteger

last(L)

7

Type: PositiveInteger

L.last

7

Type: PositiveInteger

L.(#L - 1)

4

Type: PositiveInteger

Note that using the “#” operator on a list with cycles causes Axiom to enter an infinite
loop.

Note that any operation on a list \( L \) that returns a list \( LL' \) will, in general, be such that
any changes to \( LL' \) will have the side-effect of altering \( L \). For example:
\[ m := \text{rest}(L, 2) \]

\[ [4, 7] \]

Type: List PositiveInteger

\[ m.1 := 20; L \]

\[ [9, 3, 20, 7] \]

Type: List PositiveInteger

\[ n := L \]

\[ [9, 3, 20, 7] \]

Type: List PositiveInteger

\[ n.2 := 99; L \]

\[ [9, 99, 20, 7] \]

Type: List PositiveInteger

Thus the only safe way of copying lists is to copy each element from one to another and not use the assignment operator:

\[ p := \{i \text{ for } i \in n\} \text{ - Same as } 'p := \text{copy(n)}' \]

\[ [9, 99, 20, 7] \]

Type: List PositiveInteger
In the previous example a new way of constructing lists was given. This is a powerful method which gives the reader more information about the contents of the list than before and which is extremely flexible. The example

\[ \{i \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..10\} \]

\[ \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\} \]

Type: List PositiveInteger

should be read as

“Using the expression \(i\), generate each element of the list by iterating the symbol \(i\) over the range of integers \([1,10]\)”

To generate the list of the squares of the first ten elements we just use:

\[ \{i**2 \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..10\} \]

\[ \{1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100\} \]

Type: List PositiveInteger

For more complex lists we can apply a condition to the elements that are to be placed into the list to obtain a list of even numbers between 0 and 11:

\[ \{i \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..10 \mid \text{even?(i)}\} \]

\[ \{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\} \]
This example should be read as:

“Using the expression \( i \), generate each element of the list by iterating the symbol \( i \) over the range of integers \([1,10]\) such that \( i \) is even”

The following achieves the same result:

\[
[i \text{ for } i \text{ in } 2..10 \text{ by } 2]
\]

\[ [2,4,6,8,10] \]

\[ \text{Type: List PositiveInteger} \]

0.5.2 Segmented Lists

A segmented list is one in which some of the elements are ranges of values. The \texttt{expand} function converts lists of this type into ordinary lists:

\[
[1..10]
\]

\[ [1..10] \]

\[ \text{Type: List Segment PositiveInteger} \]

\[
[1..3,5,6,8..10]
\]

\[ [1..3,5..5,6..6,8..10] \]

\[ \text{Type: List Segment PositiveInteger} \]

\texttt{expand(\%)}

\[ [1,2,3,5,6,8,9,10] \]

\[ \text{Type: List Integer} \]

If the upper bound of a segment is omitted then a different type of segmented list is obtained and expanding it will produce a stream (which will be considered in the next section):
0.5.3 Streams

Streams are infinite lists which have the ability to calculate the next element should it be required. For example, a stream of positive integers and a list of prime numbers can be generated by:

\[ \text{[i for i in 1..]} \quad [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,\ldots] \]

Type: \( \text{Stream PositiveInteger} \)

Another method of creating streams is to use the `generate(f,a)` function. This applies its first argument repeatedly onto its second to produce the stream \([a, f(a), f(f(a)), f(f(f(a)))\ldots]\). Given that the function `nextPrime` returns the lowest prime number greater than its argument we can generate a stream of primes as follows:

\( \text{generate(nextPrime,2)} \)$Stream Integer
As a longer example a stream of Fibonacci numbers will be computed. The Fibonacci numbers start at 1 and each following number is the addition of the two numbers that precede it so the Fibonacci sequence is:

\[1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, \ldots\]

Since the generation of any Fibonacci number only relies on knowing the previous two numbers we can look at the series through a window of two elements. To create the series the window is placed at the start over the values \([1, 1]\) and their sum obtained. The window is now shifted to the right by one position and the sum placed into the empty slot of the window; the process is then repeated. To implement this we require a function that takes a list of two elements (the current view of the window), adds them, and outputs the new window. The result is the function \([a, b] \rightarrow [b, a + b]\):

\[
\text{win} : \text{List Integer} \rightarrow \text{List Integer}
\]

\[
\text{Type: Void}
\]

\[
\text{win}(x) == [x.2, x.1 + x.2]
\]

\[
\text{Type: Void}
\]

\[
\text{win}([1, 1])
\]

\[
[1, 2]
\]

\[
\text{Type: List Integer}
\]

\[
\text{win}(\%)\]

\[
[2, 3]
\]

\[
\text{Type: List Integer}
\]

Thus it can be seen that repeatedly applying \textbf{win} to the results of the previous invocation each element of the series is obtained. Clearly \textbf{win} is an ideal function to construct streams using the \textbf{generate} function:
fibs := [generate(win,[1,1])]  
[[1, 1], [1, 2], [2, 3], [3, 5], [5, 8], [8, 13], [13, 21], [21, 34], [34, 55], [55, 89], ...]  
Type: Stream List Integer

This isn’t quite what is wanted – we need to extract the first element of each list and place that in our series:

fibls := [i.1 for i in [generate(win,[1,1])]]

[1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, ...]  
Type: Stream Integer

Obtaining the 200th Fibonacci number is trivial:

fibls.200

280571172992510140037611932413038677189525

Type: PositiveInteger

One other function of interest is complete which expands a finite stream derived from an infinite one (and thus was still stored as an infinite stream) to form a finite stream.

0.5.4 Arrays, Vectors, Strings, and Bits

The simplest array data structure is the one-dimensional array which can be obtained by applying the oneDimensionalArray function to a list:

oneDimensionalArray([7,2,5,4,1,9])

[7,2,5,4,1,9]  
Type: OneDimensionalArray PositiveInteger

One-dimensional array are homogenous (all elements must have the same type) and mutable (elements can be changed) like lists but unlike lists they are constant in size and have uniform access times (it is just as quick to read the last element of a one-dimensional array as it is to read the first; this is not true for lists).

Since these arrays are mutable all the warnings that apply to lists apply to arrays. That is, it is possible to modify an element in a copy of an array and change the original:
x := oneDimensionalArray([7,2,5,4,1,9])

[7,2,5,4,1,9]
Type: OneDimensionalArray PositiveInteger

y := x

[7,2,5,4,1,9]
Type: OneDimensionalArray PositiveInteger

y.3 := 20 ; x

[7,2,20,4,1,9]
Type: OneDimensionalArray PositiveInteger

Note that because these arrays are of fixed size the concat! function cannot be applied to them without generating an error. If arrays of this type are required use the FlexibleArray constructor.

One-dimensional arrays can be created using new which specifies the size of the array and the initial value for each of the elements. Other operations that can be applied to one-dimensional arrays are map! which applies a mapping onto each element, swap! which swaps two elements and copyInto!(a,b,c) which copies the array b onto a starting at position c.

a : ARRAY1 PositiveInteger := new(10,3)

[3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3,3]
Type: OneDimensionalArray PositiveInteger

(note that ARRAY1 is an abbreviation for the type OneDimensionalArray.) Other types based on one-dimensional arrays are Vector, String, and Bits.

map!(i ++> i+1,a); a

[4,4,4,4,4,4,4,4,4,4]
Type: OneDimensionalArray PositiveInteger
b := oneDimensionalArray([2,3,4,5,6])

[2,3,4,5,6]
Type: OneDimensionalArray PositiveInteger

swap!(b,2,3); b

[2,4,3,5,6]
Type: OneDimensionalArray PositiveInteger

copyInto!(a,b,3)

[4,4,2,4,3,5,6,4,4,4]
Type: OneDimensionalArray PositiveInteger

a

[4,4,2,4,3,5,6,4,4,4]
Type: OneDimensionalArray PositiveInteger

vector([1/2,1/3,1/14])

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 \\
2 & 3 & 14
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Type: Vector Fraction Integer

"Hello, World"

"Hello, World"
Type: String

bits(8,true)

"11111111"
Type: Bits

A vector is similar to a one-dimensional array except that if its components belong to a ring then arithmetic operations are provided.
0.5.5 Flexible Arrays

Flexible arrays are designed to provide the efficiency of one-dimensional arrays while retaining the flexibility of lists. They are implemented by allocating a fixed block of storage for the array. If the array needs to be expanded then a larger block of storage is allocated and the contents of the old block are copied into the new one.

There are several operations that can be applied to this type, most of which modify the array in place. As a result these functions all have names ending in “!”.

The `physicalLength` returns the actual length of the array as stored in memory while the `physicalLength!”` allows this value to be changed by the user.

```lisp
f : FARRAY INT := new(6,1)

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 \\
1 \\
1 \\
1 \\
1 \\
1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: FlexibleArray Integer

f.1:=4; f.2:=3 ; f.3:=8 ; f.5:=2 ; f

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
4 \\
3 \\
8 \\
1 \\
2 \\
1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: FlexibleArray Integer

insert!(42,f,3); f

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
4 \\
3 \\
42 \\
8 \\
1 \\
2 \\
1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: FlexibleArray Integer

insert!(28,f,8); f

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
4 \\
3 \\
42 \\
8 \\
1 \\
2 \\
1 \\
28 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: FlexibleArray Integer

removeDuplicates!(f)

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
4 \\
3 \\
42 \\
8 \\
1 \\
2 \\
28 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: FlexibleArray Integer
```
delete!(f,5)  

[4, 3, 42, 8, 2, 28]  
Type: FlexibleArray Integer

g:=f(3..5)  

[42, 8, 2]  
Type: FlexibleArray Integer

g.2:=7; f  

[4, 3, 42, 8, 2, 28]  
Type: FlexibleArray Integer

insert!(g,f,1)  

[42, 7, 2, 4, 3, 42, 8, 2, 28]  
Type: FlexibleArray Integer

physicalLength(f)  

10  
Type: PositiveInteger

physicalLength!(f,20)  

[42, 7, 2, 4, 3, 42, 8, 2, 28]  
Type: FlexibleArray Integer

merge!(sort!(f),sort!(g))
There are several things to point out concerning these examples. First, although flexible arrays are mutable, making copies of these arrays creates separate entities. This can be seen by the fact that the modification of element \( b.2 \) above did not alter \( a \). Second, the \texttt{merge!} function can take an extra argument before the two arrays are merged. The argument is a comparison function and defaults to \( "\leq" \) if omitted. Lastly, \texttt{shrinkable} tells the system whether or not to let flexible arrays contract when elements are deleted from them. An explicit package reference must be given as in the example above.

### 0.6 Functions, Choices, and Loops

By now the reader should be able to construct simple one-line expressions involving variables and different data structures. This section builds on this knowledge and shows how to use iteration, make choices, and build functions in Axiom. At the moment it is assumed that the reader has a rough idea of how types are specified and constructed so that they can follow the examples given.

From this point on most examples will be taken from input files.

#### 0.6.1 Reading Code from a File

Input files contain code that will be fed to the command prompt. The primary different between the command line and an input file is that indentation matters. In an input file you can specify “piles” of code by using indentation.

The names of all input files in Axiom should end in “.input” otherwise Axiom will refuse to read them.

If an input file is named \texttt{foo.input} you can feed the contents of the file to the command prompt (as though you typed them) by writing: \texttt{)read foo.input}.

It is good practice to start each input file with the \texttt{)clear all} command so that all functions and variables in the current environment are erased.
0.6.2 Blocks

The Axiom constructs that provide looping, choices, and user-defined functions all rely on the notion of blocks. A block is a sequence of expressions which are evaluated in the order that they appear except when it is modified by control expressions such as loops. To leave a block prematurely use an expression of the form: \( \text{BoolExpr} \implies \text{Expr} \) where \( \text{BoolExpr} \) is any Axiom expression that has type \( \text{Boolean} \). The value and type of \( \text{Expr} \) determines the value and type returned by the block.

If blocks are entered at the keyboard (as opposed to reading them from a text file) then there is only one way of creating them. The syntax is:

\[
(\text{expression}_1; \text{expression}_2; \ldots; \text{expression}_N)
\]

In an input file a block can be constructed as above or by placing all the statements at the same indentation level. When indentation is used to indicate program structure the block is called a pile. As an example of a simple block a list of three integers can be constructed using parentheses:

\[
(\ a:=4; \ b:=1; \ c:=9; \ L:=[a,b,c])
\]

\[
[4,1,9]
\]

Type: List PositiveInteger

Doing the same thing using piles in an input file you could type:

\[
L :=
\ a:=4
\ b:=1
\ c:=9
\ [a,b,c]
\]

\[
[4,1,9]
\]

Type: List PositiveInteger

Since blocks have a type and a value they can be used as arguments to functions or as part of other expressions. It should be pointed out that the following example is not recommended practice but helps to illustrate the idea of blocks and their ability to return values:

\[
\text{sqrt}(4.0 +
\ a:=3.0
\ b:=1.0
\ c:=a + b
\ c
\}
\]
Note that indentation is extremely important. If the example above had the pile starting at “a:=” moved left by two spaces so that the “a” was under the “(” of the first line then the interpreter would signal an error. Furthermore if the closing parenthesis “)” is moved up to give

```plaintext
sqrt(4.0 + 
a:=3.0
b:=1.0
c:=a + b
c)
```

Line 1: sqrt(4.0 + 
.....A
Error A: Missing mate.
Line 2: a:=3.0
Line 3: b:=1.0
Line 4: c:=a + b
Line 5: c)
       ........AB
Error A: (from A up to B) Ignored.
Error B: Improper syntax.
Error B: syntax error at top level
Error B: Possibly missing a )
5 error(s) parsing

then the parser will generate errors. If the parenthesis is shifted right by several spaces so that it is in line with the “c” thus:

```plaintext
sqrt(4.0 +
a:=3.0
b:=1.0
c:=a + b
c)
```

Line 1: sqrt(4.0 +
.....A
Error A: Missing mate.
Line 2: a:=3.0
Line 3: b:=1.0
Line 4: c:=a + b

Line  5:    c  
Line  6:    )
       .......A
Error A: (from A up to A) Ignored.
Error A: Improper syntax.
Error A: syntax error at top level
Error A: Possibly missing a )
5 error(s) parsing

a similar error will be raised. Finally, the ")" must be indented by at least one space relative to the sqrt thus:

sqrt(4.0 +
    a:=3.0
    b:=1.0
    c:=a + b
    c
)}

2.8284271247 461900976

Type: Float

or an error will be generated.

It can be seen that great care needs to be taken when constructing input files consisting of piles of expressions. It would seem prudent to add one pile at a time and check if it is acceptable before adding more, particularly if piles are nested. However, it should be pointed out that the use of piles as values for functions is not very readable and so perhaps the delicate nature of their interpretation should deter programmers from using them in these situations. Using piles should really be restricted to constructing functions, etc. and a small amount of rewriting can remove the need to use them as arguments. For example, the previous block could easily be implemented as:

a:=3.0
b:=1.0
c:=a + b
sqrt(4.0 + c)

a:=3.0

3.0

Type: Float
b:=1.0

1.0
Type: Float

c:=a + b

4.0
Type: Float

sqrt(4.0 + c)

2.8284271247 461900976
Type: Float

which achieves the same result and is easier to understand. Note that this is still a pile but it is not as fragile as the previous version.

0.6.3 Functions

Definitions of functions in Axiom are quite simple providing two things are observed. First, the type of the function must either be completely specified or completely unspecified. Second, the body of the function is assigned to the function identifier using the delayed assignment operator “==”.

To specify the type of something the “::” operator is used. Thus to define a variable x to be of type Fraction Integer we enter:

x : Fraction Integer
Type: Void

For functions the method is the same except that the arguments are placed in parentheses and the return type is placed after the symbol “->”. Some examples of function definitions taking zero, one, two, or three arguments and returning a list of integers are:

f : () -> List Integer
Now the actual function definitions might be:

\[ f() = [ ] \]

\[ g(a) = [a] \]

\[ h(a,b) = [a,b] \]

\[ k(a,b,c) = [a,b,c] \]

with some invocations of these functions:
f()

Compiling function f with type () -> List Integer

[ ]

Type: List Integer

g(4)

Compiling function g with type Integer -> List Integer

[4]

Type: List Integer

h(2,9)

Compiling function h with type (Integer,Integer) -> List Integer

[2,9]

Type: List Integer

k(-3,42,100)

Compiling function k with type (Integer,Integer,Integer) -> List Integer

[−3,42,100]

Type: List Integer

The value returned by a function is either the value of the last expression evaluated or
the result of a return statement. For example, the following are effectively the same:

p : Integer -> Integer
Note that a block (pile) is assigned to the function identifier \( p \) and thus all the rules about blocks apply to function definitions. Also there was only one argument so the parentheses are not needed.

This is basically all that one needs to know about defining functions in Axiom – first specify the complete type and then assign a block to the function name. The rest of this section is concerned with defining more complex blocks than those in this section and as a result function definitions will crop up continually particularly since they are a good way of testing examples. Since the block structure is more complex we will use the **pile** notation and thus have to use input files to read the piles.

### 0.6.4 Choices

Apart from the “\( \Rightarrow \)" operator that allows a block to exit before the end Axiom provides the standard **if-then-else** construct. The general syntax is:

\[
\text{if BooleanExpr then Expr1 else Expr2}
\]

where “\( \text{else } \text{Expr2} \)” can be omitted. If the expression \( \text{BooleanExpr} \) evaluates to true then \( \text{Expr1} \) is executed otherwise \( \text{Expr2} \) (if present) will be executed. An example of piles and **if-then-else** is: (read from an input file)

```axiom
h := 2.0
if h > 3.1 then
    1.0
else
    z := cos(h)
    max(x, 0.5)

h := 2.0
```

2.0
if \( h > 3.1 \) then
  1.0
else
  \( z := \cos(h) \)
  \( \max(x, 0.5) \)

Note the indentation – the “else” must be indented relative to the “if” otherwise it will generate an error (Axiom will think there are two piles, the second one beginning with “else”).

Any expression that has type Boolean can be used as BooleanExpr and the most common will be those involving the relational operators “\( > \)”, “\( < \)”, and “\( = \)”. Usually the type of an expression involving the equality operator “\( = \)” will be Boolean but in those situations when it isn’t you may need to use the “@” operator to ensure that it is.

0.6.5 Loops

Loops in Axiom are regarded as expressions containing another expression called the loop body. The loop body is executed zero or more times depending on the kind of loop. Loops can be nested to any depth.

The repeat loop

The simplest kind of loop provided by Axiom is the repeat loop. The general syntax of this is:

\[ \text{repeat } \text{loopBody} \]

This will cause Axiom to execute \( \text{loopBody} \) repeatedly until either a break or return statement is encountered. If \( \text{loopBody} \) contains neither of these statements then it will loop forever. The following piece of code will display the numbers from 1 to 4:

\[
i := 1
\text{repeat}
  \text{if } i > 4 \text{ then break}
  \text{output}(i)
  i := i + 1
\]

\[
i := 1
\]
It was mentioned that loops will only be left when either a break or return statement is encountered so why can’t one use the “=>” operator? The reason is that the “=>” operator tells Axiom to leave the current block whereas break leaves the current loop. The return statement leave the current function.

To skip the rest of a loop body and continue the next iteration of the loop use the iterate statement (the – starts a comment in Axiom)

```axiom
i := 0
repeat
    i := i + 1
    if i > 6 then break
    -- Return to start if i is odd
    if odd?(i) then iterate
    output(i)

i := 0
```

0

Type: NonNegativeInteger
The while loop

The while statement extends the basic repeat loop to place the control of leaving the loop at the start rather than have it buried in the middle. Since the body of the loop is still part of a repeat loop, break and "=>" work in the same way as in the previous section. The general syntax of a while loop is:

while BoolExpr repeat loopBody

As before, BoolExpr must be an expression of type Boolean. Before the body of the loop is executed BoolExpr is tested. If it evaluates to true then the loop body is entered otherwise the loop is terminated. Multiple conditions can be applied using the logical operators such as and or by using several while statements before the repeat.

```plaintext
x := 1
y := 1
while x < 4 and y < 10 repeat
    output [x, y]
    x := x + 1
    y := y + 2
```

```plaintext
x := 1
```

Type: PositiveInteger

```plaintext
y := 1
```

Type: PositiveInteger

```plaintext
while x < 4 and y < 10 repeat
    output [x, y]
    x := x + 1
```
y := y + 2

[1,1]
[2,3]
[3,5]

Type: Void

x:=1
y:=1
while x < 4 while y < 10 repeat
output [x,y]
x := x + 1
y := y + 2

Type: PositiveInteger

x:=1

1

Type: PositiveInteger

y:=1

1

Type: PositiveInteger

while x < 4 while y < 10 repeat
output [x,y]
x := x + 1
y := y + 2

[1,1]
[2,3]
[3,5]

Type: Void

Note that the last example using two while statements is not a nested loop but the following one is:
Suppose we that, given a matrix of arbitrary size, find the position and value of the first negative element by examining the matrix in row-major order:

```
m := matrix [ [ 21, 37, 53, 14 ], _
               [ 8, 22, -24, 16 ], _
               [ 2, 10, 15, 14 ], _
               [ 26, 33, 55, -13 ] ]
```
lastrow := nrows(m)
lastcol := ncols(m)
r := 1
while r <= lastrow repeat
  c := 1 -- Index of first column
  while c <= lastcol repeat
    if elt(m,r,c) < 0 then
      output [r,c,elt(m,r,c)]
      r := lastrow
      break -- Don’t look any further
    c := c + 1
  r := r + 1

m := matrix [ [ 21, 37, 53, 14 ],
              [ 8, 22, -24, 16 ],
              [ 2, 10, 15, 14 ],
              [ 26, 33, 55, -13 ] ]
  Type: Matrix Integer

lastrow := nrows(m)

4
  Type: PositiveInteger

lastcol := ncols(m)

4
  Type: PositiveInteger

r := 1

1
  Type: PositiveInteger
while r <= lastrow repeat
    c := 1 -- Index of first column
    while c <= lastcol repeat
        if elt(m,r,c) < 0 then
            output [r,c,elt(m,r,c)]
            r := lastrow
            break -- Don’t look any further
        c := c + 1
        r := r + 1
    [2,3,- 24]
    Type: Void

The for loop

The last loop statement of interest is the for loop. There are two ways of creating a for loop. The first way uses either a list or a segment:

```
for var in seg repeat loopBody
for var in list repeat loopBody
```

where var is an index variable which is iterated over the values in seg or list. The value seg is a segment such as 1...10 or 1... and list is a list of some type. For example:

```
for i in 1..10 repeat
    ~prime?(i) => iterate
    output(i)
```

```
for i in 1..10 repeat
    ~prime?(i) => iterate
    output(i)
```

```
2
3
5
7
```

Type: Void

```
for w in ["This", "is", "your", "life!"] repeat
    output(w)
```
for w in ["This", "is", "your", "life!"] repeat
  output(w)

  This
  is
  your
  life!

  Type: Void

The second form of the for loop syntax includes a “such that” clause which must be of type Boolean:

    for var | BoolExpr in seg repeat loopBody
    for var | BoolExpr in list repeat loopBody

Some examples are:

for i in 1..10 | prime?(i) repeat
  output(i)

for i in 1..10 | prime?(i) repeat
  output(i)

  2
  3
  5
  7

  Type: Void

for i in [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10] | prime?(i) repeat
  output(i)

for i in [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10] | prime?(i) repeat
  output(i)

  2
  3
  5
  7

  Type: Void
You can also use a `while` clause:

```plaintext
for i in 1.. while i < 7 repeat
  if even?(i) then output(i)
```

```
for i in 1.. while i < 7 repeat
  if even?(i) then output(i)
```

```plaintext
2
4
6
```

Type: Void

Using the "such that" clause makes this appear simpler:

```plaintext
for i in 1.. | even?(i) while i < 7 repeat
  output(i)
```

```
\begin{verbatim}
for i in 1.. | even?(i) while i < 7 repeat
  output(i)
```

```plaintext
2
4
6
```

Type: Void

You can use multiple `for` clauses to iterate over several sequences in parallel:

```plaintext
for a in 1..4 for b in 5..8 repeat
  output [a,b]
```

```
for a in 1..4 for b in 5..8 repeat
  output [a,b]
```

```
[1,5]
[2,6]
[3,7]
[4,8]
```

Type: Void
As a general point it should be noted that any symbols referred to in the “such that” and while clauses must be pre-defined. This either means that the symbols must have been defined in an outer level (e.g. in an enclosing loop) or in a for clause appearing before the “such that” or while. For example:

```plaintext
for a in 1..4 repeat
    for b in 7..9 | prime?(a+b) repeat
        output [a,b,a+b]
```

```
for a in 1..4 repeat
    for b in 7..9 | prime?(a+b) repeat
        output [a,b,a+b]
```

```
[2,9,11]
[3,8,11]
[4,7,11]
[4,9,13]
```

Type: Void

Finally, the for statement has a by clause to specify the step size. This makes it possible to iterate over the segment in reverse order:

```plaintext
for a in 1..4 for b in 8..5 by -1 repeat
    output [a,b]
```

```
for a in 1..4 for b in 8..5 by -1 repeat
    output [a,b]
```

```
[1,8]
[2,7]
[3,6]
[4,5]
```

Type: Void

Note that without the “by -1” the segment 8..5 is empty so there is nothing to iterate over and the loop exits immediately.
Chapter 1

An Overview of Axiom

Welcome to the Axiom environment for interactive computation and problem solving. Consider this chapter a brief, whirlwind tour of the Axiom world. We introduce you to Axiom’s graphics and the Axiom language. Then we give a sampling of the large variety of facilities in the Axiom system, ranging from the various kinds of numbers, to data types (like lists, arrays, and sets) and mathematical objects (like matrices, integrals, and differential equations). We conclude with the discussion of system commands and an interactive “undo.”

Before embarking on the tour, we need to brief those readers working interactively with Axiom on some details.

1.1 Starting Up and Winding Down

You need to know how to start the Axiom system and how to stop it. We assume that Axiom has been correctly installed on your machine (as described in another Axiom document).

To begin using Axiom, issue the command axiom to the Axiom operating system shell. There is a brief pause, some start-up messages, and then one or more windows appear. If you are not running Axiom under the X Window System, there is only one window (the console). At the lower left of the screen there is a prompt that looks like

\[(1) \rightarrow\]

When you want to enter input to Axiom, you do so on the same line after the prompt. The “1” in “(1)”, also called the equation number, is the computation step number and is incremented after you enter Axiom statements. Note, however, that a system command such as \texttt{\textbackslash clear all} may change the step number in other ways. We talk about step numbers more when we discuss system commands and the workspace history facility.
CHAPTER 1. AN OVERVIEW OF AXIOM

If you are running Axiom under the X Window System, there may be two windows: the console window (as just described) and the HyperDoc main menu. HyperDoc is a multiple-window hypertext system that lets you view Axiom documentation and examples on-line, execute Axiom expressions, and generate graphics. If you are in a graphical windowing environment, it is usually started automatically when Axiom begins. If it is not running, issue )hd to start it. We discuss the basics of HyperDoc in Chapter 3 on page 170.

To interrupt an Axiom computation, hold down the Ctrl (control) key and press c. This brings you back to the Axiom prompt.

To exit from Axiom, move to the console window, type )quit at the input prompt and press the Enter key. You will probably be prompted with the following message:

Please enter y or yes if you really want to leave the interactive environment and return to the operating system

You should respond yes, for example, to exit Axiom.

We are purposely vague in describing exactly what your screen looks like or what messages Axiom displays. Axiom runs on a number of different machines, operating systems and window environments, and these differences all affect the physical look of the system. You can also change the way that Axiom behaves via system commands described later in this chapter and in Appendix A. System commands are special commands, like )set, that begin with a closing parenthesis and are used to change your environment. For example, you can set a system variable so that you are not prompted for confirmation when you want to leave Axiom.

1.1.1 Clef

If you are using Axiom under the X Window System, the Clef command line editor is probably available and installed. With this editor you can recall previous lines with the up and down arrow keys. To move forward and backward on a line, use the right and left arrows. You can use the Insert key to toggle insert mode on or off. When you are in insert mode, the cursor appears as a large block and if you type anything, the characters are inserted into the line without deleting the previous ones.

If you press the Home key, the cursor moves to the beginning of the line and if you press the End key, the cursor moves to the end of the line. Pressing Ctrl-End deletes all the text from the cursor to the end of the line.

Clef also provides Axiom operation name completion for a limited set of operations. If you enter a few letters and then press the Tab key, Clef tries to use those letters as the prefix of an Axiom operation name. If a name appears and it is not what you want, press Tab again to see another name.

You are ready to begin your journey into the world of Axiom.


1.2 Typographic Conventions

In this document we have followed these typographical conventions:

- Categories, domains and packages are displayed in this font: Ring, Integer, DiophantineSolutionPackage.
- Prefix operators, infix operators, and punctuation symbols in the Axiom language are displayed in the text like this: +, $, +->.
- Axiom expressions or expression fragments are displayed in this font:
  \[ \text{inc}(x) \equiv x + 1. \]
- For clarity of presentation, \TeX{} is often used to format expressions
  \[ g(x) = x^2 + 1. \]
- Function names and HyperDoc button names are displayed in the text in this font: \texttt{factor}, \texttt{integrate}, \texttt{Lighting}.
- Italics are used for emphasis and for words defined in the glossary: \texttt{category}.

This document contains over 2500 examples of Axiom input and output. All examples were run though Axiom and their output was created in \TeX{} form by the Axiom TexFormat package. We have deleted system messages from the example output if those messages are not important for the discussions in which the examples appear.

1.3 The Axiom Language

The Axiom language is a rich language for performing interactive computations and for building components of the Axiom library. Here we present only some basic aspects of the language that you need to know for the rest of this chapter. Our discussion here is intentionally informal, with details unveiled on an “as needed” basis. For more information on a particular construct, we suggest you consult the index.

1.3.1 Arithmetic Expressions

For arithmetic expressions, use the “+” and “−” operator as in mathematics. Use “∗” for multiplication, and “∗∗” for exponentiation. To create a fraction, use “/”. When an expression contains several operators, those of highest precedence are evaluated first. For arithmetic operators, “∗∗” has highest precedence, “∗” and “/” have the next highest precedence, and “+” and “−” have the lowest precedence.

Axiom puts implicit parentheses around operations of higher precedence, and groups those of equal precedence from left to right.
1 + 2 - 3 / 4 * 3 ** 2 - 1

\[ \frac{-19}{4} \]

Type: Fraction Integer

The above expression is equivalent to this.

\[ ((1 + 2) - ((3 / 4) * (3 ** 2))) - 1 \]

\[ \frac{-19}{4} \]

Type: Fraction Integer

If an expression contains subexpressions enclosed in parentheses, the parenthesized subexpressions are evaluated first (from left to right, from inside out).

\[ 1 + 2 - 3/ (4 * 3 ** (2 - 1)) \]

\[ \frac{11}{4} \]

Type: Fraction Integer

### 1.3.2 Previous Results

Use the percent sign “%” to refer to the last result. Also, use “%%” to refer to previous results. “%% (-1)” is equivalent to “%”, “%% (-2)” returns the next to the last result, and so on. “%% (1)” returns the result from step number 1, “%% (2)” returns the result from step number 2, and so on. “%% (0)” is not defined.

This is ten to the tenth power.

\[ 10 ** 10 \]

\[ 10000000000 \]

Type: PositiveInteger

This is the last result minus one.

\[ % - 1 \]
CHAPTER 1. AN OVERVIEW OF AXIOM

9999999999
Type: PositiveInteger

This is the last result.

%%(-1)

9999999999
Type: PositiveInteger

This is the result from step number 1.

%%(1)

10000000000
Type: PositiveInteger

1.3.3 Some Types

Everything in Axiom has a type. The type determines what operations you can perform on an object and how the object can be used. Chapter 2 on page 126 is dedicated to the interactive use of types. Several of the final chapters discuss how types are built and how they are organized in the Axiom library.

Positive integers are given type PositiveInteger.

8

Type: PositiveInteger

Negative ones are given type Integer. This fine distinction is helpful to the Axiom interpreter.

-8

Type: Integer
Here a positive integer exponent gives a polynomial result.

\[ x^8 \]

\[ x^8 \]

Type: Polynomial Integer

Here a negative integer exponent produces a fraction.

\[ x^{-8} \]

\[ \frac{1}{x^8} \]

Type: Fraction Polynomial Integer

### 1.3.4 Symbols, Variables, Assignments, and Declarations

A symbol is a literal used for the input of things like the “variables” in polynomials and power series.

We use the three symbols \(x\), \(y\), and \(z\) in entering this polynomial.

\[(x - yz)^2\]

\[ y^2z^2 - 2xyz + x^2 \]

Type: Polynomial Integer

A symbol has a name beginning with an uppercase or lowercase alphabetic character, “%”, or “!”. Successive characters (if any) can be any of the above, digits, or “?”.

Case is distinguished: the symbol \texttt{points} is different from the symbol \texttt{Points}.

A symbol can also be used in Axiom as a variable. A variable refers to a value. To assign a value to a variable, the operator “:=” is used. A variable initially has no restrictions on the kinds of values to which it can refer.

This assignment gives the value 4 (an integer) to a variable named \(x\).

\[ x := 4 \]

\[ 4 \]

\[ ^1 \text{Axiom actually has two forms of assignment: immediate assignment, as discussed here, and delayed assignment. See Section 5.1 on page 188 for details.} \]
This gives the value $z + \frac{3}{5}$ (a polynomial) to $x$.

\[ x := z + \frac{3}{5} \]

\[ \frac{z}{5} + \frac{3}{5} \]

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

To restrict the types of objects that can be assigned to a variable, use a *declaration*

\[ y : \text{Integer} \]

Type: Void

After a variable is declared to be of some type, only values of that type can be assigned to that variable.

\[ y := 89 \]

\[ 89 \]

Type: Integer

The declaration for $y$ forces values assigned to $y$ to be converted to integer values.

\[ y := \sin \%\pi \]

\[ 0 \]

Type: Integer

If no such conversion is possible, Axiom refuses to assign a value to $y$.

\[ y := 2/3 \]

Cannot convert right-hand side of assignment
2
-3
to an object of the type Integer of the left-hand side.
A type declaration can also be given together with an assignment. The declaration can assist Axiom in choosing the correct operations to apply.

\[
f : \text{Float} := 2/3
\]

\[0.6666666666666667\]

Type: Float

Any number of expressions can be given on input line. Just separate them by semicolons. Only the result of evaluating the last expression is displayed.

These two expressions have the same effect as the previous single expression.

\[
f : \text{Float}; f := 2/3
\]

\[0.6666666666666667\]

Type: Float

The type of a symbol is either Symbol or Variable(name) where name is the name of the symbol.

By default, the interpreter gives this symbol the type Variable(q).

\[q\]

\[q\]

Type: Variable q

When multiple symbols are involved, Symbol is used.

\[[q, r]\]

\[[q, r]\]

Type: List OrderedVariableList [q,r]

What happens when you try to use a symbol that is the name of a variable?

\[f\]

\[0.6666666666666667\]
Use a single quote ‘’ before the name to get the symbol.

\[ f \]

Type: Variable \( f \)

Quoting a name creates a symbol by preventing evaluation of the name as a variable. Experience will teach you when you are most likely going to need to use a quote. We try to point out the location of such trouble spots.

### 1.3.5 Conversion

Objects of one type can usually be “converted” to objects of several other types. To convert an object to a new type, use the “::” infix operator. For example, to display an object, it is necessary to convert the object to type \texttt{OutputForm}.

This produces a polynomial with rational number coefficients.

\[ p := r^{**2} + 2/3 \]

\[ r^2 + \frac{2}{3} \]

Type: \texttt{Polynomial Fraction Integer}

Create a quotient of polynomials with integer coefficients by using “::”.

\[ p :: \texttt{Fraction Polynomial Integer} \]

\[ \frac{3r^2 + 2}{3} \]

Type: \texttt{Fraction Polynomial Integer}

Some conversions can be performed automatically when Axiom tries to evaluate your input. Others conversions must be explicitly requested.

---

\(^2\)Conversion is discussed in detail in 2.7 on page 151.
1.3.6 Calling Functions

As we saw earlier, when you want to add or subtract two values, you place the arithmetic operator “+” or “−” between the two arguments denoting the values. To use most other Axiom operations, however, you use another syntax: write the name of the operation first, then an open parenthesis, then each of the arguments separated by commas, and, finally, a closing parenthesis. If the operation takes only one argument and the argument is a number or a symbol, you can omit the parentheses.

This calls the operation `factor` with the single integer argument 120.

```
factor(120)

\[ 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \]
```

Type: Factored Integer

This is a call to `divide` with the two integer arguments 125 and 7.

```
divide(125,7)

[\text{quotient} = 17, \text{remainder} = 6]
```

Type: Record(quotient: Integer, remainder: Integer)

This calls `quatern` with four floating-point arguments.

```
quatern(3.4,5.6,2.9,0.1)

3.4 + 5.6 \, i + 2.9 \, j + 0.1 \, k
```

Type: Quaternion Float

This is the same as `factorial(10)`.

```
factorial 10

3628800
```

Type: PositiveInteger

An operation that returns a Boolean value (that is, true or false) frequently has a name suffixed with a question mark (“?”). For example, the `even?` operation returns true if its integer argument is an even number, false otherwise.
An operation that can be destructive on one or more arguments usually has a name ending in an exclamation point (“!”). This actually means that it is *allowed* to update its arguments but it is not *required* to do so. For example, the underlying representation of a collection type may not allow the very last element to removed and so an empty object may be returned instead. Therefore, it is important that you use the object returned by the operation and not rely on a physical change having occurred within the object. Usually, destructive operations are provided for efficiency reasons.

### 1.3.7 Some Predefined Macros

Axiom provides several macros for your convenience. Macros are names (or forms) that expand to larger expressions for commonly used values.

- `%i` The square root of -1.
- `%e` The base of the natural logarithm.
- `%pi` π.
- `%infinity` ∞.
- `%plusInfinity` +∞.
- `%minusInfinity` −∞.

To display all the macros (along with anything you have defined in the workspace), issue the system command `)display all`.

### 1.3.8 Long Lines

When you enter Axiom expressions from your keyboard, there will be times when they are too long to fit on one line. Axiom does not care how long your lines are, so you can let them continue from the right margin to the left side of the next line. Alternatively, you may want to enter several shorter lines and have Axiom glue them together. To get this glue, put an underscore (_) at the end of each line you wish to continue.

```
2_
+_
3
```

is the same as if you had entered

```
2+3
```

Axiom statements in an input file (see Section 4.1 on page 177), can use indentation to indicate the program structure. (see Section 5.2 on page 192).

---

3See 6.2 on page 225 for a discussion on how to write your own macros.
1.3.9 Comments

Comment statements begin with two consecutive hyphens or two consecutive plus signs and continue until the end of the line.

The comment beginning with “−” is ignored by Axiom.

2 + 3 - this is rather simple, no?

Type: PositiveInteger

There is no way to write long multi-line comments other than starting each line with “−” or “++”.

1.4 Numbers

Axiom distinguishes very carefully between different kinds of numbers, how they are represented and what their properties are. Here are a sampling of some of these kinds of numbers and some things you can do with them.

Integer arithmetic is always exact.

\[
11^{13} \times 13^{11} \times 17^7 - 19^5 \times 23^3
\]

25387751112538918594666224484237298

Type: PositiveInteger

Integers can be represented in factored form.

\[
\text{factor } 643238070748569023720594412551704344145570763243
\]

11^{13} 13^{11} 17^7 19^5 23^3 29^2

Type: Factored Integer

Results stay factored when you do arithmetic. Note that the 12 is automatically factored for you.

\%

\[
2^2 3 11^{13} 13^{11} 17^7 19^5 23^3 29^2
\]
Integers can also be displayed to bases other than 10. This is an integer in base 11.

\[ \text{radix}(25937424601,11) \]

10000000000

Type: RadixExpansion 11

Roman numerals are also available for those special occasions.

\[ \text{roman}(1992) \]

MCMXCII

Type: RomanNumeral

Rational number arithmetic is also exact.

\[ r := 10 + 9/2 + 8/3 + 7/4 + 6/5 + 5/6 + 4/7 + 3/8 + 2/9 \]

\[ \frac{55739}{2520} \]

Type: Fraction Integer

To factor fractions, you have to pmap \texttt{factor} onto the numerator and denominator.

\[ \text{map(factor,r)} \]

\[ \frac{139}{2} \cdot 3^2 \cdot 7 \]

Type: Fraction Factored Integer

\texttt{SingleInteger} refers to machine word-length integers.

In English, this expression means “11 as a small integer”.

\[ 11@\texttt{SingleInteger} \]
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Machine double-precision floating-point numbers are also available for numeric and graphical applications.

123.21@DoubleFloat

123.210000000000001

Type: DoubleFloat

The normal floating-point type in Axiom, Float, is a software implementation of floating-point numbers in which the exponent and the mantissa may have any number of digits. The types Complex(Float) and Complex(DoubleFloat) are the corresponding software implementations of complex floating-point numbers.

This is a floating-point approximation to about twenty digits. The “::” is used here to change from one kind of object (here, a rational number) to another (a floating-point number).

r :: Float

22.118650793650793651

Type: Float

Use digits to change the number of digits in the representation. This operation returns the previous value so you can reset it later.

digits(22)

20

Type: PositiveInteger

To 22 digits of precision, the number $e^{\pi \sqrt{163}}$ appears to be an integer.

exp(%pi * sqrt 163.0)

262537412640768744.0

Type: Float

Increase the precision to forty digits and try again.
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digits(40); exp(%pi * sqrt 163.0)

\[ 26253741 2640768743.999999999 9925007259 76 \]

Type: Float

Here are complex numbers with rational numbers as real and imaginary parts.

\[(2/3 + %i)^3\]

\[ -\frac{46}{27} + \frac{1}{3} i \]

Type: Complex Fraction Integer

The standard operations on complex numbers are available.

\[\text{conjugate} \%\]

\[ -\frac{46}{27} - \frac{1}{3} i \]

Type: Complex Fraction Integer

You can factor complex integers.

\[\text{factor}(89 - 23 * %i)\]

\[ -(1 + i) (2 + i)^2 (3 + 2 i)^2 \]

Type: Factored Complex Integer

Complex numbers with floating point parts are also available.

\[\exp(%pi/4.0 * %i)\]

\[ 0.7071067811 8654752440 0844362104 8490392849 + 0.7071067811 8654752440 0844362104 8490392848 i \]

Type: Complex Float

The real and imaginary parts can be symbolic.

\[\text{complex}(u,v)\]
Of course, you can do complex arithmetic with these also.

\[
- v^2 + u^2 + 2uv i
\]

Type: Complex Polynomial Integer

Every rational number has an exact representation as a repeating decimal expansion

\[
\text{decimal}(1/352)
\]

0.0028409

Type: DecimalExpansion

A rational number can also be expressed as a continued fraction.

\[
\text{continuedFraction}(6543/210)
\]

\[
31 + \frac{1}{6 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{3}}}}
\]

Type: ContinuedFraction Integer

Also, partial fractions can be used and can be displayed in a compact format

\[
\text{partialFraction}(1, \text{factorial}(10))
\]

\[
\frac{159}{28} - \frac{23}{34} - \frac{12}{52} + \frac{1}{7}
\]

Type: PartialFraction Integer

or expanded format.

\[
\text{padicFraction}(%)
\]

\[
\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^4} + \frac{1}{2^5} + \frac{1}{2^7} + \frac{1}{2^8} - \frac{2}{3^2} - \frac{1}{3^3} - \frac{2}{3^4} - \frac{2}{5} - \frac{2}{5^2} + \frac{1}{7}
\]
Like integers, bases (radices) other than ten can be used for rational numbers. Here we use base eight.

\[
\text{radix}(4/7, 8)
\]

\[
0.4
\]

Of course, there are complex versions of these as well. Axiom decides to make the result a complex rational number.

\[
\% + 2/3*\%i
\]

\[
\frac{4}{7} + \frac{2}{3} i
\]

You can also use Axiom to manipulate fractional powers.

\[
(5 + \sqrt{63} + \sqrt{847})^{(1/3)}
\]

\[
\sqrt[3]{14\sqrt{7} + 5}
\]

You can also compute with integers modulo a prime.

\[
x : \text{PrimeField 7} := 5
\]

\[
5
\]

Arithmetic is then done modulo 7.

\[
x^{*3}
\]

\[
6
\]
Since 7 is prime, you can invert nonzero values.

\[ \frac{1}{x} \]

Type: PrimeField 7

You can also compute modulo an integer that is not a prime.

\[ y : \text{IntegerMod 6} := 5 \]

Type: IntegerMod 6

All of the usual arithmetic operations are available.

\[ y ** 3 \]

Type: IntegerMod 6

Inversion is not available if the modulus is not a prime number. Modular arithmetic and prime fields are discussed in Section 8.11.1 on page 404.
This defines \(a\) to be an algebraic number, that is, a root of a polynomial equation.
\[
a := \text{rootOf}(a^5 + a^3 + a^2 + 3, a)
\]

\(a\)

Type: Expression Integer

Computations with \(a\) are reduced according to the polynomial equation.
\[
(a + 1)^{10} = -85a^4 - 264a^3 - 378a^2 - 458a - 287
\]

Type: Expression Integer

Define \(b\) to be an algebraic number involving \(a\).
\[
b := \text{rootOf}(b^4 + a, b)
\]

\(b\)

Type: Expression Integer

Do some arithmetic.
\[
\frac{2}{b - 1}
\]

\[
\frac{2}{b - 1}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

To expand and simplify this, call \texttt{ratDenom} to rationalize the denominator.
\[
\text{ratDenom}(\%) = (a^4 - a^3 + 2a^2 - a + 1)b^3 + (a^4 - a^3 + 2a^2 - a + 1)b^2 + (a^4 - a^3 + 2a^2 - a + 1)b + a^4 - a^3 + 2a^2 - a + 1
\]

Type: Expression Integer

If we do this, we should get \(b\).
\[ \frac{2\%+1}{\left( a^4 - a^3 + 2a^2 - a + 1 \right) \left( b^3 + \left( a^4 - a^3 + 2a^2 - a + 1 \right) b^2 + \left( a^4 - a^3 + 2a^2 - a + 1 \right) b + a^4 - a^2 - 3 \right)} \]

Type: Expression Integer

But we need to rationalize the denominator again.

\[ \text{ratDenom(%)} \]

\[ b \]

Type: Expression Integer

Types Quaternion and Octonion are also available. Multiplication of quaternions is non-commutative, as expected.

\[ q := \text{quatern}(1,2,3,4) \times \text{quatern}(5,6,7,8) - \text{quatern}(5,6,7,8) \times \text{quatern}(1,2,3,4) \]

\[ -8i + 16j - 8k \]

Type: Quaternion Integer

### 1.5 Data Structures

Axiom has a large variety of data structures available. Many data structures are particularly useful for interactive computation and others are useful for building applications. The data structures of Axiom are organized into category hierarchies.

A list\(^4\) is the most commonly used data structure in Axiom for holding objects all of the same type. The name list is short for “linked-list of nodes.” Each node consists of a value (first) and a link (rest) that points to the next node, or to a distinguished value denoting the empty list. To get to, say, the third element, Axiom starts at the front of the list, then traverses across two links to the third node.

Write a list of elements using square brackets with commas separating the elements.

\(^4\)Lists are discussed in Section 9.47 on page 663
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\[ u := \{1, -7, 11\} \]

\[ \{1, -7, 11\} \]

Type: List Integer

This is the value at the third node. Alternatively, you can say \( u.3 \).

\[ \text{first rest rest u} \]

11

Type: PositiveInteger

Many operations are defined on lists, such as: \texttt{empty?}, to test that a list has no elements; \texttt{cons(x,l)}, to create a new list with \texttt{first} element \( x \) and \texttt{rest l}; \texttt{reverse}, to create a new list with elements in reverse order; and \texttt{sort}, to arrange elements in order.

An important point about lists is that they are “mutable”: their constituent elements and links can be changed “in place.” To do this, use any of the operations whose names end with the character “!”.

The operation \texttt{concat!}(u,v) replaces the last link of the list \( u \) to point to some other list \( v \). Since \( u \) refers to the original list, this change is seen by \( u \).

\[ \text{concat!}(u,\{9,1,3,-4\}); u \]

\[ \{1, -7, 11, 9, 1, 3, -4\} \]

Type: List Integer

A cyclic list is a list with a “cycle”: a link pointing back to an earlier node of the list. To create a cycle, first get a node somewhere down the list.

\[ \text{lastnode := rest(u,3)} \]

\[ \{9,1,3,-4\} \]

Type: List Integer

Use \texttt{setrest!} to change the link emanating from that node to point back to an earlier part of the list.

\[ \text{setrest!}(\text{lastnode},\text{rest}(u,2)); u \]
A *stream* is a structure that (potentially) has an infinite number of distinct elements. Think of a stream as an “infinite list” where elements are computed successively.\(^5\) Create an infinite stream of factored integers. Only a certain number of initial elements are computed and displayed.

\[
\text{[factor(i) for i in 2.. by 2]}
\]

\[
[2, 2^2, 2, 3, 2^3, 2, 5, 2^2, 3, 2, 7, 2^4, 2, 3^2, 2^2, 5, \ldots]
\]

Axiom represents streams by a collection of already-computed elements together with a function to compute the next element “on demand.” Asking for the \(n\)-th element causes elements 1 through \(n\) to be evaluated.

\[
\%
\]

\[
2^3 3^2
\]

Streams can also be finite or cyclic. They are implemented by a linked list structure similar to lists and have many of the same operations. For example, \texttt{first} and \texttt{rest} are used to access elements and successive nodes of a stream.

A \texttt{one-dimensional array} is another data structure used to hold objects of the same type\(^6\). Unlike lists, one-dimensional arrays are inflexible—they are implemented using a fixed block of storage. Their advantage is that they give quick and equal access time to any element.

A simple way to create a one-dimensional array is to apply the operation \texttt{oneDimensionalArray} to a list of elements.

\[
a := \text{oneDimensionalArray } [1, -7, 3, 3/2]
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1, -7, 3, \\
\frac{3}{2}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\text{Type: OneDimensionalArray Fraction Integer}

---

\(^5\)Streams are discussed in SectionStreamXmpPage on page 790

\(^6\)OnedimensionalArray is discussed in Section 9.57 on page 704
One-dimensional arrays are also mutable: you can change their constituent elements “in place.”

\[
a.3 := 11; a
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1, -7, 11, \frac{3}{2}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: OneDimensionalArray Fraction Integer

However, one-dimensional arrays are not flexible structures. You cannot destructively \texttt{concat!} them together.

\texttt{concat!(a,oneDimensionalArray [1,-2])}

There are 5 exposed and 0 unexposed library operations named \texttt{concat!} having 2 argument(s) but none was determined to be applicable. Use HyperDoc Browse, or issue \texttt{)display op concat!} to learn more about the available operations. Perhaps package-calling the operation or using coercions on the arguments will allow you to apply the operation.

Cannot find a definition or applicable library operation named \texttt{concat!} with argument type(s)

\texttt{OneDimensionalArray Fraction Integer}

\texttt{OneDimensionalArray Integer}

Perhaps you should use \texttt{"@"} to indicate the required return type, or \texttt{"$"} to specify which version of the function you need.

Examples of datatypes similar to \texttt{OneDimensionalArray} are: \texttt{Vector} (vectors are mathematical structures implemented by one-dimensional arrays), \texttt{String} (arrays of “characters,” represented by byte vectors), and \texttt{Bits} (represented by “bit vectors”).

A vector of 32 bits, each representing the \texttt{Boolean} value \texttt{true}.

\texttt{bits(32,true)}

\texttt{"11111111111111111111111111111111"}

Type: Bits
A *flexible array* is a cross between a list and a one-dimensional array. Like a one-dimensional array, a flexible array occupies a fixed block of storage. Its block of storage, however, has room to expand. When it gets full, it grows (a new, larger block of storage is allocated); when it has too much room, it contracts.

Create a flexible array of three elements.

\[
f := \text{flexibleArray} [2, 7, -5]
\]

\[
[2, 7, -5]
\]

Type: FlexibleArray Integer

Insert some elements between the second and third elements.

\[
\text{insert!}(\text{flexibleArray} [11, -3], f, 2)
\]

\[
[2, 11, -3, 7, -5]
\]

Type: FlexibleArray Integer

Flexible arrays are used to implement “heaps.” A *heap* is an example of a data structure called a *priority queue*, where elements are ordered with respect to one another. A heap is organized so as to optimize insertion and extraction of maximum elements. The *extract!* operation returns the maximum element of the heap, after destructively removing that element and reorganizing the heap so that the next maximum element is ready to be delivered.

An easy way to create a heap is to apply the operation *heap* to a list of values.

\[
h := \text{heap} [-4, 7, 11, 3, 4, -7]
\]

\[
[11, 4, 7, -4, 3, -7]
\]

Type: Heap Integer

This loop extracts elements one-at-a-time from \( h \) until the heap is exhausted, returning the elements as a list in the order they were extracted.

\[
\text{[extract!}(h) \text{ while not empty?}(h)]
\]

\[
[11, 7, 4, 3, -4, -7]
\]

---

1FlexibleArray is discussed in Section 9.26 on page 549
2Heap is discussed in Section 9.32 on page 572
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A binary tree is a “tree” with at most two branches per node: it is either empty, or else is a node consisting of a value, and a left and right subtree (again, binary trees). 9 Examples of binary tree types are BinarySearchTree, PendantTree, TournamentTree, and BalancedBinaryTree.

A binary search tree is a binary tree such that, for each node, the value of the node is greater than all values (if any) in the left subtree, and less than or equal all values (if any) in the right subtree.

\[
\text{binarySearchTree } [5,3,2,9,4,7,11] \\
[2,3,4],[5],[7,9,11] \\
\text{Type: BinarySearchTree PositiveInteger}
\]

A balanced binary tree is useful for doing modular computations. Given a list \( lm \) of moduli, \( \text{modTree}(a,lm) \) produces a balanced binary tree with the values \( a \mod m \) at its leaves.

\[
\text{modTree}(8,[2,3,5,7]) \\
[0,2,3,1] \\
\text{Type: List Integer}
\]

A set is a collection of elements where duplication and order is irrelevant. 10 Sets are always finite and have no corresponding structure like streams for infinite collections. Create sets using braces “{“ and “}” rather than brackets.

\[
\text{fs := set}[1/3,4/5,-1/3,4/5] \\
\{ -1/3, 1, 4 \} \\
\{ 1, 3, 5 \} \\
\text{Type: Set Fraction Integer}
\]

A multiset is a set that keeps track of the number of duplicate values. 11 For all the primes \( p \) between 2 and 1000, find the distribution of \( p \mod 5 \).

---

9BinarySearchTree are discussed in Section 9.5 on page 458
10Sets are discussed in Section 9.71 on page 775
11Multisets are discussed in Section 9.53 on page 695
CHAPTER 1. AN OVERVIEW OF AXIOM

multiset [x rem 5 for x in primes(2,1000)]

\{0, 42: 3, 38: 4, 47: 2\}

Type: Multiset Integer

A table is conceptually a set of “key-value” pairs and is a generalization of a multiset. For examples of tables, see AssociationList, HashTable, KeyedAccessFile, Library, SparseTable, StringTable, and Table. The domain Table(Key, Entry) provides a general-purpose type for tables with values of type Entry indexed by keys of type Key.

Compute the above distribution of primes using tables. First, let \( t \) denote an empty table of keys and values, each of type Integer.

\[ t : \text{Table(Integer,Integer)} := \text{empty()} \]

\[ \text{table()} \]

Type: Table(Integer,Integer)

We define a function \( \text{howMany} \) to return the number of values of a given modulus \( k \) seen so far. It calls \( \text{search}(k,t) \) which returns the number of values stored under the key \( k \) in table \( t \), or “failed” if no such value is yet stored in \( t \) under \( k \).

In English, this says “Define \( \text{howMany}(k) \) as follows. First, let \( n \) be the value of \( \text{search}(k,t) \). Then, if \( n \) has the value ”failed”, return the value 1; otherwise return \( n + 1 \).”

\[ \text{howMany}(k) == (n:=\text{search}(k,t); n \text{ case } "\text{failed}" \Rightarrow 1; n+1) \]

Type: Void

Run through the primes to create the table, then print the table. The expression \( t.m := \text{howMany}(m) \) updates the value in table \( t \) stored under key \( m \).

\[ \text{for } p \text{ in primes(2,1000) repeat (m:= p rem 5; t.m:= howMany(m)); t} \]

Compiling function \( \text{howMany} \) with type Integer \( \to \) Integer

\[ \text{table}(2 = 47, 4 = 38, 1 = 40, 3 = 42, 0 = 1) \]

Type: Table(Integer,Integer)
A record is an example of an inhomogeneous collection of objects. A record consists of a set of named selectors that can be used to access its components. Declare that daniel can only be assigned a record with two prescribed fields.

daniel : Record(age : Integer, salary : Float)

Type: Void

Give daniel a value, using square brackets to enclose the values of the fields.

daniel := [28, 32005.12]

[age = 28, salary = 32005.12]

Type: Record(age: Integer,salary: Float)

Give daniel a raise.

daniel.salary := 35000; daniel

[age = 28, salary = 35000.0]

Type: Record(age: Integer,salary: Float)

A union is a data structure used when objects have multiple types. Let dog be either an integer or a string value.

dog: Union(licenseNumber: Integer, name: String)

Type: Void

Give dog a name.

dog := "Whisper"

"Whisper"

Type: Union(name: String,...)

All told, there are over forty different data structures in Axiom. Using the domain constructors described in Chapter 13 on page 908, you can add your own data structure or extend an existing one. Choosing the right data structure for your application may be the key to obtaining good performance.

---

12See 2.4 on page 141 for details.

13See 2.5 on page 145 for details.
1.6 Expanding to Higher Dimensions

To get higher dimensional aggregates, you can create one-dimensional aggregates with elements that are themselves aggregates, for example, lists of lists, one-dimensional arrays of lists of multisets, and so on. For applications requiring two-dimensional homogeneous aggregates, you will likely find two-dimensional arrays and matrices most useful.

The entries in TwoDimensionalArray and Matrix objects are all the same type, except that those for Matrix must belong to a Ring. You create and access elements in roughly the same way. Since matrices have an understood algebraic structure, certain algebraic operations are available for matrices but not for arrays. Because of this, we limit our discussion here to Matrix, that can be regarded as an extension of TwoDimensionalArray. See TwoDimensionalArray for more information about arrays. For more information about Axiom’s linear algebra facilities, see Matrix, Permanent, SquareMatrix, Vector, see Section 8.4 on page 354 (computation of eigenvalues and eigenvectors), and Section 8.5 on page 358 (solution of linear and polynomial equations).

You can create a matrix from a list of lists, where each of the inner lists represents a row of the matrix.

\[
m := \text{matrix}([[1,2], [3,4]])
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
3 & 4 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

The “collections” construct (see 5.5 on page 216) is useful for creating matrices whose entries are given by formulas.

\[
\text{matrix}([[1/(i + j - x) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..4] \text{ for } j \text{ in } 1..4])
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{1}{x-2} & \frac{1}{x-3} & \frac{1}{x-4} & \frac{1}{x-5} \\
\frac{1}{x-3} & \frac{1}{x-4} & \frac{1}{x-5} & \frac{1}{x-6} \\
\frac{1}{x-4} & \frac{1}{x-5} & \frac{1}{x-6} & \frac{1}{x-7} \\
\frac{1}{x-5} & \frac{1}{x-6} & \frac{1}{x-7} & \frac{1}{x-8}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Fraction Polynomial Integer

Let \(vm\) denote the three by three Vandermonde matrix.

\[
vm := \text{matrix}([[1,1,1], [x,y,z], [x*x,y*y,z*z]])
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 \\
x & y & z \\
x^2 & y^2 & z^2
\end{bmatrix}
\]
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Use this syntax to extract an entry in the matrix.

\[ vm(3, 3) \]

\[ \chi^2 \]

You can also pull out a row or a column.

\[ \text{column}(vm, 2) \]

\[ [1, y, y^2] \]

You can do arithmetic.

\[ vm + vm \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
x^2 + x + 1 & y^2 + y + 1 & \chi^2 + \chi + 1 \\
x^2 \chi + x y + x & y^2 \chi + y^2 + x & \chi^3 + y \chi + x \\
x^2 \chi^2 + x y^2 + x^2 & y^2 \chi^2 + y^3 + x^2 & \chi^4 + y^2 \chi + x^2
\end{bmatrix}
\]

You can perform operations such as transpose, trace, and determinant.

\[ \text{factor determinant } vm \]

\[ (y - x) (z - y) (z - x) \]

1.7 Writing Your Own Functions

Axiom provides you with a very large library of predefined operations and objects to compute with. You can use the Axiom library of constructors to create new objects dynamically of quite arbitrary complexity. For example, you can make lists of matrices...
of fractions of polynomials with complex floating point numbers as coefficients. Moreover, the library provides a wealth of operations that allow you to create and manipulate these objects.

For many applications, you need to interact with the interpreter and write some Axiom programs to tackle your application. Axiom allows you to write functions interactively, thereby effectively extending the system library. Here we give a few simple examples, leaving the details to Chapter 6 on page 224.

We begin by looking at several ways that you can define the “factorial” function in Axiom. The first way is to give a piece-wise definition of the function. This method is best for a general recurrence relation since the pieces are gathered together and compiled into an efficient iterative function. Furthermore, enough previously computed values are automatically saved so that a subsequent call to the function can pick up from where it left off.

Define the value of \texttt{fact} at 0.

\begin{verbatim}
define fact(0) == 1
Type: Void
\end{verbatim}

Define the value of \texttt{fact(n)} for general \texttt{n}.

\begin{verbatim}
define fact(n) == n*fact(n-1)
Type: Void
\end{verbatim}

Ask for the value at 50. The resulting function created by Axiom computes the value by iteration.

\begin{verbatim}
fact(50)
Compiling function fact with type Integer -> Integer
Compiling function fact as a recurrence relation.
304140932017133780436126081660647688443776415689605120000000000000000
Type: PositiveInteger
\end{verbatim}

A second definition uses an \texttt{if-then-else} and recursion.

\begin{verbatim}
define fac(n) == if n < 3 then n else n * fac(n - 1)
\end{verbatim}
This function is less efficient than the previous version since each iteration involves a recursive function call.

\[
\text{fac}(50)
\]

\[
304140932017133780436126081660647688443776415689605120000000000
\]

A third version directly uses iteration.

\[
\text{fa}(n) == (a := 1; \text{for \ } i \text{ in } 2..n \text{ repeat } a := a*i; \ a)
\]

This is the least space-consumptive version.

\[
\text{fa}(50)
\]

\[
\text{Compiling function fac with type Integer -> Integer}
\]

\[
304140932017133780436126081660647688443776415689605120000000000
\]

A final version appears to construct a large list and then reduces over it with multiplication.

\[
\text{f}(n) == \text{reduce}(*,[i \text{ for } i \text{ in } 2..n])
\]

In fact, the resulting computation is optimized into an efficient iteration loop equivalent to that of the third version.

\[
\text{f}(50)
\]

\[
\text{Compiling function f with type PositiveInteger -> PositiveInteger}
\]
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The library version uses an algorithm that is different from the four above because it highly optimizes the recurrence relation definition of \texttt{factorial}.

\texttt{factorial(50)}

\begin{verbatim}
304140932017133780436126081660647688443776415689605120000000000000
Type: PositiveInteger
\end{verbatim}

You are not limited to one-line functions in Axiom. If you place your function definitions in .\texttt{input} files (see 4.1 on page 177), you can have multi-line functions that use indentation for grouping.

Given \(n\) elements, \texttt{diagonalMatrix} creates an \(n\) by \(n\) matrix with those elements down the diagonal. This function uses a permutation matrix that interchanges the \(i\)th and \(j\)th rows of a matrix by which it is right-multiplied.

This function definition shows a style of definition that can be used in .\texttt{input} files. Indentation is used to create \textit{blocks}: sequences of expressions that are evaluated in sequence except as modified by control statements such as \texttt{if-then-else} and \texttt{return}.

\begin{verbatim}
def permMat(n, i, j) ==
    m := diagonalMatrix
    [(if i = k or j = k then 0 else 1)
     for k in 1..n]
    m(i,j) := 1
    m(j,i) := 1
    m

This creates a four by four matrix that interchanges the second and third rows.
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{p := permMat(4,2,3)}

\begin{verbatim}
Compiling function permMat with type (PositiveInteger,
      PositiveInteger,PositiveInteger) -> Matrix Integer
\end{verbatim}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
  0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Create an example matrix to permute.

\[
m := \begin{bmatrix}
4 & 5 & 9 & 13 \\
2 & 6 & 10 & 14 \\
3 & 7 & 11 & 15 \\
4 & 8 & 12 & 16 
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Interchange the second and third rows of \(m\).

\[
\text{permMat}(4,2,3) \times m
\]

A function can also be passed as an argument to another function, which then applies the function or passes it off to some other function that does. You often have to declare the type of a function that has functional arguments.

This declares \(t\) to be a two-argument function that returns a \(\text{Float}\). The first argument is a function that takes one \(\text{Float}\) argument and returns a \(\text{Float}\).

\[
t : (\text{Float} \to \text{Float}, \text{Float}) \to \text{Float}
\]

This is the definition of \(t\).

\[
t(\text{fun}, x) = \text{fun}(x)^2 + \sin(x)^2
\]

We have not defined a \(\text{cos}\) in the workspace. The one from the Axiom library will do.
t(cos, 5.2058)

1.0

Type: Float

Here we define our own (user-defined) function.

\[ \text{cosinv}(y) \equiv \cos\left(\frac{1}{y}\right) \]

Type: Void

Pass this function as an argument to \( t \).

\[ t(\text{cosinv}, 5.2058) \]

\[ 1.739223724180051649254147684772932520785 \]

Type: Float

Axiom also has pattern matching capabilities for simplification of expressions and for defining new functions by rules. For example, suppose that you want to apply regularly a transformation that groups together products of radicals:

\[ \sqrt{a} \sqrt{b} \mapsto \sqrt{ab}, \quad (\forall a)(\forall b) \]

Note that such a transformation is not generally correct. Axiom never uses it automatically.

Give this rule the name \( \text{groupSqrt} \).

\[ \text{groupSqrt} := \text{rule}(\sqrt{a} \cdot \sqrt{b} = \sqrt{a \cdot b}) \]

\[ \%C \sqrt{a} \sqrt{b} = \%C \sqrt{a \cdot b} \]

Type: RewriteRule(Integer,Integer,Expression Integer)

Here is a test expression.

\[ a := (\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y} + \sqrt{z})^{*4} \]

\[ ((4z + 4y + 12x) \sqrt{y} + (4z + 12y + 4x) \sqrt{x}) \sqrt{z} + \]

\[ (12z + 4y + 4x) \sqrt{x} \sqrt{y} z^{2} + (6y + 6x) z + y^{2} + 6xy + x^{2} \]
The rule \texttt{groupSqrt} successfully simplifies the expression.

\begin{verbatim}
groupSqrt a

(4 z + 4 y + 12 x) \sqrt{yz} + (4 z + 12 y + 4 x) \sqrt{zx} +
(12 z + 4 y + 4 x) \sqrt{xy} + (6 y + 6 x) z + y^2 + 6 x y + x^2
\end{verbatim}

1.8 Polynomials

Polynomials are the commonly used algebraic types in symbolic computation. Interactive users of Axiom generally only see one type of polynomial: \texttt{Polynomial(R)}. This type represents polynomials in any number of unspecified variables over a particular coefficient domain \(R\). This type represents its coefficients \textit{sparsely}: only terms with non-zero coefficients are represented.

In building applications, many other kinds of polynomial representations are useful. Polynomials may have one variable or multiple variables, the variables can be named or unnamed, the coefficients can be stored sparsely or densely. So-called “distributed multivariate polynomials” store polynomials as coefficients paired with vectors of exponents. This type is particularly efficient for use in algorithms for solving systems of non-linear polynomial equations.

The polynomial constructor most familiar to the interactive user is \texttt{Polynomial}.

\begin{verbatim}
(x**2 - x*y**3 +3*y)**2

x^2 y^6 - 6 x y^4 - 2 x^3 y^3 + 9 y^2 + 6 x^2 y + x^4
\end{verbatim}

If you wish to restrict the variables used, \texttt{UnivariatePolynomial} provides polynomials in one variable.

\begin{verbatim}
p: UP(x,INT) := (3*x-1)**2 * (2*x + 8)

18 x^3 + 60 x^2 - 46 x + 8
\end{verbatim}
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The constructor \texttt{MultivariatePolynomial} provides polynomials in one or more specified variables.

\begin{verbatim}
m: MPOLY([x,y],INT) := (x**2-x*y**3+3*y)**2
\end{verbatim}

\[
x^4 - 2 y^3 x^3 + (y^6 + 6 y) x^2 - 6 y^4 x + 9 y^2
\]

Type: MultivariatePolynomial([x,y],Integer)

You can change the way the polynomial appears by modifying the variable ordering in the explicit list.

\begin{verbatim}
m :: MPOLY([y,x],INT)
\end{verbatim}

\[
y^6 x^2 - 6 y^4 x - 2 y^3 x^3 + 9 y^2 + 6 y^2 x + x^4
\]

Type: MultivariatePolynomial([y,x],Integer)

The constructor \texttt{DistributedMultivariatePolynomial} provides polynomials in one or more specified variables with the monomials ordered lexicographically.

\begin{verbatim}
m :: DMP([y,x],INT)
\end{verbatim}

\[
y^6 x^2 - 6 y^4 x - 2 y^3 x^3 + 9 y^2 + 6 y^2 x + x^4
\]

Type: DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([y,x],Integer)

The constructor \texttt{HomogeneousDistributedMultivariatePolynomial} is similar except that the monomials are ordered by total order refined by reverse lexicographic order.

\begin{verbatim}
m :: HDMP([y,x],INT)
\end{verbatim}

\[
y^6 x^2 - 2 y^3 x^3 - 6 y^4 x + x^4 + 6 y^2 x + 9 y^2
\]

Type: HomogeneousDistributedMultivariatePolynomial([y,x],Integer)

More generally, the domain constructor \texttt{GeneralDistributedMultivariatePolynomial} allows the user to provide an arbitrary predicate to define his own term ordering. These last three constructors are typically used in Gröbner basis applications and when a flat (that is, non-recursive) display is wanted and the term ordering is critical for controlling the computation.
1.9 Limits

Axiom’s limit function is usually used to evaluate limits of quotients where the numerator and denominator both tend to zero or both tend to infinity. To find the limit of an expression \( f \) as a real variable \( x \) tends to a limit value \( a \), enter `limit(f, x=a)`.

Use `complexLimit` if the variable is complex. Additional information and examples of limits are in Section 8.6 on page 365.

You can take limits of functions with parameters.

\[
g := \frac{\csc(a \cdot x)}{\csch(b \cdot x)}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

As you can see, the limit is expressed in terms of the parameters.

\[
\text{limit}(g, x=0)
\]

\[
\frac{b}{a}
\]

Type: Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer,...)

A variable may also approach plus or minus infinity:

\[
h := (1 + k/x)^x
\]

\[
\frac{x+k^x}{x}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

Use `%plusInfinity` and `%minusInfinity` to denote \( \infty \) and \( -\infty \).

\[
\text{limit}(h, x=%plusInfinity)
\]

\[
e^k
\]

Type: Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer,...)

A function can be defined on both sides of a particular value, but may tend to different limits as its variable approaches that value from the left and from the right.
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\[ \text{limit}(\sqrt{y^2}/y, y = 0) \]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{leftHandLimit} &= -1, \\
\text{rightHandLimit} &= 1
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Union(Record(leftHandLimit: Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer, "failed"), rightHandLimit: Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer, "failed")), ...)

As \( x \) approaches 0 along the real axis, \( \exp(-1/x^2) \) tends to 0.

\[ \text{limit}(\exp(-1/x^2), x = 0) \]

0

Type: Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer, ...)

However, if \( x \) is allowed to approach 0 along any path in the complex plane, the limiting value of \( \exp(-1/x^2) \) depends on the path taken because the function has an essential singularity at \( x = 0 \). This is reflected in the error message returned by the function.

\[ \text{complexLimit}(\exp(-1/x^2), x = 0) \]

"failed"

Type: Union("failed", ..., ...)

1.10 Series

Axiom also provides power series. By default, Axiom tries to compute and display the first ten elements of a series. Use \( \text{set streams calculate} \) to change the default value to something else. For the purposes of this document, we have used this system command to display fewer than ten terms. For more information about working with series, see 8.9 on page 374.

You can convert a functional expression to a power series by using the operation \( \text{series} \). In this example, \( \sin(a*x) \) is expanded in powers of \( (x-0) \), that is, in powers of \( x \).

\[ \text{series}(\sin(a*x), x = 0) \]

\[
ax - \frac{a^3}{6}x^3 + \frac{a^5}{120}x^5 - \frac{a^7}{5040}x^7 + \frac{a^9}{362880}x^9 - \frac{a^{11}}{39916800}x^{11} + O(x^{12})
\]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)
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This expression expands \( \sin(a \cdot x) \) in powers of \((x - \pi/4)\).

\[
\text{series}(\sin(a \cdot x), x = \pi/4) = \\
\sin \left( \frac{a \pi}{4} \right) + a \cos \left( \frac{a \pi}{4} \right) \left( x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right) - \\
\frac{a^2 \sin \left( \frac{a \pi}{4} \right)}{2} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^2 - \frac{a^3 \cos \left( \frac{a \pi}{4} \right)}{6} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^3 + \\
\frac{a^4 \sin \left( \frac{a \pi}{4} \right)}{24} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^4 + \frac{a^5 \cos \left( \frac{a \pi}{4} \right)}{120} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^5 - \\
\frac{a^6 \sin \left( \frac{a \pi}{4} \right)}{720} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^6 - \frac{a^7 \cos \left( \frac{a \pi}{4} \right)}{5040} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^7 + \\
\frac{a^8 \sin \left( \frac{a \pi}{4} \right)}{40320} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^8 + \frac{a^9 \cos \left( \frac{a \pi}{4} \right)}{362880} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^9 - \\
\frac{a^{10} \sin \left( \frac{a \pi}{4} \right)}{3628800} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^{10} + O \left( \left( x - \frac{\pi}{4} \right)^{11} \right)
\]

Type: \text{UnivariatePuiseuxSeries}(\text{Expression Integer}, x, \pi/4)

Axiom provides \textit{Puiseux series}: series with rational number exponents. The first argument to \textit{series} is an in-place function that computes the \(n\)-th coefficient. (Recall that the “\(+\rightarrow\)” is an infix operator meaning “maps to.”)

\[
\text{series}(n \mapsto (-1)^{(3n - 4)/6}/\text{factorial}(n - 1/3), x=0,4/3..,2) = \\
x^{\frac{1}{3}} - \frac{1}{6} x^{\frac{5}{3}} + O \left( x^5 \right)
\]

Type: \text{UnivariatePuiseuxSeries}(\text{Expression Integer}, x, 0)

Once you have created a power series, you can perform arithmetic operations on that series. We compute the Taylor expansion of \(1/(1-x)\).

\[
f := \text{series}(1/(1-x), x = 0) = \\
1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8 + x^9 + x^{10} + O \left( x^{11} \right)
\]

Type: \text{UnivariatePuiseuxSeries}(\text{Expression Integer}, x, 0)

Compute the square of the series.

\[
f \quad \text{**} \quad 2
\]
\[ 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + 4x^3 + 5x^4 + 6x^5 + 7x^6 + 8x^7 + 9x^8 + 10x^9 + 11x^{10} + O(x^{11}) \]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

The usual elementary functions (\texttt{log}, \texttt{exp}, trigonometric functions, and so on) are defined for power series.

\[
\text{f := series}(1/(1-x), x = 0) \]
\[ 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8 + x^9 + x^{10} + O(x^{11}) \]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

\[
\text{g := log(f)} \]
\[ x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \frac{1}{5}x^5 + \frac{1}{6}x^6 + \frac{1}{7}x^7 + \]
\[ \frac{1}{8}x^8 + \frac{1}{9}x^9 + \frac{1}{10}x^{10} + \frac{1}{11}x^{11} + O(x^{12}) \]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

\[
\text{exp(g)} \]
\[ 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8 + x^9 + x^{10} + O(x^{11}) \]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

Here is a way to obtain numerical approximations of \( e \) from the Taylor series expansion of \texttt{exp}(x). First create the desired Taylor expansion.

\[
\text{f := taylor(exp(x))} \]
\[ 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{24}x^4 + \frac{1}{120}x^5 + \frac{1}{720}x^6 + \]
\[ \frac{1}{5040}x^7 + \frac{1}{40320}x^8 + \frac{1}{362880}x^9 + \frac{1}{3628800}x^{10} + O(x^{11}) \]

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

Evaluate the series at the value 1.0. As you see, you get a sequence of partial sums.

\[
\text{eval(f,1.0)} \]
1.11 Derivatives

Use the Axiom function \texttt{D} to differentiate an expression.

To find the derivative of an expression \( f \) with respect to a variable \( x \), enter \texttt{D}(f, x).

\[ f := \exp \exp x \]

\[ e^{e^x} \]

Type: Expression Integer

\[ \texttt{D}(f, x) \]

\[ e^x e^{e^x} \]

Type: Expression Integer

An optional third argument \( n \) in \texttt{D} asks Axiom for the \( n \)-th derivative of \( f \). This finds the fourth derivative of \( f \) with respect to \( x \).

\[ \texttt{D}(f, x, 4) \]

\[ \left( e^{x^4} + 6 e^{x^3} + 7 e^{x^2} + e^x \right) e^{e^x} \]

Type: Expression Integer

You can also compute partial derivatives by specifying the order of differentiation.

\[ g := \sin(x^{**2} + y) \]

\[ \sin(y + x^2) \]
Axiom can manipulate the derivatives (partial and iterated) of expressions involving formal operators. All the dependencies must be explicit.

This returns 0 since F (so far) does not explicitly depend on x.

\[
\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = 0
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

Suppose that we have F a function of x, y, and z, where x and y are themselves functions of z.

Start by declaring that F, x, and y are operators.

\[
F := \text{operator} 'F; x := \text{operator} 'x; y := \text{operator} 'y
\]

You can use F, x, and y in expressions.

\[
a := F(x\ z, \ y\ z, \ z^{*2}) + x\ y(z+1)
\]

Type: BasicOperator

\[
x(y(z+1)) + F(x(z), y(z), z^{*2})
\]
Differentiate formally with respect to $z$. The formal derivatives appearing in $dadz$ are not just formal symbols, but do represent the derivatives of $x$, $y$, and $F$.

$$dadz := D(a, z)$$

$$2z F_3(x(z), y(z), z^2) + y(z) F_2(x(z), y(z), z^2) +$$

$$x(z) F_1(x(z), y(z), z^2) + x'(y(z+1)) y(z+1)$$

You can evaluate the above for particular functional values of $F$, $x$, and $y$. If $x(z)$ is $\exp(z)$ and $y(z)$ is $\log(z+1)$, then evaluates $dadz$.

$$\text{eval(eval(dadz, 'x, z +-> \exp z), 'y, z +-> \log(z+1))}$$

$$\left(\frac{(2 z^2 + 2 z) F_3(e^z, \log(z+1), z^2) +}{F_2(e^z, \log(z+1), z^2) +}{(z+1) e^z F_1(e^z, \log(z+1), z^2) + z + 1}\right)_{z+1}$$

You obtain the same result by first evaluating $a$ and then differentiating.

$$\text{eval(eval(a, 'x, z +-> \exp z), 'y, z +-> \log(z+1))}$$

$$F(e^z, \log(z+1), z^2) + z + 2$$

You obtain the same result by first evaluating $\%$ and then differentiating.

$$D(\%, z)$$

$$\left(\frac{(2 z^2 + 2 z) F_3(e^z, \log(z+1), z^2) +}{F_2(e^z, \log(z+1), z^2) +}{(z+1) e^z F_1(e^z, \log(z+1), z^2) + z + 1}\right)_{z+1}$$
1.12 Integration

Axiom has extensive library facilities for integration.

The first example is the integration of a fraction with denominator that factors into a quadratic and a quartic irreducible polynomial. The usual partial fraction approach used by most other computer algebra systems either fails or introduces expensive unneeded algebraic numbers.

We use a factorization-free algorithm.

\[
\text{integrate}\left(\frac{x^2+2x+1}{(x+1)^6+1}, x\right)
\]

\[
\frac{\arctan\left(x^3+3x^2+3x+1\right)}{3}
\]

Type: Union(Expression Integer, ...)

When real parameters are present, the form of the integral can depend on the signs of some expressions.

Rather than query the user or make sign assumptions, Axiom returns all possible answers.

\[
\text{integrate}\left(\frac{1}{x^2 + a}, x\right)
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\log\left(\frac{(x^2-a)\sqrt{-a}+2ax}{x^2+a}\right), \arctan\left(\frac{x\sqrt{a}}{a}\right) \\
\frac{\arctan\left(\frac{x\sqrt{a}}{a}\right)}{\sqrt{a}}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Union(List Expression Integer, ...)

The `integrate` operation generally assumes that all parameters are real. The only exception is when the integrand has complex valued quantities.

If the parameter is complex instead of real, then the notion of sign is undefined and there is a unique answer. You can request this answer by "prepending" the word "complex" to the command name:

\[
\text{complexIntegrate}\left(\frac{1}{x^2 + a}, x\right)
\]

\[
\log\left(\frac{x\sqrt{-a}+a}{\sqrt{-a}}\right) - \log\left(\frac{x\sqrt{-a}-a}{\sqrt{-a}}\right)
\]

Type: Expression Integer
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The following two examples illustrate the limitations of table-based approaches. The two integrands are very similar, but the answer to one of them requires the addition of two new algebraic numbers.

This one is the easy one. The next one looks very similar but the answer is much more complicated.

\[
\text{integrate}(x^3 / (a+b*x)^{1/3}, x)
\]

\[
\frac{(120 b^3 x^3 - 135 a b^2 x^2 + 162 a^2 b x - 243 a^3) \sqrt{b x + a}^2}{440 b^4}
\]

Type: Union(Expression Integer, ...)

Only an algorithmic approach is guaranteed to find what new constants must be added in order to find a solution.

\[
\text{integrate}(1 / (x^3 * (a+b*x)^{1/3}), x)
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
&\left(-2 b^2 x^2 \sqrt{3} \log \left(\sqrt[3]{a} \sqrt[3]{b x + a}^2 + \sqrt[3]{a^2} \sqrt[3]{b x + a + a}\right) + \\
&4 b^2 x^2 \sqrt{3} \log \left(\sqrt[3]{a^2} \sqrt[3]{b x + a}^2 + b x + a - a\right) + \\
&12 b^2 x^2 \arctan \left(\frac{2 \sqrt{3} \sqrt[3]{a^2} b x + a + a \sqrt{3}}{3 a}\right) + \\
&(12 b x - 9 a) \sqrt{3} \sqrt[3]{a} \sqrt[3]{b x + a}^2
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\frac{18 a^2 x^2 \sqrt{3} \sqrt[3]{a}}{18 a^2 x^2 \sqrt{3} \sqrt[3]{a}^2}
\]

Type: Union(Expression Integer, ...)

Some computer algebra systems use heuristics or table-driven approaches to integration. When these systems cannot determine the answer to an integration problem, they reply “I don’t know.” Axiom uses an algorithm which is a decision procedure for integration. If Axiom returns the original integral that conclusively proves that an integral cannot be expressed in terms of elementary functions.

When Axiom returns an integral sign, it has proved that no answer exists as an elementary function.

\[
\text{integrate}(\log(1 + \sqrt{a*x + b})) / x, x)
\]

\[
\int^x \log \left(\sqrt{b + \%Q a + 1}\right) \frac{d\%Q}{\%Q}
\]
Axiom can handle complicated mixed functions much beyond what you can find in tables. Whenever possible, Axiom tries to express the answer using the functions present in the integrand.

\[
\text{integrate}\left(\frac{\sinh(1+\sqrt{x+b})+2\sqrt{x+b}}{\sqrt{x+b} \cdot (x + \cosh(1+\sqrt{x + b}))}, \ x\right)
\]

\[
\frac{-2 \ \cosh(\sqrt{x+b}+1) - 2 \ x}{\sinh(\sqrt{x+b}+1) - \cosh(\sqrt{x+b}+1)} - 2 \sqrt{x+b}
\]

A strong structure-checking algorithm in Axiom finds hidden algebraic relationships between functions.

\[
\text{integrate}(\tan(\arctan(x)/3), x)
\]

\[
\frac{8 \log\left(3 \tan\left(\frac{\arctan(x)}{3}\right)^2 - 1\right) - 3 \tan\left(\frac{\arctan(x)}{3}\right)^2 + 18 \ x \tan\left(\frac{\arctan(x)}{3}\right)}{18}
\]

The discovery of this algebraic relationship is necessary for correct integration of this function. Here are the details:

1. If \( x = \tan t \) and \( g = \tan(t/3) \) then the following algebraic relation is true:
   \[
g^3 - 3xg^2 - 3g + x = 0
   \]

2. Integrate \( g \) using this algebraic relation; this produces:
   \[
   \frac{(24g^2 - 8) \log(3g^2 - 1) + (81x^2 + 24)g^2 + 72xg - 27x^2 - 16}{54g^2 - 18}
   \]

3. Rationalize the denominator, producing:
   \[
   \frac{8\log(3g^2 - 1) - 3g^2 + 18xg + 16}{18}
   \]

Replace \( g \) by the initial definition \( g = \tan(\arctan(x)/3) \) to produce the final result.
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This is an example of a mixed function where the algebraic layer is over the transcendental one.

\[
\int \frac{(x + 1)}{x \log(x)^{3/2}} \, dx
\]

\[= \frac{2 \sqrt{\log(x) + x}}{\log(x) + x}
\]

Type: Union(Expression Integer, ...)

While incomplete for non-elementary functions, Axiom can handle some of them.

\[
\int \frac{\exp(-x^2)}{\left(\text{erf}(x)^3 - \text{erf}(x)^2 - \text{erf}(x) + 1\right)} \, dx
\]

\[= \frac{(\text{erf}(x) - 1) \sqrt{\pi} \log\left(\frac{\text{erf}(x) - 1}{\text{erf}(x) + 1}\right) - 2 \sqrt{\pi}}{8 \text{erf}(x) - 8}
\]

Type: Union(Expression Integer, ...)

More examples of Axiom’s integration capabilities are discussed in Section 8.8 on page 370.

1.13 Differential Equations

The general approach used in integration also carries over to the solution of linear differential equations.

Let’s solve some differential equations. Let \( y \) be the unknown function in terms of \( x \).

\[y := \text{operator 'y}
\]

\[y
\]

Type: BasicOperator

Here we solve a third order equation with polynomial coefficients.

\[
deq := x^3 \frac{\text{D}(y, x, 3)}{x} + x^2 \frac{\text{D}(y, x, 2)}{x} - 2 \frac{\text{D}(y, x)}{x} + 2 \frac{y}{x} = 2 x^4
\]

\[
x^3 \frac{y'''}(x) + x^2 \frac{y''(x)}{x} - 2 x \frac{y'(x)}{x} + 2 y(x) = 2 x^4
\]
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Type: Equation Expression Integer

\[
\text{solve}(\text{deq}, y, x) = \left[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{particular} = \frac{x^5 - 10x^3 + 20x^2 + 4}{15x}, \\
basis = \left[ \frac{2x^3 - 3x^2 + 1}{x}, \frac{x^3 - 1}{x}, \frac{x^3 - 3x^2 - 1}{x} \right] \end{array} \right]
\]

Type: Union(Record(particular: Expression Integer, basis: List Expression Integer),...)

Here we find all the algebraic function solutions of the equation.

\[
deq := (x^2 + 1) \cdot D(y, x, 2) + 3 \cdot x \cdot D(y, x) + y \cdot x = 0
\]

\[
(x^2 + 1)y''(x) + 3xy'(x) + y(x) = 0
\]

Type: Equation Expression Integer

\[
\text{solve}(\text{deq}, y, x) = \left[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{particular} = 0, \\
basis = \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}, \frac{\log(\sqrt{x^2 + 1} - x)}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} \right] \end{array} \right]
\]

Type: Union(Record(particular: Expression Integer, basis: List Expression Integer),...)

Coefficients of differential equations can come from arbitrary constant fields. For example, coefficients can contain algebraic numbers.

This example has solutions whose logarithmic derivative is an algebraic function of degree two.

\[
eq := 2x^3 \cdot D(y, x, 2) + 3x^2 \cdot D(y, x) - 2 \cdot y \cdot x
\]

\[
2x^3y''(x) + 3xy'(x) - 2y(x)
\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[
\text{solve}(\text{eq}, y, x) = \text{basis}
\]
Here’s another differential equation to solve.

\[
deq := \frac{\text{\(D(y\ x, x)\)}}{\text{\((x + y(x) \cdot \log y\ x)\)}} = \frac{y(x)}{y(x) \cdot \log y(x) + x}
\]

Type: Equation Expression Integer

\[
solve(deq, y, x)
\]

\[
y(x) \cdot \log y(x)^2 - 2x
\]

\[
2y(x)
\]

Type: Union(Expression Integer, ...)

Rather than attempting to get a closed form solution of a differential equation, you instead might want to find an approximate solution in the form of a series.

Let’s solve a system of nonlinear first order equations and get a solution in power series. Tell Axiom that \(x\) is also an operator.

\[
x := \text{operator 'x}
\]

\[
x
\]

Type: BasicOperator

Here are the two equations forming our system.

\[
eq1 := \text{\(D(x(t), t)\)} = 1 + x(t)^2
\]

\[
x'(t) = x(t)^2 + 1
\]

Type: Equation Expression Integer

\[
eq2 := \text{\(D(y(t), t)\)} = x(t) \cdot y(t)
\]
$y'(t) = x(t) y(t)$

Type: Equation Expression Integer

We can solve the system around $t = 0$ with the initial conditions $x(0) = 0$ and $y(0) = 1$. Notice that since we give the unknowns in the order $[x, y]$, the answer is a list of two series in the order $[series for x(t), series for y(t)]$.

\[
\text{seriesSolve([eq2, eq1], [x, y], t = 0, [y(0) = 1, x(0) = 0])}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
t + \frac{1}{3} t^3 + \frac{2}{15} t^5 + \frac{17}{315} t^7 + \frac{62}{2835} t^9 + O(t^{11}), \\
1 + \frac{1}{2} t^2 + \frac{5}{24} t^4 + \frac{61}{720} t^6 + \frac{277}{8064} t^8 + \frac{50521}{3628800} t^{10} + O(t^{11})
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer,t,0)

1.14 Solution of Equations

Axiom also has state-of-the-art algorithms for the solution of systems of polynomial equations. When the number of equations and unknowns is the same, and you have no symbolic coefficients, you can use \texttt{solve} for real roots and \texttt{complexSolve} for complex roots. In each case, you tell Axiom how accurate you want your result to be. All operations in the \texttt{solve} family return answers in the form of a list of solution sets, where each solution set is a list of equations.

A system of two equations involving a symbolic parameter $t$.

\[
S(t) == [x^2 + 5, y - 5]
\]

Type: Void

Find the real roots of $S(19)$ with rational arithmetic, correct to within $1/10^{20}$.

\[
\text{solve(S(19),1/10**20)}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
[y = 5, x = \frac{-2451682632253093442511}{295147905179352825856}], \\
[y = 5, x = \frac{2451682632253093442511}{295147905179352825856}]
\end{align*}
\]
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Find the complex roots of \( S(19) \) with floating point coefficients to 20 digits accuracy in the mantissa.

\[
\text{complexSolve}(S(19), 10.e-20)
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
[y &= 5.0, x = 8.3066238629180748526, \\
[y &= 5.0, x = -8.3066238629180748526, \\
[y &= -3.0 i, x = 1.0], [y = 3.0 i, x = 1.0] \\
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List List Equation Polynomial Complex Float

If a system of equations has symbolic coefficients and you want a solution in radicals, try \texttt{radicalSolve}.

\[
\text{radicalSolve}(S(a), [x, y])
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
[x &= -\sqrt{a+50}, y = 5, \\
[x &= \sqrt{a+50}, y = 5, \\
[x &= 1, y = \sqrt{-\frac{a+1}{2}}, [x &= 1, y = -\sqrt{-\frac{a+1}{2}}] \\
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List List Equation Expression Integer

For systems of equations with symbolic coefficients, you can apply \texttt{solve}, listing the variables that you want Axiom to solve for. For polynomial equations, a solution cannot usually be expressed solely in terms of the other variables. Instead, the solution is presented as a “triangular” system of equations, where each polynomial has coefficients involving only the succeeding variables. This is analogous to converting a linear system of equations to “triangular form”.

A system of three equations in five variables.

\[
\text{eqns} := [x^{*2} - y + z, x^{*2} z + x^{*4} - b y, y^{*2} z - a - b x]
\]

\[
[z - y + x^2, x^2 z - b y + x^4, y^2 z - b x - a]
\]

Type: List Polynomial Integer

Solve the system for unknowns \([x, y, z]\), reducing the solution to triangular form.

\[
\text{solve(eqns, [x, y, z])}
\]
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\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  x = -\frac{a}{b}, y = 0, z = -\frac{a^2}{b^2} \\
  x = \frac{z^3 + 2 b z^2 + b^2 z - a}{b}, y = z + b, \\
  z^6 + 4 b z^4 + 6 b^2 z^4 + (4 b^3 - 2 a) z^3 + (b^4 - 4 a b) z^2 - 2 a b^2 = 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List List Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer

1.15 System Commands

We conclude our tour of Axiom with a brief discussion of system commands. System commands are special statements that start with a closing parenthesis (\(\))\). They are used to control or display your Axiom environment, start the HyperDoc system, issue operating system commands and leave Axiom. For example, \(\text{)system}\) is used to issue commands to the operating system from Axiom. Here is a brief description of some of these commands. For more information on specific commands, see Appendix A on page 966.

Perhaps the most important user command is the \(\text{)clear all}\) command that initializes your environment. Every section and subsection in this document has an invisible \(\text{)clear all}\) that is read prior to the examples given in the section. \(\text{)clear all}\) gives you a fresh, empty environment with no user variables defined and the step number reset to 1. The \(\text{)clear}\) command can also be used to selectively clear values and properties of system variables.

Another useful system command is \(\text{)read}\). A preferred way to develop an application in Axiom is to put your interactive commands into a file, say \text{my.input} file. To get Axiom to read this file, you use the system command \(\text{)read my.input}\). If you need to make changes to your approach or definitions, go into your favorite editor, change \text{my.input}, then \(\text{)read my.input}\) again.

Other system commands include: \(\text{)history}\), to display previous input and/or output lines; \(\text{)display}\), to display properties and values of workspace variables; and \(\text{)what}\). Issue \(\text{)what}\) to get a list of Axiom objects that contain a given substring in their name.

\(\text{)what operations integrate}\)

Operations whose names satisfy the above pattern(s):

\text{HermiteIntegrate} \quad \text{algintegrate} \quad \text{complexIntegrate}
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toIntegrate extendedIntegrate fintegrate
intfieldIntegrate integrate internalIntegrate
internalIntegrate0 lazyGintegrate lazyIntegrate
lfintegrate limitedIntegrate monomialIntegrate
nagPolygonIntegrate palgintegrate pmComplexintegrate
pmintegrate primintegrate tanintegrate

To get more information about an operation such as limitedIntegrate, issue the command )display op limitedIntegrate

1.15.1 Undo

A useful system command is )undo. Sometimes while computing interactively with Axiom, you make a mistake and enter an incorrect definition or assignment. Or perhaps you need to try one of several alternative approaches, one after another, to find the best way to approach an application. For this, you will find the undo facility of Axiom helpful.

System command )undo n means “undo back to step n”; it restores the values of user variables to those that existed immediately after input expression n was evaluated. Similarly, )undo -n undoes changes caused by the last n input expressions. Once you have done an )undo, you can continue on from there, or make a change and redo all your input expressions from the point of the )undo forward. The )undo is completely general: it changes the environment like any user expression. Thus you can )undo any previous undo.

Here is a sample dialogue between user and Axiom.

“Let me define two mutually dependent functions f and g piece-wise.”

\[
f(0) == 1; g(0) == 1
\]

Type: Void

“Here is the general term for f.”

\[
f(n) == e/2*f(n-1) - x*g(n-1)
\]

Type: Void

“And here is the general term for g.”

\[
g(n) == -x*f(n-1) + d/3*g(n-1)
\]
“What is value of $f(3)$?”

$$f(3) = -x^3 + \left( e + \frac{1}{3} d \right) x^2 + \left( -\frac{1}{4} e^2 - \frac{1}{6} d e - \frac{1}{9} d^2 \right) x + \frac{1}{8} e^3$$

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

“Hmm, I think I want to define $f$ differently. Undo to the environment right after I defined $f$.”

)`undo 2`

“Here is how I think I want $f$ to be defined instead.”

$$f(n) = \frac{d}{3} f(n-1) - x g(n-1)$$

1 old definition(s) deleted for function or rule $f$

Type: Void

Redo the computation from expression 3 forward.

)`undo }redo`

$$g(n) = -x f(n-1) + \frac{d}{3} g(n-1)$$

Type: Void

$$f(3)$$

Compiling function $g$ with type Integer -> Polynomial Fraction
Integer
Compiling function $g$ as a recurrence relation.

+++ |*1;g;1;G82322;AUX| redefined

+++ |*1;g;1;G82322| redefined

Compiling function $g$ with type Integer -> Polynomial Fraction
Integer
Compiling function $g$ as a recurrence relation.
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+++ |*1;g;1;G82322;AUX| redefined
+++ |*1;g;1;G82322| redefined
   Compiling function f with type Integer -> Polynomial Fraction
   Integer
   Compiling function f as a recurrence relation.
+++ |*1;f;1;G82322;AUX| redefined
+++ |*1;f;1;G82322| redefined

\[-x^3 + dx^2 - \frac{1}{3} d^2 x + \frac{1}{27} d^3\]
Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

“I want my old definition of f after all. Undo the undo and restore the environment to that immediately after (4).”

)undo 4

“Check that the value of f(3) is restored.”

f(3)

Compiling function g with type Integer -> Polynomial Fraction
Integer
Compiling function g as a recurrence relation.
+++ |*1;g;1;G82322;AUX| redefined
+++ |*1;g;1;G82322| redefined
   Compiling function g with type Integer -> Polynomial Fraction
   Integer
   Compiling function g as a recurrence relation.
+++ |*1;g;1;G82322;AUX| redefined
+++ |*1;g;1;G82322| redefined
   Compiling function f with type Integer -> Polynomial Fraction
   Integer
   Compiling function f as a recurrence relation.
+++ |*1;f;1;G82322;AUX| redefined
1.16 Graphics

Axiom has a two- and three-dimensional drawing and rendering package that allows you to draw, shade, color, rotate, translate, map, clip, scale and combine graphic output of Axiom computations. The graphics interface is capable of plotting functions of one or more variables and plotting parametric surfaces. Once the graphics figure appears in a window, move your mouse to the window and click. A control panel appears immediately and allows you to interactively transform the object.

This is an example of Axiom’s two-dimensional plotting. From the 2D Control Panel you can rescale the plot, turn axes and units on and off and save the image, among other things. This PostScript image was produced by clicking on the `PS` 2D Control Panel button.

draw(cos(5*t/8), t=0..16*%pi, coordinates==polar)

This is an example of Axiom’s three-dimensional plotting. It is a monochrome graph of the complex arctangent function. The image displayed was rotated and had the “shade” and “outline” display options set from the 3D Control Panel. The PostScript output was produced by clicking on the `save` 3D Control Panel button and then clicking on the `PS` button. See Section 8.1 on page 337 for more details and examples of Axiom’s numeric and graphics capabilities.

draw((x,y) +-> real atan complex(x,y), -%pi..%pi, -%pi..%pi, colorFunction == (x,y) +-> argument atan complex(x,y))

An exhibit of Axiom images is given later. For a description of the commands and programs that produced these figures, see A on page 1046. PostScript output is available so that Axiom images can be printed.\footnote{PostScript is a trademark of Adobe Systems Incorporated, registered in the United States.} See 7 on page 289 for more examples and details about using Axiom’s graphics facilities.
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Figure 1.1: $J_0(\sqrt{x^2+y^2})$ for $-20 \leq x, y \leq 20$

Figure 1.2: atan

This concludes your tour of Axiom. To disembark, issue the system command `)quit` to leave Axiom and return to the operating system.
Chapter 2

Using Types and Modes

In this chapter we look at the key notion of type and its generalization mode. We show that every Axiom object has a type that determines what you can do with the object. In particular, we explain how to use types to call specific functions from particular parts of the library and how types and modes can be used to create new objects from old. We also look at Record and Union types and the special type Any. Finally, we give you an idea of how Axiom manipulates types and modes internally to resolve ambiguities.

2.1 The Basic Idea

The Axiom world deals with many kinds of objects. There are mathematical objects such as numbers and polynomials, data structure objects such as lists and arrays, and graphics objects such as points and graphic images. Functions are objects too.

Axiom organizes objects using the notion of domain of computation, or simply domain. Each domain denotes a class of objects. The class of objects it denotes is usually given by the name of the domain: Integer for the integers, Float for floating-point numbers, and so on. The convention is that the first letter of a domain name is capitalized. Similarly, the domain Polynomial(Integer) denotes “polynomials with integer coefficients.” Also, Matrix(Float) denotes “matrices with floating-point entries.”

Every basic Axiom object belongs to a unique domain. The integer 3 belongs to the domain Integer and the polynomial \( x + 3 \) belongs to the domain Polynomial(Integer). The domain of an object is also called its type. Thus we speak of “the type Integer” and “the type Polynomial(Integer).”

After an Axiom computation, the type is displayed toward the right-hand side of the page (or screen).
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−3

Type: Integer

Here we create a rational number but it looks like the last result. The type however tells you it is different. You cannot identify the type of an object by how Axiom displays the object.

−3/1

−3

Type: Fraction Integer

When a computation produces a result of a simpler type, Axiom leaves the type unsimplified. Thus no information is lost.

x + 3 - x

3

Type: Polynomial Integer

This seldom matters since Axiom retracts the answer to the simpler type if it is necessary.

factorial(%)  

6

Type: Expression Integer

When you issue a positive number, the type PositiveInteger is printed. Surely, 3 also has type Integer! The curious reader may now have two questions. First, is the type of an object not unique? Second, how is PositiveInteger related to Integer?

3

Type: PositiveInteger
Any domain can be refined to a subdomain by a membership predicate. A predicate is a function that, when applied to an object of the domain, returns either true or false. For example, the domain Integer can be refined to the subdomain PositiveInteger, the set of integers \( x \) such that \( x > 0 \), by giving the Axiom predicate \( x > 0 \). Similarly, Axiom can define subdomains such as “the subdomain of diagonal matrices,” “the subdomain of lists of length two,” “the subdomain of monic irreducible polynomials in \( x \),” and so on. Trivially, any domain is a subdomain of itself.

While an object belongs to a unique domain, it can belong to any number of subdomains. Any subdomain of the domain of an object can be used as the type of that object. The type of 3 is indeed both Integer and PositiveInteger as well as any other subdomain of integer whose predicate is satisfied, such as “the prime integers,” “the odd positive integers between 3 and 17,” and so on.

2.1.1 Domain Constructors

In Axiom, domains are objects. You can create them, pass them to functions, and, as we’ll see later, test them for certain properties.

In Axiom, you ask for a value of a function by applying its name to a set of arguments. To ask for “the factorial of 7” you enter this expression to Axiom. This applies the function factorial to the value 7 to compute the result.

\[
\text{factorial}(7)
\]

\[
5040
\]

Type: PositiveInteger

Enter the type Polynomial (Integer) as an expression to Axiom. This looks much like a function call as well. It is! The result is appropriately stated to be of type Domain, which according to our usual convention, denotes the class of all domains.

\[
\text{Polynomial(Integer)}
\]

Polynomial Integer

Type: Domain

The most basic operation involving domains is that of building a new domain from a given one. To create the domain of “polynomials over the integers,” Axiom applies the function Polynomial to the domain Integer. A function like Polynomial is called a domain constructor or, more simply, a constructor. A domain constructor is a function that creates a domain. An argument to a domain constructor can be another domain or, in general, an arbitrary kind of object. Polynomial takes a single domain argument.
while SquareMatrix takes a positive integer as an argument to give its dimension and a domain argument to give the type of its components.

What kinds of domains can you use as the argument to Polynomial or SquareMatrix or List? Well, the first two are mathematical in nature. You want to be able to perform algebraic operations like “+” and “*” on polynomials and square matrices, and operations such as determinant on square matrices. So you want to allow polynomials of integers and polynomials of square matrices with complex number coefficients and, in general, anything that “makes sense.” At the same time, you don’t want Axiom to be able to build nonsense domains such as “polynomials of strings!”

In contrast to algebraic structures, data structures can hold any kind of object. Operations on lists such as insert, delete, and concat just manipulate the list itself without changing or operating on its elements. Thus you can build List over almost any datatype, including itself.

Create a complicated algebraic domain.

List (List (Matrix (Polynomial (Complex (Fraction (Integer)))))

List List Matrix Polynomial Complex Fraction Integer

Type: Domain

Try to create a meaningless domain.

Polynomial(String)

Polynomial String is not a valid type.

Evidently from our last example, Axiom has some mechanism that tells what a constructor can use as an argument. This brings us to the notion of category. As domains are objects, they too have a domain. The domain of a domain is a category. A category is simply a type whose members are domains.

A common algebraic category is Ring, the class of all domains that are “rings.” A ring is an algebraic structure with constants 0 and 1 and operations “+”, “-”, and “*”. These operations are assumed “closed” with respect to the domain, meaning that they take two objects of the domain and produce a result object also in the domain. The operations are understood to satisfy certain “axioms,” certain mathematical principles providing the algebraic foundation for rings. For example, the additive inverse axiom for rings states:

Every element $x$ has an additive inverse $y$ such that $x + y = 0$.

The prototypical example of a domain that is a ring is the integers. Keep them in mind whenever we mention Ring.
Many algebraic domain constructors such as Complex, Polynomial, Fraction, take rings as arguments and return rings as values. You can use the infix operator “has” to ask a domain if it belongs to a particular category.

All numerical types are rings. Domain constructor Polynomial builds “the ring of polynomials over any other ring.”

\[
\text{Polynomial(Integer) has Ring}
\]

true

Type: Boolean

Constructor List never produces a ring.

\[
\text{List(Integer) has Ring}
\]

false

Type: Boolean

The constructor Matrix(R) builds “the domain of all matrices over the ring } R\text{.” This domain is never a ring since the operations “+”, “-”, and “*” on matrices of arbitrary shapes are undefined.

\[
\text{Matrix(Integer) has Ring}
\]

false

Type: Boolean

Thus you can never build polynomials over matrices.

\[
\text{Polynomial(Matrix(Integer))}
\]

Polynomial Matrix Integer is not a valid type.

Use SquareMatrix(n,R) instead. For any positive integer n, it builds “the ring of n by n matrices over R.”

\[
\text{Polynomial(SquareMatrix(7,Complex(Integer)))}
\]

Polynomial SquareMatrix(7,Complex Integer)
Another common category is Field, the class of all fields. A field is a ring with additional operations. For example, a field has commutative multiplication and a closed operation “/” for the division of two elements. Integer is not a field since, for example, 3/2 does not have an integer result. The prototypical example of a field is the rational numbers, that is, the domain Fraction(Integer). In general, the constructor Fraction takes an IntegralDomain, which is a ring with additional properties, as an argument and returns a field. \(^1\) Other domain constructors, such as Complex, build fields only if their argument domain is a field.

The complex integers (often called the “Gaussian integers”) do not form a field.

Complex(Integer) has Field

\[
\text{false}
\]

Type: Boolean

But fractions of complex integers do.

Fraction(Complex(Integer)) has Field

\[
\text{true}
\]

Type: Boolean

The algebraically equivalent domain of complex rational numbers is a field since domain constructor Complex produces a field whenever its argument is a field.

Complex(Fraction(Integer)) has Field

\[
\text{true}
\]

Type: Boolean

The most basic category is Type. It denotes the class of all domains and subdomains. Note carefully that Type does not denote the class of all types. The type of all categories is Category. The type of Type itself is undefined. Domain constructor List is able to build “lists of elements from domain \(D\)” for arbitrary \(D\) simply by requiring that \(D\) belong to category Type.

Now, you may ask, what exactly is a category? Like domains, categories can be defined in the Axiom language. A category is defined by three components:

\(^1\)Actually, the argument domain must have some additional so as to belong to the category IntegralDomain
CHAPTER 2. USING TYPES AND MODES

1. a name (for example, Ring), used to refer to the class of domains that the category represents;

2. a set of operations, used to refer to the operations that the domains of this class support (for example, “+”, “-”, and “*” for rings); and

3. an optional list of other categories that this category extends.

This last component is a new idea. And it is key to the design of Axiom! Because categories can extend one another, they form hierarchies. Detailed charts showing the category hierarchies in Axiom are displayed in Appendix (TPDHERE). There you see that all categories are extensions of Type and that Field is an extension of Ring.

The operations supported by the domains of a category are called the exports of that category because these are the operations made available for system-wide use. The exports of a domain of a given category are not only the ones explicitly mentioned by the category. Since a category extends other categories, the operations of these other categories—and all categories these other categories extend—are also exported by the domains.

For example, polynomial domains belong to PolynomialCategory. This category explicitly mentions some twenty-nine operations on polynomials, but it extends eleven other categories (including Ring). As a result, the current system has over one hundred operations on polynomials.

If a domain belongs to a category that extends, say, Ring, it is convenient to say that the domain exports Ring. The name of the category thus provides a convenient shorthand for the list of operations exported by the category. Rather than listing operations such as “+” and “*” of Ring each time they are needed, the definition of a type simply asserts that it exports category Ring.

The category name, however, is more than a shorthand. The name Ring, in fact, implies that the operations exported by rings are required to satisfy a set of “axioms” associated with the name Ring. This subtle but important feature distinguishes Axiom from other abstract datatype designs.

Why is it not correct to assume that some type is a ring if it exports all of the operations of Ring? Here is why. Some languages such as APL denote the Boolean constants true and false by the integers 1 and 0 respectively, then use “+” and “*” to denote the logical operators or and and. But with these definitions Boolean is not a ring since the additive inverse axiom is violated. That is, there is no inverse element a such that \(1 + a = 0\), or, in the usual terms: true or a = false. This alternative definition of Boolean can be easily and correctly implemented in Axiom, since Boolean simply does not assert that it is of category Ring. This prevents the system from building meaningless domains such as Polynomial(Boolean) and then wrongfully applying algorithms that presume that the ring axioms hold.

Enough on categories. To learn more about them, see Chapter 12 on page 897. We now return to our discussion of domains.

Domains export a set of operations to make them available for system-wide use. Integer,
for example, exports the operations "+" and "=" given by the signatures "+": (Integer,Integer) → Integer and "=": (Integer,Integer) → Boolean, respectively. Each of these operations takes two Integer arguments. The "+" operation also returns an Integer but "=" returns a Boolean: true or false. The operations exported by a domain usually manipulate objects of the domain—but not always.

The operations of a domain may actually take as arguments, and return as values, objects from any domain. For example, Fraction (Integer) exports the operations "/": (Integer,Integer) → Fraction(Integer) and characteristic: → NonNegativeInteger.

Suppose all operations of a domain take as arguments and return as values, only objects from other domains. This kind of domain is what Axiom calls a package.

A package does not designate a class of objects at all. Rather, a package is just a collection of operations. Actually the bulk of the Axiom library of algorithms consists of packages. The facilities for factorization; integration; solution of linear, polynomial, and differential equations; computation of limits; and so on, are all defined in packages. Domains needed by algorithms can be passed to a package as arguments or used by name if they are not "variable." Packages are useful for defining operations that convert objects of one type to another, particularly when these types have different parameterizations. As an example, the package PolynomialFunction2(R,S) defines operations that convert polynomials over a domain $R$ to polynomials over $S$.

To convert an object from Polynomial(Integer) to Polynomial(Float), Axiom builds the package PolynomialFunctions2(Integer,Float) in order to create the required conversion function. (This happens "behind the scenes" for you: see 2.7 on page 151 for details on how to convert objects.)

Axiom categories, domains and packages and all their contained functions are written in the Axiom programming language and have been compiled into machine code. This is what comprises the Axiom library. We will show you how to use these domains and their functions and how to write your own functions.

### 2.2 Writing Types and Modes

We have already seen in the last section 2.1 on page 126 several examples of types. Most of these examples had either no arguments (for example, Integer) or one argument (for example, Polynomial {Integer}). In this section we give details about writing arbitrary types. We then define modes and discuss how to write them. We conclude the section with a discussion on constructor abbreviations.

When might you need to write a type or mode? You need to do so when you declare variables.

```plaintext
a : PositiveInteger
```

Type: Void
You need to do so when you declare functions (See Section 2.3 on page 138).

\[ f : \text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{String} \]

Type: Void

You need to do so when you convert an object from one type to another (See Section 2.7 on page 151).

\[ \text{factor}(2 :: \text{Complex(Integer)}) \]

\[ -i(1+i)^2 \]

Type: Factored Complex Integer

\( (2 = 3) \text{Integer} \)

false

Type: Boolean

You need to do so when you give computation target type information (See Section 2.9 on page 158).

\( (2 = 3) \text{@Boolean} \)

false

Type: Boolean

2.2.1 Types with No Arguments

A constructor with no arguments can be written either with or without trailing opening and closing parentheses “()”.

Boolean() is the same as Boolean
Integer() is the same as Integer
String() is the same as String
Void() is the same as Void

It is customary to omit the parentheses.
2.2.2 Types with One Argument

A constructor with one argument can frequently be written with no parentheses. Types nest from right to left so that Complex Fraction Polynomial Integer is the same as Complex (Fraction (Polynomial (Integer))). You need to use parentheses to force the application of a constructor to the correct argument, but you need not use any more than is necessary to remove ambiguities.

Here are some guidelines for using parentheses (they are possibly slightly more restrictive than they need to be).

If the argument is an expression like 2 + 3 then you must enclose the argument in parentheses.

\[ e : \text{PrimeField}(2 + 3) \]

Type: Void

If the type is to be used with package calling then you must enclose the argument in parentheses.

\[ \text{content}(2)\text{Polynomial}(\text{Integer}) \]

2

Type: Integer

Alternatively, you can write the type without parentheses then enclose the whole type expression with parentheses.

\[ \text{content}(2)(\text{Polynomial Complex Fraction Integer}) \]

2

Type: Complex Fraction Integer

If you supply computation target type information (See Section 2.9 on page 158) then you should enclose the argument in parentheses.

\[ (2/3)\text{Fraction}(\text{Polynomial}(\text{Integer})) \]

2 \[ \frac{2}{3} \]

Type: Fraction Polynomial Integer
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If the type itself has parentheses around it and we are not in the case of the first example above, then the parentheses can usually be omitted.

\[
\frac{2}{3}\@\text{Fraction(Polynomial Integer)}
\]

Type: Fraction Polynomial Integer

If the type is used in a declaration and the argument is a single-word type, integer or symbol, then the parentheses can usually be omitted.

\[
(d,f,g) : \text{Complex Polynomial Integer}
\]

Type: Void

2.2.3 Types with More Than One Argument

If a constructor has more than one argument, you must use parentheses. Some examples are

- \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Float})
- \text{MultivariatePolynomial}([z,w,r], \text{Complex Float})
- \text{SquareMatrix}(3, \text{Integer})
- \text{FactoredFunctions2}(\text{Integer}, \text{Fraction Integer})

2.2.4 Modes

A mode is a type that possibly is a question mark (?) or contains one in an argument position. For example, the following are all modes.

\[
?\quad \text{Polynomial} ?
\quad \text{Matrix Polynomial} ?
\quad \text{SquareMatrix}(3, ?)
\quad \text{Integer}
\quad \text{OneDimensionalArray(Float)}
\]

As is evident from these examples, a mode is a type with a part that is not specified (indicated by a question mark). Only one "?" is allowed per mode and it must appear in the most deeply nested argument that is a type. Thus \text{?(Integer)}, \text{Matrix(? (Polynomial))}, \text{SquareMatrix(? , Integer)} (it requires a numeric argument) and
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SquareMatrix(?, ?) are all invalid. The question mark must take the place of a domain, not data. This rules out, for example, the two SquareMatrix expressions.

Modes can be used for declarations (See Section 2.3 on page 138) and conversions (Section 2.7 on page 151). However, you cannot use a mode for package calling or giving target type information.

2.2.5 Abbreviations

Every constructor has an abbreviation that you can freely substitute for the constructor name. In some cases, the abbreviation is nothing more than the capitalized version of the constructor name.

Aside from allowing types to be written more concisely, abbreviations are used by Axiom to name various system files for constructors (such as library filenames, test input files and example files). Here are some common abbreviations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Constructor Name</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COMPLEX</td>
<td>Complex DFLOAT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPR</td>
<td>Expression FLOAT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRAC</td>
<td>Fraction INT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MATRIX</td>
<td>Matrix NNI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PI</td>
<td>PositiveInteger POLY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STRING</td>
<td>String UP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You can combine both full constructor names and abbreviations in a type expression. Here are some types using abbreviations.

POLY INT is the same as Polynomial(INT)
POLY(Integer) is the same as Polynomial(Integer)
POLY(Integer) is the same as Polynomial(INT)
FRAC(COMPLEX(INT)) is the same as Fraction Complex Integer
FRAC(COMPLEX(INT)) is the same as FRAC(Complex Integer)

There are several ways of finding the names of constructors and their abbreviations. For a specific constructor, use )abbreviation query. You can also use the )what system command to see the names and abbreviations of constructors. For more information about )what, see ?? on page ??.

)abbreviation query can be abbreviated (no pun intended) to )abb q.

)abb q Integer

INT abbreviates domain Integer
The \texttt{abbreviate} query command lists the constructor name if you give the abbreviation. Issue \texttt{)abb q} if you want to see the names and abbreviations of all Axiom constructors.

\texttt{)abb q DMP}

DMP abbreviates domain \texttt{DistributedMultivariatePolynomial}

Issue this to see all packages whose names contain the string “ode”.

\texttt{)what packages ode}

\begin{verbatim}
---------------------- Packages -----------------------
Packages with names matching patterns:
    ode
    EXPRODE ExpressionSpaceODESolver
    FCPAK1 FortranCodePackage1
    GRAY GrayCode
    LODEEF ElementaryFunctionLODESolver
    NODE1 NonLinearFirstOrderODESolver
    ODECONST ConstantLODE
    ODEEF ElementaryFunctionLODESolver
    ODEINT ODEIntegration
    ODERAL PureAlgebraicLODE
    ODERAT RationalLODE
    ODERED ReduceLODE
    ODESYS SystemODESolver
    ODETOOLS ODETools
    UTSODE UnivariateTaylorSeriesODESolver
    UTSODETL UTSodetools
\end{verbatim}

2.3 Declarations

A \textit{declaration} is an expression used to restrict the type of values that can be assigned to variables. A colon “:” is always used after a variable or list of variables to be declared.

For a single variable, the syntax for declaration is

\[
\text{variableName} : \text{typeOrMode}
\]

For multiple variables, the syntax is

\[
(\text{variableName}_1, \text{variableName}_2, \ldots \text{variableName}_N) : \text{typeOrMode}
\]
You can always combine a declaration with an assignment. When you do, it is equivalent to first giving a declaration statement, then giving an assignment. For more information on assignment, see Section 1.3.4 on page 74 and Section 5.1 on page 188. To see how to declare your own functions, see 6.4 on page 230.

This declares one variable to have a type.

```plaintext
a : Integer
```

This declares several variables to have a type.

```plaintext
(b,c) : Integer
```

\(a, b\) and \(c\) can only hold integer values.

```plaintext
a := 45
```

```
45
```

If a value cannot be converted to a declared type, an error message is displayed.

```plaintext
b := 4/5
```

```
Cannot convert right-hand side of assignment
4
-
5
to an object of the type Integer of the left-hand side.
```

This declares a variable with a mode.

```plaintext
n : Complex ?
```

```
Type: Void
```
This declares several variables with a mode.

\((p,q,r) : \text{Matrix Polynomial}\ ?\)

\[\begin{align*}
\text{Type: Void}
\end{align*}\]

This complex object has integer real and imaginary parts.

\(n := -36 + 9 \times i\)

\[-36 + 9 i\]

\[\text{Type: Complex Integer}\]

This complex object has fractional symbolic real and imaginary parts.

\(n := \text{complex}(4/(x + y),y/x)\)

\[\frac{4}{y+x} + \frac{y}{x} i\]

\[\text{Type: Complex Fraction Polynomial Integer}\]

This matrix has entries that are polynomials with integer coefficients.

\(p := \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
3 & 4 \\
5 & 6 \\
\end{bmatrix}\)

\[\text{Type: Matrix Polynomial Integer}\]

This matrix has a single entry that is a polynomial with rational number coefficients.

\(q := \begin{bmatrix}
[x - 2/3] \\
\end{bmatrix}\)

\[\text{Type: Matrix Polynomial Fraction Integer}\]

This matrix has entries that are polynomials with complex integer coefficients.
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r := [ [1-%i*x,7*y+4*%i] ]

[ 
  −i x + 1 7 y + 4 i
]

Type: Matrix Polynomial Complex Integer

Note the difference between this and the next example. This is a complex object with polynomial real and imaginary parts.

f : COMPLEX POLY ? := (x + y*%i)**2

−y^{2} + x^{2} + 2 x y i

Type: Complex Polynomial Integer

This is a polynomial with complex integer coefficients. The objects are convertible from one to the other. See 2.7 on page 151 for more information.

g : POLY COMPLEX ? := (x + y*%i)**2

−y^{2} + 2 i x y + x^{2}

Type: Polynomial Complex Integer

2.4 Records

A Record is an object composed of one or more other objects, each of which is referenced with a selector. Components can all belong to the same type or each can have a different type.

The syntax for writing a Record type is

\[
\text{Record(} \text{selector}_1: \text{type}_1, \text{ selector}_2: \text{type}_2, \ldots, \text{ selector}_N: \text{type}_N)\]

You must be careful if a selector has the same name as a variable in the workspace. If this occurs, precede the selector name by a single quote.

Record components are implicitly ordered. All the components of a record can be set at once by assigning the record a bracketed tuple of values of the proper length. For example:

r : Record(a:Integer, b: String) := [1, "two"]
[a = 1, b = "two"]

Type: Record(a: Integer, b: String)

To access a component of a record r, write the name r, followed by a period, followed by a selector.
The object returned by this computation is a record with two components: a quotient part and a remainder part.

\[ u := \text{divide}(5, 2) \]

\[ \text{quotient} = 2, \text{remainder} = 1 \]

Type: Record(quotient: Integer, remainder: Integer)

This is the quotient part.

\( u.\text{quotient} \)

2

Type: PositiveInteger

This is the remainder part.

\( u.\text{remainder} \)

1

Type: PositiveInteger

You can use selector expressions on the left-hand side of an assignment to change destructively the components of a record.

\( u.\text{quotient} := 8978 \)

8978

Type: PositiveInteger

The selected component quotient has the value 8978, which is what is returned by the assignment. Check that the value of u was modified.

\( u \)
[quotient = 8978, remainder = 1]

Type: Record(quotient: Integer, remainder: Integer)

Selectors are evaluated. Thus you can use variables that evaluate to selectors instead of
the selectors themselves.

s := 'quotient

quotient

Type: Variable quotient

Be careful! A selector could have the same name as a variable in the workspace. If this
occurs, precede the selector name by a single quote, as in u.'quotient.

divide(5,2).s

2

Type: PositiveInteger

Here we declare that the value of bd has two components: a string, to be accessed via
name, and an integer, to be accessed via birthdayMonth.

bd : Record(name : String, birthdayMonth : Integer)

Type: Void

You must initially set the value of the entire Record at once.

bd := ["Judith", 3]

[name = "Judith", birthdayMonth = 3]

Type: Record(name: String, birthdayMonth: Integer)

Once set, you can change any of the individual components.

bd.name := "Katie"

"Katie"
Records may be nested and the selector names can be shared at different levels.

\[ r : \text{Record}(a : \text{Record}(b: \text{Integer}, c: \text{Integer}), b: \text{Integer}) \]

\[ \text{Type: Void} \]

The record \( r \) has a \( b \) selector at two different levels. Here is an initial value for \( r \).

\[ r := [ [1,2], 3 ] \]

\[ [a = b = 1, c = 2], b = 3 \]

\[ \text{Type: Record}(a: \text{Record}(b: \text{Integer}, c: \text{Integer}), b: \text{Integer}) \]

This extracts the \( b \) component from the \( a \) component of \( r \).

\[ r.a.b \]

\[ 1 \]

\[ \text{Type: PositiveInteger} \]

This extracts the \( b \) component from \( r \).

\[ r.b \]

\[ 3 \]

\[ \text{Type: PositiveInteger} \]

You can also use spaces or parentheses to refer to \texttt{Record} components. This is the same as \( r.a \).

\[ r(a) \]

\[ [b = 1, c = 2] \]

\[ \text{Type: Record}(b: \text{Integer}, c: \text{Integer}) \]

This is the same as \( r.b \).
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Type: PositiveInteger

This is the same as \( r \cdot b := 10 \).

\[
r(b) := 10
\]

Type: PositiveInteger

Look at \( r \) to make sure it was modified.

\[
r \quad [a = [b = 1, c = 2], b = 10]
\]

Type: Record(a: Record(b: Integer, c: Integer), b: Integer)

2.5 Unions

Type Union is used for objects that can be of any of a specific finite set of types. Two versions of unions are available, one with selectors (like records) and one without.

2.5.1 Unions Without Selectors

The declaration \( x : \text{Union}(\text{Integer, String, Float}) \) states that \( x \) can have values that are integers, strings or “big” floats. If, for example, the Union object is an integer, the object is said to belong to the Integer branch of the Union. Note that we are being a bit careless with the language here. Technically, the type of \( x \) is always Union=Integer, String, Float). If it belongs to the Integer branch, \( x \) may be converted to an object of type Integer.

The syntax for writing a Union type without selectors is

\[
\text{Union}(type_1, type_2, \ldots, type+N)
\]

The types in a union without selectors must be distinct.
It is possible to create unions like `Union(Integer, PositiveInteger)` but they are difficult to work with because of the overlap in the branch types. See below for the rules Axiom uses for converting something into a union object.

The `case` infix operator returns a `Boolean` and can be used to determine the branch in which an object lies.

This function displays a message stating in which branch of the `Union` the object (defined as `x` above) lies.

```lisp
sayBranch(x : Union(Integer,String,Float)) : Void ==
  output
  x case Integer => "Integer branch"
  x case String  => "String branch"
  "Float branch"
```

This tries `sayBranch` with an integer.

```lisp
sayBranch 1
```

```
Compiling function sayBranch with type Union(Integer,String,Float)
  -> Void
Integer branch
Type: Void
```

This tries `sayBranch` with a string.

```lisp
sayBranch "hello"
```

```
String branch
Type: Void
```

This tries `sayBranch` with a floating-point number.

```lisp
sayBranch 2.718281828
```

```
Float branch
Type: Void
```

There are two things of interest about this particular example to which we would like to draw your attention.
1. Axiom normally converts a result to the target value before passing it to the function. If we left the declaration information out of this function definition then the sayBranch call would have been attempted with an Integer rather than a Union, and an error would have resulted.

2. The types in a Union are searched in the order given. So if the type were given as

```axiom
sayBranch(x: Union(String,Integer,Float,Any)): Void
```

then the result would have been “String branch” because there is a conversion from Integer to String.

Sometimes Union types can have extremely long names. Axiom therefore abbreviates the names of unions by printing the type of the branch first within the Union and then eliding the remaining types with an ellipsis (...).

Here the Integer branch is displayed first. Use “::” to create a Union object from an object.

```axiom
78 :: Union(Integer,String)
```

```
78
Type: Union(Integer,...)
```

Here the String branch is displayed first.

```axiom
s := "string" :: Union(Integer,String)
```

```
"string"
Type: Union(String,...)
```

Use typeOf to see the full and actual Union type.

```axiom
typeOf s
```

```
Union(Integer,String)
```

Type: Domain

A common operation that returns a union is exquo which returns the “exact quotient” if the quotient is exact,

```axiom
three := exquo(6,2)
```
and "failed" if the quotient is not exact.

\[
exquo(5, 2)
\]

"failed"

Type: Union("failed", ...)

A union with a "failed" is frequently used to indicate the failure or lack of applicability of an object. As another example, assign an integer a variable \( r \) declared to be a rational number.

\[
r: \text{FRAC INT} := 3
\]

3

Type: Fraction Integer

The operation \texttt{retractIfCan} tries to retract the fraction to the underlying domain \texttt{Integer}. It produces a union object. Here it succeeds.

\[
\text{retractIfCan}(r)
\]

3

Type: Union(Integer,...)

Assign it a rational number.

\[
r := 3/2
\]

\[
3
\]

\[
2
\]

Type: Fraction Integer

Here the retraction fails.

\[
\text{retractIfCan}(r)
\]

"failed"

Type: Union("failed", ...)
2.5.2 Unions With Selectors

Like records (2.4 on page 141), you can write Union types with selectors.

The syntax for writing a Union type with selectors is

```
Union(selector_1:type_1, selector_2:type_2, ..., selector_N:type_N)
```

You must be careful if a selector has the same name as a variable in the workspace. If this occurs, preceded the selector name by a single quote. It is an error to use a selector that does not correspond to the branch of the Union in which the element actually lies.

Be sure to understand the difference between records and unions with selectors. Records can have more than one component and the selectors are used to refer to the components. Unions always have one component but the type of that one component can vary. An object of type `Record(a: Integer, b: Float, c: String)` contains an integer and a float and a string. An object of type `Union(a: Integer, b: Float, c: String)` contains an integer or a float or a string.

Here is a version of the `sayBranch` function (cf. 2.5.1 on page 145) that works with a union with selectors. It displays a message stating in which branch of the Union the object lies.

```plaintext
sayBranch(x:Union(i:Integer,s:String,f:Float)):Void==
output
  x case i  => "Integer branch"
  x case s => "String branch"
  "Float branch"
```

Note that case uses the selector name as its right-hand argument. If you accidentally use the branch type on the right-hand side of case, `false` will be returned.

Declare variable `u` to have a union type with selectors.

```plaintext
u : Union(i : Integer, s : String)
```

Type: Void

Give an initial value to `u`.

```plaintext
u := "good morning"
```

"good morning"
Type: Union(s: String,...)

Use case to determine in which branch of a Union an object lies.

u case i

   false

   Type: Boolean

u case s

   true

   Type: Boolean

To access the element in a particular branch, use the selector.

u.s

   "good morning"

   Type: String

2.6 The “Any” Domain

With the exception of objects of type Record, all Axiom data structures are homogeneous, that is, they hold objects all of the same type. If you need to get around this, you can use type Any. Using Any, for example, you can create lists whose elements are integers, rational numbers, strings, and even other lists.

Declare u to have type Any.

u: Any

   Type: Void

Assign a list of mixed type values to u

u := [1, 7.2, 3/2, x**2, "wally"]
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\[ \left[ 1, 7, 2, \frac{3}{2}, x^2, \text{"wally"} \right] \]

Type: List Any

When we ask for the elements, Axiom displays these types.

u.1

1

Type: PositiveInteger

Actually, these objects belong to \texttt{Any} but Axiom automatically converts them to their natural types for you.

u.3

\[ \frac{3}{2} \]

Type: Fraction Integer

Since type \texttt{Any} can be anything, it can only belong to type \texttt{Type}. Therefore it cannot be used in algebraic domains.

v : Matrix(Any)

Matrix Any is not a valid type.

Perhaps you are wondering how Axiom internally represents objects of type \texttt{Any}. An object of type \texttt{Any} consists not only a data part representing its normal value, but also a type part (a badge) giving its type. For example, the value 1 of type \texttt{PositiveInteger} as an object of type \texttt{Any} internally looks like [1, \texttt{PositiveInteger()}.]

When should you use \texttt{Any} instead of a Union type? For a Union, you must know in advance exactly which types you are going to allow. For \texttt{Any}, anything that comes along can be accommodated.

2.7 Conversion

Conversion is the process of changing an object of one type into an object of another type. The syntax for conversion is:

\[ \text{object::newType} \]
By default, 3 has the type `PositiveInteger`.

3

Type: PositiveInteger

We can change this into an object of type `Fraction Integer` by using `::`.

3 :: Fraction Integer

Type: Fraction Integer

A *coercion* is a special kind of conversion that Axiom is allowed to do automatically when you enter an expression. Coercions are usually somewhat safer than more general conversions. The Axiom library contains operations called `coerce` and `convert`. Only the `coerce` operations can be used by the interpreter to change an object into an object of another type unless you explicitly use a `::`.

By now you will be quite familiar with what types and modes look like. It is useful to think of a type or mode as a pattern for what you want the result to be.

Let’s start with a square matrix of polynomials with complex rational number coefficients.

m : SquareMatrix(2, POLY COMPLEX FRAC INT)

Type: Void

m := matrix \[
\begin{bmatrix}
x - \frac{3}{4}i & zy^2 + \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{3}{7}iy^4 - x & 12 - \frac{9}{5}i
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2, Polynomial Complex Fraction Integer)

We first want to interchange the `Complex` and `Fraction` layers. We do the conversion by doing the interchange in the type expression.

ml := m :: SquareMatrix(2, POLY FRAC COMPLEX INT)
Interchange the Polynomial and the Fraction levels.

\[ m_2 := m_1 :: \text{SquareMatrix}(2, \text{FRAC POLY COMPLEX INT}) \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{4x - 3i}{4} & \frac{2y^2 z + 1}{2} \\
\frac{3i y^4 - x}{7} & \frac{60 - 9i}{5}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Fraction Polynomial Complex Integer)

Interchange the Polynomial and the Complex levels.

\[ m_3 := m_2 :: \text{SquareMatrix}(2, \text{FRAC COMPLEX POLY INT}) \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{4x - 3i}{4} & \frac{2y^2 z + 1}{2} \\
\frac{-7x + 9y^4 i}{7} & \frac{60 - 9i}{5}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Fraction Complex Polynomial Integer)

All the entries have changed types, although in comparing the last two results only the entry in the lower left corner looks different. We did all the intermediate steps to show you what Axiom can do.

In fact, we could have combined all these into one conversion.

\[ m :: \text{SquareMatrix}(2, \text{FRAC COMPLEX POLY INT}) \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{4x - 3i}{4} & \frac{2y^2 z + 1}{2} \\
\frac{-7x + 9y^4 i}{7} & \frac{60 - 9i}{5}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Fraction Complex Polynomial Integer)

There are times when Axiom is not able to do the conversion in one step. You may need to break up the transformation into several conversions in order to get an object of the desired type.

We cannot move either Fraction or Complex above (or to the left of, depending on how you look at it) SquareMatrix because each of these levels requires that its argument type have commutative multiplication, whereas SquareMatrix does not. That is because Fraction requires that its argument belong to the category IntegralDomain
and Complex requires that its argument belong to CommutativeRing. See 2.1 on page 126 for a brief discussion of categories. The Integer level did not move anywhere because it does not allow any arguments. We also did not move the SquareMatrix part anywhere, but we could have.

Recall that \( m \) looks like this.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{3}{4}i & \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{3}{7}i & 12 - \frac{9}{5}i
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Polynomial Complex Fraction Integer)

If we want a polynomial with matrix coefficients rather than a matrix with polynomial entries, we can just do the conversion.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 \\
0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}y^2 + \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 \\
\frac{3}{7}i & 0
\end{bmatrix}y^4 + \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 \\
-1 & 0
\end{bmatrix}x + \begin{bmatrix}
-\frac{3}{4}i & \frac{1}{2} \\
0 & 12 - \frac{9}{5}i
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Polynomial SquareMatrix(2,Complex Fraction Integer)

We have not yet used modes for any conversions. Modes are a great shorthand for indicating the type of the object you want. Instead of using the long type expression in the last example, we could have simply said this.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 \\
0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}y^2 + \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 \\
\frac{3}{7}i & 0
\end{bmatrix}y^4 + \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 \\
-1 & 0
\end{bmatrix}x + \begin{bmatrix}
-\frac{3}{4}i & \frac{1}{2} \\
0 & 12 - \frac{9}{5}i
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Polynomial SquareMatrix(2,Complex Fraction Integer)

We can also indicate more structure if we want the entries of the matrices to be fractions.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 \\
0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}y^2 + \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 \\
\frac{3}{7}i & 0
\end{bmatrix}y^4 + \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 \\
-1 & 0
\end{bmatrix}x + \begin{bmatrix}
-\frac{3i}{4} & \frac{1}{2} \\
0 & 12 - \frac{9}{5}i
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Polynomial SquareMatrix(2,Fraction Complex Integer)
2.8 Subdomains Again

A subdomain $S$ of a domain $D$ is a domain consisting of

1. those elements of $D$ that satisfy some predicate (that is, a test that returns `true` or `false`) and
2. a subset of the operations of $D$.

Every domain is a subdomain of itself, trivially satisfying the membership test: `true`. Currently, there are only two system-defined subdomains in Axiom that receive substantial use. `PositiveInteger` and `NonNegativeInteger` are subdomains of `Integer`. An element $x$ of `NonNegativeInteger` is an integer that is greater than or equal to zero, that is, satisfies $x \geq 0$. An element $x$ of `PositiveInteger` is a nonnegative integer that is, in fact, greater than zero, that is, satisfies $x > 0$. Not all operations from `Integer` are available for these subdomains. For example, negation and subtraction are not provided since the subdomains are not closed under those operations. When you use an integer in an expression, Axiom assigns to it the type that is the most specific subdomain whose predicate is satisfied.

This is a positive integer.

5

Type: `PositiveInteger`

This is a nonnegative integer.

0

Type: `NonNegativeInteger`

This is neither of the above.

-5

Type: `Integer`

Furthermore, unless you are assigning an integer to a declared variable or using a conversion, any integer result has as type the most specific subdomain.
(-2) - (-3)

1

Type: PositiveInteger

0 :: Integer

0

Type: Integer

x : NonNegativeInteger := 5

5

Type: NonNegativeInteger

When necessary, Axiom converts an integer object into one belonging to a less specific subdomain. For example, in 3 - 2, the arguments to "-" are both elements of PositiveInteger, but this type does not provide a subtraction operation. Neither does NonNegativeInteger, so 3 and 2 are viewed as elements of Integer, where their difference can be calculated. The result is 1, which Axiom then automatically assigns the type PositiveInteger.

Certain operations are very sensitive to the subdomains to which their arguments belong. This is an element of PositiveInteger.

2 ** 2

4

Type: PositiveInteger

This is an element of Fraction Integer.

2 ** (-2)

1

\frac{1}{4}

Type: Fraction Integer

It makes sense then that this is a list of elements of PositiveInteger.
What should the type of \([10^{(i-1)} \text{ for } i \in 2..5]\) be? On one hand, \(i - 1\) is always an integer greater than zero as \(i\) ranges from 2 to 5 and so \(10^{*i}\) is also always a positive integer. On the other, \(i - 1\) is a very simple function of \(i\). Axiom does not try to analyze every such function over the index’s range of values to determine whether it is always positive or nowhere negative. For an arbitrary Axiom function, this analysis is not possible.

So, to be consistent no such analysis is done and we get this.

\([10^{(i-1)} \text{ for } i \in 2..5]\)

\([10, 100, 1000, 10000]\)

Type: List Fraction Integer

To get a list of elements of PositiveInteger instead, you have two choices. You can use a conversion.

\([10^{((i-1) :: \text{PI})} \text{ for } i \in 2..5}\)

Compiling function G82696 with type Integer -> Boolean
Compiling function G82708 with type NonNegativeInteger -> Boolean

\([10, 100, 1000, 10000]\)

Type: List PositiveInteger

Or you can use pretend.

\([10^{((i-1) \text{ pretend PI})} \text{ for } i \in 2..5}\)

\([10, 100, 1000, 10000]\)

Type: List PositiveInteger

The operation pretend is used to defeat the Axiom type system. The expression object pretend D means “make a new object (without copying) of type D from
object.” If object were an integer and you told Axiom to pretend it was a list, you would probably see a message about a fatal error being caught and memory possibly being damaged. Lists do not have the same internal representation as integers!

You use pretend at your peril.

Use pretend with great care! Axiom trusts you that the value is of the specified type.

\[ \text{(2/3) pretend Complex Integer} \]

\[ 2 + 3i \]

Type: Complex Integer

2.9 Package Calling and Target Types

Axiom works hard to figure out what you mean by an expression without your having to qualify it with type information. Nevertheless, there are times when you need to help it along by providing hints (or even orders!) to get Axiom to do what you want.

We saw in 2.3 on page 138 that declarations using types and modes control the type of the results produced. For example, we can either produce a complex object with polynomial real and imaginary parts or a polynomial with complex integer coefficients, depending on the declaration.

Package calling is how you tell Axiom to use a particular function from a particular part of the library.

Use the “/” from Fraction Integer to create a fraction of two integers.

\[ \text{(2/3) Float} \]

\[ 0.66666666666666667 \]

Type: Float

If we wanted a floating point number, we can say “use the “/” in Float.”

Perhaps we actually wanted a fraction of complex integers.
In each case, AXIOM used the indicated operations, sometimes first needing to convert
the two integers into objects of the appropriate type. In these examples, "/" is written
as an infix operator.

To use package calling with an infix operator, use the following syntax:

\[( arg_1 \text{ op } arg_2 )$\text{type} \]

We used, for example, \((2/3)$\text{Float}\). The expression \(2 + 3 + 4\) is equivalent to \((2 + 3) + 4\). Therefore in the expression \((2 + 3 + 4)$\text{Float}\) the second "+" comes from the Float
domain. The first "+" comes from Float because the package call causes AXIOM to
convert \((2 + 3)\) and 4 to type Float. Before the sum is converted, it is given a target type
of Float by AXIOM and then evaluated. The target type causes the "+" from Float to
be used.

For an operator written before its arguments, you must use parentheses around the
arguments (even if there is only one), and follow the closing parenthesis by a "$$
and then the type.

\[\text{fun} \ ( arg_1, arg_2, \ldots, arg_N )$\text{type} \]

For example, to call the “minimum” function from SmallFloat on two integers, you
could write \text{min}(4,89)$\text{SmallFloat}\). Another use of package calling is to tell AXIOM
to use a library function rather than a function you defined. We discuss this in Section
6.9 on page 237.

Sometimes rather than specifying where an operation comes from, you just want to say
what type the result should be. We say that you provide a target type for the expression.
Instead of using a "$", use a "@" to specify the requested target type. Otherwise, the
syntax is the same. Note that giving a target type is not the same as explicitly doing
a conversion. The first says “try to pick operations so that the result has such-and-
such a type.” The second says “compute the result and then convert to an object of
such-and-such a type.”

Sometimes it makes sense, as in this expression, to say “choose the operations in this
expression so that the final result is Float.

\((2/3)$\text{float}\)
Here we used “@” to say that the target type of the left-hand side was Float. In this simple case, there was no real difference between using “$” and “@”. You can see the difference if you try the following.

This says to try to choose “+” so that the result is a string. Axiom cannot do this.

(2 + 3)@String

An expression involving @ String actually evaluated to one of type PositiveInteger. Perhaps you should use :: String.

This says to get the + from String and apply it to the two integers. Axiom also cannot do this because there is no + exported by String.

(2 + 3)$String

The function + is not implemented in String.

(By the way, the operation concat or juxtaposition is used to concatenate two strings.)

When we have more than one operation in an expression, the difference is even more evident. The following two expressions show that Axiom uses the target type to create different objects. The “*”, “+” and “**” operations are all chosen so that an object of the correct final type is created.

This says that the operations should be chosen so that the result is a Complex object.

\((x + y \times \%i)**2)@(Complex Polynomial Integer)\n
\(-y^2 + x^2 + 2\,x\,y\,i\)

Type: Complex Polynomial Integer

This says that the operations should be chosen so that the result is a Polynomial object.

\((x + y \times \%i)**2)@(Polynomial Complex Integer)\n
\(-y^2 + 2\,i\,x\,y + x^2\)

Type: Polynomial Complex Integer
What do you think might happen if we left off all target type and package call information in this last example?

\((x + y \cdot \%i)^2\)

\[-y^2 + 2ixy + x^2\]

Type: Polynomial Complex Integer

We can convert it to Complex as an afterthought. But this is more work than just saying making what we want in the first place.

\(% :: \text{Complex} ?\)

\[-y^2 + x^2 + 2xyi\]

Type: Complex Polynomial Integer

Finally, another use of package calling is to qualify fully an operation that is passed as an argument to a function.

Start with a small matrix of integers.

\(h := \text{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 8,6 \\ -4,9 \end{bmatrix} \)

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
8 & 6 \\
-4 & 9
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

We want to produce a new matrix that has for entries the multiplicative inverses of the entries of \(h\). One way to do this is by calling map with the \text{inv} function from Fraction (Integer).

\(\text{map} \text{inv}\$\text{Fraction}(\text{Integer}),h)\)

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{1}{8} & \frac{1}{6} \\
-\frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{9}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Fraction Integer

We could have been a bit less verbose and used abbreviations.

\(\text{map} \text{inv}\$\text{FRAC}(\text{INT}),h)\)
As it turns out, Axiom is smart enough to know what we mean anyway. We can just say this.

```
map(inv, h)
```

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
\frac{1}{8} & \frac{1}{9} \\
-\frac{1}{4} & \frac{5}{9}
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Fraction Integer

2.10 Resolving Types

In this section we briefly describe an internal process by which Axiom determines a type to which two objects of possibly different types can be converted. We do this to give you further insight into how Axiom takes your input, analyzes it, and produces a result.

What happens when you enter \(x + 1\) to Axiom? Let’s look at what you get from the two terms of this expression.

This is a symbolic object whose type indicates the name.

```
x
```

\(x\)

Type: Variable \(x\)

This is a positive integer.

```
1
```

\(1\)

Type: PositiveInteger

There are no operations in \(\text{PositiveInteger}\) that add positive integers to objects of type \(\text{Variable}(x)\) nor are there any in \(\text{Variable}(x)\). Before it can add the two parts, Axiom must come up with a common type to which both \(x\) and 1 can be converted. We
say that Axiom must resolve the two types into a common type. In this example, the common type is \texttt{Polynomial(Integer)}.

Once this is determined, both parts are converted into polynomials, and the addition operation from \texttt{Polynomial(Integer)} is used to get the answer.

\[
\begin{align*}
x + 1 \\
\text{Type: Polynomial Integer}
\end{align*}
\]

Axiom can always resolve two types: if nothing resembling the original types can be found, then \texttt{Any} is be used. This is fine and useful in some cases.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{"string"}, 3.14159 \\
\text{Type: List Any}
\end{align*}
\]

In other cases objects of type \texttt{Any} can’t be used by the operations you specified.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{"string"} + 3.14159 \\
\text{There are 11 exposed and 5 unexposed library operations named + having 2 argument(s) but none was determined to be applicable. Use HyperDoc Browse, or issue } \texttt{)display op +} \\
\text{to learn more about the available operations. Perhaps package-calling the operation or using coercions on the arguments will allow you to apply the operation.}
\end{align*}
\]

Cannot find a definition or applicable library operation named + with argument type(s)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{String} \\
\text{Float}
\end{align*}
\]

Perhaps you should use "@" to indicate the required return type, or "$" to specify which version of the function you need.

Although this example was contrived, your expressions may need to be qualified slightly to help Axiom resolve the types involved. You may need to declare a few variables, do some package calling, provide some target type information or do some explicit conversions.
We suggest that you just enter the expression you want evaluated and see what Axiom does. We think you will be impressed with its ability to “do what I mean.” If Axiom is still being obtuse, give it some hints. As you work with Axiom, you will learn where it needs a little help to analyze quickly and perform your computations.

### 2.11 Exposing Domains and Packages

In this section we discuss how Axiom makes some operations available to you while hiding others that are meant to be used by developers or only in rare cases. If you are a new user of Axiom, it is likely that everything you need is available by default and you may want to skip over this section on first reading.

Every domain and package in the Axiom library is either exposed (meaning that you can use its operations without doing anything special) or it is hidden (meaning you have to either package call (see 2.9 on page 158) the operations it contains or explicitly expose it to use the operations). The initial exposure status for a constructor is set in the file `exposed.lsp` (see the Installer’s Note for Axiom if you need to know the location of this file). Constructors are collected together in exposure groups. Categories are all in the exposure group “categories” and the bulk of the basic set of packages and domains that are exposed are in the exposure group “basic.” Here is an abbreviated sample of the file (without the Lisp parentheses):

```
basic
    AlgebraicNumber      AN
    AlgebraGivenByStructuralConstants ALGSC
    Any                  ANY
    AnyFunctions1        ANY1
    BinaryExpansion      BINARY
    Boolean              BOOLEAN
    CardinalNumber       CARD
    CartesianTensor      CARTEN
    Character            CHAR
    CharacterClass       CCLASS
    CliffordAlgebra      CLIF
    Color                COLOR
    Complex              COMPLEX
    ContinuedFraction    CONTFRAC
    DecimalExpansion     DECIMAL
    ...

categories
    AbelianGroup         ABELGRP
    AbelianMonoid        ABELMON
    AbelianMonoidRing    AMR
    AbelianSemigroup     ABELSG
```
CHAPTER 2. USING TYPES AND MODES

For each constructor in a group, the full name and the abbreviation is given. There are other groups in exposed.lsp but initially only the constructors in exposure groups “basic”, “categories”, “naglink” and “anna” are exposed.

As an interactive user of Axiom, you do not need to modify this file. Instead, use \texttt{)set expose} to expose, hide or query the exposure status of an individual constructor or exposure group. The reason for having exposure groups is to be able to expose or hide multiple constructors with a single command. For example, you might group together into exposure group “quantum” a number of domains and packages useful for quantum mechanical computations. These probably should not be available to every user, but you want an easy way to make the whole collection visible to Axiom when it is looking for operations to apply.

If you wanted to hide all the basic constructors available by default, you would issue \texttt{)set expose drop group basic}. We do not recommend that you do this. If, however, you discover that you have hidden all the basic constructors, you should issue \texttt{)set expose add group basic} to restore your default environment.

It is more likely that you would want to expose or hide individual constructors. In 6.19 on page 276 we use several operations from OutputForm, a domain usually hidden. To avoid package calling every operation from OutputForm, we expose the domain and let Axiom conclude that those operations should be used. Use \texttt{)set expose add constructor} and \texttt{)set expose drop constructor} to expose and hide a constructor, respectively. You should use the constructor name, not the abbreviation. The \texttt{)set expose} command guides you through these options.

If you expose a previously hidden constructor, Axiom exhibits new behavior (that was your intention) though you might not expect the results that you get. OutputForm is, in fact, one of the worst offenders in this regard. This domain is meant to be used by other domains for creating a structure that Axiom knows how to display. It has functions like “\texttt{+}” that form output representations rather than do mathematical calculations. Because of the order in which Axiom looks at constructors when it is deciding what operation to apply, OutputForm might be used instead of what you expect.

This is a polynomial.

\[ x + x \]

\[ 2x \]

Type: Polynomial Integer
Expose OutputForm.

)set expose add constructor OutputForm

OutputForm is now explicitly exposed in frame G82322

This is what we get when OutputForm is automatically available.

\[ x + x \]

\[ x + x \]

Type: OutputForm

Hide OutputForm so we don’t run into problems with any later examples!

)set expose drop constructor OutputForm

OutputForm is now explicitly hidden in frame G82322

Finally, exposure is done on a frame-by-frame basis. A frame (see 16.11 on page 980) is one of possibly several logical Axiom workspaces within a physical one, each having its own environment (for example, variables and function definitions). If you have several Axiom workspace windows on your screen, they are all different frames, automatically created for you by HyperDoc. Frames can be manually created, made active and destroyed by the )frame system command. They do not share exposure information, so you need to use )set expose in each one to add or drop constructors from view.

### 2.12 Commands for Snooping

To conclude this chapter, we introduce you to some system commands that you can use for getting more information about domains, packages, categories, and operations. The most powerful Axiom facility for getting information about constructors and operations is the Browse component of HyperDoc. This is discussed in Chapter 14 on page 926.

Use the )what system command to see lists of system objects whose name contain a particular substring (uppercase or lowercase is not significant).

Issue this to see a list of all operations with “complex” in their names.

)what operation complex
Operations whose names satisfy the above pattern(s):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Operation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>complex</td>
<td>complex?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complexEigenvalues</td>
<td>complexEigenvectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complexElementary</td>
<td>complexExpand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complexForm</td>
<td>complexIntegrate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complexLimit</td>
<td>complexNormalize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complexNumeric</td>
<td>complexNumericIfCan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complexRoots</td>
<td>complexSolve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complexZeros</td>
<td>createLowComplexityNormalBasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>createLowComplexityTable</td>
<td>doubleComplex?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drawComplex</td>
<td>drawComplexVectorField</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fortranComplex</td>
<td>fortranDoubleComplex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pmComplexintegrate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To get more information about an operation such as complexZeros, issue the command )display op complexZeros

If you want to see all domains with “matrix” in their names, issue this.

)what domain matrix

----------------------- Domains -----------------------

Domains with names matching patterns:

matrix

DHMATRIX DenavitHartenbergMatrix
DPMM DirectProductMatrixModule
IMATRIX IndexedMatrix
LSQM LieSquareMatrix
M3D ThreeDimensionalMatrix
MATCAT- MatrixCategory&
MATRIX Matrix
RMATCAT- RectangularMatrixCategory&
RMATRIX RectangularMatrix
SMATCAT- SquareMatrixCategory&
SQMATRIX SquareMatrix

Similarly, if you wish to see all packages whose names contain “gauss”, enter this.

)what package gauss
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---------------------- Packages -----------------------

Packages with names matching patterns:
    gauss

GAUSSFAC GaussianFactorizationPackage

This command shows all the operations that Any provides. Wherever $ appears, it means "Any".

)show Any

Any is a domain constructor
Abbreviation for Any is ANY
This constructor is exposed in this frame.
Issue )edit /usr/local/axiom/mnt/algebra/any.spad
to see algebra source code for ANY

--------------------- Operations ----------------------

?=?: (%,%) -> Boolean
any: (SExpression,None) -> %
coerce: % -> OutputForm
dom: % -> SExpression
domainOf: % -> OutputForm
hash: % -> SingleInteger
latex: % -> String
obj: % -> None
objectOf: % -> OutputForm
?=?: (%,%) -> Boolean
showTypeInOutput: Boolean -> String

This displays all operations with the name complex.

)display operation complex

There is one exposed function called complex:
[1] (D1,D1) -> D from D if D has COMPCAT D1 and D1 has COMRING

Let’s analyze this output.
First we find out what some of the abbreviations mean.

)abbreviation query COMPCAT
CHAPTER 2. USING TYPES AND MODES

COMPCAT abbreviates category ComplexCategory

)abbreviation query COMRING

COMRING abbreviates category CommutativeRing

So if D1 is a commutative ring (such as the integers or floats) and D belongs to ComplexCategory D1, then there is an operation called complex that takes two elements of D1 and creates an element of D. The primary example of a constructor implementing domains belonging to ComplexCategory is Complex. See ?? on page ?? for more information on that and see 6.4 on page 230 for more information on function types.
Chapter 3

Using HyperDoc

HyperDoc is the gateway to Axiom. It's both an on-line tutorial and an on-line reference manual. It also enables you to use Axiom simply by using the mouse and filling in templates. HyperDoc is available to you if you are running Axiom under the X Window System.

Figure 3.1: The HyperDoc root window page.
3.1 Headings

Most pages have a standard set of buttons at the top of the page. This is what they mean:

**HELP** Click on this to get help. The button only appears if there is specific help for the page you are viewing. You can get general help for HyperDoc by clicking the help button on the home page.

Click here to go back one page. By clicking on this button repeatedly, you can go back several pages and then take off in a new direction.

**HOME** Go back to the home page, that is, the page on which you started. Use HyperDoc to explore, to make forays into new topics. Don’t worry about how to get back. HyperDoc remembers where you came from. Just click on this button to return.

**EXIT** From the root window (the one that is displayed when you start the system) this button leaves the HyperDoc program, and it must be restarted if you want to use it again. From any other HyperDoc window, it just makes that one window go away. You must use this button to get rid of a window. If you use the window manager “Close” button, then all of HyperDoc goes away.

The buttons are not displayed if they are not applicable to the page you are viewing. For example, there is no **HOME** button on the top-level menu.

3.2 Key Definitions

The following keyboard definitions are in effect throughout HyperDoc. See 3.3 on page 172 and 3.4 on page 172 for some contextual key definitions.

**F1** Display the main help page.

**F3** Same as **EXIT**, makes the window go away if you are not at the top-level window or quits the HyperDoc facility if you are at the top-level.

**F5** Rereads the HyperDoc database, if necessary (for system developers).
CHAPTER 3. USING HYPERDOC

F9  Displays this information about key definitions.
F12  Same as F3.
Up Arrow  Scroll up one line.
Down Arrow  Scroll down one line.
Page Up  Scroll up one page.
Page Down  Scroll down one page.

3.3 Scroll Bars

Whenever there is too much text to fit on a page, a scroll bar automatically appears along the right side.

With a scroll bar, your page becomes an aperture, that is, a window into a larger amount of text than can be displayed at one time. The scroll bar lets you move up and down in the text to see different parts. It also shows where the aperture is relative to the whole text. The aperture is indicated by a strip on the scroll bar.

Move the cursor with the mouse to the “down-arrow” at the bottom of the scroll bar and click. See that the aperture moves down one line. Do it several times. Each time you click, the aperture moves down one line. Move the mouse to the “up-arrow” at the top of the scroll bar and click. The aperture moves up one line each time you click.

Next move the mouse to any position along the middle of the scroll bar and click. HyperDoc attempts to move the top of the aperture to this point in the text.

You cannot make the aperture go off the bottom edge. When the aperture is about half the size of text, the lowest you can move the aperture is halfway down.

To move up or down one screen at a time, use the PageUp and PageDown keys on your keyboard. They move the visible part of the region up and down one page each time you press them.

If the HyperDoc page does not contain an input area (see 3.4 on page 172), you can also use the Home and ↑ and ↓ arrow keys to navigate. When you press the Home key, the screen is positioned at the very top of the page. Use the ↑ and ↓ arrow keys to move the screen up and down one line at a time, respectively.

3.4 Input Areas

Input areas are boxes where you can put data.

To enter characters, first move your mouse cursor to somewhere within the HyperDoc page. Characters that you type are inserted in front of the underscore. This means that when you type characters at your keyboard, they go into this first input area.
The input area grows to accommodate as many characters as you type. Use the `Backspace` key to erase characters to the left. To modify what you type, use the right-arrow `→` and left-arrow keys `←` and the keys `Insert`, `Delete`, `Home` and `End`. These keys are found immediately on the right of the standard IBM keyboard.

If you press the `Home` key, the cursor moves to the beginning of the line and if you press the `End` key, the cursor moves to the end of the line. Pressing `Ctrl`–`End` deletes all the text from the cursor to the end of the line.

A page may have more than one input area. Only one input area has an underscore cursor. When you first see a page, the top-most input area contains the cursor. To type information into another input area, use the `Enter` or `Tab` key to move from one input area to another. To move in the reverse order, use `Shift`–`Tab`.

You can also move from one input area to another using your mouse. Notice that each input area is active. Click on one of the areas. As you can see, the underscore cursor moves to that window.

### 3.5 Radio Buttons and Toggles

Some pages have radio buttons and toggles. Radio buttons are a group of buttons like those on car radios: you can select only one at a time.

Once you have selected a button, it appears to be inverted and contains a checkmark. To change the selection, move the cursor with the mouse to a different radio button and click.

A toggle is an independent button that displays some on/off state. When “on”, the button appears to be inverted and contains a checkmark. When “off”, the button is raised.

Unlike radio buttons, you can set a group of them any way you like. To change toggle the selection, move the cursor with the mouse to the button and click.

### 3.6 Search Strings

A search string is used for searching some database. To learn about search strings, we suggest that you bring up the HyperDoc glossary. To do this from the top-level page of HyperDoc:

1. Click on Reference, bringing up the Axiom Reference page.
2. Click on Glossary, bringing up the glossary.

The glossary has an input area at its bottom. We review the various kinds of search strings you can enter to search the glossary.
The simplest search string is a word, for example, operation. A word only matches an entry having exactly that spelling. Enter the word operation into the input area above then click on Search. As you can see, operation matches only one entry, namely with operation itself.

Normally matching is insensitive to whether the alphabetic characters of your search string are in uppercase or lowercase. Thus operation and OperAtion both have the same effect.

You will very often want to use the wildcard “*” in your search string so as to match multiple entries in the list. The search key “*” matches every entry in the list. You can also use “*” anywhere within a search string to match an arbitrary substring. Try “cat*” for example: enter “cat*” into the input area and click on Search. This matches several entries.

You use any number of wildcards in a search string as long as they are not adjacent. Try search strings such as “*dom*”. As you see, this search string matches “domain”, “domain constructor”, “subdomain”, and so on.

### 3.6.1 Logical Searches

For more complicated searches, you can use “and”, “or”, and “not” with basic search strings; write logical expressions using these three operators just as in the Axiom language. For example, domain or package matches the two entries domain and package. Similarly, “dom* and *con*” matches “domain constructor” and others. Also “not *a*” matches every entry that does not contain the letter “a” somewhere.

Use parentheses for grouping. For example, “dom* and (not *con*)” matches “domain” but not “domain constructor”.

There is no limit to how complex your logical expression can be. For example,

\[ a^* \text{ or } b^* \text{ or } c^* \text{ or } d^* \text{ or } e^* \text{ and } (\text{not } *a*) \]

is a valid expression.

### 3.7 Example Pages

Many pages have Axiom example commands.

Each command has an active “button” along the left margin. When you click on this button, the output for the command is “pasted-in.” Click again on the button and you see that the pasted-in output disappears.

Maybe you would like to run an example? To do so, just click on any part of its text! When you do, the example line is copied into a new interactive Axiom buffer for this HyperDoc page.
Sometimes one example line cannot be run before you run an earlier one. Don’t worry—HyperDoc automatically runs all the necessary lines in the right order!

The new interactive Axiom buffer disappears when you leave HyperDoc. If you want to get rid of it beforehand, use the Cancel button of the X Window manager or issue the Axiom system command )close.

### 3.8 X Window Resources for HyperDoc

You can control the appearance of HyperDoc while running under Version 11 of the X Window System by placing the following resources in the file .Xdefaults in your home directory. In what follows, font is any valid X11 font name (for example, Rom14) and color is any valid X11 color specification (for example, NavyBlue). For more information about fonts and colors, refer to the X Window documentation for your system.

- \texttt{Axiom.hyperdoc.RmFont}: \textit{font}  
  This is the standard text font. The default value is Rom14

- \texttt{Axiom.hyperdoc.RmColor}: \textit{color}  
  This is the standard text color. The default value is black

- \texttt{Axiom.hyperdoc.ActiveFont}: \textit{font}  
  This is the font used for HyperDoc link buttons. The default value is Bld14

- \texttt{Axiom.hyperdoc.ActiveColor}: \textit{color}  
  This is the color used for HyperDoc link buttons. The default value is black

- \texttt{Axiom.hyperdoc.AxiomFont}: \textit{font}  
  This is the font used for active Axiom commands. The default value is Bld14

- \texttt{Axiom.hyperdoc.AxiomColor}: \textit{color}  
  This is the color used for active Axiom commands. The default value is black

- \texttt{Axiom.hyperdoc.BoldFont}: \textit{font}  
  This is the font used for bold face. The default value is Bld14

- \texttt{Axiom.hyperdoc.BoldColor}: \textit{color}  
  This is the color used for bold face. The default value is black

- \texttt{Axiom.hyperdoc.TtFont}: \textit{font}  
  This is the font used for Axiom output in HyperDoc. This font must be fixed-width. The default value is Rom14

- \texttt{Axiom.hyperdoc.TtColor}: \textit{color}  
  This is the color used for Axiom output in HyperDoc. The default value is black

- \texttt{Axiom.hyperdoc.EmphasizeFont}: \textit{font}  
  This is the font used for italics. The default value is It14
Axiom.hyperdoc.EmphasizeColor: \textit{color}

This is the color used for italics. The default value is \textit{black}

Axiom.hyperdoc.InputBackground: \textit{color}

This is the color used as the background for input areas. The default value is \textit{black}

Axiom.hyperdoc.InputForeground: \textit{color}

This is the color used as the foreground for input areas. The default value is \textit{white}

Axiom.hyperdoc.BorderColor: \textit{color}

This is the color used for drawing border lines. The default value is \textit{black}

Axiom.hyperdoc.Background: \textit{color}

This is the color used for the background of all windows. The default value is \textit{white}
Chapter 4

Input Files and Output Styles

In this chapter we discuss how to collect Axiom statements and commands into files and then read the contents into the workspace. We also show how to display the results of your computations in several different styles including \( \text{T}_{\text{E}}X \), FORTRAN and monospace two-dimensional format.

The printed version of this book uses the Axiom \( \text{T}_{\text{E}}X \) output formatter. When we demonstrate a particular output style, we will need to turn \( \text{T}_{\text{E}}X \) formatting off and the output style on so that the correct output is shown in the text.

4.1 Input Files

In this section we explain what an input file is and why you would want to know about it. We discuss where Axiom looks for input files and how you can direct it to look elsewhere. We also show how to read the contents of an input file into the workspace and how to use the history facility to generate an input file from the statements you have entered directly into the workspace.

An input file contains Axiom expressions and system commands. Anything that you can enter directly to Axiom can be put into an input file. This is how you save input functions and expressions that you wish to read into Axiom more than one time.

To read an input file into Axiom, use the \( ) \text{read} \) system command. For example, you can read a file in a particular directory by issuing

\[
) \text{read} \ /\text{spad/src/input/matrix.input}
\]

The “.input” is optional; this also works:

\[
) \text{read} \ /\text{spad/src/input/matrix}
\]

\( ^{1} \text{T}_{\text{E}}X \) is a trademark of the American Mathematical Society.
What happens if you just enter )read matrix.input or even )read matrix? Axiom looks in your current working directory for input files that are not qualified by a directory name. Typically, this directory is the directory from which you invoked Axiom.

To change the current working directory, use the )cd system command. The command )cd by itself shows the current working directory. To change it to the src/input subdirectory for user “babar”, issue

)cd /u/babar/src/input

Axiom looks first in this directory for an input file. If it is not found, it looks in the system’s directories, assuming you meant some input file that was provided with Axiom.

If you have the Axiom history facility turned on (which it is by default), you can save all the lines you have entered into the workspace by entering

)history )write

Axiom tells you what input file to edit to see your statements. The file is in your home directory or in the directory you specified with )cd.

In 5.2 on page 192 we discuss using indentation in input files to group statements into blocks.

4.2 The .axiom.input File

When Axiom starts up, it tries to read the input file .axiom.input from your home directory. If there is no .axiom.input in your home directory, it reads the copy located in its own src/input directory. The file usually contains system commands to personalize your Axiom environment. In the remainder of this section we mention a few things that users frequently place in their .axiom.input files.

In order to have FORTRAN output always produced from your computations, place the system command )set output fortran on in .axiom.input. If you do not want to be prompted for confirmation when you issue the )quit system command, place )set quit unprotected in .axiom.input. If you then decide that you do want to be prompted, issue )set quit protected. This is the default setting so that new users do not leave Axiom inadvertently.

To see the other system variables you can set, issue )set or use the HyperDoc Settings facility to view and change Axiom system variables.

---

1. .axiom.input used to be called axiom.input in the NAG version
2. The system command )pquit always prompts you for confirmation.
4.3 Common Features of Using Output Formats

In this section we discuss how to start and stop the display of the different output formats and how to send the output to the screen or to a file. To fix ideas, we use FORTRAN output format for most of the examples.

You can use the \texttt{)set output} system command to toggle or redirect the different kinds of output. The name of the kind of output follows “output” in the command. The names are:

- \texttt{fortran} for FORTRAN output.
- \texttt{algebra} for monospace two-dimensional mathematical output.
- \texttt{tex} for \TeX output.
- \texttt{script} for IBM Script Formula Format output.

For example, issue \texttt{)set output fortran on} to turn on FORTRAN format and issue \texttt{)set output fortran off} to turn it off. By default, \texttt{algebra} is on and all others are off. When output is started, it is sent to the screen. To send the output to a file, give the file name without directory or extension. Axiom appends a file extension depending on the kind of output being produced.

Issue this to redirect FORTRAN output to, for example, the file \texttt{linalg.sfort}.

\texttt{)set output fortran linalg}

\texttt{FORTRAN output will be written to file linalg.sfort .}

You must \textit{also} turn on the creation of FORTRAN output. The above just says where it goes if it is created.

\texttt{)set output fortran on}

In what directory is this output placed? It goes into the directory from which you started Axiom, or if you have used the \texttt{)cd} system command, the one that you specified with \texttt{)cd}. You should use \texttt{)cd} before you send the output to the file.

You can always direct output back to the screen by issuing this.

\texttt{)set output fortran console}

Let’s make sure FORTRAN formatting is off so that nothing we do from now on produces FORTRAN output.

\texttt{)set output fortran off}

We also delete the demonstrated output file we created.

\texttt{)system rm linalg.sfort}
You can abbreviate the words “on,” “off,” and “console” to the minimal number of characters needed to distinguish them. Because of this, you cannot send output to files called on.sfort, off.sfort, of.sfort, console.sfort, consol.sfort and so on.

The width of the output on the page is set by `)set output length` for all formats except FORTRAN. Use `)set fortran fortlength` to change the FORTRAN line length from its default value of 72.

### 4.4 Monospace Two-Dimensional Mathematical Format

This is the default output format for Axiom. It is usually on when you start the system. If it is not, issue this.

```
)set output algebra on
```

Since the printed version of this book (as opposed to the HyperDoc version) shows output produced by the \TeX output formatter, let us temporarily turn off \TeX output.

```
)set output tex off
```

Here is an example of what it looks like.

```
matrix [ [i*x**i + j*i*y**j for i in 1..2] for j in 3..4]
```

```
+ 3 3 2+
|3%i y + x 3%i y + 2x |
(1) |
| 4 4 2|
+4%i y + x 4%i y + 2x +
```

```
Type: Matrix Polynomial Complex Integer
```

Issue this to turn off this kind of formatting.

```
)set output algebra off
```

Turn \TeX output on again.

```
)set output tex on
```

The characters used for the matrix brackets above are rather ugly. You get this character set when you issue `)set output characters plain`. This character set should be used when you are running on a machine that does not support the IBM extended ASCII character set. If you are running on an IBM workstation, for example, issue

```
)set output characters default
```

To get better looking output.
4.5 TeX Format

Axiom can produce \TeX\ output for your expressions. The output is produced using macros from the \LaTeX\ document preparation system by Leslie Lamport[?]. The printed version of this book was produced using this formatter.

To turn on \TeX\ output formatting, issue this.

)set output tex on

Here is an example of its output.

matrix [ [i*x**i + j*y**j for i in 1..2] for j in 3..4] 

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
3i y^3 + x & 3i y^3 + 2x^2 \\
4i y^4 + x & 4i y^4 + 2x^2
\end{array}
$$

This formats as

$$
\left[
\begin{array}{cc}
3i y^3 + x & 3i y^3 + 2x^2 \\
4i y^4 + x & 4i y^4 + 2x^2
\end{array}
\right]
$$

To turn \TeX\ output formatting off, issue )set output tex off. The \LaTeX\ macros in the output generated by Axiom are all standard except for the following definitions:

\def\csch{\mathop{\rm csch}\nolimits}

\def\erf{\mathop{\rm erf}\nolimits}

\def\zag#1#2{
  \{{\hfill \left. {#1} \right|}
  \over
  \left| {#2} \hfill \right. \}
}

}}
4.6 IBM Script Formula Format

Axiom can produce IBM Script Formula Format output for your expressions. To turn IBM Script Formula Format on, issue this.

)set output script on

Here is an example of its output.

matrix [ [i*x**i + j*i*y**j for i in 1..2] for j in 3..4]
.eq set blank @
:df.
<left lb < < < <3 @@ %i @@ <y sup 3> >+x> here < <3 @@ %i @@ <y sup 3> >+<2 @@ <x sup 2> > > > habove < < <4 @@ %i @@ <y sup 4> >+<2 @@ <x sup 2> > > > > right rb>
:edf.

To turn IBM Script Formula Format output formatting off, issue this.

)set output script off

4.7 FORTRAN Format

In addition to turning FORTRAN output on and off and stating where the output should be placed, there are many options that control the appearance of the generated code. In this section we describe some of the basic options. Issue )set fortran to see a full list with their current settings.

The output FORTRAN expression usually begins in column 7. If the expression needs more than one line, the ampersand character & is used in column 6. Since some versions of FORTRAN have restrictions on the number of lines per statement, Axiom breaks long expressions into segments with a maximum of 1320 characters (20 lines of 66 characters) per segment. If you want to change this, say, to 660 characters, issue the system command )set fortran explength 660. You can turn off the line breaking by issuing )set fortran segment off. Various code optimization levels are available.

FORTRAN output is produced after you issue this.

)set output fortran on

For the initial examples, we set the optimization level to 0, which is the lowest level.
CHAPTER 4. INPUT FILES AND OUTPUT STYLES

)set fortran optlevel 0

The output is usually in columns 7 through 72, although fewer columns are used in the following examples so that the output fits nicely on the page.

)set fortran fortlengt 60

By default, the output goes to the screen and is displayed before the standard Axiom two-dimensional output. In this example, an assignment to the variable \( R_1 \) was generated because this is the result of step 1.

\[
(x+y)^3
\]

\[
R_1 = y^3 + 3xy^2 + 3x^2y + x^3
\]

\( \text{Type: Polynomial Integer} \)

Here is an example that illustrates the line breaking.

\[
(x+y+z)^3
\]

\[
R_2 = z^3 + (3y^3 + 3z)z + (3y + 3xz) + (3y^2 + 6xy + 3x^2) + z + y^3 + 3xy^2 + 3x^2y + x^3
\]

\( \text{Type: Polynomial Integer} \)

Note in the above examples that integers are generally converted to floating point numbers, except in exponents. This is the default behavior but can be turned off by issuing

)set fortran ints2floats off. The rules governing when the conversion is done are:

1. If an integer is an exponent, convert it to a floating point number if it is greater than 32767 in absolute value, otherwise leave it as an integer.
2. Convert all other integers in an expression to floating point numbers.

These rules only govern integers in expressions. Numbers generated by Axiom for \textsc{dimension} statements are also integers.

To set the type of generated FORTRAN data, use one of the following:
When temporaries are created, they are given a default type of \texttt{REAL}. Also, the \texttt{REAL} versions of functions are used by default.

\begin{verbatim}
\sin(x)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
R3=\texttt{DSIN}(x)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
\sin(x)
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: Expression Integer}

At optimization level 1, Axiom removes common subexpressions.

\begin{verbatim}
\)set fortran optlevel 1\)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
(x+y+z)**3
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
T2=y*y
T3=x*x
R4=z**3+(3*y+3*x)*z+z+(3*T2+6*x*y+3*T3)*z+y**3+3*x*T2+
63*T3*y+x**3
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
z^3+(3 y+3 x) z^2 + (3 y^2 + 6 x y + 3 x^2) z + y^3 + 3 x y^2 + 3 x^2 y + x^3
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: Polynomial Integer}

This changes the precision to \texttt{DOUBLE}. Substitute single for double to return to single precision.

\begin{verbatim}
\)set fortran precision double\)
\end{verbatim}

Complex constants display the precision.

\begin{verbatim}
2.3 + 5.6*%i
\end{verbatim}
The function names that Axiom generates depend on the chosen precision.

\[
\sin \%e
\]
\[
R6=\text{DSIN}(\text{DEXP}(1))
\]
\[
\sin(e)
\]
\[
\text{Type: Expression Integer}
\]

Reset the precision to single and look at these two examples again.

\[
)\text{set fortran precision single}
\]
\[
2.3 + 5.6*\%i
\]
\[
R7=(2.3,5.6)
\]
\[
2.3+5.6i
\]
\[
\text{Type: Complex Float}
\]

\[
\sin \%e
\]
\[
R8=\text{SIN}(\text{EXP}(1))
\]
\[
\sin(e)
\]
\[
\text{Type: Expression Integer}
\]

Expressions that look like lists, streams, sets or matrices cause array code to be generated.

\[
[x+1,y+1,z+1]
\]
T1(1) = x + 1
T1(2) = y + 1
T1(3) = z + 1
R9 = T1

[x + 1, y + 1, z + 1]

Type: List Polynomial Integer

A temporary variable is generated to be the name of the array. This may have to be changed in your particular application.

set [2, 3, 4, 3, 5]

T1(1) = 2
T1(2) = 3
T1(3) = 4
T1(4) = 5
R10 = T1

{2, 3, 4, 5}

Type: Set PositiveInteger

By default, the starting index for generated FORTRAN arrays is 0.

matrix [[2.3, 9.7], [0.0, 18.778]]

T1(0,0) = 2.3
T1(0,1) = 9.7
T1(1,0) = 0.0
T1(1,1) = 18.778
T1

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2.3 & 9.7 \\
0.0 & 18.778
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Float

To change the starting index for generated FORTRAN arrays to be 1, issue this. This value can only be 0 or 1.

) set fortran startindex 1
Look at the code generated for the matrix again.

\[
\text{matrix } [ \begin{bmatrix} 2.3 & 9.7 \\ 0.0 & 18.778 \end{bmatrix} ]
\]

\[
T1(1,1)=2.3 \\
T1(1,2)=9.7 \\
T1(2,1)=0.0 \\
T1(2,2)=18.778 \\
T1
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2.3 & 9.7 \\
0.0 & 18.778
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Float
Chapter 5

Overview of Interactive Language

In this chapter we look at some of the basic components of the Axiom language that you can use interactively. We show how to create a block of expressions, how to form loops and list iterations, how to modify the sequential evaluation of a block and how to use if-then-else to evaluate parts of your program conditionally. We suggest you first read the boxed material in each section and then proceed to a more thorough reading of the chapter.

5.1 Immediate and Delayed Assignments

A variable in Axiom refers to a value. A variable has a name beginning with an uppercase or lowercase alphabetic character, “%”, or “!””. Successive characters (if any) can be any of the above, digits, or “?””. Case is distinguished. The following are all examples of valid, distinct variable names:

a tooBig? a1B2c%!? A %j numberOfPoints beta6 %J numberOfpoints

The “:=” operator is the immediate assignment operator. Use it to associate a value with a variable.

The syntax for immediate assignment for a single variable is

\[ \text{variable} := \text{expression} \]

The value returned by an immediate assignment is the value of \text{expression}. 188
The right-hand side of the expression is evaluated, yielding 1. This value is then assigned to \( a \).

\[
a := 1
\]

1

Type: PositiveInteger

The right-hand side of the expression is evaluated, yielding 1. This value is then assigned to \( b \). Thus \( a \) and \( b \) both have the value 1 after the sequence of assignments.

\[
b := a
\]

1

Type: PositiveInteger

What is the value of \( b \) if \( a \) is assigned the value 2?

\[
a := 2
\]

2

Type: PositiveInteger

As you see, the value of \( b \) is left unchanged.

\[
b
\]

1

Type: PositiveInteger

This is what we mean when we say this kind of assignment is immediate; \( b \) has no dependency on \( a \) after the initial assignment. This is the usual notion of assignment found in programming languages such as C, PASCAL and FORTRAN.

Axiom provides delayed assignment with "==". This implements a delayed evaluation of the right-hand side and dependency checking.

The syntax for delayed assignment is

\[
variable == expression
\]

The value returned by a delayed assignment is the unique value of Void.
Using $a$ and $b$ as above, these are the corresponding delayed assignments.

\[
a == 1
\]

Type: Void

\[
b == a
\]

Type: Void

The right-hand side of each delayed assignment is left unevaluated until the variables on the left-hand sides are evaluated. Therefore this evaluation and . . .

\[
a
\]

Compiling body of rule a to compute value of type PositiveInteger

\[
1
\]

Type: PositiveInteger

this evaluation seem the same as before.

\[
b
\]

Compiling body of rule b to compute value of type PositiveInteger

\[
1
\]

Type: PositiveInteger

If we change $a$ to 2

\[
a == 2
\]

Compiled code for a has been cleared.
Compiled code for b has been cleared.
1 old definition(s) deleted for function or rule a

Type: Void
then $a$ evaluates to 2, as expected, but

\[ a \]

Compiling body of rule $a$ to compute value of type PositiveInteger

```plaintext
+++ |*0;a;1;G82322| redefined
```

\[ 2 \]

Type: PositiveInteger

the value of $b$ reflects the change to $a$.

\[ b \]

Compiling body of rule $b$ to compute value of type PositiveInteger

```plaintext
+++ |*0;b;1;G82322| redefined
```

\[ 2 \]

Type: PositiveInteger

It is possible to set several variables at the same time by using a *tuple* of variables and a tuple of expressions. Note that a *tuple* is a collection of things separated by commas, often surrounded by parentheses.

The syntax for multiple immediate assignments is

\[
\text{( var}_1, \text{ var}_2, \ldots, \text{ var}_N \text{ ) := ( expr}_1, \text{ expr}_2, \ldots, \text{ expr}_N \text{ )}
\]

The value returned by an immediate assignment is the value of $\text{expr}_N$.

This sets $x$ to 1 and $y$ to 2.

\[(x,y) := (1,2)\]

\[ 2 \]

Type: PositiveInteger
Multiple immediate assignments are parallel in the sense that the expressions on the right are all evaluated before any assignments on the left are made. However, the order of evaluation of these expressions is undefined.

You can use multiple immediate assignment to swap the values held by variables.

\[(x, y) := (y, x)\]

1

Type: PositiveInteger

\[x\] has the previous value of \(y\).

\[x\]

2

Type: PositiveInteger

\[y\] has the previous value of \(x\).

\[y\]

1

Type: PositiveInteger

There is no syntactic form for multiple delayed assignments. See the discussion in section 6.8 on page 236 about how Axiom differentiates between delayed assignments and user functions of no arguments.

## 5.2 Blocks

A block is a sequence of expressions evaluated in the order that they appear, except as modified by control expressions such as break, return, iterate and if-then-else constructions. The value of a block is the value of the expression last evaluated in the block.

To leave a block early, use “\(=>\)”. For example, \(i < 0 => x\). The expression before the “\(=>\)” must evaluate to true or false. The expression following the “\(=>\)” is the return value for the block.

A block can be constructed in two ways:
1. the expressions can be separated by semicolons and the resulting expression surrounded by parentheses, and

2. the expressions can be written on succeeding lines with each line indented the same number of spaces (which must be greater than zero). A block entered in this form is called a pile.

Only the first form is available if you are entering expressions directly to Axiom. Both forms are available in .input files.

The syntax for a simple block of expressions entered interactively is

\[
(\text{expression}_1; \text{expression}_2; \ldots; \text{expression}_N)
\]

The value returned by a block is the value of an \( \Rightarrow \) expression, or \( \text{expression}_N \) if no \( \Rightarrow \) is encountered.

In .input files, blocks can also be written using piles. The examples throughout this book are assumed to come from .input files.

In this example, we assign a rational number to \( a \) using a block consisting of three expressions. This block is written as a pile. Each expression in the pile has the same indentation, in this case two spaces to the right of the first line.

\[
a := \begin{align*}
& i := \text{gcd}(234,672) \\
& i := 3\times i^5 - i + 1 \\
& 1 / i
\end{align*}
\]

\[\frac{1}{23323}\]

Type: Fraction Integer

Here is the same block written on one line. This is how you are required to enter it at the input prompt.

\[
a := (i := \text{gcd}(234,672); i := 3\times i^5 - i + 1; 1 / i)
\]

\[\frac{1}{23323}\]

Type: Fraction Integer

Blocks can be used to put several expressions on one line. The value returned is that of the last expression.
(a := 1; b := 2; c := 3; [a,b,c])

\[ [1,2,3] \]

Type: List PositiveInteger

Axiom gives you two ways of writing a block and the preferred way in an .input file is to use a pile. Roughly speaking, a pile is a block whose constituent expressions are indented the same amount. You begin a pile by starting a new line for the first expression, indenting it to the right of the previous line. You then enter the second expression on a new line, vertically aligning it with the first line. And so on. If you need to enter an inner pile, further indent its lines to the right of the outer pile. Axiom knows where a pile ends. It ends when a subsequent line is indented to the left of the pile or the end of the file.

Blocks can be used to perform several steps before an assignment (immediate or delayed) is made.

d :=
c := a**2 + b**2
sqrt(c * 1.3)

2.549509756796392415

Type: Float

Blocks can be used in the arguments to functions. (Here \( h \) is assigned \( 2.1 + 3.5 \).)

h := 2.1 +
1.0
3.5

5.6

Type: Float

Here the second argument to \texttt{eval} is \( x = z \), where the value of \( z \) is computed in the first line of the block starting on the second line.

eval(x**2 - x*y**2,
   z := %pi/2.0 - exp(4.1)
   x = z
)

58.769491270567072878 \( y^2 + 3453.853104201259382 \)
Blocks can be used in the clauses of if-then-else expressions (see 5.3 on page 196).

if h > 3.1 then 1.0 else (z := cos(h); max(z,0.5))

1.0

This is the pile version of the last block.

if h > 3.1 then
  1.0
else
  z := cos(h)
  max(z,0.5)

1.0

Blocks can be nested.

a := (b := factorial(12); c := (d := eulerPhi(22);
  factorial(d));b+c)

482630400

This is the pile version of the last block.

a :=
  b := factorial(12)
  c :=
    d := eulerPhi(22)
    factorial(d)
b+c

482630400
Since \( c + d \) does equal 3628855, \( a \) has the value of \( c \) and the last line is never evaluated.

\[
a :=
c := \text{factorial} 10
d := \text{fibonacci} 10
c + d = 3628855 \Rightarrow c
d
\]

3628800

Type: PositiveInteger

5.3 if-then-else

Like many other programming languages, Axiom uses the three keywords if, then and else to form conditional expressions. The else part of the conditional is optional. The expression between the if and then keywords is a predicate: an expression that evaluates to or is convertible to either true or false, that is, a Boolean.

The syntax for conditional expressions is

\[
\text{if \ predicate \ then \ expression}_1 \ \text{else \ expression}_2
\]

where the else expression\(_2\) part is optional. The value returned from a conditional expression is expression\(_1\) if the predicate evaluates to true and expression\(_2\) otherwise. If no else clause is given, the value is always the unique value of Void.

An if-then-else expression always returns a value. If the else clause is missing then the entire expression returns the unique value of Void. If both clauses are present, the type of the value returned by if is obtained by resolving the types of the values of the two clauses. See 2.10 on page 162 for more information.

The predicate must evaluate to, or be convertible to, an object of type Boolean: true or false. By default, the equal sign “=” creates an equation.

This is an equation. In particular, it is an object of type Equation Polynomial Integer.

\[
x + 1 = y
\]

\[
x + 1 = y
\]

Type: Equation Polynomial Integer
However, for predicates in if expressions, Axiom places a default target type of \texttt{Boolean} on the predicate and equality testing is performed. Thus you need not qualify the “=” in any way. In other contexts you may need to tell Axiom that you want to test for equality rather than create an equation. In those cases, use “@” and a target type of \texttt{Boolean}. See section 2.9 on page 158 for more information.

The compound symbol meaning “not equal” in Axiom is “~=” . This can be used directly without a package call or a target specification. The expression \( a \sim= b \) is directly translated into \texttt{not}(\( a = b \)).

Many other functions have return values of type \texttt{Boolean} . These include “<”, “\lgeq “, “>”, “\geq “, “\sim=” and “member?” . By convention, operations with names ending in “?” return \texttt{Boolean} values.

The usual rules for piles are suspended for conditional expressions. In \texttt{.input} files, the then and else keywords can begin in the same column as the corresponding if but may also appear to the right. Each of the following styles of writing \texttt{if}-\texttt{then}-\texttt{else} expressions is acceptable:

\begin{verbatim}
if i>0 then output("positive") else output("nonpositive")

if i > 0 then output("positive")
  else output("nonpositive")

if i > 0 then output("positive")
else output("nonpositive")

if i > 0
  then output("positive")
  else output("nonpositive")

if i > 0
  then output("positive")
  else output("nonpositive")
\end{verbatim}

A block can follow the then or else keywords. In the following two assignments to \texttt{a}, the then and else clauses each are followed by two-line piles. The value returned in each is the value of the second line.

\begin{verbatim}
a :=
if i > 0 then
  j := sin(i * pi())
  exp(j + 1/j)
else
  j := cos(i * 0.5 * pi())
  log(abs(j)**5 + 1)
\end{verbatim}
if $i > 0$
then
  $j := \sin(i \times \pi())$
  $\exp(j + 1/j)$
else
  $j := \cos(i \times 0.5 \times \pi())$
  $\log(\text{abs}(j)^5 + 1)$

These are both equivalent to the following:

$a :=$
if $i > 0$ then ($j := \sin(i \times \pi()); \exp(j + 1/j)$)
else ($j := \cos(i \times 0.5 \times \pi()); \log(\text{abs}(j)^5 + 1)$)

### 5.4 Loops

A loop is an expression that contains another expression, called the loop body, which is to be evaluated zero or more times. All loops contain the repeat keyword and return the unique value of Void. Loops can contain inner loops to any depth.

#### 5.4.1 Compiling vs. Interpreting Loops

Axiom tries to determine completely the type of every object in a loop and then to translate the loop body to LISP or even to machine code. This translation is called compilation.

If Axiom decides that it cannot compile the loop, it issues a message stating the problem and then the following message:

We will attempt to step through and interpret the code.

It is still possible that Axiom can evaluate the loop but in interpret-code mode. See section 6.10 on page 240 where this is discussed in terms of compiling versus interpreting functions.
5.4.2 return in Loops

A `return` expression is used to exit a function with a particular value. In particular, if a `return` is in a loop within the function, the loop is terminated whenever the `return` is evaluated.

Suppose we start with this.

```plaintext
f() ==
  i := 1
  repeat
    if factorial(i) > 1000 then return i
    i := i + 1

Type: Void
```

When `factorial(i)` is big enough, control passes from inside the loop all the way outside the function, returning the value of `i` (or so we think).

```plaintext
f()

Type: Void
```

What went wrong? Isn’t it obvious that this function should return an integer? Well, Axiom makes no attempt to analyze the structure of a loop to determine if it always returns a value because, in general, this is impossible. So Axiom has this simple rule: the type of the function is determined by the type of its body, in this case a block. The normal value of a block is the value of its last expression, in this case, a loop. And the value of every loop is the unique value of `Void`! So the return type of `f` is `Void`.

There are two ways to fix this. The best way is for you to tell Axiom what the return type of `f` is. You do this by giving `f` a declaration `f():() -> Integer` prior to calling for its value. This tells Axiom: “trust me—an integer is returned.” We’ll explain more about this in the next chapter. Another clumsy way is to add a dummy expression as follows.

Since we want an integer, let’s stick in a dummy final expression that is an integer and will never be evaluated.

```plaintext
f() ==
  i := 1
  repeat
    if factorial(i) > 1000 then return i
    i := i + 1
  0

Type: Void
```
When we try \texttt{f} again we get what we wanted. See \textsection{6.15} on page \textsection{258} for more information.

\texttt{f()}

\begin{verbatim}
    Compiling function f with type () -> NonNegativeInteger

    7

    Type: PositiveInteger
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{5.4.3 \ break in Loops}

The \texttt{break} keyword is often more useful in terminating a loop. A \texttt{break} causes control to transfer to the expression immediately following the loop. As loops always return the unique value of \texttt{Void}, you cannot return a value with \texttt{break}. That is, \texttt{break} takes no argument.

This example is a modification of the last example in the previous section \textsection{5.4.2} on page \textsection{199}. Instead of using \texttt{return}, we’ll use \texttt{break}.

\texttt{f() ==}
\begin{verbatim}
  i := 1
  repeat
    if factorial(i) > 1000 then break
    i := i + 1
  fi
  i
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
  Compiled code for f has been cleared.
  1 old definition(s) deleted for function or rule f

  Type: Void
\end{verbatim}

The loop terminates when \texttt{factorial(i)} gets big enough, the last line of the function evaluates to the corresponding “good” value of \texttt{i}, and the function terminates, returning that value.

\texttt{f()}

\begin{verbatim}
    Compiling function f with type () -> PositiveInteger

+++]*0;f;1;G82322| redefined
\end{verbatim}
You can only use `break` to terminate the evaluation of one loop. Let’s consider a loop within a loop, that is, a loop with a nested loop. First, we initialize two counter variables.

\[(i, j) := (1, 1)\]

Nested loops must have multiple `break` expressions at the appropriate nesting level. How would you rewrite this so \((i + j) > 10\) is only evaluated once?

```lisp
repeat
  repeat
    if \((i + j) > 10\) then break
    \(j := j + 1\)
    if \((i + j) > 10\) then break
    \(i := i + 1\)
```

5.4.4 **break vs. `=>` in Loop Bodies**

Compare the following two loops:

```lisp
i := 1
repeat
  i := i + 1
  if \(i > 3\) then break
  output(i)
```

In the example on the left, the values 2 and 3 for \(i\) are displayed but then the “\(=>\)” does not allow control to reach the call to `output` again. The loop will not terminate until you run out of space or interrupt the execution. The variable \(i\) will continue to be incremented because the “\(=>\)” only means to leave the block, not the loop.

In the example on the right, upon reaching 4, the `break` will be executed, and both the block and the loop will terminate. This is one of the reasons why both “\(=>\)” and `break` are provided. Using a `while` clause (see below) with the “\(=>\)” lets you simulate the action of `break`. 
5.4.5 More Examples of break

Here we give four examples of \texttt{repeat} loops that terminate when a value exceeds a given bound.

First, initialize \( i \) as the loop counter.

\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{i := 0}
\end{verbatim}

\( i \)
\( 0 \)

\texttt{Type: NonNegativeInteger}

Here is the first loop. When the square of \( i \) exceeds 100, the loop terminates.

\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{repeat}
\texttt{i := i + 1}
\texttt{if i**2 > 100 then break}
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: Void}

Upon completion, \( i \) should have the value 11.

\( i \)
\( 11 \)

\texttt{Type: NonNegativeInteger}

Do the same thing except use “\texttt{=>}” instead an \texttt{if-then} expression.

\begin{verbatim}
\texttt{i := 0}
\texttt{repeat}
\texttt{i := i + 1}
\texttt{i**2 > 100 => break}
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: Void}
As a third example, we use a simple loop to compute $n!$.

$$(n, i, f) := (100, 1, 1)$$

$$(n, i, f) := (100, 1, 1)$$

Use $i$ as the iteration variable and $f$ to compute the factorial.

\begin{verbatim}
repeat
  if i > n then break
  f := f * i
  i := i + 1
\end{verbatim}

Type: Void

Look at the value of $f$.

\begin{verbatim}
f
\end{verbatim}

Type: PositiveInteger

Finally, we show an example of nested loops. First define a four by four matrix.

$$m := \text{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 21, 37, 53, 14, 8, -24, 22, -16, 2, 10, 15, 14, 26, 33, 55, -13 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$m := \text{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 21, 37, 53, 14, 8, -24, 22, -16, 2, 10, 15, 14, 26, 33, 55, -13 \end{bmatrix}$$
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Type: Matrix Integer

Next, set row counter \( r \) and column counter \( c \) to 1. Note: if we were writing a function, these would all be local variables rather than global workspace variables.

\[
(r, c) := (1, 1)
\]

Type: PositiveInteger

Also, let \( \text{lastrow} \) and \( \text{lastcol} \) be the final row and column index.

\[
(\text{lastrow}, \text{lastcol}) := (\text{nrows}(m), \text{ncols}(m))
\]

Type: PositiveInteger

Scan the rows looking for the first negative element. We remark that you can reformulate this example in a better, more concise form by using a for clause with repeat. See 5.4.8 on page 208 for more information.

repeat
  if \( r > \text{lastrow} \) then break
  c := 1
repeat
  if \( c > \text{lastcol} \) then break
  if \( \text{elt}(m, r, c) < 0 \) then
    output \([r, c, \text{elt}(m, r, c)]\)
    \( r := \text{lastrow} \)
    break  -- don’t look any further
  c := c + 1
  \( r := r + 1 \)

\([2,2,-24]\)

Type: Void

5.4.6 iterate in Loops

Axiom provides an iterate expression that skips over the remainder of a loop body and starts the next loop iteration.

We first initialize a counter.
Display the even integers from 2 to 5.

\begin{verbatim}
repeat
  i := i + 1
  if i > 5 then break
  if odd?(i) then iterate
  output(i)

  2
  4
\end{verbatim}

Type: Void

5.4.7 \textbf{while Loops}

The \texttt{repeat} in a loop can be modified by adding one or more \texttt{while} clauses. Each clause contains a predicate immediately following the \texttt{while} keyword. The predicate is tested \textit{before} the evaluation of the body of the loop. The loop body is evaluated whenever the predicates in a \texttt{while} clause are all \texttt{true}.

```plaintext
The syntax for a simple loop using \texttt{while} is

\texttt{while predicate repeat loopBody}

The \texttt{predicate} is evaluated before \texttt{loopBody} is evaluated. A \texttt{while} loop terminates immediately when \texttt{predicate} evaluates to \texttt{false} or when a \texttt{break} or \texttt{return} expression is evaluated in \texttt{loopBody}. The value returned by the loop is the unique value of \texttt{Void}.
```

Here is a simple example of using \texttt{while} in a loop. We first initialize the counter.

\begin{verbatim}
i := 1
\end{verbatim}

Type: PositiveInteger
The steps involved in computing this example are
(1) set \( i \) to 1,
(2) test the condition \( i < 1 \) and determine that it is not \texttt{true}, and
(3) do not evaluate the loop body and therefore do not display "\texttt{hello}".

\begin{verbatim}
while i < 1 repeat
    output "hello"
    i := i + 1
\end{verbatim}

Type: Void

If you have multiple predicates to be tested use the logical \texttt{and} operation to separate them. Axiom evaluates these predicates from left to right.

\begin{verbatim}
(x, y) := (1, 1)
1
\end{verbatim}

Type: PositiveInteger

\begin{verbatim}
while x < 4 and y < 10 repeat
    output \([x,y]\)
    x := x + 1
    y := y + 2

    [1,1]
    [2,3]
    [3,5]
\end{verbatim}

Type: Void

A \texttt{break} expression can be included in a loop body to terminate a loop even if the predicate in any \texttt{while} clauses are not \texttt{false}.

\begin{verbatim}
(x, y) := (1, 1)
1
\end{verbatim}

Type: PositiveInteger

This loop has multiple \texttt{while} clauses and the loop terminates before any one of their conditions evaluates to \texttt{false}. 
while x < 4 while y < 10 repeat
  if x + y > 7 then break
  output [x,y]
  x := x + 1
  y := y + 2

[1,1]
[2,3]

Type: Void

Here’s a different version of the nested loops that looked for the first negative element in a matrix.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
21 & 37 & 53 & 14 \\
8 & -24 & 22 & -16 \\
2 & 10 & 15 & 14 \\
26 & 33 & 55 & -13 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

Initialized the row index to 1 and get the number of rows and columns. If we were writing a function, these would all be local variables.

r := 1

1

Type: PositiveInteger

(lastrow, lastcol) := (nrows(m), ncols(m))

4

Type: PositiveInteger

Scan the rows looking for the first negative element.

while r <= lastrow repeat
  c := 1 -- index of first column
while c <= lastcol repeat
    if elt(m, r, c) < 0 then
        output [r, c, elt(m, r, c)]
        r := lastrow
        break -- don’t look any further
    c := c + 1
    r := r + 1

[2,2,-24]

Type: Void

5.4.8 for Loops

Axiom provides the for and in keywords in repeat loops, allowing you to iterate across all elements of a list, or to have a variable take on integral values from a lower bound to an upper bound. We shall refer to these modifying clauses of repeat loops as for clauses. These clauses can be present in addition to while clauses. As with all other types of repeat loops, break can be used to prematurely terminate the evaluation of the loop.

The syntax for a simple loop using for is

```
for iterator repeat loopBody
```

The iterator has several forms. Each form has an end test which is evaluated before loopBody is evaluated. A for loop terminates immediately when the end test succeeds (evaluates to true) or when a break or return expression is evaluated in loopBody. The value returned by the loop is the unique value of Void.

5.4.9 for i in n..m repeat

If for is followed by a variable name, the in keyword and then an integer segment of the form n..m, the end test for this loop is the predicate $i > m$. The body of the loop is evaluated $m - n + 1$ times if this number is greater than 0. If this number is less than or equal to 0, the loop body is not evaluated at all.

The variable $i$ has the value $n, n + 1, ..., m$ for successive iterations of the loop body. The loop variable is a local variable within the loop body: its value is not available outside the loop body and its value and type within the loop body completely mask any outer definition of a variable with the same name.

This loop prints the values of $10^3$, $11^3$, and $12^3$:

```
for i in 10..12 repeat output(i**3)
```
Here is a sample list.

\[ a := [1,2,3] \]

\[[1,2,3]\]

Type: List PositiveInteger

Iterate across this list, using “.” to access the elements of a list and the “#” operation to count its elements.

\[
\text{for } i \text{ in } 1..\#a \text{ repeat output(a.i)}
\]

1
2
3

Type: Void

This type of iteration is applicable to anything that uses “.”. You can also use it with functions that use indices to extract elements.

Define \( m \) to be a matrix.

\[
m := \text{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1,2,3 \end{bmatrix} \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
4 & 3 \\
9 & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

Display the rows of \( m \).

\[
\text{for } i \text{ in } 1..\text{nrows(m)} \text{ repeat output row(m,i)}
\]
You can use iterate with for-loops.
Display the even integers in a segment.

```plaintext
for i in 1..5 repeat
    if odd?(i) then iterate
    output(i)
    2
    4
```

Type: Void

See section 9.69 on page 771 for more information about segments.

### 5.4.10 for i in n..m by s repeat

By default, the difference between values taken on by a variable in loops such as `for i in n..m repeat ...` is 1. It is possible to supply another, possibly negative, step value by using the `by` keyword along with `for` and `in`. Like the upper and lower bounds, the step value following the `by` keyword must be an integer. Note that the loop `for i in 1..2 by 0 repeat output(i)` will not terminate by itself, as the step value does not change the index from its initial value of 1.

This expression displays the odd integers between two bounds.

```plaintext
for i in 1..5 by 2 repeat output(i)

1
3
5
```

Type: Void

Use this to display the numbers in reverse order.

```plaintext
for i in 5..1 by -2 repeat output(i)
```

Type: Void
5.4.11 for i in n.. repeat

If the value after the “..” is omitted, the loop has no end test. A potentially infinite loop is thus created. The variable is given the successive values \( n, n+1, n+2, \ldots \) and the loop is terminated only if a break or return expression is evaluated in the loop body. However you may also add some other modifying clause on the repeat (for example, a while clause) to stop the loop.

This loop displays the integers greater than or equal to 15 and less than the first prime greater than 15.

\[
\text{for } i \text{ in 15.. while not prime?}(i) \text{ repeat output}(i)
\]

15
16

5.4.12 for x in l repeat

Another variant of the for loop has the form:

\[
\text{for } x \text{ in list repeat loopBody}
\]

This form is used when you want to iterate directly over the elements of a list. In this form of the for loop, the variable \( x \) takes on the value of each successive element in \( l \). The end test is most simply stated in English: “are there no more \( x \) in \( l \)?”

If \( l \) is this list,

\[
l := [0,-5,3]
\]

[0,−5,3]

Type: List Integer

display all elements of \( l \), one per line.
for x in 1 repeat output(x)

0
- 5
3

Type: Void

Since the list constructing expression `expand[n..m]` creates the list \([n, n+1, \ldots, m]\).
Note that this list is empty if \(n > m\). You might be tempted to think that the loops

for i in n..m repeat output(i)

and

for x in expand [n..m] repeat output(x)

are equivalent. The second form first creates the list `expand[n..m]` (no matter how large it might be) and then does the iteration. The first form potentially runs in much less space, as the index variable \(i\) is simply incremented once per loop and the list is not actually created. Using the first form is much more efficient.

Of course, sometimes you really want to iterate across a specific list. This displays each of the factors of 2400000.

for f in factors(factor(2400000)) repeat output(f)

[factor= 2,exponent= 8]
[factor= 3,exponent= 1]
[factor= 5,exponent= 5]

Type: Void

### 5.4.13 “Such that” Predicates

A `for` loop can be followed by a “|” and then a predicate. The predicate qualifies the use of the values from the iterator following the `for`. Think of the vertical bar “|” as the phrase “such that.”

This loop expression prints out the integers \(n\) in the given segment such that \(n\) is odd.

for n in 0..4 | odd? n repeat output n
A for loop can also be written

\[
\text{for } \text{iterator} \mid \text{predicate} \text{ repeat } \text{loopBody}
\]

which is equivalent to:

\[
\text{for } \text{iterator} \text{ repeat if } \text{predicate} \text{ then } \text{loopBody} \text{ else } \text{iterate}
\]

The predicate need not refer only to the variable in the for clause: any variable in an outer scope can be part of the predicate.

In this example, the predicate on the inner for loop uses \( i \) from the outer loop and the \( j \) from the for clause that it directly modifies.

for \( i \) in 1..50 repeat
  for \( j \) in 1..50 \mid \text{factorial}(i+j) < 25 \text{ repeat}
    output \([i,j]\)

\[ [1,1] \]
\[ [1,2] \]
\[ [1,3] \]
\[ [2,1] \]
\[ [2,2] \]
\[ [3,1] \]

5.4.14 Parallel Iteration

The last example of the previous section 5.4.13 on page 212 gives an example of nested iteration: a loop is contained in another loop. Sometimes you want to iterate across two lists in parallel, or perhaps you want to traverse a list while incrementing a variable.
The general syntax of a repeat loop is

\[ \text{iterator}_1 \text{ iterator}_2 \ldots \text{ iterator}_N \text{ repeat } \text{loopBody} \]

where each \text{iterator} is either a \text{for} or a \text{while} clause. The loop terminates immediately when the end test of any \text{iterator} succeeds or when a \text{break} or \text{return} expression is evaluated in \text{loopBody}. The value returned by the loop is the unique value of \text{Void}.

Here we write a loop to iterate across two lists, computing the sum of the pairwise product of elements. Here is the first list.

\[ l := [1,3,5,7] \]

\[ [1,3,5,7] \]

\text{Type: List PositiveInteger}

And the second.

\[ m := [100,200] \]

\[ [100,200] \]

\text{Type: List PositiveInteger}

The initial value of the sum counter.

\[ \text{sum} := 0 \]

\[ 0 \]

\text{Type: NonNegativeInteger}

The last two elements of \( l \) are not used in the calculation because \( m \) has two fewer elements than \( l \).

\[ \text{for } x \text{ in } l \text{ for } y \text{ in } m \text{ repeat} \]
\[ \quad \text{sum} := \text{sum} + x*y \]

\text{Type: Void}

Display the “dot product.”
Next, we write a loop to compute the sum of the products of the loop elements with their positions in the loop.

\[ l := [2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37] \]

The initial sum.

\[ \text{sum} := 0 \]

Display this weighted sum.

\[ \text{sum} \]

When "\|" is used to qualify any of the \texttt{for} clauses in a parallel iteration, the variables in the predicates can be from an outer scope or from a \texttt{for} clause in or to the left of a modified clause.

This is correct:
Mixing Loop Modifiers

This example shows that it is possible to mix several of the forms of `repeat` modifying clauses on a loop.

```plaintext
for i in 1..10
    for j in 151..160 | odd? j
        while i + j < 160 repeat
            output [i,j]

[1,151]
[3,153]
```

Here are useful rules for composing loop expressions:

1. **while** predicates can only refer to variables that are global (or in an outer scope) or that are defined in `for` clauses to the left of the predicate.

2. A “such that” predicate (something following “|”) must directly follow a `for` clause and can only refer to variables that are global (or in an outer scope) or defined in the modified `for` clause or any `for` clause to the left.

Creating Lists and Streams with Iterators

All of what we did for loops in 5.4 on page 198 can be transformed into expressions that create lists and streams. The `repeat`, `break` or `iterate` words are not used but all the other ideas carry over. Before we give you the general rule, here are some examples which give you the idea.

This creates a simple list of the integers from 1 to 10.

```plaintext
list := [i for i in 1..10]
```
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]

Type: List PositiveInteger

Create a stream of the integers greater than or equal to 1.

stream := [i for i in 1..]

[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10,...]

Type: Stream PositiveInteger

This is a list of the prime integers between 1 and 10, inclusive.

[i for i in 1..10 | prime? i]

[2, 3, 5, 7]

Type: List PositiveInteger

This is a stream of the prime integers greater than or equal to 1.

[i for i in 1.. | prime? i]

[2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29,...]

Type: Stream PositiveInteger

This is a list of the integers between 1 and 10, inclusive, whose squares are less than 700.

[i for i in 1..10 while i*i < 700]

[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]

Type: List PositiveInteger

This is a stream of the integers greater than or equal to 1 whose squares are less than 700.

[i for i in 1.. while i*i < 700]

[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10,...]
Here is the general rule.

The general syntax of a collection is

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{collectExpression iterator}_1 \text{ iterator}_2 \ldots \text{iterator}_N
\end{array}
\]

where each \text{iterator}_i is either a \texttt{for} or a \texttt{while} clause. The loop terminates immediately when the end test of any \text{iterator}_i succeeds or when a \texttt{return} expression is evaluated in \text{collectExpression}. The value returned by the collection is either a list or a stream of elements, one for each iteration of the \text{collectExpression}.

Be careful when you use \texttt{while} to create a stream. By default, Axiom tries to compute and display the first ten elements of a stream. If the \texttt{while} condition is not satisfied quickly, Axiom can spend a long (possibly infinite) time trying to compute the elements. Use \texttt{)set streams calculate} to change the default to something else. This also affects the number of terms computed and displayed for power series. For the purposes of this book, we have used this system command to display fewer than ten terms.

Use nested iterators to create lists of lists which can then be given as an argument to \texttt{matrix}.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{matrix } \left[ [x^{**i}+j \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..3] \text{ for } j \text{ in } 10..12] \\
\end{array}
\]

\[
\left[
\begin{array}{ccc}
x + 10 & x^2 + 10 & x^3 + 10 \\
x + 11 & x^2 + 11 & x^3 + 11 \\
x + 12 & x^2 + 12 & x^3 + 12
\end{array}
\right]
\]

Type: \texttt{Matrix Polynomial Integer}

You can also create lists of streams, streams of lists and streams of streams. Here is a stream of streams.

\[
\left[ [i/j \text{ for } i \text{ in } j+1..] \text{ for } j \text{ in } 1..] \right]
\]
As with loops, you can combine these modifiers to make very complicated conditions.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, \ldots, \\
3, 2, 5, 3, 7, 4, 9, 5, 11, \ldots
\end{bmatrix},
\begin{bmatrix}
4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, \ldots \\
3, 3, 3, 4, 3, 4, 3, \ldots
\end{bmatrix},
\begin{bmatrix}
6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, \ldots \\
5, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, 5, \ldots
\end{bmatrix},
\begin{bmatrix}
8, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, \ldots \\
7, 7, 7, 7, 7, 7, \ldots
\end{bmatrix},
\begin{bmatrix}
10, 11, 14, 13, 15, 16, 17, 19, \ldots \\
9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, 9, \ldots
\end{bmatrix},
\begin{bmatrix}
11, 13, 7, 8, 17, 9, 19, 2, \ldots \\
10, 5, 10, 5, 2, 10, 5, 10, \ldots
\end{bmatrix}
\]

You can use parallel iteration across lists and streams to create new lists.

\[
[i/j \text{ for } i \text{ in } 3.. \text{ by } 10 \text{ for } j \text{ in } 2..]
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
3, 13, 23, 33, 43, 53, 63, 73, 83, 93, \ldots \\
2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, \ldots
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Iteration stops if the end of a list or stream is reached.

\[
[i**j \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..7 \text{ for } j \text{ in } 2..]
\]

\[
[1, 8, 81, 1024, 15625, 279936, 5764801]
\]

As with loops, you can combine these modifiers to make very complicated conditions.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
[ [i,j] \text{ for } i \text{ in } 10..15 \mid \text{prime? } i \} \text{ for } j \text{ in } 17..22 \mid j = \text{squareFreePart } j]
\]

\[
[[[11, 17], [13, 17]], [[11, 19], [13, 19]], [[11, 21], [13, 21]], [[11, 22], [13, 22]]
\]

See List (section 9.47 on page 663) and Stream (section 9.76 on page 790) for more information on creating and manipulating lists and streams, respectively.
5.6 An Example: Streams of Primes

We conclude this chapter with an example of the creation and manipulation of infinite streams of prime integers. This might be useful for experiments with numbers or other applications where you are using sequences of primes over and over again. As for all streams, the stream of primes is only computed as far out as you need. Once computed, however, all the primes up to that point are saved for future reference.

Two useful operations provided by the Axiom library are \texttt{prime?} and \texttt{nextPrime}. A straight-forward way to create a stream of prime numbers is to start with the stream of positive integers $[2, \ldots]$ and filter out those that are prime.

Create a stream of primes.

\begin{verbatim}
primes : Stream Integer := [i for i in 2.. | prime? i]

[2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, ...]
Type: Stream Integer
\end{verbatim}

A more elegant way, however, is to use the \texttt{generate} operation from \texttt{Stream}. Given an initial value $a$ and a function $f$, \texttt{generate} constructs the stream $[a, f(a), f(f(a)), \ldots]$. This function gives you the quickest method of getting the stream of primes.

This is how you use \texttt{generate} to generate an infinite stream of primes.

\begin{verbatim}
primes := generate(nextPrime,2)

[2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, ...]
Type: Stream Integer
\end{verbatim}

Once the stream is generated, you might only be interested in primes starting at a particular value.

\begin{verbatim}
smallPrimes := [p for p in primes | p > 1000]

[1009, 1013, 1019, 1021, 1031, 1033, 1039, 1049, 1051, 1061, ...]
Type: Stream Integer
\end{verbatim}

Here are the first 11 primes greater than 1000.

\begin{verbatim}
[p for p in smallPrimes for i in 1..11]

[1009, 1013, 1019, 1021, 1031, 1033, 1039, 1049, 1051, 1061, ...]
\end{verbatim}
Here is a stream of primes between 1000 and 1200.

\[
[p \text{ for } p \text{ in } \text{smallPrimes} \text{ while } p < 1200]
\]

\[1009, 1013, 1019, 1021, 1031, 1033, 1039, 1049, 1051, 1061, \ldots]\n
To get these expanded into a finite stream, you call \texttt{complete} on the stream.

\texttt{complete} \%

\[1009, 1013, 1019, 1021, 1031, 1033, 1039, 1049, 1051, 1061, \ldots\]

Twin primes are consecutive odd number pairs which are prime. Here is the stream of twin primes.

\texttt{twinPrimes} := \[ \{p,p+2\} \text{ for } p \text{ in } \text{primes} \text{ | prime?(p + 2)}\]

\[[3, 5], [5, 7], [11, 13], [17, 19], [29, 31], [41, 43], [59, 61], [71, 73],
[101, 103], [107, 109], \ldots\]

Since we already have the primes computed we can avoid the call to \texttt{prime?} by using a double iteration. This time we'll just generate a stream of the first of the twin primes.

\texttt{firstOfTwins} := \[ p \text{ for } p \text{ in } \text{primes} \text{ for } q \text{ in } \text{rest primes} \text{ | } q=p+2\]

\[3, 5, 11, 17, 29, 41, 59, 71, 101, 107, \ldots\]

Let's try to compute the infinite stream of triplet primes, the set of primes \(p\) such that \([p, p + 2, p + 4]\) are primes. For example, \([3, 5, 7]\) is a triple prime. We could do this by a triple for iteration. A more economical way is to use \texttt{firstOfTwins}. This time however, put a semicolon at the end of the line.

Create the stream of firstTriplets. Put a semicolon at the end so that no elements are computed.
firstTriplets := [p for p in firstOfTwins for q in rest firstOfTwins | q = p+2];

Type: Stream Integer

What happened? As you know, by default Axiom displays the first ten elements of a stream when you first display it. And, therefore, it needs to compute them! If you want no elements computed, just terminate the expression by a semicolon (";"). The semicolon prevents the display of the result of evaluating the expression. Since no stream elements are needed for display (or anything else, so far), none are computed.

Compute the first triplet prime.

firstTriplets.1

3

Type: PositiveInteger

If you want to compute another, just ask for it. But wait a second! Given three consecutive odd integers, one of them must be divisible by 3. Thus there is only one triplet prime. But suppose that you did not know this and wanted to know what was the tenth triplet prime.

firstTriples.10

To compute the tenth triplet prime, Axiom first must compute the second, the third, and so on. But since there isn’t even a second triplet prime, Axiom will compute forever. Nonetheless, this effort can produce a useful result. After waiting a bit, hit 

The system responds as follows.

>> System error:
Console interrupt.
You are being returned to the top level of
the interpreter.

If you want to know how many primes have been computed, type:

numberOfComputedEntries primes

and, for this discussion, let’s say that the result is 2045. How big is the 2045-th prime?

primes.2045

17837
What you have learned is that there are no triplet primes between 5 and 17837. Although this result is well known (some might even say trivial), there are many experiments you could make where the result is not known. What you see here is a paradigm for testing of hypotheses. Here our hypothesis could have been: “there is more than one triplet prime.” We have tested this hypothesis for 17837 cases. With streams, you can let your machine run, interrupt it to see how far it has progressed, then start it up and let it continue from where it left off.
Chapter 6

User-Defined Functions, Macros and Rules

In this chapter we show you how to write functions and macros, and we explain how Axiom looks for and applies them. We show some simple one-line examples of functions, together with larger ones that are defined piece-by-piece or through the use of rules.

6.1 Functions vs. Macros

A function is a program to perform some computation. Most functions have names so that it is easy to refer to them. A simple example of a function is one named \texttt{abs} which computes the absolute value of an integer.

This is a use of the “absolute value” library function for integers.

\texttt{abs\{-8\}}

\hfill 8

\texttt{Type: PositiveInteger}

This is an unnamed function that does the same thing, using the “maps-to” syntax \texttt{+->} that we discuss in section 6.17 on page 268.

\texttt{(x +-> if x < 0 then -x else x)(-8)}

\hfill 8

\hfill 224
Functions can be used alone or serve as the building blocks for larger programs. Usually they return a value that you might want to use in the next stage of a computation, but not always (for example, see 9.20 on page 527 and 9.86 on page 828). They may also read data from your keyboard, move information from one place to another, or format and display results on your screen.

In Axiom, as in mathematics, functions are usually parameterized. Each time you call (some people say apply or invoke) a function, you give values to the parameters (variables). Such a value is called an argument of the function. Axiom uses the arguments for the computation. In this way you get different results depending on what you “feed” the function.

Functions can have local variables or refer to global variables in the workspace. Axiom can often compile functions so that they execute very efficiently. Functions can be passed as arguments to other functions.

Macros are textual substitutions. They are used to clarify the meaning of constants or expressions and to be templates for frequently used expressions. Macros can be parameterized but they are not objects that can be passed as arguments to functions. In effect, macros are extensions to the Axiom expression parser.

### 6.2 Macros

A macro provides general textual substitution of an Axiom expression for a name. You can think of a macro as being a generalized abbreviation. You can only have one macro in your workspace with a given name, no matter how many arguments it has.

The two general forms for macros are

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{macro name} & \equiv \text{body} \\
\text{macro name}(\text{arg}1, \ldots) & \equiv \text{body}
\end{align*}
\]

where the body of the macro can be any Axiom expression.

For example, suppose you decided that you like to use df for D. You define the macro df like this.

\[
\text{macro df} \equiv \text{D}
\]

Whenever you type df, the system expands it to D.
df(x**2 + x + 1, x)

\[ 2x + 1 \]

Type: Polynomial Integer

Macros can be parameterized and so can be used for many different kinds of objects.

macro ff(x) == x**2 + 1

Type: Void

Apply it to a number, a symbol, or an expression.

\[ ff(z) \]

\[ z^2 + 1 \]

Type: Polynomial Integer

Macros can also be nested, but you get an error message if you run out of space because of an infinite nesting loop.

macro gg(x) == ff(2*x - 2/3)

Type: Void

This new macro is fine as it does not produce a loop.

\[ gg(1/w) \]

\[ \frac{13w^2 - 24w + 36}{9w^2} \]

Type: Fraction Polynomial Integer

This, however, loops since \( gg \) is defined in terms of \( ff \).

macro ff(x) == gg(-x)

Type: Void
The body of a macro can be a block.

```
macro next == (past := present; present := future; future := past + present)
```

Type: Void

Before entering `next`, we need values for `present` and `future`.

```
present : Integer := 0
```

0

Type: Integer

```
future : Integer := 1
```

1

Type: Integer

Repeatedly evaluating `next` produces the next Fibonacci number.

```
next
```

1

Type: Integer

And the next one.

```
next
```

2

Type: Integer

Here is the infinite stream of the rest of the Fibonacci numbers.

```
[next for i in 1..]
```

[3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, ...]
Bundle all the above lines into a single macro.

```axiom
macro fibStream ==
    present : Integer := 1
    future : Integer := 1
    [next for i in 1..] where
    macro next ==
        past := present
        present := future
        future := past + present
```

Type: Void

Use `concat` to start with the first two Fibonacci numbers.

```axiom
concat([0,1],fibStream)
```

```
[0,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34,55,...]
```

Type: Stream Integer

The library operation `fibonacci` is an easier way to compute these numbers.

```axiom
[fibonacci i for i in 1..]
```

```
[1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34,55,...]
```

Type: Stream Integer

### 6.3 Introduction to Functions

Each name in your workspace can refer to a single object. This may be any kind of object including a function. You can use interactively any function from the library or any that you define in the workspace. In the library the same name can have very many functions, but you can have only one function with a given name, although it can have any number of arguments that you choose.

If you define a function in the workspace that has the same name and number of arguments as one in the library, then your definition takes precedence. In fact, to get the library function you must `package-call` it (see section 2.9 on page 158).

To use a function in Axiom, you apply it to its arguments. Most functions are applied by entering the name of the function followed by its argument or arguments.
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factor(12)

\[2^2 \times 3\]

Type: Factored Integer

Some functions like \(^+\) have \textit{infix operators} as names.

3 + 4

7

Type: PositiveInteger

The function \(^+\) has two arguments. When you give it more than two arguments, Axiom groups the arguments to the left. This expression is equivalent to \((1 + 2) + 7\).

1 + 2 + 7

10

Type: PositiveInteger

All operations, including infix operators, can be written in prefix form, that is, with the operation name followed by the arguments in parentheses. For example, \(2 + 3\) can alternatively be written as \(+ (2, 3)\). But \(+ (2, 3, 4)\) is an error since + takes only two arguments.

Prefix operations are generally applied before the infix operation. Thus the form \texttt{factorial 3 + 1} means \texttt{factorial(3) + 1} producing 7, and \(-2 + 5\) means \((-2) + 5\) producing 3. An example of a prefix operator is prefix \(^-\). For example, \(-2 + 5\) converts to \((-2) + 5\) producing the value 3. Any prefix function taking two arguments can be written in an infix manner by putting an ampersand \(^&\) before the name. Thus \texttt{D(2 * x, x)} can be written as \(2 * x \&Dx\) returning 2.

Every function in Axiom is identified by a \textit{name} and \textit{type}. (An exception is an “anonymous function” discussed in 6.17 on page 268.) The type of a function is always a mapping of the form \texttt{Source \rightarrow Target} where \texttt{Source} and \texttt{Target} are types. To enter a type from the keyboard, enter the arrow by using a hyphen \(^-\) followed by a greater-than sign \(^>\), e.g. \texttt{Integer \rightarrow Integer}.

Let’s go back to \(^+\). There are many \(^+\) functions in the Axiom library: one for integers, one for floats, another for rational numbers, and so on. These \(^+\) functions have different types and thus are different functions. You’ve seen examples of this \textit{overloading} before—using the same name for different functions. Overloading is the rule rather than the exception. You can add two integers, two polynomials, two matrices or two power series. These are all done with the same function name but with different functions.
6.4 Declaring the Type of Functions

In 2.3 on page 138 we discussed how to declare a variable to restrict the kind of values that can be assigned to it. In this section we show how to declare a variable that refers to function objects.

A function is an object of type

\[ \text{Source} \rightarrow \text{Type} \]

where Source and Target can be any type. A common type for Source is \( \text{Tuple}(T_1, \ldots, T_n) \), usually written \( (T_1, \ldots, T_n) \), to indicate a function of \( n \) arguments.

If \( g \) takes an Integer, a Float and another Integer, and returns a String, the declaration is written:

\( g: (\text{Integer, Float, Integer}) \rightarrow \text{String} \)

Type: Void

The types need not be written fully; using abbreviations, the above declaration is:

\( g: (\text{INT,FLOAT,INT}) \rightarrow \text{STRING} \)

Type: Void

It is possible for a function to take no arguments. If \( h \) takes no arguments but returns a Polynomial Integer, any of the following declarations is acceptable.

\( h: () \rightarrow \text{POLY INT} \)

Type: Void

\( h: () \rightarrow \text{Polynomial INT} \)

Type: Void

\( h: () \rightarrow \text{POLY Integer} \)
Functions can also be declared when they are being defined. The syntax for combined declaration/definition is:

\[
\text{functionName} (\text{parm}_1 : \text{parmType}_1, \ldots, \text{parm}_N : \text{parmType}_N) : \\
\text{functionReturnType}
\]

The following definition fragments show how this can be done for the functions \(g\) and \(h\) above.

\[
g(\text{arg1}: \text{INT}, \text{arg2}: \text{FLOAT}, \text{arg3}: \text{INT}) : \text{STRING} == 
\]

\[
h() : \text{POLY INT} == 
\]

A current restriction on function declarations is that they must involve fully specified types (that is, cannot include modes involving explicit or implicit “?”). For more information on declaring things in general, see 2.3 on page 138.

### 6.5 One-Line Functions

As you use Axiom, you will find that you will write many short functions to codify sequences of operations that you often perform. In this section we write some simple one-line functions.

This is a simple recursive factorial function for positive integers.

\[
\text{fac} n == \text{if } n < 3 \text{ then } n \text{ else } n \times \text{fac}(n-1)
\]

\[
\text{fac 10}
\]

\[
3628800
\]

This function computes \(1 + 1/2 + 1/3 + \ldots + 1/n\).

\[
\text{s n == reduce(+,[1/i for i in 1..n])}
\]
This function computes a Mersenne number, several of which are prime.

\[
mersenne \ i \equiv 2^i - 1
\]

If you type `mersenne`, Axiom shows you the function definition.

\[
mersenne
\]

Generate a stream of Mersenne numbers.

\[
[mersenne \ i \ for \ i \ in \ 1..]
\]

\[
[1,3,7,15,31,63,127,255,511,1023,\ldots]
\]

Create a stream of those values of \( i \) such that \( mersenne(i) \) is prime.

\[
mersenneIndex := [n \ for \ n \ in \ 1.. \mid \text{prime?(mersenne(n))}]
\]

Finally, write a function that returns the \( n \)-th Mersenne prime.
mersennePrime n == mersenne mersenneIndex(n)

Type: Void

mersennePrime 5

8191

Type: PositiveInteger

6.6 Declared vs. Undeclared Functions

If you declare the type of a function, you can apply it to any data that can be converted to the source type of the function.

Define \( f \) with type \( \text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer} \).

\[
f(x: \text{Integer}): \text{Integer} == x + 1
\]

Function declaration \( f : \text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer} \) has been added to workspace.

Type: Void

The function \( f \) can be applied to integers, . . .

\( f \ n \)

Compiling function \( f \) with type \( \text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer} \)

\( 10 \)

Type: PositiveInteger

and to values that convert to integers, . . .

\( f(-2.0) \)

\(-1\)
but not to values that cannot be converted to integers.

\[ f(\frac{2}{3}) \]

Conversion failed in the compiled user function \( f \).

Cannot convert from type Fraction Integer to Integer for value
\[ \frac{2}{3} \]

To make the function over a wide range of types, do not declare its type. Give the same definition with no declaration.

\[ g \ x = x + 1 \]

If \( x + 1 \) makes sense, you can apply \( g \) to \( x \).

\[ g \ 9 \]

Compiling function \( g \) with type PositiveInteger \( \rightarrow \) PositiveInteger

\[ 10 \]

A version of \( g \) with different argument types get compiled for each new kind of argument used.

\[ g(\frac{2}{3}) \]

Compiling function \( g \) with type Fraction Integer \( \rightarrow \) Fraction Integer

\[ \frac{5}{3} \]

Type: Fraction Integer
Here \( x + 1 \) for \( x = "axiom" \) makes no sense.

\begin{verbatim}
g("axiom")

g there are 11 exposed and 5 unexposed library operations named + having 2 argument(s) but none was determined to be applicable. Use HyperDoc Browse, or issue
\texttt{)display op +}
to learn more about the available operations. Perhaps package-calling the operation or using coercions on the arguments will allow you to apply the operation. Cannot find a definition or applicable library operation named + with argument type(s) String PositiveInteger

Perhaps you should use "@" to indicate the required return type, or "$" to specify which version of the function you need. AXIOM will attempt to step through and interpret the code. There are 11 exposed and 5 unexposed library operations named + having 2 argument(s) but none was determined to be applicable. Use HyperDoc Browse, or issue
\texttt{)display op +}
to learn more about the available operations. Perhaps package-calling the operation or using coercions on the arguments will allow you to apply the operation. Cannot find a definition or applicable library operation named + with argument type(s) String PositiveInteger

Perhaps you should use "@" to indicate the required return type, or "$" to specify which version of the function you need.
\end{verbatim}

As you will see in Chapter 12 on page 897, Axiom has a formal idea of categories for what “makes sense.”

### 6.7 Functions vs. Operations

A function is an object that you can create, manipulate, pass to, and return from functions (for some interesting examples of library functions that manipulate functions, see 9.51 on page 681). Yet, we often seem to use the term operation and function interchangeably in Axiom. What is the distinction?
First consider values and types associated with some variable \( n \) in your workspace.
You can make the declaration \( n : \text{Integer} \), then assign \( n \) an integer value. You then
speak of the integer \( n \). However, note that the integer is not the name \( n \) itself, but the
value that you assign to \( n \).

Similarly, you can declare a variable \( f \) in your workspace to have type \( \text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer} \), then assign \( f \), through a definition or an assignment of an anonymous function.
You then speak of the function \( f \). However, the function is not \( f \), but the value that you
assign to \( f \).

A function is a value, in fact, some machine code for doing something. Doing what?
Well, performing some \emph{operation}. Formally, an operation consists of the constituent parts of \( f \) in your workspace, excluding the value; thus an operation has a name and a
type. An operation is what domains and packages export. Thus \text{Ring} exports one oper-
ation \( "+" \). Every ring also exports this operation. Also, the author of every ring in the
system is obliged under contract (see 11.3 on page 887) to provide an implementation
for this operation.

This chapter is all about functions—how you create them interactively and how you
apply them to meet your needs. In Chapter 11 on page 885 you will learn how to create
them for the Axiom library. Then in Chapter 12 on page 897, you will learn about
categories and exported operations.

### 6.8 Delayed Assignments vs. Functions with No Arguments

In 5.1 on page 188 we discussed the difference between immediate and delayed as-
signments. In this section we show the difference between delayed assignments and
functions of no arguments.

A function of no arguments is sometimes called a \emph{nullary function}.

\[
\sin24() == \sin(24.0)
\]

\text{Type: Void}

You must use the parentheses “\( () \)” to evaluate it. Like a delayed assignment, the right-
hand-side of a function evaluation is not evaluated until the left-hand-side is used.

\[
\sin24()
\]

\text{Compiling function sin24 with type () \rightarrow Float}

\(-0.9055783620 0662384514\)
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Type: Float

If you omit the parentheses, you just get the function definition.

\[
\text{sin24}() == \text{sin}(24.0)
\]

Type: FunctionCalled sin24

You do not use the parentheses “()” in a delayed assignment...

\[
\text{cos24} == \text{cos}(24.0)
\]

Type: Void

nor in the evaluation.

\[
\text{cos24}
\]

Compiling body of rule cos24 to compute value of type Float

0.4241790073 3699697594

Type: Float

The only syntactic difference between delayed assignments and nullary functions is that you use “()” in the latter case.

6.9 How Axiom Determines What Function to Use

What happens if you define a function that has the same name as a library function? Well, if your function has the same name and number of arguments (we sometimes say \textit{arity}) as another function in the library, then your function covers up the library function. If you want then to call the library function, you will have to \textit{package-call} it.

Axiom can use both the functions you write and those that come from the library. Let’s do a simple example to illustrate this.

Suppose you (wrongly!) define \textbf{sin} in this way.

\[
\text{sin } x == 1.0
\]
The value 1.0 is returned for any argument.

\[ \sin 4.3 \]

Compiling function \( \sin \) with type \( \text{Float} \rightarrow \text{Float} \)

\[ 1.0 \]

If you want the library operation, we have to package-call it (see 2.9 on page 158 for more information).

\[ \sin(4.3) \]$\text{Float}$

\[ -0.91616593674945498404 \]

Even worse, say we accidentally used the same name as a library function in the function.

\[ \sin x \equiv \sin x \]

Compiled code for \( \sin \) has been cleared.
1 old definition(s) deleted for function or rule \( \sin \)

Then Axiom definitely does not understand us.

\[ \sin 4.3 \]
AXIOM cannot determine the type of sin because it cannot analyze the non-recursive part, if that exists. This may be remedied by declaring the function.

Again, we could package-call the inside function.

\[
\sin x == \sin(x) \text{ } \text{Float}
\]

1 old definition(s) deleted for function or rule sin

| Type: Void |
\[
\sin 4.3
\]

Compiling function sin with type Float -> Float

+++ |*1;sin;1;G82322| redefined

-0.91616593674945498404

| Type: Float |

Of course, you are unlikely to make such obvious errors. It is more probable that you would write a function and in the body use a function that you think is a library function. If you had also written a function by that same name, the library function would be invisible.

How does Axiom determine what library function to call? It very much depends on the particular example, but the simple case of creating the polynomial \(x + \frac{2}{3}\) will give you an idea.

1. The \(x\) is analyzed and its default type is \text{Variable}(x).
2. The 2 is analyzed and its default type is \text{PositiveInteger}.
3. The 3 is analyzed and its default type is \text{PositiveInteger}.
4. Because the arguments to \(\div\) are integers, Axiom gives the expression \(\frac{2}{3}\) a default target type of \text{Fraction}(\text{Integer}).
5. Axiom looks in \text{PositiveInteger} for \(\div\). It is not found.
6. Axiom looks in \text{Fraction}(\text{Integer}) for \(\div\). It is found for arguments of type \text{Integer}. 
7. The 2 and 3 are converted to objects of type \texttt{Integer} (this is trivial) and “/” is applied, creating an object of type \texttt{Fraction(Integer)}.

8. No “+” for arguments of types \texttt{Variable(x)} and \texttt{Fraction(Integer)} are found in either domain.

9. Axiom resolves (see 2.10 on page 162) the types and gets \texttt{Polynomial (Fraction (Integer))}.

10. The \texttt{x} and the 2/3 are converted to objects of this type and + is applied, yielding the answer, an object of type \texttt{Polynomial (Fraction (Integer))}.

### 6.10 Compiling vs. Interpreting

When possible, Axiom completely determines the type of every object in a function, then translates the function definition to Common Lisp or to machine code (see the next section). This translation, called compilation, happens the first time you call the function and results in a computational delay. Subsequent function calls with the same argument types use the compiled version of the code without delay.

If Axiom cannot determine the type of everything, the function may still be executed but in interpret-code mode: each statement in the function is analyzed and executed as the control flow indicates. This process is slower than executing a compiled function, but it allows the execution of code that may involve objects whose types change.

If Axiom decides that it cannot compile the code, it issues a message stating the problem and then the following message:

> We will attempt to step through and interpret the code.

This is not a time to panic. Rather, it just means that what you gave to Axiom is somehow ambiguous: either it is not specific enough to be analyzed completely, or it is beyond Axiom’s present interactive compilation abilities.

This function runs in interpret-code mode, but it does not compile.

```lisp
varPolys(vars) ==
  for var in vars repeat
    output(1 :: UnivariatePolynomial(var,Integer))

Type: Void
```

For \texttt{vars} equal to ['\texttt{x}', '\texttt{y}', '\texttt{z}'], this function displays 1 three times.

```lisp
varPolys ['\texttt{x}', '\texttt{y}', '\texttt{z}']
```
Cannot compile conversion for types involving local variables. In particular, could not compile the expression involving :: UnivariatePolynomial(var,Integer) AXIOM will attempt to step through and interpret the code.

Type: Void

The type of the argument to output changes in each iteration, so Axiom cannot compile the function. In this case, even the inner loop by itself would have a problem:

for var in ['x','y','z'] repeat
output(1 :: UnivariatePolynomial(var,Integer))

Cannot compile conversion for types involving local variables. In particular, could not compile the expression involving :: UnivariatePolynomial(var,Integer) AXIOM will attempt to step through and interpret the code.

Type: Void

Sometimes you can help a function to compile by using an extra conversion or by using pretend. See 2.8 on page 155 for details.

When a function is compilable, you have the choice of whether it is compiled to Common Lisp and then interpreted by the Common Lisp interpreter or then further compiled from Common Lisp to machine code. The option is controlled via )set functions compile. Issue )set functions compile on to compile all the way to machine code. With the default setting )set functions compile off, Axiom has its Common Lisp code interpreted because the overhead of further compilation is larger than the run-time of most of the functions our users have defined. You may find that selectively turning this option on and off will give you the best performance in your particular application. For example, if you are writing functions for graphics applications where hundreds of points are being computed, it is almost certainly true that you will get the best performance by issuing )set functions compile on.

6.11 Piece-Wise Function Definitions

To move beyond functions defined in one line, we introduce in this section functions that are defined piece-by-piece. That is, we say “use this definition when the argument is such-and-such and use this other definition when the argument is that-and-that.”
6.11.1 A Basic Example

There are many other ways to define a factorial function for nonnegative integers. You might say factorial of 0 is 1, otherwise factorial of $n$ is $n$ times factorial of $n - 1$. Here is one way to do this in Axiom.

Here is the value for $n = 0$.

\[
fact(0) == 1
\]

Type: Void

Here is the value for $n > 0$. The vertical bar “|” means “such that”.

\[
fact(n \mid n > 0) == n \times fact(n - 1)
\]

Type: Void

What is the value for $n = 3$?

\[
fact(3)
\]

Compiling function fact with type Integer -> Integer
Compiling function fact as a recurrence relation.

Type: PositiveInteger

What is the value for $n = -3$?

\[
fact(-3)
\]

You did not define fact for argument -3.

Now for a second definition. Here is the value for $n = 0$.

\[
facto(0) == 1
\]

Type: Void
CHAPTER 6. USER-DEFINED FUNCTIONS, MACROS AND RULES

Give an error message if \( n < 0 \).

\[
\text{facto}(n | n < 0) == \text{error} \text{ "arguments to facto must be non-negative"}
\]

Type: Void

Here is the value otherwise.

\[
\text{facto}(n) == n * \text{facto}(n - 1)
\]

Type: Void

What is the value for \( n = 7 \)?

\[
\text{facto}(3)
\]

Compiling function facto with type Integer -> Integer

6

Type: PositiveInteger

What is the value for \( n = -7 \)?

\[
\text{facto}(-7)
\]

Error signalled from user code in function facto:
arguments to facto must be non-negative

Type: PositiveInteger

To see the current piece-wise definition of a function, use \( \text{\}display value} \).

\( \text{\}display value facto} \)

Definition:
\[
\text{facto} 0 == 1 \\
\text{facto} (n | n < 0) == \\
\text{error}(\text{arguments to facto must be non-negative}) \\
\text{facto} n == n \text{ facto}(n - 1)
\]
In general a piece-wise definition of a function consists of two or more parts. Each part gives a “piece” of the entire definition. Axiom collects the pieces of a function as you enter them. When you ask for a value of the function, it then “glues” the pieces together to form a function.

The two piece-wise definitions for the factorial function are examples of recursive functions, that is, functions that are defined in terms of themselves. Here is an interesting doubly-recursive function. This function returns the value 11 for all positive integer arguments.

Here is the first of two pieces.

\[
eleven(n \mid n < 1) == n + 11
\]

Type: Void

And the general case.

\[
eleven(m) == eleven(eleven(m - 12))
\]

Type: Void

Compute \textit{elevens}, the infinite stream of values of \textit{eleven}.

\[
elevens := [eleven(i) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 0..]
\]

\[
[11, 11, 11, 11, 11, 11, 11, 11, 11, 11, \ldots]
\]

Type: Stream Integer

What is the value at \( n = 200 \)?

\[
elevens 200
\]

11

Type: PositiveInteger

What is the Axiom’s definition of \textit{eleven}?

\)

Definition:

\[
eleven (m \mid m < 1) == m + 11
\]

\[
eleven m == eleven(eleven(m - 12))
\]
6.11.2 Picking Up the Pieces

Here are the details about how Axiom creates a function from its pieces. Axiom converts the $i$-th piece of a function definition into a conditional expression of the form: if $\text{pred}_i$ then $\text{expression}_i$. If any new piece has a $\text{pred}_i$ that is identical (after all variables are uniformly named) to an earlier $\text{pred}_j$, the earlier piece is removed. Otherwise, the new piece is always added at the end.

If there are $n$ pieces to a function definition for $f$, the function defined $f$ is:

$$\text{if } \text{pred}_1 \text{ then } \text{expression}_1 \text{ else } \ldots \text{ if } \text{pred}_n \text{ then } \text{expression}_n \text{ else error "You did not define f for argument <arg>."}$$

You can give definitions of any number of mutually recursive function definitions, piece-wise or otherwise. No computation is done until you ask for a value. When you do ask for a value, all the relevant definitions are gathered, analyzed, and translated into separate functions and compiled.

Let’s recall the definition of $\text{eleven}$ from the previous section.

\[
\text{eleven}(n \mid n < 1) \equiv n + 11
\]

Type: Void

\[
\text{eleven}(m) \equiv \text{eleven}(\text{eleven}(m - 12))
\]

Type: Void

A similar doubly-recursive function below produces $-11$ for all negative positive integers. If you haven’t worked out why or how $\text{eleven}$ works, the structure of this definition gives a clue.

This definition we write as a block.

\[
\text{minusEleven} (n) \equiv \\
\hspace{1cm} n \geq 0 \Rightarrow n - 11 \\
\hspace{1cm} \text{minusEleven} (5 + \text{minusEleven}(n + 7))
\]

Type: Void

Define $s(n)$ to be the sum of plus and minus “eleven” functions divided by $n$. Since $11 - 11 = 0$, we define $s(0)$ to be 1.
\[ s(0) == 1 \]

Type: Void

And the general term.

\[ s(n) == (\text{eleven}(n) + \text{minusEleven}(n))/n \]

Type: Void

What are the first ten values of \( s \)?

\[
[s(n) \text{ for } n \text{ in } 0..]
\]

\[ [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1,...] \]

Type: Stream Fraction Integer

Axiom can create infinite streams in the positive direction (for example, for index values 0, 1, ...) or negative direction (for example, for 0, -1, -2, ...). Here we would like a stream of values of \( s(n) \) that is infinite in both directions. The function \( t(n) \) below returns the \( n \)-th term of the infinite stream

\[ [s(0), s(1), s(-1), s(2), s(-2), ...] \]

Its definition has three pieces.

Define the initial term.

\[ t(1) == s(0) \]

Type: Void

The even numbered terms are the \( s(i) \) for positive \( i \). We use “quo” rather than “/” since we want the result to be an integer.

\[ t(n \mid \text{even?}(n)) == s(n \text{ quo } 2) \]

Type: Void

Finally, the odd numbered terms are the \( s(i) \) for negative \( i \). In piece-wise definitions, you can use different variables to define different pieces. Axiom will not get confused.
\( t(p) == s(- p \text{ quo } 2) \)

Type: Void

Look at the definition of \( t \). In the first piece, the variable \( n \) was used; in the second piece, \( p \). Axiom always uses your last variable to display your definitions back to you.

)display value \( t \)

Definition:
\[
\begin{align*}
t 1 & == s(0) \\
t (p | \text{even?(p)}) & == s(p \text{ quo } 2) \\
t p & == s(- p \text{ quo } 2)
\end{align*}
\]

Create a series of values of \( s \) applied to alternating positive and negative arguments.

\([t(i) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..]\]

Compiling function \( s \) with type \( \text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Fraction Integer} \)

Compiling function \( t \) with type \( \text{PositiveInteger} \rightarrow \text{Fraction Integer} \)

\([1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,1,...]\)

Type: Stream Fraction Integer

Evidently \( t(n) = 1 \) for all \( i \). Check it at \( n = 100 \).

\( t(100) \)

1

Type: Fraction Integer

### 6.11.3 Predicates

We have already seen some examples of predicates (6.11.1 on page 242). Predicates are Boolean-valued expressions and Axiom uses them for filtering collections (see 5.5 on page 216) and for placing constraints on function arguments. In this section we discuss their latter usage.

The simplest use of a predicate is one you don’t see at all.
opposite 'right == 'left

Type: Void

Here is a longer way to give the “opposite definition.”

opposite (x | x = 'left) == 'right

Type: Void

Try it out.

for x in ['right,'left,'inbetween] repeat output opposite x

Compiling function opposite with type
   OrderedVariableList [right, left,inbetween] -> Symbol

left
right

The function opposite is not defined for the given argument(s).

Explicit predicates tell Axiom that the given function definition piece is to be applied if the predicate evaluates to true for the arguments to the function. You can use such “constant” arguments for integers, strings, and quoted symbols. The Boolean values true and false can also be used if qualified with “@” or “$” and Boolean. The following are all valid function definition fragments using constant arguments.

a(1) == ...
b("unramified") == ...
c('untested) == ...
d(true@Boolean) == ...

If a function has more than one argument, each argument can have its own predicate. However, if a predicate involves two or more arguments, it must be given after all the arguments mentioned in the predicate have been given. You are always safe to give a single predicate at the end of the argument list.

A function involving predicates on two arguments.

inFirstHalfQuadrant (x | x > 0, y | y < x) == true

Type: Void
This is incorrect as it gives a predicate on $y$ before the argument $y$ is given.

$$\text{inFirstHalfQuadrant}(x \mid x > 0 \text{ and } y < x, y) == \text{true}$$

1 old definition(s) deleted for function or rule inFirstHalfQuadrant

Type: Void

It is always correct to write the predicate at the end.

$$\text{inFirstHalfQuadrant}(x, y \mid x > 0 \text{ and } y < x) == \text{true}$$

1 old definition(s) deleted for function or rule inFirstHalfQuadrant

Type: Void

Here is the rest of the definition.

$$\text{inFirstHalfQuadrant}(x, y) == \text{false}$$

Type: Void

Try it out.

$$[\text{inFirstHalfQuadrant}(i, 3) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..5]$$

Compiling function inFirstHalfQuadrant with type (PositiveInteger, PositiveInteger) -> Boolean

$$[\text{false}, \text{false}, \text{false}, \text{true}, \text{true}]$$

Type: List Boolean

### 6.12 Caching Previously Computed Results

By default, Axiom does not save the values of any function. You can cause it to save values and not to recompute unnecessarily by using )set functions cache. This should be used before the functions are defined or, at least, before they are executed. The word following “cache” should be 0 to turn off caching, a positive integer $n$ to save
the last \( n \) computed values or “all” to save all computed values. If you then give a list of names of functions, the caching only affects those functions. Use no list of names or “all” when you want to define the default behavior for functions not specifically mentioned in other \()\set\text{functions}\ \text{cache}\ \text{statements}. If you give no list of names, all functions will have the caching behavior. If you explicitly turn on caching for one or more names, you must explicitly turn off caching for those names when you want to stop saving their values.

This causes the functions \( f \) and \( g \) to have the last three computed values saved.

\[
)\set\text{functions}\ \text{cache} \ 3 \ f \ g
\]

\[
\ \text{function} \ f \ \text{will cache the last 3 values.} \\
\text{function} \ g \ \text{will cache the last 3 values.}
\]

This is a sample definition for \( f \).

\[
f \ x \ == \ \text{factorial} (2^{*}\ x)
\]

\[
\text{Type:} \ \text{Void}
\]

A message is displayed stating what \( f \) will cache.

\[
f \ (4)
\]

\[
\text{Compiling function} \ f \ \text{with type} \ \text{PositiveInteger} \ \to \ \text{Integer} \\
\text{f will cache 3 most recently computed value(s).}
\]

\[
+++ \ |*1;f;1;G82322| \text{redefined}
\]

\[
20922789888000
\]

\[
\text{Type:} \ \text{PositiveInteger}
\]

This causes all other functions to have all computed values saved by default.

\[
)\set\text{functions}\ \text{cache}\ \text{all}
\]

\[
\text{In general, interpreter functions will cache all values.}
\]

This causes all functions that have not been specifically cached in some way to have no computed values saved.
In general, functions will cache no returned values.

We also make f and g uncached.

Caching for function f is turned off
Caching for function g is turned off

Be careful about caching functions that have side effects. Such a function might destructively modify the elements of an array or issue a draw command, for example. A function that you expect to execute every time it is called should not be cached. Also, it is highly unlikely that a function with no arguments should be cached.

You should also be careful about caching functions that depend on free variables. See 6.16 on page 261 for an example.

### 6.13 Recurrence Relations

One of the most useful classes of function are those defined via a “recurrence relation.” A recurrence relation makes each successive value depend on some or all of the previous values. A simple example is the ordinary “factorial” function:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{fact}(0) & = 1 \\
\text{fact}(n \mid n > 0) & = n \times \text{fact}(n-1)
\end{align*}
\]

The value of fact(10) depends on the value of fact(9), fact(9) on fact(8), and so on. Because it depends on only one previous value, it is usually called a first order recurrence relation. You can easily imagine a function based on two, three or more previous values. The Fibonacci numbers are probably the most famous function defined by a second order recurrence relation.

The library function fibonacci computes Fibonacci numbers. It is obviously optimized for speed.

\[
[fibonacci(i) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 0..]
\]

\[
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, ...]
\]
Define the Fibonacci numbers ourselves using a piece-wise definition.

\[
\text{fib(1)} == 1 \\
\text{fib(2)} == 1 \\
\text{fib(n)} == \text{fib(n-1)} + \text{fib(n-2)}
\]

As defined, this recurrence relation is obviously doubly-recursive. To compute \( \text{fib}(10) \), we need to compute \( \text{fib}(9) \) and \( \text{fib}(8) \). And to \( \text{fib}(9) \), we need to compute \( \text{fib}(8) \) and \( \text{fib}(7) \). And so on. It seems that to compute \( \text{fib}(10) \) we need to compute \( \text{fib}(9) \) once, \( \text{fib}(8) \) twice, \( \text{fib}(7) \) three times. Look familiar? The number of function calls needed to compute any second order recurrence relation in the obvious way is exactly \( \text{fib}(n) \). These numbers grow! For example, if Axiom actually did this, then \( \text{fib}(500) \) requires more than \( 10^{104} \) function calls. And, given all this, our definition of \( \text{fib} \) obviously could not be used to calculate the five-hundredth Fibonacci number.

Let's try it anyway.

\[
\text{fib}(500)
\]

Since this takes a short time to compute, it obviously didn’t do as many as \( 10^{104} \) operations! By default, Axiom transforms any recurrence relation it recognizes into an iteration. Iterations are efficient. To compute the value of the \( n \)-th term of a recurrence
relation using an iteration requires only \( n \) function calls. Note that if you compare the speed of our \texttt{fib} function to the library function, our version is still slower. This is because the library \texttt{fibonacci} uses a “powering algorithm” with a computing time proportional to \( \log^3(n) \) to compute \texttt{fibonacci}(n).

To turn off this special recurrence relation compilation, issue

\[
\text{)}\text{set functions recurrence off}
\]

To turn it back on, substitute “\texttt{on}” for “\texttt{off}”.

The transformations that Axiom uses for \texttt{fib} caches the last two values. For a more general \( k \)-th order recurrence relation, Axiom caches the last \( k \) values. If, after computing a value for \texttt{fib}, you ask for some larger value, Axiom picks up the cached values and continues computing from there. See \texttt{6.16} on page 261 for an example of a function definition that has this same behavior. Also see \texttt{6.12} on page 249 for a more general discussion of how you can cache function values.

Recurrence relations can be used for defining recurrence relations involving polynomials, rational functions, or anything you like. Here we compute the infinite stream of Legendre polynomials.

The Legendre polynomial of degree 0.

\[
p(0) == 1
\]

Type: \texttt{Void}

The Legendre polynomial of degree 1.

\[
p(1) == x
\]

Type: \texttt{Void}

The Legendre polynomial of degree \( n \).

\[
p(n) == ((2*n-1)*x*p(n-1) - (n-1)*p(n-2))/n
\]

Type: \texttt{Void}

Compute the Legendre polynomial of degree 6.

\[
p(6)
\]
Compiling function p with type Integer -> Polynomial Fraction Integer
Compiling function p as a recurrence relation.

$$\frac{231}{16} x^6 - \frac{315}{16} x^4 + \frac{105}{16} x^2 - \frac{5}{16}$$

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

### 6.14 Making Functions from Objects

There are many times when you compute a complicated expression and then wish to use that expression as the body of a function. Axiom provides an operation called `function` to do this. It creates a function object and places it into the workspace. There are several versions, depending on how many arguments the function has. The first argument to `function` is always the expression to be converted into the function body, and the second is always the name to be used for the function. For more information, see section 9.50 on page 678.

Start with a simple example of a polynomial in three variables.

```axiom
p := -x + y^2 - z^3
```

$$-z^3 + y^2 - x$$

Type: Polynomial Integer

To make this into a function of no arguments that simply returns the polynomial, use the two argument form of `function`.

```axiom
function(p,'f0)
```

$$f0$$

Type: Symbol

To avoid possible conflicts (see below), it is a good idea to quote always this second argument.

```axiom
f0
```

$$f0 () == -z^3 + y^2 - x$$

Type: FunctionCalled f0
This is what you get when you evaluate the function.

\[ f_0() \]

\[-z^3 + y^2 - x\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

To make a function in \( x \), use a version of function that takes three arguments. The last argument is the name of the variable to use as the parameter. Typically, this variable occurs in the expression and, like the function name, you should quote it to avoid possible confusion.

\[
\text{function}(p,'f1,'x) \]

\( f1 \)

Type: Symbol

This is what the new function looks like.

\[ f1 \]

\[ f1 \ x \ ==\ -z^3 + y^2 - x \]

Type: FunctionCalled f1

This is the value of \( f1 \) at \( x = 3 \). Notice that the return type of the function is \text{Polynomial (Integer)}\), the same as \( p \).

\[ f1(3) \]

Compiling function \( f1 \) with type PositiveInteger \( \rightarrow \) Polynomial Integer

\[-z^3 + y^2 - 3\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

To use \( x \) and \( y \) as parameters, use the four argument form of function.

\[
\text{function}(p,'f2,'x,'y) \]
\section*{User-Defined Functions, Macros and Rules}

\begin{enumerate}
\item $f_2$
\begin{verbatim}
f2
f2 (x, y) == -z^3 + y^2 - x
\end{verbatim}
\end{enumerate}

Evaluate $f_2$ at $x = 3$ and $y = 0$. The return type of $f_2$ is still \texttt{Polynomial(Integer)} because the variable $z$ is still present and not one of the parameters.

\begin{verbatim}
f2(3, 0)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
-3^3 - 3
\end{verbatim}

Finally, use all three variables as parameters. There is no five argument form of \texttt{function}, so use the one with three arguments, the third argument being a list of the parameters.

\begin{verbatim}
function(p, 'f3, ['x', 'y', 'z'])
\end{verbatim}

\begin{enumerate}
\item $f_3$
\begin{verbatim}
f3
f3 (x, y, z) == -z^3 + y^2 - x
\end{verbatim}
\end{enumerate}

Evaluate this using the same values for $x$ and $y$ as above, but let $z$ be $-6$. The result type of $f_3$ is \texttt{Integer}.

\begin{verbatim}
f3(3, 0, -6)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
Compiling function f3 with type (PositiveInteger, NonNegativeInteger, Integer) -> Integer
\end{verbatim}
The four functions we have defined via $p$ have been undeclared. To declare a function whose body is to be generated by \textbf{function}, issue the declaration \textit{before} the function is created.

$g$: \((\text{Integer, Integer}) \to \text{Float}\)

$$D(\sin(x-y)/\cos(x+y), x)$$

$$\frac{-\sin(y-x) \sin(y+x) + \cos(y-x) \cos(y+x)}{\cos(y+x)^2}$$

It is an error to use $g$ without the quote in the penultimate expression since $g$ had been declared but did not have a value. Similarly, since it is common to overuse variable names like $x$, $y$, and so on, you avoid problems if you always quote the variable names for \textbf{function}. In general, if $x$ has a value and you use $x$ without a quote in a call to \textbf{function}, then Axiom does not know what you are trying to do.

What kind of object is allowable as the first argument to \textbf{function}? Let’s use the Browse facility of HyperDoc to find out. At the main Browse menu, enter the string \textbf{function} and then click on \textbf{Operations}. The exposed operations called \textbf{function} all take an object whose type belongs to category \texttt{ConvertibleTo InputForm}. What domains
are those? Go back to the main Browse menu, erase function, enter ConvertibleTo in the input area, and click on categories on the Constructors line. At the bottom of the page, enter InputForm in the input area following S =. Click on Cross Reference and then on Domains. The list you see contains over forty domains that belong to the category ConvertibleTo InputForm. Thus you can use function for Integer, Float, String, Complex, Expression, and so on.

6.15 Functions Defined with Blocks

You need not restrict yourself to functions that only fit on one line or are written in a piece-wise manner. The body of the function can be a block, as discussed in 5.2 on page 192.

Here is a short function that swaps two elements of a list, array or vector.

\[
\text{swap}(m, i, j) == \\
\text{temp} := m.i \\
m.i := m.j \\
m.j := \text{temp}
\]

Type: Void

The significance of \text{swap} is that it has a destructive effect on its first argument.

\[
k := [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
\]

\[
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
\]

Type: List PositiveInteger

\[
\text{swap}(k, 2, 4)
\]

Compiling function \text{swap} with type (List PositiveInteger, PositiveInteger,PositiveInteger) -> PositiveInteger

2

Type: PositiveInteger

You see that the second and fourth elements are interchanged.

\[
k
\]
Using this, we write a couple of different sort functions. First, a simple bubble sort. The operation "#" returns the number of elements in an aggregate.

```lisp
bubbleSort(m) ==
  n := #m
  for i in 1..(n-1) repeat
    for j in n..(i+1) by -1 repeat
      if m.j < m.(j-1) then swap(m,j,j-1)
  m

Type: Void
```

Let this be the list we want to sort.

```lisp
m := [8,4,-3,9]
```

This is the result of sorting.

```lisp
bubbleSort(m)
```

```
Compiling function swap with type (List Integer,Integer,Integer) ->
  Integer
++|*3;swap;1;G82322| redefined
  Compiling function bubbleSort with type List Integer -> List Integer

[-3,4,8,9]
```

Type: List Integer

Moreover, m is destructively changed to be the sorted version.

```lisp
m
```

```
[-3,4,8,9]
```
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This function implements an insertion sort. The basic idea is to traverse the list and insert the $i$-th element in its correct position among the $i-1$ previous elements. Since we start at the beginning of the list, the list elements before the $i$-th element have already been placed in ascending order.

```lisp
insertionSort(m) ==
  for i in 2..#m repeat
    j := i
    while j > 1 and m.j < m.(j-1) repeat
      swap(m,j,j-1)
      j := j - 1
  m
```

As with our bubble sort, this is a destructive function.

```lisp
m := [8,4,-3,9]
[8,4,-3,9]
```

```lisp
insertionSort(m)
```

```
Compiling function insertionSort with type List Integer -> List Integer
```

```lisp
[−3,4,8,9]
```

```lisp
m
[−3,4,8,9]
```

Neither of the above functions is efficient for sorting large lists since they reference elements by asking for the $j$-th element of the structure $m$.

Here is a more efficient bubble sort for lists.
bubbleSort2(m: List Integer): List Integer ==
null m => m
l := m
while not null (r := l.rest) repeat
  r := bubbleSort2 r
  x := l.first
  if x < r.first then
    l.first := r.first
    r.first := x
    l.rest := r
  l := l.rest
m

Function declaration bubbleSort2 : List Integer -> List Integer has been added to workspace.

Type: Void

Try it out.

bubbleSort2 [3,7,2]

[7,3,2]

Type: List Integer

This definition is both recursive and iterative, and is tricky! Unless you are really curious about this definition, we suggest you skip immediately to the next section.

Here are the key points in the definition. First notice that if you are sorting a list with less than two elements, there is nothing to do: just return the list. This definition returns immediately if there are zero elements, and skips the entire while loop if there is just one element.

The second point to realize is that on each outer iteration, the bubble sort ensures that the minimum element is propagated leftmost. Each iteration of the while loop calls bubbleSort2 recursively to sort all but the first element. When finished, the minimum element is either in the first or second position. The conditional expression ensures that it comes first. If it is in the second, then a swap occurs. In any case, the rest of the original list must be updated to hold the result of the recursive call.

6.16 Free and Local Variables

When you want to refer to a variable that is not local to your function, use a “free” declaration. Variables declared to be free are assumed to be defined globally in the workspace.
This is a global workspace variable.

counter := 0

0

Type: NonNegativeInteger

This function refers to the global counter.

f() ==
    free counter
    counter := counter + 1

Type: Void

The global counter is incremented by 1.

f()

Compiling function f with type () -> NonNegativeInteger

+++ |*0;f;1;G82322| redefined

1

Type: PositiveInteger

counter

1

Type: NonNegativeInteger

Usually Axiom can tell that you mean to refer to a global variable and so free isn’t always necessary. However, for clarity and the sake of self-documentation, we encourage you to use it.

Declare a variable to be “local” when you do not want to refer to a global variable by the same name.

This function uses counter as a local variable.
\begin{verbatim}
g() ==
  local counter
  counter := 7

Type: Void

Apply the function.

g()

7

Type: PositiveInteger

Check that the global value of \texttt{counter} is unchanged.

counter

1

Type: NonNegativeInteger
\end{verbatim}

Parameters to a function are local variables in the function. Even if you issue a \texttt{free} declaration for a parameter, it is still local.

What happens if you do not declare that a variable \texttt{x} in the body of your function is \texttt{local} or \texttt{free}? Well, Axiom decides on this basis:

1. Axiom scans your function line-by-line, from top-to-bottom. The right-hand side of an assignment is looked at before the left-hand side.

2. If \texttt{x} is referenced before it is assigned a value, it is a \texttt{free} (global) variable.

3. If \texttt{x} is assigned a value before it is referenced, it is a \texttt{local} variable.

Set two global variables to 1.

\texttt{a := b := 1}

1

Type: PositiveInteger

Refer to \texttt{a} before it is assigned a value, but assign a value to \texttt{b} before it is referenced.
Can you predict this result?

h()

Compiling function h with type () -> PositiveInteger

+++ |*0;h;1;G82322| redefined

3

Type: PositiveInteger

How about this one?

[a, b]

[3, 1]

Type: List PositiveInteger

What happened? In the first line of the function body for h, a is referenced on the right-hand side of the assignment. Thus a is a free variable. The variable b is not referenced in that line, but it is assigned a value. Thus b is a local variable and is given the value $a + 1 = 2$. In the second line, the free variable a is assigned the value $b + a$ which equals $2 + 1 = 3$. This is the value returned by the function. Since a was free in h, the global variable a has value 3. Since b was local in h, the global variable b is unchanged—it still has the value 1.

It is good programming practice always to declare global variables. However, by far the most common situation is to have local variables in your functions. No declaration is needed for this situation, but be sure to initialize their values.

Be careful if you use free variables and you cache the value of your function (see 6.12 on page 249). Caching only checks if the values of the function arguments are the same as in a function call previously seen. It does not check if any of the free variables on which the function depends have changed between function calls.

Turn on caching for p.

)set fun cache all p
function p will cache all values.

Define \( p \) to depend on the free variable \( N \).

\[
p(i, x) == \text{free } N; \text{reduce}( +, [ (x-i)^n \text{ for } n \text{ in } 1..N ] )
\]

Type: Void

Set the value of \( N \).

\( N := 1 \)

1

Type: PositiveInteger

Evaluate \( p \) the first time.

\( p(0, x) \)

\( x \)

Type: Polynomial Integer

Change the value of \( N \).

\( N := 2 \)

2

Type: PositiveInteger

Evaluate \( p \) the second time.

\( p(0, x) \)

\( x \)

Type: Polynomial Integer

If caching had been turned off, the second evaluation would have reflected the changed value of \( N \).

Turn off caching for \( p \).
Axiom does not allow fluid variables, that is, variables bound by a function \( f \) that can be referenced by functions called by \( f \).

Values are passed to functions by reference: a pointer to the value is passed rather than a copy of the value or a pointer to a copy.

This is a global variable that is bound to a record object.

\[ r : \text{Record}(i : \text{Integer}) := [1] \]

\[ [i = 1] \]

Type: Record(i: Integer)

This function first modifies the one component of its record argument and then rebinds the parameter to another record.

\[
\text{resetRecord } rr == \\
rr.i := 2 \\
rr := [10]
\]

Type: Void

Pass \( r \) as an argument to \texttt{resetRecord}.

\[
\text{resetRecord } r
\]

\[ [i = 10] \]

Type: Record(i: Integer)

The value of \( r \) was changed by the expression \( rr.i := 2 \) but not by \( rr := [10] \).

\[
\text{r}
\]

\[ [i = 2] \]

Type: Record(i: Integer)
To conclude this section, we give an iterative definition of a function that computes Fibonacci numbers. This definition approximates the definition into which Axiom transforms the recurrence relation definition of \texttt{fib} in 6.13 on page 251.

Global variables \texttt{past} and \texttt{present} are used to hold the last computed Fibonacci numbers.

\begin{verbatim}
past := present := 1

1

Type: PositiveInteger

Global variable \texttt{index} gives the current index of \texttt{present}.

\texttt{index} := 2

2

Type: PositiveInteger

Here is a recurrence relation defined in terms of these three global variables.

\begin{verbatim}
fib(n) ==
    free past, present, index
    n < 3 => 1
    n = index - 1 => past
    if n < index-1 then
        (past,present) := (1,1)
        index := 2
    while (index < n) repeat
        (past,present) := (present, past+present)
        index := index + 1
    present

Type: Void
\end{verbatim}

Compute the infinite stream of Fibonacci numbers.

\begin{verbatim}
fibs := [fib(n) for n in 1..]

[1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55,...]

Type: Stream PositiveInteger
\end{verbatim}
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What is the 1000th Fibonacci number?

fibs 1000

434665576869374564356885276750406258025646605173717804024_
8172908953655541794905189040387984007925516929592259308_
0322634775209689623239873322471161642996440906533187938_
298969649928516003704476137795166849228875

Type: PositiveInteger

As an exercise, we suggest you write a function in an iterative style that computes the value of the recurrence relation \( p(n) = p(n-1) - 2p(n-2) + 4p(n-3) \) having the initial values \( p(1) = 1, p(2) = 3 \) and \( p(3) = 9 \). How would you write the function using an element OneDimensionalArray or Vector to hold the previously computed values?

6.17 Anonymous Functions

An anonymous function is a function that is defined by giving a list of parameters, the “maps-to” compound symbol “\( \rightarrow \)” (from the mathematical symbol \( \mapsto \)), and by an expression involving the parameters, the evaluation of which determines the return value of the function.

\[
( \text{parm}_1, \text{parm}_2, \ldots, \text{parm}_N ) \rightarrow \text{expression}
\]

You can apply an anonymous function in several ways.

1. Place the anonymous function definition in parentheses directly followed by a list of arguments.

2. Assign the anonymous function to a variable and then use the variable name when you would normally use a function name.

3. Use “==” to use the anonymous function definition as the arguments and body of a regular function definition.

4. Have a named function contain a declared anonymous function and use the result returned by the named function.
6.17.1 Some Examples

Anonymous functions are particularly useful for defining functions “on the fly.” That is, they are handy for simple functions that are used only in one place. In the following examples, we show how to write some simple anonymous functions.

This is a simple absolute value function.

\[ x \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{if } x < 0 \text{ then } -x \text{ else } x & \end{cases} \]

\( x \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{if } x < 0 \text{ then } -x \\ \text{else } x & \end{cases} \)

Type: AnonymousFunction

\[
\text{abs1 := } \%
\]

\[
\rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{if } x < 0 \text{ then } -x \\ \text{else } x & \end{cases} \)

Type: AnonymousFunction

This function returns \text{true} if the absolute value of the first argument is greater than the absolute value of the second, \text{false} otherwise.

\[ (x,y) \rightarrow \text{abs1}(x) > \text{abs1}(y) \]

\[ (x,y) \rightarrow \text{abs1}(y) < \text{abs1}(x) \]

Type: AnonymousFunction

We use the above function to “sort” a list of integers.

\[
sort(\%, [3,9,-4,10,-3,-1,-9,5])
\]

\[ [10,-9,9,5,-4,-3,3,-1] \]

Type: List Integer

This function returns 1 if \(i+j\) is even, -1 otherwise.

\[
ev := (i,j) \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{if even?(i+j) then } 1 \text{ else } -1 & \end{cases} \]

\( (i,j) \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{if even?(i+j) then } 1 \\ \text{else } -1 & \end{cases} \)

We create a four-by-four matrix containing 1 or \(-1\) depending on whether the row plus the column index is even or not.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\
-1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\
1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\
-1 & 1 & -1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

This function returns \texttt{true} if a polynomial in \(x\) has multiple roots, \texttt{false} otherwise. It is defined and applied in the same expression.

\[
(p \rightarrow \text{not one?(gcd}(p,D(p,x)))) \ (x^2+4*x+4)
\]

\texttt{true}

This and the next expression are equivalent.

\[
g(x,y,z) \equiv \cos(x + \sin(y + \tan(z)))
\]

Type: Void

The one you use is a matter of taste.

\[
g = (x,y,z) \rightarrow \cos(x + \sin(y + \tan(z)))
\]

Type: Void
6.17.2 Declaring Anonymous Functions

If you declare any of the arguments you must declare all of them. Thus,

\[(x: \text{INT}, y): \text{FRAC INT} \rightarrow (x + 2y)/(y - 1)\]

is not legal.

This is an example of a fully declared anonymous function. The output shown just indicates that the object you created is a particular kind of map, that is, function.

\[(x: \text{INT}, y: \text{INT}): \text{FRAC INT} \rightarrow (x + 2y)/(y - 1)\]

theMap(...)

Type: \(((\text{Integer}, \text{Integer}) \rightarrow \text{Fraction Integer})\)

Axiom allows you to declare the arguments and not declare the return type.

\[(x: \text{INT}, y: \text{INT}) \rightarrow (x + 2y)/(y - 1)\]

theMap(...)

Type: \(((\text{Integer}, \text{Integer}) \rightarrow \text{Fraction Integer})\)

The return type is computed from the types of the arguments and the body of the function. You cannot declare the return type if you do not declare the arguments. Therefore,

\[(x, y): \text{FRAC INT} \rightarrow (x + 2y)/(y - 1)\]

is not legal. This and the next expression are equivalent.

\[h(x: \text{INT}, y: \text{INT}): \text{FRAC INT} = (x + 2y)/(y - 1)\]

Function declaration \(h : (\text{Integer, Integer}) \rightarrow \text{Fraction Integer}\)

has been added to workspace.

Type: \(\text{Void}\)

The one you use is a matter of taste.

\[h = (x: \text{INT}, y: \text{INT}): \text{FRAC INT} \rightarrow (x + 2y)/(y - 1)\]
CHAPTER 6. USER-DEFINED FUNCTIONS, MACROS AND RULES

Function declaration h : (Integer,Integer) -> Fraction Integer
has been added to workspace.
1 old definition(s) deleted for function or rule h

Type: Void

When should you declare an anonymous function?

1. If you use an anonymous function and Axiom can’t figure out what you are trying
to do, declare the function.

2. If the function has nontrivial argument types or a nontrivial return type that Ax-
iom may be able to determine eventually, but you are not willing to wait that
long, declare the function.

3. If the function will only be used for arguments of specific types and it is not too
much trouble to declare the function, do so.

4. If you are using the anonymous function as an argument to another function
(such as map or sort), consider declaring the function.

5. If you define an anonymous function inside a named function, you must declare
the anonymous function.

This is an example of a named function for integers that returns a function.

addx x == ((y: Integer): Integer +-> x + y)

Type: Void

We define g to be a function that adds 10 to its argument.

g := addx 10

Compiling function addx with type
PositiveInteger -> (Integer -> Integer)

theMap(...)

Type: (Integer -> Integer)

Try it out.

g 3
An anonymous function cannot be recursive: since it does not have a name, you cannot even call it within itself! If you place an anonymous function inside a named function, the anonymous function must be declared.

### 6.18 Example: A Database

This example shows how you can use Axiom to organize a database of lineage data and then query the database for relationships.

The database is entered as “assertions” that are really pieces of a function definition.

```plaintext
c children("albert") == ["albertJr","richard","diane"]
```

Type: Void

Each piece `children(x) == y` means “the children of x are y”.

```plaintext
c children("richard") == ["douglas","daniel","susan"]
```

Type: Void

This family tree thus spans four generations.

```plaintext
c children("douglas") == ["dougie","valerie"]
```

Type: Void

Say “no one else has children.”

```plaintext
c children(x) == []
```

Type: PositiveInteger
We need some functions for computing lineage. Start with `childOf`.

\[
\text{childOf}(x,y) \equiv \text{member?(}x,\text{children}(y))
\]

To find the `parentOf` someone, you have to scan the database of people applying `children`.

\[
\text{parentOf}(x) = \\
\text{for } y \text{ in people repeat} \\
\quad \text{(if } \text{childOf}(x,y) \text{ then return } y) \\
\text{"unknown"}
\]

And a grandparent of \( x \) is just a parent of a parent of \( x \).

\[
\text{grandParentOf}(x) = \text{parentOf parentOf } x
\]

The grandchildren of \( x \) are the people \( y \) such that \( x \) is a grandparent of \( y \).

\[
\text{grandchildren}(x) = \{y \text{ for } y \text{ in people } | \text{grandParentOf}(y) = x\}
\]

Suppose you want to make a list of all great-grandparents. Well, a great-grandparent is a grandparent of a person who has children.

\[
\text{greatGrandParents} = \{x \text{ for } x \text{ in people } | \\
\quad \text{reduce(\_or,} \\
\quad \quad \text{[not empty? children}(y) \text{ for } y \text{ in grandchildren}(x)],\text{false)}\}
\]

Define `descendants` to include the parent as well.
descendants(x) ==
  kids := children(x)
  null kids => [x]
  concat(x,reduce(concat,[descendants(y)
    for y in kids],[]))

Type: Void

Finally, we need a list of people. Since all people are descendants of “albert”, let’s say so.

people == descendants "albert"

Type: Void

We have used “==” to define the database and some functions to query the database. But no computation is done until we ask for some information. Then, once and for all, the functions are analyzed and compiled to machine code for run-time efficiency. Notice that no types are given anywhere in this example. They are not needed.

Who are the grandchildren of “richard”?

grandchildren "richard"

Compiling function children with type String -> List String
Compiling function descendants with type String -> List String
Compiling body of rule people to compute value of type List String
Compiling function childOf with type (String,String) -> Boolean
Compiling function parentOf with type String -> String
Compiling function grandParentOf with type String -> String
Compiling function grandchildren with type String -> List String

["dougie","valerie"]
Type: List String

Who are the great-grandparents?

greatGrandParents

Compiling body of rule greatGrandParents to compute value of type List String

["albert"]
Type: List String
6.19 Example: A Famous Triangle

In this example we write some functions that display Pascal’s triangle. It demonstrates the use of piece-wise definitions and some output operations you probably haven’t seen before.

To make these output operations available, we have to expose the domain OutputForm. See 2.11 on page 164 for more information about exposing domains and packages.

\)
\)set expose add constructor OutputForm

OutputForm is now explicitly exposed in frame G82322

Define the values along the first row and any column \(i\).

\[pascal(1, i) = 1\] 

Type: Void

Define the values for when the row and column index \(i\) are equal. Repeating the argument name indicates that the two index values are equal.

\[pascal(n, n) = 1\] 

Type: Void

\[pascal(i, j \mid 1 < i \text{ and } i < j) = \]
\[pascal(i-1, j-1) + pascal(i, j-1)\] 

Type: Void

Now that we have defined the coefficients in Pascal’s triangle, let’s write a couple of one-liners to display it.

First, define a function that gives the \(n\)-th row.

\[pascalRow(n) = [pascal(i, n) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..n]\] 

Type: Void

Next, we write the function \textbf{displayRow} to display the row, separating entries by blanks and centering.
displayRow(n) == output center blankSeparate pascalRow(n)

Here we have used three output operations. Operation output displays the printable form of objects on the screen, center centers a printable form in the width of the screen, and blankSeparate takes a list of nprintable forms and inserts a blank between successive elements.

Look at the result.

for i in 1..7 repeat displayRow i

```
1
1 1
1 2 1
1 3 3 1
1 4 6 4 1
1 5 10 10 5 1
1 6 15 20 15 6 1
```

Being purists, we find this less than satisfactory. Traditionally, elements of Pascal’s triangle are centered between the left and right elements on the line above.

To fix this misalignment, we go back and redefine pascalRow to right adjust the entries within the triangle within a width of four characters.

```
pascalRow(n) == [right(pascal(i,n),4) for i in 1..n]
```

```
1
1 1
1 2 1
1 3 3 1
1 4 6 4 1
1 5 10 10 5 1
1 6 15 20 15 6 1
```

Being purists, we find this less than satisfactory. Traditionally, elements of Pascal’s triangle are centered between the left and right elements on the line above.

To fix this misalignment, we go back and redefine pascalRow to right adjust the entries within the triangle within a width of four characters.

```
pascalRow(n) == [right(pascal(i,n),4) for i in 1..n]
```

```
1
1 1
1 2 1
1 3 3 1
1 4 6 4 1
1 5 10 10 5 1
1 6 15 20 15 6 1
```

Being purists, we find this less than satisfactory. Traditionally, elements of Pascal’s triangle are centered between the left and right elements on the line above.
Finally let’s look at our purely reformatted triangle.

for i in 1..7 repeat displayRow i

Compiling function pascalRow with type PositiveInteger -> List
OutputForm

+++ |*1;pascalRow;1;G82322| redefined
Compiling function displayRow with type PositiveInteger -> Void

+++ |*1;displayRow;1;G82322| redefined

1
1 1
1 2 1
1 3 3 1
1 4 6 4 1
1 5 10 10 5 1
1 6 15 20 15 6 1

Type: Void

Unexpose OutputForm so we don’t get unexpected results later.

)set expose drop constructor OutputForm

OutputForm is now explicitly hidden in frame G82322

6.20 Example: Testing for Palindromes

In this section we define a function `pal?` that tests whether its argument is a palindrome, that is, something that reads the same backwards and forwards. For example, the string “Madam I’m Adam” is a palindrome (excluding blanks and punctuation) and so is the number 123454321. The definition works for any datatype that has $n$ components that are accessed by the indices $1...n$.

Here is the definition for `pal?`. It is simply a call to an auxiliary function called `palAux?`. We are following the convention of ending a function’s name with `?` if the function returns a Boolean value.

`pal? s == palAux?(s,1,#s)`

Type: Void
Here is \texttt{palAux?}. It works by comparing elements that are equidistant from the start and end of the object.

\[
\text{palAux?}(s,i,j) = \\
j > i => \\
(s.i = s.j) \text{ and } \text{palAux?}(s,i+1,i-1) \\
\text{true}
\]

Type: Void

Try \texttt{pal?} on some examples. First, a string.

\texttt{pal? "Oxford"}

Compiling function \texttt{palAux?} with type \((\text{String}, \text{Integer}, \text{Integer}) \rightarrow \text{Boolean}\)

Compiling function \texttt{pal?} with type \text{String} \rightarrow \text{Boolean}

\texttt{false}

Type: Boolean

A list of polynomials.

\texttt{pal? \([4,a,x-1,0,x-1,a,4]\)}

Compiling function \texttt{palAux?} with type \((\text{List Polynomial Integer, Integer, Integer}) \rightarrow \text{Boolean}\)

Compiling function \texttt{pal?} with type \text{List Polynomial Integer} \rightarrow \text{Boolean}

\texttt{true}

Type: Boolean

A list of integers from the example in the last section.

\texttt{pal? \([1,6,15,20,15,6,1]\)}

Compiling function \texttt{palAux?} with type \((\text{List PositiveInteger, Integer, Integer}) \rightarrow \text{Boolean}\)

Compiling function \texttt{pal?} with type \text{List PositiveInteger} \rightarrow \text{Boolean}
true

Type: Boolean

To use \texttt{pal?} on an integer, first convert it to a string.

\texttt{pal?}(1441::String)

true

Type: Boolean

Compute an infinite stream of decimal numbers, each of which is an obvious palindrome.

\texttt{ones} := [\texttt{reduce}(+, [10**j for j in 0..i]) for i in 1..]

\[
[11, 111, 1111, 11111, 111111, \\
1111111, 11111111, 111111111, 1111111111, ...]
\]

Type: Stream PositiveInteger

)set streams calculate 9

How about their squares?

\texttt{squares} := [x**2 for x in \texttt{ones}]

\[
[121, 12321, 1234321, 123454321, 12345654321, 1234567654321, \\
12345678654321, 12345678987654321, 1234567900987654321, \\
123456790120987654321, ...]
\]

Type: Stream PositiveInteger

Well, let’s test them all.

\texttt{[pal?(x::String) for x in \texttt{squares}]}

\[
[true, true, true, true, true, true, true, true, true, true, ...]
\]

Type: Stream Boolean

)set streams calculate 7
CHAPTER 6. USER-DEFINED FUNCTIONS, MACROS AND RULES

6.21 Rules and Pattern Matching

A common mathematical formula is

\[ \log(x) + \log(y) = \log(xy) \quad \forall x \text{ and } y \]

The presence of “\(\forall\)” indicates that \(x\) and \(y\) can stand for arbitrary mathematical expressions in the above formula. You can use such mathematical formulas in Axiom to specify “rewrite rules”. Rewrite rules are objects in Axiom that can be assigned to variables for later use, often for the purpose of simplification. Rewrite rules look like ordinary function definitions except that they are preceded by the reserved word rule. For example, a rewrite rule for the above formula is:

\[ \text{rule } \log(x) + \log(y) == \log(x \times y) \]

Like function definitions, no action is taken when a rewrite rule is issued. Think of rewrite rules as functions that take one argument. When a rewrite rule \(A = B\) is applied to an argument \(f\), its meaning is: “rewrite every subexpression of \(f\) that matches \(A\) by \(B\).” The left-hand side of a rewrite rule is called a pattern; its right-side side is called its substitution.

Create a rewrite rule named logrule. The generated symbol beginning with a “%” is a place-holder for any other terms that might occur in the sum.

\[ \text{logrule} := \text{rule } \log(x) + \log(y) == \log(x \times y) \]

\[ \log(y) + \log(x) + \%C == \log(x \times y) + \%C \]

Type: RewriteRule(Integer,Integer,Expression Integer)

Create an expression with logarithms.

\[ f := \log \sin x + \log x \]

\[ \log(\sin(x)) + \log(x) \]

Type: Expression Integer

Apply logrule to \(f\).

\[ \text{logrule } f \]

\[ \log(x \sin(x)) \]

Type: Expression Integer
The meaning of our example rewrite rule is: “for all expressions $x$ and $y$, rewrite $\log(x) + \log(y)$ by $\log(x \cdot y)$.” Patterns generally have both operation names (here, $\log$ and “$+$”) and variables (here, $x$ and $y$). By default, every operation name stands for itself. Thus $\log$ matches only “$\log$” and not any other operation such as $\sin$. On the other hand, variables do not stand for themselves. Rather, a variable denotes a pattern variable that is free to match any expression whatsoever.

When a rewrite rule is applied, a process called pattern matching goes to work by systematically scanning the subexpressions of the argument. When a subexpression is found that “matches” the pattern, the subexpression is replaced by the right-hand side of the rule. The details of what happens will be covered later.

The customary Axiom notation for patterns is actually a shorthand for a longer, more general notation. Pattern variables can be made explicit by using a percent “%” as the first character of the variable name. To say that a name stands for itself, you can prefix that name with a quote operator “’”. Although the current Axiom parser does not let you quote an operation name, this more general notation gives you an alternate way of giving the same rewrite rule:

\[ \text{rule } \log(%x) + \log(%y) == \log(x \cdot y) \]

This longer notation gives you patterns that the standard notation won’t handle. For example, the rule

\[ \text{rule } %f(c \cdot 'x) == c\cdot%f(x) \]

means “for all $f$ and $c$, replace $f(y)$ by $c \cdot f(x)$ when $y$ is the product of $c$ and the explicit variable $x$.”

Thus the pattern can have several adornments on the names that appear there. Normally, all these adornments are dropped in the substitution on the right-hand side.

To summarize:

To enter a single rule in Axiom, use the following syntax:

\[ \text{rule } \text{leftHandSide} == \text{rightHandSide} \]

The leftHandSide is a pattern to be matched and the rightHandSide is its substitution. The rule is an object of type RewriteRule that can be assigned to a variable and applied to expressions to transform them.

Rewrite rules can be collected into rulesets so that a set of rules can be applied at once. Here is another simplification rule for logarithms.

\[ y \log(x) = \log(x^y) \quad \forall x \text{ and } y \]

If instead of giving a single rule following the reserved word rule you give a “pile” of rules, you create what is called a ruleset. Like rules, rulesets are objects in Axiom and
can be assigned to variables. You will find it useful to group commonly used rules into input files, and read them in as needed.

Create a ruleset named \texttt{logrules}.

\begin{verbatim}
logrules := rule
  \log(x) + \log(y) == \log(x * y)
  y * \log x == \log(x ** y)
\end{verbatim}

\[
\{ \log(y) + \log(x) + \%B== \log(x y) + \%B,y \log(x)== \log(x^y) \}
\]

Type: Ruleset(Integer,Integer,Expression Integer)

Again, create an expression \( f \) containing logarithms.

\begin{verbatim}
f := a * \log(\sin x) - 2 * \log x
\end{verbatim}

\[ a \log(\sin(x)) - 2 \log(x) \]

Type: Expression Integer

Apply the ruleset \texttt{logrules} to \( f \).

\begin{verbatim}
logrules f
\end{verbatim}

\[ \log\left(\frac{\sin(x)^a}{x^2}\right) \]

Type: Expression Integer

We have allowed pattern variables to match arbitrary expressions in the above examples. Often you want a variable only to match expressions satisfying some predicate. For example, we may want to apply the transformation

\[ y \log(x) = \log(x^y) \]

only when \( y \) is an integer.

The way to restrict a pattern variable \( y \) by a predicate \( f(y) \) is by using a vertical bar "\|", which means "such that," in much the same way it is used in function definitions. You do this only once, but at the earliest (meaning deepest and leftmost) part of the pattern.

This restricts the logarithmic rule to create integer exponents only.

\begin{verbatim}
logrules2 := rule
  \log(x) + \log(y) == \log(x * y)
  (y | integer? y) * \log x == \log(x ** y)
\end{verbatim}
\{ \log(y) + \log(x) + \%D == \log(xy) + \%D, \log(y) == \log(x^y) \} \\
\text{Type: } \text{Ruleset}(\text{Integer}, \text{Integer}, \text{Expression Integer})

Compare this with the result of applying the previous set of rules.

\( f \)

\[ a \log(\sin(x)) - 2 \log(x) \]
\text{Type: } \text{Expression Integer}

\text{logrules2 } f

\[ a \log(\sin(x)) + \log\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) \]
\text{Type: } \text{Expression Integer}

You should be aware that you might need to apply a function like \text{integer} within your predicate expression to actually apply the test function.

Here we use \text{integer} because \( n \) has type \text{Expression Integer} but \text{even?} is an operation defined on integers.

\text{evenRule} := \text{rule} \cos(x)^{n \mid \text{integer?} n \text{ and even? integer}} n == (1-\sin(x)^2)^{n/2}

\[ \cos(x)^n = (\sin(x)^2 + 1)^{n/2} \]
\text{Type: } \text{RewriteRule}(\text{Integer}, \text{Integer}, \text{Expression Integer})

Here is the application of the rule.

\text{evenRule( } \cos(x)^2 \text{ )}

\[ -\sin(x)^2 + 1 \]
\text{Type: } \text{Expression Integer}

This is an example of some of the usual identities involving products of sines and cosines.
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sinCosProducts == rule
  \sin(x) \times \sin(y) == (\cos(x-y) - \cos(x + y))/2
  \cos(x) \times \cos(y) == (\cos(x-y) + \cos(x+y))/2
  \sin(x) \times \cos(y) == (\sin(x-y) + \sin(x + y))/2
Type: Void

g := \sin(a)*\sin(b) + \cos(b)*\cos(a) + \sin(2*a)*\cos(2*a)

\sin (a) \sin (b) + \cos (2 a) \sin (2 a) + \cos (a) \cos (b)
Type: Expression Integer

sinCosProducts g

Compiling body of rule sinCosProducts to compute value of type
Ruleset(Integer,Integer,Expression Integer)

\frac{\sin(4 a) + 2 \cos(b - a)}{2}
Type: Expression Integer

Another qualification you will often want to use is to allow a pattern to match an identity element. Using the pattern \(x + y\), for example, neither \(x\) nor \(y\) matches the expression 0. Similarly, if a pattern contains a product \(x \times y\) or an exponentiation \(x \times y\), then neither \(x\) or \(y\) matches 1.

If identical elements were matched, pattern matching would generally loop. Here is an expansion rule for exponentials.

exprule := rule exp(a + b) == exp(a) \times exp(b)

\(e^{(b+a)} = e^a e^b\)
Type: RewriteRule(Integer,Integer,Expression Integer)

This rule would cause infinite rewriting on this if either \(a\) or \(b\) were allowed to match 0.

exprule exp x

\(e^x\)
There are occasions when you do want a pattern variable in a sum or product to match 0 or 1. If so, prefix its name with a “?” whenever it appears in a left-hand side of a rule. For example, consider the following rule for the exponential integral:

\[
\int \left( \frac{y + e^x}{x} \right) dx = \int \frac{y}{x} dx + \text{Ei}(x) \quad \forall x \text{ and } y
\]

This rule is valid for \( y = 0 \). One solution is to create a Ruleset with two rules, one with and one without \( y \). A better solution is to use an “optional” pattern variable.

Define rule \texttt{eirule} with a pattern variable \(?y\) to indicate that an expression may or may not occur.

\[
eirule := \text{rule integral}((?y + \exp x)/x,x) == \text{integral}(y/x,x) + \text{Ei}(x)
\]

Apply rule \texttt{eirule} to an integral without this term.

\[
eirule \text{ integral}(\exp u/u, u)
\]

\[
\text{Ei}(u)
\]

Apply rule \texttt{eirule} to an integral with this term.

\[
eirule \text{ integral}(\sin u + \exp u/u, u)
\]

\[
\int \sin(\%M) d\%M + \text{Ei}(u)
\]

Here is one final adornment you will find useful. When matching a pattern of the form \( x + y \) to an expression containing a long sum of the form \( a + \ldots + b \), there is no way to predict in advance which subset of the sum matches \( x \) and which matches \( y \). Aside from efficiency, this is generally unimportant since the rule holds for any possible combination of matches for \( x \) and \( y \). In some situations, however, you may want to say which pattern variable is a sum (or product) of several terms, and which should match only a single term. To do this, put a prefix colon “:” before the pattern variable that you want to match multiple terms.

The remaining rules involve operators \( u \) and \( v \).
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\[ u := \text{operator 'u} \]

\( u \)

Type: BasicOperator

These definitions tell Axiom that \( u \) and \( v \) are formal operators to be used in expressions.

\[ v := \text{operator 'v} \]

\( v \)

Type: BasicOperator

First define \textit{myRule} with no restrictions on the pattern variables \( x \) and \( y \).

\[ \text{myRule} := \text{rule } u(x + y) == u \, x + v \, y \]

\( u(y+x) == 'v(y) + 'u(x) \)

Type: RewriteRule(Integer,Integer,Expression Integer)

Apply \textit{myRule} to an expression.

\[ \text{myRule } u(a + b + c + d) \]

\( v(d + c + b) + u(a) \)

Type: Expression Integer

Define \textit{myOtherRule} to match several terms so that the rule gets applied recursively.

\[ \text{myOtherRule} := \text{rule } u(:x + y) == u \, x + v \, y \]

\( u(y+x) == 'v(y) + 'u(x) \)

Type: RewriteRule(Integer,Integer,Expression Integer)

Apply \textit{myOtherRule} to the same expression.

\[ \text{myOtherRule } u(a + b + c + d) \]

\( v(c) + v(b) + v(a) + u(d) \)
Summary of pattern variable adornments:

\[(x \mid \text{predicate?}(x))\] means that the substitution s for \(x\) must satisfy \(\text{predicate}(s) = \text{true}\).

\(?x\) means that \(x\) can match an identity element (0 or 1).

\(:x\) means that \(x\) can match several terms in a sum.

Here are some final remarks on pattern matching. Pattern matching provides a very useful paradigm for solving certain classes of problems, namely, those that involve transformations of one form to another and back. However, it is important to recognize its limitations.

First, pattern matching slows down as the number of rules you have to apply increases. Thus it is good practice to organize the sets of rules you use optimally so that irrelevant rules are never included.

Second, careless use of pattern matching can lead to wrong answers. You should avoid using pattern matching to handle hidden algebraic relationships that can go undetected by other programs. As a simple example, a symbol such as “\(J\)” can easily be used to represent the square root of \(-1\) or some other important algebraic quantity. Many algorithms branch on whether an expression is zero or not, then divide by that expression if it is not. If you fail to simplify an expression involving powers of \(J\) to \(-1\), algorithms may incorrectly assume an expression is non-zero, take a wrong branch, and produce a meaningless result.

Pattern matching should also not be used as a substitute for a domain. In Axiom, objects of one domain are transformed to objects of other domains using well-defined \texttt{coerce} operations. Pattern matching should be used on objects that are all the same type. Thus if your application can be handled by type \texttt{Expression} in Axiom and you think you need pattern matching, consider this choice carefully. You may well be better served by extending an existing domain or by building a new domain of objects for your application.
Chapter 7

Graphics

Figure 7.1: Torus knot of type (15,17).

This chapter shows how to use the Axiom graphics facilities under the X Window System. Axiom has two-dimensional and three-dimensional drawing and rendering packages that allow the drawing, coloring, transforming, mapping, clipping, and combining of graphic output from Axiom computations. This facility is particularly useful for investigating problems in areas such as topology. The graphics package is capable of plotting functions of one or more variables or plotting parametric surfaces and curves. Various coordinate systems are also available, such as polar and spherical.
A graph is displayed in a viewport window and it has a control-panel that uses interactive mouse commands. PostScript and other output forms are available so that Axiom images can be printed or used by other programs.

### 7.1 Two-Dimensional Graphics

The Axiom two-dimensional graphics package provides the ability to display

- curves defined by functions of a single real variable
- curves defined by parametric equations
- implicit non-singular curves defined by polynomial equations
- planar graphs generated from lists of point components.

These graphs can be modified by specifying various options, such as calculating points in the polar coordinate system or changing the size of the graph viewport window.

#### 7.1.1 Plotting Two-Dimensional Functions of One Variable

The first kind of two-dimensional graph is that of a curve defined by a function $y = f(x)$ over a finite interval of the $x$ axis.

The general format for drawing a function defined by a formula $f(x)$ is:

```plaintext
draw(f(x), x = a..b, options)
```

where $a..b$ defines the range of $x$, and where `options` prescribes zero or more options as described in 7.1.4 on page 293. An example of an option is `curveColor == brightred()`. An alternative format involving functions $f$ and $g$ is also available.

A simple way to plot a function is to use a formula. The first argument is the formula. For the second argument, write the name of the independent variable (here, $x$), followed by an “$=$”, and the range of values.

Display this formula over the range $0 \leq x \leq 6$. Axiom converts your formula to a compiled function so that the results can be computed quickly and efficiently.

```plaintext
draw(sin(tan(x)) - tan(sin(x)), x = 0..6)
```

Once again the formula is converted to a compiled function before any points were computed. If you want to graph the same function on several intervals, it is a good idea to define the function first so that the function has to be compiled only once.

This time we first define the function.
f(x) == (x-1)*(x-2)*(x-3)

Type: Void

To draw the function, the first argument is its name and the second is just the range with no independent variable.

draw(f, 0..4)

7.1.2 Plotting Two-Dimensional Parametric Plane Curves

The second kind of two-dimensional graph is that of curves produced by parametric equations. Let \( x = f(t) \) and \( y = g(t) \) be formulas or two functions \( f \) and \( g \) as the parameter \( t \) ranges over an interval \([a, b]\). The function \texttt{curve} takes the two functions \( f \) and \( g \) as its parameters.

The general format for drawing a two-dimensional plane curve defined by parametric formulas \( x = f(t) \) and \( y = g(t) \) is:

\[
\text{draw(curve}(f(t), g(t)), t = a..b, \text{options})
\]

where \( a..b \) defines the range of the independent variable \( t \), and where \textit{options} prescribes zero or more options as described in 7.2.4 on page 314. An example of an option is \textit{curveColor} == \texttt{brightred}().

Here’s an example:

Define a parametric curve using a range involving \texttt{%pi}, Axiom’s way of saying \( \pi \). For parametric curves, Axiom compiles two functions, one for each of the functions \( f \) and \( g \).

\[
\text{draw(curve}(\sin(t)\sin(2t)\sin(3t), \sin(4t)\sin(5t)\sin(6t)), t = 0..2*\texttt{%pi})
\]

The title may be an arbitrary string and is an optional argument to the \texttt{draw} command.

\[
\text{draw(curve}(\cos(t), \sin(t)), t = 0..2*\texttt{%pi})
\]

If you plan on plotting \( x = f(t), y = g(t) \) as \( t \) ranges over several intervals, you may want to define functions \( f \) and \( g \) first, so that they need not be recompiled every time you create a new graph. Here’s an example:

As before, you can first define the functions you wish to draw.
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\[ f(t: \text{DFLOAT}): \text{DFLOAT} = \sin(3t/4) \]

Function declaration \( f : \text{DoubleFloat} \rightarrow \text{DoubleFloat} \) has been added to workspace.

Type: Void

Axiom compiles them to map DoubleFloat values to DoubleFloat values.

\[ g(t: \text{DFLOAT}): \text{DFLOAT} = \sin(t) \]

Function declaration \( f : \text{DoubleFloat} \rightarrow \text{DoubleFloat} \) has been added to workspace.

Type: Void

Give to \( \text{curve} \) the names of the functions, then write the range without the name of the independent variable.

draw(curve(f,g),0..\%pi)

Here is another look at the same curve but over a different range. Notice that \( f \) and \( g \) are not recompiled. Also note that Axiom provides a default title based on the first function specified in \( \text{curve} \).

draw(curve(f,g),-4*\%pi..4*\%pi)

### 7.1.3 Plotting Plane Algebraic Curves

A third kind of two-dimensional graph is a non-singular “solution curve” in a rectangular region of the plane. A solution curve is a curve defined by a polynomial equation \( p(x, y) = 0 \). Non-singular means that the curve is “smooth” in that it does not cross itself or come to a point (cusp). Algebraically, this means that for any point \((x, y)\) on the curve, that is, a point such that \( p(x, y) = 0 \), the partial derivatives \( \frac{\partial p}{\partial x}(x, y) \) and \( \frac{\partial p}{\partial y}(x, y) \) are not both zero.

The general format for drawing a non-singular solution curve given by a polynomial of the form \( p(x, y) = 0 \) is:

\[
\text{draw}(p(x,y) = 0, x, y, \text{range} == [a..b, c..d], \text{options})
\]

where the second and third arguments name the first and second independent variables of \( p \). A \text{range} option is always given to designate a bounding rectangular region of the plane \( a \leq x \leq b, c \leq y \leq d \). Zero or more additional options as described in 7.1.4 on page 293 may be given.
We require that the polynomial has rational or integral coefficients. Here is an algebraic curve example ("Cartesian ovals"):

\[ p := ((x^2 + y^2 + 1) - 8x)^2 - (8(x^2 + y^2 + 1)-4x-1) \]

\[ \frac{y^4}{4} + \left( \frac{2x^2}{16} - \frac{16x}{16} - \frac{6}{6} \right) \frac{y^2}{4} + x^4 - \frac{16x^3}{16} + \frac{58x^2}{58} - \frac{12x}{12} - \frac{6}{6} \]

Type: Polynomial Integer

The first argument is always expressed as an equation of the form \( p = 0 \) where \( p \) is a polynomial.

draw(p = 0, x, y, range == [-1..11, -7..7])

### 7.1.4 Two-Dimensional Options

The `draw` commands take an optional list of options, such as `title` shown above. Each option is given by the syntax: `name == value`. Here is a list of the available options in the order that they are described below.

- `adaptive` clip unit
- `clip` curveColor range
toScale pointColor coordinates

The `adaptive` option turns adaptive plotting on or off. Adaptive plotting uses an algorithm that traverses a graph and computes more points for those parts of the graph with high curvature. The higher the curvature of a region is, the more points the algorithm computes.

The `adaptive` option is normally on. Here we turn it off.

draw(sin(1/x), x=-2*%pi..2*%pi, adaptive == false)

The `clip` option turns clipping on or off. If on, large values are cut off according to `clipPointsDefault`.

draw(tan(x), x=-2*%pi..2*%pi, clip == true)

Option `toScale` does plotting to scale if `true` or uses the entire viewport if `false`. The default can be determined using `drawToScale`. 
draw(sin(x),x=-%pi..%pi, toScale == true, unit == [1.0,1.0])

Option clip with a range sets point clipping of a graph within the ranges specified in the list [xrange,yrange]. If only one range is specified, clipping applies to the y-axis.

draw(sec(x),x=-2*%pi..2*%pi, clip == [-2*%pi..2*%pi,-%pi..%pi], unit == [1.0,1.0])

Option curveColor sets the color of the graph curves or lines to be the indicated palette color (see 7.1.5 on page 295 and 7.1.6 on page 295).

draw(sin(x),x=-%pi..%pi, curveColor == bright red())

Option pointColor sets the color of the graph points to the indicated palette color (see 7.1.5 on page 295 and 7.1.6 on page 295).

draw(sin(x),x=-%pi..%pi, pointColor == pastel yellow())

Option unit sets the intervals at which the axis units are plotted according to the indicated steps [x interval, y interval].

draw(curve(9*sin(3*t/4),8*sin(t)), t = -4*%pi..4*%pi, unit == [2.0,1.0])

Option range sets the range of variables in a graph to be within the ranges for solving plane algebraic curve plots.

draw(y**2 + y - (x**3 - x) = 0, x, y, range == [-2..2,-2..1], unit==[1.0,1.0])

A second example of a solution plot.

draw(x**2 + y**2 = 1, x, y, range == [-3/2..3/2,-3/2..3/2], unit==[0.5,0.5])

Option coordinates indicates the coordinate system in which the graph is plotted. The default is to use the Cartesian coordinate system. For more details, see 7.2.7 on page 323 or CoordinateSystems.

draw(curve(sin(5*t),t),t=0..2*%pi, coordinates == polar)
7.1.5 Color

The domain Color provides operations for manipulating colors in two-dimensional graphs. Colors are objects of Color. Each color has a hue and a weight. Hues are represented by integers that range from 1 to the numberOfHues(), normally 27. Weights are floats and have the value 1.0 by default.

\[\text{color}(\text{integer})\]
creates a color of hue integer and weight 1.0.

\[\text{hue}(\text{color})\]
returns the hue of color as an integer.

\[\text{red}(), \text{blue}(), \text{green}(), \text{and yellow}()\]
create colors of that hue with weight 1.0.

\[\text{color}_1 + \text{color}_2\]
returns the color that results from additively combining the indicated color_1 and color_2. Color addition is not commutative: changing the order of the arguments produces different results.

\[\text{integer} \times \text{color}\]
changes the weight of color by integer without affecting its hue. For example, red() + 3 * yellow() produces a color closer to yellow than to red. Color multiplication is not associative: changing the order of grouping produces different results.

These functions can be used to change the point and curve colors for two- and three-dimensional graphs. Use the pointColor option for points.

\[\text{draw}(x**2, x=-1..1, \text{pointColor} == \text{green}())\]

Use the curveColor option for curves.

\[\text{draw}(x**2, x=-1..1, \text{curveColor} == \text{color}(13) + 2*\text{blue}())\]

7.1.6 Palette

Domain Palette is the domain of shades of colors: dark, dim, bright, pastel, and light, designated by the integers 1 through 5, respectively.

Colors are normally “bright.”

\[\text{shade red}()\]
To change the shade of a color, apply the name of a shade to it.

```
myFavoriteColor := dark blue()
```

[Hue: 22 Weight: 1.0] from the Dark palette

The expression \textit{shade} (\textit{color}) returns the value of a shade of \textit{color}.

```
shade myFavoriteColor
```

1

The expression \textit{hue} (\textit{color}) returns its hue.

```
hue myFavoriteColor
```

Hue: 22 Weight: 1.0

Palettes can be used in specifying colors in two-dimensional graphs.

```
draw(x**2, x=-1..1, curveColor == dark blue())
```

### 7.1.7 Two-Dimensional Control-Panel

Once you have created a viewport, move your mouse to the viewport and click with your left mouse button to display a control-panel. The panel is displayed on the side of the viewport closest to where you clicked. Each of the buttons which toggle on and off show the current state of the graph.
Transformations

Object transformations are executed from the control-panel by mouse-activated potentiometer windows.

Scale: To scale a graph, click on a mouse button within the Scale window in the upper left corner of the control-panel. The axes along which the scaling is to occur are indicated by setting the toggles above the arrow. With X On and Y On appearing, both axes are selected and scaling is uniform. If either is not selected, for example, if X Off appears, scaling is non-uniform.

Translate: To translate a graph, click the mouse in the Translate window in the direction you wish the graph to move. This window is located in the upper right corner of the control-panel. Along the top of the Translate window are two buttons for selecting the direction of translation. Translation along both coordinate axes results when X On and Y On appear or along one axis when one is on, for example, X On and Y Off appear.
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Messages

The window directly below the transformation potentiometer windows is used to display system messages relating to the viewport and the control-panel. The following format is displayed:

\[ \text{[scaleX, scaleY]} > \text{graph} < \text{[translateX, translateY]} \]

The two values to the left show the scale factor along the \( X \) and \( Y \) coordinate axes. The two values to the right show the distance of translation from the center in the \( X \) and \( Y \) directions. The number in the center shows which graph in the viewport this data pertains to. When multiple graphs exist in the same viewport, the graph must be selected (see “Multiple Graphs,” below) in order for its transformation data to be shown, otherwise the number is 1.

Multiple Graphs

The \textbf{Graphs} window contains buttons that allow the placement of two-dimensional graphs into one of nine available slots in any other two-dimensional viewport. In the center of the window are numeral buttons from one to nine that show whether a graph is displayed in the viewport. Below each number button is a button showing whether a graph that is present is selected for application of some transformation. When the caret symbol is displayed, then the graph in that slot will be manipulated. Initially, the graph for which the viewport is created occupies the first slot, is displayed, and is selected.

\textbf{Clear:} The \textbf{Clear} button deselects every viewport graph slot. A graph slot is reselected by selecting the button below its number.

\textbf{Query:} The \textbf{Query} button is used to display the scale and translate data for the indicated graph. When this button is selected the message “Click on the graph to query” appears. Select a slot number button from the \textbf{Graphs} window. The scaling factor and translation offset of the graph are then displayed in the message window.

\textbf{Pick:} The \textbf{Pick} button is used to select a graph to be placed or dropped into the indicated viewport. When this button is selected, the message “Click on the graph to pick” appears. Click on the slot with the graph number of the desired graph. The graph information is held waiting for you to execute a \textbf{Drop} in some other graph.

\textbf{Drop:} Once a graph has been picked up using the \textbf{Pick} button, the \textbf{Drop} button places it into a new viewport slot. The message “Click on the graph to drop” appears in the message window when the \textbf{Drop} button is selected. By selecting one of the slot number buttons in the \textbf{Graphs} window, the graph currently being held is dropped into this slot and displayed.
Buttons

Axes turns the coordinate axes on or off.

Units turns the units along the x and y axis on or off.

Box encloses the area of the viewport graph in a bounding box, or removes the box if already enclosed.

Pts turns on or off the display of points.

Lines turns on or off the display of lines connecting points.

PS writes the current viewport contents to a file axiom2D or to a name specified in the user’s .Xdefaults file. The file is placed in the directory from which Axiom or the viewAlone program was invoked.

Reset resets the object transformation characteristics and attributes back to their initial states.

Hide makes the control-panel disappear.

Quit queries whether the current viewport session should be terminated.

7.1.8 Operations for Two-Dimensional Graphics

Here is a summary of useful Axiom operations for two-dimensional graphics. Each operation name is followed by a list of arguments. Each argument is written as a variable informally named according to the type of the argument (for example, integer). If appropriate, a default value for an argument is given in parentheses immediately following the name.

adaptive \{boolean(true)\}
sets or indicates whether graphs are plotted according to the adaptive refinement algorithm.

axesColorDefault \{color(dark blue())\}
sets or indicates the default color of the axes in a two-dimensional graph viewport.

clipPointsDefault \{boolean(false)\}
sets or indicates whether point clipping is to be applied as the default for graph plots.

drawToScale \{boolean(false)\}
sets or indicates whether the plot of a graph is “to scale” or uses the entire viewport space as the default.
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**lineColorDefault**  
\{"color\{pastel yellow()\}\}  
sets or indicates the default color of the lines or curves in a two-dimensional graph viewport.

**maxPoints**  
\{"integer\{500\}\}  
sets or indicates the default maximum number of possible points to be used when constructing a two-dimensional graph.

**minPoints**  
\{"integer\{21\}\}  
sets or indicates the default minimum number of possible points to be used when constructing a two-dimensional graph.

**pointColorDefault**  
\{"color\{bright red()\}\}  
sets or indicates the default color of the points in a two-dimensional graph viewport.

**pointSizeDefault**  
\{"integer\{5\}\}  
sets or indicates the default size of the dot used to plot points in a two-dimensional graph.

**screenResolution**  
\{"integer\{600\}\}  
sets or indicates the default screen resolution constant used in setting the computation limit of adaptively generated curve plots.

**unitsColorDefault**  
\{"color\{dim green()\}\}  
sets or indicates the default color of the unit labels in a two-dimensional graph viewport.

**viewDefaults**  
(void)  
resets the default settings for the following attributes: point color, line color, axes color, units color, point size, viewport upper left-hand corner position, and the viewport size.

**viewPosDefault**  
\{"list\{\[100,100\]\}\}  
sets or indicates the default position of the upper left-hand corner of a two-dimensional viewport, relative to the display root window. The upper left-hand corner of the display is considered to be at the (0, 0) position.

**viewSizeDefault**  
\{"list\{\[200,200\]\}\}  
sets or indicates the default size in which two dimensional viewport windows are shown. It is defined by a width and then a height.

**viewWriteAvailable**  
\{"list\{"pixmap","bitmap","postscript","image"\}\}\}  
indicates the possible file types that can be created with the **write** function.

**viewWriteDefault**  
\{"list\{\}\}  
sets or indicates the default types of files, in addition to the **data** file, that are created when a **write** function is executed on a viewport.
units (viewport, integer(1), string("on"))
    turns the units on or off for the graph with index integer.

axes (viewport, integer(1), string("on"))
    turns the axes on or off for the graph with index integer.

close (viewport)
    closes viewport.

connect (viewport, integer(1), string("on"))
    declares whether lines connecting the points are displayed or not.

controlPanel (viewport, string("off"))
    declares whether the two-dimensional control-panel is automatically displayed
    or not.

graphs (viewport)
    returns a list describing the state of each graph. If the graph state is not being
    used this is shown by "undefined", otherwise a description of the graph’s contents
    is shown.

graphStates (viewport)
    displays a list of all the graph states available for viewport, giving the values for
    every property.

key (viewport)
    returns the process ID number for viewport.

move (viewport, integer(ViewPosDefault), integer(ViewPosDefault))
    moves viewport on the screen so that the upper left-hand corner of viewport is at
    the position (x,y).

options (viewport)
    returns a list of all the DrawOptions used by viewport.

points (viewport, integer(1), string("on"))
    specifies whether the graph points for graph integer are to be displayed or not.

region (viewport, integer(1), string("off"))
    declares whether graph integer is or is not to be displayed with a bounding rect-
    angle.

reset (viewport)
    resets all the properties of viewport.

resize (viewport, integer(width), integer(height))
    resizes viewport with a new width and height.

scale (viewport, integer(n)(1), integer(x)(0.9), integer(y)(0.9))
    scales values for the x and y coordinates of graph n.
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show \( (\text{viewport, integer}_{n}(1), \text{string}(\"on\*)) \)
indicates if graph \( n \) is shown or not.

title \( (\text{viewport, string}(\"Axiom 2D\*)) \)
designates the title for \( \text{viewport} \).

translate \( (\text{viewport, integer}_{n}(1), \text{float}_{x}(0.0), \text{float}_{y}(0.0)) \)
causes graph \( n \) to be moved \( x \) and \( y \) units in the respective directions.

write \( (\text{viewport, string}_{\text{directory}}, [\text{strings}]) \)
if no third argument is given, writes the \text{data} file onto the directory with extension \text{data}. The third argument can be a single string or a list of strings with some or all the entries "pixmap", "bitmap", "postscript", and "image".

7.1.9 Addendum: Building Two-Dimensional Graphs

In this section we demonstrate how to create two-dimensional graphs from lists of points and give an example showing how to read the lists of points from a file.

Creating a Two-Dimensional Viewport from a List of Points

Axiom creates lists of points in a two-dimensional viewport by utilizing the \text{GraphImage} and \text{TwoDimensionalViewport} domains. In this example, the \text{makeGraphImage} function takes a list of lists of points parameter, a list of colors for each point in the graph, a list of colors for each line in the graph, and a list of sizes for each point in the graph.

The following expressions create a list of lists of points which will be read by Axiom and made into a two-dimensional viewport.

\[
p1 := \text{point} \left[1,1\right]_{\text{Point \text{DFLOAT}}} \]
\[
\left[1.0,1.0\right] \]
Type: Point DoubleFloat

\[
p2 := \text{point} \left[0,1\right]_{\text{Point \text{DFLOAT}}} \]
\[
\left[0.0,1.0\right] \]
Type: Point DoubleFloat

\[
p3 := \text{point} \left[0,0\right]_{\text{Point \text{DFLOAT}}} \]

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[0.0,0.0]  
Type: Point DoubleFloat

p4 := point [1,0]$(Point DFLOAT)  
[1.0,0.0]  
Type: Point DoubleFloat

p5 := point [1,.5]$(Point DFLOAT)  
[1.0,0.5]  
Type: Point DoubleFloat

p6 := point [.5,0]$(Point DFLOAT)  
[0.5,0.0]  
Type: Point DoubleFloat

p7 := point [0,0.5]$(Point DFLOAT)  
[0.0,0.5]  
Type: Point DoubleFloat

p8 := point [.5,1]$(Point DFLOAT)  
[0.5,1.0]  
Type: Point DoubleFloat

p9 := point [.25,.25]$(Point DFLOAT)  
[0.25,0.25]  
Type: Point DoubleFloat
p10 := point [.25,.75]$(Point DFLOAT)

\[0.25,0.75\]
Type: Point DoubleFloat

p11 := point [.75,.75]$(Point DFLOAT)

\[0.75,0.75\]
Type: Point DoubleFloat

p12 := point [.75,.25]$(Point DFLOAT)

\[0.75,0.25\]
Type: Point DoubleFloat

Finally, here is the list.

llp := [ [p1,p2], [p2,p3], [p3,p4], [p4,p1], [p5,p6], [p6,p7],
[p7,p8], [p8,p5], [p9,p10], [p10,p11], [p11,p12], [p12,p9] ]

\[[[1.0,1.0],[0.0,1.0],[0.0,0.0],[0.0,0.0],[1.0,0.0],[1.0,0.0],[1.0,0.0],[1.0,0.0],[0.5,0.5],[0.5,0.5],[0.0,0.0],[0.0,0.0]]\]
Type: List List Point DoubleFloat

Now we set the point sizes for all components of the graph.

size1 := 6::PositiveInteger

6
Type: PositiveInteger

size2 := 8::PositiveInteger

8
Type: PositiveInteger
size3 := 10::PositiveInteger

lsize := [size1, size1, size1, size1, size2, size2, size2, size2, size3, size3, size3, size3]

[6, 6, 6, 6, 8, 8, 8, 8, size3, size3, size3, size3]

Type: List Polynomial Integer

Here are the colors for the points.

pc1 := pastel red()

[Hue: 1 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette

Type: Palette

pc2 := dim green()

[Hue: 14 Weight: 1.0] from the Dim palette

Type: Palette

pc3 := pastel yellow()

[Hue: 11 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette

Type: Palette

lpc := [pc1, pc1, pc1, pc2, pc2, pc2, pc3, pc3, pc3, pc3]

[[Hue: 1 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette, [Hue: 1 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette, [Hue: 1 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette, [Hue: 1 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette, [Hue: 1 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette, [Hue: 1 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette, [Hue: 1 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette, [Hue: 1 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette, [Hue: 1 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette, [Hue: 1 Weight: 1.0] from the Pastel palette]

Type: List Palette

Here are the colors for the lines.

lc := [pastel blue(), light yellow(), dim green(), bright red(), light green(), dim yellow(), bright blue(), dark red(), pastel red(), light blue(), dim green(), light yellow()]
Now the GraphImage is created according to the component specifications indicated above.

\[
g := \text{makeGraphImage}(\text{llp}, \text{lpc}, \text{lc}, \text{lsize})
\]

The `makeViewport2D` function now creates a TwoDimensionalViewport for this graph according to the list of options specified within the brackets.

\[
\text{makeViewport2D}(g, \text{[title("Lines")]}))
\]

This example demonstrates the use of the GraphImage functions `component` and `appendPoint` in adding points to an empty GraphImage.

\[
)\text{clear all}
\]

\[
g := \text{graphImage()}
\]

Graph with 0 point lists

\[
\text{Type: GraphImage}
\]

\[
p1 := \text{point } [0,0] \text{ (Point DFLOAT)}
\]

\[
[0.0, 0.0] \text{ (Point DoubleFloat)}
\]

\[
p2 := \text{point } [0.25, 0.25] \text{ (Point DFLOAT)}
\]

\[
[0.25, 0.25] \text{ (Point DoubleFloat)}
\]

\[
p3 := \text{point } [0.5, 0.5] \text{ (Point DFLOAT)}
\]

\[
[0.5, 0.5] \text{ (Point DoubleFloat)}
\]
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Type: Point DoubleFloat

p4 := point [.75,.75]$\{(Point DFLOAT)

[0.75,0.75]

Type: Point DoubleFloat

p5 := point [1,1]$\{(Point DFLOAT)

[1.0,1.0]

Type: Point DoubleFloat

component(g,p1)$\text{GRIMAGE}

Type: Void

component(g,p2)$\text{GRIMAGE}

Type: Void

appendPoint(g,p3)$\text{GRIMAGE}

Type: Void

appendPoint(g,p4)$\text{GRIMAGE}

Type: Void

appendPoint(g,p5)$\text{GRIMAGE}

Type: Void
g1 := makeGraphImage(g)$GRIMAGE

Here is the graph.

makeViewport2D(g1,[title("Graph Points")])$VIEW2D

A list of points can also be made into a GraphImage by using the operation coerce. It is equivalent to adding each point to g2 using component.

g2 := coerce([[p1],[p2],[p3],[p4],[p5]])$GRIMAGE

Now, create an empty TwoDimensionalViewport.

v := viewport2D()$VIEW2D

options(v,[title("Just Points")])$VIEW2D

Place the graph into the viewport.

putGraph(v,g2,1)$VIEW2D

Take a look.

makeViewport2D(v)$VIEW2D

Creating a Two-Dimensional Viewport of a List of Points from a File

The following three functions read a list of points from a file and then draw the points and the connecting lines. The points are stored in the file in readable form as floating point numbers (specifically, DoubleFloat values) as an alternating stream of x- and y-values. For example,

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
0.0 & 0.0 & 1.0 & 1.0 \\
3.0 & 9.0 & 4.0 & 16.0 \\
2.0 & 4.0 & 5.0 & 25.0 \\
\end{array}
\]

drawPoints(lp:List Point DoubleFloat):VIEW2D ==
  g := graphImage()$GRIMAGE
  for p in lp repeat
    component(g,p,pointColorDefault(),lineColorDefault(),
              pointSizeDefault())
  gi := makeGraphImage(g)$GRIMAGE
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makeViewport2D(gi,[title("Points")])$VIEW2D

drawLines(lp:List Point DoubleFloat):VIEW2D ==
g := graphImage()$GRIMAGE
component(g, lp, pointColorDefault(), lineColorDefault(),
pointSizeDefault())$GRIMAGE
gi := makeGraphImage(g)$GRIMAGE
makeViewport2D(gi,[title("Points")])$VIEW2D

plotData2D(name, title) ==
f:File(DFLOAT) := open(name,"input")
lp:LIST(Point DFLOAT) := empty()
while ((x := readIfCan!(f)) case DFLOAT) repeat
  y : DFLOAT := read!(f)
  lp := cons(point [x,y]$(Point DFLOAT), lp)
lp
close!(f)
drawPoints(lp)
drawLines(lp)

This command will actually create the viewport and the graph if the point data is in the
file "file.data".

plotData2D("file.data", "2D Data Plot")

7.1.10 Addendum: Appending a Graph to a Viewport Window Containing a Graph

This section demonstrates how to append a two-dimensional graph to a viewport al-
ready containing other graphs. The default draw command places a graph into the first
GraphImage slot position of the TwoDimensionalViewport.

This graph is in the first slot in its viewport.

v1 := draw(sin(x),x=0..2*%pi)

So is this graph.

v2 := draw(cos(x),x=0..2*%pi, curveColor==light red())

The operation getGraph retrieves the GraphImage g1 from the first slot position in the
viewport v1.

g1 := getGraph(v1,1)
Now `putGraph` places `g1` into the second slot position of `v2`.

```
putGraph(v2,g1,2)
```

Display the new `TwoDimensionalViewport` containing both graphs.

```
makeViewport2D(v2)
```

### 7.2 Three-Dimensional Graphics

The Axiom three-dimensional graphics package provides the ability to

- generate surfaces defined by a function of two real variables
- generate space curves and tubes defined by parametric equations
- generate surfaces defined by parametric equations

These graphs can be modified by using various options, such as calculating points in the spherical coordinate system or changing the polygon grid size of a surface.

#### 7.2.1 Plotting Three-Dimensional Functions of Two Variables

The simplest three-dimensional graph is that of a surface defined by a function of two variables, \( z = f(x,y) \).

The general format for drawing a surface defined by a formula `f(x,y)` of two variables `x` and `y` is:

```
draw(f(x,y), x = a..b, y = c..d, options)
```

where `a..b` and `c..d` define the range of `x` and `y`, and where `options` prescribes zero or more options as described in 7.2.4 on page 314. An example of an option is `title == "Title of Graph"`. An alternative format involving a function `f` is also available.

The simplest way to plot a function of two variables is to use a formula. With formulas you always precede the range specifications with the variable name and an `=` sign.

```
draw(cos(x*y),x=-3..3,y=-3..3)
```

If you intend to use a function more than once, or it is long and complex, then first give its definition to Axiom.
f(x,y) == sin(x)*cos(y)

Type: Void

To draw the function, just give its name and drop the variables from the range specifications. Axiom compiles your function for efficient computation of data for the graph. Notice that Axiom uses the text of your function as a default title.

draw(f,-%pi..%pi,-%pi..%pi)

7.2.2 Plotting Three-Dimensional Parametric Space Curves

A second kind of three-dimensional graph is a three-dimensional space curve defined by the parametric equations for \( x(t) \), \( y(t) \), and \( z(t) \) as a function of an independent variable \( t \).

The general format for drawing a three-dimensional space curve defined by parametric formulas \( x = f(t) \), \( y = g(t) \), and \( z = h(t) \) is:

\[
draw(curve(f(t),g(t),h(t)), t = a..b, \text{options})
\]

where \( a..b \) defines the range of the independent variable \( t \), and where \( \text{options} \) prescribes zero or more options as described in 7.2.4 on page 314. An example of an option is \( \text{title} == \"Title of Graph\" \). An alternative format involving functions \( f, g \) and \( h \) is also available.

If you use explicit formulas to draw a space curve, always precede the range specification with the variable name and an = sign.

\[
draw(curve(5*cos(t), 5*sin(t),t), t=-12..12)
\]

Alternatively, you can draw space curves by referring to functions.

\[
i1(t:\text{DFLOAT})\text{DFLOAT} == \text{sin(t)*cos(3*t/5)}
\]

Function declaration \( i1 : \text{DoubleFloat} -> \text{DoubleFloat} \) has been added to workspace.

Type: Void

This is useful if the functions are to be used more than once . . .
Function declaration \( i2 : \text{DoubleFloat} \rightarrow \text{DoubleFloat} \) has been added to workspace.

Type: \text{Void}

or if the functions are long and complex.

Function declaration \( i3 : \text{DoubleFloat} \rightarrow \text{DoubleFloat} \) has been added to workspace.

Type: \text{Void}

Give the names of the functions and drop the variable name specification in the second argument. Again, Axiom supplies a default title.

draw(curve(i1,i2,i3),0..15*\pi)

### 7.2.3 Plotting Three-Dimensional Parametric Surfaces

A third kind of three-dimensional graph is a surface defined by parametric equations for \( x(u,v) \), \( y(u,v) \), and \( z(u,v) \) of two independent variables \( u \) and \( v \).

The general format for drawing a three-dimensional graph defined by parametric formulas \( x = f(u,v) \), \( y = g(u,v) \), and \( z = h(u,v) \) is:

\[
draw(surface(f(u,v),g(u,v),h(u,v)), u = a..b, v = c..d, \text{options})
\]

where \( a..b \) and \( c..d \) define the range of the independent variables \( u \) and \( v \), and where \text{options} prescribes zero or more options as described in 7.2.4 on page 314. An example of an option is \text{title} == "Title of Graph". An alternative format involving functions \( f, g \) and \( h \) is also available.

This example draws a graph of a surface plotted using the parabolic cylindrical coordinate system option. The values of the functions supplied to \text{surface} are interpreted in coordinates as given by a \text{coordinates} option, here as parabolic cylindrical coordinates (see 7.2.7 on page 323).
Again, you can graph these parametric surfaces using functions, if the functions are long and complex. Here we declare the types of arguments and values to be of type \texttt{DoubleFloat}.

\begin{verbatim}
n1(u:DFLOAT,v:DFLOAT):DFLOAT == u*cos(v)

  Function declaration n1 : DoubleFloat -> DoubleFloat has been added to workspace.

  Type: Void

As shown by previous examples, these declarations are necessary.

\begin{verbatim}
n2(u:DFLOAT,v:DFLOAT):DFLOAT == u*sin(v)

  Function declaration n2 : DoubleFloat -> DoubleFloat has been added to workspace.

  Type: Void

In either case, Axiom compiles the functions when needed to graph a result.

\begin{verbatim}
n3(u:DFLOAT,v:DFLOAT):DFLOAT == u

  Function declaration n3 : DoubleFloat -> DoubleFloat has been added to workspace.

  Type: Void

Without these declarations, you have to suffix floats with \texttt{@DFLOAT} to get a \texttt{DoubleFloat} result. However, a call here with an unadorned float produces a \texttt{DoubleFloat}.

\begin{verbatim}
n3(0.5,1.0)

  Compiling function n3 with type (DoubleFloat,DoubleFloat) -> DoubleFloat
\end{verbatim}
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Draw the surface by referencing the function names, this time choosing the toroidal coordinate system.

draw(surface(n1,n2,n3), 1..4, 1..2*%pi, coordinates == toroidal(1$DFLOAT))

7.2.4 Three-Dimensional Options

The draw commands optionally take an optional list of options such as coordinates as shown in the last example. Each option is given by the syntax: name == value. Here is a list of the available options in the order that they are described below:

- title
- coordinates
- var1Steps
- style
- tubeRadius
- var2Steps
- colorFunction
- tubePoints
- space

The option title gives your graph a title.

draw(cos(x*y),x=0..2*%pi,y=0..%pi,title == "Title of Graph")

The style determines which of four rendering algorithms is used for the graph. The choices are "wireMesh", "solid", "shade", and "smooth".

draw(cos(x*y),x=-3..3,y=-3..3, style="smooth", title="Smooth Option")

In all but the wire-mesh style, polygons in a surface or tube plot are normally colored in a graph according to their $z$-coordinate value. Space curves are colored according to their parametric variable value. To change this, you can give a coloring function. The coloring function is sampled across the range of its arguments, then normalized onto the standard Axiom colormap.

A function of one variable makes the color depend on the value of the parametric variable specified for a tube plot.

color1(t) == t

draw(curve(sin(t), cos(t),0), t=0..2*%pi, tubeRadius == .3, colorFunction == color1)
A function of two variables makes the color depend on the values of the independent variables.

\[
\text{color2}(u,v) = u^2 - v^2
\]

Type: Void

Use the option `colorFunction` for special coloring.

\[\text{draw}(\cos(u*v), u=-3..3, v=-3..3, \text{colorFunction} == \text{color2})\]

With a three variable function, the color also depends on the value of the function.

\[
\text{color3}(x,y,fxy) = \sin(x*fxy) + \cos(y*fxy)
\]

Type: Void

\[\text{draw}(\cos(x*y), x=-3..3, y=-3..3, \text{colorFunction} == \text{color3})\]

Normally the Cartesian coordinate system is used. To change this, use the `coordinates` option. For details, see 7.2.7 on page 323.

\[m(u:DFLOAT,v:DFLOAT):DFLOAT == 1\]

Function declaration \(m : (\text{DoubleFloat},\text{DoubleFloat}) \rightarrow \text{DoubleFloat}\) has been added to workspace.

Type: Void

Use the spherical coordinate system.

\[\text{draw}(m, 0..2*\pi, 0..\pi, \text{coordinates} == \text{spherical, style=="shade"})\]

Space curves may be displayed as tubes with polygonal cross sections. Two options, \text{tubeRadius} and \text{tubePoints}, control the size and shape of this cross section. The \text{tubeRadius} option specifies the radius of the tube that encircles the specified space curve.
draw(curve(sin(t),cos(t),0),t=0..2*%pi, style="shade", tubeRadius == .3)

The `tubePoints` option specifies the number of vertices defining the polygon that is used to create a tube around the specified space curve. The larger this number is, the more cylindrical the tube becomes.

draw(curve(sin(t), cos(t), 0), t=0..2*%pi, style="shade", tubeRadius == .25, tubePoints == 3)

Options `var1Steps` and `var2Steps` specify the number of intervals into which the grid defining a surface plot is subdivided with respect to the first and second parameters of the surface function(s).

draw(cos(x*y),x=-3..3,y=-3..3, style="shade", var1Steps == 30, var2Steps == 30)

The `space` option of a `draw` command lets you build multiple graphs in three space. To use this option, first create an empty three-space object, then use the `space` option thereafter. There is no restriction as to the number or kinds of graphs that can be combined this way.

Create an empty three-space object.

s := create3Space()$(ThreeSpace DFLOAT)

3 − Space with 0 components

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

m(u:DFLOAT,v:DFLOAT):DFLOAT == 1

Function declaration m : (DoubleFloat,DoubleFloat) -> DoubleFloat has been added to workspace.

Type: Void

Add a graph to this three-space object. The new graph destructively inserts the graph into s.

draw(m,0..%pi,0..2*%pi, coordinates == spherical, space == s)
Add a second graph to $s$.

$$v := \text{draw}(\text{curve}(1.5\sin(t), 1.5\cos(t), 0), t=0..2\pi, \text{tubeRadius} == .25, \text{space} == s)$$

A three-space object can also be obtained from an existing three-dimensional viewport using the \texttt{subspace} command. You can then use \texttt{makeViewport3D} to create a viewport window.

Assign to $subsp$ the three-space object in viewport $v$.

$$subsp := \text{subspace} \ v$$

Reset the space component of $v$ to the value of $subsp$.

$$\text{subspace}(v, \ subsp)$$

Create a viewport window from a three-space object.

$$\text{makeViewport3D}(subsp, \text{"Graphs"})$$

### 7.2.5 The \texttt{makeObject} Command

An alternate way to create multiple graphs is to use \texttt{makeObject}. The \texttt{makeObject} command is similar to the \texttt{draw} command, except that it returns a three-space object rather than a \texttt{ThreeDimensionalViewport}. In fact, \texttt{makeObject} is called by the \texttt{draw} command to create the \texttt{ThreeSpace} then \texttt{makeViewport3D} to create a viewport window.

$$m(u:\text{DFLOAT}, v:\text{DFLOAT}):\text{DFLOAT} == 1$$

Function declaration $m : (\text{DoubleFloat,DoubleFloat}) \to \text{DoubleFloat}$ has been added to workspace.

Type: Void

Do the last example a new way. First use \texttt{makeObject} to create a three-space object $sph$.

$$sph := \text{makeObject}(m, 0..\pi, 0..2*\pi, \text{coordinates==spherical})$$
Compiling function \( m \) with type \((\text{DoubleFloat},\text{DoubleFloat}) \rightarrow \text{DoubleFloat}\)

3 — \textit{Space with 1 component}

\textbf{Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat}

Add a second object to \( \text{sph} \).

\begin{verbatim}
makeObject(curve(1.5*sin(t), 1.5*cos(t), 0), t=0..2*%pi, space == sph, tubeRadius == .25)
\end{verbatim}

Compiling function \%D with type DoubleFloat \rightarrow DoubleFloat
Compiling function \%F with type DoubleFloat \rightarrow DoubleFloat
Compiling function \%H with type DoubleFloat \rightarrow DoubleFloat

3 — \textit{Space with 2 components}

\textbf{Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat}

Create and display a viewport containing \( \text{sph} \).

\begin{verbatim}
makeViewport3D(sph, "Multiple Objects")
\end{verbatim}

Note that an undefined \texttt{ThreeSpace} parameter declared in a \texttt{makeObject} or \texttt{draw} command results in an error. Use the \texttt{create3Space} function to define a \texttt{ThreeSpace}, or obtain a \texttt{ThreeSpace} that has been previously generated before including it in a command line.

7.2.6 Building Three-Dimensional Objects From Primitives

Rather than using the \texttt{draw} and \texttt{makeObject} commands, you can create three-dimensional graphs from primitives. Operation \texttt{create3Space} creates a three-space object to which points, curves and polygons can be added using the operations from the \texttt{ThreeSpace} domain. The resulting object can then be displayed in a viewport using \texttt{makeViewport3D}.

Create the empty three-space object \( \text{space} \).

\begin{verbatim}
space := create3Space()$(\text{ThreeSpace DFLOAT})
\end{verbatim}
Objects can be sent to this space using the operations exported by the ThreeSpace domain. The following examples place curves into space.

Add these eight curves to the space.

```plaintext
closedCurve(space, [ [0, 30, 20], [0, 30, 30], [0, 40, 30], [0, 40, 100], [0, 30, 100], [0, 30, 110], [0, 60, 110], [0, 60, 100], [0, 50, 100], [0, 50, 30], [0, 60, 30], [0, 60, 20] ])  

3 — Space with 1 component

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

closedCurve(space, [ [80, 0, 30], [80, 0, 100], [70, 0, 110], [40, 0, 110], [30, 0, 100], [30, 0, 90], [40, 0, 90], [40, 0, 95], [45, 0, 100], [65, 0, 100], [70, 0, 95], [70, 0, 35] ])

3 — Space with 2 components

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

closedCurve(space, [ [70, 0, 35], [65, 0, 30], [45, 0, 30], [40, 0, 35], [40, 0, 60], [50, 0, 60], [50, 0, 70], [30, 0, 70], [30, 0, 30], [40, 0, 20], [70, 0, 20], [80, 0, 30] ])

3 — Space with 3 components

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

closedCurve(space, [ [0, 70, 20], [0, 70, 110], [0, 110, 110], [0, 120, 100], [0, 120, 70], [0, 115, 65], [0, 120, 60], [0, 120, 30], [0, 110, 20], [0, 80, 20], [0, 80, 30], [0, 80, 20] ])

3 — Space with 4 components

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

closedCurve(space, [ [0, 105, 30], [0, 110, 35], [0, 110, 55], [0, 105, 60], [0, 80, 60], [0, 80, 70], [0, 105, 70], [0, 110, 75], [0, 110, 95], [0, 105, 100], [0, 80, 100], [0, 80, 20], [0, 80, 30] ])
3 – Space with 5 components

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

closedCurve(space, [ [140,0,20], [140,0,110], [130,0,110],
[90,0,20], [101,0,20], [114,0,50], [130,0,50], [130,0,60],
[119,0,60], [130,0,85], [130,0,20] ])

3 – Space with 6 components

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

closedCurve(space, [ [0,140,20], [0,140,110], [0,150,110],
[0,170,50], [0,190,110], [0,200,110], [0,200,20], [0,190,20],
[0,190,75], [0,175,35], [0,165,35], [0,150,75], [0,150,75], [0,150,20] ])

3 – Space with 7 components

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

closedCurve(space, [ [200,0,20], [200,0,110], [189,0,110],
[160,0,45], [160,0,110], [150,0,110], [150,0,20], [161,0,20],
[190,0,85], [190,0,20] ])

3 – Space with 8 components

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

Create and display the viewport using `makeViewport3D`. Options may also be given but here are displayed as a list with values enclosed in parentheses.

`makeViewport3D(space, title == "Letters")`

**Cube Example**

As a second example of the use of primitives, we generate a cube using a polygon mesh. It is important to use a consistent orientation of the polygons for correct generation of three-dimensional objects.

Again start with an empty three-space object.
spaceC := create3Space()

3 – Space without components

For convenience, give DoubleFloat values +1 and −1 names.

\[ x: \text{DFLOAT} := 1 \]

\[
1.0
\]

Type: DoubleFloat

\[ y: \text{DFLOAT} := -1 \]

\[-1.0\]

Type: DoubleFloat

Define the vertices of the cube.

\[ a := \text{point} \; [x,x,y,1::\text{DFLOAT}] \]

\[
[1.0, 1.0, -1.0, 1.0]
\]

Type: Point DoubleFloat

\[ b := \text{point} \; [y,x,y,4::\text{DFLOAT}] \]

\[
[-1.0, 1.0, -1.0, 4.0]
\]

Type: Point DoubleFloat

\[ c := \text{point} \; [y,x,x,8::\text{DFLOAT}] \]

\[
[-1.0, 1.0, 1.0, 8.0]
\]

Type: Point DoubleFloat
d := point \[x,x,x,12::DFLOAT\] (Point DoubleFloat) 
\[1.0,1.0,1.0,12.0\] 
Type: Point DoubleFloat

e := point \[x,y,y,16::DFLOAT\] (Point DoubleFloat) 
\[1.0,1.0,1.0,16.0\] 
Type: Point DoubleFloat

f := point \[y,y,y,20::DFLOAT\] (Point DoubleFloat) 
\[-1.0,1.0,1.0,20.0\] 
Type: Point DoubleFloat

g := point \[y,y,x,24::DFLOAT\] (Point DoubleFloat) 
\[-1.0,1.0,1.0,24.0\] 
Type: Point DoubleFloat

h := point \[x,y,x,27::DFLOAT\] (Point DoubleFloat) 
\[1.0,1.0,1.0,27.0\] 
Type: Point DoubleFloat

Add the faces of the cube as polygons to the space using a consistent orientation.

\begin{verbatim}
polygon(spaceC, [d,c,g,h])
3 – Space with 1 component
\end{verbatim}
Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

\begin{verbatim}
polygon(spaceC, [d,h,e,a])
\end{verbatim}
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3 – $Space with 2 components$

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

polygon(spaceC, [c, d, a, b])

3 – $Space with 3 components$

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

polygon(spaceC, [g, c, b, f])

3 – $Space with 4 components$

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

polygon(spaceC, [h, g, f, e])

3 – $Space with 5 components$

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

polygon(spaceC, [e, f, b, a])

3 – $Space with 6 components$

Type: ThreeSpace DoubleFloat

Create and display the viewport.

makeViewport3D(spaceC, title == "Cube")

7.2.7 Coordinate System Transformations

The CoordinateSystems package provides coordinate transformation functions that map a given data point from the coordinate system specified into the Cartesian coordinate system. The default coordinate system, given a triplet $(f(u, v), u, v)$, assumes that $z = f(u, v), x = u$ and $y = v$, that is, reads the coordinates in $(z, x, y)$ order.
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\[
m(u:DFLOAT,v:DFLOAT):DFLOAT == u^{*2}
\]

Function declaration \( m : (\text{DoubleFloat,DoubleFloat}) \rightarrow \text{DoubleFloat} \) has been added to workspace.

Graph plotted in default coordinate system.

draw(m,0..3,0..5)

The \( z \) coordinate comes first since the first argument of the `draw` command gives its values. In general, the coordinate systems Axiom provides, or any that you make up, must provide a map to an \((x,y,z)\) triplet in order to be compatible with the `coordinates` DrawOption. Here is an example.

Define the identity function.

\[
cartesian(point:\text{Point DoubleFloat}):\text{Point DoubleFloat} == \text{point}
\]

Function declaration \( \text{cartesian} : \text{Point DoubleFloat} \rightarrow \text{Point DoubleFloat} \) has been added to workspace.

Pass `cartesian` as the `coordinates` parameter to the `draw` command.

draw(m,0..3,0..5,coordinates==cartesian)

What happened? The option `coordinates == cartesian` directs Axiom to treat the dependent variable \( m \) defined by \( m = u^2 \) as the \( x \) coordinate. Thus the triplet of values \((m,u,v)\) is transformed to coordinates \((x,y,z)\) and so we get the graph of \( x = y^2 \).

Here is another example. The `cylindrical` transform takes input of the form \((w,u,v)\), interprets it in the order \((r,\theta,z)\) and maps it to the Cartesian coordinates \( x = r\cos(\theta), y = r\sin(\theta), z = z \) in which \( r \) is the radius, \( \theta \) is the angle and \( z \) is the \( z \)-coordinate.

An example using the `cylindrical` coordinates for the constant \( r = 3 \).

\[
f(u:DFLOAT,v:DFLOAT):DFLOAT == 3
\]

Function declaration \( f : (\text{DoubleFloat,DoubleFloat}) \rightarrow \text{DoubleFloat} \) has been added to workspace.
Graph plotted in cylindrical coordinates.

draw(f,0..%pi,0..6,coordinates==cylindrical)

Suppose you would like to specify $z$ as a function of $r$ and $\theta$ instead of just $r$? Well, you still can use the \texttt{cylindrical} Axiom transformation but we have to reorder the triplet before passing it to the transformation.

First, let’s create a point to work with and call it $pt$ with some color $col$.

col := 5

\texttt{5}

Type: PositiveInteger

pt := point[1,2,3,col]$(Point DFLOAT)

\texttt{[1.0,2.0,3.0,5.0]}

Type: Point DoubleFloat

The reordering you want is $(z,r,\theta)$ to $(r,\theta,z)$ so that the first element is moved to the third element, while the second and third elements move forward and the color element does not change.

Define a function \texttt{reorder} to reorder the point elements.


Function declaration reorder : Point DoubleFloat -> Point
DoubleFloat has been added to workspace.

Type: Void

The function moves the second and third elements forward but the color does not change.

reorder pt
The function `newmap` converts our reordered version of the cylindrical coordinate system to the standard \((x, y, z)\) Cartesian system.

\[
\text{newmap}(pt:\text{Point DoubleFloat}):\text{Point DoubleFloat} \equiv \text{cylindrical}(\text{reorder } pt)
\]

Function declaration `newmap` : `Point DoubleFloat` -> `Point DoubleFloat` has been added to workspace.

```
newmap pt
```

\([-1.9799849932008908, 0.28224001611973443, 1.0, 5.0]\)

Graph the same function \(f\) using the coordinate mapping of the function `newmap`, so it is now interpreted as \(z = 3\):

\[
draw(f, 0..3, 0..2*\pi, \text{coordinates==newmap})
\]

The `CoordinateSystems` package exports the following operations: `bipolar`, `bipolarCylindrical`, `cartesian`, `conical`, `cylindrical`, `elliptic`, `ellipticCylindrical`, `oblateSpheroidal`, `parabolic`, `parabolicCylindrical`, `paraboloidal`, `polar`, `prolateSpheroidal`, `spherical`, and `toroidal`. Use `Browse` or the `)show` system command to get more information.

### 7.2.8 Three-Dimensional Clipping

A three-dimensional graph can be explicitly clipped within the `draw` command by indicating a minimum and maximum threshold for the given function definition. These thresholds can be defined using the Axiom `min` and `max` functions.

```
gamma(x, y) ==
g := \text{Gamma } \text{complex}(x, y)
point [x, y, \text{max( min(real } g, 4), -4), \text{argument } g]
```

Here is an example that clips the gamma function in order to eliminate the extreme divergence it creates.

\[
draw(\text{gamma}, -\pi..\pi, -\pi..\pi, \text{var1Steps==50, var2Steps==50})
\]
7.2.9 Three-Dimensional Control-Panel

Once you have created a viewport, move your mouse to the viewport and click with your left mouse button. This displays a control-panel on the side of the viewport that is closest to where you clicked.

![Three-dimensional control-panel](image)

Figure 7.3: Three-dimensional control-panel.

Transformations

We recommend you first select the **Bounds** button while executing transformations since the bounding box displayed indicates the object’s position as it changes.

**Rotate:** A rotation transformation occurs by clicking the mouse within the **Rotate** window in the upper left corner of the control-panel. The rotation is computed in spherical coordinates, using the horizontal mouse position to increment or decrement the value of the longitudinal angle \( \theta \) within the range of 0 to \( 2\pi \) and the vertical mouse position to increment or decrement the value of the latitudinal angle \( \phi \) within the range of \(-\pi\) to \( \pi \). The active mode of rotation is displayed in green on a color monitor or in clear text on a black and white monitor, while the inactive mode is displayed in red for color display or a mottled pattern for black and white.
origin: The origin button indicates that the rotation is to occur with respect to the origin of the viewing space, that is indicated by the axes.

object: The object button indicates that the rotation is to occur with respect to the center of volume of the object, independent of the axes’ origin position.

Scale: A scaling transformation occurs by clicking the mouse within the Scale window in the upper center of the control-panel, containing a zoom arrow. The axes along which the scaling is to occur are indicated by selecting the appropriate button above the zoom arrow window. The selected axes are displayed in green on a color monitor or in clear text on a black and white monitor, while the unselected axes are displayed in red for a color display or a mottled pattern for black and white.

uniform: Uniform scaling along the x, y and z axes occurs when all the axes buttons are selected.

non-uniform: If any of the axes buttons are not selected, non-uniform scaling occurs, that is, scaling occurs only in the direction of the axes that are selected.

Translate: Translation occurs by indicating with the mouse in the Translate window the direction you want the graph to move. This window is located in the upper right corner of the control-panel and contains a potentiometer with crossed arrows pointing up, down, left and right. Along the top of the Translate window are three buttons (XY, XZ, and YZ) indicating the three orthographic projection planes. Each orientates the group as a view into that plane. Any translation of the graph occurs only along this plane.

Messages

The window directly below the potentiometer windows for transformations is used to display system messages relating to the viewport, the control-panel and the current graph displaying status.

Colormap

Directly below the message window is the colormap range indicator window. The Axiom Colormap shows a sampling of the spectrum from which hues can be drawn to represent the colors of a surface. The Colormap is composed of five shades for each of the hues along this spectrum. By moving the markers above and below the Colormap, the range of hues that are used to color the existing surface are set. The bottom marker shows the hue for the low end of the color range and the top marker shows the hue for the upper end of the range. Setting the bottom and top markers at the same hue results in monochromatic smooth shading of the graph when Smooth mode is selected. At each end of the Colormap are + and - buttons. When clicked on, these increment or decrement the top or bottom marker.
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Buttons

Below the Colormap window and to the left are located various buttons that determine the characteristics of a graph. The buttons along the bottom and right hand side all have special meanings; the remaining buttons in the first row indicate the mode or style used to display the graph. The second row are toggles that turn on or off a property of the graph. On a color monitor, the property is on if green (clear text, on a monochrome monitor) and off if red (mottled pattern, on a monochrome monitor). Here is a list of their functions.

**Wire** displays surface and tube plots as a wireframe image in a single color (blue) with no hidden surfaces removed, or displays space curve plots in colors based upon their parametric variables. This is the fastest mode for displaying a graph. This is very useful when you want to find a good orientation of your graph.

**Solid** displays the graph with hidden surfaces removed, drawing each polygon beginning with the furthest from the viewer. The edges of the polygons are displayed in the hues specified by the range in the Colormap window.

**Shade** displays the graph with hidden surfaces removed and with the polygons shaded, drawing each polygon beginning with the furthest from the viewer. Polygons are shaded in the hues specified by the range in the Colormap window using the Phong illumination model.

**Smooth** displays the graph using a renderer that computes the graph one line at a time. The location and color of the graph at each visible point on the screen are determined and displayed using the Phong illumination model. Smooth shading is done in one of two ways, depending on the range selected in the colormap window and the number of colors available from the hardware and/or window manager. When the top and bottom markers of the colormap range are set to different hues, the graph is rendered by dithering between the transitions in color hue. When the top and bottom markers of the colormap range are set to the same hue, the graph is rendered using the Phong smooth shading model. However, if enough colors cannot be allocated for this purpose, the renderer reverts to the color dithering method until a sufficient color supply is available. For this reason, it may not be possible to render multiple Phong smooth shaded graphs at the same time on some systems.

**Bounds** encloses the entire volume of the viewgraph within a bounding box, or removes the box if previously selected. The region that encloses the entire volume of the viewport graph is displayed.

**Axes** displays Cartesian coordinate axes of the space, or turns them off if previously selected.

**Outline** causes quadrilateral polygons forming the graph surface to be outlined in black when the graph is displayed in **Shade** mode.
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**BW** converts a color viewport to black and white, or vice-versa. When this button is selected the control-panel and viewport switch to an immutable colormap composed of a range of grey scale patterns or tiles that are used wherever shading is necessary.

**Light** takes you to a control-panel described below.

**ViewVolume** takes you to another control-panel as described below.

**Save** creates a menu of the possible file types that can be written using the control-panel. The **Exit** button leaves the save menu. The **Pixmap** button writes an Axiom pixmap of the current viewport contents. The file is called `axiom3D.pixmap` and is located in the directory from which Axiom or `viewAlone` was started. The **PS** button writes the current viewport contents to PostScript output rather than to the viewport window. By default the file is called `axiom3D`; however, if a file name is specified in the user’s `.Xdefaults` file it is used. The file is placed in the directory from which the Axiom or `viewAlone` session was begun. See also the **write** function.

**Reset** returns the object transformation characteristics back to their initial states.

**Hide** causes the control-panel for the corresponding viewport to disappear from the screen.

**Quit** queries whether the current viewport session should be terminated.

**Light**

The **Light** button changes the control-panel into the **Lighting Control-Panel**. At the top of this panel, the three axes are shown with the same orientation as the object. A light vector from the origin of the axes shows the current position of the light source relative to the object. At the bottom of the panel is an **Abort** button that cancels any changes to the lighting that were made, and a **Return** button that carries out the current set of lighting changes on the graph.

**XY:** The **XY** lighting axes window is below the **Lighting Control-Panel** title and to the left. This changes the light vector within the **XY** view plane.

**Z:** The **Z** lighting axis window is below the **Lighting Control-Panel** title and in the center. This changes the **Z** location of the light vector.

**Intensity:** Below the **Lighting Control-Panel** title and to the right is the light intensity meter. Moving the intensity indicator down decreases the amount of light emitted from the light source. When the indicator is at the top of the meter the light source is emitting at 100% intensity. At the bottom of the meter the light source is emitting at a level slightly above ambient lighting.
View Volume

The View Volume button changes the control-panel into the Viewing Volume Panel. At the bottom of the viewing panel is an Abort button that cancels any changes to the viewing volume that were made and a Return button that carries out the current set of viewing changes to the graph.

Eye Reference: At the top of this panel is the Eye Reference window. It shows a planar projection of the viewing pyramid from the eye of the viewer relative to the location of the object. This has a bounding region represented by the rectangle on the left. Below the object rectangle is the Hither window. By moving the slider in this window the hither clipping plane sets the front of the view volume. As a result of this depth clipping all points of the object closer to the eye than this hither plane are not shown. The Eye Distance slider to the right of the Hither slider is used to change the degree of perspective in the image.

Clip Volume: The Clip Volume window is at the bottom of the Viewing Volume Panel. On the right is a Settings menu. In this menu are buttons to select viewing attributes. Selecting the Perspective button computes the image using perspective projection. The Show Region button indicates whether the clipping region of the volume is to be drawn in the viewport and the Clipping On button shows whether the view volume clipping is to be in effect when the image is drawn. The left side of the Clip Volume window shows the clipping boundary of the graph. Moving the knobs along the X, Y, and Z sliders adjusts the volume of the clipping region accordingly.

7.2.10 Operations for Three-Dimensional Graphics

Here is a summary of useful Axiom operations for three-dimensional graphics. Each operation name is followed by a list of arguments. Each argument is written as a variable informally named according to the type of the argument (for example, integer). If appropriate, a default value for an argument is given in parentheses immediately following the name.

adaptive3D? ()
    tests whether space curves are to be plotted according to the adaptive refinement algorithm.

axes (viewport, string ("on"))
    turns the axes on and off.

close (viewport)
    closes the viewport.

colorDef (viewport, color 1 (1), color 2 (27))
    sets the colormap range to be from color 1 to color 2.
controlPanel (viewport, string("off"))
declares whether the control-panel for the viewport is to be displayed or not.

diagonals (viewport, string("off"))
declares whether the polygon outline includes the diagonals or not.

drawStyle (viewport, style)
selects which of four drawing styles are used: "wireMesh", "solid", "shade", or "smooth".

eyeDistance (viewport,float(500))
sets the distance of the eye from the origin of the object for use in the perspective.

key (viewport)
returns the operating system process ID number for the viewport.

lighting (viewport, float(0.5), float(0.5), float(0.5))
sets the Cartesian coordinates of the light source.

modifyPointData (viewport,integer,point)
replaces the coordinates of the point with the index integer with point.

move (viewport, integer, integer)
moves the upper left-hand corner of the viewport to screen position (integer, integer).

options (viewport)
returns a list of all current draw options.

outlineRender (viewport, string("off"))
turns polygon outlining off or on when drawing in "shade" mode.

perspective (viewport, string("on"))
turns perspective viewing on and off.

reset (viewport)
resets the attributes of a viewport to their initial settings.

resize (viewport, integer, integer)
resets the width and height values for a viewport.

rotate (viewport, number, number)
rotates the viewport by rotation angles for longitude (θ) and latitude (φ). Angles designate radians if given as floats, or degrees if given as integers.

setAdaptive3D (boolean)
sets whether space curves are to be plotted according to the adaptive refinement algorithm.
setMaxPoints3D (integer(1000))
sets the default maximum number of possible points to be used when constructing a three-dimensional space curve.

setMinPoints3D (integer(49))
sets the default minimum number of possible points to be used when constructing a three-dimensional space curve.

setScreenResolution3D (integer(49))
sets the default screen resolution constant used in setting the computation limit of adaptively generated three-dimensional space curve plots.

showRegion (viewport, string("off"))
declares whether the bounding box of a graph is shown or not.

subspace (viewport)
returns the space component.

subspace (viewport, subspace)
resets the space component to subspace.

title (viewport, string)
gives the viewport the title string.

translate (viewport, float(viewDeltaXDefault), float(viewDeltaYDefault))
translates the object horizontally and vertically relative to the center of the viewport.

intensity (viewport, float(1.0))
resets the intensity $I$ of the light source, $0 \leq I \leq 1$.

tubePointsDefault ([integer(6)])
sets or indicates the default number of vertices defining the polygon that is used to create a tube around a space curve.

tubeRadiusDefault ([float(0.5)])
sets or indicates the default radius of the tube that encircles a space curve.

var1StepsDefault ([integer(27)])
sets or indicates the default number of increments into which the grid defining a surface plot is subdivided with respect to the first parameter declared in the surface function.

var2StepsDefault ([integer(27)])
sets or indicates the default number of increments into which the grid defining a surface plot is subdivided with respect to the second parameter declared in the surface function.
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viewDefaults ((integerPoint, integerLine, integerAxes, integerUnits, floatPoint, listPosition, listSize))
resets the default settings for the point color, line color, axes color, units color, point size, viewport upper left-hand corner position, and the viewport size.

viewDeltaXDefault ([float(0)])
resets the default horizontal offset from the center of the viewport, or returns the current default offset if no argument is given.

viewDeltaYDefault ([float(0)])
resets the default vertical offset from the center of the viewport, or returns the current default offset if no argument is given.

viewPhiDefault ([float(-\pi/4)])
resets the default latitudinal view angle, or returns the current default angle if no argument is given. \phi is set to this value.

viewpoint (viewport, floatX, floatY, floatZ)
sets the viewing position in Cartesian coordinates.

viewpoint (viewport, floatX, floatY, floatZ)
sets the viewing position in spherical coordinates.

viewpoint (viewport, FloatX, FloatY, FloatXscaleFactor, FloatYoffset, FloatXoffset)
sets the viewing position in spherical coordinates, the scale factor, and offsets. \theta (longitude) and \phi (latitude) are in radians.

viewPosDefault ([list([0,0])])
sets or indicates the position of the upper left-hand corner of a two-dimensional viewport, relative to the display root window (the upper left-hand corner of the display is [0,0]).

viewSizeDefault ([list([400,400])])
sets or indicates the width and height dimensions of a viewport.

viewThetaDefault ([float(\pi/4)])
resets the default longitudinal view angle, or returns the current default angle if no argument is given. When a parameter is specified, the default longitudinal view angle \theta is set to this value.

viewWriteAvailable ([list([" pixmap", " bitmap", " postscript", " image"])])
indicates the possible file types that can be created with the write function.

viewWriteDefault ([list([])])
sets or indicates the default types of files that are created in addition to the data file when a write command is executed on a viewport.

viewScaleDefault ([float()])
sets the default scaling factor, or returns the current factor if no argument is given.
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write (viewport, directory, {option})
writes the file data for viewport in the directory directory. An optional third argument specifies a file type (one of pixmap, bitmap, postscript, or image), or a list of file types. An additional file is written for each file type listed.

scale (viewport, float(2.5))
specifies the scaling factor.

7.2.11 Customization using .Xdefaults

Both the two-dimensional and three-dimensional drawing facilities consult the .Xdefaults file for various defaults. The list of defaults that are recognized by the graphing routines is discussed in this section. These defaults are preceded by Axiom.3D. for three-dimensional viewport defaults, Axiom.2D. for two-dimensional viewport defaults, or Axiom* (no dot) for those defaults that are acceptable to either viewport type.

Axiom*buttonFont: font
This indicates which font type is used for the button text on the control-panel. Rom11

Axiom.2D.graphFont: font  (2D only)
This indicates which font type is used for displaying the graph numbers and slots in the Graphs section of the two-dimensional control-panel. Rom22

Axiom.3D.headerFont: font
This indicates which font type is used for the axes labels and potentiometer header names on three-dimensional viewport windows. This is also used for two-dimensional control-panels for indicating which font type is used for potentiometer header names and multiple graph title headers. It14

Axiom*inverse: switch
This indicates whether the background color is to be inverted from white to black. If on, the graph viewports use black as the background color. If off or no declaration is made, the graph viewports use a white background. off

Axiom.3D.lightingFont: font  (3D only)
This indicates which font type is used for the x, y, and z labels of the two lighting axes potentiometers, and for the Intensity title on the lighting control-panel. Rom10

Axiom.2D.messageFont, Axiom.3D.messageFont: font
These indicate the font type to be used for the text in the control-panel message window. Rom14

Axiom*monochrome: switch
This indicates whether the graph viewports are to be displayed as if the monitor is black and white, that is, a 1 bit plane. If on is specified, the viewport display
is black and white. If off is specified, or no declaration for this default is given, the viewports are displayed in the normal fashion for the monitor in use. off

Axiom.2D.postScript: filename
This specifies the name of the file that is generated when a 2D PostScript graph is saved. axiom2D

Axiom.3D.postScript: filename
This specifies the name of the file that is generated when a 3D PostScript graph is saved. axiom3D

Axiom.titleFont font
This indicates which font type is used for the title text and, for three-dimensional graphs, in the lighting and viewing-volume control-panel windows. Rom14

Axiom.2D.unitFont: font (2D only)
This indicates which font type is used for displaying the unit labels on two-dimensional viewport graphs. 6x10

Axiom.3D.volumeFont: font (3D only)
This indicates which font type is used for the x, y, and z labels of the clipping region sliders; for the Perspective, Show Region, and Clipping On buttons under Settings, and above the windows for the Hither and Eye Distance sliders in the Viewing Volume Panel of the three-dimensional control-panel. Rom8
Chapter 8

Advanced Problem Solving

In this chapter we describe techniques useful in solving advanced problems with Axiom.

8.1 Numeric Functions

Axiom provides two basic floating-point types: Float and DoubleFloat. This section describes how to use numerical operations defined on these types and the related complex types. As we mentioned in Chapter 1 on page 69, the Float type is a software implementation of floating-point numbers in which the exponent and the significand may have any number of digits. See 9.27 on page 552 for detailed information about this domain. The DoubleFloat (see 9.17 on page 521) is usually a hardware implementation of floating point numbers, corresponding to machine double precision. The types Complex Float and Complex DoubleFloat are the corresponding software implementations of complex floating-point numbers. In this section the term floating-point type means any of these four types. The floating-point types implement the basic elementary functions. These include (where $\mathit{\$}$ means DoubleFloat, Float, Complex DoubleFloat, or Complex Float):

- \(\exp\): $\rightarrow \mathit{\$}$
- \(\log\): $\rightarrow \mathit{\$}$
- \(\sin, \cos, \tan, \cot, \sec, \csc\): $\rightarrow \mathit{\$}$
- \(\sinh, \cosh, \tanh, \coth, \sech, \csch\): $\rightarrow \mathit{\$}$
- \(\text{asinh}, \text{acosh}, \text{atanh}, \text{acoth}, \text{asech}, \text{acsch}\): $\rightarrow \mathit{\$}$
- \(\pi\): $() \rightarrow \mathit{\$}$
- \(\sqrt{\mathit{\$}}\) $\rightarrow \mathit{\$}$
- \(\text{nthRoot}(\mathit{\$}, \text{Integer})\) $\rightarrow \mathit{\$}$
- \(\mathit{\$}^{\text{**}}\): $\rightarrow \mathit{\$}$
- \(\mathit{\$}^{\text{**}2}\): $(\mathit{\$}, \mathit{\$}) \rightarrow \mathit{\$}$
The handling of roots depends on whether the floating-point type is real or complex:
for the real floating-point types, `DoubleFloat` and `Float`, if a real root exists the one
with the same sign as the radicand is returned; for the complex floating-point types, the
principal value is returned. Also, for real floating-point types the inverse functions pro-
duce errors if the results are not real. This includes cases such as \( \text{asin}(1.2) \), \( \log(-3.2) \), 
\( \text{sqrt}(-1.1) \).

The default floating-point type is `Float` so to evaluate functions using `Float` or
`Complex Float`, just use normal decimal notation.

\[
\text{exp}(3.1)
\]

\[22.197951281441633405\]

Type: `Float`

\[
\text{exp}(3.1 + 4.5 \cdot \%i)
\]

\[-4.679234886096989918 - 21.699165928071731864 \cdot \%i\]

Type: `Complex Float`

To evaluate functions using `DoubleFloat` or `Complex DoubleFloat`, a declaration or
conversion is required.

\[
r: \text{DFLOAT} := 3.1; t: \text{DFLOAT} := 4.5; \text{exp}(r + t \cdot \%i)
\]

\[-4.6792348860969906 - 21.699165928071732 \cdot \%i\]

Type: `Complex DoubleFloat`

\[
\text{exp}(3.1::\text{DFLOAT} + 4.5::\text{DFLOAT} \cdot \%i)
\]

\[-4.6792348860969906 - 21.699165928071732 \cdot \%i\]

Type: `Complex DoubleFloat`

A number of special functions are provided by the package `DoubleFloatSpecialFunctions`
for the machine-precision floating-point types. The special functions provided are listed below, where \( F \) stands for the types
DoubleFloat and Complex DoubleFloat. The real versions of the functions yield an error if the result is not real.

**Gamma:** $F \rightarrow F$

*Gamma*($z$) is the Euler gamma function, $\Gamma(z)$, defined by

$$
\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt.
$$

**Beta:** $F \rightarrow F$

*Beta*($u,v$) is the Euler Beta function, $B(u,v)$, defined by

$$
B(u,v) = \int_0^1 t^{u-1} (1-t)^{v-1} dt.
$$

This is related to $\Gamma(z)$ by

$$
B(u,v) = \frac{\Gamma(u)\Gamma(v)}{\Gamma(u+v)}.
$$

**logGamma:** $F \rightarrow F$

*logGamma*($z$) is the natural logarithm of $\Gamma(z)$. This can often be computed even if $\Gamma(z)$ cannot.

**digamma:** $F \rightarrow F$

digamma($z$), also called $\psi(z)$, is the function $\psi(z)$, defined by

$$
\psi(z) = \frac{\Gamma'(z)}{\Gamma(z)}.
$$

**polygamma:** $(\text{NonNegativeInteger},F) \rightarrow F$

*polygamma*($n,z$) is the $n$-th derivative of $\psi(z)$, written $\psi^{(n)}(z)$.

**besselJ:** $(F,F) \rightarrow F$

*besselJ*($v,z$) is the Bessel function of the first kind, $J_v(z)$. This function satisfies the differential equation

$$
z^2w''(z) + zw'(z) + (z^2 - v^2)w(z) = 0.
$$

**besselY:** $(F,F) \rightarrow F$

*besselY*($v,z$) is the Bessel function of the second kind, $Y_v(z)$. This function satisfies the same differential equation as *besselJ*. The implementation simply uses the relation

$$
Y_v(z) = \frac{J_v(z)\cos(v\pi) - J_{-v}(z)}{\sin(v\pi)}.
$$

**besselI:** $(F,F) \rightarrow F$

*besselI*($v,z$) is the modified Bessel function of the first kind, $I_v(z)$. This function satisfies the differential equation

$$
z^2w''(z) + zw'(z) - (z^2 + v^2)w(z) = 0.
$$
**besselK**: 
\[ (F, F) \rightarrow F \]

*besselK*(\(v, z\)) is the modified Bessel function of the second kind, \(K_v(z)\). This function satisfies the same differential equation as *besselI*. The implementation simply uses the relation
\[
K_v(z) = \pi \frac{I_{-v}(z) - I_v(z)}{2 \sin(v \pi)}.
\]

**airyAi**: 
\[ F \rightarrow F \]

*airyAi*(\(z\)) is the Airy function \(Ai(z)\). This function satisfies the differential equation \(w''(z) - zw(z) = 0\). The implementation simply uses the relation
\[
Ai(-z) = \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{z} (J_{-1/3}(\frac{2}{3} z^{3/2}) + J_{1/3}(\frac{2}{3} z^{3/2})).
\]

**airyBi**: 
\[ F \rightarrow F \]

*airyBi*(\(z\)) is the Airy function \(Bi(z)\). This function satisfies the same differential equation as *airyAi*. The implementation simply uses the relation
\[
Bi(-z) = \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{3z} (J_{-1/3}(\frac{2}{3} z^{3/2}) - J_{1/3}(\frac{2}{3} z^{3/2})).
\]

**hypergeometric0F1**: 
\[ (F, F) \rightarrow F \]

*hypergeometric0F1*(\(c, z\)) is the hypergeometric function \(_0F_1(c; z)\).

The above special functions are defined only for small floating-point types. If you give Float arguments, they are converted to DoubleFloat by Axiom.

\[
\Gamma(0.5)^2
\]

\[
3.14159265358979
\]

Type: DoubleFloat

\[
a := 2.1; b := 1.1; \text{besselI}(a + \%i*b, b*a + 1)
\]

\[
2.489481690673867 - 2.365846713181643 \, i
\]

Type: Complex DoubleFloat

A number of additional operations may be used to compute numerical values. These are special polynomial functions that can be evaluated for values in any commutative ring \(R\), and in particular for values in any floating-point type. The following operations are provided by the package *OrthogonalPolynomialFunctions*:

**chebyshevT**: 
\[ (\text{NonNegativeInteger}, R) \rightarrow R \]

*chebyshevT*(\(n, z\)) is the \(n\)-th Chebyshev polynomial of the first kind, \(T_n(z)\). These are defined by
\[
\frac{1 - tz}{1 - 2tz + t^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} T_n(z)t^n.
\]
chebyshevU: \((\text{NonNegativeInteger}, R) \rightarrow R\)

\(\text{chebyshevU}(n, z)\) is the \(n\)-th Chebyshev polynomial of the second kind, \(U_n(z)\). These are defined by

\[
\frac{1}{1 - 2tz + t^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} U_n(z)t^n.
\]

hermiteH: \((\text{NonNegativeInteger}, R) \rightarrow R\)

\(\text{hermiteH}(n, z)\) is the \(n\)-th Hermite polynomial, \(H_n(z)\). These are defined by

\[
e^{2tz - t^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} H_n(z)\frac{t^n}{n!}.
\]

laguerreL: \((\text{NonNegativeInteger}, R) \rightarrow R\)

\(\text{laguerreL}(n, z)\) is the \(n\)-th Laguerre polynomial, \(L_n(z)\). These are defined by

\[
e^{-t} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{L_n(z)}{n!} t^n.
\]

\(\text{laguerreL}:(\text{NonNegativeInteger}, \text{NonNegativeInteger}, R) \rightarrow R\)

\(\text{laguerreL}(m, n, z)\) is the associated Laguerre polynomial, \(L^m_n(z)\). This is the \(m\)-th derivative of \(L_n(z)\).

legendreP: \((\text{NonNegativeInteger}, R) \rightarrow R\)

\(\text{legendreP}(n, z)\) is the \(n\)-th Legendre polynomial, \(P_n(z)\). These are defined by

\[
\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - 2tz + t^2}} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(z)t^n.
\]

These operations require non-negative integers for the indices, but otherwise the argument can be given as desired.

\([\text{chebyshevT}(i, z) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 0..5]\)

\[\left[1, 2z, 2z^2 - 1, 4z^3 - 3z, 8z^4 - 8z^2 + 1, 16z^5 - 20z^3 + 5z\right]\]

Type: List Polynomial Integer

The expression \(\text{chebyshevT}(n, z)\) evaluates to the \(n\)-th Chebyshev polynomial of the first kind.

\(\text{chebyshevT}(3, 5.0 + 6.0\times\text{i})\)

\(-1675.0 + 918.0 \text{ i}\)

Type: Complex Float
chebyshevT(3, 5.0::DoubleFloat)

485.0

Type: DoubleFloat

The expression \( \text{chebyshevU}(n, z) \) evaluates to the \( n \)-th Chebyshev polynomial of the second kind.

\[
[\text{chebyshevU}(i, z) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 0..5]
\]

\[
[1, 2z, 4z^2 - 1, 8z^3 - 4z, 16z^4 - 12z^2 + 1, 32z^5 - 32z^3 + 6z]
\]

Type: List Polynomial Integer

chebyshevU(3, 0.2)

\(-0.736\)

Type: Float

The expression \( \text{hermiteH}(n, z) \) evaluates to the \( n \)-th Hermite polynomial.

\[
[\text{hermiteH}(i, z) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 0..5]
\]

\[
[1, 2z, 4z^2 - 2, 8z^3 - 12z, 16z^4 - 48z^2 + 12, 32z^5 - 160z^3 + 120z]
\]

Type: List Polynomial Integer

hermiteH(100, 1.0)

\(-0.1448706729337934088E93\)

Type: Float

The expression \( \text{laguerreL}(n, z) \) evaluates to the \( n \)-th Laguerre polynomial.

\[
[\text{laguerreL}(i, z) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 0..4]
\]

\[
[1, -z + 1, z^2 - 4z + 2, -z^3 + 9z^2 - 18z + 6, z^4 - 16z^3 + 72z^2 - 96z + 24]
\]
Type: List Polynomial Integer

\[ \text{laguerreL}(4, 1.2) \]

\[-13.0944 \]

Type: Float

\[ [\text{laguerreL}(j, 3, z) \text{ for } j \text{ in } 0..4] \]

\[ [\text{laguerreL}(1, 3, 2.1) \]

\[ 6.57 \]

Type: Float

The expression \( \text{legendreP}(n, z) \) evaluates to the \( n \)-th Legendre polynomial,

\[ [\text{legendreP}(i, z) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 0..5] \]

\[ \left[ 1, \frac{3}{2} z - \frac{1}{2} z^3, \frac{5}{2} z^2, \frac{3}{2} z, \frac{35}{8} z^4 - \frac{15}{4} z^2 + \frac{3}{8} z^5, \frac{63}{8} z^5 - \frac{35}{4} z^3 + \frac{15}{8} z \right] \]

Type: List Polynomial Fraction Integer

\[ \text{legendreP}(3, 3.0\%i) \]

\[ -72.0 i \]

Type: Complex Float

Finally, three number-theoretic polynomial operations may be evaluated. The following operations are provided by the package \text{NumberTheoreticPolynomialFunctions}.


**bernoulliB**: \( (\text{NonNegativeInteger}, R) \rightarrow R \)

\( \text{bernoulliB}(n, z) \) is the \( n \)-th Bernoulli polynomial, \( B_n(z) \). These are defined by

\[
\frac{te^z}{e^z - 1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_n(z) \frac{t^n}{n!}.
\]

**eulerE**: \( (\text{NonNegativeInteger}, R) \rightarrow R \)

\( \text{eulerE}(n, z) \) is the \( n \)-th Euler polynomial, \( E_n(z) \). These are defined by

\[
\frac{2e^z}{e^z + 1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} E_n(z) \frac{t^n}{n!}.
\]

**cyclotomic**: \( (\text{NonNegativeInteger}, R) \rightarrow R \)

cyclotomic\( (n, z) \) is the \( n \)-th cyclotomic polynomial \( \Phi_n(z) \). This is the polynomial whose roots are precisely the primitive \( n \)-th roots of unity. This polynomial has degree given by the Euler totient function \( \phi(n) \).

The expression \( \text{bernoulliB}(n, z) \) evaluates to the \( n \)-th Bernoulli polynomial.

\[
\text{bernoulliB}(3, z)
\]

\[
z^3 - \frac{3}{2} z^2 + \frac{1}{2} z
\]

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

\[
\text{bernoulliB}(3, 0.7 + 0.4 \times \%i)
\]

\[-0.138 - 0.116 i\]

Type: Complex Float

The expression \( \text{eulerE}(n, z) \) evaluates to the \( n \)-th Euler polynomial.

\[
\text{eulerE}(3, z)
\]

\[
z^3 - \frac{3}{2} z^2 + \frac{1}{4}
\]

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

\[
\text{eulerE}(3, 0.7 + 0.4 \times \%i)
\]

\[-0.238 - 0.316 i\]
The expression \( \text{cyclotomic}(n, z) \) evaluates to the \( n \)-th cyclotomic polynomial.

\[
cyclotomic(3, z)
\]

\[z^2 + z + 1\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

\[
cyclotomic(3, (-1.0 + 0.0 * %i)^{2/3})
\]

0.0

Type: Complex Float

Drawing complex functions in Axiom is presently somewhat awkward compared to drawing real functions. It is necessary to use the \texttt{draw} operations that operate on functions rather than expressions.

This is the complex exponential function (rotated interactively). When this is displayed in color, the height is the value of the real part of the function and the color is the imaginary part. Red indicates large negative imaginary values, green indicates imaginary values near zero and blue/violet indicates large positive imaginary values.

\[
\text{draw}(x, y) +-> \text{real \ exp \ complex}(x, y), \ -2..2, \ -2*\%pi..2*\%pi, \\
\text{colorFunction} = (x, y) +-> \text{imag \ exp \ complex}(x, y), \\
\text{title} = \text{"exp}(x+%i*y)"}, \ \text{style} = \text{"smooth"})
\]

This is the complex arctangent function. Again, the height is the real part of the function value but here the color indicates the function value’s phase. The position of the branch cuts are clearly visible and one can see that the function is real only for a real argument.

\[
\text{vp := draw}(x, y) +-> \text{real \ atan \ complex}(x, y), \ -\%pi..\%pi, \ -\%pi..\%pi, \\
\text{colorFunction} = (x, y) +-> \text{argument \ atan \ complex}(x, y), \\
\text{title} = \text{"atan}(x+%i*y)"}, \ \text{style} = \text{"shade"}; \ \text{rotate}(vp,-160,-45); \ \text{vp}
\]

This is the complex Gamma function.

\[
\text{draw}(x, y) +-> \text{max}(\text{min}(\text{real \ Gamma \ complex}(x, y), 4), -4), \ -\%pi..\%pi, \\
-\%pi..\%pi, \ \text{style} = \text{"shade"}, \ \text{colorFunction} = (x, y) +-> \text{argument Gamma \ complex}(x, y), \ \text{title} = \text{"Gamma}(x+%i*y)"}, \ \text{var1Steps} = 50, \ \\
\text{var2Steps} = 50)
\]
This shows the real Beta function near the origin.

\[
\text{draw}(\frac{\text{Beta}(x,y)}{100}, \, x=-1.6..1.7, \, y = -1.6..1.7, \, \text{style}==\text{"shade"}, \\
\text{title}==\text{"Beta}(x,y)\), \, \text{var1Steps==40, \, var2Steps==40})
\]

This is the Bessel function \( J_\alpha(x) \) for index \( \alpha \) in the range \(-6..4\) and argument \( x \) in the range \(2..14\).

\[
\text{draw((alpha,x) +-> min(max(besselJ(alpha, x+8), -6), 6), -6..4, \\
-6..6, title==\text{"besselJ}(alpha,x)\", \, \text{style}==\text{"shade"}, \, \text{var1Steps==40, \, var2Steps==40})
\]

This is the modified Bessel function \( I_\alpha(x) \) evaluated for various real values of the index \( \alpha \) and fixed argument \( x = 5 \).

\[
\text{draw(besselI(alpha, 5), alpha = -12..12, unit==[5,20])}
\]

This is similar to the last example except the index \( \alpha \) takes on complex values in a 6x6 rectangle centered on the origin.

\[
\text{draw((x,y) +-> real besselI(complex(x/20, y/20),5), -60..60, \\
-60..60, \, \text{colorFunction} == (x,y)+-> \text{argument} \, \text{besselI(complex(x/20,y/20),5), title=="besselI(x+i*y,5)\",} \\
\text{style=="shade")}
\]

### 8.2 Polynomial Factorization

The Axiom polynomial factorization facilities are available for all polynomial types and a wide variety of coefficient domains. Here are some examples.

#### 8.2.1 Integer and Rational Number Coefficients

Polynomials with integer coefficients can be be factored.

\[
v := (4\times^3+2\times^2+1) \times (12\times^3-3\times+12)
\]

\[
-2 \times^3 \times^3 + \left(24 \times^5 + 24\right) \times^2 + \left(-4 \times^6 - \times^3\right) \times^8 + 12 \times^5 + 48 \times^3 + 12
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer
factor v

\[-(x^3 y - 12 x^5 - 12)(2 y^2 + 4 x^3 + 1)\]

Type: Factored Polynomial Integer

Also, Axiom can factor polynomials with rational number coefficients.

\[w := (4x^3 + (2/3)x^2 + 1) * (12x^5 - (1/2)x^3 + 12)\]

\[48x^8 + 8x^7 - 2x^6 + \frac{35}{3}x^5 + \frac{95}{2}x^3 + 8x^2 + 12\]

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

factor w

\[48\left(x^3 + \frac{1}{6}x^2 + \frac{1}{4}\right)\left(x^5 - \frac{1}{24}x^3 + 1\right)\]

Type: Factored Polynomial Fraction Integer

### 8.2.2 Finite Field Coefficients

Polynomials with coefficients in a finite field can also be factored.

\[u : \text{POLY(PF(19))} := 3x^4 + 2x^2 + 15x + 18\]

\[3x^4 + 2x^2 + 15x + 18\]

Type: Polynomial PrimeField 19

These include the integers mod \(p\), where \(p\) is prime, and extensions of these fields.

factor u

\[3(x + 18)(x^3 + x^2 + 8x + 13)\]

Type: Factored Polynomial PrimeField 19

Convert this to have coefficients in the finite field with \(19^3\) elements. See 8.11 on page 404 for more information about finite fields.
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factor(u :: POLY(FFX(PF 19,3)))

3 (x+18) (x+5 %I^2 + 3 %I + 13) (x+16 %I^2 + 14 %I + 13) (x+17 %I^2 + 2 %I + 13)

Type: Factored Polynomial FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 19,3)

8.2.3 Simple Algebraic Extension Field Coefficients

Polynomials with coefficients in simple algebraic extensions of the rational numbers can be factored.

Here, \(aa\) and \(bb\) are symbolic roots of polynomials.

\[aa := \text{rootOf}(aa^2 + aa + 1)\]

\(aa\)

Type: AlgebraicNumber

\[p := (x^3 + aa^2 * x + y) * (aa * x^2 + aa * x + aa * y^2)^2\]

\((-aa - 1) y^5 + ((-aa - 1) x^3 + aa x) y^4 +\]

\[((-2 aa - 2) x^2 + (-2 aa - 2) x) y^3 +\]

\[\left((-2 aa - 2) x^5 + (-2 aa - 2) x^4 + 2 aa x^3 + 2 aa x^2 \right) y^2 +\]

\[((-aa - 1) x^4 + (-2 aa - 2) x^3 + (-aa - 1) x^2) y +\]

\[(-aa - 1) x^7 + (-2 aa - 2) x^6 - x^5 + 2 aa x^4 + aa x^3\]

Type: Polynomial AlgebraicNumber

Note that the second argument to factor can be a list of algebraic extensions to factor over.

\[\text{factor}(p, [aa])\]

\((-aa - 1) \left(y + x^3 + (-aa - 1) x \right) (y^2 + x^2 + x)^2\]

Type: Factored Polynomial AlgebraicNumber
This factors $x^2+3$ over the integers.

```
factor(x**2+3)
```

\[ x^2 + 3 \]

Type: Factored Polynomial Integer

Factor the same polynomial over the field obtained by adjoining $aa$ to the rational numbers.

```
factor(x**2+3, [aa])
```

\[ (x - 2 aa - 1) (x + 2 aa + 1) \]

Type: Factored Polynomial AlgebraicNumber

Factor $x^6+108$ over the same field.

```
factor(x**6+108, [aa])
```

\[ (x^3 - 12 aa - 6) (x^3 + 12 aa + 6) \]

Type: Factored Polynomial AlgebraicNumber

```
bb:=rootOf(bb**3-2)
```

\[ bb \]

Type: AlgebraicNumber

```
factor(x**6+108, [bb])
```

\[ (x^2 - 3 bb x + 3 bb^2) (x^2 + 3 bb^2) (x^2 + 3 bb x + 3 bb^2) \]

Type: Factored Polynomial AlgebraicNumber

Factor again over the field obtained by adjoining both $aa$ and $bb$ to the rational numbers.

```
factor(x**6+108, [aa, bb])
```

\[ (x + (-2 aa - 1) bb) (x + (-aa - 2) bb) (x + (-aa + 1) bb) \]
\[ (x + (aa - 1) bb) (x + (aa + 2) bb) (x + (2 aa + 1) bb) \]

Type: Factored Polynomial AlgebraicNumber
8.2.4 Factoring Rational Functions

Since fractions of polynomials form a field, every element (other than zero) divides any other, so there is no useful notion of irreducible factors. Thus the factor operation is not very useful for fractions of polynomials.

There is, instead, a specific operation factorFraction that separately factors the numerator and denominator and returns a fraction of the factored results.

\[
\text{factorFraction}\left(\frac{x^2-4}{y^2-4}\right)
\]

\[
\left(\frac{x-2}{y-2}\right) \left(\frac{x+2}{y+2}\right)
\]

Type: Fraction Factored Polynomial Integer

You can also use map. This expression applies the factor operation to the numerator and denominator.

\[
\text{map}(\text{factor}, \frac{x^2-4}{y^2-4})
\]

\[
\left(\frac{x-2}{y-2}\right) \left(\frac{x+2}{y+2}\right)
\]

Type: Fraction Factored Polynomial Integer

8.3 Manipulating Symbolic Roots of a Polynomial

In this section we show you how to work with one root or all roots of a polynomial. These roots are represented symbolically (as opposed to being numeric approximations). See 8.5.2 on page 360 and 8.5.3 on page 362 for information about solving for the roots of one or more polynomials.

8.3.1 Using a Single Root of a Polynomial

Use rootOf to get a symbolic root of a polynomial: rootOf(p, x) returns a root of p(x). This creates an algebraic number \( a \).

\[ a := \text{rootOf}(a^4+1, a) \]
To find the algebraic relation that defines \( a \), use `definingPolynomial`.

\[
definingPolynomial a
\]

\[
a^4 + 1
\]

You can use \( a \) in any further expression, including a nested `rootOf`.

\[
b := \text{rootOf}(b^2-a-1,b)
\]

\[
b
\]

Higher powers of the roots are automatically reduced during calculations.

\[
a + b
\]

\[
b + a
\]

The operation `zeroOf` is similar to `rootOf`, except that it may express the root using radicals in some cases.

\[
\text{rootOf}(c^2+c+1,c)
\]

\[
c
\]
8.3.2 Using All Roots of a Polynomial

Use \texttt{rootsOf} to get all symbolic roots of a polynomial: \texttt{rootsOf}(p, x) returns a list of all the roots of \( p(x) \). If \( p(x) \) has a multiple root of order \( n \), then that root appears \( n \) times in the list.

Compute all the roots of \( x^4 + 1 \).

\[
\begin{align*}
l := \text{rootsOf}(x^{4}+1, x) \\
&= \left[ \%x0, \%x0 %x1, -\%x0, -\%x0 %x1 \right] \\
&\text{Type: List Expression Integer}
\end{align*}
\]

As a side effect, the variables \( \%x0, \%x1 \) and \( \%x2 \) are bound to the first three roots of \( x^4 + 1 \).

\[
\begin{align*}
\%x0^5
\end{align*}
\]

\[
-\%x0 \\
\text{Type: Expression Integer}
\]
Although they all satisfy $x^*4 + 1 = 0$, $\%x0, \%x1$, and $\%x2$ are different algebraic numbers. To find the algebraic relation that defines each of them, use `definingPolynomial`:

```
definingPolynomial $\%x0$

$\%x0^4 + 1$

Type: Expression Integer
```

```
definingPolynomial $\%x1$

$\%x1^2 + 1$

Type: Expression Integer
```

```
definingPolynomial $\%x2$

$-\%x2 + \%\text{var}$

Type: Expression Integer
```

We can check that the sum and product of the roots of $x^*4 + 1$ are its trace and norm.

```
x3 := last 1

$-\%x0 \%x1$

Type: Expression Integer
```

```
$\%x0 + \%x1 + \%x2 + x3$

$(-\%x0 + 1) \%x1 + \%x0 + \%x2$

Type: Expression Integer
```

```
$\%x0 * \%x1 * \%x2 * x3$

$\%x2 \%x0^2$

Type: Expression Integer
```
Corresponding to the pair of operations \texttt{rootOf/zeroOf} in 8.5.2 on page 360, there is an operation \texttt{zerosOf} that, like \texttt{rootsOf}, computes all the roots of a given polynomial, but which expresses some of them in terms of radicals.

\begin{verbatim}
zerosOf(y**4+1,y)
\end{verbatim}

\[
\left[ \frac{\sqrt{-1}+1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{\sqrt{-1}-1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{-\sqrt{-1}-1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{-\sqrt{-1}+1}{\sqrt{2}} \right]
\]  

Type: List Expression Integer

As you see, only one implicit algebraic number was created (%y1), and its defining equation is this. The other three roots are expressed in radicals.

\begin{verbatim}
definingPolynomial %y1
\end{verbatim}

\[
\%\%\texttt{var}^2 + 1
\]  

Type: Expression Integer

8.4 Computation of Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

In this section we show you some of Axiom’s facilities for computing and manipulating eigenvalues and eigenvectors, also called characteristic values and characteristic vectors, respectively.

Let’s first create a matrix with integer entries.

\begin{verbatim}
ml := matrix [ [1,2,1], [2,1,-2], [1,-2,4] ]
\end{verbatim}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 & 1 \\
2 & 1 & -2 \\
1 & -2 & 4
\end{bmatrix}
\]  

Type: Matrix Integer

To get a list of the rational eigenvalues, use the operation \texttt{eigenvalues}.
leig := eigenvalues(m1)

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
5, (\%K | \%K^2 - \%K - 5)
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List Union(Fraction Polynomial Integer, SuchThat(Symbol, Polynomial Integer))

Given an explicit eigenvalue, \texttt{eigenvector} computes the eigenvectors corresponding to it.

\[
eigenvector(\text{first}(\text{leig}), m1)
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
\frac{1}{2} \\
1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List Matrix Fraction Polynomial Fraction Integer

The operation \texttt{eigenvectors} returns a list of pairs of values and vectors. When an eigenvalue is rational, Axiom gives you the value explicitly; otherwise, its minimal polynomial is given, (the polynomial of lowest degree with the eigenvalues as roots), together with a parametric representation of the eigenvector using the eigenvalue. This means that if you ask Axiom to solve the minimal polynomial, then you can substitute these roots into the parametric form of the corresponding eigenvectors.

You must be aware that unless an exact eigenvalue has been computed, the eigenvector may be badly in error.

\[
eigenvectors(m1)
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
eigval = 5, \text{eigmult} = 1, \text{eigvec} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
\frac{1}{2} \\
1
\end{bmatrix}
\end{bmatrix},
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
eigval = (\%L | \%L^2 - \%L - 5), \text{eigmult} = 1, \text{eigvec} = \begin{bmatrix}
\%L \\
2 \\
1
\end{bmatrix}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List Record(eigval: Union(Fraction Polynomial Integer, SuchThat(Symbol, Polynomial Integer)), eigmult: NonNegativeInteger, eigvec: List Matrix Fraction Polynomial Integer)

Another possibility is to use the operation \texttt{radicalEigenvectors} tries to compute explicitly the eigenvectors in terms of radicals.
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radicalEigenvectors(m1)

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\text{radval} = \frac{\sqrt{21} + 1}{2}, \text{radmult} = 1, \text{radvect} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{\sqrt{21} + 1}{2} \\
2 \\
1
\end{bmatrix},
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\text{radval} = -\frac{\sqrt{21} + 1}{2}, \text{radmult} = 1, \text{radvect} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{-\sqrt{21} + 1}{2} \\
2 \\
1
\end{bmatrix},
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\text{radval} = 5, \text{radmult} = 1, \text{radvect} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
-\frac{1}{2} \\
1
\end{bmatrix}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List Record(radval: Expression Integer, radmult: Integer, radvect: List Matrix Expression Integer)

Alternatively, Axiom can compute real or complex approximations to the eigenvectors and eigenvalues using the operations realEigenvectors or complexEigenvectors. They each take an additional argument \( \varepsilon \) to specify the “precision” required. In the real case, this means that each approximation will be within \( \pm \varepsilon \) of the actual result. In the complex case, this means that each approximation will be within \( \pm \varepsilon \) of the actual result in each of the real and imaginary parts.

The precision can be specified as a Float if the results are desired in floating-point notation, or as Fraction Integer if the results are to be expressed using rational (or complex rational) numbers.

realEigenvectors(m1, 1/1000)

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\text{outval} = 5, \text{outmult} = 1, \text{outvect} = \begin{bmatrix}
0 \\
-\frac{1}{2} \\
1
\end{bmatrix}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\text{outval} = \frac{5717}{2048}, \text{outmult} = 1, \text{outvect} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{5717}{2048} \\
2 \\
1
\end{bmatrix}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\text{outval} = \frac{-3669}{2048}, \text{outmult} = 1, \text{outvect} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{-3669}{2048} \\
2 \\
1
\end{bmatrix}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List Record(outval: Fraction Integer, outmult: Integer, outvect: List Matrix Fraction Integer)
If an \( n \) by \( n \) matrix has \( n \) distinct eigenvalues (and therefore \( n \) eigenvectors) the operation \texttt{eigenMatrix} gives you a matrix of the eigenvectors.

\[
eigenMatrix(m1)
\begin{pmatrix}
\frac{\sqrt{21}+1}{2} & \frac{-\sqrt{21}+1}{2} & 0 \\
2 & 2 & -\frac{1}{2} \\
1 & 1 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: Union(Matrix Expression Integer,...)

\[
m2 := \text{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} [-5,-2],[18,7] \end{bmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
-5 & -2 \\
18 & 7
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

\[
eigenMatrix(m2)
"failed"
\]

Type: Union("failed",...)

If a symmetric matrix has a basis of orthonormal eigenvectors, then \texttt{orthonormalBasis} computes a list of these vectors.

\[
m3 := \text{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} [1,2],[2,1] \end{bmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
2 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

\[
\text{orthonormalBasis}(m3)
\begin{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}
\end{bmatrix},
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}
\end{bmatrix}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List Matrix Expression Integer
8.5 Solution of Linear and Polynomial Equations

In this section we discuss the Axiom facilities for solving systems of linear equations, finding the roots of polynomials and solving systems of polynomial equations. For a discussion of the solution of differential equations, see 8.10 on page 394.

8.5.1 Solution of Systems of Linear Equations

You can use the operation \texttt{solve} to solve systems of linear equations.

The operation \texttt{solve} takes two arguments, the list of equations and the list of the unknowns to be solved for. A system of linear equations need not have a unique solution. To solve the linear system:

\[
\begin{align*}
    x + y + z &= 8 \\
    3x - 2y + z &= 0 \\
    x + 2y + 2z &= 17
\end{align*}
\]

evaluate this expression.

\[
\texttt{solve([x+y+z=8,3*x-2*y+z=0,x+2*y+2*z=17],[x,y,z])}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
    x = -1, \\
    y = 2, \\
    z = 7
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List List Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer

Parameters are given as new variables starting with a percent sign and \% and the variables are expressed in terms of the parameters. If the system has no solutions then the empty list is returned.

When you solve the linear system

\[
\begin{align*}
    x + 2y + 3z &= 2 \\
    2x + 3y + 4z &= 2 \\
    3x + 4y + 5z &= 2
\end{align*}
\]

with this expression you get a solution involving a parameter.

\[
\texttt{solve([[x+2*y+3*z=2,2*x+3*y+4*z=2,3*x+4*y+5*z=2],[x,y,z]])}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
    [x = %Q - 2, y = -2 %Q + 2, z = %Q]
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List List Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer
The system can also be presented as a matrix and a vector. The matrix contains the coefficients of the linear equations and the vector contains the numbers appearing on the right-hand sides of the equations. You may input the matrix as a list of rows and the vector as a list of its elements.

To solve the system:

\[
\begin{align*}
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 3 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 0 \\ 17 \end{pmatrix}
\end{align*}
\]

in matrix form you would evaluate this expression.

\[
solve([ [1,1,1],[3,-2,1],[1,2,2] ],[8,0,17])
\]

\[
\text{particular} = [-1,2,7], \text{basis} = [[0,0,0]]
\]

Type: Record(particular: Union(Vector Fraction Integer,"failed"),
          basis: List Vector Fraction Integer)

The solutions are presented as a Record with two components: the component particular contains a particular solution of the given system or the item "failed" if there are no solutions, the component basis contains a list of vectors that are a basis for the space of solutions of the corresponding homogeneous system. If the system of linear equations does not have a unique solution, then the basis component contains non-trivial vectors.

This happens when you solve the linear system

\[
\begin{align*}
\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}
\end{align*}
\]

with this command.

\[
solve([ [1,2,3],[2,3,4],[3,4,5] ],[2,2,2])
\]

\[
\text{particular} = [-2,2,0], \text{basis} = [[1, -2, 1]]
\]

Type: Record(particular: Union(Vector Fraction Integer,"failed"),
          basis: List Vector Fraction Integer)

All solutions of this system are obtained by adding the particular solution with a linear combination of the basis vectors.

When no solution exists then "failed" is returned as the particular component, as follows:

\[
solve([ [1,2,3],[2,3,4],[3,4,5] ],[2,3,2])
\]
When you want to solve a system of homogeneous equations (that is, a system where the numbers on the right-hand sides of the equations are all zero) in the matrix form you can omit the second argument and use the nullSpace operation.

This computes the solutions of the following system of equations:

\[
\begin{align*}
x + 2y + 3z &= 0 \\
2x + 3y + 4z &= 0 \\
3x + 4y + 5z &= 0
\end{align*}
\]

The result is given as a list of vectors and these vectors form a basis for the solution space.

```plaintext
nullSpace([[1,2,3],[2,3,4],[3,4,5]])
```

\[
[[1,-2,1]]
\]

**8.5.2 Solution of a Single Polynomial Equation**

Axiom can solve polynomial equations producing either approximate or exact solutions. Exact solutions are either members of the ground field or can be presented symbolically as roots of irreducible polynomials.

This returns the one rational root along with an irreducible polynomial describing the other solutions.

```plaintext
solve(x**3 = 8,x)
```

\[
\begin{align*}
x &= 2, x^2 + 2x + 4 &= 0
\end{align*}
\]

```plaintext
Type: List Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer
```

If you want solutions expressed in terms of radicals you would use this instead.

```plaintext
radicalSolve(x**3 = 8,x)
```

\[
\begin{align*}
x &= -\sqrt{3} - 1, x = \sqrt{3} - 1, x = 2
\end{align*}
\]

```plaintext
Type: List Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer
```
The `solve` command always returns a value but `radicalSolve` returns only the solutions that it is able to express in terms of radicals.

If the polynomial equation has rational coefficients you can ask for approximations to its real roots by calling `solve` with a second argument that specifies the “precision” $\varepsilon$. This means that each approximation will be within $\pm \varepsilon$ of the actual result.

Notice that the type of second argument controls the type of the result.

```plaintext
\[ \text{solve}(x^4 - 10x^3 + 35x^2 - 50x + 25, 0.0001) \]
\[
\{x = 3.61801474609375, x = 1.381988525390625\}
\]

Type: List Equation Polynomial Float

If you give a floating-point precision you get a floating-point result; if you give the precision as a rational number you get a rational result.

```plaintext
\[ \text{solve}(x^3 - 2, \frac{1}{1000}) \]
\[
\{x = 25812048\}
\]

Type: List Equation Polynomial Fraction Integer

If you want approximate complex results you should use the command `complexSolve` that takes the same precision argument $\varepsilon$.

```plaintext
\[ \text{complexSolve}(x^3 - 2, 0.0001) \]
\[
\{x = 1.259918212890625, \\
x = -0.62989432795395613131 - 1.091094970703125i, \\
x = -0.62989432795395613131 + 1.091094970703125i\}
\]

Type: List Equation Polynomial Complex Float

Each approximation will be within $\pm \varepsilon$ of the actual result in each of the real and imaginary parts.

```plaintext
\[ \text{complexSolve}(x^2 - 2*\%i + 1, \frac{1}{100}) \]
```
\[
\begin{align*}
\[x &= -\frac{13028925}{16777216} - \frac{325}{256} i, x &= \frac{13028925}{16777216} + \frac{325}{256} i \]
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List Equation Polynomial Complex Fraction Integer

Note that if you omit the = from the first argument Axiom generates an equation by equating the first argument to zero. Also, when only one variable is present in the equation, you do not need to specify the variable to be solved for, that is, you can omit the second argument.

Axiom can also solve equations involving rational functions. Solutions where the denominator vanishes are discarded.

radicalSolve\((1/x**3 + 1/x**2 + 1/x = 0, x)\)

\[
\begin{align*}
\[x &= -\frac{\sqrt{-3} - 1}{2}, x &= \frac{\sqrt{-3} - 1}{2} \]
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List Equation Expression Integer

### 8.5.3 Solution of Systems of Polynomial Equations

Given a system of equations of rational functions with exact coefficients:

\[
p_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \\
\vdots \\
p_m(x_1, \ldots, x_n)
\]

Axiom can find numeric or symbolic solutions. The system is first split into irreducible components, then for each component, a triangular system of equations is found that reduces the problem to sequential solution of univariate polynomials resulting from substitution of partial solutions from the previous stage.

\[
q_1(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \\
\vdots \\
q_m(x_n)
\]

Symbolic solutions can be presented using “implicit” algebraic numbers defined as roots of irreducible polynomials or in terms of radicals. Axiom can also find approximations to the real or complex roots of a system of polynomial equations to any user-specified accuracy.

The operation **solve** for systems is used in a way similar to **solve** for single equations. Instead of a polynomial equation, one has to give a list of equations and instead of a
single variable to solve for, a list of variables. For solutions of single equations see 8.5.2 on page 360.

Use the operation \texttt{solve} if you want implicitly presented solutions.

\begin{verbatim}
solve([3*x**3 + y + 1, y**2 - 4], [x, y])
[[x = -1, y = 2], [x^2 - x + 1 = 0, y = 2], [3x^3 - 1 = 0, y = -2]]
\end{verbatim}

Type: List List Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer

\begin{verbatim}
solve([x = y**2-19, y = z**2+x+3, z = 3*x], [x, y, z])
[[x = z, y = 3z^2 + z + 9, 3z^4 + 6z^3 + 55z^2 + 15z - 90 = 0]]
\end{verbatim}

Type: List List Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer

Use \texttt{radicalSolve} if you want your solutions expressed in terms of radicals.

\begin{verbatim}
radicalSolve([3*x**3 + y + 1, y**2 - 4], [x, y])
[[x = \sqrt(3)+1, y = 2], [x = \sqrt(3)-1, y = 2],
[x = -\sqrt(3)-1, y = -2], [x = \sqrt(3)-1, y = -2],
[x = 1/\sqrt(3), y = -2], [x = -1, y = 2]]
\end{verbatim}

Type: List List Equation Expression Integer

To get numeric solutions you only need to give the list of equations and the precision desired. The list of variables would be redundant information since there can be no parameters for the numerical solver.

If the precision is expressed as a floating-point number you get results expressed as floats.

\begin{verbatim}
solve([x**2*y - 1, x*y**2 - 2], .01)
[[y = 1.5859375, x = 0.79296875]]
\end{verbatim}
To get complex numeric solutions, use the operation `complexSolve`, which takes the same arguments as in the real case.

\[
\text{complexSolve}([x^2y - 1, xy^2 - 2], 1/1000)
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
[y &= \frac{1625}{1024}, x = \frac{1625}{2048}], \\
[y &= -\frac{435445573689}{549755813888} \frac{1407}{1024} i, x = -\frac{435445573689}{1099511627776} \frac{1407}{2048} i], \\
[y &= -\frac{435445573689}{549755813888} + \frac{1407}{1024} i, x = -\frac{435445573689}{1099511627776} + \frac{1407}{2048} i]
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List List Equation Polynomial Complex Fraction Integer

It is also possible to solve systems of equations in rational functions over the rational numbers. Note that \([x = 0.0, a = 0.0]\) is not returned as a solution since the denominator vanishes there.

\[
\text{solve}([x^2/a = a, a = ax], .001)
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
[[x = 1.0, a = -1.0], [x = 1.0, a = 1.0]]
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List List Equation Polynomial Float

When solving equations with denominators, all solutions where the denominator vanishes are discarded.

\[
\text{radicalSolve}([x^2/a + a + y^3 - 1, ay + a + 1], [x, y])
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
[x &= -\sqrt{\frac{-a^4 + 2a^3 + 3a^2 + 3a + 1}{a^2}}, y = \frac{-a - 1}{a}], \\
[x &= \sqrt{\frac{-a^4 + 2a^3 + 3a^2 + 3a + 1}{a^2}}, y = \frac{-a - 1}{a}]
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List List Equation Expression Integer
8.6 Limits

To compute a limit, you must specify a functional expression, a variable, and a limiting value for that variable. If you do not specify a direction, Axiom attempts to compute a two-sided limit.

Issue this to compute the limit

$$\lim_{x \to 1} \frac{x^2 - 3x + 2}{x^2 - 1}.$$  

$$\text{limit}((x**2 - 3*x + 2)/(x**2 - 1), x = 1)$$

\[\frac{-1}{2}\]

Type: \(\text{Union(OrderedCompletion Fraction Polynomial Integer,...)}\)

Sometimes the limit when approached from the left is different from the limit from the right and, in this case, you may wish to ask for a one-sided limit. Also, if you have a function that is only defined on one side of a particular value, you can compute a one-sided limit.

The function \(\log(x)\) is only defined to the right of zero, that is, for \(x > 0\). Thus, when computing limits of functions involving \(\log(x)\), you probably want a “right-hand” limit.

$$\text{limit}(x \cdot \log(x), x = 0,"right")$$

\(0\)

Type: \(\text{Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer,...)}\)

When you do not specify “right” or “left” as the optional fourth argument, \texttt{limit} tries to compute a two-sided limit. Here the limit from the left does not exist, as Axiom indicates when you try to take a two-sided limit.

$$\text{limit}(x \cdot \log(x), x = 0)$$

\([\text{leftHandLimit} = "failed", \text{rightHandLimit} = 0]\)

Type: \(\text{Union(Record(leftHandLimit: Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer,"failed"), rightHandLimit: Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer,"failed")),...)}\)
A function can be defined on both sides of a particular value, but tend to different limits as its variable approaches that value from the left and from the right. We can construct an example of this as follows: Since $\sqrt{y^2}$ is simply the absolute value of $y$, the function $\sqrt{y^2}/y$ is simply the sign (+1 or −1) of the nonzero real number $y$. Therefore, $\sqrt{y^2}/y = -1$ for $y < 0$ and $\sqrt{y^2}/y = +1$ for $y > 0$. This is what happens when we take the limit at $y = 0$. The answer returned by Axiom gives both a “left-hand” and a “right-hand” limit.

\[
\lim_{y \to 0} \frac{\sqrt{y^2}}{y} = \begin{cases} 
-1 & \text{if } y < 0 \\
+1 & \text{if } y > 0
\end{cases}
\]

Here is another example, this time using a more complicated function.

\[
\lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\sqrt{1 - \cos(t)}}{t} = \begin{cases} 
-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \text{if } y < 0 \\
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \text{if } y > 0
\end{cases}
\]

You can compute limits at infinity by passing either $+\infty$ or $-\infty$ as the third argument of \textit{limit}. To do this, use the constants \texttt{%plusInfinity} and \texttt{%minusInfinity}.

\[
\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\sqrt{3x^2 + 1}}{5x} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{5}
\]

\[
\lim_{x \to -\infty} \frac{\sqrt{3x^2 + 1}}{5x} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{5}
\]
You can take limits of functions with parameters. As you can see, the limit is expressed in terms of the parameters.

\[ \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sinh(ax)}{\tan(bx)} = \frac{a}{b} \]

Type: Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer,...)

When you use `limit`, you are taking the limit of a real function of a real variable. When you compute this, Axiom returns 0 because, as a function of a real variable, \( \sin(1/z) \) is always between \(-1\) and \(1\), so \(z \cdot \sin(1/z)\) tends to 0 as \(z\) tends to 0.

\[ \lim_{z \to 0} z \cdot \sin(1/z) = 0 \]

Type: Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer,...)

However, as a function of a complex variable, \( \sin(1/z) \) is badly behaved near 0 (one says that \( \sin(1/z) \) has an essential singularity at \(z = 0\)). When viewed as a function of a complex variable, \(z \cdot \sin(1/z)\) does not approach any limit as \(z\) tends to 0 in the complex plane. Axiom indicates this when we call `complexLimit`.

\[ \text{complexLimit}(z \cdot \sin(1/z), z = 0) = \text{"failed"} \]

Type: Union("failed",...)

Here is another example. As \(x\) approaches 0 along the real axis, \(\exp(-1/x^2)\) tends to 0.

\[ \lim_{x \to 0} \exp(-1/x^2) = 0 \]

Type: Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer,...)
However, if \( x \) is allowed to approach 0 along any path in the complex plane, the limiting value of \( \exp(-1/x^{*2}) \) depends on the path taken because the function has an essential singularity at \( x = 0 \). This is reflected in the error message returned by the function.

\[
\text{complexLimit}(\exp(-1/x^{*2}),x = 0)
\]

"failed"

Type: \( \text{Union("failed",...)} \)

You can also take complex limits at infinity, that is, limits of a function of \( z \) as \( z \) approaches infinity on the Riemann sphere. Use the symbol \( \%\text{infinity} \) to denote "complex infinity."

As above, to compute complex limits rather than real limits, use \texttt{complexLimit}.

\[
\text{complexLimit}((2 + z)/(1 - z),z = \%\text{infinity})
\]

\(-1\)

Type: \( \text{OnePointCompletion Fraction Polynomial Integer} \)

In many cases, a limit of a real function of a real variable exists when the corresponding complex limit does not. This limit exists.

\[
\text{limit}(\sin(x)/x,x = \%\text{plusInfinity})
\]

0

Type: \( \text{Union(OrderedCompletion Expression Integer,...)} \)

But this limit does not.

\[
\text{complexLimit}(\sin(x)/x,x = \%\text{infinity})
\]

"failed"

Type: \( \text{Union("failed",...)} \)
8.7 Laplace Transforms

Axiom can compute some forward Laplace transforms, mostly of elementary functions not involving logarithms, although some cases of special functions are handled.

To compute the forward Laplace transform of \( F(t) \) with respect to \( t \) and express the result as \( f(s) \), issue the command \texttt{laplace(F(t),t,s)}.

\[
\text{laplace(sin(a*t)*cosh(a*t)-cos(a*t)*sinh(a*t), t, s)}
\]

\[
\frac{4 a^3}{s^4+4 a^4}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

Here are some other non-trivial examples.

\[
\text{laplace((exp(a*t) - exp(b*t))/t, t, s)}
\]

\[
-\log(s-a) + \log(s-b)
\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[
\text{laplace(2/t * (1 - cos(a*t)), t, s)}
\]

\[
\log(s^2+a^2) - 2 \log(s)
\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[
\text{laplace(exp(-a*t) * sin(b*t) / b**2, t, s)}
\]

\[
\frac{1}{b s^2+2 a b s+b^3+a^2 b}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[
\text{laplace((cos(a*t) - cos(b*t))/t, t, s)}
\]

\[
\frac{\log(s^2+b^2) - \log(s^2+a^2)}{2}
\]

Type: Expression Integer
Axiom also knows about a few special functions.

\[
\text{laplace}\left(\exp(a*t+b)\cdot\text{Ei}(c*t), t, s\right) = \frac{e^b \log \left(\frac{t+c-a}{c}\right)}{s-a}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[
\text{laplace}\left(a\cdot\text{Ci}(b*t) + c\cdot\text{Si}(d*t), t, s\right) = \frac{a \log \left(\frac{t^2+b^2}{b^2}\right) + 2 c \arctan \left(\frac{d}{s}\right)}{2 s}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

When Axiom does not know about a particular transform, it keeps it as a formal transform in the answer.

\[
\text{laplace}\left(\sin(a*t) - a*t\cos(a*t) + \exp(t^2), t, s\right) = \frac{(s^4 + 2 a^2 s^2 + a^4) \text{laplace}\left(e^{t^2}, t, s\right) + 2 a^3}{s^4 + 2 a^2 s^2 + a^4}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

## 8.8 Integration

Integration is the reverse process of differentiation, that is, an integral of a function \( f \) with respect to a variable \( x \) is any function \( g \) such that \( D(g, x) \) is equal to \( f \).

The package FunctionSpaceIntegration provides the top-level integration operation, integrate, for integrating real-valued elementary functions.

\[
\text{integrate}\left(\cosh(a*x)\cdot\sinh(a*x), x\right) = \frac{\sinh(a x)^2 + \cosh(a x)^2}{4 a}
\]

Type: Union(Expression Integer,...)
Unfortunately, antiderivatives of most functions cannot be expressed in terms of elementary functions.

\begin{align*}
\int \log(1 + \sqrt{a * x + b}) / x, x
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{Type: Union(Expression Integer, ...)}
\end{align*}

Given an elementary function to integrate, Axiom returns a formal integral as above only when it can prove that the integral is not elementary and not when it cannot determine the integral. In this rare case it prints a message that it cannot determine if an elementary integral exists.

Similar functions may have antiderivatives that look quite different because the form of the antiderivative depends on the sign of a constant that appears in the function.

\begin{align*}
\int 1/(x^2 - 2), x
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\log\left(\frac{(x^2 + 2) \sqrt{7 - 4x}}{x^2 - 2}\right)
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{Type: Union(Expression Integer, ...)}
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\int 1/(x^2 + 2), x
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\arctan\left(\frac{x \sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2}}\right)
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{Type: Union(Expression Integer, ...)}
\end{align*}

If the integrand contains parameters, then there may be several possible antiderivatives, depending on the signs of expressions of the parameters.

In this case Axiom returns a list of answers that cover all the possible cases. Here you use the answer involving the square root of a when \(a > 0\) and the answer involving the square root of \(-a\) when \(a < 0\).

\begin{align*}
\int x^2 / (x^4 - a^2), x
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\text{Type: Union(Expression Integer, ...)}
\end{align*}
If the parameters and the variables of integration can be complex numbers rather than real, then the notion of sign is not defined. In this case all the possible answers can be expressed as one complex function. To get that function, rather than a list of real functions, use \texttt{complexIntegrate}, which is provided by the package \texttt{FunctionSpaceComplexIntegration}.

This operation is used for integrating complex-valued elementary functions.

\[
\text{complexIntegrate}(x^2 / (x^4 - a^2), x)
\]

\[
\left[ \log \left( \frac{\left(x^2 + a\right) \sqrt{x^2 + 2 a x}}{x^2 - a} \right) + 2 \arctan \left( \frac{x \sqrt{a}}{a} \right) \right] - \frac{\log \left( \frac{\left(x^2 - a\right) \sqrt{x^2 + 2 a x}}{x^2 + a} \right)}{4 \sqrt{-a}}
\]

Type: Union(List Expression Integer,...)

As with the real case, antiderivatives for most complex-valued functions cannot be expressed in terms of elementary functions.

\[
\text{complexIntegrate}(\log(1 + \sqrt{a x + b}) / x, x)
\]

\[
\int x \log \left( \frac{\sqrt{b + \%M a + 1}}{\%M} \right) d\%M
\]

Type: Expression Integer

Sometimes \texttt{integrate} can involve symbolic algebraic numbers such as those returned by \texttt{rootOf}. To see how to work with these strange generated symbols (such as \texttt{\%\%a0}), see 8.3.2 on page 352.
Definite integration is the process of computing the area between the \( x \)-axis and the curve of a function \( f(x) \). The fundamental theorem of calculus states that if \( f \) is continuous on an interval \( a..b \) and if there exists a function \( g \) that is differentiable on \( a..b \) and such that \( D(g,x) \) is equal to \( f \), then the definite integral of \( f \) for \( x \) in the interval \( a..b \) is equal to \( g(b) - g(a) \).

The package \texttt{RationalFunctionDefiniteIntegration} provides the top-level definite integration operation, \texttt{integrate}, for integrating real-valued rational functions.

\[
\text{integrate}\left(\frac{x^4 - 3x^2 + 6}{x^6-5x^4+5x^2+4}, x = 1..2\right)
\]

\[
\frac{2 \arctan(8) + 2 \arctan(5) + 2 \arctan(2) + 2 \arctan\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) - \pi}{2}
\]

Type: \texttt{Union(f1: OrderedCompletion Expression Integer, ...)}

Axiom checks beforehand that the function you are integrating is defined on the interval \( a..b \), and prints an error message if it finds that this is not case, as in the following example:

\[
\text{integrate}(1/(x^2-2), x = 1..2)
\]

\[
>> \text{Error detected within library code:}
\]

\[
\text{Pole in path of integration}
\]

\[
\text{You are being returned to the top level of the interpreter.}
\]

When parameters are present in the function, the function may or may not be defined on the interval of integration.

If this is the case, Axiom issues a warning that a pole might lie in the path of integration, and does not compute the integral.

\[
\text{integrate}(1/(x^2-a), x = 1..2)
\]

\texttt{potentialPole}

Type: \texttt{Union(pole: potentialPole, ...)}

If you know that you are using values of the parameter for which the function has no pole in the interval of integration, use the string \texttt{"noPole"} as a third argument to \texttt{integrate}:

The value here is, of course, incorrect if \( \sqrt{a} \) is between 1 and 2.

\[
\text{integrate}(1/(x^2-a), x = 1..2, "noPole")
\]
8. Working with Power Series

Axiom has very sophisticated facilities for working with power series. Infinite series are represented by a list of the coefficients that have already been determined, together with a function for computing the additional coefficients if needed. The system command that determines how many terms of a series is displayed is \texttt{)set streams calculate}. For the purposes of this book, we have used this system command to display fewer than ten terms. Series can be created from expressions, from functions for the series coefficients, and from applications of operations on existing series. The most general function for creating a series is called \texttt{series}, although you can also use \texttt{taylor}, \texttt{laurent} and \texttt{puiseux} in situations where you know what kind of exponents are involved.

For information about solving differential equations in terms of power series, see \texttt{8.10.3} on page 402.

8.9.1 Creation of Power Series

This is the easiest way to create a power series. This tells Axiom that \texttt{x} is to be treated as a power series, so functions of \texttt{x} are again power series.

\texttt{x := series ’x}

\[
\left[ -\log \left( \frac{-4 a^2 - 4 a \sqrt{a^2 + 6 a^2 + a}}{a^2 - 2 a + 1} \right) + \log \left( \frac{-8 a^2 - 32 a \sqrt{a + a^3 + 24 a^2 + 16 a}}{a^2 - 8 a + 16} \right) \right] \frac{- \arctan \left( \frac{2 \sqrt{-a}}{a} \right) + \arctan \left( \frac{\sqrt{-a}}{a} \right)}{\sqrt{-a}}
\]

Type: \text{Union(f2: List OrderedCompletion Expression Integer, ...)}
We didn’t say anything about the coefficients of the power series, so the coefficients are general expressions over the integers. This allows us to introduce denominators, symbolic constants, and other variables as needed.

Here the coefficients are integers (note that the coefficients are the Fibonacci numbers).

\[
\frac{1}{1 - x - x^2}
\]

\[
1 + x + 2 x^2 + 3 x^3 + 5 x^4 + 8 x^5 + 13 x^6 + 21 x^7 + 34 x^8 + 55 x^9 + 89 x^{10} + O(x^{11})
\]

This series has coefficients that are rational numbers.

\[
\sin(x)
\]

\[
x - \frac{1}{6} x^3 + \frac{1}{120} x^5 - \frac{1}{5040} x^7 + \frac{1}{362880} x^9 - \frac{1}{39916800} x^{11} + O(x^{12})
\]

When you enter this expression you introduce the symbolic constants \( \sin(1) \) and \( \cos(1) \).

\[
\sin(1 + x)
\]

\[
\sin(1) + \cos(1) x - \frac{\sin(1)}{2} x^2 - \frac{\cos(1)}{6} x^3 + \frac{\sin(1)}{24} x^4 + \frac{\cos(1)}{120} x^5 - \frac{\sin(1)}{720} x^6 - \\
\frac{\cos(1)}{5040} x^7 + \frac{\sin(1)}{40320} x^8 + \frac{\cos(1)}{362880} x^9 - \frac{\sin(1)}{3628800} x^{10} + O(x^{11})
\]

When you enter the expression the variable \( a \) appears in the resulting series expansion.

\[
\sin(a * x)
\]

\[
a x - \frac{a^3}{6} x^3 + \frac{a^5}{120} x^5 - \frac{a^7}{5040} x^7 + \frac{a^9}{362880} x^9 - \frac{a^{11}}{39916800} x^{11} + O(x^{12})
\]
You can also convert an expression into a series expansion. This expression creates the series expansion of \(1/\log(y)\) about \(y = 1\). For details and more examples, see 8.9.5 on page 382.

\[
\text{series}(1/\log(y), y = 1)
\]

\[
(y - 1)^{(-1)} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{12} (y - 1) + \frac{1}{24} (y - 1)^2 - \frac{19}{720} (y - 1)^3 + \frac{3}{160} (y - 1)^4 - \frac{863}{60480} (y - 1)^5 + \frac{275}{24192} (y - 1)^6 - \frac{33953}{3628800} (y - 1)^7 + \frac{8183}{1036800} (y - 1)^8 - \frac{3250433}{479001600} (y - 1)^9 + O((y - 1)^{10})
\]

\text{Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, y, 1)}

You can create power series with more general coefficients. You normally accomplish this via a type declaration (see 2.3 on page 138). See 8.9.4 on page 379 for some warnings about working with declared series.

We declare that \(y\) is a one-variable Taylor series (UTS is the abbreviation for UnivariateTaylorSeries) in the variable \(z\) with FLOAT (that is, floating-point) coefficients, centered about 0. Then, by assignment, we obtain the Taylor expansion of \(exp(z)\) with floating-point coefficients.

\[
y : \text{UTS}(\text{FLOAT}, 'z, 0) := \text{exp}(z)
\]

\[
1.0 + z + 0.5 z^2 + 0.1666666666 6666666667 z^3 + 0.0416666666 6666666667 z^4 + 0.0083333333 3333333334 z^5 + 0.0013888888 88888888889 z^6 + 0.0001984126 984126984127 z^7 + 0.0000248015 87301587301587 z^8 + 0.0000027557 319223985890653 z^9 + 0.2755731922 3985890653E - 6 z^{10} + O(z^{11})
\]

\text{Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Float, z, 0.0)}

You can also create a power series by giving an explicit formula for its \(n\)-th coefficient. For details and more examples, see 8.9.6 on page 386.

To create a series about \(w = 0\) whose \(n\)-th Taylor coefficient is \(1/n!\), you can evaluate this expression. This is the Taylor expansion of \(exp(w)\) at \(w = 0\).

\[
\text{series}(1/factorial(n), n, w = 0)
\]
8.9.2 Coefficients of Power Series

You can extract any coefficient from a power series—even one that hasn’t been computed yet. This is possible because in Axiom, infinite series are represented by a list of the coefficients that have already been determined, together with a function for computing the additional coefficients. (This is known as lazy evaluation.) When you ask for a coefficient that hasn’t yet been computed, Axiom computes whatever additional coefficients it needs and then stores them in the representation of the power series.

Here’s an example of how to extract the coefficients of a power series.

\[
x := \text{series}(x)
\]

\[
x
\]

Type: \text{UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)}

\[
y := \text{exp}(x) \times \text{sin}(x)
\]

\[
x + x^2 + \frac{1}{5} x^3 - \frac{1}{30} x^5 - \frac{1}{90} x^6 - \frac{1}{630} x^7 + \frac{1}{22680} x^9 + \frac{1}{113400} x^{10} + \frac{1}{1247400} x^{11} + O(x^{12})
\]

Type: \text{UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)}

This coefficient is readily available.

\[
\text{coefficient}(y, 6)
\]

\[-\frac{1}{90}\]

Type: Expression Integer

But let’s get the fifteenth coefficient of \( y \).
coefficient(y, 15)

\[ -\frac{1}{10216206000} \]

Type: Expression Integer

If you look at \( y \) then you see that the coefficients up to order 15 have all been computed.

\( y \)

\[ x + \frac{x^2}{3} + \frac{1}{30} x^3 - \frac{1}{90} x^5 - \frac{1}{210} x^6 + \frac{1}{2520} x^7 + \frac{1}{113400} x^{10} + \]

\[ -\frac{1}{1247400} x^{11} - \frac{1}{97297200} x^{13} - \frac{1}{681080400} x^{14} - \frac{1}{10216206000} x^{15} + O(x^{16}) \]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

### 8.9.3 Power Series Arithmetic

You can manipulate power series using the usual arithmetic operations +, −, *, and / (from UnivariatePuiseuxSeries)

The results of these operations are also power series.

\( x := \text{series } x \)

\( x \)

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

\( (3 + x) / (1 + 7*x) \)

\[ 3 - 20 x + 140 x^2 - 980 x^3 + 6860 x^4 - 48020 x^5 + 336140 x^6 - 2352980 x^7 + \]

\[ 16470860 x^8 - 115296020 x^9 + 807072140 x^{10} + O(x^{11}) \]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

You can also compute \( f(x) \ast g(x) \), where \( f(x) \) and \( g(x) \) are two power series.

\( \text{base := 1 / (1 - x)} \)
1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8 + x^9 + x^{10} + O(x^{11})

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

\text{expon} := x \times \text{base}

x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7 + x^8 + x^9 + x^{10} + x^{11} + O(x^{12})

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

\text{base} \times \text{expon}

1 + x^2 + \frac{3}{2} x^3 + \frac{7}{3} x^4 + \frac{43}{12} x^5 + \frac{649}{120} x^6 + \frac{241}{30} x^7 + \frac{3706}{315} x^8 +

\frac{85763}{5040} x^9 + \frac{245339}{10080} x^{10} + O(x^{11})

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

### 8.9.4 Functions on Power Series

Once you have created a power series, you can apply transcendental functions (for example, \text{exp}, \text{log}, \text{sin}, \text{tan}, \text{cosh}, etc.) to it.

To demonstrate this, we first create the power series expansion of the rational function

\frac{x^2}{1 - 6x + x^2}

about \( x = 0 \).

\text{x} := \text{series }'\text{x}'

\text{x}

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

\text{rat} := \text{x}^{**2} / (1 - 6*\text{x} + \text{x}^{**2})

\text{x}^2 + 6 x^3 + 35 x^4 + 204 x^5 + 1189 x^6 + 6930 x^7 + 40391 x^8 + 235416 x^9 +

1372105 x^{10} + 7997214 x^{11} + 46611179 x^{12} + O(x^{13})
Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

If you want to compute the series expansion of

$$\sin\left(\frac{x^2}{1 - 6x + x^2}\right)$$

you simply compute the sine of \(\text{rat}\).

$$\sin(\text{rat})$$

$$x^2 + 6x^3 + 35x^4 + 204x^5 + \frac{7133}{6}x^6 + 6927x^7 + \frac{80711}{2}x^8 + 235068x^9 +$$

$$\frac{164285281}{120}x^{10} + \frac{31888513}{4}x^{11} + \frac{371324777}{8}x^{12} + \mathcal{O}(x^{13})$$

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

**Warning:** the type of the coefficients of a power series may affect the kind of computations that you can do with that series. This can only happen when you have made a declaration to specify a series domain with a certain type of coefficient.

If you evaluate then you have declared that \(y\) is a one variable Taylor series (UTS is the abbreviation for UnivariateTaylorSeries) in the variable \(y\) with \(\text{FRAC INT}\) (that is, fractions of integer) coefficients, centered about 0.

$$y : \text{UTS(\text{FRAC INT}, y, 0)} := y$$

$$y$$

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Fraction Integer, y, 0)

You can now compute certain power series in \(y\), *provided* that these series have rational coefficients.

$$\exp(y)$$

$$1 + y + \frac{1}{2}y^2 + \frac{1}{6}y^3 + \frac{1}{24}y^4 + \frac{1}{120}y^5 + \frac{1}{720}y^6 + \frac{1}{5040}y^7 + \frac{1}{40320}y^8 +$$

$$\frac{1}{362880}y^9 + \frac{1}{3628800}y^{10} + \mathcal{O}(y^{11})$$
You can get examples of such series by applying transcendental functions to series in \( y \) that have no constant terms.

\[
\tan(y^2)
\]

\[
y^2 + \frac{1}{3} y^6 + \frac{2}{15} y^{10} + O(y^{11})
\]

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Fraction Integer, y, 0)

\[
\cos(y + y^5)
\]

\[
1 - \frac{1}{2} y^2 + \frac{1}{24} y^4 - \frac{721}{720} y^6 + \frac{6721}{40320} y^8 - \frac{1844641}{3628800} y^{10} + O(y^{11})
\]

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Fraction Integer, y, 0)

Similarly, you can compute the logarithm of a power series with rational coefficients if the constant coefficient is 1.

\[
\log(1 + \sin(y))
\]

\[
y - \frac{1}{2} y^2 + \frac{1}{8} y^3 - \frac{1}{12} y^4 + \frac{1}{24} y^5 - \frac{1}{40} y^6 + \frac{61}{3048} y^7 - \frac{17}{2720} y^8 + \frac{277}{20160} y^9 - \\
\frac{31}{14175} y^{10} + O(y^{11})
\]

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Fraction Integer, y, 0)

If you wanted to apply, say, the operation \( \exp \) to a power series with a nonzero constant coefficient \( a_0 \), then the constant coefficient of the result would be \( e^{a_0} \), which is not a rational number. Therefore, evaluating \( \exp(2 + \tan(y)) \) would generate an error message.

If you want to compute the Taylor expansion of \( \exp(2 + \tan(y)) \), you must ensure that the coefficient domain has an operation \( \exp \) defined for it. An example of such a domain is \text{Expression Integer}, the type of formal functional expressions over the integers.

When working with coefficients of this type,

\[
z : \text{UTS(EXPR INT, z, 0)} := z
\]
This presents no problems.

\[
\exp(2 + \tan(z)) = e^2 z + \frac{e^2}{2} z^2 + \frac{3 e^2}{8} z^3 + \frac{17 e^2}{120} z^4 + \frac{59 e^2}{240} z^5 + \frac{137 e^2}{720} z^7 + \\
\frac{871 e^2}{5760} z^8 + \frac{41641 e^2}{362880} z^9 + \frac{325249 e^2}{3628800} z^{10} + O(z^{11})
\]

Another way to create Taylor series whose coefficients are expressions over the integers is to use \texttt{taylor} which works similarly to \texttt{series}.

This is equivalent to the previous computation, except that now we are using the variable \(w\) instead of \(z\).

\[
w := \text{taylor} ' w
\]

\[
w
\]

\[
\exp(2 + \tan(w)) = e^2 w + \frac{e^2}{2} w^2 + \frac{3 e^2}{8} w^3 + \frac{17 e^2}{120} w^4 + \frac{59 e^2}{240} w^5 + \frac{137 e^2}{720} w^7 + \\
\frac{871 e^2}{5760} w^8 + \frac{41641 e^2}{362880} w^9 + \frac{325249 e^2}{3628800} w^{10} + O(w^{11})
\]

\[
\text{Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer,w,0)}
\]

8.9.5 Converting to Power Series

The \texttt{ExpressionToUnivariatePowerSeries} package provides operations for computing series expansions of functions.

Evaluate this to compute the Taylor expansion of \(\sin x\) about \(x = 0\). The first argument, \(\sin(x)\), specifies the function whose series expansion is to be computed and the second argument, \(x = 0\), specifies that the series is to be expanded in power of \((x - 0)\), that is, in power of \(x\).
taylor(sin(x), x = 0)

\[ x - \frac{1}{6} x^3 + \frac{1}{120} x^5 - \frac{1}{5040} x^7 + \frac{1}{362880} x^9 + O(x^{11}) \]

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

Here is the Taylor expansion of \( \sin x \) about \( x = \frac{\pi}{6} \):

taylor(sin(x), x = %pi/6)

\[ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{6} \right) - \frac{1}{4} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{6} \right)^2 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{12} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{6} \right)^3 + \frac{1}{48} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{6} \right)^4 + \]

\[ \frac{\sqrt{3}}{240} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{6} \right)^5 - \frac{1}{1440} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{6} \right)^6 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{10080} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{6} \right)^7 + \frac{1}{80640} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{6} \right)^8 + \]

\[ \frac{\sqrt{3}}{725760} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{6} \right)^9 - \frac{1}{7257600} \left( x - \frac{\pi}{6} \right)^{10} + O \left( \left( x - \frac{\pi}{6} \right)^{11} \right) \]

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer, x, pi/6)

The function to be expanded into a series may have variables other than the series variable.

For example, we may expand \( \tan(x*y) \) as a Taylor series in \( x \)

\[ y \cdot x + \frac{y^3}{3} x^3 + \frac{2 y^5}{15} x^5 + \frac{17 y^7}{315} x^7 + \frac{62 y^9}{2835} x^9 + O(x^{11}) \]

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

or as a Taylor series in \( y \).

\[ x \cdot y + \frac{x^3}{3} y^3 + \frac{2 x^5}{15} y^5 + \frac{17 x^7}{315} y^7 + \frac{62 x^9}{2835} y^9 + O(y^{11}) \]

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer, y, 0)

A more interesting function is

\[ \frac{t e^t}{e^t - 1} \]

When we expand this function as a Taylor series in \( t \) the \( n \)-th order coefficient is the \( n \)-th Bernoulli polynomial divided by \( n! \).
bern := taylor(t*exp(x*t)/(exp(t) - 1), t = 0)

\[
1 + \frac{2x^1}{2} t + \frac{6x^2 - 6x^1}{12} t^2 + \frac{2x^3 - 3x^2 + x}{12} t^3 + \\
\frac{30x^4 - 60x^3 + 30x^2 - 1}{720} t^4 + \frac{6x^5 - 15x^4 + 10x^3 - x}{720} t^5 + \\
\frac{42x^6 - 126x^5 + 105x^4 - 21x^3 + 1}{30240} t^6 + \frac{6x^7 - 21x^6 + 21x^5 - 7x^3 + x}{30240} t^7 + \\
\frac{30x^8 - 120x^7 + 140x^6 - 70x^4 + 20x^2 - 1}{1209600} t^8 + \\
\frac{10x^9 - 45x^8 + 60x^7 - 42x^5 + 20x^3 - 3x}{3628800} t^9 + \\
\frac{66x^{10} - 330x^9 + 495x^8 - 462x^6 + 330x^4 - 99x^2 + 5}{239500800} t^{10} + O(t^{11})
\]

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer, t, 0)

Therefore, this and the next expression produce the same result.

factorial(6) * coefficient(bern, 6)

\[
\frac{42x^6 - 126x^5 + 105x^4 - 21x^3 + 1}{42}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

bernoullib(6, x)

\[
x^6 - 3x^5 + \frac{5}{2}x^4 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{42}
\]

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

Technically, a series with terms of negative degree is not considered to be a Taylor series, but, rather, a Laurent series. If you try to compute a Taylor series expansion of \(\frac{1}{\log x}\) at \(x = 1\) via \(\text{taylor}(x/\log(x), x = 1)\) you get an error message. The reason is that the function has a pole at \(x = 1\), meaning that its series expansion about this point has terms of negative degree. A series with finitely many terms of negative degree is called a Laurent series.

You get the desired series expansion by issuing this.
laurent(x/log(x), x = 1)

\[
\begin{align*}
&\left(x-1\right)^{-1} + \frac{3}{2} + \frac{5}{72} \left(x-1\right) - \frac{1}{24} \left(x-1\right)^2 + \frac{11}{720} \left(x-1\right)^3 - \frac{11}{1440} \left(x-1\right)^4 + \\
&\frac{271}{60480} \left(x-1\right)^5 - \frac{13}{4480} \left(x-1\right)^6 + \frac{7297}{3628800} \left(x-1\right)^7 - \frac{425}{290304} \left(x-1\right)^8 + \\
&\frac{530113}{479001600} \left(x-1\right)^9 + O\left(\left(x-1\right)^{10}\right)
\end{align*}
\]

Type: UnivariateLaurentSeries(Expression Integer, x, 1)

Similarly, a series with terms of fractional degree is neither a Taylor series nor a Laurent series. Such a series is called a Puiseux series. The expression

\[
\text{puiseux}\left(\sqrt{\sec(x)}, x = 3 \times \frac{\pi}{2}\right)
\]

results in an error message because the series expansion about this point has terms of fractional degree.

However, this command produces what you want.

\[
\text{puiseux}\left(\sqrt{\sec(x)}, x = 3 \times \frac{\pi}{2}\right)
\]

\[
\left(x - \frac{3\pi}{2}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{1}{12} \left(x - \frac{3\pi}{2}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} + \frac{1}{160} \left(x - \frac{3\pi}{2}\right)^{\frac{5}{2}} + O\left(\left(x - \frac{3\pi}{2}\right)^5\right)
\]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, (3*pi)/2)

Finally, consider the case of functions that do not have Puiseux expansions about certain points. An example of this is \(x^x\) about \(x = 0\). \(\text{puiseux}(x^x, x = 0)\) produces an error message because of the type of singularity of the function at \(x = 0\).

The general function \(\text{series}\) can be used in this case. Notice that the series returned is not, strictly speaking, a power series because of the \(\log(x)\) in the expansion.

\[
\text{series}(x^x, x = 0)
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
1 + \log(x) x + \frac{\log(x)^2}{2} x^2 + \frac{\log(x)^3}{6} x^3 + \frac{\log(x)^4}{24} x^4 + \frac{\log(x)^5}{120} x^5 + \frac{\log(x)^6}{720} x^6 + \\
\frac{\log(x)^7}{5040} x^7 + \frac{\log(x)^8}{40320} x^8 + \frac{\log(x)^9}{362880} x^9 + \frac{\log(x)^{10}}{3628800} x^{10} + O(x^{11})
\end{align*}
\]

Type: GeneralUnivariatePowerSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

The operation \(\text{series}\) returns the most general type of infinite series. The user who is not interested in distinguishing between various types of infinite series may wish to use this operation exclusively.
8.9.6 Power Series from Formulas

The `GenerateUnivariatePowerSeries` package enables you to create power series from explicit formulas for their \( n \)-th coefficients. In what follows, we construct series expansions for certain transcendental functions by giving formulas for their coefficients. You can also compute such series expansions directly simply by specifying the function and the point about which the series is to be expanded. See 8.9.5 on page 382 for more information.

Consider the Taylor expansion of \( e^x \) about \( x = 0 \):

\[
e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \cdots
\]

\[
= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}
\]

The \( n \)-th Taylor coefficient is \( 1/n! \).

This is how you create this series in Axiom.

\[
\text{series}(n \to 1/factorial(n), x = 0)
\]

\[
1 + x + \frac{1}{2} x^2 + \frac{1}{6} x^3 + \frac{1}{24} x^4 + \frac{1}{120} x^5 + \frac{1}{720} x^6 + \frac{1}{5040} x^7 + \frac{1}{40320} x^8 + \\
\frac{1}{362880} x^9 + \frac{1}{3628800} x^{10} + O(x^{11})
\]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

The first argument specifies a formula for the \( n \)-th coefficient by giving a function that maps \( n \) to \( 1/n! \). The second argument specifies that the series is to be expanded in powers of \( (x - 0) \), that is, in powers of \( x \). Since we did not specify an initial degree, the first term in the series was the term of degree 0 (the constant term). Note that the formula was given as an anonymous function. These are discussed in 6.17 on page 268.

Consider the Taylor expansion of \( \log(x) \) about \( x = 1 \):

\[
\log(x) = (x - 1) - \frac{(x - 1)^2}{2} + \frac{(x - 1)^3}{3} - \cdots
\]

\[
= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{(x - 1)^n}{n}
\]

If you were to evaluate the expression \( \text{series}(n \to (-1) \times (n-1)/n, x = 1) \) you would get an error message because Axiom would try to calculate a term of degree 0 and therefore divide by 0.
Instead, evaluate this. The third argument, 1..., indicates that only terms of degree
\( n = 1,... \) are to be computed.

\[
s\mapsto (-1)^{(n-1)/n}/n, x = 1,1..\]

\[
(x - 1) - \frac{1}{2} (x - 1)^2 + \frac{1}{3} (x - 1)^3 - \frac{1}{4} (x - 1)^4 + \frac{1}{5} (x - 1)^5 - \frac{1}{6} (x - 1)^6 +
\]

\[
\frac{1}{7} (x - 1)^7 - \frac{1}{8} (x - 1)^8 + \frac{1}{9} (x - 1)^9 - \frac{1}{10} (x - 1)^{10} + \frac{1}{11} (x - 1)^{11} +
\]

\[O\left((x - 1)^{12}\right)\]

Type: \texttt{UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer,x,1)}

Next consider the Taylor expansion of an odd function, say, \( \sin(x) \):

\[\sin(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \cdots\]

Here every other coefficient is zero and we would like to give an explicit formula only
for the odd Taylor coefficients.

This is one way to do it. The third argument, 1..., specifies that the first term to be
computed is the term of degree 1. The fourth argument, 2, specifies that we increment
by 2 to find the degrees of subsequent terms, that is, the next term is of degree 1 + 2,
the next of degree 1 + 2 + 2, etc.

\[
s\mapsto (-1)^{(n-1)/2}/\text{factorial}(n), x = 0,1..,2\]

\[
x - \frac{1}{6} x^3 + \frac{1}{120} x^5 - \frac{1}{5040} x^7 + \frac{1}{362880} x^9 - \frac{1}{39916800} x^{11} + O\left(x^{12}\right)\]

Type: \texttt{UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer,x,0)}

The initial degree and the increment do not have to be integers. For example, this
expression produces a series expansion of \( \sin(x^{1/3}) \).

\[
s\mapsto (-1)^{(3n-1)/2}/\text{factorial}(3n), x = 0,1/3..,2/3\]

\[
x^{1/3} - \frac{1}{6} x + \frac{1}{120} x^{5/3} - \frac{1}{5040} x^{7/3} + \frac{1}{362880} x^{3} - \frac{1}{39916800} x^{11/3} + O\left(x^{4}\right)\]

Type: \texttt{UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer,x,0)}

While the increment must be positive, the initial degree may be negative. This yields
the Laurent expansion of \( \csc(x) \) at \( x = 0 \). (\texttt{bernoulli(numer(n+1))} is necessary because
\texttt{bernoulli} takes integer arguments.)
cscx := series(n +-> (-1)**((n-1)/2) * 2 * (2**n-1) * bernoulli(numer(n+1)) / factorial(n+1), x=0, -1..,2)

\[ x^{(-1)} + \frac{1}{6} x + \frac{7}{360} x^3 + \frac{31}{15120} x^5 + \frac{127}{604800} x^7 + \frac{73}{3421440} x^9 + O(x^{10}) \]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

Of course, the reciprocal of this power series is the Taylor expansion of \( \sin(x) \).

1/cscx

\[ x - \frac{1}{6} x^3 + \frac{1}{120} x^5 - \frac{1}{5040} x^7 + \frac{1}{362880} x^9 - \frac{1}{39916800} x^{11} + O(x^{12}) \]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

As a final example, here is the Taylor expansion of \( \arcsin(x) \) about \( x = 0 \).

asinx := series(n +-> binomial(n-1,(n-1)/2)/(n*2**(n-1)),x=0,1..,2)

\[ x + \frac{1}{6} x^3 + \frac{3}{40} x^5 + \frac{5}{112} x^7 + \frac{35}{1152} x^9 + \frac{63}{2816} x^{11} + O(x^{12}) \]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)

When we compute the \( \sin \) of this series, we get \( x \) (in the sense that all higher terms computed so far are zero).

\( \sin(\text{asinx}) \)

\[ x + O(x^{12}) \]

Type: UnivariatePuiseuxSeries(Expression Integer, x, 0)
Axiom isn’t sufficiently “symbolic” in the sense we might wish. It is an open problem to decide that “x” is the only surviving term. Two attacks on the problem might be:

1. Notice that all of the higher terms are identically zero but Axiom can’t decide that from the information it knows. Presumably we could attack this problem by looking at the sin function as a taylor series around x=0 and seeing the term cancellation occur. This uses a term-difference mechanism.

2. Notice that there is no way to decide that the stream for asinx is actually the definition of asin(x). But we could recognize that the stream for asin(x) has a generator term and so will a taylor series expansion of sin(x). From these two generators it may be possible in certain cases to decide that the application of one generator to the other will yield only “x”. This trick involves finding the correct inverse for the stream functions. If we can find an inverse for the “remaining tail” of the stream we could conclude cancellation and thus turn an infinite stream into a finite object.

In general this is the zero-equivalence problem and is undecidable.

As we discussed in 8.9.5 on page 382, you can also use the operations taylor, laurent and puiseux instead of series if you know ahead of time what kind of exponents a series has. You can’t go wrong using series, though.

### 8.9.7 Substituting Numerical Values in Power Series

Use eval to substitute a numerical value for a variable in a power series. For example, here’s a way to obtain numerical approximations of \( e \) from the Taylor series expansion of \( \exp(x) \).

First you create the desired Taylor expansion.

```plaintext
f := taylor(exp(x))
```

\[
1 + x + \frac{1}{2} x^2 + \frac{1}{6} x^3 + \frac{1}{24} x^4 + \frac{1}{120} x^5 + \frac{1}{720} x^6 + \frac{1}{5040} x^7 + \frac{1}{40320} x^8 + \frac{1}{362880} x^9 + \frac{1}{3628800} x^{10} + O(x^{11})
\]

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer,x,0)

Then you evaluate the series at the value 1.0. The result is a sequence of the partial sums.

```plaintext
eval(f,1.0)
```
8.9.8 Example: Bernoulli Polynomials and Sums of Powers

Axiom provides operations for computing definite and indefinite sums. You can compute the sum of the first ten fourth powers by evaluating this. This creates a list whose entries are \( m^4 \) as \( m \) ranges from 1 to 10, and then computes the sum of the entries of that list.

\[
\text{reduce}(+, [m^4 \text{ for } m \text{ in } 1..10])
\]

\[25333\]

You can also compute a formula for the sum of the first \( k \) fourth powers, where \( k \) is an unspecified positive integer.

\[
\text{sum4} := \text{sum}(m^4, m = 1..k)
\]

\[
\frac{6 k^5 + 15 k^4 + 10 k^3 - k}{30}
\]

This formula is valid for any positive integer \( k \). For instance, if we replace \( k \) by 10, we obtain the number we computed earlier.

\[
\text{eval(sum4, } k = 10\text{)}
\]

\[25333\]

You can compute a formula for the sum of the first \( k \) \( n \)-th powers in a similar fashion. Just replace the 4 in the definition of \( \text{sum4} \) by any expression not involving \( k \). Axiom computes these formulas using Bernoulli polynomials; we use the rest of this section to describe this method.

First consider this function of \( t \) and \( x \).
\( f := t \cdot \exp(x \cdot t) / (\exp(t) - 1) \)
\[
\frac{t \cdot e^{(t \cdot x)}}{e^{t} - 1}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

Since the expressions involved get quite large, we tell Axiom to show us only terms of degree up to 5.

\)

If we look at the Taylor expansion of \( f(x, t) \) about \( t = 0 \), we see that the coefficients of the powers of \( t \) are polynomials in \( x \).

\[
ff := \text{taylor}(f, t = 0)
\]
\[
1 + \frac{2 x - 1}{2} t + \frac{6 x^2 - 6 x + 1}{12} t^2 + \frac{2 x^3 - 3 x^2 + x}{12} t^3 + \\
\frac{30 x^4 - 60 x^3 + 30 x^2 - 1}{720} t^4 + \frac{6 x^5 - 15 x^4 + 10 x^3 - x}{720} t^5 + O(t^6)
\]

Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer, t, 0)

In fact, the \( n \)-th coefficient in this series is essentially the \( n \)-th Bernoulli polynomial: the \( n \)-th coefficient of the series is \( \frac{1}{n!} B_n(x) \), where \( B_n(x) \) is the \( n \)-th Bernoulli polynomial. Thus, to obtain the \( n \)-th Bernoulli polynomial, we multiply the \( n \)-th coefficient of the series \( ff \) by \( n! \).

For example, the sixth Bernoulli polynomial is this.

\[
\text{factorial}(6) \ast \text{coefficient}(ff, 6)
\]
\[
\frac{42 \cdot x^6 - 126 \cdot x^5 + 105 \cdot x^4 - 21 \cdot x^2 + 1}{42}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

We derive some properties of the function \( f(x, t) \). First we compute \( f(x + 1, t) - f(x, t) \).

\[
g := \text{eval}(f, x = x + 1) - f
\]
\[
\frac{t \cdot e^{(t \cdot x + t)} - t \cdot e^{(t \cdot x)}}{e^{t} - 1}
\]
If we normalize $g$, we see that it has a particularly simple form.

\[
\text{normalize}(g)
\]
\[
t e^{(t \cdot x)}
\]

From this it follows that the $n$-th coefficient in the Taylor expansion of $g(x,t)$ at $t = 0$ is

\[
\frac{1}{(n-1)!} x^{n-1}
\]

If you want to check this, evaluate the next expression.

\[
\text{taylor}(g,t = 0)
\]
\[
t + x t^2 + \frac{x^2}{2} t^3 + \frac{x^3}{6} t^4 + \frac{x^4}{24} t^5 + O(t^6)
\]

However, since $g(x,t) = f(x+1,t) - f(x,t)$ it follows that the $n$-th coefficient is

\[
\frac{1}{n!} (B_n(x+1) - B_n(x))
\]

Equating coefficients, we see that

\[
\frac{1}{(n-1)!} x^{n-1} = \frac{1}{n!} (B_n(x+1) - B_n(x))
\]

and, therefore,

\[
x^{n-1} = \frac{1}{n} (B_n(x+1) - B_n(x))
\]

Let’s apply this formula repeatedly, letting $x$ vary between two integers $a$ and $b$, with $a < b$:

\[
a^{n-1} = \frac{1}{n!} (B_n(a+1) - B_n(a))
\]
\[
(a+1)^{n-1} = \frac{1}{n!} (B_n(a+2) - B_n(a+1))
\]
\[
(a+2)^{n-1} = \frac{1}{n!} (B_n(a+3) - B_n(a+2))
\]
\[
\vdots
\]
\[
(b-1)^{n-1} = \frac{1}{n!} (B_n(b) - B_n(b-1))
\]
\[
b^{n-1} = \frac{1}{n!} (B_n(b+1) - B_n(b))
\]
When we add these equations we find that the sum of the left-hand sides is
\[ \sum_{m=a}^{b} m^{n-1}, \]
the sum of the \((n-1)^{st}\) powers from \(a\) to \(b\). The sum of the right-hand sides is a “telescoping series.” After cancellation, the sum is simply
\[ \frac{1}{n} (B_n(b + 1) - B_n(a)) \]
Replacing \(n\) by \(n + 1\), we have shown that
\[ \sum_{m=a}^{b} m^n = \frac{1}{n+1} (B_{n+1}(b + 1) - B_{n+1}(a)) \]
Let’s use this to obtain the formula for the sum of fourth powers.
First we obtain the Bernoulli polynomial \(B_5\).
\[
B_5 := \text{factorial}(5) \times \text{coefficient}(ff, 5)
\]
\[
\frac{6x^5 - 15x^4 + 10x^3 - x}{6}
\]
Type: Expression Integer
To find the sum of the first \(k\) 4th powers, we multiply \(1/5\) by \(B_5(k + 1) - B_5(1)\).
\[
\frac{6k^5 + 15k^4 + 10k^3 - k}{30}
\]
Type: Expression Integer
This is the same formula that we obtained via \(\text{sum}(m \ast 4, m = 1..k)\).
\[
\text{sum4}
\frac{6k^5 + 15k^4 + 10k^3 - k}{30}
\]
Type: Fraction Polynomial Integer
At this point you may want to do the same computation, but with an exponent other than 4. For example, you might try to find a formula for the sum of the first \(k\) 20th powers.
8.10 Solution of Differential Equations

In this section we discuss Axiom’s facilities for solving differential equations in closed-form and in series.

Axiom provides facilities for closed-form solution of single differential equations of the following kinds:

- linear ordinary differential equations, and
- non-linear first order ordinary differential equations when integrating factors can be found just by integration.

For a discussion of the solution of systems of linear and polynomial equations, see 8.5 on page 358.

8.10.1 Closed-Form Solutions of Linear Differential Equations

A differential equation is an equation involving an unknown function and one or more of its derivatives. The equation is called ordinary if derivatives with respect to only one dependent variable appear in the equation (it is called partial otherwise). The package ElementaryFunctionODESolver provides the top-level operation solve for finding closed-form solutions of ordinary differential equations.

To solve a differential equation, you must first create an operator for the unknown function.

We let \( y \) be the unknown function in terms of \( x \).

\[
y := \text{operator } 'y
\]

\[
\text{Type: BasicOperator}
\]

You then type the equation using \( D \) to create the derivatives of the unknown function \( y(x) \) where \( x \) is any symbol you choose (the so-called dependent variable).

This is how you enter the equation \( y'' + y' + y = 0 \).

\[
deq := D(y \ x, x, 2) + D(y \ x, x) + y \ x = 0
\]

\[
\text{Type: Equation Expression Integer}
\]

The simplest way to invoke the solve command is with three arguments.
• the differential equation,
• the operator representing the unknown function,
• the dependent variable.

So, to solve the above equation, we enter this.

```
solve(deq, y, x)
```

```
particular = 0, basis = [cos(\(\frac{x \sqrt{3}}{2}\)) e^{(-\frac{x}{2})}, e^{(-\frac{x}{2})} sin(\(\frac{x \sqrt{3}}{2}\))]
```

Type: Union(Record(particular: Expression Integer, basis: List Expression Integer), ...)

Since linear ordinary differential equations have infinitely many solutions, solve returns a particular solution \(f_p\) and a basis \(f_1, \ldots, f_n\) for the solutions of the corresponding homogenous equation. Any expression of the form

\[f_p + c_1 f_1 + \ldots + c_n f_n\]

where the \(c_i\) do not involve the dependent variable is also a solution. This is similar to what you get when you solve systems of linear algebraic equations.

A way to select a unique solution is to specify initial conditions: choose a value \(a\) for the dependent variable and specify the values of the unknown function and its derivatives at \(a\). If the number of initial conditions is equal to the order of the equation, then the solution is unique (if it exists in closed form!) and solve tries to find it. To specify initial conditions to solve, use an Equation of the form \(x = a\) for the third parameter instead of the dependent variable, and add a fourth parameter consisting of the list of values \(y(a), y'(a), \ldots\).

To find the solution of \(y'' + y = 0\) satisfying \(y(0) = y'(0) = 1\), do this.

```
deq := D(y x, x, 2) + y x
```

```
y''(x) + y(x)
```

Type: Expression Integer

You can omit the = 0 when you enter the equation to be solved.

```
solve(deq, y, x = 0, [1, 1])
```

```
sin(x) + cos(x)
```
Axiom is not limited to linear differential equations with constant coefficients. It can also find solutions when the coefficients are rational or algebraic functions of the dependent variable. Furthermore, Axiom is not limited by the order of the equation. Axiom can solve the following third order equations with polynomial coefficients.

\[
deq := x^3 \frac{d^3 y}{dx^3} + x^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 2x \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = 2x^4
\]

Type: Equation Expression Integer

\[
\text{solve}(deq, y, x) = \left[ \right.
\begin{array}{l}
\text{particular} = \frac{x^5 - 10x^3 + 20x^2 + 4}{15x}, \\
basis = \left[ \frac{2x^3 - 3x^2 + 1}{x}, \frac{x^3 - 1}{x}, \frac{x^3 - 3x^2 - 1}{x} \right] \right]
\]

Type: Union(Record(particular: Expression Integer, basis: List Expression Integer), ...)

Here we are solving a homogeneous equation.

\[
deq := (x^9 + x^3) \frac{d^3 y}{dx^3} + 18x^8 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 90x \frac{dy}{dx} - 30(11x^6 - 3)y
\]

\[
(x^9 + x^3) \frac{d^3 y}{dx^3} + 18x^8 \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} - 90x \frac{dy}{dx} + \left( -330x^6 + 90 \right)y
\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[
\text{solve}(deq, y, x) = \left[ \right.
\begin{array}{l}
\text{particular} = 0, \\
basis = \left[ \frac{x}{x^6 + 1}, \frac{xe^{(-\sqrt{91} \log(x))}}{x^6 + 1}, \frac{xe^{(\sqrt{91} \log(x))}}{x^6 + 1} \right] \right]
\]

Type: Union(Record(particular: Expression Integer, basis: List Expression Integer), ...)

On the other hand, and in contrast with the operation \texttt{integrate}, it can happen that Axiom finds no solution and that some closed-form solution still exists. While it is mathematically complicated to describe exactly when the solutions are guaranteed to be found, the following statements are correct and form good guidelines for linear ordinary differential equations:

- If the coefficients are constants, Axiom finds a complete basis of solutions (i.e., all solutions).
- If the coefficients are rational functions in the dependent variable, Axiom at least finds all solutions that do not involve algebraic functions.

Note that this last statement does not mean that Axiom does not find the solutions that are algebraic functions. It means that it is not guaranteed that the algebraic function solutions will be found.

This is an example where all the algebraic solutions are found.

\texttt{deq := (x**2 + 1) \* D(y x, x, 2) + 3 \* x \* D(y x, x) + y x = 0}

\texttt{(x^2+1 \ y'(x) + 3 \ x \ y'(x) + y(x) = 0)}

\texttt{solve(deq, y, x)}

\texttt{[particular = 0, basis = [\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}}, log(\sqrt{x^2+1} - x)]}}

\texttt{Type: Union(Record(particular: Expression Integer, basis: List Expression Integer), ...)}

\subsection{Closed-Form Solutions of Non-Linear Differential Equations}

This is an example that shows how to solve a non-linear first order ordinary differential equation manually when an integrating factor can be found just by integration. At the end, we show you how to solve it directly.

Let’s solve the differential equation \( y' = y/(x+\log y) \).

Using the notation \( m(x,y) + n(x,y) y' = 0 \), we have \( m = -y \) and \( n = x + y \log y \).

\texttt{m := -y}
\(-y\)

Type: Polynomial Integer

\(n := x + y \cdot \log y\)

\(y \log (y) + x\)

Type: Expression Integer

We first check for exactness, that is, does \(\frac{dm}{dy} = \frac{dn}{dx}\)?

\(D(m, y) - D(n, x)\)

\(-2\)

Type: Expression Integer

This is not zero, so the equation is not exact. Therefore we must look for an integrating factor: a function \(\mu(x, y)\) such that \(\frac{d(\mu m)}{dy} = \frac{d(\mu n)}{dx}\). Normally, we first search for \(\mu(x, y)\) depending only on \(x\) or only on \(y\).

Let's search for such a \(\mu(x)\) first.

\(\mu := \text{operator 'mu}\)

\(\mu\)

Type: BasicOperator

\(a := D(\mu(x) \ast m, y) - D(\mu(x) \ast n, x)\)

\((-y \log (y) - x) \, \mu'(x) - 2 \, \mu(x)\)

Type: Expression Integer

If the above is zero for a function \(\mu\) that does not depend on \(y\), then \(\mu(x)\) is an integrating factor.

\(\text{solve}(a = 0, \mu, x)\)
\[
\begin{align*}
\text{particular} &= 0, \\
\text{basis} &= \left[ \frac{1}{y^2 \log(y)^2 + 2 \times y \log(y) + x^2} \right] \\
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Union(Record(particular: Expression Integer, basis: List Expression Integer), ...)

The solution depends on \(y\), so there is no integrating factor that depends on \(x\) only. Let’s look for one that depends on \(y\) only.

\[
b := D(\mu(y) \times m, y) - D(\mu(y) \times n, x)
\]

\(-y \mu'(y) - 2 \mu(y)\)

Type: Expression Integer

\[
sb := \text{solve}(b = 0, \mu, y)
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{particular} &= 0, \\
\text{basis} &= \left[ \frac{1}{y^2} \right] \\
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Union(Record(particular: Expression Integer, basis: List Expression Integer), ...)

We’ve found one!

The above \(\mu(y)\) is an integrating factor. We must multiply our initial equation (that is, \(m\) and \(n\)) by the integrating factor.

\[
\text{intFactor} := sb\.basis\.1
\]

\[
\frac{1}{y^2}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[
m := \text{intFactor} \times m
\]

\[-\frac{1}{y}\]

Type: Expression Integer
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\[
\begin{align*}
\text{n := intFactor * n} \\
\frac{y \log(y) + x}{y^2}
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

Let’s check for exactness.

\[D(m, y) - D(n, x)\]

\[0\]

Type: Expression Integer

We must solve the exact equation, that is, find a function \(s(x, y)\) such that \(ds/dx = m\) and \(ds/dy = n\).

We start by writing \(s(x, y) = h(y) + \text{integrate}(m, x)\) where \(h(y)\) is an unknown function of \(y\). This guarantees that \(ds/dx = m\).

\[h := \text{operator ’h}\]

\[h\]

Type: BasicOperator

\[\text{sol := h y + integrate(m, x)}\]

\[\frac{y h(y) - x}{y}\]

Type: Expression Integer

All we want is to find \(h(y)\) such that \(ds/dy = n\).

\[\text{dsol := D(sol, y)}\]

\[\frac{y^2 h'(y) + x}{y^2}\]

Type: Expression Integer
nsol := solve(dsol = n, h, y)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{particular} &= \frac{\log(y)^2}{2}, \text{basis} = [1] \\
\text{Type: Union(Record(particular: Expression Integer, basis: List Expression Integer),...)}
\end{align*}
\]

The above particular solution is the \( h(y) \) we want, so we just replace \( h(y) \) by it in the implicit solution.

eval(sol, h y = nsol.particular)

\[
\frac{y \log(y)^2 - 2x}{2y}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

A first integral of the initial equation is obtained by setting this result equal to an arbitrary constant.

Now that we’ve seen how to solve the equation “by hand,” we show you how to do it with the \texttt{solve} operation.

First define \( y \) to be an operator.

\[
y := \text{operator 'y}
\]

\[
y
\]

Type: BasicOperator

Next we create the differential equation.

\[
deq \ := D(y(x, x) = y(x) / (x + y(x) \cdot \log y(x))
\]

\[
y' (x) = \frac{y(x)}{y(x) \log(y(x)) + x}
\]

Type: Equation Expression Integer

Finally, we solve it.

\[
solve(deq, y, x)
\]

\[
\frac{y(x) \log(y(x))^2 - 2x}{2y(x)}
\]

Type: Union(Expression Integer,...)
8.10.3  Power Series Solutions of Differential Equations

The command to solve differential equations in power series around a particular initial point with specific initial conditions is called \texttt{seriesSolve}. It can take a variety of parameters, so we illustrate its use with some examples.

Since the coefficients of some solutions are quite large, we reset the default to compute only seven terms.

\begin{code}
)set streams calculate 7
\end{code}

You can solve a single nonlinear equation of any order. For example, we solve

\[ y''' = \sin(y'') \cdot \exp(y) + \cos(x) \]

subject to

\[ y(0) = 1, y'(0) = 0, y''(0) = 0 \]

We first tell Axiom that the symbol 'y denotes a new operator.

\begin{code}
y := operator 'y
\end{code}

\begin{verbatim}
y
Type: BasicOperator
\end{verbatim}

Enter the differential equation using y like any system function.

\begin{code}
eq := D(y(x), x, 3) - \sin(D(y(x), x, 2)) \cdot \exp(y(x)) = \cos(x)
\end{code}

\begin{verbatim}
y'\prime\prime\prime(x) - e^{a(x)} \sin(y''(x)) = \cos(x)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
Type: Equation Expression Integer
\end{verbatim}

Solve it around \( x = 0 \) with the initial conditions \( y(0) = 1, y'(0) = y''(0) = 0 \).

\begin{code}
\texttt{seriesSolve(eq, y, x = 0, [1, 0, 0])}
\end{code}

\begin{verbatim}
1 + \frac{1}{6} x^3 + \frac{e}{24} x^4 + \frac{e^2 - 1}{120} x^5 + \frac{e^3 - 2 e}{720} x^6 + \frac{e^4 - 8 e^2 + 4 e + 1}{5040} x^7 + O(x^8)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
Type: UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer,x,0)
\end{verbatim}

You can also solve a system of nonlinear first order equations. For example, we solve a system that has \( \tan(t) \) and \( \sec(t) \) as solutions.

We tell Axiom that \( x \) is also an operator.
x := operator 'x

x

Type: BasicOperator

Enter the two equations forming our system.

eq1 := D(x(t), t) = 1 + x(t)**2

x(t) = x(t)^2 + 1

Type: Equation Expression Integer

eq2 := D(y(t), t) = x(t) * y(t)

y(t) = x(t) y(t)

Type: Equation Expression Integer

Solve the system around t = 0 with the initial conditions x(0) = 0 and y(0) = 1. Notice that since we give the unknowns in the order [x, y], the answer is a list of two series in the order

[series for x(t), series for y(t)]

seriesSolve([eq2, eq1], [x, y], t = 0, [y(0) = 1, x(0) = 0])

Compiling function %BZ with type List UnivariateTaylorSeries( Expression Integer, t, 0) -> UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer, t, 0)

Compiling function %CA with type List UnivariateTaylorSeries( Expression Integer, t, 0) -> UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer, t, 0)

\[
\left[ t + \frac{1}{3} t^3 + \frac{2}{15} t^5 + \frac{17}{315} t^7 + O(t^8), 1 + \frac{1}{2} t^2 + \frac{5}{24} t^4 + \frac{61}{720} t^6 + O(t^8) \right]
\]

Type: List UnivariateTaylorSeries(Expression Integer, t, 0)

The order in which we give the equations and the initial conditions has no effect on the order of the solution.
8.11 Finite Fields

A finite field (also called a Galois field) is a finite algebraic structure where one can add, multiply and divide under the same laws (for example, commutativity, associativity or distributivity) as apply to the rational, real or complex numbers. Unlike those three fields, for any finite field there exists a positive prime integer \( p \), called the characteristic, such that \( px = 0 \) for any element \( x \) in the finite field. In fact, the number of elements in a finite field is a power of the characteristic and for each prime \( p \) and positive integer \( n \) there exists exactly one finite field with \( p^n \) elements, up to isomorphism.\(^1\)

When \( n = 1 \), the field has \( p \) elements and is called a prime field, discussed in the next section. There are several ways of implementing extensions of finite fields, and Axiom provides quite a bit of freedom to allow you to choose the one that is best for your application. Moreover, we provide operations for converting among the different representations of extensions and different extensions of a single field. Finally, note that you usually need to package-call operations from finite fields if the operations do not take as an argument an object of the field. See 2.9 on page 158 for more information on package-calling.

8.11.1 Modular Arithmetic and Prime Fields

Let \( n \) be a positive integer. It is well known that you can get the same result if you perform addition, subtraction or multiplication of integers and then take the remainder on dividing by \( n \) as if you had first done such remaindering on the operands, performed the arithmetic and then (if necessary) done remaindering again. This allows us to speak of arithmetic modulo \( n \) or, more simply \( \text{mod } n \).

In Axiom, you use \texttt{IntegerMod} to do such arithmetic.

\[
(a, b) : \text{IntegerMod } 12
\]

\[
\text{Type: Void}
\]

\[
(a, b) := (16, 7)
\]

\[
7
\]

\[
\text{Type: IntegerMod } 12
\]

[a - b, a * b]

[9, 4]

Type: List IntegerMod 12

If \( n \) is not prime, there is only a limited notion of reciprocals and division.

\[ a / b \]

There are 12 exposed and 13 unexposed library operations named / having 2 argument(s) but none was determined to be applicable. Use HyperDoc Browse, or issue

```lisp
)display op /
```
to learn more about the available operations. Perhaps package-calling the operation or using coercions on the arguments will allow you to apply the operation.

Cannot find a definition or applicable library operation named / with argument type(s)

- IntegerMod 12
- IntegerMod 12

Perhaps you should use "@" to indicate the required return type, or "$" to specify which version of the function you need.

recip a

"failed"

Type: Union("failed", ...)

Here 7 and 12 are relatively prime, so 7 has a multiplicative inverse modulo 12.

recip b

\[ 7 \]

Type: Union(IntegerMod 12, ...)

If we take \( n \) to be a prime number \( p \), then taking inverses and, therefore, division are generally defined.

Use `PrimeField` instead of `IntegerMod` for \( n \) prime.
c : PrimeField 11 := 8

\[ 8 \]

Type: PrimeField 11

inv c

\[ 7 \]

Type: PrimeField 11

You can also use \( \frac{1}{c} \) and \( c^{-1} \) for the inverse of \( c \).

9/c

\[ 8 \]

Type: PrimeField 11

PrimeField (abbreviation PF) checks if its argument is prime when you try to use an operation from it. If you know the argument is prime (particularly if it is large), InnerPrimeField (abbreviation IPF) assumes the argument has already been verified to be prime. If you do use a number that is not prime, you will eventually get an error message, most likely a division by zero message. For computer science applications, the most important finite fields are PrimeField 2 and its extensions.

In the following examples, we work with the finite field with \( p = 101 \) elements.

GF101 := PF 101

PrimeField 101

Type: Domain

Like many domains in Axiom, finite fields provide an operation for returning a random element of the domain.

x := random()$GF101

\[ 8 \]

Type: PrimeField 101
y : GF101 := 37

37

Type: PrimeField 101

z := x/y

63

Type: PrimeField 101

z * y - x

0

Type: PrimeField 101

The element 2 is a primitive element of this field,

pe := primitiveElement()$GF101

2

Type: PrimeField 101

in the sense that its powers enumerate all nonzero elements.

[pe**i for i in 0..99]

[1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 27, 54, 7, 14, 28, 56, 11, 22, 44, 88, 75, 49, 98, 95, 89, 77, 53, 5, 10, 20, 40, 80, 59, 17, 34, 68, 35, 70, 39, 78, 55, 9, 18, 36, 72, 43, 86, 71, 41, 82, 63, 25, 50, 100, 99, 97, 93, 85, 69, 37, 74, 47, 94, 87, 73, 45, 90, 79, 57, 13, 26, 52, 3, 6, 12, 24, 48, 96, 91, 81, 61, 21, 42, 84, 67, 33, 66, 31, 62, 23, 46, 92, 83, 65, 29, 58, 15, 30, 60, 19, 38, 76, 51]

Type: List PrimeField 101

If every nonzero element is a power of a primitive element, how do you determine what the exponent is? Use discreteLog.
ex := discreteLog(y)

56

Type: PositiveInteger

pe ** ex

37

Type: PrimeField 101

The order of a nonzero element x is the smallest positive integer t such \( x^t = 1 \).

order y

25

Type: PositiveInteger

The order of a primitive element is the defining \( p - 1 \).

order pe

100

Type: PositiveInteger

8.11.2 Extensions of Finite Fields

When you want to work with an extension of a finite field in Axiom, you have three choices to make:

1. Do you want to generate an extension of the prime field (for example, PrimeField 2) or an extension of a given field?

2. Do you want to use a representation that is particularly efficient for multiplication, exponentiation and addition but uses a lot of computer memory (a representation that models the cyclic group structure of the multiplicative group of the field extension and uses a Zech logarithm table), one that uses a normal basis for the vector space structure of the field extension, or one that performs arithmetic modulo an irreducible polynomial? The cyclic group representation is only usable up to “medium” (relative to your machine’s performance) sized fields. If the field is large and the normal basis is relatively simple, the normal basis representation is more efficient for exponentiation than the irreducible polynomial representation.
3. Do you want to provide a polynomial explicitly, a root of which "generates" the extension in one of the three senses in (2), or do you wish to have the polynomial generated for you?

This illustrates one of the most important features of Axiom: you can choose exactly the right data-type and representation to suit your application best.

We first tell you what domain constructors to use for each case above, and then give some examples.

Constructors that automatically generate extensions of the prime field:
\begin{verbatim}
 FiniteField
 FiniteFieldCyclicGroup
 FiniteFieldNormalBasis
\end{verbatim}

Constructors that generate extensions of an arbitrary field:
\begin{verbatim}
 FiniteFieldExtension
 FiniteFieldExtensionByPolynomial
 FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtension
 FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtensionByPolynomial
 FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtension
 FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtensionByPolynomial
\end{verbatim}

Constructors that use a cyclic group representation:
\begin{verbatim}
 FiniteFieldCyclicGroup
 FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtension
 FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtensionByPolynomial
\end{verbatim}

Constructors that use a normal basis representation:
\begin{verbatim}
 FiniteFieldNormalBasis
 FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtension
 FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtensionByPolynomial
\end{verbatim}

Constructors that use an irreducible modulus polynomial representation:
\begin{verbatim}
 FiniteField
 FiniteFieldExtension
 FiniteFieldExtensionByPolynomial
\end{verbatim}

Constructors that generate a polynomial for you:
\begin{verbatim}
 FiniteField
 FiniteFieldExtension
 FiniteFieldCyclicGroup
 FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtension
 FiniteFieldNormalBasis
 FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtension
\end{verbatim}

Constructors for which you provide a polynomial:
\begin{verbatim}
 FiniteFieldExtensionByPolynomial
 FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtensionByPolynomial
 FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtensionByPolynomial
\end{verbatim}
These constructors are discussed in the following sections where we collect together descriptions of extension fields that have the same underlying representation.\(^2\)

If you don’t really care about all this detail, just use \texttt{FiniteField}. As your knowledge of your application and its Axiom implementation grows, you can come back and choose an alternative constructor that may improve the efficiency of your code. Note that the exported operations are almost the same for all constructors of finite field extensions and include the operations exported by \texttt{PrimeField}.

### 8.11.3 Irreducible Modulus Polynomial Representations

All finite field extension constructors discussed in this section use a representation that performs arithmetic with univariate (one-variable) polynomials modulo an irreducible polynomial. This polynomial may be given explicitly by you or automatically generated. The ground field may be the prime field or one you specify. See 8.11.2 on page 408 for general information about finite field extensions.

For \texttt{FiniteField} (abbreviation \texttt{FF}) you provide a prime number \(p\) and an extension degree \(n\). This degree can be 1.

Axiom uses the prime field \texttt{PrimeField}(p), here \texttt{PrimeField 2}, and it chooses an irreducible polynomial of degree \(n\), here 12, over the ground field.

\[
\text{GF4096 := FF(2,12);}
\]

\[
\text{Type: Domain}
\]

The objects in the generated field extension are polynomials of degree at most \(n - 1\) with coefficients in the prime field. The polynomial indeterminate is automatically chosen by Axiom and is typically something like \texttt{%-A} or \texttt{%-D}. These (strange) variables are only for output display; there are several ways to construct elements of this field.

The operation \texttt{index} enumerates the elements of the field extension and accepts as argument the integers from 1 to \(p^n\).

The expression \texttt{index(p)} always gives the indeterminate.

\[
a := \text{index(2)} \text{GF4096}
\]

\[
\text{Type: FiniteField(2,12)}
\]

You can build polynomials in \(a\) and calculate in \texttt{GF4096}.

b := a**12 - a**5 + a

\[ \%A^5 + \%A^3 + \%A + 1 \]

Type: FiniteField(2,12)

b ** 1000

\[ \%A^{10} + \%A^9 + \%A^7 + \%A^5 + \%A^4 + \%A^3 + \%A \]

Type: FiniteField(2,12)

c := a/b

\[ \%A^{11} + \%A^8 + \%A^7 + \%A^5 + \%A^4 + \%A^3 + \%A^2 \]

Type: FiniteField(2,12)

Among the available operations are **norm** and **trace**.

norm c

1

Type: PrimeField 2

trace c

0

Type: PrimeField 2

Since any nonzero element is a power of a primitive element, how do we discover what the exponent is?
The operation **discreteLog** calculates the exponent and, if it is called with only one argument, always refers to the primitive element returned by **primitiveElement**.

dL := discreteLog a

1729
FiniteFieldExtension (abbreviation FFX) is similar to FiniteField except that the ground-field for FiniteFieldExtension is arbitrary and chosen by you. In case you select the prime field as ground field, there is essentially no difference between the constructed two finite field extensions.

\( \text{GF16} := \text{FF}(2,4); \)  

\( \text{GF4096} := \text{FFX}(\text{GF16},3); \)

\( r := (\text{random()} \text{GF4096}) \* 20 \)

\( (B^2 + 1) C^2 + (B^3 + B^2 + 1) C + B^3 + B^2 + B + 1 \)

\( \text{norm}(r) \)

\( B^2 + B \)

FiniteFieldExtensionByPolynomial (abbreviation FFP) is similar to FiniteField and FiniteFieldExtension but is more general.
Type: Domain

\[
f := \text{nextIrreduciblePoly}(\text{random}(6) \mathbb{FFPOLY}(\text{GF}4)) \mathbb{FFPOLY}(\text{GF}4)
\]
\[
?^6 + (\%D + 1) ?^5 + (\%D + 1) ?^4 + (\%D + 1) ? + 1
\]

Type: Union(SparseUnivariatePolynomial FiniteField(2,2),...)

For \text{FFP} you choose both the ground field and the irreducible polynomial used in the representation. The degree of the extension is the degree of the polynomial.

\[
\text{GF4096} := \text{FFP}(\text{GF}4,f);
\]

Type: Domain

\[
\text{discreteLog random()} \mathbb{GF4096}
\]

582

Type: PositiveInteger

### 8.11.4 Cyclic Group Representations

In every finite field there exist elements whose powers are all the nonzero elements of the field. Such an element is called a \textit{primitive element}.

In \text{FiniteFieldCyclicGroup} (abbreviation \text{FFCG}) the nonzero elements are represented by the powers of a fixed primitive element of the field (that is, a generator of its cyclic multiplicative group). Multiplication (and hence exponentiation) using this representation is easy. To do addition, we consider our primitive element as the root of a primitive polynomial (an irreducible polynomial whose roots are all primitive). See 8.11.7 on page 422 for examples of how to compute such a polynomial.

To use \text{FiniteFieldCyclicGroup} you provide a prime number and an extension degree.

\[
\text{GF81} := \text{FFCG}(3,4);
\]

Type: Domain

Axiom uses the prime field, here \text{PrimeField 3}, as the ground field and it chooses a primitive polynomial of degree \(n\), here 4, over the prime field.
a := primitiveElement()$GF81

\%F1

Type: FiniteFieldCyclicGroup(3,4)

You can calculate in $GF81$.

b := a**12 - a**5 + a

\%F72

Type: FiniteFieldCyclicGroup(3,4)

In this representation of finite fields the discrete logarithm of an element can be seen directly in its output form.

b

\%F72

Type: FiniteFieldCyclicGroup(3,4)

discreteLog b

72

Type: PositiveInteger

FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtension (abbreviation FFCGX) is similar to FiniteFieldCyclicGroup except that the ground field for FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtension is arbitrary and chosen by you. In case you select the prime field as ground field, there is essentially no difference between the constructed two finite field extensions.

GF9 := FF(3,2);

Type: Domain

GF729 := FFCGX(GF9,3);
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```
r := (random()$GF729) ** 20
\%
H^{420}
```

```
trace(r)
0
```

\texttt{FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtensionByPolynomial} (abbreviation \texttt{FFCGP}) is similar to \texttt{FiniteFieldCyclicGroup} and \texttt{FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtension} but is more general. For \texttt{FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtensionByPolynomial} you choose both the ground field and the irreducible polynomial used in the representation. The degree of the extension is the degree of the polynomial.

```
GF3 := PrimeField 3;
```

We use a utility operation to generate an irreducible primitive polynomial (see 8.11.7 on page 422). The polynomial has one variable that is “anonymous”: it displays as a question mark.

```
f := createPrimitivePoly(4)$FFPOLY(GF3)
\gamma^4 + \gamma + 2
```

```
GF81 := FFCGP(GF3,f);
```

Let’s look at a random element from this field.

```
random()$GF81
\%
K^{13}
```

```
```
```
8.11.5 Normal Basis Representations

Let $K$ be a finite extension of degree $n$ of the finite field $F$ and let $F$ have $q$ elements. An element $x$ of $K$ is said to be normal over $F$ if the elements

$$1, x^q, x^{q^2}, \ldots, x^{q^{n-1}}$$

form a basis of $K$ as a vector space over $F$. Such a basis is called a normal basis.\(^3\)

If $x$ is normal over $F$, its minimal polynomial is also said to be normal over $F$. There exist normal bases for all finite extensions of arbitrary finite fields.

In `FiniteFieldNormalBasis` (abbreviation FFNB), the elements of the finite field are represented by coordinate vectors with respect to a normal basis.

You provide a prime $p$ and an extension degree $n$.

$$K := \text{FFNB}(3,8)$$

Type: Domain

Axiom uses the prime field `PrimeField(p)`, here `PrimeField 3`, and it chooses a normal polynomial of degree $n$, here 8, over the ground field. The remainder class of the indeterminate is used as the normal element. The polynomial indeterminate is automatically chosen by Axiom and is typically something like `%A` or `%D`. These (strange) variables are only for output display; there are several ways to construct elements of this field. The output of the basis elements is something like `%A^q`.

$$a := \text{normalElement()} \text{ } K$$

Type: `FiniteFieldNormalBasis(3,8)`

You can calculate in $K$ using $a$.

$$b := a^{**12} - a^{**5} + a$$

$$2 \%I^7 + \%I^5 + \%I^4$$

Type: `FiniteFieldNormalBasis(3,8)`

---

\(^3\)This agrees with the general definition of a normal basis because the $n$ distinct powers of the automorphism $x \mapsto x^q$ constitute the Galois group of $K/F$. 
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FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtension (abbreviation FFNBX) is similar to FiniteFieldNormalBasis except that the groundfield for FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtension is arbitrary and chosen by you. In case you select the prime field as ground field, there is essentially no difference between the constructed two finite field extensions.

\[
\text{GF9 := FFNB(3,2);}
\]

Type: Domain

\[
\text{GF729 := FFNBX(GF9,3);}
\]

Type: Domain

\[
\text{r := random()$GF729}
\]

\[
2 \% K \% L^q
\]

Type: FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtension(FiniteFieldNormalBasis(3,2),3)

\[
\text{r + r**3 + r**9 + r**27}
\]

\[
2 \% K \% L^q + (2 \% K^q + 2 \% K) \% L^q + 2 \% K^q \% L
\]

Type: FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtension(FiniteFieldNormalBasis(3,2),3)

FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtensionByPolynomial (abbreviation FFNBP) is similar to FiniteFieldNormalBasis and FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtension but is more general. For FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtensionByPolynomial you choose both the ground field and the irreducible polynomial used in the representation. The degree of the extension is the degree of the polynomial.

\[
\text{GF3 := PrimeField 3;}
\]

Type: Domain
We use a utility operation to generate an irreducible normal polynomial (see 8.11.7 on page 422). The polynomial has one variable that is “anonymous”: it displays as a question mark.

\[
f := \text{createNormalPoly}(4)\text{FFPOLY}(\text{GF3})
\]

\[
?^4 + 2 ?^3 + 2
\]

Type: SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 3

\[
\text{GF81 := FFNBP(\text{GF3}, f)};
\]

Type: Domain

Let’s look at a random element from this field.

\[
r := \text{random()}\text{GF81}
\]

\[
M^2 + 2 M + 2 \equiv M
\]

Type: FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtensionByPolynomial(PrimeField 3, \( ?^4 + 2 \times ?^3 + 2 \))

\[
r \times r^3 \times r^9 \times r^27
\]

\[
2 M^3 + 2 M^2 + 2 M + 2 \equiv M
\]

Type: FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtensionByPolynomial(PrimeField 3, \( ?^4 + 2 \times ?^3 + 2 \))

\[
\text{norm } r
\]

2

Type: PrimeField 3
8.11.6 Conversion Operations for Finite Fields

Let $K$ be a finite field.

\[ K := \text{PrimeField 3} \]

\[ \text{PrimeField 3} \]

\[ \text{Type: Domain} \]

An extension field $K_m$ of degree $m$ over $K$ is a subfield of an extension field $K_n$ of degree $n$ over $K$ if and only if $m$ divides $n$.

\[
\begin{align*}
K_n & \mid K_m & \iff & m \mid n \\
K_m & \mid K & \implies & m \mid n
\end{align*}
\]

\text{FiniteFieldHomomorphisms} provides conversion operations between different extensions of one fixed finite ground field and between different representations of these finite fields.

Let’s choose $m$ and $n$,

\[ (m, n) := (4, 8) \]

\[ 8 \]

\[ \text{Type: PositiveInteger} \]

build the field extensions,

\[ K_m := \text{FiniteFieldExtension}(K, m) \]

\[ \text{FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 3, 4)} \]

\[ \text{Type: Domain} \]

and pick two random elements from the smaller field.

\[ K_n := \text{FiniteFieldExtension}(K, n) \]

\[ \text{FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 3, 8)} \]
Type: Domain

\[ a_1 := \text{random()}_{K_m} \]

\[ 2 \%A^3 + \%A^2 \]

Type: FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 3,4)

\[ b_1 := \text{random()}_{K_m} \]

\[ \%A^3 + \%A^2 + 2 \%A + 1 \]

Type: FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 3,4)

Since \( m \) divides \( n \), \( K_m \) is a subfield of \( K_n \).

\[ a_2 := a_1 :: Kn \]

\[ \%B^4 \]

Type: FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 3,8)

Therefore we can convert the elements of \( K_m \) into elements of \( K_n \).

\[ b_2 := b_1 :: Kn \]

\[ 2 \%B^6 + 2 \%B^4 + \%B^2 + 1 \]

Type: FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 3,8)

To check this, let’s do some arithmetic.

\[ a_1 + b_1 - ((a_2 + b_2) :: Km) \]

\[ 0 \]

Type: FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 3,4)

\[ a_1 * b_1 - ((a_2 * b_2) :: Km) \]
There are also conversions available for the situation, when $K_m$ and $K_n$ are represented in different ways (see 8.11.2 on page 408). For example let’s choose $K_m$ where the representation is 0 plus the cyclic multiplicative group and $K_n$ with a normal basis representation.

```plaintext
Km := FFCGX(K,m)
FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtension(PrimeField 3,4)
Type: Domain

Kn := FFBNEX(K,n)
FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtension(PrimeField 3,8)
Type: Domain

(a1,b1) := (random()$Km, random()$Km)

(\%C13
Type: FiniteFieldCyclicGroupExtension(PrimeField 3,4)

a2 := a1 :: Kn

2 \%D^{\theta^6} + 2 \%D^{\theta^5} + 2 \%D^{\theta^4} + 2 \%D^{\theta^2} + 2 \%D^{\theta} + 2 \%D

Type: FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtension(PrimeField 3,8)

b2 := b1 :: Kn

2 \%D^{\theta^7} + \%D^{\theta^6} + \%D^{\theta^5} + \%D^{\theta^4} + 2 \%D^{\theta^3} + \%D^{\theta^2} + \%D^{\theta} + \%D

Type: FiniteFieldNormalBasisExtension(PrimeField 3,8)
```

Check the arithmetic again.
8.11.7 Utility Operations for Finite Fields

FiniteFieldPolynomialPackage (abbreviation FFPOLY) provides operations for generating, counting and testing polynomials over finite fields. Let’s start with a couple of definitions:

- A polynomial is *primitive* if its roots are primitive elements in an extension of the coefficient field of degree equal to the degree of the polynomial.
- A polynomial is *normal* over its coefficient field if its roots are linearly independent elements in an extension of the coefficient field of degree equal to the degree of the polynomial.

In what follows, many of the generated polynomials have one “anonymous” variable. This indeterminate is displayed as a question mark (“?”).

To fix ideas, let’s use the field with five elements for the first few examples.

\[ GF5 := PF 5; \]

You can generate irreducible polynomials of any (positive) degree (within the storage capabilities of the computer and your ability to wait) by using `createIrreduciblePoly`.

\[ f := createIrreduciblePoly(8)$FFPOLY(GF5) \]

\[ ?^8 + ?^4 + 2 \]

Type: SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 5
Does this polynomial have other important properties? Use \texttt{primitive?} to test whether it is a primitive polynomial.

\texttt{primitive?(f) \texttt{FFPOLY(GF5)}}

\texttt{false}

Type: Boolean

Use \texttt{normal?} to test whether it is a normal polynomial.

\texttt{normal?(f) \texttt{FFPOLY(GF5)}}

\texttt{false}

Type: Boolean

Note that this is actually a trivial case, because a normal polynomial of degree \(n\) must have a nonzero term of degree \(n - 1\). We will refer back to this later.

To get a primitive polynomial of degree 8 just issue this.

\texttt{p := createPrimitivePoly(8) \texttt{FFPOLY(GF5)}}

\[ \gamma^8 + \gamma^3 + \gamma^2 + \gamma + 2 \]

Type: SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 5

\texttt{primitive?(p) \texttt{FFPOLY(GF5)}}

\texttt{true}

Type: Boolean

This polynomial is not normal.

\texttt{normal?(p) \texttt{FFPOLY(GF5)}}

\texttt{false}

Type: Boolean
but if you want a normal one simply write this.

\[
n := \text{createNormalPoly}(8) \text{FFPOLY(GF5)}
\]

\[
\gamma^8 + 4 \gamma^7 + \gamma^3 + 1
\]

Type: SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 5

This polynomial is not primitive!

\[
\text{primitive?}(n) \text{FFPOLY(GF5)}
\]

\text{false}

Type: Boolean

This could have been seen directly, as the constant term is 1 here, which is not a primitive element up to the factor \((-1)^8\) raised to the degree of the polynomial.\(^4\)

What about polynomials that are both primitive and normal? The existence of such a polynomial is by no means obvious.\(^5\)

If you really need one use either \text{createPrimitiveNormalPoly} or \text{createNormalPrimitivePoly}.

\[
\text{createPrimitiveNormalPoly}(8) \text{FFPOLY(GF5)}
\]

\[
\gamma^8 + 4 \gamma^7 + 2 \gamma^5 + 2
\]

Type: SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 5

If you want to obtain additional polynomials of the various types above as given by the \text{create...} operations above, you can use the \text{next...} operations. For instance, \text{nextIrreduciblePoly} yields the next monic irreducible polynomial with the same degree as the input polynomial. By “next” we mean “next in a natural order using the terms and coefficients.” This will become more clear in the following examples.

This is the field with five elements.

\[
\text{GF5} := \text{PF 5};
\]


Our first example irreducible polynomial, say of degree 3, must be “greater” than this.

\[ h := \text{monomial}(1,8) \supset \text{GF5} \]

\[ 8 \]

\[ \text{Type: SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 5} \]

You can generate it by doing this.

\[ nh := \text{nextIrreduciblePoly}(h) \supset \text{FFPOLY(GF5)} \]

\[ 8 + 2 \]

\[ \text{Type: Union(SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 5,...)} \]

Notice that this polynomial is not the same as the one \text{createIrreduciblePoly}.

\[ \text{createIrreduciblePoly(3)} \supset \text{FFPOLY(GF5)} \]

\[ 3 + 2 + 1 \]

\[ \text{Type: SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 5} \]

You can step through all irreducible polynomials of degree 8 over the field with 5 elements by repeatedly issuing this.

\[ nh := \text{nextIrreduciblePoly}(nh) \supset \text{FFPOLY(GF5)} \]

\[ 8 + 3 \]

\[ \text{Type: Union(SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 5,...)} \]

You could also ask for the total number of these.

\[ \text{numberOfIrreduciblePoly(5)} \supset \text{FFPOLY(GF5)} \]

\[ 624 \]

\[ \text{Type: PositiveInteger} \]
We hope that “natural order” on polynomials is now clear: first we compare the number of monomials of two polynomials (“more” is “greater”); then, if necessary, the degrees of these monomials (lexicographically), and lastly their coefficients (also lexicographically, and using the operation lookup if our field is not a prime field). Also note that we make both polynomials monic before looking at the coefficients: multiplying either polynomial by a nonzero constant produces the same result.

The package FiniteFieldPolynomialPackage also provides similar operations for primitive and normal polynomials. With the exception of the number of primitive normal polynomials; we’re not aware of any known formula for this.

```plaintext
numberOfPrimitivePoly(3) $FFPOLY(GF5)
```

20

Type: PositiveInteger

Take these,

```plaintext
m := monomial(1,1) $SUP(GF5)
```

```
```

Type: SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 5

```plaintext
f := m**3 + 4*m**2 + m + 2
```

```
?^3 + 4 ?^2 + ? + 2
```

Type: SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 5

and then we have:

```plaintext
f1 := nextPrimitivePoly(f) $FFPOLY(GF5)
```

```
?^3 + 4 ?^2 + 4 ? + 2
```

Type: Union(SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 5, ...)

What happened?

```plaintext
nextPrimitivePoly(f1) $FFPOLY(GF5)
```
Well, for the ordering used in nextPrimitivePoly we use as first criterion a comparison of the constant terms of the polynomials. Analogously, in nextNormalPoly we first compare the monomials of degree 1 less than the degree of the polynomials (which is nonzero, by an earlier remark).

\[ f := m^3 + m^2 + 4m + 1 \]

\[ f1 := \text{nextNormalPoly}(f) \]

We don’t have to restrict ourselves to prime fields. Let’s consider, say, a field with 16 elements.

\[ \text{GF16} := \text{FFX}(\text{FFX}(\text{PF 2},2),2); \]

We can apply any of the operations described above.

\[ \text{createIrreduciblePoly}(5) \]
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Axiom also provides operations for producing random polynomials of a given degree

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{random}(5) \& \text{FFPOLY}(\text{GF16}) \\
?^5 + (%F \%G + 1) ?^4 + %F \%G ?^3 + (%G + %F + 1) ?^2 + \\
((%F + 1) \%G + %F) ? + 1
\end{align*}
\]

Type: SparseUnivariatePolynomial

FiniteFieldExtension(FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 2,2),2)

or with degree between two given bounds.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{random}(3,9) \& \text{FFPOLY}(\text{GF16}) \\
?^3 + (%F \%G + 1) ?^2 + (%G + %F + 1) ? + 1
\end{align*}
\]

Type: SparseUnivariatePolynomial

FiniteFieldExtension(FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 2,2),2)

FiniteFieldPolynomialPackage2 (abbreviation FFPOLY2) exports an operation \texttt{rootOfIrreduciblePoly} for finding one root of an irreducible polynomial \( f \) in an extension field of the coefficient field. The degree of the extension has to be a multiple of the degree of \( f \). It is not checked whether \( f \) actually is irreducible.

To illustrate this operation, we fix a ground field \( GF \)

\[
\text{GF2} := \text{PrimeField 2};
\]

Type: Domain

and then an extension field.

\[
\text{F} := \text{FFX(GF2,12)}
\]

FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 2,12)

Type: Domain

We construct an irreducible polynomial over \( GF2 \).
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\[ f := \text{createIrreduciblePoly}(6) \text{\$FFPOLY\{GF2\}} \]

\[ 9^6 + 7 + 1 \]

Type: \text{SparseUnivariatePolynomial PrimeField 2}

We compute a root of \( f \).

\[ \text{root} := \text{rootOfIrreduciblePoly}(f) \text{\$FFPOLY2\{F,GF2\}} \]

\[ %H^{11} + %H^8 + %H^7 + %H^5 + %H + 1 \]

Type: \text{FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 2,12)}

and check the result

\[ \text{eval}(f, \text{monomial}(1,1) \text{\$SUP\{F\} = \text{root}}) \]

0

Type: \text{SparseUnivariatePolynomial FiniteFieldExtension(PrimeField 2,12)}

8.12 Primary Decomposition of Ideals

Axiom provides a facility for the primary decomposition of polynomial ideals over fields of characteristic zero. The algorithm works in essentially two steps:

1. the problem is solved for 0-dimensional ideals by “generic” projection on the last coordinate

2. a “reduction process” uses localization and ideal quotients to reduce the general case to the 0-dimensional one.

The Axiom constructor \text{PolynomialIdeals} represents ideals with coefficients in any field and supports the basic ideal operations, including intersection, sum and quotient. \text{IdealDecompositionPackage} contains the specific operations for the primary decomposition and the computation of the radical of an ideal with polynomial coefficients in a field of characteristic 0 with an effective algorithm for factoring polynomials.

The following examples illustrate the capabilities of this facility.

First consider the ideal generated by \( x^2 + y^2 - 1 \) (which defines a circle in the \((x,y)\)-plane) and the ideal generated by \( x^2 - y^2 \) (corresponding to the straight lines \( x = y \) and \( x = -y \).
(n,m) : List DMP([x,y],FRAC INT)

Type: Void

m := [x**2+y**2-1]

\[
[x^2 + y^2 - 1]
\]

Type: List DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y],Fraction Integer)

n := [x**2-y**2]

\[
[x^2 - y^2]
\]

Type: List DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y],Fraction Integer)

We find the equations defining the intersection of the two loci. This correspond to the sum of the associated ideals.

id := ideal m + ideal n

\[
\left[x^2 - \frac{1}{2}y^2 - \frac{1}{2}\right]
\]

Type: PolynomialIdeals(Fraction Integer, DirectProduct(2,NonNegativeInteger),OrderedVariableList [x,y], DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y],Fraction Integer))

We can check if the locus contains only a finite number of points, that is, if the ideal is zero-dimensional.

zeroDim? id

true

Type: Boolean

zeroDim?(ideal m)
false

Type: Boolean

dimension ideal m

1

Type: PositiveInteger

We can find polynomial relations among the generators ($f$ and $g$ are the parametric equations of the knot).

(f,g):DMP([x,y],FRAC INT)

Type: Void

f := x**2-1

$x^2 - 1$

Type: DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y],Fraction Integer)

g := x*(x**2-1)

$x^3 - x$

Type: DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y],Fraction Integer)

relationsIdeal [f,g]

$[-B^2 + A^3 + A^2] | [A = x^2 - 1, B = x^3 - x]$

Type: SuchThat(List Polynomial Fraction Integer, List Equation Polynomial Fraction Integer)

We can compute the primary decomposition of an ideal.

l: List DMP([x,y,z],FRAC INT)
Type: Void

\[ l := \{x^2 + 2y^2, xz^2 - yz, z^2 - 4\} \]

Type: List DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y,z],Fraction Integer)

\[ ld := \text{primaryDecomp ideal } l \]

\[ \begin{bmatrix} x + \frac{1}{2} y, y^2, z + 2 \\ x - \frac{1}{2} y, y^2, z - 2 \end{bmatrix} \]

Type: List PolynomialIdeals(Fraction Integer, DirectProduct(3,NonNegativeInteger), OrderedVariableList [x,y,z], DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y,z],Fraction Integer))

We can intersect back.

\[ \text{reduce(intersect, } ld) \]

\[ \begin{bmatrix} x - \frac{1}{4} yz, y^2, z^2 - 4 \end{bmatrix} \]

Type: PolynomialIdeals(Fraction Integer, DirectProduct(3,NonNegativeInteger), OrderedVariableList [x,y,z], DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y,z],Fraction Integer))

We can compute the radical of every primary component.

\[ \text{reduce(intersect, [radical ld.i for i in 1..2])} \]

\[ \begin{bmatrix} x, y, z^2 - 4 \end{bmatrix} \]

Type: PolynomialIdeals(Fraction Integer, DirectProduct(3,NonNegativeInteger), OrderedVariableList [x,y,z], DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y,z],Fraction Integer))

Their intersection is equal to the radical of the ideal of \( l \).

\[ \text{radical ideal } l \]
\[ [x, y, z^2 - 4] \]

Type: PolynomialIdeals(Fraction Integer, DirectProduct(3, NonNegativeInteger), OrderedVariableList [x, y, z], DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x, y, z], Fraction Integer))

### 8.13 Computation of Galois Groups

As a sample use of Axiom’s algebraic number facilities, we compute the Galois group of the polynomial \( p(x) = x^5 - 5x + 12 \).

\[
p := x**5 - 5*x + 12
\]

\[
x^5 - 5x + 12
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

We would like to construct a polynomial \( f(x) \) such that the splitting field of \( p(x) \) is generated by one root of \( f(x) \). First we construct a polynomial \( r(x) \) such that one root of \( r(x) \) generates the field generated by two roots of the polynomial \( p(x) \). (As it will turn out, the field generated by two roots of \( p(x) \) is, in fact, the splitting field of \( p(x) \).)

From the proof of the primitive element theorem we know that if \( a \) and \( b \) are algebraic numbers, then the field \( \mathbb{Q}(a, b) \) is equal to \( \mathbb{Q}(a + kb) \) for an appropriately chosen integer \( k \). In our case, we construct the minimal polynomial of \( a_i - a_j \), where \( a_i \) and \( a_j \) are two roots of \( p(x) \). We construct this polynomial using \texttt{resultant}. The main result we need is the following: If \( f(x) \) is a polynomial with roots \( a_1 \ldots a_m \) and \( g(x) \) is a polynomial with roots \( b_1 \ldots b_n \), then the polynomial \( h(x) = \text{resultant}(f(y), g(x - y), y) \) is a polynomial of degree \( m \cdot n \) with roots \( a_i + b_j, i = 1 \ldots m, j = 1 \ldots n \).

For \( f(x) \) we use the polynomial \( p(x) \). For \( g(x) \) we use the polynomial \( -p(-x) \). Thus, the polynomial we first construct is \( \text{resultant}(p(y), -p(y - x), y) \).

\[
q := \text{resultant}(\text{eval}(p, x, y), -\text{eval}(p, x, y-x), y)
\]

\[
x^{25} - 50 \cdot x^{21} - 2375 \cdot x^{17} + 90000 \cdot x^{15} - 5000 \cdot x^{13} + 2700000 \cdot x^{11} + 250000 \cdot x^{9} + 18000000 \cdot x^{7} + 64000000 \cdot x^{5}
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

The roots of \( q(x) \) are \( a_i - a_j, i \leq 1, j \leq 5 \). Of course, there are five pairs \((i, j)\) with \( i = j \), so 0 is a 5-fold root of \( q(x) \).

Let’s get rid of this factor.
Factor the polynomial \( q_1 \).

\[ q_1 := \text{exquo}(q, x^{**5}) \]

\[ x^{20} - 50 x^{16} - 2375 x^{12} + 90000 x^{10} - 5000 x^8 + 2700000 x^6 + 250000 x^4 + 1800000 x^2 + 64000000 \]

Type: Union(Polynomial Integer, ...)

We see that \( q_1 \) has two irreducible factors, each of degree 10. (The fact that the polynomial \( q_1 \) has two factors of degree 10 is enough to show that the Galois group of \( p(x) \) is the dihedral group of order 10.\(^6\) Note that the type of \( \text{factorQ} \) is \( \text{FR POLY INT} \), that is, Factored Polynomial Integer. This is a special data type for recording factorizations of polynomials with integer coefficients.

We can access the individual factors using the operation \text{nthFactor}.

\[ r := \text{nthFactor}(\text{factorQ}, 1) \]

\[ x^{10} - 10 x^8 - 75 x^6 + 1500 x^4 - 5500 x^2 + 16000 \]

Type: Polynomial Integer

Consider the polynomial \( r = r(x) \). This is the minimal polynomial of the difference of two roots of \( p(x) \). Thus, the splitting field of \( p(x) \) contains a subfield of degree 10. We show that this subfield is, in fact, the splitting field of \( p(x) \) by showing that \( p(x) \) factors completely over this field.

First we create a symbolic root of the polynomial \( r(x) \). (We replaced \( x \) by \( b \) in the polynomial \( r \) so that our symbolic root would be printed as \( b \).)

\[ \beta: \text{AN} := \text{rootOf} (\text{eval}(r, x, b)) \]

\(^6\)See McKay, Soicher, Computing Galois Groups over the Rationals, Journal of Number Theory 20, 273-281 (1983). We do not assume the results of this paper, however, and we continue with the computation.
We next tell Axiom to view $p(x)$ as a univariate polynomial in $x$ with algebraic number coefficients. This is accomplished with this type declaration.

$$p := p::\text{UP}(x,\text{INT})::\text{UP}(x,\text{AN})$$

$$x^5 - 5x + 12$$

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,AlgebraicNumber)

Factor $p(x)$ over the field $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$. (This computation will take some time!)

$$\text{algFactors := factor}(p,[\beta])$$

$$\left( x + \frac{-85 \, b^9 - 116 \, b^8 + 780 \, b^7 + 2640 \, b^6 + 14895 \, b^5 - 8820 \, b^4 - 127050 \, b^3 - 327000 \, b^2 - 405200 \, b + 2062400}{1339200} \right)$$

$$\left( x + \frac{-17 \, b^8 + 156 \, b^6 + 2979 \, b^4 - 25410 \, b^2 - 14080}{66960} \right)$$

$$\left( x + \frac{143 \, b^8 - 2100 \, b^6 - 10485 \, b^4 + 290550 \, b^2 - 334800 \, b - 960800}{669600} \right)$$

$$\left( x + \frac{143 \, b^8 - 2100 \, b^6 - 10485 \, b^4 + 290550 \, b^2 + 334800 \, b - 960800}{669600} \right)$$

$$\left( x + \frac{85 \, b^9 - 116 \, b^8 - 780 \, b^7 + 2640 \, b^6 - 14895 \, b^5 - 8820 \, b^4 + 127050 \, b^3 - 327000 \, b^2 + 405200 \, b + 2062400}{1339200} \right)$$

Type: Factored UnivariatePolynomial(x,AlgebraicNumber)

When factoring over number fields, it is important to specify the field over which the polynomial is to be factored, as polynomials have different factorizations over different fields. When you use the operation \texttt{factor}, the field over which the polynomial is factored is the field generated by
1. the algebraic numbers that appear in the coefficients of the polynomial, and
2. the algebraic numbers that appear in a list passed as an optional second argument of the operation.

In our case, the coefficients of $p$ are all rational integers and only $\beta$ appears in the list, so the field is simply $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$.

It was necessary to give the list $[\beta]$ as a second argument of the operation because otherwise the polynomial would have been factored over the field generated by its coefficients, namely the rational numbers.

```plaintext
factor(p)
```

\[ x^5 - 5x + 12 \]

Type: Factored UnivariatePolynomial(x,AlgebraicNumber)

We have shown that the splitting field of $p(x)$ has degree 10. Since the symmetric group of degree 5 has only one transitive subgroup of order 10, we know that the Galois group of $p(x)$ must be this group, the dihedral group of order 10. Rather than stop here, we explicitly compute the action of the Galois group on the roots of $p(x)$.

First we assign the roots of $p(x)$ as the values of five variables.

We can obtain an individual root by negating the constant coefficient of one of the factors of $p(x)$.

```plaintext
factor1 := nthFactor(algFactors,1)
```

\[ x + \left( \frac{-85b^9 - 116b^8 + 780b^7 + 2640b^6 + 14895b^5 - 8820b^4 - 127050b^3 - 327000b^2 - 405200b + 2062400}{1339200} \right) \]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,AlgebraicNumber)

```plaintext
root1 := -coefficient(factor1,0)
```

\[ \left( \frac{85b^9 + 116b^8 - 780b^7 - 2640b^6 - 14895b^5 + 8820b^4 + 127050b^3 + 327000b^2 + 405200b - 2062400}{1339200} \right) \]

Type: AlgebraicNumber
We can obtain a list of all the roots in this way.

\[
\text{roots := \{-coefficient(nthFactor(algFactors,i),0) for i in 1..5\}}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{85 b^9 + 116 b^8 - 780 b^7 - 2640 b^6 - 14895 b^5 + 8820 b^4 +}
{127050 b^3 + 327000 b^2 + 405200 b - 2062400}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
17 b^8 - 156 b^6 - 2979 b^4 + 25410 b^2 + 14080
\]

\[
\frac{66960}
\]

\[
\frac{-143 b^8 + 2100 b^6 + 10485 b^4 - 290550 b^2 + 334800 b + 960800}{669600}
\]

\[
\frac{-143 b^8 + 2100 b^6 + 10485 b^4 - 290550 b^2 - 334800 b + 960800}{669600}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{-85 b^9 + 116 b^8 + 780 b^7 - 2640 b^6 + 14895 b^5 + 8820 b^4 -}
{127050 b^3 + 327000 b^2 - 405200 b - 2062400}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\frac{1339200}
\]

Type: List AlgebraicNumber

The expression

\[-\text{coefficient(nthFactor(algFactors, i), 0))}\]

is the \(i\)-th root of \(p(x)\) and the elements of \(\text{roots}\) are the \(i\)-th roots of \(p(x)\) as \(i\) ranges from 1 to 5.

Assign the roots as the values of the variables \(a1,...,a5\).

\[(a1,a2,a3,a4,a5) := \{\text{roots.1,roots.2,roots.3,roots.4,roots.5}\}\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{-85 b^9 + 116 b^8 + 780 b^7 - 2640 b^6 + 14895 b^5 + 8820 b^4 -}
{127050 b^3 + 327000 b^2 - 405200 b - 2062400}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\frac{1339200}
\]

Type: AlgebraicNumber
Next we express the roots of $r(x)$ as polynomials in $\beta$. We could obtain these roots by calling the operation \texttt{factor}: \texttt{factor}(r, [\beta]) factors $r(x)$ over $\mathbb{Q}(\beta)$. However, this is a lengthy computation and we can obtain the roots of $r(x)$ as differences of the roots $a_1,...,a_5$ of $p(x)$. Only ten of these differences are roots of $r(x)$ and the other ten are roots of the other irreducible factor of $q_1$. We can determine if a given value is a root of $r(x)$ by evaluating $r(x)$ at that particular value. (Of course, the order in which factors are returned by the operation \texttt{factor} is unimportant and may change with different implementations of the operation. Therefore, we cannot predict in advance which differences are roots of $r(x)$ and which are not.)

Let’s look at four examples (two are roots of $r(x)$ and two are not).

\begin{verbatim}
 eval(r,x,a1 - a2)

 0

 Type: Polynomial AlgebraicNumber

 eval(r,x,a1 - a3)

 \begin{equation*}
 \begin{pmatrix}
 47905 \, b^9 + 66920 \, b^8 - 536100 \, b^7 - 980400 \, b^6 - 3345075 \, b^5 - 5787000 \, b^4 + 75572250 \, b^3 + 161688000 \, b^2 - 184600000 \, b - 710912000 \\
 75572250 \, b^3 + 161688000 \, b^2 - 184600000 \, b - 710912000
 \end{pmatrix}
 \end{equation*}

 4464

 Type: Polynomial AlgebraicNumber

 eval(r,x,a1 - a4)

 0

 Type: Polynomial AlgebraicNumber

 eval(r,x,a1 - a5)

 \begin{equation*}
 \begin{pmatrix}
 405 \, b^6 + 3450 \, b^5 - 19875 \, b^4 - 198000 \, b^3 - 588000 \\
 31
 \end{pmatrix}
 \end{equation*}

 Type: Polynomial AlgebraicNumber
\end{verbatim}

Take one of the differences that was a root of $r(x)$ and assign it to the variable $bb$.

For example, if \texttt{eval}(r,x, a1 - a4) returned 0, you would enter this.
bb := a1 - a4

\[
\frac{85 b^9 + 402 b^6 - 780 b^7 - 6840 b^6 - 14895 b^5 - 12150 b^4 + 127050 b^3 + 908100 b^2 + 1074800 b - 3984000}{1339200}
\]

Type: AlgebraicNumber

Of course, if the difference is, in fact, equal to the root \( \beta \), you should choose another root of \( r(x) \).

Automorphisms of the splitting field are given by mapping a generator of the field, namely \( \beta \), to other roots of its minimal polynomial. Let’s see what happens when \( \beta \) is mapped to \( bb \).

We compute the images of the roots \( a1, \ldots, a5 \) under this automorphism:

\( aa1 := \text{subst}(a1, \beta = bb) \)

\[
-143 b^8 + 2100 b^6 + 10485 b^4 - 290550 b^2 + 334800 b + 960800
\]

\[
\frac{669600}{1339200}
\]

Type: AlgebraicNumber

\( aa2 := \text{subst}(a2, \beta = bb) \)

\[
\frac{-85 b^9 + 116 b^8 + 780 b^7 - 2640 b^6 + 14895 b^5 + 8820 b^4 - 127050 b^3 + 327000 b^2 - 405200 b - 2062400}{1339200}
\]

Type: AlgebraicNumber

\( aa3 := \text{subst}(a3, \beta = bb) \)

\[
\frac{85 b^9 + 116 b^8 - 780 b^7 - 2640 b^6 - 14895 b^5 + 8820 b^4 + 127050 b^3 + 327000 b^2 + 405200 b - 2062400}{1339200}
\]

Type: AlgebraicNumber

\( aa4 := \text{subst}(a4, \beta = bb) \)
\[ -143 b^8 + 2100 b^6 + 10485 b^4 - 290550 b^2 - 334800 b + 960800 \]
\[ \frac{669600}{669600} \]

Type: AlgebraicNumber

\( aa5 := \text{subst}(a5, \beta = bb) \)

\[ \frac{17 b^8 - 156 b^6 - 2979 b^4 + 25410 b^2 + 14080}{66960} \]

Type: AlgebraicNumber

Of course, the values \( aa1, \ldots, aa5 \) are simply a permutation of the values \( a1, \ldots, a5 \).
Let's find the value of \( aa1 \) (execute as many of the following five commands as necessary).

\((aa1 = a1) :: \text{Boolean} \)

false

Type: Boolean

\((aa1 = a2) :: \text{Boolean} \)

false

Type: Boolean

\((aa1 = a3) :: \text{Boolean} \)

true

Type: Boolean

\((aa1 = a4) :: \text{Boolean} \)

false

Type: Boolean
(a1 = a5) :: Boolean

false

Type: Boolean

Proceeding in this fashion, you can find the values of aa2,...aa5. You have represented the automorphism beta−→hb as a permutation of the roots a1,...,a5. If you wish, you can repeat this computation for all the roots of r(x) and represent the Galois group of p(x) as a subgroup of the symmetric group on five letters.

Here are two other problems that you may attack in a similar fashion:

1. Show that the Galois group of \( p(x) = x^4 + 2x^3 - 2x^2 - 3x + 1 \) is the dihedral group of order eight. (The splitting field of this polynomial is the Hilbert class field of the quadratic field \( \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{145}) \).)

2. Show that the Galois group of \( p(x) = x^6 + 108 \) has order 6 and is isomorphic to \( S_3 \), the symmetric group on three letters. (The splitting field of this polynomial is the splitting field of \( x^3 - 2 \).)

8.14 Non-Associative Algebras and Modelling Genetic Laws

Many algebraic structures of mathematics and Axiom have a multiplication operation * that satisfies the associativity law \( a*(b*c) = (a*b)*c \) for all a, b and c. The octonions are a well known exception. There are many other interesting non-associative structures, such as the class of Lie algebras. Lie algebras can be used, for example, to analyse Lie symmetry algebras of partial differential equations. In this section we show a different application of non-associative algebras, the modelling of genetic laws.

The Axiom library contains several constructors for creating non-associative structures, ranging from the categories Monad, NonAssociativeRng, and FramedNonAssociativeAlgebra, to the domains AlgebraGivenByStructuralConstants and GenericNonAssociativeAlgebra. Furthermore, the package AlgebraPackage provides operations for analysing the structure of such algebras.

Mendel’s genetic laws are often written in a form like

\[
Aa \times Aa = \frac{1}{4} AA + \frac{1}{2} Aa + \frac{1}{4} aa
\]

7Two Axiom implementations of Lie algebras are LieSquareMatrix and FreeNilpotentLie.

The implementation of general algebras in Axiom allows us to use this as the definition for multiplication in an algebra. Hence, it is possible to study questions of genetic inheritance using Axiom. To demonstrate this more precisely, we discuss one example from a monograph of A. Wörz-Busekros, where you can also find a general setting of this theory.\(^9\)

We assume that there is an infinitely large random mating population. Random mating of two gametes \(a_i\) and \(a_j\) gives zygotes \(a_ia_j\), which produce new gametes. In classical Mendelian segregation we have \(a_ia_j = \frac{1}{2}a_i + \frac{1}{2}a_j\). In general, we have

\[
a_ia_j = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \gamma_{i,j}^k a_k.
\]

The segregation rates \(\gamma_{i,j}^k\) are the structural constants of an \(n\)-dimensional algebra. This is provided in Axiom by the constructor \texttt{AlgebraGivenByStructuralConstants} (abbreviation \texttt{ALGSC}).

Consider two coupled autosomal loci with alleles \(A, a, B,\) and \(b\), building four different gametes \(a_1 = AB, a_2 = Ab, a_3 = aB,\) and \(a_4 = ab\). The zygotes \(a_ia_j\) produce gametes \(a_i\) and \(a_j\) with classical Mendelian segregation. Zygote \(a_1a_4\) undergoes transition to \(a_2a_3\) and vice versa with probability \(0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{1}{2}\).

Define a list \([((\gamma_{i,j}^k)_{1 \leq k \leq 4})]\) of four four-by-four matrices giving the segregation rates. We use the value \(\frac{1}{10}\) for \(\theta\).

\[
\text{segregationRates : List SquareMatrix(4,Frac INT) := [matrix \[ \[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{9}{20} \\
\frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{20} & 0 \\
0 & \frac{1}{20} & 0 & 0 \\
\frac{9}{20} & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\], matrix \[ \[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{20} \\
\frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{20} \\
\frac{1}{20} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & \frac{1}{20} & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\], matrix \[ \[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & \frac{1}{20} & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{20} \\
\frac{1}{20} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\frac{1}{20} & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\], matrix \[ \[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{20} \\
0 & 0 & \frac{1}{20} & 0 \\
\frac{1}{20} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\frac{1}{20} & \frac{1}{20} & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\] ]
\]
\]
\]
\]
\]
\]

Type: List SquareMatrix(4,Fraction Integer)

\(^9\)Springer Lectures Notes in Biomathematics 36, Berlin e.a. (1980). In particular, see example 1.3.
Choose the appropriate symbols for the basis of gametes,

\[
\text{gametes} := \{\text{`AB}', \text{`Ab}', \text{`aB}', \text{`ab}'\}
\]

\[
[\text{AB}, \text{Ab}, \text{aB}, \text{ab}]
\]

Define the algebra.

\[
A := \text{ALGSC}(\text{FRAC INT}, 4, \text{gametes}, \text{segregationRates})
\]

\[
\text{AlgebraGivenByStructuralConstants}\left(\text{FractionInteger}, 4, [\text{AB}, \text{Ab}, \text{aB}, \text{ab}], [\text{MATRIX}, \text{MATRIX}, \text{MATRIX}, \text{MATRIX}]\right)
\]

What are the probabilities for zygote \(a_1a_4\) to produce the different gametes?

\[
a := \text{basis()}\text{A}
\]

\[
[\text{AB}, \text{Ab}, \text{aB}, \text{ab}]
\]

\[
a.1*a.4
\]

\[
\frac{9}{20} \text{ab} + \frac{1}{20} \text{aB} + \frac{1}{20} \text{Ab} + \frac{9}{20} \text{AB}
\]

Elements in this algebra whose coefficients sum to one play a distinguished role. They represent a population with the distribution of gametes reflected by the coefficients with respect to the basis of gametes.

Random mating of different populations \(x\) and \(y\) is described by their product \(x*y\).

This product is commutative only if the gametes are not sex-dependent, as in our example.

\[
\text{commutative?()}\text{A}
\]
true

Type: Boolean

In general, it is not associative.

associative?()$A$

false

Type: Boolean

Random mating within a population $x$ is described by $x \times x$. The next generation is $(x \times x) \times (x \times x)$.

Use decimal numbers to compare the distributions more easily.

$x : \text{ALGSC(DECIMAL, 4, gametes, segregationRates)} := \text{convert} \ [3/10, 1/5, 1/10, 2/5]$

\[0.4\, ab + 0.1\, aB + 0.2\, Ab + 0.3\, AB\]

Type: \text{AlgebraGivenByStructuralConstants(DecimalExpansion,4,\{AB,Ab,aB,ab\}, [MATRIX,MATRIX,MATRIX,MATRIX])}

To compute directly the gametic distribution in the fifth generation, we use \text{plenaryPower}.

\text{plenaryPower(x,5)}

\[0.36561\, ab + 0.13439\, aB + 0.23439\, Ab + 0.26561\, AB\]

Type: \text{AlgebraGivenByStructuralConstants(DecimalExpansion,4,\{AB,Ab,aB,ab\}, [MATRIX,MATRIX,MATRIX,MATRIX])}

We now ask two questions: Does this distribution converge to an equilibrium state? What are the distributions that are stable?

This is an invariant of the algebra and it is used to answer the first question. The new indeterminates describe a symbolic distribution.

$q := \text{leftRankPolynomial()}$\text{GCNAALG(FRAC INT, 4, gametes, segregationRates)} :: \text{UP(Y, POLY FRAC INT)}$
\[ Y^3 + \left( -\frac{29}{20} \%x4 - \frac{29}{20} \%x3 - \frac{29}{20} \%x2 - \frac{29}{20} \%x1 \right) Y^2 + \]
\[ \left( \frac{9}{20} \%x4^2 + \left( \frac{9}{10} \%x3 + \frac{9}{10} \%x2 + \frac{9}{10} \%x1 \right) \%x4 + \right. \]
\[ \left( \frac{9}{20} \%x2^2 + \left( \frac{9}{10} \%x2 + \frac{9}{10} \%x1 \right) \%x3 + \frac{9}{20} \%x2^2 + \right. \]
\[ \left( \frac{9}{10} \%x1 \%x2 + \frac{9}{20} \%x1^2 \right) \]

Type: \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(Y, \text{Polynomial Fraction Integer})

Because the coefficient \( \frac{9}{20} \) has absolute value less than 1, all distributions do converge, by a theorem of this theory.

\text{factor}(q \::\:: \text{POLY FRAC INT})

\( (Y - \%x4 - \%x3 - \%x2 - \%x1) * \)
\[ Y - \left( \frac{9}{20} \%x4 - \frac{9}{20} \%x3 - \frac{9}{20} \%x2 - \frac{9}{20} \%x1 \right) \]

Type: \text{Factored Polynomial Fraction Integer}

The second question is answered by searching for idempotents in the algebra.

\text{cI} := \text{conditionsForIdempotents()} \$\text{GCNAALG(\text{FRAC INT}, 4, \text{gametes, segregationRates})}

\[ \left[ \frac{9}{10} \%x1 \%x4 + \left( \frac{1}{10} \%x2 + \%x1 \right) \%x3 + \%x1 \%x2 + \%x1^2 - \%x1, \right. \]
\[ \left( \frac{1}{10} \%x1 \right) \%x4 + \frac{9}{10} \%x2 \%x3 + \%x2^2 + (\%x1 - 1) \%x2, \right. \]
\[ \left( \frac{1}{10} \%x1 \right) \%x4 + \%x3^2 + \left( \frac{9}{10} \%x2 + \%x1 - 1 \right) \%x3, \right. \]
\[ \%x4^2 + \left( \%x3 + \%x2 + \frac{9}{10} \%x1 - 1 \right) \%x4 + \frac{1}{10} \%x2 \%x3 \]

Type: \text{List Polynomial Fraction Integer}

Solve these equations and look at the first solution.

gbs := \text{groebnerFactorize cI}
Further analysis using the package PolynomialIdeals shows that there is a two-dimensional variety of equilibrium states and all other solutions are contained in it. Choose one equilibrium state by setting two indeterminates to concrete values.

\[\begin{align*}
\text{sol} & := \text{solve} \ \text{concat}(\text{gbs.1},[\%x1-1/10,\%x2-1/10]) \\
& = \left[\begin{array}{c}
\%x4 = \frac{2}{5}, \\
\%x3 = \frac{2}{5}, \\
\%x2 = \frac{1}{10}, \\
\%x1 = \frac{1}{10}
\end{array}\right]
\end{align*}\]

Choose one equilibrium state by setting two indeterminates to concrete values.

\[\begin{align*}
\text{sol} & := \text{solve} \ \text{concat}(\text{gbs.1},[\%x1-1/10,\%x2-1/10]) \\
& = \left[\begin{array}{c}
\%x4 = \frac{2}{5}, \\
\%x3 = \frac{2}{5}, \\
\%x2 = \frac{1}{10}, \\
\%x1 = \frac{1}{10}
\end{array}\right]
\end{align*}\]

Choose one equilibrium state by setting two indeterminates to concrete values.

\[\begin{align*}
\text{e} & := \text{represents reverse} \ \text{(map(rhs, sol.1))} :: \text{List FRAC INT} \\
& = \left[\begin{array}{c}
\frac{2}{5} \ab + \frac{2}{5} \ab \plus \frac{1}{10} A\ab + \frac{1}{10} AB
\end{array}\right]
\end{align*}\]

Verify the result.

\[\begin{align*}
\text{e}^2 - e & = 0 \\
\text{e}^2 - e & = 0
\end{align*}\]
Chapter 9

Some Examples of Domains and Packages

In this chapter we show examples of many of the most commonly used AXIOM domains and packages. The sections are organized by constructor names.

9.1 AssociationList

The AssociationList constructor provides a general structure for associative storage. This type provides association lists in which data objects can be saved according to keys of any type. For a given association list, specific types must be chosen for the keys and entries. You can think of the representation of an association list as a list of records with key and entry fields.

Association lists are a form of table and so most of the operations available for Table are also available for AssociationList. They can also be viewed as lists and can be manipulated accordingly.

This is a Record type with age and gender fields.

\[
\text{Data} := \text{Record(monthsOld} : \text{Integer, gender} : \text{String)}
\]

\[
\quad \text{Record(monthsOld: Integer, gender: String)}
\]

\[
\quad \text{Type: Domain}
\]

In this expression, \( a_l \) is declared to be an association list whose keys are strings and whose entries are the above records.

\[
a_l : \text{AssociationList(String,Data)}
\]
The `table` operation is used to create an empty association list.

```
al := table()
```

```
table()
```

Type: `AssociationList(String,Record(monthsOld: Integer,gender: String))`

You can use assignment syntax to add things to the association list.

```
al."bob" := [407,"male"]$Data
```

```
[monthsOld = 407, gender = "male"]
```

Type: `Record(monthsOld: Integer,gender: String)`

```
al."judith" := [366,"female"]$Data
```

```
[monthsOld = 366, gender = "female"]
```

Type: `Record(monthsOld: Integer,gender: String)`

```
al."katie" := [24,"female"]$Data
```

```
[monthsOld = 24, gender = "female"]
```

Type: `Record(monthsOld: Integer,gender: String)`

Perhaps we should have included a species field.

```
al."smokie" := [200,"female"]$Data
```

```
[monthsOld = 200, gender = "female"]
```

Type: `Record(monthsOld: Integer,gender: String)`

Now look at what is in the association list. Note that the last-added (key, entry) pair is at the beginning of the list.
al

\[
\begin{align*}
table & \{ 
\text{"smokie"} = \{ \text{monthsOld} = 200, \text{gender} = \text{"female"} \}, \\
\text{"katie"} & = \{ \text{monthsOld} = 24, \text{gender} = \text{"female"} \}, \\
\text{"judith"} & = \{ \text{monthsOld} = 366, \text{gender} = \text{"female"} \}, \\
\text{"bob"} & = \{ \text{monthsOld} = 407, \text{gender} = \text{"male"} \}
\}\end{align*}
\]

Type: AssociationList(String,Record(monthsOld: Integer,gender: String))

You can reset the entry for an existing key.

\[\text{al."katie" := \{23,}\text{"female"}\}}\]

*Data

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{[monthsOld = 23, gender = "female"]}
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Record(monthsOld: Integer,gender: String)

Use \texttt{delete} to destructively remove an element of the association list. Use \texttt{delete} to return a copy of the association list with the element deleted. The second argument is the index of the element to delete.

\[
delete!(al,1)
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
table & \{ 
\text{"katie"} = \{ \text{monthsOld} = 23, \text{gender} = \text{"female"} \}, \\
\text{"judith"} & = \{ \text{monthsOld} = 366, \text{gender} = \text{"female"} \}, \\
\text{"bob"} & = \{ \text{monthsOld} = 407, \text{gender} = \text{"male"} \}
\}\end{align*}
\]

Type: AssociationList(String,Record(monthsOld: Integer,gender: String))

For more information about tables, see 9.80 on page 805. For more information about lists, see 9.47 on page 663.

\section*{9.2 BalancedBinaryTree}

BalancedBinaryTrees(S) is the domain of balanced binary trees with elements of type S at the nodes. A binary tree is either empty or else consists of a node having a
value and two branches, each branch a binary tree. A balanced binary tree is one that
is balanced with respect its leaves. One with $2^k$ leaves is perfectly “balanced”: the tree
has minimum depth, and the left and right branch of every interior node is identical
in shape.

Balanced binary trees are useful in algebraic computation for so-called “divide-and-
conquer” algorithms. Conceptually, the data for a problem is initially placed at the root
of the tree. The original data is then split into two subproblems, one for each subtree.
And so on. Eventually, the problem is solved at the leaves of the tree. A solution to
the original problem is obtained by some mechanism that can reassemble the pieces.
In fact, an implementation of the Chinese Remainder Algorithm using balanced binary
trees was first proposed by David Y. Y. Yun at the IBM T. J. Watson Research Center
in Yorktown Heights, New York, in 1978. It served as the prototype for polymorphic
algorithms in Axiom.

In what follows, rather than perform a series of computations with a single expres-
sion, the expression is reduced modulo a number of integer primes, a computation is
done with modular arithmetic for each prime, and the Chinese Remainder Algorithm
is used to obtain the answer to the original problem. We illustrate this principle with
the computation of $12^2 = 144$.

A list of moduli.

\[ lm := [3,5,7,11] \]

\[ [3,5,7,11] \]

Type: List PositiveInteger

The expression \texttt{modTree(n, lm)} creates a balanced binary tree with leaf values \( n \mod m \) for each modulus \( m \) in \( lm \).

\texttt{modTree(12,lm)}

\[ [0,2,5,1] \]

Type: List Integer

Operation \texttt{modTree} does this using operations on balanced binary trees. We trace its
steps. Create a balanced binary tree \( t \) of zeros with four leaves.

\texttt{t := balancedBinaryTree(#lm, 0)}

\[ [[0,0,0],[0,0]] \]

Type: BalancedBinaryTree NonNegativeInteger
The leaves of the tree are set to the individual moduli.

\[
\text{setleaves!}(t, \text{lm})
\]

\[
[[3, 0, 5, 0, 7, 0, 11]]
\]

Type: BalancedBinaryTree NonNegativeInteger

Use \text{mapUp!} to do a bottom-up traversal of \( t \), setting each interior node to the product of the values at the nodes of its children.

\[
\text{mapUp!}(t, _\ast)
\]

1155

Type: PositiveInteger

The value at the node of every subtree is the product of the moduli of the leaves of the subtree.

\[
t
\]

\[
[[3, 15, 5, 1155, 7, 77, 11]]
\]

Type: BalancedBinaryTree NonNegativeInteger

Operation \text{mapDown!}(t, a, \text{fn}) replaces the value \( v \) at each node of \( t \) by \( \text{fn}(a, v) \).

\[
\text{mapDown!}(t, 12, \text{rem})
\]

\[
[[0, 12, 2, 12, 5, 12, 1]]
\]

Type: BalancedBinaryTree NonNegativeInteger

The operation \text{leaves} returns the leaves of the resulting tree. In this case, it returns the list of 12 mod \( m \) for each modulus \( m \).

\[
\text{leaves} \%
\]

\[
[0, 2, 5, 1]
\]

Type: List NonNegativeInteger
Compute the square of the images of 12 modulo each \( m \).

\[
\text{squares} := [x**2 \mod m \text{ for } x \text{ in } \% \text{ for } m \text{ in lm}]
\]

\[0, 4, 4, 1\]

Type: List NonNegativeInteger

Call the Chinese Remainder Algorithm to get the answer for 12\(^2\).

\[
\text{chineseRemainder}(%, \text{lm})
\]

144

Type: PositiveInteger

### 9.3 BasicOperator

A basic operator is an object that can be symbolically applied to a list of arguments from a set, the result being a kernel over that set or an expression. In addition to this section, please see 9.21 on page 528 and 9.37 on page 591 for additional information and examples.

You create an object of type BasicOperator by using the \texttt{operator} operation. This first form of this operation has one argument and it must be a symbol. The symbol should be quoted in case the name has been used as an identifier to which a value has been assigned.

A frequent application of BasicOperator is the creation of an operator to represent the unknown function when solving a differential equation.

Let \( y \) be the unknown function in terms of \( x \).

\[
y := \text{operator 'y}
\]

\[
y
\]

Type: BasicOperator

This is how you enter the equation \( y'' + y' + y = 0 \).

\[
deq := D(y \ x, x, 2) + D(y \ x, x) + y \ x = 0
\]
To solve the above equation, enter this.

\[
\text{solve}(\text{deq}, y, x)
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{particular} &= 0, \\
\text{basis} &= \left[ \cos \left( \frac{x \sqrt{3}}{2} \right) e^{-\frac{x}{2}}, \sin \left( \frac{x \sqrt{3}}{2} \right) e^{-\frac{x}{2}} \right]
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Union(Record(particular: Expression Integer, basis: List Expression Integer),...)

See ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ?? for this kind of use of BasicOperator. Use the single argument form of \text{operator} (as above) when you intend to use the operator to create functional expressions with an arbitrary number of arguments. \text{Nary} means an arbitrary number of arguments can be used in the functional expressions.

\[
nary? \ y
\]

\text{true}

Type: Boolean

\[
\text{unary? } y
\]

\text{false}

Type: Boolean

Use the two-argument form when you want to restrict the number of arguments in the functional expressions created with the operator. This operator can only be used to create functional expressions with one argument.

\[
\text{opOne} := \text{operator}(\text{’opOne}, 1)
\]

\text{opOne}

Type: BasicOperator
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nary? opOne

false

Type: Boolean

unary? opOne

true

Type: Boolean

Use \texttt{arity} to learn the number of arguments that can be used. It returns "false" if the operator is nary.

arity opOne

1

Type: Union(NonNegativeInteger,...)

Use \texttt{name} to learn the name of an operator.

name opOne

\textit{opOne}

Type: Symbol

Use \texttt{is?} to learn if an operator has a particular name.

is?(opOne, 'z2)

false

Type: Boolean

You can also use a string as the name to be tested against.

is?(opOne, "opOne")
You can attached named properties to an operator. These are rarely used at the top-level of the Axiom interactive environment but are used with Axiom library source code. By default, an operator has no properties.

properties y

\texttt{table()}

Type: AssociationList(String,None)

The interface for setting and getting properties is somewhat awkward because the property values are stored as values of type \texttt{None}. Attach a property by using \texttt{setProperty}.

\texttt{setProperty(y, "use", "unknown function" :: None )}

\texttt{y}

Type: BasicOperator

properties y

\texttt{table("use" = NONE)}

Type: AssociationList(String,None)

We know the property value has type \texttt{String}.

\texttt{property(y, "use") :: None pretend String}

\texttt{"unknown function"}

Type: String

Use \texttt{deleteProperty!} to destructively remove a property.

\texttt{deleteProperty!(y, "use")}
9.4 BinaryExpansion

All rational numbers have repeating binary expansions. Operations to access the individual bits of a binary expansion can be obtained by converting the value to RadixExpansion(2). More examples of expansions are available in 9.15 on page 517, 9.33 on page 573, and 9.65 on page 736.

The expansion (of type BinaryExpansion) of a rational number is returned by the binary operation.

\[
\text{r := binary}(22/7) \\
11.001 \\
\text{Type: BinaryExpansion}
\]

Arithmetic is exact.

\[
\text{r + binary}(6/7) \\
100 \\
\text{Type: BinaryExpansion}
\]

The period of the expansion can be short or long . . .

\[
\text{[binary}(1/i) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 102..106] \\
\text{[0.000000101, 0.00000010011110010011100111110010101001,} \\
0.00000010011110010011100111110010101001,} \\
0.00000010011110010011100111110010101001] \\
\]
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or very long.

binary(1/1007)

These numbers are bona fide algebraic objects.

p := binary(1/4)*x**2 + binary(2/3)*x + binary(4/9)

q := D(p, x)

g := gcd(p, q)
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9.5 BinarySearchTree

BinarySearchTree(R) is the domain of binary trees with elements of type R, ordered across the nodes of the tree. A non-empty binary search tree has a value of type R, and right and left binary search subtrees. If a subtree is empty, it is displayed as a period (".").

Define a list of values to be placed across the tree. The resulting tree has 8 at the root; all other elements are in the left subtree.

\[ lv := [8,3,5,4,6,2,1,5,7] \]

\[ [8,3,5,4,6,2,1,5,7] \]

Type: List PositiveInteger

A convenient way to create a binary search tree is to apply the operation binarySearchTree to a list of elements.

\[ t := \text{binarySearchTree} \ lv \]

\[ [[[1,2,.],3,4,5,6,7]],8,\]  

Type: BinarySearchTree PositiveInteger

Another approach is to first create an empty binary search tree of integers.

\[ \text{emptybst} := \text{empty}() \]

\[ [] \]

Type: BinarySearchTree Integer

Insert the value 8. This establishes 8 as the root of the binary search tree. Values inserted later that are less than 8 get stored in the left subtree, others in the right subtree.

\[ t1 := \text{insert!}(8,\text{emptybst}) \]

\[ 8 \]

Type: BinarySearchTree Integer
Insert the value 3. This number becomes the root of the left subtree of t1. For optimal retrieval, it is thus important to insert the middle elements first.

```
insert!(3,t1)
```

```
[3,8..]
```

Type: BinarySearchTree Integer

We go back to the original tree t. The leaves of the binary search tree are those which have empty left and right subtrees.

```
leaves t
```

```
[1,4,5,7]
```

Type: List PositiveInteger

The operation `split(k,t)` returns a containing the two subtrees: one with all elements “less” than k, another with elements “greater” than k.

```
split(3,t)
```

```
[less = [1,2..],greater = [[..,3,[4,5,[5,6,7]]],8..]]
```

Type: Record(less: BinarySearchTree PositiveInteger,greater: BinarySearchTree PositiveInteger)

Define `insertRoot` to insert new elements by creating a new node.

```
insertRoot: (INT,BSTREE INT) -> BSTREE INT
```

```
Type: Void
```

The new node puts the inserted value between its “less” tree and “greater” tree.

```
insertRoot(x, t) ==
  a := split(x, t)
  node(a.less, x, a.greater)
```

Function `buildFromRoot` builds a binary search tree from a list of elements `ls` and the empty tree `emptybst`. 
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buildFromRoot ls == reduce(insertRoot, ls, emptybst)

Type: Void

Apply this to the reverse of the list lv.

rt := buildFromRoot reverse lv

[[[1,2,..],[4,5,6,7]],8,..]

Type: BinarySearchTree Integer

Have Axiom check that these are equal.

(t = rt)@Boolean

true

Type: Boolean

9.6 CardinalNumber

The CardinalNumber domain can be used for values indicating the cardinality of sets, both finite and infinite. For example, the dimension operation in the category VectorSpace returns a cardinal number.

The non-negative integers have a natural construction as cardinals

0 = #{ }, 1 = {0}, 2 = {0, 1}, ..., n = {i | 0 <= i < n}.

The fact that 0 acts as a zero for the multiplication of cardinals is equivalent to the axiom of choice.

Cardinal numbers can be created by conversion from non-negative integers.

c0 := 0 :: CardinalNumber

0

Type: CardinalNumber
They can also be obtained as the named cardinal \( \text{Aleph}(n) \).

\[ A_0 := \text{Aleph } 0 \]

\[ \text{Aleph}(0) \]

\[ A_1 := \text{Aleph } 1 \]

\[ \text{Aleph}(1) \]

The \texttt{finite?} operation tests whether a value is a finite cardinal, that is, a non-negative integer.

\[ \text{finite? } c_2 \]

\[ \text{true} \]
finite? A0

false

Type: Boolean

Similarly, the countable? operation determines whether a value is a countable cardinal, that is, finite or Aleph(0).

countable? c2

true

Type: Boolean

countable? A0

true

Type: Boolean

countable? A1

false

Type: Boolean

Arithmetic operations are defined on cardinal numbers as follows: If \( x = \#X \) and \( y = \#Y \) then
- \( x + y = \#(X + Y) \) — cardinality of the disjoint union
- \( x - y = \#(X - Y) \) — cardinality of the relative complement
- \( x \cdot y = \#(X \cdot Y) \) — cardinality of the Cartesian product
- \( x^{*}y = \#(X^{*}Y) \) — cardinality of the set of maps from \( Y \) to \( X \)

Here are some arithmetic examples.

\[ [c2 + c2, c2 + A1] \]

\[ [4, \text{Aleph}(1)] \]

Type: List CardinalNumber
Subtraction is a partial operation: it is not defined when subtracting a larger cardinal from a smaller one, nor when subtracting two equal infinite cardinals.

The generalized continuum hypothesis asserts that

\[2^\text{Aleph } i = \text{Aleph } (i+1)\]

and is independent of the axioms of set theory.\(^1\)

The \texttt{CardinalNumber} domain provides an operation to assert whether the hypothesis is to be assumed.

\texttt{generalizedContinuumHypothesisAssumed true}

When the generalized continuum hypothesis is assumed, exponentiation to a transfinite power is allowed.

\[[c0**A0, c1**A0, c2**A0, A0**A0, A0**A0, A1**A0, A1**A1]

\[[0,1,\text{Aleph } (1), \text{Aleph } (1), \text{Aleph } (2), \text{Aleph } (1), \text{Aleph } (2)]\]

\textit{Type: List CardinalNumber}

---

\(^1\text{Goedel, The consistency of the continuum hypothesis, Ann. Math. Studies, Princeton Univ. Press, 1940.}\)
Three commonly encountered cardinal numbers are
\[ a = \# \mathbb{Z} \quad \text{countable infinity} \]
\[ c = \# \mathbb{R} \quad \text{the continuum} \]
\[ f = \# \{ g \mid g : [0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \} \]

In this domain, these values are obtained under the generalized continuum hypothesis in this way.

\[ a := \text{Aleph 0} \]

\[ \text{Aleph(0)} \quad \text{Type: CardinalNumber} \]

\[ c := 2^{\text{Aleph(0)}} \]

\[ \text{Aleph(1)} \quad \text{Type: CardinalNumber} \]

\[ f := 2^{\text{Aleph(1)}} \]

\[ \text{Aleph(2)} \quad \text{Type: CardinalNumber} \]

### 9.7 CartesianTensor

`CartesianTensor(i0, dim, R)` provides Cartesian tensors with components belonging to a commutative ring `R`. Tensors can be described as a generalization of vectors and matrices. This gives a concise tensor algebra for multilinear objects supported by the `CartesianTensor` domain. You can form the inner or outer product of any two tensors and you can add or subtract tensors with the same number of components. Additionally, various forms of traces and transpositions are useful.

The `CartesianTensor` constructor allows you to specify the minimum index for subscripting. In what follows we discuss in detail how to manipulate tensors.

Here we construct the domain of Cartesian tensors of dimension 2 over the integers, with indices starting at 1.

\[ \text{CT} := \text{CARTEN}(i0 := 1, 2, \text{Integer}) \]

\[ \text{CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)} \quad \text{Type: Domain} \]
Forming tensors

Scalars can be converted to tensors of rank zero.

\[ t_0: \text{CT} := 8 \]

\[
8
\]

Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

\[ \text{rank } t_0 \]

\[
0
\]

Type: NonNegativeInteger

Vectors (mathematical direct products, rather than one dimensional array structures) can be converted to tensors of rank one.

\[ v: \text{DirectProduct}(2, \text{Integer}) := \text{directProduct} \begin{bmatrix} 3, 4 \end{bmatrix} \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix} 3, 4 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: DirectProduct(2,Integer)

\[ T_v: \text{CT} := v \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix} 3, 4 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

Matrices can be converted to tensors of rank two.

\[ m: \text{SquareMatrix}(2, \text{Integer}) := \text{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} [1,2],[4,5] \end{bmatrix} \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

\[ T_m: \text{CT} := m \]
In general, a tensor of rank $k$ can be formed by making a list of rank $k-1$ tensors or, alternatively, a $k$-deep nested list of lists.

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In general, a tensor of rank $k$ can be formed by making a list of rank $k-1$ tensors or, alternatively, a $k$-deep nested list of lists.
t3: CT := \([t2, t2]\)
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 3 \\
2 & 3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 3 \\
2 & 3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

tt: CT := \([t3, t3]\); tt := \([tt, tt]\)
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 3 \\
2 & 3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 3 \\
2 & 3 \\
\end{bmatrix},
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 3 \\
2 & 3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 3 \\
2 & 3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

rank tt

5
Type: PositiveInteger

Multiplication

Given two tensors of rank k1 and k2, the outer product forms a new tensor of rank k1+k2. Here

\[T_{mn}(i, j, k, l) = T_m(i, j) T_n(k, l)\]

Tmn := product(Tm, Tn)
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 3 \\
0 & 1 \\
8 & 12 \\
0 & 4 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
4 & 6 \\
0 & 2 \\
10 & 15 \\
0 & 5 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

The inner product (contract) forms a tensor of rank k1+k2−2. This product generalizes the vector dot product and matrix-vector product by summing component products along two indices.
Here we sum along the second index of $T_m$ and the first index of $T_v$. Here

$$T_{mv} = \sum_{j=1}^{\dim} T_m(i, j) T_v(j)$$

$T_{mv} := \text{contract}(T_m, 2, T_v, 1)$

$$[11, 32]$$

Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

The multiplication operator "*" is scalar multiplication or an inner product depending on the ranks of the arguments.

If either argument is rank zero it is treated as scalar multiplication. Otherwise, $a \ast b$ is the inner product summing the last index of $a$ with the first index of $b$.

$T_m \ast T_v$

$$[11, 32]$$

Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

This definition is consistent with the inner product on matrices and vectors.

$T_{mv} = m \ast v$

$$[11, 32] = [11, 32]$$

Type: Equation CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

**Selecting Components**

For tensors of low rank (that is, four or less), components can be selected by applying the tensor to its indices.

$t_0()$

8

Type: PositiveInteger
A general indexing mechanism is provided for a list of indices.
The general mechanism works for tensors of arbitrary rank, but is somewhat less efficient since the intermediate index list must be created.

t3[2,1,2]

3

Type: PositiveInteger

Tmn[2,1,2,1]

0

Type: NonNegativeInteger

**Contraction**

A “contraction” between two tensors is an inner product, as we have seen above. You can also contract a pair of indices of a single tensor. This corresponds to a “trace” in linear algebra. The expression `contract(t,k1,k2)` forms a new tensor by summing the diagonal given by indices in position `k1` and `k2`. This is the tensor given by

\[ xT_{mn} = \sum_{k=1}^{\text{dim}} T_{mn}(k,k,i,j) \]

\[ cTmn := \text{contract}(Tmn,1,2) \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
12 & 18 \\
0 & 6
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

Since `Tmn` is the outer product of matrix `m` and matrix `n`, the above is equivalent to this.

\[ \text{trace}(m) \ast n \]
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
12 & 18 \\
0 & 6
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

In this and the next few examples, we show all possible contractions of $T_{mn}$ and their matrix algebra equivalents.

\[
\text{contract}(Tmn,1,2) = \text{trace}(m) \times n
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
12 & 18 \\
0 & 6
\end{pmatrix}
= \begin{pmatrix}
12 & 18 \\
0 & 6
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: Equation CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

\[
\text{contract}(Tmn,1,3) = \text{transpose}(m) \times n
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
2 & 7 \\
4 & 11
\end{pmatrix}
= \begin{pmatrix}
2 & 7 \\
4 & 11
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: Equation CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

\[
\text{contract}(Tmn,1,4) = \text{transpose}(m) \times \text{transpose}(n)
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
14 & 4 \\
19 & 5
\end{pmatrix}
= \begin{pmatrix}
14 & 4 \\
19 & 5
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: Equation CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

\[
\text{contract}(Tmn,2,3) = m \times n
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
2 & 5 \\
8 & 17
\end{pmatrix}
= \begin{pmatrix}
2 & 5 \\
8 & 17
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: Equation CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

\[
\text{contract}(Tmn,2,4) = m \times \text{transpose}(n)
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
8 & 2 \\
23 & 5
\end{pmatrix}
= \begin{pmatrix}
8 & 2 \\
23 & 5
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: Equation CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)
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\[ \text{contract}(Tmn, 3, 4) = \text{trace}(n) \times m \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
3 & 6 \\
12 & 15
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
3 & 6 \\
12 & 15
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Equation CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

Transpositions

You can exchange any desired pair of indices using the transpose operation.
Here the indices in positions one and three are exchanged, that is, \( iT_{mn}(i, j, k, l) = T_{mn}(k, j, i, l) \).

\[ tT_{mn} := \text{transpose}(Tmn, 1, 3) \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 3 \\
8 & 12 \\
0 & 1 \\
0 & 4
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
4 & 6 \\
10 & 15 \\
0 & 2 \\
0 & 5
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

If no indices are specified, the first and last index are exchanged.

\[ \text{transpose } Tmn \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 8 \\
0 & 0 \\
3 & 12 \\
1 & 4
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
4 & 10 \\
0 & 0 \\
6 & 15 \\
2 & 5
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

This is consistent with the matrix transpose.

\[ \text{transpose } Tm = \text{transpose } m \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 4 \\
2 & 5
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Equation CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)
If a more complicated reordering of the indices is required, then the \texttt{reindex} operation can be used. This operation allows the indices to be arbitrarily permuted. This defines $r_{mn}(i, j, k, l) = T_{mn}(i, l, j, k)$.

\[
r_{Tmn} := \text{reindex}(Tmn, [1, 4, 2, 3])
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  2 & 0 & 3 & 1 \\
  4 & 0 & 6 & 2 \\
  8 & 0 & 12 & 4 \\
 10 & 0 & 15 & 5
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\text{Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)}

\textbf{Arithmetic}

Tensors of equal rank can be added or subtracted so arithmetic expressions can be used to produce new tensors.

\[
tt := \text{transpose}(Tm) \cdot Tn - Tn \cdot \text{transpose}(Tm)
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  -6 & -16 \\
  2 & 6
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\text{Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)}

\[
Tv \cdot (tt + Tn)
\]

\[-4, -11\]

\text{Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)}

\[
\text{reindex(product}(Tn, Tn), [4, 3, 2, 1]) + 3 \cdot Tn \cdot \text{product}(Tm, Tm)
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  46 & 84 \\
  174 & 212 \\
  18 & 24 \\
  57 & 63
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  57 & 114 \\
  228 & 285 \\
  17 & 30 \\
  63 & 76
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\text{Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)}
Specific Tensors

Two specific tensors have properties which depend only on the dimension.

The Kronecker delta satisfies

\[
\delta(i,j) = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } i = j \\
0 & \text{if } i \neq j 
\end{cases}
\]

\[
\delta: \mathbb{C}^T := \text{kronerDelta}()
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

This can be used to reindex via contraction.

\[
\text{contract}(Tmn, 2, \delta, 1) = \text{reindex}(Tmn, [1,3,4,2])
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 4 \\
3 & 6 \\
8 & 10 \\
12 & 15 
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 \\
1 & 2 \\
0 & 0 \\
4 & 5 
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
= \begin{bmatrix}
2 & 4 \\
3 & 6 \\
8 & 10 \\
12 & 15 
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 \\
1 & 2 \\
0 & 0 \\
4 & 5 
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Equation CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

The Levi Civita symbol determines the sign of a permutation of indices.

\[
\epsilon: \mathbb{C}^T := \text{leviCivitaSymbol}()
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 \\
-1 & 0 
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

Here we have:

\[
\epsilon(i_1,\ldots,i_{\text{dim}})
\]

\[
= +1 \text{ if } i_1,\ldots,i_{\text{dim}} \text{ is an even permutation of } i_0,\ldots,i_{0+\text{dim}-1}
\]

\[
= -1 \text{ if } i_1,\ldots,i_{\text{dim}} \text{ is an odd permutation of } i_0,\ldots,i_{0+\text{dim}-1}
\]

\[
= 0 \text{ if } i_1,\ldots,i_{\text{dim}} \text{ is not a permutation of } i_0,\ldots,i_{0+\text{dim}-1}
\]
This property can be used to form determinants.

\[
\text{contract}(\text{epsilon} \ast Tm \ast \text{epsilon}, 1,2) = 2 \ast \text{determinant } m
\]

\[-6 = -6\]

Type: Equation CartesianTensor(1,2,Integer)

**Properties of the CartesianTensor domain**

GradedModule\((R, E)\) denotes “E-graded \(R\)-module”, that is, a collection of \(R\)-modules indexed by an abelian monoid \(E\). An element \(g\) of \(G[s]\) for some specific \(s\) in \(E\) is said to be an element of \(G\) with degree \(s\). Sums are defined in each module \(G[s]\) so two elements of \(G\) can be added if they have the same degree. Morphisms can be defined and composed by degree to give the mathematical category of graded modules.

GradedAlgebra\((R, E)\) denotes “E-graded \(R\)-algebra.” A graded algebra is a graded module together with a degree preserving \(R\)-bilinear map, called the product.

\[
\text{degree}(\text{product}(a,b)) = \text{degree}(a) + \text{degree}(b)
\]

\[
\text{product}(r \ast a, b) = \text{product}(a, r \ast b) = r \ast \text{product}(a, b)
\]

\[
\text{product}(a_1+a_2, b) = \text{product}(a_1,b) + \text{product}(a_2,b)
\]

\[
\text{product}(a,b_1+b_2) = \text{product}(a,b_1) + \text{product}(a,b_2)
\]

\[
\text{product}(a,\text{product}(b,c)) = \text{product}(\text{product}(a,b),c)
\]

The domain CartesianTensor\((i0, \text{dim}, R)\) belongs to the category GradedAlgebra\((R, \text{NonNegativeInteger})\). The non-negative integer degree is the tensor rank and the graded algebra product is the tensor outer product. The graded module addition captures the notion that only tensors of equal rank can be added.

If \(V\) is a vector space of dimension \(\text{dim}\) over \(R\), then the tensor module \(T[k](V)\) is defined as

\[
T[0](V) = R
\]

\[
T[k](V) = T[k-1](V) \ast V
\]

where \(\ast\) denotes the \(R\)-module tensor product. CartesianTensor\((i0, \text{dim}, R)\) is the graded algebra in which the degree \(k\) module is \(T[k](V)\).

**Tensor Calculus**

It should be noted here that often tensors are used in the context of tensor-valued manifold maps. This leads to the notion of covariant and contravariant bases with tensor
component functions transforming in specific ways under a change of coordinates on the manifold. This is no more directly supported by the CartesianTensor domain than it is by the Vector domain. However, it is possible to have the components implicitly represent component maps by choosing a polynomial or expression type for the components. In this case, it is up to the user to satisfy any constraints which arise on the basis of this interpretation.

### 9.8 Character

The members of the domain Character are values representing letters, numerals and other text elements. For more information on related topics, see 9.9 on page 478 and 9.77 on page 793.

Characters can be obtained using String notation.

\[
\text{chars := [char "a", char "A", char "x", char "8", char "+"]}
\]

\[a, A, X, 8, +\]

Type: List Character

Certain characters are available by name. This is the blank character.

\[\text{space()}
\]

Type: Character

This is the quote that is used in strings.

\[\text{quote()}
\]

" 

Type: Character

This is the escape character that allows quotes and other characters within strings.

\[\text{escape()}
\]

_
Characters are represented as integers in a machine-dependent way. The integer value can be obtained using the `ord` operation. It is always true that \( \text{char}(\text{ord } c) = c \) and \( \text{ord}(	ext{char } i) = i \), provided that \( i \) is in the range \( 0..\text{size}()\)$Character-1.

\[
\text{[ord } c \text{ for } c \text{ in chars]}
\]

\[97, 65, 88, 56, 43\]

Type: List Integer

The `lowerCase` operation converts an upper case letter to the corresponding lower case letter. If the argument is not an upper case letter, then it is returned unchanged.

\[
\text{[upperCase } c \text{ for } c \text{ in chars]}
\]

\[]A, A, X, 8, +\]

Type: List Character

Likewise, the `upperCase` operation converts lower case letters to upper case.

\[
\text{[lowerCase } c \text{ for } c \text{ in chars]}
\]

\[a, a, x, 8, +\]

Type: List Character

A number of tests are available to determine whether characters belong to certain families.

\[
\text{[alphabetic? } c \text{ for } c \text{ in chars]}
\]

\[true, true, true, false, false\]

Type: List Boolean

\[
\text{[upperCase? } c \text{ for } c \text{ in chars]}
\]

\[false, true, true, false, false\]
9.9 CharacterClass

The CharacterClass domain allows classes of characters to be defined and manipulated efficiently.

Character classes can be created by giving either a string or a list of characters.

cl1 := charClass [char "a", char "e", char "i", char "o", char "u", char "y"]

"aelouy"

Type: CharacterClass
cl2 := charClass "bcdfghjklnopqrstuvwxyz"
        "bcdfghjklnopqrstuvwxyz"
        Type: CharacterClass

A number of character classes are predefined for convenience.

digit()
        "0123456789"
        Type: CharacterClass

hexDigit()
        "0123456789ABCDEFabcdef"
        Type: CharacterClass

upperCase()
        "ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ"
        Type: CharacterClass

lowerCase()
        "abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz"
        Type: CharacterClass

alphabetical()
        "ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZabcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz"
        Type: CharacterClass

alphanumeric()
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"0123456789ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZabcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz"

Type: CharacterClass

You can quickly test whether a character belongs to a class.

member?(char "a", cl1)  
true
Type: Boolean

member?(char "a", cl2)  
false
Type: Boolean

Classes have the usual set operations because the CharacterClass domain belongs to the category FiniteSetAggregate(Character).

intersect(cl1, cl2)  
"y"
Type: CharacterClass

union(cl1,c2)  
"abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz"
Type: CharacterClass

difference(c1,cl2)  
"aeiou"
Type: CharacterClass

intersect(complement(c1),cl2)
"bcdfghjklmnpqrstvwxz"

Type: CharacterClass

You can modify character classes by adding or removing characters.

insert!(char "a", cl2)

"abcdghjklnpqrstvwxyz"

Type: CharacterClass

remove!(char "b", cl2)

"acdfghjklmnpqrstvwxyz"

Type: CharacterClass

For more information on related topics, see 9.8 on page 476 and 9.77 on page 793.

9.10 CliffordAlgebra

CliffordAlgebra\(n,K,Q\) defines a vector space of dimension \(2^n\) over the field \(K\) with a given quadratic form \(Q\). If \(\{e_1,\ldots,e_n\}\) is a basis for \(K^n\) then

\[
\{ 1,
    e(i) \ 1 \leq i \leq n,
    e(i1)*e(i2) \ 1 \leq i1 \leq i2 \leq n,
    \ldots,
    e(1)*e(2)*\ldots*e(n) \}
\]

is a basis for the Clifford algebra. The algebra is defined by the relations

\[
e(i)*e(i) = Q(e(i))
\]
\[
e(i)*e(j) = -e(j)*e(i), \ i \neq j
\]

Examples of Clifford Algebras are gaussians (complex numbers), quaternions, exterior algebras and spin algebras.
9.10.1 The Complex Numbers as a Clifford Algebra

This is the field over which we will work, rational functions with integer coefficients.

\[ K := \text{Fraction Polynomial Integer} \]

\text{Type: Domain}

We use this matrix for the quadratic form.

\[ m := \text{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} \{-1\} \end{bmatrix} \]

\text{Type: Matrix Integer}

We get complex arithmetic by using this domain.

\[ C := \text{CliffordAlgebra}(1, K, \text{quadraticForm } m) \]

\text{CliffordAlgebra}(1,\text{Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX})

\text{Type: Domain}

Here is \( i \), the usual square root of \(-1\).

\[ i := C := e(1) \]

\text{Type: CliffordAlgebra}(1,\text{Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX})

Here are some examples of the arithmetic.

\[ x := a + b \times i \]

\text{Type: CliffordAlgebra}(1,\text{Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX})
\( y := c + d \ast i \)

\( c + d e_1 \)

Type: CliffordAlgebra(1,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX)

See 9.11 on page 489 for examples of Axiom’s constructor implementing complex numbers.

\( x \ast y \)

\(-b \ast d + a \ast c + (a \ast d + b \ast c) \ast e_1 \)

Type: CliffordAlgebra(1,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX)

### 9.10.2 The Quaternion Numbers as a Clifford Algebra

This is the field over which we will work, rational functions with integer coefficients.

\( K := \text{Fraction Polynomial Integer} \)

\( \text{Fraction Polynomial Integer} \)

Type: Domain

We use this matrix for the quadratic form.

\( m := \text{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} [-1,0],[0,-1] \end{bmatrix} \)

\( \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \)

Type: Matrix Integer

The resulting domain is the quaternions.

\( H := \text{CliffordAlgebra}(2, K, \text{quadraticForm } m) \)

CliffordAlgebra(2,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX)

Type: Domain
We use Hamilton’s notation for i, j, k.

\( i: \ H := e(1) \)

\( e_1 \)

Type: CliffordAlgebra(2, Fraction Polynomial Integer, MATRIX)

\( j: \ H := e(2) \)

\( e_2 \)

Type: CliffordAlgebra(2, Fraction Polynomial Integer, MATRIX)

\( k: \ H := i \ast j \)

\( e_1 e_2 \)

Type: CliffordAlgebra(2, Fraction Polynomial Integer, MATRIX)

\( x := a + b \ast i + c \ast j + d \ast k \)

\( a + b e_1 + c e_2 + d e_1 e_2 \)

Type: CliffordAlgebra(2, Fraction Polynomial Integer, MATRIX)

\( y := e + f \ast i + g \ast j + h \ast k \)

\( e + f e_1 + g e_2 + h e_1 e_2 \)

Type: CliffordAlgebra(2, Fraction Polynomial Integer, MATRIX)

\( x + y \)

\( e + a + (f + b) e_1 + (g + c) e_2 + (h + d) e_1 e_2 \)

Type: CliffordAlgebra(2, Fraction Polynomial Integer, MATRIX)

\( x \ast y \)
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\[
-d h - c g - b f + a e + (c h - d g + a f + b e) e_1 + \\
(-b h + a g + d f + c e) e_2 + (a h + b g - c f + d e) e_1 e_2
\]

Type: CliffordAlgebra(2, Fraction Polynomial Integer, MATRIX)

See 9.64 on page 734 for examples of Axiom’s constructor implementing quaternions.

\[
y \ast x
\]

\[
-d h - c g - b f + a e + (-c h + d g + a f + b e) e_1 + \\
(b h + a g - d f + c e) e_2 + (a h - b g + c f + d e) e_1 e_2
\]

Type: CliffordAlgebra(2, Fraction Polynomial Integer, MATRIX)

### 9.10.3 The Exterior Algebra on a Three Space

This is the field over which we will work, rational functions with integer coefficients.

\[
K := \text{Fraction Polynomial Integer}
\]

\[
\text{Fraction Polynomial Integer}
\]

Type: Domain

If we chose the three by three zero quadratic form, we obtain the exterior algebra on \(e(1), e(2), e(3)\).

\[
\text{Ext} := \text{CliffordAlgebra}(3, K, \text{quadraticForm 0})
\]

\[
\text{CliffordAlgebra}(3, \text{Fraction Polynomial Integer}, \text{MATRIX})
\]

Type: Domain

This is a three dimensional vector algebra. We define \(i, j, k\) as the unit vectors.

\[
i: \text{Ext} := e(1)
\]

\[
e_1
\]

Type: CliffordAlgebra(3, Fraction Polynomial Integer, MATRIX)
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\[ j: \text{Ext} := e(2) \]

\[ e_2 \]

Type: CliffordAlgebra(3,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX)

\[ k: \text{Ext} := e(3) \]

\[ e_3 \]

Type: CliffordAlgebra(3,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX)

Now it is possible to do arithmetic.

\[ x := x_1i + x_2j + x_3k \]

\[ x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2 + x_3 e_3 \]

Type: CliffordAlgebra(3,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX)

\[ y := y_1i + y_2j + y_3k \]

\[ y_1 e_1 + y_2 e_2 + y_3 e_3 \]

Type: CliffordAlgebra(3,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX)

\[ x + y \]

\[ (y_1 + x_1) e_1 + (y_2 + x_2) e_2 + (y_3 + x_3) e_3 \]

Type: CliffordAlgebra(3,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX)

\[ x \cdot y + y \cdot x \]

\[ 0 \]

Type: CliffordAlgebra(3,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX)

On an \( n \) space, a grade \( p \) form has a dual \( n-p \) form. In particular, in three space the dual of a grade two element identifies \( e_1 e_2 \rightarrow e_3, e_2 e_3 \rightarrow e_1, e_3 e_1 \rightarrow e_2 \).
dual2 \ a == \text{coefficient}(a, [2, 3]) \ * \ i + \text{coefficient}(a, [3, 1]) \ * \ j + \text{coefficient}(a, [1, 2]) \ * \ k

\text{Type: Void}

The vector cross product is then given by this.

dual2(x*y)

\text{Compiling function dual2 with type CliffordAlgebra(3,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX) -> CliffordAlgebra(3,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX)}

(x^2 \ y^3 - x^3 \ y^2) \ e_1 + (-x^1 \ y^3 + x^3 \ y^1) \ e_2 + (x^1 \ y^2 - x^2 \ y^1) \ e_3

\text{Type: CliffordAlgebra(3,Fraction Polynomial Integer,MATRIX)}

\section{The Dirac Spin Algebra}

In this section we will work over the field of rational numbers.

\text{K} := \text{Fraction Integer}

\text{Fraction Integer}

\text{Type: Domain}

We define the quadratic form to be the Minkowski space-time metric.

\text{g} := \text{matrix} \ [ [1,0,0,0], [0,-1,0,0], [0,0,-1,0], [0,0,0,-1] ]

\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1
\end{bmatrix}

\text{Type: Matrix Integer}

We obtain the Dirac spin algebra used in Relativistic Quantum Field Theory.

\text{D} := \text{CliffordAlgebra(4,K, quadraticForm g)}
CliffordAlgebra(4,Fraction Integer,MATRIX)

Type: Domain

The usual notation for the basis is $\gamma$ with a superscript. For Axiom input we will use $\gamma(i)$:

$$\gamma := [e(i) for i in 1..4]$$

$$[e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4]$$

Type: List CliffordAlgebra(4,Fraction Integer,MATRIX)

There are various contraction identities of the form

$$g(l,t)\gamma(l)\gamma(m)\gamma(n)\gamma(r)\gamma(s)\gamma(t) = 2(\gamma(s)\gamma(m)\gamma(n)\gamma(r) + \gamma(r)\gamma(n)\gamma(m)\gamma(s))$$

where a sum over $l$ and $t$ is implied.

Verify this identity for particular values of $m, n, r, s$.

$$m := 1; n := 2; r := 3; s := 4;$$

$$\text{Type: PositiveInteger}$$

$$\text{lhs := reduce(+, [reduce(+, [}
\text{\quad g(l,t)\gamma(l)\gamma(m)\gamma(n)\gamma(r)\gamma(s)\gamma(t) for l in 1..4])
\text{\quad for t in 1..4])}$$

$$-4 e_1 e_2 e_3 e_4$$

$$\text{Type: CliffordAlgebra(4,Fraction Integer,MATRIX)}$$

$$\text{rhs := 2(\gamma s \gamma m \gamma n \gamma r + \gamma r \gamma n \gamma m \gamma s)}$$

$$-4 e_1 e_2 e_3 e_4$$

$$\text{Type: CliffordAlgebra(4,Fraction Integer,MATRIX)}$$
9.11 Complex

The Complex constructor implements complex objects over a commutative ring \( R \). Typically, the ring \( R \) is \texttt{Integer}, \texttt{Fraction Integer}, \texttt{Float} or \texttt{DoubleFloat}. \( R \) can also be a symbolic type, like \texttt{Polynomial Integer}. For more information about the numerical and graphical aspects of complex numbers, see 8.1 on page 337.

Complex objects are created by the \texttt{complex} operation.

\begin{verbatim}
a := complex(4/3,5/2)
\end{verbatim}

\[
\frac{4}{3} + \frac{5}{2} \, i
\]

Type: Complex Fraction Integer

\begin{verbatim}
b := complex(4/3,-5/2)
\end{verbatim}

\[
\frac{4}{3} - \frac{5}{2} \, i
\]

Type: Complex Fraction Integer

The standard arithmetic operations are available.

\begin{verbatim}
a + b
\end{verbatim}

\[
\frac{8}{3}
\]

Type: Complex Fraction Integer

\begin{verbatim}
a - b
\end{verbatim}

\[
5 \, i
\]

Type: Complex Fraction Integer

\begin{verbatim}
a * b
\end{verbatim}

\[
\frac{289}{36}
\]
If $R$ is a field, you can also divide the complex objects.

$$a / b$$

$$\frac{-161}{289} + \frac{240}{289} i$$

Type: Complex Fraction Integer

Use a conversion (?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??) to view the last object as a fraction of complex integers.

$$\% :: \text{Fraction Complex Integer}$$

$$\frac{-15 + 8 i}{15 + 8 i}$$

Type: Fraction Complex Integer

The predefined macro $\%i$ is defined to be $\text{complex}(0,1)$.

$$3.4 + 6.7 * \%i$$

$$3.4 + 6.7 i$$

Type: Complex Float

You can also compute the conjugate and norm of a complex number.

$$\text{conjugate } a$$

$$\frac{4}{3} - \frac{5}{2} i$$

Type: Complex Fraction Integer

$$\text{norm } a$$

$$\frac{289}{36}$$
The real and imag operations are provided to extract the real and imaginary parts, respectively.

real a

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{4}{3}
\end{array}
\]

Type: Fraction Integer

imag a

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\frac{5}{2}
\end{array}
\]

Type: Fraction Integer

The domain Complex Integer is also called the Gaussian integers. If \( R \) is the integers (or, more generally, a EuclideanDomain), you can compute greatest common divisors.

\[
gcd(13 - 13*\%i,31 + 27*\%i)
\]

\[
5 + i
\]

Type: Complex Integer

You can also compute least common multiples.

\[
lcm(13 - 13*\%i,31 + 27*\%i)
\]

\[
143 - 39 i
\]

Type: Complex Integer

You can factor Gaussian integers.

\[
factor(13 - 13*\%i)
\]

\[
-(1 + i) (2 + 3 i) (3 + 2 i)
\]

Type: Factored Complex Integer
factor complex(2,0)

\[-i(1+i)^2\]

Type: Factored Complex Integer

9.12 ContinuedFraction

Continued fractions have been a fascinating and useful tool in mathematics for well over three hundred years. Axiom implements continued fractions for fractions of any Euclidean domain. In practice, this usually means rational numbers. In this section we demonstrate some of the operations available for manipulating both finite and infinite continued fractions. It may be helpful if you review 9.76 on page 790 to remind yourself of some of the operations with streams.

The ContinuedFraction domain is a field and therefore you can add, subtract, multiply and divide the fractions.

The continuedFraction operation converts its fractional argument to a continued fraction.

c := continuedFraction(314159/100000)

\[\frac{3}{7 + \frac{1}{15 + \frac{1}{25 + \frac{1}{7 + \frac{1}{4}}}}}\]

Type: ContinuedFraction Integer

This display is a compact form of the bulkier

\[\frac{3}{7 + \frac{1}{15 + \frac{1}{25 + \frac{1}{7 + \frac{1}{4}}}}}\]
You can write any rational number in a similar form. The fraction will be finite and you can always take the “numerators” to be 1. That is, any rational number can be written as a simple, finite continued fraction of the form

\[
a(1) + \frac{1}{a(2) + \frac{1}{a(3) + \cdots + \frac{1}{a(n-1) + \frac{1}{a(n)}}}}
\]

The \(a_i\) are called partial quotients and the operation \texttt{partialQuotients} creates a stream of them.

\texttt{partialQuotients c}

\[[3, 7, 15, 1, 25, 1, 7, \ldots]\]

Type: Stream Integer

By considering more and more of the fraction, you get the \texttt{convergents}. For example, the first convergent is \(a_1\), the second is \(a_1 + 1/a_2\) and so on.

\texttt{convergents c}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
3 & 22 & 333 & 355 & 9208 & 9563 & 76149 \\
7 & 106 & 113 & 2931 & 3044 & 24239 & \ldots
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Stream Fraction Integer

Since this is a finite continued fraction, the last convergent is the original rational number, in reduced form. The result of \texttt{approximants} is always an infinite stream, though it may just repeat the “last” value.

\texttt{approximants c}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
3 & 22 & 333 & 355 & 9208 & 9563 & 76149 \\
7 & 106 & 113 & 2931 & 3044 & 24239 & \ldots
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Inverting \( c \) only changes the partial quotients of its fraction by inserting a 0 at the beginning of the list.

\[
pq := \text{partialQuotients}(1/c)
\]

\[
[0, 3, 7, 15, 1, 25, 1, ...]
\]

Do this to recover the original continued fraction from this list of partial quotients. The three-argument form of the \texttt{continuedFraction} operation takes an element which is the whole part of the fraction, a stream of elements which are the numerators of the fraction, and a stream of elements which are the denominators of the fraction.

\[
\text{continuedFraction(first pq, repeating [1], rest pq)}
\]

\[
\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{7 + \frac{1}{15 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{25 + \frac{1}{1 + ...}}}}}
\]

The streams need not be finite for \texttt{continuedFraction}. Can you guess which irrational number has the following continued fraction? See the end of this section for the answer.

\[
z := \text{continuedFraction}(3, \text{repeating [1], repeating [3, 6]})
\]

\[
3 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{6 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{6 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{6 + ...}}}}}}
\]

In 1737 Euler discovered the infinite continued fraction expansion

\[
e - 1 = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{6 + \frac{1}{10 + ...}}}}
\]
We use this expansion to compute rational and floating point approximations of \( e \).

By looking at the above expansion, we see that the whole part is 0 and the numerators are all equal to 1. This constructs the stream of denominators.

\[
dens: \text{Stream Integer} := \text{cons}(1, \text{generate}((x\rightarrow x+4), 6))
\]

\[ [1, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, ...] \]

Type: \text{Stream Integer}

Therefore this is the continued fraction expansion for \( (e - 1)/2 \).

\[
cf := \text{continuedFraction}(0, \text{repeating} [1], \text{dens})
\]

\[
\frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{6 + \frac{1}{10 + \frac{1}{14 + \frac{1}{18 + \frac{1}{22 + \frac{1}{26} + ...}}}}}}
\]

Type: \text{ContinuedFraction Integer}

These are the rational number convergents.

\[
ccf := \text{convergents} cf
\]

\[
[0, 1, 6, 61, 860, 15541, 342762, ...]
\]

Type: \text{Stream Fraction Integer}

You can get rational convergents for \( e \) by multiplying by 2 and adding 1.

\[
eConvergents := [2*\text{e} + 1 \text{ for e in ccf}]
\]

\[
[1, 3, 19, 193, 2721, 49171, 1084483, ...]
\]

Type: \text{Stream Fraction Integer}

You can also compute the floating point approximations to these convergents.

\[
eConvergents :: \text{Stream Float}
\]

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[1.0, 3.0, 2.7142857142857142857, 2.7183098591549295775, 2.7182817182817182817, 2.7182818287356957267, 2.718281828458634113, ...]

Type: Stream Float

Compare this to the value of e computed by the exp operation in Float.

exp 1.0

2.7182818284590452354

Type: Float

In about 1658, Lord Brouncker established the following expansion for \(4/\pi\),

\[
1 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{9}{2 + \frac{25}{2 + \frac{49}{2 + \frac{81}{2 + \ldots}}}}}
\]

Let's use this expansion to compute rational and floating point approximations for \(\pi\).

cf := continuedFraction(1,[(2*i+1)**2 for i in 0..],repeating [2])

\[
1 + \frac{1}{|2 + \frac{9}{|2 + \frac{25}{|2 + \frac{49}{|2 + \frac{81}{|2 + \ldots}}}}}}
\]

Type: ContinuedFraction Integer

ccf := convergents cf

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1.3 & 15 & 105 & 315 & 3465 & 45045 \\
1.2 & 13 & 76 & 263 & 2578 & 36979
\end{bmatrix}
\]
As you can see, the values are converging to $\pi = 3.14159265358979323846\ldots$, but not very quickly.

You need not restrict yourself to continued fractions of integers. Here is an expansion for a quotient of Gaussian integers.

This is an expansion for a quotient of polynomials in one variable with rational number coefficients.
\[ \frac{x^2 - 3x + 2}{x^2 - 7x + 12} \]

Type: Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)

continuedFraction r

\[ 1 + \frac{1}{\frac{9}{8} x - \frac{1}{16} x - \frac{40}{5}} \]

Type: ContinuedFraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)

To conclude this section, we give you evidence that

\[ z = 3 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{6 + \frac{1}{3 + \ldots}} \quad \sqrt{11} \]

\[[i*i for i in convergents(z) :: Stream Float]\]

\[[9.0, 11.1111111111111111111111, 10.99445983379501385, 11.000277777777777777778, 10.999986076398799786, 11.000000697929731039, 10.999999965015834446, ...] \]

Type: Stream Float

9.13 CycleIndicators

This section is based upon the paper J. H. Redfield, “The Theory of Group-Reduced Distributions”, American J. Math.,49 (1927) 433-455, and is an application of group
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Theory to enumeration problems. It is a development of the work by P. A. MacMahon on the application of symmetric functions and Hammond operators to combinatorial theory.

The theory is based upon the power sum symmetric functions $s_i$ which are the sum of the $i$-th powers of the variables. The cycle index of a permutation is an expression that specifies the sizes of the cycles of a permutation, and may be represented as a partition. A partition of a non-negative integer $n$ is a collection of positive integers called its parts whose sum is $n$. For example, the partition $(3^2 \ 2 \ 1^2)$ will be used to represent $s_3^2 s_2 s_1^2$ and will indicate that the permutation has two cycles of length 3, one of length 2 and two of length 1. The cycle index of a permutation group is the sum of the cycle indices of its permutations divided by the number of permutations. The cycle indices of certain groups are provided.

The operation complete returns the cycle index of the symmetric group of order $n$ for argument $n$. Alternatively, it is the $n$-th complete homogeneous symmetric function expressed in terms of power sum symmetric functions.

\[
\text{complete 1}
\]

\[
\frac{1}{2} (2) + \frac{1}{2} (1^2)
\]

Type: SymmetricPolynomial Fraction Integer

\[
\text{complete 2}
\]

\[
\frac{1}{3} (3) + \frac{1}{2} (2 \ 1) + \frac{1}{6} (1^3)
\]

Type: SymmetricPolynomial Fraction Integer

\[
\text{complete 3}
\]

\[
\frac{1}{7} (7) + \frac{1}{6} (6 \ 1) + \frac{1}{15} (5 \ 2) + \frac{1}{12} (5 \ 1^2) + \frac{1}{12} (4 \ 3) + \frac{1}{8} (4 \ 2 \ 1) +
\]

\[
\frac{1}{24} (4 \ 1^3) + \frac{1}{18} (3^2 \ 1) + \frac{1}{24} (3 \ 2^2) + \frac{1}{12} (3 \ 2 \ 1^2) + \frac{1}{72} (3 \ 1^4) +
\]

\[
\frac{1}{48} (2^3 \ 1) + \frac{1}{48} (2^2 \ 1^3) + \frac{1}{240} (2 \ 1^5) + \frac{1}{5040} (1^7)
\]

Type: SymmetricPolynomial Fraction Integer
The operation `elementary` computes the $n$-th elementary symmetric function for argument $n$.

\[
\text{elementary 7}
\]

\[
\frac{1}{7} (7) - \frac{1}{6} (6 \ 1) - \frac{1}{10} (5 \ 2) + \frac{1}{10} (5 \ 1^2) - \frac{1}{12} (4 \ 3) + \frac{1}{8} (4 \ 2 \ 1) - \frac{1}{24} (4 \ 1^3) + \frac{1}{18} (3^2 \ 1) + \frac{1}{24} (3 \ 2^2) - \frac{1}{12} (3 \ 2 \ 1^2) + \frac{1}{72} (3 \ 1^4) - \frac{1}{48} (2^3 \ 1) + \frac{1}{48} (2^2 \ 1^3) - \frac{1}{240} (2 \ 1^5) + \frac{1}{5040} (1^7)
\]

The operation `alternating` returns the cycle index of the alternating group having an even number of even parts in each cycle partition.

\[
\text{alternating 7}
\]

\[
\frac{2}{7} (7) + \frac{1}{5} (5 \ 1^2) + \frac{1}{4} (4 \ 2 \ 1) + \frac{1}{9} (3^2 \ 1) + \frac{1}{12} (3 \ 2^2) + \frac{1}{56} (3 \ 1^4) + \frac{1}{24} (2^2 \ 1^3) + \frac{1}{2520} (1^7)
\]

The operation `cyclic` returns the cycle index of the cyclic group.

\[
\text{cyclic 7}
\]

\[
\frac{6}{7} (7) + \frac{1}{7} (1^7)
\]

The operation `dihedral` is the cycle index of the dihedral group.

\[
\text{dihedral 7}
\]

\[
\frac{3}{7} (7) + \frac{1}{2} (2^3 \ 1) + \frac{1}{14} (1^7)
\]
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Type: SymmetricPolynomial Fraction Integer

The operation `graphs` for argument \( n \) returns the cycle index of the group of permutations on the edges of the complete graph with \( n \) nodes induced by applying the symmetric group to the nodes.

\[
\text{graphs } 5
\]
\[
\frac{1}{6} (6 \ 3 \ 1) + \frac{1}{5} (5^2) + \frac{1}{4} (4^2 \ 2) + \frac{1}{3} (3^3 \ 1) + \frac{1}{8} (2^4 \ 1^2) + \frac{1}{12} (2^3 \ 1^4) + \frac{1}{120} (1^{10})
\]

Type: SymmetricPolynomial Fraction Integer

The cycle index of a direct product of two groups is the product of the cycle indices of the groups. Redfield provided two operations on two cycle indices which will be called “cup” and “cap” here. The cup of two cycle indices is a kind of scalar product that combines monomials for permutations with the same cycles. The cap operation provides the sum of the coefficients of the result of the cup operation which will be an integer that enumerates what Redfield called group-reduced distributions.

We can, for example, represent `complete 2 * complete 2` as the set of objects `a a b b` and `complete 2 * complete 1 * complete 1` as `c c d e`. This integer is the number of different sets of four pairs.

\[
cap(\text{complete } 2**2, \text{complete } 2*\text{complete } 1**2)
\]

\[
4
\]

Type: Fraction Integer

For example,

```
a a b b       a a b b       a a b b       a a b b
b b c c       c c d e       c d c e       c e c d
```

This integer is the number of different sets of four pairs no two pairs being equal.

\[
cap(\text{elementary } 2**2, \text{complete } 2*\text{complete } 1**2)
\]

\[
2
\]

Type: Fraction Integer
For example,

\[ \begin{array}{cccccccc}
  a & a & b & b & a & a & b & b \\
  c & d & c & e & c & e & c & d 
\end{array} \]

In this case the configurations enumerated are easily constructed, however the theory merely enumerates them providing little help in actually constructing them.

Here are the number of 6-pairs, first from \(a\ a\ a\ b\ b\ c\), second from \(d\ d\ e\ e\ f\ g\).

\[
cap(\text{complete } 3 \cdot \text{complete } 2 \cdot \text{complete } 1, \text{complete } 2^*2 \cdot \text{complete } 1^*2)
\]

\[24\]

Type: Fraction Integer

Here it is again, but with no equal pairs.

\[
cap(\text{elementary } 3 \cdot \text{elementary } 2 \cdot \text{elementary } 1, \text{complete } 2^*2 \cdot \text{complete } 1^*2)
\]

\[8\]

Type: Fraction Integer

\[
cap(\text{complete } 3 \cdot \text{complete } 2 \cdot \text{complete } 1, \text{elementary } 2^*2 \cdot \text{elementary } 1^*2)
\]

\[8\]

Type: Fraction Integer

The number of 6-triples, first from \(a\ a\ a\ b\ b\ c\), second from \(d\ d\ e\ e\ f\ g\), third from \(h\ h\ i\ i\ j\ j\).

\[
eval(cap(complete 3 \cdot complete 2 \cdot complete 1, cup(complete 2^*2 \cdot complete 1^*2, complete 2^*3)))
\]

\[1500\]

Type: Fraction Integer

The cycle index of vertices of a square is dihedral 4.
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```plaintext
square := dihedral 4
\[ \frac{1}{4} (4) + \frac{3}{8} (2^2) + \frac{1}{4} (2) 1^2 + \frac{1}{8} (1^4) \]
Type: SymmetricPolynomial Fraction Integer

The number of different squares with 2 red vertices and 2 blue vertices.

cap(complete 2**2, square)

2
Type: Fraction Integer

The number of necklaces with 3 red beads, 2 blue beads and 2 green beads.

cap(complete 3*complete 2**2, dihedral 7)

18
Type: Fraction Integer

The number of graphs with 5 nodes and 7 edges.

cap(graphs 5, complete 7*complete 3)

4
Type: Fraction Integer

The cycle index of rotations of vertices of a cube.

s(x) == powerSum(x)

Type: Void

cube := (1/24) * (s 1**8 + 9*s 2**4 + 8*s 3**2*s 1**2 + 6*s 4**2)

Compiling function s with type PositiveInteger -> SymmetricPolynomial Fraction Integer
```
\[ \frac{1}{4} (4^2) + \frac{1}{3} (3^2 1^2) + \frac{3}{8} (2^4) + \frac{1}{24} (1^8) \]

Type: SymmetricPolynomial Fraction Integer

The number of cubes with 4 red vertices and 4 blue vertices.

\[ \text{cap(complete 4**2,cube)} \]

7

Type: Fraction Integer

The number of labeled graphs with degree sequence 2 2 2 1 1 with no loops or multiple edges.

\[ \text{cap(complete 2**3*complete 1**2,wreath(elementary 4,elementary 2))} \]

7

Type: Fraction Integer

Again, but with loops allowed but not multiple edges.

\[ \text{cap(complete 2**3*complete 1**2,wreath(elementary 4,complete 2))} \]

17

Type: Fraction Integer

Again, but with multiple edges allowed, but not loops

\[ \text{cap(complete 2**3*complete 1**2,wreath(complete 4,elementary 2))} \]

10

Type: Fraction Integer

Again, but with both multiple edges and loops allowed

\[ \text{cap(complete 2**3*complete 1**2,wreath(complete 4,complete 2))} \]

23
Type: Fraction Integer

Having constructed a cycle index for a configuration we are at liberty to evaluate the $s_i$ components any way we please. For example we can produce enumerating generating functions. This is done by providing a function $f$ on an integer $i$ to the value required of $s_i$, and then evaluating $\text{eval}(f, \text{cycleindex})$.

\[
x: \text{ULS(Frac INT,'x,0)} := 'x
\]

\[
x
\]

Type: UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer,x,0)

\[
\text{ZeroOrOne: INT -> ULS(Frac INT, 'x, 0)}
\]

Type: Void

\[
\text{Integers: INT -> ULS(Frac INT, 'x, 0)}
\]

Type: Void

For the integers 0 and 1, or two colors.

\[
\text{ZeroOrOne n == 1+x**n}
\]

Type: Void

\[
\text{ZeroOrOne 5}
\]

Compiling function ZeroOrOne with type Integer ->
UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer,x,0)

\[
1+x^5
\]

Type: UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer,x,0)

For the integers 0, 1, 2, \ldots we have this.
Integers $n \equiv 1/(1-x^{**n})$

Type: Void

Integers 5

Compiling function Integers with type Integer ->
UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer,x,0)

$1 + x^5 + O(x^8)$

Type: UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer,x,0)

The coefficient of $x^n$ is the number of graphs with 5 nodes and $n$ edges.

Note that there is an eval function that takes two arguments. It has the signature:

\[ ((\text{Integer} \to \text{D1}), \text{SymmetricPolynomial Fraction Integer}) \to \text{D1} \]

This function is not normally exposed (it will not normally be considered in the list of eval functions) as it is only useful for this particular domain. To use it we ask that it be considered thus:

)expose EVALCYC

and now we can use it:

\[
\text{eval(ZeroOrOne, graphs 5)}
\]

$1 + x + 2x^2 + 4x^3 + 6x^4 + 5x^5 + 4x^6 + 4x^7 + O(x^8)$

Type: UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer,x,0)

The coefficient of $x^n$ is the number of necklaces with $n$ red beads and $n-8$ green beads.

\[
\text{eval(ZeroOrOne, dihedral 8)}
\]

$1 + x + 4x^2 + 5x^3 + 8x^4 + 5x^5 + 4x^6 + x^7 + O(x^8)$

Type: UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer,x,0)
The coefficient of $x^n$ is the number of partitions of $n$ into 4 or fewer parts.

\[
eval(\text{Integers}, \text{complete 4})
\]

\[
1 + x + 2 x^2 + 3 x^3 + 5 x^4 + 6 x^5 + 9 x^6 + 11 x^7 + O(x^8)
\]

Type: UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer, x, 0)

The coefficient of $x^n$ is the number of partitions of $n$ into 4 boxes containing ordered distinct parts.

\[
eval(\text{Integers}, \text{elementary 4})
\]

\[
x^6 + x^7 + 2 x^8 + 3 x^9 + 5 x^{10} + 6 x^{11} + 9 x^{12} + 11 x^{13} + O(x^{14})
\]

Type: UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer, x, 0)

The coefficient of $x^n$ is the number of different cubes with $n$ red vertices and $8-n$ green ones.

\[
eval(\text{ZeroOrOne}, \text{cube})
\]

\[
1 + x + 3 x^2 + 3 x^3 + 7 x^4 + 3 x^5 + 3 x^6 + x^7 + O(x^8)
\]

Type: UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer, x, 0)

The coefficient of $x^n$ is the number of different cubes with integers on the vertices whose sum is $n$.

\[
eval(\text{Integers}, \text{cube})
\]

\[
1 + x + 4 x^2 + 7 x^3 + 21 x^4 + 37 x^5 + 85 x^6 + 151 x^7 + O(x^8)
\]

Type: UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer, x, 0)

The coefficient of $x^n$ is the number of graphs with 5 nodes and with integers on the edges whose sum is $n$. In other words, the enumeration is of multigraphs with 5 nodes and $n$ edges.

\[
eval(\text{Integers}, \text{graphs 5})
\]

\[
1 + x + 3 x^2 + 7 x^3 + 17 x^4 + 35 x^5 + 76 x^6 + 149 x^7 + O(x^8)
\]
Graphs with 15 nodes enumerated with respect to number of edges.

\[
eval(\text{ZeroOrOne}, \text{graphs 15})
\]

\[
1 + x + 2 x^2 + 5 x^3 + 11 x^4 + 26 x^5 + 68 x^6 + 177 x^7 + O(x^8)
\]

Necklaces with 7 green beads, 8 white beads, 5 yellow beads and 10 red beads.

\[
\text{cap(dihedral 30, complete 7*complete 8*complete 5*complete 10)}
\]

49958972383320

The operation \texttt{SFunction} is the S-function or Schur function of a partition written as a descending list of integers expressed in terms of power sum symmetric functions. In this case the argument partition represents a tableau shape. For example \(3, 2, 2, 1\) represents a tableau with three boxes in the first row, two boxes in the second and third rows, and one box in the fourth row. \texttt{SFunction [3,2,2,1]} counts the number of different tableaux of shape \(3, 2, 2, 1\) filled with objects with an ascending order in the columns and a non-descending order in the rows.

\[
\text{sfunction:= SFunction [3,2,2,1]}
\]

\[
\frac{1}{12} (6 \ 2) - \frac{1}{17} (6 \ 1^2) - \frac{1}{16} (4^2) + \frac{1}{12} (4 \ 3 \ 1) + \frac{1}{24} (4 \ 1^4) - \frac{1}{36} (3^2 \ 2) +
\]

\[
\frac{1}{36} (3^2 \ 1^2) - \frac{1}{24} (3 \ 2^2 \ 1) - \frac{1}{36} (3 \ 2 \ 1^3) - \frac{1}{72} (3 \ 1^5) - \frac{1}{192} (2^4) +
\]

\[
\frac{1}{48} (2^3 \ 1^2) + \frac{1}{96} (2^2 \ 1^4) - \frac{1}{144} (2 \ 1^6) + \frac{1}{576} (1^8)
\]

This is the number filled with \(a \ a \ b \ b \ c \ c \ d \ d\).
The configurations enumerated above are:

\[
\begin{array}{cccccccc}
  & a & a & b & a & a & c & a \\
  b & c & b & b & b & b & & \\
  c & d & c & d & c & c & & \\
  d & d & d & & & & & \\
\end{array}
\]

This is the number of tableaux filled with 1..8.

\[
\text{cap}(sf3221, \text{powerSum } 1**8)
\]

\[
70
\]

The coefficient of $x^n$ is the number of column strict reverse plane partitions of $n$ of shape 3 2 2 1.

\[
\text{eval}(\text{Integers, } sf3221)
\]

\[
x^9 + 3x^{10} + 7x^{11} + 14x^{12} + 27x^{13} + 47x^{14} + O(x^{15})
\]

\[
\text{Type: } \text{UnivariateLaurentSeries(Fraction Integer, } x, 0)\]

The smallest is

\[
\begin{array}{cccc}
  & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 1 & 1 & & \\
 2 & 2 & & \\
 3 & & & \\
\end{array}
\]

### 9.14 DeRhamComplex

The domain constructor `DeRhamComplex` creates the class of differential forms of arbitrary degree over a coefficient ring. The De Rham complex constructor takes two arguments: a ring, `coefRing`, and a list of coordinate variables.

This is the ring of coefficients.

\[
\text{coefRing := Integer}
\]
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\textit{Integer}

Type: Domain

These are the coordinate variables.

\texttt{lv : List Symbol := [x,y,z]}

\texttt{[x,y,z]}

Type: List Symbol

This is the De Rham complex of Euclidean three-space using coordinates \(x\), \(y\) and \(z\).

\texttt{der := DERHAM(coefRing,lv)}

\texttt{DeRhamComplex(Integer,[x,y,z])}

Type: Domain

This complex allows us to describe differential forms having expressions of integers as coefficients. These coefficients can involve any number of variables, for example, \(f(x,t,r,y,u,z)\). As we’ve chosen to work with ordinary Euclidean three-space, expressions involving these forms are treated as functions of \(x\), \(y\) and \(z\) with the additional arguments \(t\), \(r\) and \(u\) regarded as symbolic constants.

Here are some examples of coefficients.

\texttt{R := Expression coefRing}

\texttt{Expression Integer}

Type: Domain

\texttt{f : R := x**2*y*z-5*x**3*y**2*z**5}

\[-5x^3y^2z^5+x^2yz\]

Type: Expression Integer

\texttt{g : R := z**2*y*cos(z)-7*sin(x**3+y**2)+z**2}


\[-7z^2 \sin(x^3 y^2) + y z^2 \cos(z)\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[h : \ R := x*y*z -2*x**3*y*z**2\]

\[-2 x^3 y z^2 + x y z\]

Type: Expression Integer

We now define the multiplicative basis elements for the exterior algebra over \(\mathbb{R}\).

dx : der := generator(1)

\[dx\]

Type: DeRhamComplex(Integer,\([x,y,z]\))

dy : der := generator(2)

\[dy\]

Type: DeRhamComplex(Integer,\([x,y,z]\))

dz : der := generator(3)

\[dz\]

Type: DeRhamComplex(Integer,\([x,y,z]\))

This is an alternative way to give the above assignments.

\[[dx,dy,dz] := [generator(i)$der for i in 1..3]\]

\[[dx,dy,dz]\]

Type: List DeRhamComplex(Integer,\([x,y,z]\))

Now we define some one-forms.
alpha : der := f*dx + g*dy + h*dz

\(-2 \cdot x^3 \cdot y \cdot z^2 + x \cdot y \cdot z\) \(dz\) + 
\(-7 \cdot z^2 \cdot \sin(x^3 \cdot y^2) + y \cdot z^2 \cdot \cos(z)\) \(dy\) + 
\(-5 \cdot x^3 \cdot y^2 \cdot z^5 + x^2 \cdot y \cdot z\) \(dx\)

Type: DeRhamComplex(Integer, [x, y, z])

beta : der := \(\cos(\tan(x \cdot y \cdot z) + x \cdot y \cdot z) \cdot dx + x \cdot dy\)

\(x \cdot dy + \cos(\tan(x \cdot y \cdot z) + x \cdot y \cdot z) \cdot dx\)

Type: DeRhamComplex(Integer, [x, y, z])

A well-known theorem states that the composition of \texttt{exteriorDifferential} with itself is the zero map for continuous forms. Let’s verify this theorem for \(\alpha\).

\texttt{exteriorDifferential alpha}

\((y \cdot z^2 \cdot \sin(z) + 14 \cdot z \cdot \sin(x^3 \cdot y^2) - 2 \cdot y \cdot z \cdot \cos(z) - 2 \cdot x^3 \cdot z^2 + x \cdot z) \cdot dy \cdot dz\)

\((25 \cdot x^3 \cdot y^2 \cdot z^4 - 6 \cdot x^2 \cdot y \cdot z^2 + y - x^2 \cdot y) \cdot dx \cdot dz\)

\((-21 \cdot x^2 \cdot y^2 \cdot z^2 \cdot \cos(x^3 \cdot y^2) + 10 \cdot x^3 \cdot y \cdot z^5 - x^2 \cdot z) \cdot dx \cdot dy\)

Type: DeRhamComplex(Integer, [x, y, z])

We see a lengthy output of the last expression, but nevertheless, the composition is zero.

\texttt{exteriorDifferential %}

0

Type: DeRhamComplex(Integer, [x, y, z])

Now we check that \texttt{exteriorDifferential} is a “graded derivation” \(D\), that is, \(D\) satisfies:

\(D(a*b) = D(a)\cdot b + (-1)^{\text{degree}(a)}\cdot a \cdot D(b)\)
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gamma := alpha * beta

\[
(2x^4yz^2 - x^2yz) \, dy \, dz + \\
(2x^3yz^2 - xyz) \cos(tan(xyz) + xyz) \, dx \, dz + \\
((7z^2 \sin(x^3y^2) - yz^2 \cos(z)) \cos(tan(xyz) + xyz) - \\
5x^4y^2z^5 + x^3yz) \, dx \, dy
\]

Type: DeRhamComplex(Integer, [x, y, z])

We try this for the one-forms alpha and beta.

\[
\text{exteriorDifferential}(\gamma) - (\text{exteriorDifferential}(\alpha) \ast \beta - \\
\alpha \ast \text{exteriorDifferential}(\beta))
\]

0

Type: DeRhamComplex(Integer, [x, y, z])

Now we define some “basic operators” (see 9.58 on page 706).

\[
a : \text{BOP} := \text{operator}('a)
\]

\[a\]

Type: BasicOperator

\[
b : \text{BOP} := \text{operator}('b)
\]

\[b\]

Type: BasicOperator

\[
c : \text{BOP} := \text{operator}('c)
\]

\[c\]

Type: BasicOperator
We also define some indeterminate one- and two-forms using these operators.

\[
    \sigma := \alpha(x, y, z) \, dx + \beta(x, y, z) \, dy + \gamma(x, y, z) \, dz
\]

\[
    \theta := \alpha(x, y, z) \, dx \wedge dy + \beta(x, y, z) \, dx \wedge dz + \gamma(x, y, z) \, dy \wedge dz
\]

This allows us to get formal definitions for the “gradient” …

\[
    \text{totalDifferential}(\alpha(x, y, z)) \; \text{der}
\]

the “curl” …

\[
    \text{exteriorDifferential} \; \sigma
\]

and the “divergence.”

\[
    \text{exteriorDifferential} \; \theta
\]
Note that the De Rham complex is an algebra with unity. This element \(1\) is the basis for elements for zero-forms, that is, functions in our space.

\[
\text{one} : \text{der} := 1
\]

\[
1
\]

Type: \text{DeRhamComplex(Integer, [x,y,z])}

To convert a function to a function lying in the De Rham complex, multiply the function by “one.”

\[
g1 : \text{der} := a(x,t,y,u,v,z,e) * \text{one}
\]

\[
a(x,t,y,u,v,z,e)
\]

Type: \text{DeRhamComplex(Integer, [x,y,z])}

A current limitation of Axiom forces you to write functions with more than four arguments using square brackets in this way.

\[
h1 : \text{der} := a([x,y,x,t,x,z,y,r,u,x]) * \text{one}
\]

\[
a(x,y,x,t,x,z,y,r,u,x)
\]

Type: \text{DeRhamComplex(Integer, [x,y,z])}

Now note how the system keeps track of where your coordinate functions are located in expressions.

\[
\text{exteriorDifferential g1}
\]

\[
a_6(x,t,y,u,v,z,e) \, dz +
\]

\[
a_3(x,t,y,u,v,z,e) \, dy +
\]

\[
a_1(x,t,y,u,v,z,e) \, dx
\]

Type: \text{DeRhamComplex(Integer, [x,y,z])}

\[
\text{exteriorDifferential h1}
\]
\[
  a_{,6}(x,y,t,x,z,y,r,u,x)\,dz +
  \]
\[
  (a_{,7}(x,y,t,x,z,y,r,u,x) +
  a_{,2}(x,y,t,x,z,y,r,u,x))\,dy +
  \]
\[
  (a_{,10}(x,y,t,x,z,y,r,u,x) +
  a_{,5}(x,y,t,x,z,y,r,u,x) +
  a_{,3}(x,y,t,x,z,y,r,u,x) +
  a_{,1}(x,y,t,x,z,y,r,u,x))\,dx
\]

Type: \text{DeRhamComplex(Integer,}[x,y,z])

In this example of Euclidean three-space, the basis for the De Rham complex consists
of the eight forms: \(1, \, dx, \, dy, \, dz, \, dx*dy, \, dx*dz, \, dy*dz, \, \text{and} \, dx*dy*dz\).

\[
  \text{coefficient(gamma, } \text{dx*dy})
\]
\[
  (7 \, z^2 \sin (x^3 \, y^2) - y \, z^2 \, \cos (z)) \, \cos (\tan (x \, y \, z) + x \, y \, z)
\]
\[
  -5 \, x^4 \, y^2 \, z^5 + x^3 \, y \, z
\]

Type: \text{Expression Integer}

\[
  \text{coefficient(gamma, } \text{one})
\]
\[
  0
\]

Type: \text{Expression Integer}

\[
  \text{coefficient(g1,one)}
\]
\[
  a(x,t,y,u,v,z,e)
\]

Type: \text{Expression Integer}
9.15 DecimalExpansion

All rationals have repeating decimal expansions. Operations to access the individual digits of a decimal expansion can be obtained by converting the value to `RadixExpansion(10)`. More examples of expansions are available in 9.4 on page 456, 9.33 on page 573, and 9.65 on page 736.

The operation `decimal` is used to create this expansion of type `DecimalExpansion`.

```plaintext
r := decimal(22/7)

3.142857

Type: DecimalExpansion

Arithmetic is exact.

r + decimal(6/7)

4

Type: DecimalExpansion

The period of the expansion can be short or long . . .

```plaintext
decimal(1/i) for i in 350..354]

[0.00285714, 0.002849, 0.0028409, 0.00283286118980169971671388101983,
  0.00282485875706214689265536723163841807909604519774011299435]

Type: List DecimalExpansion
or very long.

decimal(1/2049)

0.00048804294779404587603709126403123474865788189360663738408979990239
  1410444119082479258174719375305026842362127867252318204001952171791111
  761835041483650561249389946315275744265495363591996095656417764763299
  170326988775012201073694485114690092728160078086871644704734016593460
  22449975597852611029770619814543679843826256710590531966813079551

Type: List DecimalExpansion
```
These numbers are bona fide algebraic objects.

\[
p := \text{decimal}(1/4) \times x^2 + \text{decimal}(2/3) \times x + \text{decimal}(4/9)
\]

\[
0.25 x^2 + 0.6 x + 0.4
\]

Type: Polynomial DecimalExpansion

\[
q := \text{differentiate}(p, x)
\]

\[
0.5 x + 0.6
\]

Type: Polynomial DecimalExpansion

\[
g := \text{gcd}(p, q)
\]

\[
x + 1.3
\]

Type: Polynomial DecimalExpansion

### 9.16 DistributedMultivariatePolynomial

DistributedMultivariatePolynomial which is abbreviated as DMP and HomogeneousDistributedMultivariatePolynomial, which is abbreviated as HDMP, are very similar to MultivariatePolynomial except that they are represented and displayed in a non-recursive manner.

\[(d1,d2,d3) : \text{DMP}([z,y,x],\text{FRAC INT})\]

Type: Void

The constructor DMP orders its monomials lexicographically while HDMP orders them by total order refined by reverse lexicographic order.

\[
d1 := -4 z + 4 y^2 x + 16 x^2 + 1
\]

\[
-4 z + 4 y^2 x + 16 x^2 + 1
\]
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Type: DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([z,y,x],Fraction Integer)

d2 := 2*z*y**2 + 4*x + 1

\[2 z y^2 + 4 x + 1\]

Type: DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([z,y,x],Fraction Integer)

d3 := 2*z*x**2 - 2*y**2 - x

\[2 z x^2 - 2 y^2 - x\]

Type: DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([z,y,x],Fraction Integer)

These constructors are mostly used in Gröbner basis calculations.

groebner [d1,d2,d3]

\[
\left[\frac{1568}{2745} x^6 - \frac{1264}{305} x^5 + \frac{6}{305} x^4 + \frac{182}{349} x^3 - \frac{2047}{610} x^2 - \frac{103}{2745} x - \frac{2857}{10980},
\right.

\[
\left.\frac{112}{2745} x^6 - \frac{84}{305} x^5 - \frac{1264}{305} x^4 - \frac{13}{549} x^3 + \frac{84}{305} x^2 + \frac{1772}{2745} x + \frac{2}{2745}\right]

\]

Type: List DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([z,y,x],Fraction Integer)

(n1,n2,n3) : HDMP([z,y,x],FRAC INT)

Type: Void

n1 := d1

\[4 y^2 x + 16 x^2 - 4 z + 1\]

Type: HomogeneousDistributedMultivariatePolynomial([z,y,x],Fraction Integer)
n2 := d2

\[2 z y^2 + 4 x + 1\]

Type:
HomogeneousDistributedMultivariatePolynomial([z, y, x], Fraction Integer)

n3 := d3

\[2 z x^2 - 2 y^2 - x\]

Type:
HomogeneousDistributedMultivariatePolynomial([z, y, x], Fraction Integer)

Note that we get a different Gröbner basis when we use the HDMP polynomials, as expected.

groebner [n1, n2, n3]

\[
\begin{align*}
\left[ y^4 + 2 x^3 - \frac{3}{2} x^2 + \frac{1}{2} z - \frac{1}{8}, \\
x^4 + \frac{29}{4} x^3 - \frac{1}{8} y^2 - \frac{7}{4} z x - \frac{9}{16} x - \frac{1}{4}, \\
z y^2 + 2 x + \frac{1}{2}, \\
y^2 x + 4 x^2 - z + \frac{1}{4}, \\
z x^2 - y^2 - \frac{1}{2} x, \\
z^2 - 4 y^2 + 2 x^2 - \frac{1}{4} z - \frac{3}{2} x \right]
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List
HomogeneousDistributedMultivariatePolynomial([z, y, x], Fraction Integer)

GeneralDistributedMultivariatePolynomial is somewhat more flexible in the sense that as well as accepting a list of variables to specify the variable ordering, it
also takes a predicate on exponent vectors to specify the term ordering. With this polynomial type the user can experiment with the effect of using completely arbitrary term orderings. This flexibility is mostly important for algorithms such as Gröbner basis calculations which can be very sensitive to term ordering.

For more information on related topics, see ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, 9.63 on page 723, 9.83 on page 815, and 9.54 on page 698.

9.17 DoubleFloat

Axiom provides two kinds of floating point numbers. The domain Float (abbreviation FLOAT) implements a model of arbitrary precision floating point numbers. The domain DoubleFloat (abbreviation DFLOAT) is intended to make available hardware floating point arithmetic in Axiom. The actual model of floating point DoubleFloat that provides is system-dependent. For example, on the IBM system 370 Axiom uses IBM double precision which has fourteen hexadecimal digits of precision or roughly sixteen decimal digits. Arbitrary precision floats allow the user to specify the precision at which arithmetic operations are computed. Although this is an attractive facility, it comes at a cost. Arbitrary-precision floating-point arithmetic typically takes twenty to two hundred times more time than hardware floating point.

The usual arithmetic and elementary functions are available for DoubleFloat. Use )show DoubleFloat to get a list of operations or the HyperDoc browse facility to get more extensive documentation about DoubleFloat.

By default, floating point numbers that you enter into Axiom are of type Float.

\[
2.71828
\]

\[
2.71828
\]

Type: Float

You must therefore tell Axiom that you want to use DoubleFloat values and operations. The following are some conservative guidelines for getting Axiom to use DoubleFloat.

To get a value of type DoubleFloat, use a target with @,...

\[
2.71828@DoubleFloat
\]

\[
2.71828
\]

Type: DoubleFloat
a conversion, ...

2.71828 :: DoubleFloat

2.71828

Type: DoubleFloat

or an assignment to a declared variable. It is more efficient if you use a target rather than an explicit or implicit conversion.

eApprox : DoubleFloat := 2.71828

2.71828

Type: DoubleFloat

You also need to declare functions that work with DoubleFloat.

avg : List DoubleFloat -> DoubleFloat

avg l ==
empty? l => 0 :: DoubleFloat
reduce(_+,l) / #l

Type: Void

avg [3.4,9.7,-6.8]

Compiling function avg with type List Float -> DoubleFloat

2.1

Type: DoubleFloat

Use package-calling for operations from DoubleFloat unless the arguments themselves are already of type DoubleFloat.
cos(3.1415926)$DoubleFloat

−0.999999999999999

Type: DoubleFloat

cos(3.1415926 :: DoubleFloat)

−0.999999999999999

Type: DoubleFloat

By far, the most common usage of DoubleFloat is for functions to be graphed. For more information about Axiom’s numerical and graphical facilities, see Section 7 on page 289, 8.1 on page 337, and 9.27 on page 552.

9.18 EqTable

The EqTable domain provides tables where the keys are compared using eq?. Keys are considered equal only if they are the same instance of a structure. This is useful if the keys are themselves updatable structures. Otherwise, all operations are the same as for type Table. See 9.80 on page 805 for general information about tables. The operation table is here used to create a table where the keys are lists of integers.

\[
e: \text{EqTable}(\text{List Integer}, \text{Integer}) := \text{table}()
\]

\[
\text{table}()
\]

Type: EqTable(List Integer, Integer)

These two lists are equal according to “=”, but not according to eq?.

\[
l1 := [1,2,3]
\]

\[
[1,2,3]
\]

Type: List PositiveInteger

\[
l2 := [1,2,3]
\]
[1,2,3]

Type: List PositiveInteger

Because the two lists are not eq?, separate values can be stored under each.

e.l1 := 111

111

Type: PositiveInteger

e.l2 := 222

222

Type: PositiveInteger

e.l1

111

Type: PositiveInteger

9.19 Equation

The Equation domain provides equations as mathematical objects. These are used, for example, as the input to various solve operations.
Equations are created using the equals symbol, “=”.

eq1 := 3*x + 4*y = 5

4 y + 3 x = 5

Type: Equation Polynomial Integer

eq2 := 2*x + 2*y = 3

2 y + 2 x = 3
The left- and right-hand sides of an equation are accessible using the operations \texttt{lhs} and \texttt{rhs}.

\begin{verbatim}
\textbf{lhs eq1}
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
4 y + 3 x
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
\textbf{rhs eq1}
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
5
\end{verbatim}

Arithmetic operations are supported and operate on both sides of the equation.

\begin{verbatim}
\textbf{eq1 + eq2}
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
6 y + 5 x = 8
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
\textbf{eq1 * eq2}
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
8 y^2 + 14 x y + 6 x^2 = 15
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
\textbf{2*eq2 - eq1}
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
x = 1
\end{verbatim}

Equations may be created for any type so the arithmetic operations will be defined only when they make sense. For example, exponentiation is not defined for equations involving non-square matrices.
eq1**2

\[ 16y^2 + 24xy + 9x^2 = 25 \]

Type: Equation Polynomial Integer

Note that an equals symbol is also used to test for equality of values in certain contexts. For example, \( x+1 \) and \( y \) are unequal as polynomials.

\[ \text{if } x+1 = y \text{ then } "equal" \text{ else } "unequal" \]

"unequal"

Type: String

eqpol := x+1 = y

\[ x+1 = y \]

Type: Equation Polynomial Integer

If an equation is used where a Boolean value is required, then it is evaluated using the equality test from the operand type.

\[ \text{if } eqpol \text{ then } "equal" \text{ else } "unequal" \]

"unequal"

Type: String

If one wants a Boolean value rather than an equation, all one has to do is ask!

\[ \text{eqpol}::\text{Boolean} \]

false

Type: Boolean
9.20 Exit

A function that does not return directly to its caller has \texttt{Exit} as its return type. The operation \texttt{error} is an example of one which does not return to its caller. Instead, it causes a return to top-level.

\begin{verbatim}
n := 0

0

Type: NonNegativeInteger
\end{verbatim}

The function \texttt{gasp} is given return type \texttt{Exit} since it is guaranteed never to return a value to its caller.

\begin{verbatim}
gasp(): Exit ==
  free n
  n := n + 1
  error "Oh no!"
\end{verbatim}

Function declaration \texttt{gasp: () -> Exit} has been added to workspace.

\begin{verbatim}
Type: Void
\end{verbatim}

The return type of \texttt{half} is determined by resolving the types of the two branches of the \texttt{if}.

\begin{verbatim}
half(k) ==
  if odd? k then gasp()
  else k quo 2
\end{verbatim}

Because \texttt{gasp has the return type Exit}, the type of \texttt{if in half} is resolved to be \texttt{Integer}.

\begin{verbatim}
half 4

Type: PositiveInteger
\end{verbatim}
half 3

Error signalled from user code in function gasp:
Oh no!

n

Type: NonNegativeInteger

For functions which return no value at all, use Void. See ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ?? and 9.86 on page 828 for more information.

9.21 Expression

Expression is a constructor that creates domains whose objects can have very general symbolic forms. Here are some examples:

This is an object of type Expression Integer.

\[
\sin(x) + 3\cos(x)^2
\]

\[
\sin(x) + 3 \cos(x)^2
\]

Type: Expression Integer

This is an object of type Expression Float.

\[
\tan(x) - 3.45x
\]

\[
\tan(x) - 3.45 \times
\]

Type: Expression Float

This object contains symbolic function applications, sums, products, square roots, and a quotient.

\[
\frac{(-\tan(\sqrt{7})^2 + 2 \sin(\sqrt{11}) \tan(\sqrt{7}) - \sin(\sqrt{11})^2)}{\cos(y-x) - 4}
\]
As you can see, Expression actually takes an argument domain. The coefficients of
the terms within the expression belong to the argument domain. Integer and Float,
along with Complex Integer and Complex Float are the most common coefficient
domains.

The choice of whether to use a Complex coefficient domain or not is important since
Axiom can perform some simplifications on real-valued objects.

\[ \log(e^x) \]

\[ x \]

... which are not valid on complex ones.

\[ \log(e^x) \]

\[ \log(e^x) \]

Type: Expression Complex Integer

Many potential coefficient domains, such as AlgebraicNumber, are not usually used
because Expression can subsume them.

\[ \sqrt{-5} + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{-5}} \]

\[ \sqrt{-5} + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{-5}} \]

Type: AlgebraicNumber

\% :: Expression Integer

\[ \sqrt{-5} + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{-5}} \]

Type: Expression Integer

Note that we sometimes talk about “an object of type Expression.” This is not really
correct because we should say, for example, “an object of type Expression Integer”
or “an object of type Expression Float.” By a similar abuse of language, when we
refer to an “expression” in this section we will mean an object of type $\text{Expression } R$ for some domain $R$.

The Axiom documentation contains many examples of the use of $\text{Expression}$. For the rest of this section, we’ll give you some pointers to those examples plus give you some idea of how to manipulate expressions.

It is important for you to know that $\text{Expression}$ creates domains that have category $\text{Field}$. Thus you can invert any non-zero expression and you shouldn’t expect an operation like $\text{factor}$ to give you much information. You can imagine expressions as being represented as quotients of “multivariate” polynomials where the “variables” are kernels (see 9.37 on page 591). A kernel can either be a symbol such as $x$ or a symbolic function application like $\sin(x + 4)$. The second example is actually a nested kernel since the argument to $\sin$ contains the kernel $x$.

```plaintext
height mainKernel sin(x + 4)
```

```
2
Type: PositiveInteger
```

Actually, the argument to $\sin$ is an expression, and so the structure of $\text{Expression}$ is recursive. 9.37 on page 591 demonstrates how to extract the kernels in an expression.

Use the HyperDoc Browse facility to see what operations are applicable to expressions. At the time of this writing, there were 262 operations with 147 distinct name in $\text{Expression Integer}$. For example, $\text{numer}$ and $\text{denom}$ extract the numerator and denominator of an expression.

```plaintext
e := (\sin(x) - 4)**2 / ( 1 - 2*y*sqrt(- y) )
```

```
-\sin(x)^2 + 8 \sin(x) - 16
--------------------
  2 y sqrt(-y) - 1
```

```
Type: Expression Integer
```

```plaintext
numer e
```

```
-\sin(x)^2 + 8 \sin(x) - 16
```

```
Type: SparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,Kernel Expression Integer)
```

```plaintext
denom e
```

```plaintext
```
```
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\[ 2y \sqrt{\textstyle -y} - 1 \]

Type: SparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,Kernel Expression Integer)

Use \texttt{D} to compute partial derivatives.

\[
\text{D}(e, x) = \frac{(4y \cos(x) \sin(x) - 16y \cos(x)) \sqrt{-y} - 2 \cos(x) \sin(x) + 8 \cos(x)}{4y \sqrt{-y} + 4y^3 - 1}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

See ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ?? for more examples of expressions and derivatives.

\[
\text{D}(e, [x, y], [1, 2])
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
\left\{ \left( \left( -2304y^7 + 960y^4 \right) \cos(x) \sin(x) + \left( 9216y^7 - 3840y^4 \right) \cos(x) \right) \sqrt{-y} + \\
\left( -960y^9 + 2160y^6 - 180y^3 - 3 \right) \cos(x) \sin(x) + \\
\left( 3840y^9 - 8640y^6 + 720y^3 + 12 \right) \cos(x) \\
\left( 256y^{12} - 1792y^9 + 1120y^6 - 112y^3 + 1 \right) \sqrt{-y} + \\
1024y^{11} + 1792y^8 - 448y^5 + 16y^2
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: Expression Integer

See ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ?? and ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ?? for more examples of expressions and calculus. Differential equations involving expressions are discussed in ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ?? for a discussion of Axiom’s integration facilities.

When an expression involves no “symbol kernels” (for example, \(x\)), it may be possible to numerically evaluate the expression.

If you suspect the evaluation will create a complex number, use \texttt{complexNumeric}.

\[
\text{complexNumeric(cos(2 - 3*%i))}
\]

\[-4.1896256909688072301 + 9.109227893755336598i\]
If you know it will be real, use numeric.

numeric(tan 3.8)

\[0.77355609050312607286\]

Type: Float

The numeric operation will display an error message if the evaluation yields a value with a non-zero imaginary part. Both of these operations have an optional second argument \(n\) which specifies that the accuracy of the approximation be up to \(n\) decimal places.

When an expression involves no “symbolic application” kernels, it may be possible to convert it a polynomial or rational function in the variables that are present.

\[e2 := \cos(x^2 - y + 3)\]

\[\cos(y - x^2 - 3)\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[e3 := \arcsin(e2) - \frac{\pi}{2}\]

\[-y + x^2 + 3\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[e3 :: \text{Polynomial Integer}\]

\[-y + x^2 + 3\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

This also works for the polynomial types where specific variables and their ordering are given.

\[e3 :: \text{DMP([x, y], Integer)}\]

\[x^2 - y + 3\]
Type: DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y],Integer)

Finally, a certain amount of simplification takes place as expressions are constructed.

\[\sin \frac{\pi}{2}\]

\[0\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)\]

\[\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\]

Type: Expression Integer

For simplifications that involve multiple terms of the expression, use `simplify`.

\[\tan(x)^6 + 3\tan(x)^4 + 3\tan(x)^2 + 1\]

\[\tan(x)^6 + 3 \tan(x)^4 + 3 \tan(x)^2 + 1\]

Type: Expression Integer

\[\text{simplify} \ %\]

\[\frac{1}{\cos(x)^6}\]

Type: Expression Integer

See ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ?? for examples of how to write your own rewrite rules for expressions.

### 9.22 Factored

`Factored` creates a domain whose objects are kept in factored form as long as possible. Thus certain operations like “*” (multiplication) and `gcd` are relatively easy to do. Others, such as addition, require somewhat more work, and the result may not be completely factored unless the argument domain \( R \) provides a `factor` operation. Each
object consists of a unit and a list of factors, where each factor consists of a member of \( \mathbb{R} \) (the base), an exponent, and a flag indicating what is known about the base. A flag may be one of "nil", "sqfr", "irred" or "prime", which mean that nothing is known about the base, it is square-free, it is irreducible, or it is prime, respectively. The current restriction to factored objects of integral domains allows simplification to be performed without worrying about multiplication order.

9.22.1 Decomposing Factored Objects

In this section we will work with a factored integer.

\[
g := \text{factor}(4312)
\]

\[
2^3 \ 7^2 \ 11
\]

Type: Factored Integer

Let’s begin by decomposing \( g \) into pieces. The only possible units for integers are 1 and -1.

\[
\text{unit}(g)
\]

1

Type: PositiveInteger

There are three factors.

\[
\text{numberOfFactors}(g)
\]

3

Type: PositiveInteger

We can make a list of the bases, …

\[
[\text{nthFactor}(g,i) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..\text{numberOfFactors}(g)]
\]

[2, 7, 11]

Type: List Integer
and the exponents,...

\[\text{[nthExponent}(g,i) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..\text{numberOfFactors}(g)]\]

\[[3, 2, 1]\]

Type: List Integer

and the flags. You can see that all the bases (factors) are prime.

\[\text{[nthFlag}(g,i) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..\text{numberOfFactors}(g)]\]

\[\text{["prime","prime","prime"]}\]

Type: List Union("nil","sqfr","irred","prime")

A useful operation for pulling apart a factored object into a list of records of the components is \text{factorList}.

\text{factorList}(g)

\[
\begin{align*}
&[[\text{flg} = \text{"prime"}, \text{fctr} = 2, \text{xpnt} = 3], \\
&[\text{flg} = \text{"prime"}, \text{fctr} = 7, \text{xpnt} = 2], \\
&[\text{flg} = \text{"prime"}, \text{fctr} = 11, \text{xpnt} = 1]]
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List Record(flg: Union("nil","sqfr","irred","prime"), fctr: Integer, xpnt: Integer)

If you don’t care about the flags, use \text{factors}.

\text{factors}(g)

\[
\begin{align*}
&[[\text{factor} = 2, \text{exponent} = 3], \\
&[\text{factor} = 7, \text{exponent} = 2], \\
&[\text{factor} = 11, \text{exponent} = 1]]
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List Record(factor: Integer, exponent: Integer)

Neither of these operations returns the unit.
9.22.2 Expanding Factored Objects

Recall that we are working with this factored integer.

\[ g := \text{factor}(4312) \]

\[ 2^3 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 11 \]

To multiply out the factors with their multiplicities, use \texttt{expand}.

\[ \text{expand}(g) \]

\[ 4312 \]

If you would like, say, the distinct factors multiplied together but with multiplicity one, you could do it this way.

\[ \text{reduce}(\ast, \{t.\text{factor} \text{for} t \text{in factors}(g)) \]

\[ 154 \]

9.22.3 Arithmetic with Factored Objects

We’re still working with this factored integer.

\[ g := \text{factor}(4312) \]

\[ 2^3 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 11 \]
We'll also define this factored integer.

\[
f := \text{factor}(246960)
\]

\[
2^4 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^3
\]

Operations involving multiplication and division are particularly easy with factored objects.

\[
f \cdot g
\]

\[
2^7 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^5 \cdot 11
\]

\[
f^{**}500
\]

\[
2^{2000} \cdot 3^{1000} \cdot 5^{500} \cdot 7^{1500}
\]

If we use addition and subtraction things can slow down because we may need to compute greatest common divisors.
f + g

\[ 2^3 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 641 \]

Type: Factored Integer

f - g

\[ 2^3 \cdot 7^2 \cdot 619 \]

Type: Factored Integer

Test for equality with 0 and 1 by using \texttt{zero?} and \texttt{one?}, respectively.

\texttt{zero?(factor(0))}

\texttt{true}

Type: Boolean

\texttt{zero?(g)}

\texttt{false}

Type: Boolean

\texttt{one?(factor(1))}

\texttt{true}

Type: Boolean

\texttt{one?(f)}

\texttt{false}

Type: Boolean

Another way to get the zero and one factored objects is to use package calling (see ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??).
9.22.4 Creating New Factored Objects

The map operation is used to iterate across the unit and bases of a factored object. See ?? on page ?? for a discussion of map.

The following four operations take a base and an exponent and create a factored object. They differ in handling the flag component.

\[
nil\text{Factor}(24, 2) = 24^2
\]

This factor has no associated information.

\[
nth\text{Flag}(\%, 1) = "nil"
\]

This factor is asserted to be square-free.

\[
sqfr\text{Factor}(30, 2) = 30^2
\]
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This factor is asserted to be irreducible.

irreducibleFactor(13,10)

\[ 13^{10} \]

Type: Factored Integer

This factor is asserted to be prime.

primeFactor(11,5)

\[ 11^5 \]

Type: Factored Integer

A partial inverse to \texttt{factorList} is \texttt{makeFR}.

\begin{verbatim}
 h := factor(-720)

\[-2^4 3^2 5\]

Type: Factored Integer
\end{verbatim}

The first argument is the unit and the second is a list of records as returned by \texttt{factorList}.

\begin{verbatim}
 h - makeFR(unit(h),factorList(h))

0

Type: Factored Integer
\end{verbatim}

### 9.22.5 Factored Objects with Variables

Some of the operations available for polynomials are also available for factored polynomials.

\begin{verbatim}
 p := (4\times x \times x - 12 \times x + 9) \times y \times y + (4\times x \times x - 12 \times x + 9) \times y + 28 \times x \times x - 84 \times x + 63

(4 x^2 - 12 x + 9) y^2 + (4 x^2 - 12 x + 9) y + 28 x^2 - 84 x + 63
\end{verbatim}
You can differentiate with respect to a variable.

\[ D(p, x) \]

\[ (8x - 12) y^2 + (8x - 12) y + 56x - 84 \]

Type: Polynomial Integer

\[ D(fp, x) \]

\[ 4 (2x - 3) (y^2 + y + 7) \]

Type: Factored Polynomial Integer

\[ \text{numberOfFactors(\%)} \]

3

Type: PositiveInteger

9.23 FactoredFunctions2

The FactoredFunctions2 package implements one operation, map, for applying an operation to every base in a factored object and to the unit.

\[ \text{double}(x) == x + x \]

Type: Void

\[ f := \text{factor}(720) \]
Actually, the map operation used in this example comes from Factored itself, since double takes an integer argument and returns an integer result.

\[ \text{map(double, f)} \]

\[ 2 \ 4^4 \ 6^2 \ 10 \]

Type: Factored Integer

If we want to use an operation that returns an object that has a type different from the operation’s argument, the map in Factored cannot be used and we use the one in FactoredFunctions2.

\[ \text{makePoly(b)} = \text{x + b} \]

Type: Void

In fact, the “2” in the name of the package means that we might be using factored objects of two different types.

\[ g := \text{map(makePoly, f)} \]

\[ (x+1) \ (x+2)^4 \ (x+3)^2 \ (x+5) \]

Type: Factored Polynomial Integer

It is important to note that both versions of map destroy any information known about the bases (the fact that they are prime, for instance).

The flags for each base are set to “nil” in the object returned by map.

\[ \text{nthFlag(g, 1)} \]

"nil"

Type: Union(“nil”, ...)

For more information about factored objects and their use, see 9.22 on page 533 and ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??.
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9.24 File

The File(S) domain provides a basic interface to read and write values of type $S$ in files.

Before working with a file, it must be made accessible to Axiom with the open operation.

```axiom
ifile:File List Integer:=open("/tmp/jazz1","output")
```

```
"/tmp/jazz1"
```

Type: File List Integer

The open function arguments are a FileName and a String specifying the mode. If a full pathname is not specified, the current default directory is assumed. The mode must be one of “input” or “output”. If it is not specified, “input” is assumed. Once the file has been opened, you can read or write data.

The operations read and write are provided.

```axiom
write!(ifile, [-1,2,3])
```

```
[−1,2,3]
```

Type: List Integer

```axiom
write!(ifile, [10,-10,0,111])
```

```
[10,-10,0,111]
```

Type: List Integer

```axiom
write!(ifile, [7])
```

```
[7]
```

Type: List Integer

You can change from writing to reading (or vice versa) by reopening a file.

```axiom
reopen!(ifile, "input")
```
"/tmp/jazz1"

Type: File List Integer

read! ifile

[−1,2,3]

Type: List Integer

read! ifile

[10,−10,0,111]

Type: List Integer

The read operation can cause an error if one tries to read more data than is in the file. To guard against this possibility the readIfCan operation should be used.

readIfCan! ifile

[7]

Type: Union(List Integer,...)

readIfCan! ifile

"failed"

Type: Union("failed",...)

You can find the current mode of the file, and the file’s name.

iomode ifile

"input"

Type: String

name ifile
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"/tmp/jazz1"

Type: FileName

When you are finished with a file, you should close it.

close! ifile

"/tmp/jazz1"

Type: File List Integer

)system rm /tmp/jazz1

A limitation of the underlying LISP system is that not all values can be represented in a file. In particular, delayed values containing compiled functions cannot be saved.

For more information on related topics, see 9.81 on page 809, 9.38 on page 595, 9.41 on page 639, and 9.25 on page 545.

9.25 FileName

The FileName domain provides an interface to the computer's file system. Functions are provided to manipulate file names and to test properties of files.

The simplest way to use file names in the Axiom interpreter is to rely on conversion to and from strings. The syntax of these strings depends on the operating system.

fn: FileName

Type: Void

On Linux, this is a proper file syntax:

fn := "/tmp/fname.input"

"/tmp/fname.input"

Type: FileName
Although it is very convenient to be able to use string notation for file names in the
interpreter, it is desirable to have a portable way of creating and manipulating file
names from within programs.

A measure of portability is obtained by considering a file name to consist of three parts: the directory, the name, and the extension.

directory fn

"/tmp"

Type: String

name fn

"fname"

Type: String

extension fn

"input"

Type: String

The meaning of these three parts depends on the operating system. For example, on
CMS the file “SPADPROF INPUT M” would have directory “M”, name “SPADPROF” and
extension “INPUT”.

It is possible to create a filename from its parts.

fn := filename("/u/smwt/work", "fname", "input")

"/u/smwt/work/fname.input"

Type: FileName

When writing programs, it is helpful to refer to directories via variables.

objdir := "/tmp"

"/tmp"
fn := filename(objdir, "table", "spad")
"/tmp/table.spad"

Type: FileName

If the directory or the extension is given as an empty string, then a default is used. On
AIX, the defaults are the current directory and no extension.

fn := filename("", "letter", ")
"letter"

Type: FileName

Three tests provide information about names in the file system.
The exists? operation tests whether the named file exists.

exists? "/etc/passwd"

true

Type: Boolean

The operation readable? tells whether the named file can be read. If the file does not
exist, then it cannot be read.

readable? "/etc/passwd"

true

Type: Boolean

readable? "/etc/security/passwd"

false

Type: Boolean
readable? "/ect/passwd"

false

Type: Boolean

Likewise, the operation writable? tells whether the named file can be written. If the file does not exist, the test is determined by the properties of the directory.

writable? "/etc/passwd"

false

Type: Boolean

writable? "/dev/null"

type

true

Type: Boolean

writable? "/etc/DoesNotExist"

false

Type: Boolean

writable? "/tmp/DoesNotExist"

true

Type: Boolean

The new operation constructs the name of a new writable file. The argument sequence is the same as for filename, except that the name part is actually a prefix for a constructed unique name.

The resulting file is in the specified directory with the given extension, and the same defaults are used.

fn := new(objdir, "xxx", "yy")

"/tmp/xxx82404.yy"

Type: FileName
9.26 FlexibleArray

The **FlexibleArray** domain constructor creates one-dimensional arrays of elements of the same type. Flexible arrays are an attempt to provide a data type that has the best features of both one-dimensional arrays (fast, random access to elements) and lists (flexibility). They are implemented by a fixed block of storage. When necessary for expansion, a new, larger block of storage is allocated and the elements from the old storage area are copied into the new block.

Flexible arrays have available most of the operations provided by **OneDimensionalArray** (see 9.57 on page 704 and 9.85 on page 825). Since flexible arrays are also of category **ExtensibleLinearAggregate**, they have operations **concat!**, **delete!**, **insert!**, **merge!**, **remove!**, **removeDuplicates!**, and **select!**. In addition, the operations **physicalLength** and **physicalLength!** provide user-control over expansion and contraction.

A convenient way to create a flexible array is to apply the operation **flexibleArray** to a list of values.

```
flexibleArray [i for i in 1..6]
```

```
[1,2,3,4,5,6]
```

Type: FlexibleArray PositiveInteger

Create a flexible array of six zeroes.

```
f : FARRAY INT := new(6,0)
```

```
[0,0,0,0,0,0]
```

Type: FlexibleArray Integer

For \( i = 1 \ldots 6 \) set the \( i \)-th element to \( i \). Display \( f \).

```
for i in 1..6 repeat f.i := i; f
```

```
[1,2,3,4,5,6]
```

Type: FlexibleArray Integer

Initially, the physical length is the same as the number of elements.

```
physicalLength f
```
Add an element to the end of \( f \).

\[
\text{concat!}(f, 11)
\]

\([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11]\)

Type: FlexibleArray Integer

See that its physical length has grown.

\[
\text{physicalLength} f
\]

10

Type: PositiveInteger

Make \( f \) grow to have room for 15 elements.

\[
\text{physicalLength!}(f, 15)
\]

\([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11]\)

Type: FlexibleArray Integer

Concatenate the elements of \( f \) to itself. The physical length allows room for three more values at the end.

\[
\text{concat!}(f, f)
\]

\([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11]\)

Type: FlexibleArray Integer

Use \text{insert!} to add an element to the front of a flexible array.

\[
\text{insert!}(22, f, 1)
\]

\([22, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11]\)
Create a second flexible array from \( f \) consisting of the elements from index 10 forward.

\[
g := f(10..)
\]

\[
[2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11]
\]

Insert this array at the front of \( f \).

\[
\text{insert!}(g, f, 1)
\]

\[
[2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11]
\]

Merge the flexible array \( f \) into \( g \) after sorting each in place.

\[
\text{merge!}(\text{sort! } f, \text{sort! } g)
\]

\[
[1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 4, 4, 4, 4, 5, 5, 5, 5, 6, 6, 6, 6, 11, 11, 11, 11, 11, 22]
\]

Remove duplicates in place.

\[
\text{removeDuplicates! } f
\]

\[
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 11, 22]
\]

Remove all odd integers.

\[
\text{select!}(i +-> \text{even? } i, f)
\]

\[
[2, 4, 6, 22]
\]
All these operations have shrunk the physical length of $f$.

$$\text{physicalLength } f$$

$$8$$

Type: PositiveInteger

To force Axiom not to shrink flexible arrays call the `shrinkable` operation with the argument `false`. You must package call this operation. The previous value is returned.

$$\text{shrinkable(false)} \in \text{FlexibleArray(Integer)}$$

true

Type: Boolean

### 9.27 Float

Axiom provides two kinds of floating point numbers. The domain `Float` (abbreviation `FLOAT`) implements a model of arbitrary precision floating point numbers. The domain `DoubleFloat` (abbreviation `DFLOAT`) is intended to make available hardware floating point arithmetic in Axiom. The actual model of floating point that `DoubleFloat` provides is system-dependent. For example, on the IBM system 370 Axiom uses IBM double precision which has fourteen hexadecimal digits of precision or roughly sixteen decimal digits. Arbitrary precision floats allow the user to specify the precision at which arithmetic operations are computed. Although this is an attractive facility, it comes at a cost. Arbitrary-precision floating-point arithmetic typically takes twenty to two hundred times more time than hardware floating point.

For more information about Axiom’s numeric and graphic facilities, see ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, 8.1 on page 337, and 9.17 on page 521.

#### 9.27.1 Introduction to Float

Scientific notation is supported for input and output of floating point numbers. A floating point number is written as a string of digits containing a decimal point optionally followed by the letter “E”, and then the exponent.

We begin by doing some calculations using arbitrary precision floats. The default precision is twenty decimal digits.

$$1.234$$
A decimal base for the exponent is assumed, so the number 1.234E2 denotes $1.234 \cdot 10^2$.

1.234E2

123.4

The normal arithmetic operations are available for floating point numbers.

```
sqrt(1.2 + 2.3 / 3.4 ** 4.5)
```

1.0996972790671286226

9.27.2 Conversion Functions

You can use conversion (?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??) to go back and forth between Integer, Fraction Integer and Float, as appropriate.

```
i := 3 :: Float
```

3.0

Type: Float

```
i :: Integer
```

3

Type: Integer

```
i :: Fraction Integer
```

Since you are explicitly asking for a conversion, you must take responsibility for any loss of exactness.

\[ r := \frac{3}{7} :: \text{Float} \]

\[ 0.42857142857142857143 \]

Type: Float

\[ r :: \text{Fraction Integer} \]

\[ \frac{3}{7} \]

Type: Fraction Integer

This conversion cannot be performed: use \texttt{truncate} or \texttt{round} if that is what you intend.

\[ r :: \text{Integer} \]

Cannot convert from type Float to Integer for value \[ 0.42857142857142857143 \]

The operations \texttt{truncate} and \texttt{round} truncate ...

\texttt{truncate 3.6}

\[ 3.0 \]

Type: Float

and round to the nearest integral Float respectively.

\texttt{round 3.6}

\[ 4.0 \]

Type: Float
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truncate(-3.6)

\[-3.0\]

Type: Float

round(-3.6)

\[-4.0\]

Type: Float

The operation \texttt{fractionPart} computes the fractional part of \(x\), that is, \(x - \text{truncate} \; x\).

\texttt{fractionPart 3.6}

\[0.6\]

Type: Float

The operation \texttt{digits} allows the user to set the precision. It returns the previous value it was using.

\texttt{digits 40}

\[20\]

Type: PositiveInteger

\texttt{sqrt 0.2}

\[0.4472135954 \ 9995793928 \ 1834733746 \ 2552470881\]

Type: Float

\texttt{pi()}$\texttt{Float}$

\[3.1415926535 \ 8979323846 \ 2643383279 \ 502884197\]
The precision is only limited by the computer memory available. Calculations at 500 or more digits of precision are not difficult.

digits 500

40

digits 20

3.1415926535 8979323846 2643383279 5028841971 6939937510 5820974944 5923078164 0628620899 8628034825 3421170679 8214808651 3282306647 0938446095 5058223172 5359408128 4811174502 8410270193 8521105559 6446229489 5493038196 4428810975 6659334461 2847564823 3786783165 2712019091 456856592 3460348610 4543266482 1339360726 0249141273 7245870066 0631558817 4881520920 9628292540 9171536436 7892590360 0113305305 4882046652 1384146951 9415116094 3305727036 5759591953 0921861173 8193261179 3105118548 0744623799 6274956735 1885752724 8912279381 30119491

Numbers of type $\text{Float}$ are represented as a record of two integers, namely, the mantissa and the exponent where the base of the exponent is binary. That is, the floating point number $(m, e)$ represents the number $m \cdot 2^e$. A consequence of using a binary base is that decimal numbers can not, in general, be represented exactly.

9.27.3 Output Functions

A number of operations exist for specifying how numbers of type $\text{Float}$ are to be displayed. By default, spaces are inserted every ten digits in the output for readability.\footnote{Note that you cannot include spaces in the input form of a floating point number, though you can use underscores.}
Output spacing can be modified with the `outputSpacing` operation. This inserts no spaces and then displays the value of \( x \).

```plaintext
outputSpacing 0; x := sqrt 0.2

0.44721359549995793928

Type: Float
```

Issue this to have the spaces inserted every 5 digits.

```plaintext
outputSpacing 5; x

0.44721 35954 99957 93928

Type: Float
```

By default, the system displays floats in either fixed format or scientific format, depending on the magnitude of the number.

```plaintext
y := x/10**10

0.44721 35954 99957 93928 E −10

Type: Float
```

A particular format may be requested with the operations `outputFloating` and `outputFixed`.

```plaintext
outputFloating(); x

0.44721 35954 99957 93928 E 0

Type: Float
```

```plaintext
outputFixed(); y

0.00000 00000 44721 35954 99957 93928

Type: Float
```

Additionally, you can ask for \( n \) digits to be displayed after the decimal point.
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outputFloating 2; y

0.45 E − 10

Type: Float

outputFixed 2; x

0.45

Type: Float

This resets the output printing to the default behavior.

outputGeneral()

Type: Void

9.27.4 An Example: Determinant of a Hilbert Matrix

Consider the problem of computing the determinant of a 10 by 10 Hilbert matrix. The (i, j)-th entry of a Hilbert matrix is given by 1/(i+j+1).

First do the computation using rational numbers to obtain the exact result.

a: Matrix Fraction Integer := matrix [ [1/(i+j+1) for j in 0..9] for i in 0..9]
This version of \texttt{determinant} uses Gaussian elimination.

\begin{verbatim}
d:= determinant a
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
  1
462068939479146913162956288390362787269836800000000000
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{d :: Float}

\begin{verbatim}
  0.21641 79226 43149 18691 E \texttt{–52}
\end{verbatim}

Now use hardware floats. Note that a semicolon (;) is used to prevent the display of the matrix.

\begin{verbatim}
b: Matrix DoubleFloat := matrix [ [1/(i+j+1)$\texttt{DoubleFloat}) for j in 0..9] for i in 0..9];
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{The result given by hardware floats is correct only to four significant digits of precision. In the jargon of numerical analysis, the Hilbert matrix is said to be “ill-conditioned.”}

\begin{verbatim}
determinant b
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
  2.1643677945721411e \texttt{–53}
\end{verbatim}

Now repeat the computation at a higher precision using \texttt{Float}.

\begin{verbatim}
digits 40
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
20
\end{verbatim}
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Type: Matrix Float

determinant c

\[ 0.21641 \ 79226 \ 43149 \ 18690 \ 60594 \ 98362 \ 26174 \ 36159 \ E^{ -52 } \]

Type: Float

Reset digits to its default value.

digits 20

40

Type: PositiveInteger

9.28 Fraction

The Fraction domain implements quotients. The elements must belong to a domain of category IntegralDomain: multiplication must be commutative and the product of two non-zero elements must not be zero. This allows you to make fractions of most things you would think of, but don’t expect to create a fraction of two matrices! The abbreviation for Fraction is FRAC.

Use “/” to create a fraction.

\[ a := 11/12 \]

\[ \frac{11}{12} \]

Type: Fraction Integer

\[ b := 23/24 \]

\[ \frac{23}{24} \]

Type: Fraction Integer

The standard arithmetic operations are available.
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\[ 3 - a \times b^{**2} + a + \frac{b}{a} \]

\[
\begin{align*}
313271 \\
76032
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Fraction Integer

Extract the numerator and denominator by using `numer` and `denom`, respectively.

\[ \text{numer}(a) \]

11

Type: PositiveInteger

\[ \text{denom}(b) \]

24

Type: PositiveInteger

Operations like `max`, `min`, `negative?`, `positive?` and `zero?` are all available if they are provided for the numerators and denominators. See 9.34 on page 575 for examples.

Don’t expect a useful answer from `factor`, `gcd` or `lcm` if you apply them to fractions.

\[ r := \frac{x^{**2} + 2 \times x + 1}{x^{**2} - 2 \times x + 1} \]

\[
\frac{x^2 + 2x + 1}{x^2 - 2x + 1}
\]

Type: Fraction Polynomial Integer

Since all non-zero fractions are invertible, these operations have trivial definitions.

\[ \text{factor}(r) \]

\[
\frac{x^2 + 2x + 1}{x^2 - 2x + 1}
\]

Type: Factored Fraction Polynomial Integer

Use `map` to apply `factor` to the numerator and denominator, which is probably what you mean.
map(factor, r)

\[
\frac{(x + 1)^2}{(x - 1)^2}
\]

Type: Fraction Factored Polynomial Integer

Other forms of fractions are available. Use \texttt{continuedFraction} to create a continued fraction.

\texttt{continuedFraction(7/12)}

\[
\frac{1}{|1| + \frac{1}{|2| + \frac{1}{|2|}}}
\]

Type: ContinuedFraction Integer

Use \texttt{partialFraction} to create a partial fraction. See 9.12 on page 492 and 9.61 on page 719 for additional information and examples.

\texttt{partialFraction(7,12)}

\[
1 - \frac{3}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3}
\]

Type: PartialFraction Integer

Use conversion to create alternative views of fractions with objects moved in and out of the numerator and denominator.

\[
g := \frac{2}{3} + \frac{4}{5} \times i
\]

\[
\frac{2}{3} + \frac{4}{5} \times i
\]

Type: Complex Fraction Integer

Conversion is discussed in detail in Section ?? on page ??.

\[
g :: \text{FRAC COMPLEX INT}
\]

\[
\frac{10 + 12 \times i}{15}
\]

Type: Fraction Complex Integer
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9.29 FullPartialFractionExpansion

The domain FullPartialFractionExpansion implements factor-free conversion of quotients to full partial fractions.

Our examples will all involve quotients of univariate polynomials with rational number coefficients.

Fx := FRAC UP(x, FRAC INT)

Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)

Type: Domain

Here is a simple-looking rational function.

f : Fx := 36 / (x**5-2*x**4-2*x**3+4*x**2+x-2)

\[ \frac{36}{x^5 - 2x^4 - 2x^3 + 4x^2 + x - 2} \]

Type: Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)

We use fullPartialFraction to convert it to an object of type FullPartialFractionExpansion.

\[ \frac{4}{x-2} - \frac{4}{x+1} + \sum \frac{-3 \%A - 6}{(x-\%A)^2} \]

Type: FullPartialFractionExpansion(Fraction Integer,UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer))

Use a coercion to change it back into a quotient.

\[ \frac{36}{x^5 - 2x^4 - 2x^3 + 4x^2 + x - 2} \]

Type: Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)

Full partial fractions differentiate faster than rational functions.
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\[ g_5 := D(g, 5) \]

\[-\frac{480}{(x-2)^6} + \frac{480}{(x+1)^6} + \sum_{\%A^2-1=0} \frac{2160 \%A + 4320}{(x-\%A)^7} = 0 \]

Type: FullPartialFractionExpansion(Fraction Integer, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Fraction Integer))

\[ f_5 := D(f, 5) \]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
-544320 x^{10} + 4354560 x^9 - 14696640 x^8 + 28615680 x^7 - \\
40085280 x^6 + 46656000 x^5 - 39411360 x^4 + 18247680 x^3 - \\
5870880 x^2 + 3317760 x + 246240
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
x^{20} - 12 x^{19} + 53 x^{18} - 76 x^{17} - 159 x^{16} + 676 x^{15} - 391 x^{14} - \\
1596 x^{13} + 2527 x^{12} + 1148 x^{11} - 4977 x^{10} + 1372 x^9 + \\
4907 x^8 - 3444 x^7 - 2381 x^6 + 2924 x^5 + 276 x^4 - \\
1184 x^3 + 208 x^2 + 192 x - 64
\end{pmatrix}
\]

Type: Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x, Fraction Integer)

We can check that the two forms represent the same function.

\[ g_5 :: Fx - f_5 \]

\[ 0 \]

Type: Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x, Fraction Integer)

Here are some examples that are more complicated.

\[ f : Fx := (x**5 * (x-1)) / ((x**2 + x + 1)**2 * (x-2)**3) \]

\[
\frac{x^6 - x^5}{x^7 - 4 x^6 + 3 x^5 + 9 x^3 - 6 x^2 - 4 x - 8}
\]

Type: Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x, Fraction Integer)
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\[ g := \text{fullPartialFraction} f \]

\[
\frac{1952}{x-2} + \frac{464}{(x-2)^2} + \frac{32}{(x-2)^3} + \\
\sum \frac{-179}{2401} \frac{\%A}{x-\%A} + \frac{135}{2401} + \\
\sum \frac{37}{1029} \frac{\%A}{(x-\%A)^2} + \\
\sum \frac{\%A^2}{x-\%A} + 1 = 0
\]

\text{Type: } \text{FullPartialFractionExpansion}(\text{Fraction Integer}, \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Fraction Integer}))

\[ g :: Fx - f \]

\[ 0 \]

\text{Type: } \text{Fraction UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Fraction Integer})

\[ f : Fx := \frac{2x^7 - 7x^5 + 26x^3 + 8x}{x^8 - 5x^6 + 6x^4 + 4x^2 - 8} \]

\text{Type: } \text{Fraction UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Fraction Integer})

\[ g := \text{fullPartialFraction} f \]

\[
\sum \%A^2 - 2 = 0 \frac{1}{x-\%A} + \\
\sum \%A^2 - 2 = 0 \frac{1}{(x-\%A)^3} + \\
\sum \%A^2 + 1 = 0 \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{x-\%A}
\]

\text{Type: } \text{FullPartialFractionExpansion}(\text{Fraction Integer}, \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Fraction Integer}))
$$g :: Fx - f$$

$0$

Type: Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)

$$f: Fx := x^3 / (x^{21} + 2x^{20} + 4x^{19} + 7x^{18} + 10x^{17} + 17x^{16} + 22x^{15} + 30x^{14} + 36x^{13} + 40x^{12} + 47x^{11} + 46x^{10} + 49x^9 + 43x^8 + 38x^7 + 32x^6 + 23x^5 + 19x^4 + 10x^3 + 7x^2 + 2x + 1)$$

$$x^3 \begin{pmatrix} x^{21} + 2x^{20} + 4x^{19} + 7x^{18} + 10x^{17} + 22x^{15} + 30x^{14} + 36x^{13} + 40x^{12} + 47x^{11} + 46x^{10} + 49x^9 + 43x^8 + 38x^7 + 32x^6 + 23x^5 + 19x^4 + 10x^3 + 7x^2 + 2x + 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Type: Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)

$$g := \text{fullPartialFraction} \ f$$
\[ \sum \frac{\%A^2 + 1}{x - \%A} = 0 + \sum \frac{\%A^2 + \%A + 1}{x - \%A} = 0 \]

\[ \sum \frac{\%A - \frac{1}{\%A}}{(x - \%A)^2} + \frac{\%A^5 + \%A^2 + 1}{(x - \%A)^2} = 0 \]

\[ \sum \frac{\%A^4 + 420961732891 \%A^3 - 912390759099 \%A^2 + 96556567040 \%A}{912390759099} \]

\[ \frac{\%A^3 - 37354875923 \%A^2 + 912390759099 \%A}{912390759099} \]

\[ \frac{\%A + 529673492498}{912390759099} \]

\[ \left( \begin{array}{c}
\frac{-5580868}{94070601} \%A^4 - 2024443 \%A^3 + 4321919 \%A^2 - \\
\frac{84614}{1542141} \%A - 5070620 \%A + 94070601
\end{array} \right) \]

\[ \left( \begin{array}{c}
\frac{-5580868}{94070601} \%A^4 - 2024443 \%A^3 + 4321919 \%A^2 - \\
\frac{84614}{1542141} \%A - 5070620 \%A + 94070601
\end{array} \right) \]

\[ \left( \begin{array}{c}
\frac{1610957}{94070601} \%A^4 + 2763014 \%A^3 - 2016775 \%A^2 + \\
\frac{266953}{94070601} \%A + 4529359 \%A + 94070601
\end{array} \right) \]

\[ \left( \begin{array}{c}
\frac{1610957}{94070601} \%A^4 + 2763014 \%A^3 - 2016775 \%A^2 + \\
\frac{266953}{94070601} \%A + 4529359 \%A + 94070601
\end{array} \right) \]

**Type:** `FullPartialFractionExpansion(Fraction Integer, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Fraction Integer))`

This verification takes much longer than the conversion to partial fractions.

\[ g ::= Fx - f \]

\[ 0 \]

**Type:** `Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x, Fraction Integer)`

For more information, see the paper: Bronstein, M and Salvy, B. “Full Partial Fraction Decomposition of Rational Functions,” *Proceedings of ISSAC’93, Kiev, ACM Press.* All see 9.61 on page 719 for standard partial fraction decompositions.

### 9.30 GeneralSparseTable

Sometimes when working with tables there is a natural value to use as the entry in all but a few cases. The `GeneralSparseTable` constructor can be used to provide any
table type with a default value for entries. See 9.80 on page 805 for general information about tables.

Suppose we launched a fund-raising campaign to raise fifty thousand dollars. To record the contributions, we want a table with strings as keys (for the names) and integer entries (for the amount). In a data base of cash contributions, unless someone has been explicitly entered, it is reasonable to assume they have made a zero dollar contribution. This creates a keyed access file with default entry 0.

```
patrons: GeneralSparseTable(String, Integer, KeyedAccessFile(Integer), 0) := table() ;
```

Now patrons can be used just as any other table. Here we record two gifts.

```
patrons."Smith" := 10500
10500
     Type: PositiveInteger

patrons."Jones" := 22000
22000
     Type: PositiveInteger
```

Now let us look up the size of the contributions from Jones and Stingy.

```
patrons."Jones"
22000
     Type: PositiveInteger

patrons."Stingy"
0
     Type: NonNegativeInteger
```
Have we met our seventy thousand dollar goal?

reduce(+, entries patrons)

32500

Type: PositiveInteger

So the project is cancelled and we can delete the data base:

)system rm -r kaf*.sdata

9.31 GroebnerFactorizationPackage

Solving systems of polynomial equations with the Gröbner basis algorithm can often be very time consuming because, in general, the algorithm has exponential run-time. These systems, which often come from concrete applications, frequently have symmetries which are not taken advantage of by the algorithm. However, it often happens in this case that the polynomials which occur during the Gröbner calculations are reducible. Since Axiom has an excellent polynomial factorization algorithm, it is very natural to combine the Gröbner and factorization algorithms.

GroebnerFactorizationPackage exports the groebnerFactorize operation which implements a modified Gröbner basis algorithm. In this algorithm, each polynomial that is to be put into the partial list of the basis is first factored. The remaining calculation is split into as many parts as there are irreducible factors. Call these factors \( p_1, \ldots, p_n \). In the branches corresponding to \( p_2, \ldots, p_n \), the factor \( p_1 \) can be divided out, and so on. This package also contains operations that allow you to specify the polynomials that are not zero on the common roots of the final Gröbner basis.

Here is an example from chemistry. In a theoretical model of the cyclohexan \( C_6H_{12} \), the six carbon atoms each sit in the center of gravity of a tetrahedron that has two hydrogen atoms and two carbon atoms at its corners. We first normalize and set the length of each edge to 1. Hence, the distances of one fixed carbon atom to each of its immediate neighbours is 1. We will denote the distances to the other three carbon atoms by \( x \), \( y \) and \( z \).

A. Dress developed a theory to decide whether a set of points and distances between them can be realized in an \( n \)-dimensional space. Here, of course, we have \( n = 3 \).

mfzn : SQMATRIX(6,DMP([x,y,z],Fraction INT)) := [ [0,1,1,1,1,1], [1,0,1,8/3,x,8/3], [1,1,0,1,8/3,y], [1,8/3,1,0,1,8/3], [1,x,8/3,1,0,1], [1,8/3,y,8/3,1,0] ]
For the cyclohexan, the distances have to satisfy this equation.

\[
\text{eq} := \text{determinant mfzn} \\
-x^2 y^2 + \frac{22}{9} x^2 y - \frac{25}{9} x^2 y + \frac{22}{9} x y^2 - \frac{388}{9} x y - \\
\frac{250}{27} x - \frac{25}{9} y^2 - \frac{250}{27} y + \frac{14575}{81}
\]

Type: DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y,z], Fraction Integer)

They also must satisfy the equations given by cyclic shifts of the indeterminates.

\[
\text{groebnerFactorize} \{\text{eq}, \text{eval(eq, [x,y,z], [y,z,x])}, \text{eval(eq, [x,y,z], [z,x,y])}\}
\]
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\[
\begin{bmatrix}
    \begin{array}{c}
        x + y z - \frac{22}{3} x + y z - \frac{22}{3} y - \frac{22}{3} z + \frac{121}{3}, \\
        x z^2 - \frac{22}{3} x z + \frac{25}{9} x + y z^2 - \frac{22}{3} y z + \frac{25}{9} y - \frac{22}{3} z^2 + \frac{388}{9} z + \frac{250}{27}, \\
        y^2 z^2 - \frac{22}{3} y^2 z + \frac{25}{9} y z^2 - \frac{22}{3} y z + \frac{388}{9} y z + \frac{250}{27} y + \\
        \frac{25}{9} z^2 + \frac{250}{27} z - \frac{14575}{81}, \\
        x + y - \frac{21994}{5625}, y^2 - \frac{21994}{5625} y + \frac{4427}{675}, z = \frac{463}{87}, \\
        x^2 - \frac{1}{2} x z - \frac{11}{2} x - \frac{5}{6} x + \frac{265}{18}, y - z, \bar{z} - \frac{38}{3}, z + \frac{265}{9}, \\
        x - \frac{25}{9} y - \frac{11}{3}, \bar{z} - \frac{11}{3}, \\
        x = \frac{11}{3}, y = -\frac{11}{3}, \bar{z} = -\frac{11}{3}, \\
        x + \frac{5}{3} y + \frac{5}{3}, \bar{z} + \frac{5}{3}, \\
        x - \frac{19}{3}, y + \frac{5}{3}, \bar{z} + \frac{5}{3}
    \end{array}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List List DistributedMultivariatePolynomial([x,y,z],Fraction Integer)

The union of the solutions of this list is the solution of our original problem. If we impose positivity conditions, we get two relevant ideals. One ideal is zero-dimensional, namely \( x = y = z = \frac{11}{3} \), and this determines the “boat” form of the cyclohexan. The other ideal is one-dimensional, which means that we have a solution space given by one parameter. This gives the “chair” form of the cyclohexan. The parameter describes the angle of the “back of the chair.”

`groebnerFactorize` has an optional Boolean-valued second argument. When it is `true` partial results are displayed, since it may happen that the calculation does not terminate in a reasonable time. See the source code for `GroebnerFactorizationPackage` in `groebf.input` for more details about the algorithms used.
9.32 Heap

The domain Heap($S$) implements a priority queue of objects of type $S$ such that the operation extract! removes and returns the maximum element. The implementation represents heaps as flexible arrays (see 9.26 on page 549). The representation and algorithms give complexity of $O(\log(n))$ for insertion and extractions, and $O(n)$ for construction.

Create a heap of six elements.

\[
h := \text{heap} [-4,9,11,2,7,-7]
\]

$[11,7,9,-4,2,-7]$

Type: Heap Integer

Use insert! to add an element.

\[
\text{insert!}(3,h)
\]

$[11,7,9,-4,2,-7,3]$

Type: Heap Integer

The operation extract! removes and returns the maximum element.

\[
\text{extract!} \ h
\]

11

Type: PositiveInteger

The internal structure of $h$ has been appropriately adjusted.

\[
h
\]

$[9,7,3,-4,2,-7]$

Type: Heap Integer

Now extract! elements repeatedly until none are left, collecting the elements in a list.
Another way to produce the same result is by defining a `heapsort` function.

```lisp
heapsort(x) == (empty? x => []; cons(extract!(x),heapsort x))
```

Void

Create another sample heap.

```lisp
h1 := heap [17,-4,9,-11,2,7,-7]
```

[17, 2, 9, −11, −4, 7, −7]

Type: Heap Integer

Apply `heapsort` to present elements in order.

```lisp
heapsort h1
```

[17, 9, 7, 2, −4, −7, −11]

Type: List Integer

### 9.33 HexadecimalExpansion

All rationals have repeating hexadecimal expansions. The operation `hex` returns these expansions of type `HexadecimalExpansion`. Operations to access the individual numerals of a hexadecimal expansion can be obtained by converting the value to `RadixExpansion(16)`. More examples of expansions are available in the 9.15 on page 517, 9.4 on page 456, and 9.65 on page 736.

This is a hexadecimal expansion of a rational number.

```lisp
r := hex(22/7)
```

3.249
Arithmetic is exact.

\[ r + \text{hex}(6/7) \]

The period of the expansion can be short or long …

\[ \text{[hex}(1/i) \text{ for } i \in 350..354]\]

\[ \text{[0.00BB3EE721A54D88, 0.00BAB6561, 0.00BA2E8, 0.00B9A7862A0FF46587D5F, 0.00B92143FA36F5E02E4850FE8DBD78]} \]

or very long!

\[ \text{hex}(1/1007) \]

These numbers are bona fide algebraic objects.

\[ p := \text{hex}(1/4)\times**2 + \text{hex}(2/3)\times + \text{hex}(4/9) \]

\[ 0.4x^2 + 0.\overline{A}x + 0.\overline{71C} \]

\[ q := D(p, x) \]

\[ 0.8x + 0.\overline{A} \]
Type: Polynomial HexadecimalExpansion

\[ g := \gcd(p, q) \]

\[ x + 1.5 \]

Type: Polynomial HexadecimalExpansion

9.34 Integer

Axiom provides many operations for manipulating arbitrary precision integers. In this section we will show some of those that come from \texttt{Integer} itself plus some that are implemented in other packages. More examples of using integers are in the following sections: ?? on page ?? in section ?? on page ?? 9.36 on page 586, 9.15 on page 517, 9.4 on page 456, 9.33 on page 573, and 9.65 on page 736.

9.34.1 Basic Functions

The size of an integer in Axiom is only limited by the amount of computer storage you have available. The usual arithmetic operations are available.

\[ 2^{(5678 - 4856 + 2 \times 17)} \]

\[ 48048107704350081471815409251259243912395261398716822634738556100 \\
88084200076308293086342527091412083743074572278211496076276922026 \\
43343568752733498024953930242542523045817764949544214392905306388 \\
478705146745768073877141698859815495632935288783334250628775936 \]

Type: PositiveInteger

There are a number of ways of working with the sign of an integer. Let’s use this \( x \) as an example.

\[ x := -101 \]

\[-101\]

Type: Integer

First of all, there is the absolute value function.
abs(x)

101

Type: PositiveInteger

The sign operation returns -1 if its argument is negative, 0 if zero and 1 if positive.

sign(x)

-1

Type: Integer

You can determine if an integer is negative in several other ways.

x < 0

ture

Type: Boolean

x <= -1

ture

Type: Boolean

negative?(x)

ture

Type: Boolean

Similarly, you can find out if it is positive.

x > 0

false

Type: Boolean
x >= 1

false
Type: Boolean

positive?(x)

false
Type: Boolean

This is the recommended way of determining whether an integer is zero.

zero?(x)

false
Type: Boolean

Use the zero? operation whenever you are testing any mathematical object for equality with zero. This is usually more efficient that using = (think of matrices: it is easier to tell if a matrix is zero by just checking term by term than constructing another “zero” matrix and comparing the two matrices term by term) and also avoids the problem that = is usually used for creating equations.

This is the recommended way of determining whether an integer is equal to one.

one?(x)

false
Type: Boolean

This syntax is used to test equality using “=” . It says that you want a Boolean (true or false) answer rather than an equation.

(x = -101)@Boolean

true
The operations `odd?` and `even?` determine whether an integer is odd or even, respectively. They each return a Boolean object.

`odd?(x)`

```
true
```

Type: Boolean

`even?(x)`

```
false
```

Type: Boolean

The operation `gcd` computes the greatest common divisor of two integers.

`gcd(56788,43688)`

```
4
```

Type: PositiveInteger

The operation `lcm` computes their least common multiple.

`lcm(56788,43688)`

```
620238536
```

Type: PositiveInteger

To determine the maximum of two integers, use `max`.

`max(678,567)`

```
678
```

Type: PositiveInteger
To determine the minimum, use \texttt{min}.

\begin{verbatim}
min(678,567)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
567
\end{verbatim}

Type: PositiveInteger

The \texttt{reduce} operation is used to extend binary operations to more than two arguments. For example, you can use \texttt{reduce} to find the maximum integer in a list or compute the least common multiple of all integers in the list.

\begin{verbatim}
reduce(max,[2,45,-89,78,100,-45])
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
100
\end{verbatim}

Type: PositiveInteger

\begin{verbatim}
reduce(min,[2,45,-89,78,100,-45])
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
−89
\end{verbatim}

Type: Integer

\begin{verbatim}
reduce(gcd,[2,45,-89,78,100,-45])
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
1
\end{verbatim}

Type: PositiveInteger

\begin{verbatim}
reduce(lcm,[2,45,-89,78,100,-45])
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
1041300
\end{verbatim}

Type: PositiveInteger

The infix operator "/" is \texttt{not} used to compute the quotient of integers. Rather, it is used to create rational numbers as described in 9.28 on page 560.

\begin{verbatim}
13 / 4
\end{verbatim}
The infix operation \texttt{quo} computes the integer quotient.

\begin{verbatim}
13 quo 4
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
3
\end{verbatim}

Type: \texttt{PositiveInteger}

The infix operation \texttt{rem} computes the integer remainder.

\begin{verbatim}
13 rem 4
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
1
\end{verbatim}

Type: \texttt{PositiveInteger}

One integer is evenly divisible by another if the remainder is zero. The operation \texttt{exquo} can also be used. See ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ?? for an example.

\begin{verbatim}
zero?(16760473646952 rem 2003644)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
true
\end{verbatim}

Type: \texttt{Boolean}

The operation \texttt{divide} returns a record of the quotient and remainder and thus is more efficient when both are needed.

\begin{verbatim}
d := divide(13,4)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
[\texttt{quotient = 3, remainder = 1}]
\end{verbatim}

Type: \texttt{Record(quotient: Integer, remainder: Integer)}

\begin{verbatim}
d.quotient
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
3
\end{verbatim}
Records are discussed in detail in Section 2.4 on page 141.

\[
d \text{remainder} \quad 1
\]

Type: PositiveInteger

9.34.2 Primes and Factorization

Use the operation \texttt{factor} to factor integers. It returns an object of type \texttt{Factored Integer}. See 9.22 on page 533 for a discussion of the manipulation of factored objects.

\[
factor 102400 \quad 2^{12} 5^2
\]

Type: Factored Integer

The operation \texttt{prime?} returns \texttt{true} or \texttt{false} depending on whether its argument is a prime.

\[
\text{prime? 7} \quad \text{true}
\]

Type: Boolean

\[
\text{prime? 8} \quad \text{false}
\]

Type: Boolean

The operation \texttt{nextPrime} returns the least prime number greater than its argument.

\[
\text{nextPrime 100}
\]
The operation `prevPrime` returns the greatest prime number less than its argument.

```plaintext
prevPrime 100
```

```
97
```

To compute all primes between two integers (inclusively), use the operation `primes`.

```plaintext
primes(100,175)
```

```plaintext
[173, 167, 163, 157, 151, 149, 139, 137, 131, 127, 113, 109, 107, 103, 101]
```

You might sometimes want to see the factorization of an integer when it is considered a Gaussian integer. See 9.11 on page 489 for more details.

```plaintext
factor(2 :: Complex Integer)
```

```
-1 (1 + i)^2
```

```
Type: Factored Complex Integer
```

### 9.34.3 Some Number Theoretic Functions

Axiom provides several number theoretic operations for integers. More examples are in 9.36 on page 586.

The operation `fibonacci` computes the Fibonacci numbers. The algorithm has running time $O(\log^3(n))$ for argument $n$.

```plaintext
[fibonacci(k) for k in 0..]
```

```plaintext
[0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, ...]
```

```
Type: Stream Integer
```
The operation \texttt{legendre} computes the Legendre symbol for its two integer arguments where the second one is prime. If you know the second argument to be prime, use \texttt{jacobi} instead where no check is made.

\[
\text{[legendre(i,11) for i in 0..10]}
\]
\[
[0,1,-1,1,1,-1,-1,1,-1,-1]
\]
\text{Type: List Integer}

The operation \texttt{jacobi} computes the Jacobi symbol for its two integer arguments. By convention, 0 is returned if the greatest common divisor of the numerator and denominator is not 1.

\[
\text{[jacobi(i,15) for i in 0..9]}
\]
\[
[0,1,1,0,1,0,0,-1,1,0]
\]
\text{Type: List Integer}

The operation \texttt{eulerPhi} computes the values of Euler’s \(\phi\)-function where \(\phi(n)\) equals the number of positive integers less than or equal to \(n\) that are relatively prime to the positive integer \(n\).

\[
\text{[eulerPhi i for i in 1..]}
\]
\[
[1,1,2,2,4,2,6,4,4,...]
\]
\text{Type: Stream Integer}

The operation \texttt{moebiusMu} computes the Möbius \(\mu\) function.

\[
\text{[moebiusMu i for i in 1..]}
\]
\[
[1,-1,-1,0,-1,1,-1,0,0,1,...]
\]
\text{Type: Stream Integer}

Although they have somewhat limited utility, Axiom provides Roman numerals.

\texttt{a := roman(78)}

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9.35 IntegerLinearDependence

The elements $v_1, \ldots, v_n$ of a module $M$ over a ring $R$ are said to be linearly dependent over $R$ if there exist $c_1, \ldots, c_n$ in $R$, not all 0, such that $c_1 v_1 + \ldots + c_n v_n = 0$. If such $c_i$'s exist, they form what is called a linear dependence relation over $R$ for the $v_i$'s.

The package IntegerLinearDependence provides functions for testing whether some elements of a module over the integers are linearly dependent over the integers, and to find the linear dependence relations, if any.

Consider the domain of two by two square matrices with integer entries.

\[ M := \text{SQMATRIX}(2,\text{INT}) \]
Now create three such matrices.

\begin{verbatim}
m1: M := squareMatrix matrix [ [1, 2], [0, -1] ]
\end{verbatim}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  1 & 2 \\
  0 & -1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

\begin{verbatim}
m2: M := squareMatrix matrix [ [2, 3], [1, -2] ]
\end{verbatim}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  2 & 3 \\
  1 & -2
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

\begin{verbatim}
m3: M := squareMatrix matrix [ [3, 4], [2, -3] ]
\end{verbatim}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  3 & 4 \\
  2 & -3
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

This tells you whether \textit{m}1, \textit{m}2 and \textit{m}3 are linearly dependent over the integers.

\begin{verbatim}
linearlyDependentOverZ? vector [m1, m2, m3]
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{true}

Type: Boolean

Since they are linearly dependent, you can ask for the dependence relation.

\begin{verbatim}
c := linearDependenceOverZ vector [m1, m2, m3]
\end{verbatim}

\[
[1, -2, 1]
\]

Type: Union(Vector Integer,...)
This means that the following linear combination should be 0.

\[ c.1 \times m1 + c.2 \times m2 + c.3 \times m3 \]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

When a given set of elements are linearly dependent over \( R \), this also means that at least one of them can be rewritten as a linear combination of the others with coefficients in the quotient field of \( R \).

To express a given element in terms of other elements, use the operation \texttt{solveLinearlyOverQ}.

\[
\texttt{solveLinearlyOverQ(vector [m1, m3], m2)}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 \\
2 & 2
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Union(Vector Fraction Integer,...)

### 9.36 IntegerNumberTheoryFunctions

The \texttt{IntegerNumberTheoryFunctions} package contains a variety of operations of interest to number theorists. Many of these operations deal with divisibility properties of integers. (Recall that an integer \( a \) divides an integer \( b \) if there is an integer \( c \) such that \( b = a \times c \).)

The operation \texttt{divisors} returns a list of the divisors of an integer.

\[
\texttt{div144 := divisors(144)}
\]

\[ [1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9, 12, 16, 18, 24, 36, 48, 72, 144] \]

Type: List Integer

You can now compute the number of divisors of 144 and the sum of the divisors of 144 by counting and summing the elements of the list we just created.

\[
\#(\texttt{div144})
\]
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15

Type: PositiveInteger

reduce(+, div144)

403

Type: PositiveInteger

Of course, you can compute the number of divisors of an integer $n$, usually denoted $d(n)$, and the sum of the divisors of an integer $n$, usually denoted $\sigma(n)$, without ever listing the divisors of $n$.

In Axiom, you can simply call the operations `numberOfDivisors` and `sumOfDivisors`.

`numberOfDivisors(144)`

15

Type: PositiveInteger

`sumOfDivisors(144)`

403

Type: PositiveInteger

The key is that $d(n)$ and $\sigma(n)$ are “multiplicative functions.” This means that when $n$ and $m$ are relatively prime, that is, when $n$ and $m$ have no prime factor in common, then $d(nm) = d(n) \cdot d(m)$ and $\sigma(nm) = \sigma(n) \cdot \sigma(m)$. Note that these functions are trivial to compute when $n$ is a prime power and are computed for general $n$ from the prime factorization of $n$. Other examples of multiplicative functions are $\sigma_k(n)$, the sum of the $k$-th powers of the divisors of $n$ and $\varphi(n)$, the number of integers between 1 and $n$ which are prime to $n$. The corresponding Axiom operations are called `sumOfKthPowerDivisors` and `eulerPhi`.

An interesting function is $\mu(n)$, the Möbius $\mu$ function, defined as follows: $\mu(1) = 1$, $\mu(n) = 0$, when $n$ is divisible by a square, and $\mu = (-1)^k$, when $n$ is the product of $k$ distinct primes. The corresponding Axiom operation is `moebiusMu`. This function occurs in the following theorem:
**Theorem** (Möbius Inversion Formula):
Let \( f(n) \) be a function on the positive integers and let \( F(n) \) be defined by
\[
F(n) = \sum_{d \mid n} f(n)
\]
sum of \( f(n) \) over \( d \mid n \) where the sum is taken over the positive divisors of \( n \). Then the values of \( f(n) \) can be recovered from the values of \( F(n) \):
\[
f(n) = \sum_{d \mid n} \mu(n) F\left(\frac{n}{d}\right)
\]
where again the sum is taken over the positive divisors of \( n \).

When \( f(n) = 1 \), then \( F(n) = d(n) \). Thus, if you sum \( \mu(d) \cdot d(n/d) \) over the positive divisors \( d \) of \( n \), you should always get 1.

\[
f1(n) \equiv \text{reduce}(+, [\text{moebiusMu}(d) \cdot \text{numberOfDivisors}(\text{quo}(n,d)) \text{ for } d \text{ in } \text{divisors}(n)])
\]

\[
\text{Void}
\]

\[
f1(200)
\]

\[
1
\]

\[
\text{Type: PositiveInteger}
\]

\[
f1(846)
\]

\[
1
\]

\[
\text{Type: PositiveInteger}
\]

Similarly, when \( f(n) = n \), then \( F(n) = \sigma(n) \). Thus, if you sum \( \mu(d) \cdot \sigma(n/d) \) over the positive divisors \( d \) of \( n \), you should always get \( n \).

\[
f2(n) \equiv \text{reduce}(+, [\text{moebiusMu}(d) \cdot \text{sumOfDivisors}(\text{quo}(n,d)) \text{ for } d \text{ in } \text{divisors}(n)])
\]

\[
\text{Void}
\]
The Fibonacci numbers are defined by \( F(1) = F(2) = 1 \) and \( F(n) = F(n - 1) + F(n - 2) \) for \( n = 3, 4, \ldots \).

The operation `fibonacci` computes the \( n \)-th Fibonacci number.

\[ \text{fibonacci}(25) \]

75025

Type: PositiveInteger

\[ [\text{fibonacci}(n) \text{ for } n \text{ in } 1..15] \]

\[ [1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610] \]

Type: List Integer

Fibonacci numbers can also be expressed as sums of binomial coefficients.

\[ \text{fib}(n) \equiv \text{reduce}(+, [\text{binomial}(n-1-k, k) \text{ for } k \text{ in } 0..\text{quo}(n-1,2)]) \]

Void

\[ \text{fib}(25) \]

75025

Type: PositiveInteger
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\[
\text{fib(n) for n in 1..15} \\
\begin{align*}
1, & 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610 \\
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List Integer

Quadratic symbols can be computed with the operations \texttt{legendre} and \texttt{jacobi}. The Legendre symbol \( \left( \frac{a}{p} \right) \) is defined for integers \( a \) and \( p \) with \( p \) an odd prime number. By definition, \( \left( \frac{a}{p} \right) = +1 \), when \( a \) is a square \((\text{mod } p)\), \( \left( \frac{a}{p} \right) = -1 \), when \( a \) is not a square \((\text{mod } p)\), and \( \left( \frac{a}{p} \right) = 0 \), when \( a \) is divisible by \( p \).

You compute \( \left( \frac{a}{p} \right) \) via the command \texttt{legendre(a,p)}.

\texttt{legendre(3,5)}

\[-1\]

Type: Integer

\texttt{legendre(23,691)}

\[-1\]

Type: Integer

The Jacobi symbol \( \left( \frac{a}{n} \right) \) is the usual extension of the Legendre symbol, where \( n \) is an arbitrary integer. The most important property of the Jacobi symbol is the following: if \( K \) is a quadratic field with discriminant \( d \) and quadratic character \( \chi \), then \( \chi(n) = (d/n) \).

Thus, you can use the Jacobi symbol to compute, say, the class numbers of imaginary quadratic fields from a standard class number formula.

This function computes the class number of the imaginary quadratic field with discriminant \( d \).

\[
h(d) \equiv \text{quo(reduce(+, [jacobi(d,k) for k in 1..quo(-d, 2)])}, 2 - jacobi(d,2))
\]

Void

\texttt{h(-163)}
9.37 Kernel

A kernel is a symbolic function application (such as \( \sin(x+y) \)) or a symbol (such as \( x \)). More precisely, a non-symbol kernel over a set \( S \) is an operator applied to a given list of arguments from \( S \). The operator has type `BasicOperator` (see 9.3 on page 452) and the kernel object is usually part of an expression object (see 9.21 on page 528). Kernels are created implicitly for you when you create expressions.

\[
x :: Expression Integer
\]

\[
x
\]

Type: Expression Integer

You can directly create a “symbol” kernel by using the `kernel` operation.

\[
\text{kernel } x
\]

\[
x
\]

Type: Kernel Expression Integer

This expression has two different kernels.
\[ \sin(x) + \cos(x) \]

\[ \sin(x) + \cos(x) \]

Type: Expression Integer

The operator \texttt{kernels} returns a list of the kernels in an object of type Expression.

\[
\texttt{kernels} \%
\]

\[
[\sin(x), \cos(x)]
\]

Type: List Kernel Expression Integer

This expression also has two different kernels.

\[ \sin(x)^2 + \sin(x) + \cos(x) \]

\[ \sin(x)^2 + \sin(x) + \cos(x) \]

Type: Expression Integer

The \(\sin(x)\) kernel is used twice.

\[
\texttt{kernels} \%
\]

\[
[\sin(x), \cos(x)]
\]

Type: List Kernel Expression Integer

An expression need not contain any kernels.

\[
\texttt{kernels}(1 :: \text{Expression Integer})
\]

\[
[\]
\]

Type: List Kernel Expression Integer

If one or more kernels are present, one of them is designated the \textit{main} kernel.

\[
\texttt{mainKernel}(\cos(x) + \tan(x))
\]
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\[ \tan(x) \]

Type: Union(Kernel Expression Integer, ...)

Kernels can be nested. Use \texttt{height} to determine the nesting depth.

\texttt{height kernel x}

1

Type: PositiveInteger

This has height 2 because the \( x \) has height 1 and then we apply an operator to that.

\texttt{height mainKernel(sin x)}

2

Type: PositiveInteger

\texttt{height mainKernel(sin cos x)}

3

Type: PositiveInteger

\texttt{height mainKernel(sin cos (tan x + sin x))}

4

Type: PositiveInteger

Use the \texttt{operator} operation to extract the operator component of the kernel. The operator has type \texttt{BasicOperator}.

\texttt{operator mainKernel(sin cos (tan x + sin x))}

\texttt{sin}

Type: BasicOperator
Use the `name` operation to extract the name of the operator component of the kernel. The name has type `Symbol`. This is really just a shortcut for a two-step process of extracting the operator and then calling `name` on the operator.

```plaintext
ame mainKernel(sin cos (tan x + sin x))

    sin

    Type: Symbol
```

Axiom knows about functions such as `sin`, `cos` and so on and can make kernels and then expressions using them. To create a kernel and expression using an arbitrary operator, use `operator`.

Now `f` can be used to create symbolic function applications.

```plaintext
f := operator 'f

    f

    Type: BasicOperator
```

```plaintext
e := f(x, y, 10)

    f(x, y, 10)

    Type: Expression Integer
```

Use the `is?` operation to learn if the operator component of a kernel is equal to a given operator.

```plaintext
is?(e, f)

    true

    Type: Boolean
```

You can also use a symbol or a string as the second argument to `is?`.

```plaintext
is?(e, 'f)

    true
```
Use the `argument` operation to get a list containing the argument component of a kernel.

\[
\text{argument mainKernel e}
\]

\[\{x, y, 10\}\]

Conceptually, an object of type `Expression` can be thought of a quotient of multivariate polynomials, where the “variables” are kernels. The arguments of the kernels are again expressions and so the structure recurses. See 9.21 on page 528 for examples of using kernels to take apart expression objects.

### 9.38 KeyedAccessFile

The domain `KeyedAccessFile(S)` provides files which can be used as associative tables. Data values are stored in these files and can be retrieved according to their keys. The keys must be strings so this type behaves very much like the `StringTable(S)` domain. The difference is that keyed access files reside in secondary storage while string tables are kept in memory. For more information on table-oriented operations, see the description of `Table`.

Before a keyed access file can be used, it must first be opened. A new file can be created by opening it for output.

\[
ey: \text{KeyedAccessFile(Integer)} := \text{open("/tmp/editor.year", "output")}
\]

\"/tmp/editor.year"

\[
\text{Type: KeyedAccessFile Integer}
\]

Just as for vectors, tables or lists, values are saved in a keyed access file by setting elements.

\[
ey."\text{Char}" := 1986
\]

1986

\[
\text{Type: PositiveInteger}
\]
ey."Caviness" := 1985

1985

Type: PositiveInteger

ey."Fitch" := 1984

1984

Type: PositiveInteger

Values are retrieved using application, in any of its syntactic forms.

ey."Char"

1986

Type: PositiveInteger

ey("Char")

1986

Type: PositiveInteger

ey "Char"

1986

Type: PositiveInteger

Attempting to retrieve a non-existent element in this way causes an error. If it is not known whether a key exists, you should use the search operation.

search("Char", ey)

1986

Type: Union(Integer,...)
search("Smith", ey)

"failed"

Type: Union("failed", ...)

When an entry is no longer needed, it can be removed from the file.

remove!("Char", ey)

1986

Type: Union(Integer, ...)

The keys operation returns a list of all the keys for a given file.

keys ey

["Fitch", "Caviness"]

Type: List String

The # operation gives the number of entries.

#ey

2

Type: PositiveInteger

The table view of keyed access files provides safe operations. That is, if the Axiom program is terminated between file operations, the file is left in a consistent, current state. This means, however, that the operations are somewhat costly. For example, after each update the file is closed.

Here we add several more items to the file, then check its contents.

KE := Record(key: String, entry: Integer)

Record(key: String, entry: Integer)

Type: Domain
reopen!(ey, "output")

"/tmp/editor.year"

Type: KeyedAccessFile Integer

If many items are to be added to a file at the same time, then it is more efficient to use the **write** operation.

write!(ey, ["van Hulzen", 1983]$KE)

[key = "van Hulzen", entry = 1983]

Type: Record(key: String, entry: Integer)

write!(ey, ["Calmet", 1982]$KE)

[key = "Calmet", entry = 1982]

Type: Record(key: String, entry: Integer)


[key = "Wang", entry = 1981]

Type: Record(key: String, entry: Integer)

close! ey

"/tmp/editor.year"

Type: KeyedAccessFile Integer

The **read** operation is also available from the file view, but it returns elements in a random order. It is generally clearer and more efficient to use the **keys** operation and to extract elements by key.

keys ey

["Wang", "Calmet", "van Hulzen", "Fitch", "Caviness"]
Type: List String

members ey


Type: List Integer

)system rm -r /tmp/editor.year

For more information on related topics, see 9.24 on page 543, 9.81 on page 809, and 9.41 on page 639.

9.39 LexTriangularPackage

The LexTriangularPackage package constructor provides an implementation of the lexTriangular algorithm (D. Lazard “Solving Zero-dimensional Algebraic Systems”, J. of Symbol. Comput., 1992). This algorithm decomposes a zero-dimensional variety into zero-sets of regular triangular sets. Thus the input system must have a finite number of complex solutions. Moreover, this system needs to be a lexicographical Groebner basis.

This package takes two arguments: the coefficient-ring \( R \) of the polynomials, which must be a GcdDomain and their set of variables given by \( ls \) a List Symbol. The type of the input polynomials must be NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(\( R, V \)) where \( V \) is OrderedVariableList(\( ls \)). The abbreviation for LexTriangularPackage is LEXTRIPK. The main operations are lexTriangular and squareFreeLexTriangular. The later provide decompositions by means of square-free regular triangular sets, built with the SREGSET constructor, whereas the former uses the REGSET constructor. Note that these constructors also implement another algorithm for solving algebraic systems by means of regular triangular sets; in that case no computations of Groebner bases are needed and the input system may have any dimension (i.e. it may have an infinite number of solutions).

The implementation of the lexTriangular algorithm provided in the LexTriangularPackage constructor differs from that reported in “Computations of gcd over algebraic towers of simple extensions” by M. Moreno Maza and R. Rioboo (in proceedings of AAECC11, Paris, 1995). Indeed, the squareFreeLexTriangular operation removes all multiplicities of the solutions (i.e. the computed solutions are pairwise different) and the lexTriangular operation may keep some multiplicities; this later operation runs generally faster than the former.

The interest of the lexTriangular algorithm is due to the following experimental remark. For some examples, a triangular decomposition of a zero-dimensional variety
can be computed faster via a lexicographical Groebner basis computation than by using a direct method (like that of SREGSET and REGSET). This happens typically when the total degree of the system relies essentially on its smallest variable (like in the Katsura systems). When this is not the case, the direct method may give better timings (like in the Rose system).

Of course, the direct method can also be applied to a lexicographical Groebner basis. However, the lexTriangular algorithm takes advantage of the structure of this basis and avoids many unnecessary computations which are performed by the direct method.

For this purpose of solving algebraic systems with a finite number of solutions, see also the ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage. It allows to use both strategies (the lexTriangular algorithm and the direct method) for computing either the complex or real roots of a system.

Note that the way of understanding triangular decompositions is detailed in the example of the RegularTriangularSet constructor.

Since the LEXTRIPK package constructor is limited to zero-dimensional systems, it provides a zeroDimensional? operation to check whether this requirement holds. There is also a groebner operation to compute the lexicographical Groebner basis of a set of polynomials with type NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(R,V). The elimination ordering is that given by ls (the greatest variable being the first element of ls). This basis is computed by the FLGM algorithm (Faugere et al. “Efficient Computation of Zero-Dimensional Groebner Bases by Change of Ordering”, J. of Symbol. Comput., 1993) implemented in the LinGroebnerPackage package constructor. Once a lexicographical Groebner basis is computed, then one can call the operations lexTriangular and squareFreeLexTriangular. Note that these operations admit an optional argument to produce normalized triangular sets. There is also a zeroSetSplit operation which does all the job from the input system; an error is produced if this system is not zero-dimensional.

Let us illustrate the facilities of the LEXTRIPK constructor by a famous example, the cyclic-6 root system.

Define the coefficient ring.

R := Integer

\[ \text{Type: Domain} \]

Define the list of variables,

ls : List Symbol := [a,b,c,d,e,f]

\[ \{a, b, c, d, e, f\} \]
and make it an ordered set.

\[ V := \text{OVAR}(ls) \]

\[ \text{OrderedVariableList} \{a, b, c, d, e, f\} \]

Define the polynomial ring.

\[ P := \text{NSMP}(R, V) \]

\[ \text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \text{OrderedVariableList} \{a, b, c, d, e, f\}) \]

Define the polynomials.

\[ p_1: P := a \cdot b \cdot c \cdot d \cdot e \cdot f - 1 \]

\[ f e d c b a - 1 \]

\[ \text{Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \text{OrderedVariableList} \{a, b, c, d, e, f\}) \]

\[ p_2: P := a \cdot b \cdot c \cdot d \cdot e + a \cdot b \cdot c \cdot e \cdot f + a \cdot b \cdot d \cdot e \cdot f + a \cdot c \cdot d \cdot e \cdot f + b \cdot c \cdot d \cdot e \cdot f \]

\[ (((e + f) d + f e) c + f e d) b + f e d c) a + f e d c b \]

\[ \text{Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \text{OrderedVariableList} \{a, b, c, d, e, f\}) \]

\[ p_3: P := a \cdot b \cdot c \cdot d + a \cdot b \cdot c \cdot f + a \cdot b \cdot e \cdot f + a \cdot d \cdot e \cdot f + b \cdot c \cdot d \cdot e + c \cdot d \cdot e \cdot f \]

\[ (((d + f) c + f e) b + f e d) a + e d c b + f e d c \]

\[ \text{Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \text{OrderedVariableList} \{a, b, c, d, e, f\}) \]
\[ P := a^2b + a^2f + a^2e + b^2c + c^2d + d^2e + e^2f \]

\[(c + f) b + f e \] 
\[ a + d c b + e d c + f e d \]

Type: \texttt{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [a,b,c,d,e,f])}

\[ P := a^2b + a^2f + b^2c + c^2d + d^2e + e^2f \]

\[(b + f) a + c b + d c + e d + f e \]

Type: \texttt{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [a,b,c,d,e,f])}

\[ P := a + b + c + d + e + f \]

\[ a + b + c + d + e + f \]

Type: \texttt{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [a,b,c,d,e,f])}

\[ lp := [p1, p2, p3, p4, p5, p6] \]

\[ [f e d c b a - 1, \]
\[ (((e + f) d + f e) c + f e d) b + f e d c) a + f e d c b, \]
\[ (((d + f) c + f e) b + f e d) a + e d c b + f e d c, \]
\[ ((c + f) b + f e) a + d c b + e d c + f e d, \]
\[ (b + f) a + c b + d c + e d + f e, \]
\[ a + b + c + d + e + f] \]

Type: \texttt{List NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [a,b,c,d,e,f])}

Now call \texttt{LEXTRI}PK.

\[ \text{lextripack} := \text{LEXTRI}PK(R,ls) \]
LexTriangularPackage(\texttt{Integer, }[a, b, c, d, e, f])

Type: Domain

Compute the lexicographical Groebner basis of the system. This may take between 5 minutes and one hour, depending on your machine.

\[
lg := \text{groebner}(\text{lp}) \text{\$lestripack}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
    a + b + c + d + e + f, \\
    3968379498283200 b^2 + 15873517993132800 f b + \\
    3968379498283200 d^2 + 15873517993132800 f d + \\
    3968379498283200 f^3 e^5 - 15873517993132800 f^4 e^4 + \\
    23810276989699200 f^5 e^3 + (206355733910726400 f^6 + \\
    23016010900425600) e^2 + (729705987316687 f^{43} + \\
    1863667496867205421 f^{37} + 291674853771731104461 f^{31} + \\
    365285994691106921745 f^{25} + 549961185828911895 f^{19} - \\
    365048404038768439269 f^{13} - 292382820431504027669 f^7 - \\
    2271898467631865497 f) e - 3988812642545399 f^{44} + \\
    10187423878429609997 f^{38} + 1594377523424314053637 f^{32} + \\
    199479308439916238065 f^{26} + 1596840088052642815 f^{20} - \\
    193349411830162145413 f^{14} - 159604974228968915053 f^8 - \\
    11488171330159667449 f^2, \\
    (2381027698969920 c - 3988812642545399 f^{44} + \\
    23810276989699200 c^2 + 7143083096907600 f c - \\
    23810276989699200 d^2 - 95241107958796800 f d - \\
    55557312975964800 f^3 e^5 + 174608697924460800 f^4 e^4 - \\
    174608697924460800 f^5 e^3 + (-242864825294318400 f^6 - \\
    2611193709870345600) e^2 + (8305444561289527 f^{43} - \\
    21212087151945459641 f^{37} - 3319815883093451385381 f^{31} - \\
    415769164626157136445 f^{25} - 6072721607510764095 f^{19} + \\
    4154986709036460221649 f^{13} + 3327761311138587096749 f^7 + \\
    25885340608290841637 f) e + 45815897629010329 f^{64} - \\
    117013765582151891207 f^{38} - 18313166848970865074187 f^{32} - \\
    2290997123964927438915 f^{26} - 16133250761305157265 f^{20} + \\
    2289730585763617856623 f^{14} + 18329944781867242497923 f^{8} + \\
    130258531002020420699 f^2),
\end{align*}
\]
(7936758996566400 \( d - 7936758996566400 \)) \( f \) \( b - \)
7936758996566400 \( f d - 7936758996566400 \) \( f^3 \) \( e^5 + \)
23810276989699200 \( f^4 \) \( e^4 - 23810276989699200 \) \( f^5 \) \( e^3 + \)
\((-337312257354072000 f^6 - 369059293340337600\)) \( e^2 + \)
(1176345388640471 \( f_{13} - 30043852891473073 f_{37} - \)
470203502707246105653 \( f_{31} - 58885818340264348085 f_{25} - \)
85639308623513535 \( f_{19} + 588476742340526377 f_{13} + \)
471313241958371103517 \( f_{7} + 3659742549078552381 f \)) \( e + \)
6423170513956901 \( f_{44} - 16404772137036480803 f_{38} - \)
2567419165227528774463 \( f_{32} - 3211938090825682172335 f_{26} - \)
230490332697587485 \( f_{20} + 3210001019444754864587 f_{14} + \)
2569858315395162617847 \( f_{8} + 18326089487427735751 f^2 \),

\((11905138494849600 e - 11905138494849600 f) \) \( b - \)
3968379498283200 \( f^3 e^3 + 158735179931328000 f^4 \) \( e^4 - \)
27778656487982400 \( f^5 e^3 + (\-208339923659868000 f^6 - \)
2400869596461336000 \( f^{25} + (786029984751110 f^{43} - \)
2007519008182245250 \( f^{37} - 31418806290873807090 \) \( f_{31} - \)
39342366753929575250 \( f^{25} - 553039120654394950 f^{19} + \)
39319608728889612770 \( f^{13} + 314892372799176495730 f^7 + \)
2409385651466685300 \( f_{44} - 4177685846274827 \) \( f_{38} - \)
1066665294602576381 \( f^{38} - 1669852980419994524601 f_{32} - \)
2089070757287904170745 \( f_{26} - 1569899763580278795 \) \( f_{20} + \)
208786426859015573349 \( f_{14} + 167149608594519957969 f^8 + \)
1194025722616280177 \( f^2 \),

\((11905138494849600 \) \( f^6 - 11905138494849600 b - \)
15873517993132800 \( f^2 e^3 + 39683794982832000 \) \( f^3 e^4 - \)
39683794982832000 \( f^4 e^3 + (\-686529653202993600 f^{11} - \)
6071634623793269000 \( f^5 \)) \( e^2 + \)
(65144531306704 \( f^{42} - 166381280901088652 \) \( f^{36} - \)
26033435402470283472 \( f^{30} - 31696259588386050140 f^{24} + \)
971492093675813600 \( f^{18} + 32220085033691389548 f^{12} + \)
2552617766607529808 \( f^6 + 138603268355749244 \)) \( e + \)
167620036074811 \( f^{43} - 428102417974791473 \) \( f_{37} - \)
66997243801231679313 \( f_{31} - 83426716722148750485 f^{25} + \)
203673895369980765 \( f_{19} + 83523056326010432457 f^{13} + \)
66997589640238066937 \( f^7 + 478592855549587901 f \),
\[1984189749141600 \cdot d^3 + 5952569247424800 \cdot f \cdot d^2 - \\
5952569247424800 \cdot f^2 \cdot d - 3968379498283200 \cdot f^4 \cdot e^5 + \\
15873519799312800 \cdot f^5 \cdot e^4 + 17857707742274400 \cdot e^3 + \\
(\text{-}14881423118562000 \cdot f^7 - 162703559429611200 \cdot f) \cdot e^2 + \\
(\text{-}390000914678878 \cdot f^{44} + 996062704593756434 \cdot f^{38} + \\
155886323972034823914 \cdot f^{32} + 194745956143985421330 \cdot f^{26} + \\
62050775955574430 \cdot f^{20} - 194596512653299068786 \cdot f^{14} - \\
155796897940756922666 \cdot f^8 - 1036375759077320978 \cdot f^2) \cdot e - \\
374998630035991 \cdot f^{45} + 957747106595453993 \cdot f^{39} + \\
14988915556676491693 \cdot f^{33} + 187154171443494641685 \cdot f^{27} - \\
127129015426348065 \cdot f^{21} - 18724153243115040417 \cdot f^{15} - \\
149719983567976534037 \cdot f^9 - 836654081239648061 \cdot f^3, \\
(5952569247424800 \cdot e - 5952569247424800 \cdot f) \cdot d - \\
3968379498283200 \cdot f^3 \cdot e^5 + 9920948745708000 \cdot f^4 \cdot e^4 - \\
3968379498283200 \cdot f^5 \cdot e^3 + (\text{-}14881423118562000 \cdot f^6 - \\
150798420934761600 \cdot e^2 + (492558110242553 \cdot f^{43} - \\
1257992359608074599 \cdot f^{37} - 196883094539368513959 \cdot f^{31} - \\
246562115745735428055 \cdot f^{25} - 325698701993885505 \cdot f^{19} + \\
24641776983651808111 \cdot f^{13} + 197327352068200652911 \cdot f^7 + \\
1523373796389332143 \cdot f) \cdot e + 2679481081803026 \cdot f^{44} - \\
6843392695421906608 \cdot f^{38} - 1071020459642646913578 \cdot f^{32} - \\
1339789169692041240060 \cdot f^{26} - 852746750910750210 \cdot f^{20} + \\
133910510971878401312 \cdot f^{14} + 1071900289758712984762 \cdot f^8 + \\
755523907202727756 \cdot f^2, \\
(11905138494849600 \cdot f^6 - 11905138494849600 \cdot d - \\
7936758996566400 \cdot f^2 \cdot e^5 + 31747035986265600 \cdot f^3 \cdot e^4 - \\
31747035986265600 \cdot e^6 \cdot f^4 + e^5 - \\
(\text{-}42064822681801920) \cdot f^{11} - 404774708824886400 \cdot f^5) \cdot e^2 + \\
15336187600889 \cdot f^{42} - 39169739565161107 \cdot f^{36} - \\
61271761274849690827 \cdot f^{30} - 7217708742310509615 \cdot f^{24} + \\
538628483890722735 \cdot f^{18} + 7506804353843507643 \cdot f^{12} + \\
5886610676982607203 \cdot f^6 + 6357610839653587 \cdot e^3 + \\
71737781777066 \cdot f^{43} - 183218856207557938 \cdot f^{37} - \\
2867287427132276078 \cdot f^{31} - 35625223686939812010 \cdot f^{25} + \\
164831339634084390 \cdot f^{19} + 35724160423073052642 \cdot f^{13} + \\
28627022578664910622 \cdot f^7 + 187459987029680506 \cdot f, \\
\]
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1322793166094400 \ e^6 - 3968379498283200 \ f \ e^5 + 
3968379498283200 \ f^2 \ e^4 - 5291172664377600 \ f^3 \ e^3 + 
(-23016610990425600 \ f^{10} - 226197631402142400 \ f^4) \ e^2 + 
(-152375364610443885 \ f^{17} + 3891666266064854890415 \ f^{14} + 
60906097841360558987335 \ f^{35} + 76167367934608798697275 \ f^{29} + 
27855066785995181125 \ f^{23} - 76144952817052723145495 \ f^{17} - 
60936298924635175469795 \ f^{11} - 411415071682002547795 \ f^5) \ e - 
209493533143822 \ f^{42} + 535045979490560586 \ f^{36} + 
8373794796497353146 \ f^{30} + 104889507084213371570 \ f^{24} + 
167117997269207870 \ f^{18} - 104793725781390615514 \ f^{12} - 
83842685189903180394 \ f^8 - 569978796672974242, 

(25438330117200 \ f^6 + 25438330117200 \ f^4 + 
(76314990351600 \ f^7 + 76314990351600 \ f) \ e^2 + 
(-15949665527375 \ f^{44} + 4073543370415745 \ f^{38} + 
637527159231148925 \ f^{32} + 797521176113606525 \ f^{26} + 
530440941097175 \ f^{20} - 797160527306433145 \ f^{14} - 
638132230196044965 \ f^8 - 4510507167940725 \ f^2) \ e - 
6036376800443 \ f^{45} + 15416903421476909 \ f^{39} + 
2412807646192304449 \ f^{33} + 301767992308213705 \ f^{27} + 
1422320037411955 \ f^{21} - 3016560402417843941 \ f^{15} - 
2414249368183033161 \ f^9 - 16561862361763873 \ f^3,

(1387545279120 \ f^{12} - 1387545279120 \ e^2 + 
(4321823003 \ f^{43} - 11037922310209 \ f^{37} - 
1727510711947989 \ f^{31} - 2165150991154425 \ f^{25} - 
5114342560755 \ f^{19} + 2162682824948601 \ f^{13} + 
1732620732685741 \ f^{13} + 13506088516033 \ f) \ e + 
24177661775 \ f^{44} - 61749727185325 \ f^{38} - 
9664106795754225 \ f^{32} - 12090487758628245 \ f^{26} - 
8787672733575 \ f^{20} + 1208369338305045 \ f^{14} + 
9672870290826025 \ f^8 + 68544102808525 \ f^2, 

f^{48} - 2554 \ f^{42} - 399710 \ f^{36} - 499722 \ f^{30} + 
499722 \ f^{18} + 399710 \ f^{12} + 2554 \ f^6 - 1

Type: List

NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList
[a,b,c,d,e,f])

Apply lexTriangular to compute a decomposition into regular triangular sets. This
should not take more than 5 seconds.

lexTriangular(lg,false)$lextripack
\[
\left\{ f^6 + 1, e^b - 3 f e^c + 3 f^2 e^d - 4 f^3 e^e + 3 f^4 e^f - 3 f^5 e - 1, \\
3 d + f^2 e^c - 4 f^3 e^d + 2 f^4 e^e - 2 f^5 e^f, c + f, \\
3 b + 2 f^2 e^d - 5 f^3 e^e + 5 f^4 e^f - 10 f^5 e^f - 4 e + 7 f, \\
a - f^2 e^d + 3 f^3 e^e - 3 f^4 e^e + 4 f^5 e^f + 3 e - 3 f \right\},
\]
\[
\left\{ f^6 - 1, e - f, b - d, f, c^2 + 4 f c + f^2, (c - f) b - f c - 5 f^2, a + b + c + 3 f \right\},
\]
\[
\left\{ f^6 - 1, e - f, d - f, c - f, b^2 + 4 f b + f^2, a + b + 4 f \right\},
\]
\[
\left\{ f^6 - 1, e - f, d^2 + 4 f d + f^2, (d - f) c - f d - 5 f^2, b - f, a + c + d + 3 f \right\},
\]
\[
\{ f^{36} - 2554 f^{30} - 399709 f^{24} - 502276 f^{18} - 399709 f^{12} - 2554 f^{6} + 1, \\
(16171856 f^{12} - 16171856) e^2 + \left(-504205 f^{31} + 1287737951 f^{25} + \\
2015393180 f^{19} + 25938217368 f^{13} + 201940704665 f^{7} + 1574134601 f \right) e - \\
2818405 f^{32} + 7198203911 f^{26} + 1126548149060 f^{20} + \\
1416530563364 f^{14} + 1127377589345 f^{8} + 7988820725 f^{2}, \\
(693772639560 f^{9} - 693772639560) d - 462515093040 f^2 e^c + \\
1850060372160 f^3 e^d - 1850060372160 f^4 e^e + (-24513299931120 f^{11} - \\
23588269745040 f^{9} e^f + (-890810428 f^{30} + 2275181044754 f^{24} + \\
355937263869776 f^{18} + 413736880104344 f^{12} + 342849304487996 f^6 + \\
3704966481878) e - 4163798003 f^{31} + 10634395752169 f^{25} + \\
1664161760192806 f^{19} + 2079424391370694 f^{13} + 1668153650635921 f^{7} + \\
1092427492693 f, \left(12614047992 f^{9} - 12614047992f \right) c - \\
7246825 f^{31} + 18508536599 f^{25} + 2896249516034 f^{19} + \\
3581539649666 f^{13} + 2796477571739 f^{7} - 48094301893 f, \\
(693772639560 f^{9} - 693772639560) b - 925030186080 f^2 e^d + \\
2312575465200 f^3 e^a - 2312575465200 f^4 e^c + (-4000755547960 f^{11} - \\
35382404617560 f^{9} e^d + (-3781280823 f^{30} + 9657492291789 f^{24} + \\
1511158913397906 f^{18} + 1837290892286154 f^{12} + 1487216006594361 f^{6} + \\
8077238712093) e - 9736390478 f^{31} + 24866827916734 f^{25} + \\
3891495681905296 f^{19} + 4872556418871424 f^{13} + 390404788726906 f^{7} + \\
27890075838538 f, a + b + c + d + e + f \right\},
\]
\[
\left\{ f^6 - 1, e^2 + 4 f e + f^2, (e - f) d - f e - 5 f^2, c - f, b - f, a + d + e + 3 f \right\}
\]

Type: List RegularChain(Integer, [a, b, c, d, e, f])

Note that the first set of the decomposition is normalized (all initials are integer numbers) but not the second one (normalized triangular sets are defined in the description of the NormalizedTriangularSetCategory constructor).
So apply now lexTriangular to produce normalized triangular sets.

```plaintext
lts := lexTriangular(lg, true)$lextripack

\[
\begin{align*}
&\{
f^6 + 1, e^6 - 3 f e^3 + 3 f^2 e^4 - 4 f^3 e^2 + 3 f^4 e - 3 & f^5 e - 1, \\
&3 d + f^2 e^5 - 4 f e^3 + 4 f^4 e^2 - 2 e + 2 & f + f, \\
&3 b + 2 f^2 e^5 - 5 f^3 e^4 + 5 f^4 e^3 - 10 & f^5 e^2 - 4 e + 7 f, \\
& a - f^2 e^5 + 3 f^3 e^4 - 3 f^4 e^3 + 4 & f^5 e^2 + 3 e - 3 f\}, \\
&\{f^6 - 1, e - f, d - f, c^2 + 4 & f c + f^2, b + c + 4 f, a - f\}, \\
&\{f^6 - 1, e - f, d - f, c - f, b^2 + 4 & f b + f^2, a + b + 4 f\}, \\
&\{f^6 - 1, e - f, d^2 + 4 & f d + f^2, c + d + 4 f, b - f, a - f\}, \\
&\{f^{96} - 2554 f^{30} - 399709 f^{24} - 502276 f^{18} - 399709 f^{12} - 2554 f^6 + 1, \\
&1387545279120 e^2 + (4321823003 f^{31} - 11037922310209 f^{25} - \\
&1727506390124986 f^{19} - 2176188913464634 f^{13} - 1732620732685741 f^{7} - \\
&13506088516033 f^3 + 24177661775 f^{32} - 61749727185325 f^{26} - \\
&9664082618092450 f^{20} - 12152237485813570 f^{14} - 9672870298802605 f^8 - \\
&685441028048525 f^2, \\
&1387545279120 d + (-1128983050 f^{30} + 283434331830 f^{24} + \\
&451234998755840 f^{18} + 562426491685760 f^{12} + 447129055314890 f^6 - \\
&165557857270) e - 1816935351 f^{31} + 4640452214013 f^{25} + \\
&726247129626942 f^{19} + 912871801716798 f^{13} + 72658326666877 f^7 + \\
&4909358645961 f, \\
&1387545279120 c + 778171189 f^{31} - 1987468196267 f^{25} - \\
&310993556954378 f^{19} - 383262822316802 f^{13} - 300335488637543 f^7 + \\
&5289595037041 f, \\
&1387545279120 b + (1128983050 f^{30} - 283434331830 f^{24} - \\
&451234998755840 f^{18} - 562426491685760 f^{12} - 447129055314890 f^6 + \\
&165557857270) e - 3283058841 f^{31} + 8384938292463 f^{25} + \\
&1312252817452422 f^{19} + 1646579934064638 f^{13} + 1306372958656407 f^7 + \\
&4694680112151 f, \\
&1387545279120 a + 1387545279120 e + 4321823003 f^{31} - \\
&11037922310209 f^{25} - 1727506390124986 f^{19} - 2176188913464634 f^{13} - \\
&1732620732685741 f^7 - 13506088516033 f\}, \\
&\{f^6 - 1, e^2 + 4 & f e + f^2, d + e + 4 f, c - f, b - f, a - f\}\} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List RegularChain(Integer, [a, b, c, d, e, f])
We check that all initials are constant.

\[
[ \text{init}(p) \text{ for } p \text{ in } (ts :: \text{List}(P)) \text{ for } ts \text{ in } \text{lts}] 
\]

\[
[[1, 1, 3, 1, 1, 1], [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1], [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1], \\
[1387545279120, 1387545279120, 1387545279120, \\
1387545279120, 1387545279120, 1387545279120, 1], \\
[1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1]]
\]

Type: List List
NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList
[a,b,c,d,e,f])

Note that each triangular set in \text{lts} is a lexicographical Groebner basis. Recall that a point belongs to the variety associated with \text{lp} if and only if it belongs to that associated with one triangular set \text{ts} in \text{lts}.

By running the \text{squareFreeLexTriangular} operation, we retrieve the above decomposition.

\text{squareFreeLexTriangular(lg,true)$lextripack}

\[
\{ \{ f^6 + 1, e^6 - 3 f e^5 + 3 f^2 e^4 - 4 f^3 e^3 + 3 f^4 e^2 - 3 f^5 e - 1, \\
3 d + f^2 e^5 - 4 f^3 e^4 + 4 f^4 e^3 - 2 f^5 e^2 - 2 e + 2 f, \\
c + f, 3 b + 2 f^2 e^5 - 5 f^3 e^4 + 5 f^4 e^3 - 10 f^5 e^2 - 4 e + 7 f, \\
a - f^2 e^5 + 3 f^3 e^4 - 3 f^4 e^3 + 4 f^5 e^2 + 3 e - 3 f \}, \\
\{ f^6 - 1, e - f, d - f, c^2 + 4 f c + f^2, b + c + 4 f, a - f \}, \\
\{ f^6 - 1, e - f, d - f, c - f, b^2 + 4 f b + f^2, a + b + 4 f \}, \\
\{ f^6 - 1, e - f, d^2 + 4 f d + f^2, c + d + 4 f, b - f, a - f \} \}
\]
\[
\{ f^{36} - 2554 f^{30} - 399709 f^{24} - 502276 f^{18} - 399709 f^{12} - 2554 f^6 + 1, \\
1387545279120 e^2 + (4321823003 f^{31} - 11037922310209 f^{25} - \\
1727506390124986 f^{19} - 2176188913464634 f^{13} - 1732620732685741 f^7 - \\
13506088516033 f) e + 24177661775 f^{32} - 61749727185325 f^{26} - \\
9664082618092450 f^{20} - 12152237485813570 f^{14} - 9672870290826025 f^8 - \\
6854102808525 f^2, \\
1387545279120 d + (-1128983050 f^{30} + 2883434331830 f^{24} + \\
451234998755840 f^{18} + 562426491685760 f^{12} + 44129055314890 f^6 - \\
165557857270) e - 1816935351 f^{31} + 4640452214013 f^{25} + \\
726247129626942 f^{19} + 9128718017176978 f^{13} + 726583262666877 f^7 + \\
4909358645961 f, \\
1387545279120 c + 7781711189 f^{31} - 1987468196267 f^{25} - \\
310993556954378 f^{19} - 383262822316802 f^{13} - 300335488637543 f^7 + \\
5289595037041 f, \\
1387545279120 b + (1128983050 f^{30} - 2883434331830 f^{24} - \\
451234998755840 f^{18} - 562426491685760 f^{12} - 44129055314890 f^6 + \\
165557857270) e - 3283058841 f^{31} + 8384938292463 f^{25} + \\
131225817452422 f^{19} + 1646579934064638 f^{13} + 130637958656407 f^7 + \\
4694680112151 f, 1387545279120 a + 1387545279120 e + \\
4321823003 f^{31} - 11037922310209 f^{25} - 1727506390124986 f^{19} - \\
2176188913464634 f^{13} - 1732620732685741 f^7 - 13506088516033 f \}
\]

Type: List SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList [a, b, c, d, e, f], OrderedVariableList [a, b, c, d, e, f], NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [a, b, c, d, e, f]))

Thus the solutions given by \texttt{lts} are pairwise different.

We count them as follows.

\[
\text{reduce}(+,[\text{degree}(ts) \text{ for } ts \text{ in } \texttt{lts}])
\]

\[156\]

Type: PositiveInteger

We can investigate the triangular decomposition \texttt{lts} by using the \texttt{ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage}.

This requires to add an extra variable (smaller than the others) as follows.

\[
\texttt{ls2 : List Symbol} := \text{concat}(\texttt{ls,new()}\$\texttt{Symbol})
\]
Then we call the package.

\[
zdpack := \text{ZDSOLVE}(R, \{a, b, c, d, e, f\}, \{a, b, c, d, e, f\})
\]

\text{ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage} (\text{Integer}, \{a, b, c, d, e, f\}, \{a, b, c, d, e, f\})

Type: Domain

We compute a univariate representation of the variety associated with the input system as follows.

\[
\text{concat} \left[ \text{univariateSolve}(ts) \right] \text{zdpack for ts in lts}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{complexRoots} = ?^4 - 13 ?^2 + 49, \\
\text{coordinates} = \\
7 a + %A^3 - 6 %A, 21 b + %A^3 + %A, \\
21 c - 2 %A^3 + 19 %A, 7 d - %A^3 + 6 %A, 21 e - %A^3 - %A, \\
21 f + 2 %A^3 - 19 %A, \\
\text{complexRoots} = ?^4 + 11 ?^2 + 49, \\
\text{coordinates} = \\
35 a + 3 %A^3 + 19 %A, 35 b + %A^3 + 18 %A, 35 c - 2 %A^3 - %A, \\
35 d - 3 %A^3 - 19 %A, 35 e - %A^3 - 18 %A, 35 f + 2 %A^3 + %A
\end{array}
\]
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\[ \text{complexRoots} = \gamma^8 - 12 \gamma^7 + 58 \gamma^6 - 120 \gamma^5 + 207 \gamma^4 - 360 \gamma^3 + 802 \gamma^2 - 1332 \gamma + 1369, \]

coordinates = 
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
43054532 a + 33782 \%A^7 - 546673 \%A^6 + 3127348 \%A^5 - 6927123 \%A^4 + 4365212 \%A^3 - 25086957 \%A^2 + 39582814 \%A - 107313172,
43054532 b - 33782 \%A^7 + 546673 \%A^6 - 3127348 \%A^5 + 6927123 \%A^4 - 4365212 \%A^3 + 25086957 \%A^2 - 39582814 \%A + 107313172,
21527266 c - 22306 \%A^7 + 263139 \%A^6 - 1166076 \%A^5 + 1821805 \%A^4 - 2892788 \%A^3 + 10322663 \%A^2 - 9026596 \%A + 12950740,
43054532 d + 22306 \%A^7 - 263139 \%A^6 + 1166076 \%A^5 - 1821805 \%A^4 + 2892788 \%A^3 + 10322663 \%A^2 - 30553862 \%A + 12950740,
43054532 e - 22306 \%A^7 + 263139 \%A^6 - 1166076 \%A^5 + 1821805 \%A^4 - 2892788 \%A^3 + 10322663 \%A^2 + 9026596 \%A - 12950740
\end{bmatrix},
\]

\[ \text{complexRoots} = \gamma^4 - \gamma^2 + 1, \]

coordinates = 
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
43054532 a + 33782 \%A^7 + 546673 \%A^6 + 3127348 \%A^5 + 6927123 \%A^4 + 4365212 \%A^3 + 25086957 \%A^2 + 39582814 \%A + 107313172,
43054532 b - 33782 \%A^7 - 546673 \%A^6 - 3127348 \%A^5 + 6927123 \%A^4 - 4365212 \%A^3 + 25086957 \%A^2 - 39582814 \%A + 107313172,
21527266 c - 22306 \%A^7 + 263139 \%A^6 - 1166076 \%A^5 + 1821805 \%A^4 - 2892788 \%A^3 + 10322663 \%A^2 - 9026596 \%A + 12950740,
43054532 d + 22306 \%A^7 - 263139 \%A^6 + 1166076 \%A^5 - 1821805 \%A^4 + 2892788 \%A^3 + 10322663 \%A^2 - 30553862 \%A + 12950740,
43054532 e - 22306 \%A^7 + 263139 \%A^6 - 1166076 \%A^5 + 1821805 \%A^4 - 2892788 \%A^3 + 10322663 \%A^2 + 9026596 \%A - 12950740
\end{bmatrix},
\]

\[ \text{complexRoots} = \gamma^4 - \gamma^2 - \gamma + 1, \]

coordinates = 
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
-a - %A, b + %A^3 - %A, c + %A^2, d + %A, e - %A^3 + %A, f - %A^3
\end{bmatrix},
\]
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\[ \text{complexRoots} = a^8 + 4 a^6 + 12 a^4 + 16 a^2 + 4, \]
coordinates =
\[ \begin{bmatrix}
4 a - 2 A^7 - 7 A^5 - 20 A^3 - 22 A, \\
4 b + 2 A^7 + 7 A^5 + 20 A^3 + 22 A, \\
4 c + A^7 + 3 A^5 + 10 A^3 + 10 A, \\
4 d + A^7 + 3 A^5 + 10 A^3 + 6 A, \\
4 e - A^7 - 3 A^5 - 10 A^3 - 6 A, \\
4 f - A^7 - 3 A^5 - 10 A^3 - 10 A \end{bmatrix}, \]
\[ \text{complexRoots} = a^4 + 6 a^3 + 30 a^2 + 36 a + 36, \]
coordinates =
\[ \begin{bmatrix}
30 a - a^3 + 5 A^2 - 30 A - 6, \\
6 b + A^3 - 5 A^2 + 24 A + 6, \\
30 c - a^3 - 5 A^2 - 6, \\
30 d - A^3 - 5 A^2 - 30 A - 6, \\
30 e - A^3 - 5 A^2 - 30 A - 6, \\
30 f - A^3 - 5 A^2 - 30 A - 6 \end{bmatrix}, \]
\[ \text{complexRoots} = a^2 + 6 a + 6, \]
coordinates =
\[ \begin{bmatrix}
[a + 1, b - A - 5, c + A + 1, d + 1, e + 1, f + 1] \end{bmatrix}, \]
\[ \text{complexRoots} = a^2 - 6 a + 6, \]
coordinates =
\[ \begin{bmatrix}
[a - 1, b - A + 5, c + A - 1, d - 1, e - 1, f - 1] \end{bmatrix}, \]
\[ \text{complexRoots} = a^4 + 6 a^3 + 30 a^2 + 36 a + 36, \]
coordinates =
\[ \begin{bmatrix}
6 a + a^3 + 5 A^2 + 24 A + 6, \\
30 b - a^3 - 5 A^2 - 6, \\
30 c - a^3 - 5 A^2 - 30 A - 6, \\
30 d - A^3 - 5 A^2 - 30 A - 6, \\
30 e - A^3 - 5 A^2 - 30 A - 6, \\
30 f - A^3 - 5 A^2 - 30 A - 6 \end{bmatrix}, \]
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[4]{-6} \, \sqrt[3]{30} \, \sqrt[2]{36} \, \sqrt[2]{36},
\]
coordinates =
\[
\begin{align*}
&6 \, a + \%A^3 - 5 \%A^2 + 24 \%A - 6,
&30 \, b - \%A^3 + 5 \%A^2 + 6,
&30 \, c - \%A^3 + 5 \%A^2 - 30 \%A + 6,
&30 \, d - \%A^3 + 5 \%A^2 - 30 \%A + 6,
&30 \, e - \%A^3 + 5 \%A^2 - 30 \%A + 6,
&30 \, f - \%A^3 + 5 \%A^2 - 30 \%A + 6,
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[2]{6} \, \sqrt[2]{6},
\]
coordinates = \([a - \%A - 5, b + \%A + 1, c + 1, d + 1, e + 1, f + 1]\),
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[2]{2} \, \sqrt[2]{6},
\]
coordinates = \([a - \%A + 5, b + \%A - 1, c - 1, d - 1, e - 1, f - 1]\),
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[4]{6} \, \sqrt[3]{30} \, \sqrt[2]{36} \, \sqrt[2]{36},
\]
coordinates =
\[
\begin{align*}
&30 \, a - \%A^3 - 5 \%A^2 - 30 \%A + 6,
&30 \, b - \%A^3 - 5 \%A^2 - 30 \%A + 6,
&6 \, c + \%A^3 + 5 \%A^2 + 24 \%A + 6,
&30 \, d - \%A^3 - 5 \%A^2 - 6,
&30 \, e - \%A^3 - 5 \%A^2 - 30 \%A + 6,
&30 \, f - \%A^3 + 5 \%A^2 - 30 \%A + 6,
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[2]{6} \, \sqrt[2]{6},
\]
coordinates = \([a + 1, b + 1, c - \%A - 5, d + \%A + 1, e + 1, f + 1]\),
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[2]{2} \, \sqrt[2]{6},
\]
coordinates = \([a - 1, b - 1, c - \%A + 5, d + \%A - 1, e - 1, f - 1]\),
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[4]{6} \, \sqrt[3]{16} \, \sqrt[3]{24} \, \sqrt[3]{18} \, \sqrt[2]{36} \, \sqrt[2]{36},
\]
coordinates =
\[
\begin{align*}
&2 \, a + 2 \%A^7 + 9 \%A^6 + 18 \%A^5 + 19 \%A^4 + 4 \%A^3 - 10 \%A^2 - 2 \%A + 4,
&2 \, b + 2 \%A^7 + 9 \%A^6 + 18 \%A^5 + 19 \%A^4 + 4 \%A^3 - 10 \%A^2 - 4 \%A + 4,
&2 \, c - \%A^7 - 4 \%A^6 - 8 \%A^5 - 9 \%A^4 - 4 \%A^3 - 2 \%A - 4,
&2 \, d + \%A^7 + 4 \%A^6 + 8 \%A^5 + 9 \%A^4 + 4 \%A^3 + 2 \%A + 4,
&2 \, e - 2 \%A^7 - 9 \%A^6 - 18 \%A^5 - 19 \%A^4 - 4 \%A^3 + 10 \%A^2 + 4 \%A - 4,
&2 \, f - 2 \%A^7 - 9 \%A^6 - 18 \%A^5 - 19 \%A^4 - 4 \%A^3 + 10 \%A^2 + 2 \%A - 4,
\end{align*}
\]
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[complexRoots =
  \( p^8 + 12 \cdot p^7 + 64 \cdot p^6 + 192 \cdot p^5 + 432 \cdot p^4 + 768 \cdot p^3 + 1024 \cdot p^2 + 768 \cdot p + 256 \),
  coordinates =
  \[
  \begin{bmatrix}
    1408 a - 19 \cdot A^7 - 200 \cdot A^6 - 912 \cdot A^5 - 2216 \cdot A^4 - \\
    4544 \cdot A^3 - 6784 \cdot A^2 - 6976 \cdot A - 1792, \\
    1408 b - 37 \cdot A^7 - 408 \cdot A^6 - 1952 \cdot A^5 - 5024 \cdot A^4 - \\
    10368 \cdot A^3 - 16768 \cdot A^2 - 17920 \cdot A - 5120, \\
    1408 c + 37 \cdot A^7 + 408 \cdot A^6 + 1952 \cdot A^5 + 5024 \cdot A^4 + \\
    10368 \cdot A^3 + 16768 \cdot A^2 + 17920 \cdot A + 5120, \\
    1408 d + 19 \cdot A^7 + 200 \cdot A^6 + 912 \cdot A^5 + 2216 \cdot A^4 + \\
    4544 \cdot A^3 + 6784 \cdot A^2 + 6976 \cdot A + 1792, \\
    2 e + A, \\
    2 f - A 
  \end{bmatrix},
\]

[complexRoots =
  \( p^8 + 4 \cdot p^6 + 12 \cdot p^4 + 16 \cdot p^2 + 4 \),
  coordinates =
  \[
  \begin{bmatrix}
    4 a - A^7 - 3 \cdot A^5 - 10 \cdot A^3 - 6 \cdot A, \\
    4 b - A^7 - 3 \cdot A^5 - 10 \cdot A^3 - 10 \cdot A, \\
    4 c - 2 \cdot A^7 - 7 \cdot A^5 - 20 \cdot A^3 - 22 \cdot A, \\
    4 d + 2 \cdot A^7 + 7 \cdot A^5 + 20 \cdot A^3 + 22 \cdot A, \\
    4 e + A^7 + 3 \cdot A^5 + 10 \cdot A^3 + 10 \cdot A, \\
    4 f + A^7 + 3 \cdot A^5 + 10 \cdot A^3 + 6 \cdot A 
  \end{bmatrix},
\]

[complexRoots =
  \( p^8 + 16 \cdot p^6 - 96 \cdot p^4 + 256 \cdot p^2 + 256 \),
  coordinates =
  \[
  \begin{bmatrix}
    512 a - A^7 - 12 \cdot A^5 + 176 \cdot A^3 - 448 \cdot A, \\
    128 b - A^7 - 16 \cdot A^5 + 96 \cdot A^3 - 256 \cdot A, \\
    128 c + A^7 + 16 \cdot A^5 - 96 \cdot A^3 + 256 \cdot A, \\
    512 d + A^7 + 12 \cdot A^5 - 176 \cdot A^3 + 448 \cdot A, \\
    2 e + A, \\
    2 f - A 
  \end{bmatrix},
\]
\[\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[8]{-12 \ ?^7 + 64 \ ?^6 - 192 \ ?^5 + 432 \ ?^4 - 768 \ ?^3 + 1024 \ ?^2 - 768 \ ? + 256},\]
coordinates =
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1408 \ a - 19 \ %A^7 + 200 \ %A^6 - 912 \ %A^5 + 2216 \ %A^4 - 4544 \ %A^3 + 6784 \ %A^2 - 6976 \ %A + 1792,
1408 \ b - 37 \ %A^7 + 408 \ %A^6 - 1952 \ %A^5 + 5024 \ %A^4 - 10368 \ %A^3 + 16768 \ %A^2 - 17920 \ %A + 5120,
1408 \ c + 37 \ %A^7 - 408 \ %A^6 + 1952 \ %A^5 - 5024 \ %A^4 + 10368 \ %A^3 - 16768 \ %A^2 + 17920 \ %A - 5120,
1408 \ d + 19 \ %A^7 - 200 \ %A^6 + 912 \ %A^5 - 2216 \ %A^4 + 4544 \ %A^3 - 6784 \ %A^2 + 6976 \ %A - 1792,
2 \ e + \ %A,
2 \ f - \ %A
\end{bmatrix},
\]
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[8]{-6 \ ?^7 + 16 \ ?^6 - 24 \ ?^5 + 18 \ ?^4 - 8 \ ?^2 + 4},\]
coordinates =
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2 \ a + 2 \ %A^7 - 9 \ %A^6 + 18 \ %A^5 - 19 \ %A^4 + 4 \ %A^3 + 10 \ %A^2 - 2 \ %A - 4,
2 \ b + 2 \ %A^7 - 9 \ %A^6 + 18 \ %A^5 - 19 \ %A^4 + 4 \ %A^3 + 10 \ %A^2 - 4 \ %A - 4,
2 \ c - \ %A^7 + 4 \ %A^6 - 8 \ %A^5 + 9 \ %A^4 - 4 \ %A^3 - 2 \ %A + 4,
2 \ d + \ %A^7 - 4 \ %A^6 + 8 \ %A^5 - 9 \ %A^4 + 4 \ %A^3 + 2 \ %A - 4,
2 \ e - 2 \ %A^7 + 9 \ %A^6 - 18 \ %A^5 + 19 \ %A^4 - 4 \ %A^3 - 10 \ %A^2 + 4 \ %A + 4,
2 \ f - 2 \ %A^7 + 9 \ %A^6 - 18 \ %A^5 + 19 \ %A^4 - 4 \ %A^3 - 10 \ %A^2 + 2 \ %A + 4
\end{bmatrix},
\]
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[4]{12 \ ?^2 + 144},\]
coordinates =
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
12 \ a - \ %A^2 - 12, 12 \ b - \ %A^2 + 12, 12 \ c - \ %A^2 - 12,
12 \ d - \ %A^2 - 12, 6 \ e + \ %A^2 + 3 \ %A + 12, 6 \ f + \ %A^2 - 3 \ %A + 12
\end{bmatrix},
\]
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[4]{6 + 30 \ ?^2 + 36 \ ? + 36},\]
coordinates =
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
6 \ a - \ %A^3 - 5 \ %A^2 - 24 \ %A - 6, 30 \ b + \ %A^3 + 5 \ %A^2 + 30 \ %A + 6,
30 \ c + \ %A^3 + 5 \ %A^2 + 30 \ %A + 6, 30 \ d + \ %A^3 + 5 \ %A^2 + 30 \ %A + 6,
30 \ e + \ %A^3 + 5 \ %A^2 + 30 \ %A + 6, 30 \ f + \ %A^3 + 5 \ %A^2 + 6
\end{bmatrix},
\]
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[4]{6 - 30 \ ?^2 - 36 \ ? + 36},\]
coordinates =
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
6 \ a - \ %A^3 - 5 \ %A^2 - 24 \ %A + 6, 30 \ b + \ %A^3 - 5 \ %A^2 + 30 \ %A - 6,
30 \ c + \ %A^3 - 5 \ %A^2 + 30 \ %A - 6, 30 \ d + \ %A^3 - 5 \ %A^2 + 30 \ %A - 6,
30 \ e + \ %A^3 - 5 \ %A^2 - 30 \ %A - 6, 30 \ f + \ %A^3 - 5 \ %A^2 - 6
\end{bmatrix},
\]
\[
\text{complexRoots} = \sqrt[4]{12 \ ?^2 + 144},\]
coordinates =
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
12 \ a + \ %A^2 + 12, 12 \ b + \ %A^2 + 12, 12 \ c + \ %A^2 + 12, 12 \ d + \ %A^2 + 12,
6 \ e - \ %A^2 + 3 \ %A - 12, 6 \ f - \ %A^2 - 3 \ %A - 12
\end{bmatrix},
\]
Now, we compute the points of the variety with real coordinates.

Look at the last item of the result. It consists of two parts. For any complex root $\pi$ explains the use of \texttt{concat} example illustrating the

Note that the way of reading these univariate representations is explained also in the

Because the \texttt{univariateSolve} operation may split a regular set, it returns a list. This explains the use of \texttt{concat}.

Look at the last item of the result. It consists of two parts. For any complex root $\pi$ of the univariate polynomial in the first part, we get a tuple of univariate polynomials (in $a$, ... $f$ respectively) by replacing $%A$ by $\pi$ in the second part. Each of these tuples $t$ describes a point of the variety associated with $lp$ by equaling to zero the polynomials in $t$.

Note that the way of reading these univariate representations is explained also in the

Now, we compute the points of the variety with real coordinates.
concat \[\text{realSolve}(ts)\$zdpack \text{ for ts in lts}\]

\[
[\%B23, \%B23, \%B23, \%B27, -\%B27 - 4 \%B23, \%B23],
[\%B23, \%B23, \%B23, \%B28, -\%B28 - 4 \%B23, \%B23],
[\%B24, \%B24, \%B24, \%B25, -\%B25 - 4 \%B24, \%B24],
[\%B24, \%B24, \%B24, \%B26, -\%B26 - 4 \%B24, \%B24],
[\%B29, \%B29, \%B29, \%B33, -\%B33 - 4 \%B29],
[\%B29, \%B29, \%B29, \%B34, -\%B34 - 4 \%B29],
[\%B30, \%B30, \%B30, \%B30, \%B31, -\%B31 - 4 \%B30],
[\%B30, \%B30, \%B30, \%B30, \%B32, -\%B32 - 4 \%B30],
[\%B35, \%B35, \%B39, -\%B39 - 4 \%B35, \%B35, \%B35],
[\%B35, \%B35, \%B40, -\%B40 - 4 \%B35, \%B35, \%B35],
[\%B36, \%B36, \%B37, -\%B37 - 4 \%B36, \%B36, \%B36],
[\%B36, \%B36, \%B38, -\%B38 - 4 \%B36, \%B36, \%B36],
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\%B_{41}, \\
%B_{51}, \\
\frac{7865521}{6006689520} \%B_{41}^{31} - \frac{6696179241}{2002229840} \%B_{41}^{25} - \\
\frac{25769893181}{49235160} \%B_{41}^{19} - \frac{1975912990729}{3003344760} \%B_{41}^{13} - \\
\frac{1048460696489}{2002229840} \%B_{41}^{17} - \frac{21252634831}{6006689520} \%B_{41}, \\
\frac{778171189}{1387545279120} \%B_{41}^{31} + \frac{1987468196267}{1387545279120} \%B_{41}^{25} + \\
\frac{155496778477189}{693772639560} \%B_{41}^{19} + \frac{191631411158401}{693772639560} \%B_{41}^{13} + \\
\frac{300335488637543}{1387545279120} \%B_{41}^{17} - \frac{755656433863}{198220754160} \%B_{41}, \\
\frac{1094352947}{462515093040} \%B_{41}^{31} - \frac{2794979430821}{462515093040} \%B_{41}^{25} - \\
\frac{2187080802908737}{231257546520} \%B_{41}^{19} - \frac{91476663003591}{77085848840} \%B_{41}^{13} - \\
\frac{145152550961823}{154171697680} \%B_{41}^{17} - \frac{1564893370717}{462515093040} \%B_{41}, \\
\frac{-%B_{51} - \frac{4321823003}{1387545279120} \%B_{41}^{31} + \frac{180949546069}{22746643920} \%B_{41}^{25} + \\
\frac{863753195062493}{693772639560} \%B_{41}^{19} + \frac{1088094456732317}{693772639560} \%B_{41}^{13} + \\
\frac{1732620732685741}{1387545279120} \%B_{41}^{7} + \frac{13506088516033}{1387545279120} \%B_{41}}.
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
\left[ \%\mathcal{B}_{41}, \%\mathcal{B}_{52},
\begin{align*}
\frac{7865521}{6006689520} & \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{31} - \frac{6696179241}{2002229840} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{25} - \frac{25769893181}{49235160} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{19} - \\
\frac{1975912990729}{3003344760} & \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{13} - \frac{1048460696489}{2002229840} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{7} - \frac{21252634831}{6006689520} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}, \\
- \frac{778171189}{1387545279120} & \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{31} + \frac{1987468196267}{1387545279120} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{25} + \\
\frac{155496778477189}{693772639560} & \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{19} + \frac{191631411158401}{693772639560} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{13} + \\
\frac{300335488637543}{1387545279120} & \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{7} - \frac{755656433863}{198220754160} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}, \\
\frac{1094352947}{462515093040} & \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{31} - \frac{2794979430821}{462515093040} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{25} - \\
\frac{218708802908737}{231257546520} & \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{19} - \frac{91476663003591}{77085848840} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{13} - \\
\frac{145152550961823}{154171697680} & \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{7} - \frac{1564893370717}{462515093040} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}, \\
- \%\mathcal{B}_{52} & - \frac{4321823003}{1387545279120} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{31} + \frac{180949546069}{22746643920} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{25} + \\
\frac{863753195062493}{693772639560} & \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{19} + \frac{1088094456732317}{693772639560} \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{13} + \\
\frac{1732620732685741}{1387545279120} & \%\mathcal{B}_{41}^{7} + \frac{13506088516033}{1387545279120} \%\mathcal{B}_{41} \right].
\end{align*}
\]
$[\%B_{42}, \%B_{49},$

\begin{align*}
&\frac{7865521}{6006689520} %B_{42}^{31} - \frac{6696179241}{2002229840} %B_{42}^{25} - \\
&\frac{25769893181}{49235160} %B_{42}^{19} - \frac{1975912990729}{3003344760} %B_{42}^{13} - \\
&\frac{1048460696489}{2002229840} %B_{42}^{7} - \frac{21252634831}{6006689520} %B_{42}^{1} - \\
&- \frac{778171189}{1387545279120} %B_{42}^{31} + \frac{1987468196267}{1387545279120} %B_{42}^{25} + \\
&\frac{155496778477189}{693772639560} %B_{42}^{19} + \frac{191631411158401}{693772639560} %B_{42}^{13} + \\
&\frac{30035488637543}{1387545279120} %B_{42}^{7} - \frac{755656433863}{198220754160} %B_{42}^{1} - \\
&\frac{1094352947}{462515093040} %B_{42}^{31} - \frac{2794979430821}{462515093040} %B_{42}^{25} - \\
&\frac{218708802908737}{231257546520} %B_{42}^{19} - \frac{91476663003591}{77085848840} %B_{42}^{13} - \\
&\frac{145152550961823}{154171697680} %B_{42}^{7} - \frac{1564893370717}{462515093040} %B_{42}^{1} - \\
&- \frac{4321823003}{1387545279120} %B_{42}^{31} + \frac{180949546069}{22746643920} %B_{42}^{25} + \\
&\frac{863753195062493}{693772639560} %B_{42}^{19} + \frac{1088094456732317}{693772639560} %B_{42}^{13} + \\
&\frac{1732620732685741}{1387545279120} %B_{42}^{7} + \frac{13506088516033}{1387545279120} %B_{42}^{1} +
\end{align*}$
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

\[
\begin{align*}
[&\% B_{42}, \% B_{50}, \\
&\frac{7865521}{6006689520} \cdot \% B_{42}^{31} - \frac{6696179241}{2002229840} \cdot \% B_{42}^{25} - \\
&\frac{25769893181}{49235160} \cdot \% B_{42}^{19} - \frac{1975912990729}{300334760} \cdot \% B_{42}^{13} - \\
&\frac{1048460696489}{2002229840} \cdot \% B_{42}^{7} - \frac{21252634831}{6006689520} \cdot \% B_{42}, \\
&- \frac{778171189}{1387545279120} \cdot \% B_{42}^{31} + \frac{1987468196267}{1387545279120} \cdot \% B_{42}^{25} + \\
&\frac{155496778477189}{693772639560} \cdot \% B_{42}^{19} + \frac{191631411158401}{693772639560} \cdot \% B_{42}^{13} + \\
&\frac{300335488637543}{1387545279120} \cdot \% B_{42}^{7} - \frac{755656433863}{198220754160} \cdot \% B_{42}, \\
&\frac{1094352947}{462515093040} \cdot \% B_{42}^{31} - \frac{2794979430821}{462515093040} \cdot \% B_{42}^{25} - \\
&\frac{218708802908737}{231257546520} \cdot \% B_{42}^{19} - \frac{91476663003591}{77085848840} \cdot \% B_{42}^{13} - \\
&\frac{145152550961823}{154171697680} \cdot \% B_{42}^{7} - \frac{1564893370717}{462515093040} \cdot \% B_{42}, \\
&- \% B_{50} - \frac{4321823003}{1387545279120} \cdot \% B_{42}^{31} + \frac{180949546069}{22746643920} \cdot \% B_{42}^{25} + \\
&\frac{863753195062493}{693772639560} \cdot \% B_{42}^{19} + \frac{1088094456732317}{693772639560} \cdot \% B_{42}^{13} + \\
&\frac{1732620732685741}{1387545279120} \cdot \% B_{42}^{7} + \frac{13506088516033}{1387545279120} \cdot \% B_{42}.]
\end{align*}
\]
\[
\begin{align*}
&\left[ B_{43}, B_{47}, \\
&\frac{7865521}{6006689520} B_{43}^{31} - \frac{6696179241}{2002229840} B_{43}^{25} - \\
&\frac{25769893181}{49235160} B_{43}^{19} - \frac{1975912990729}{3003344760} B_{43}^{13} - \\
&\frac{1048460696489}{2002229840} B_{43}^{7} - \frac{21252634831}{6006689520} B_{43}, \\
&- \frac{778171189}{1387545279120} B_{43}^{31} + \frac{1987468196267}{1387545279120} B_{43}^{25} + \\
&\frac{155496778477189}{693772639560} B_{43}^{19} + \frac{19163141158401}{693772639560} B_{43}^{13} + \\
&\frac{300335488637543}{1387545279120} B_{43}^{7} - \frac{755656433863}{198220754160} B_{43}, \\
&\frac{1094352947}{462515093040} B_{43}^{31} - \frac{2794979430821}{462515093040} B_{43}^{25} - \\
&\frac{218708802908737}{231257546520} B_{43}^{19} - \frac{91476663003591}{77085848840} B_{43}^{13} - \\
&\frac{145152550961823}{154171697680} B_{43}^{7} - \frac{1564893370717}{462515093040} B_{43}, \\
&- \frac{4321823003}{1387545279120} B_{43}^{31} + \frac{180949546069}{22746643920} B_{43}^{25} + \\
&\frac{863753195062493}{693772639560} B_{43}^{19} + \frac{1088094456732317}{693772639560} B_{43}^{13} + \\
&\frac{1732620732685741}{1387545279120} B_{43}^{7} + \frac{13506088516033}{1387545279120} B_{43}\right],
\end{align*}
\]
[\% B_{43}, \% B_{48},
\frac{7865521}{6006689520} \% B_{43}^{31} - \frac{6696179241}{2002229840} \% B_{43}^{25} - \\
\frac{25769893181}{49235160} \% B_{43}^{19} - \frac{1975912990729}{3003344760} \% B_{43}^{13} - \\
\frac{1048460696489}{2002229840} \% B_{43}^{7} - \frac{21252634831}{6006689520} \% B_{43},
-
\frac{778171189}{1387545279120} \% B_{43}^{31} + \frac{1987468196267}{1387545279120} \% B_{43}^{25} + \\
\frac{155496778477189}{693772639560} \% B_{43}^{19} + \frac{191631411158401}{693772639560} \% B_{43}^{13} + \\
\frac{30035488637543}{1387545279120} \% B_{43}^{7} - \frac{755656433863}{198220754160} \% B_{43},
-
\frac{1094352947}{462515093040} \% B_{43}^{31} - \frac{2794979430821}{462515093040} \% B_{43}^{25} - \\
\frac{218708802908737}{231257546520} \% B_{43}^{19} - \frac{91476663003591}{77085848840} \% B_{43}^{13} - \\
\frac{145152550961823}{154171697680} \% B_{43}^{7} - \frac{1564893370717}{462515093040} \% B_{43},
-
\frac{4321823003}{1387545279120} \% B_{43}^{31} + \frac{180949546069}{22746643920} \% B_{43}^{25} + \\
\frac{863753195062493}{693772639560} \% B_{43}^{19} + \frac{1088094456732317}{693772639560} \% B_{43}^{13} + \\
\frac{1732620732685741}{1387545279120} \% B_{43}^{7} + \frac{13506088516033}{1387545279120} \% B_{43},]
\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{7865521}{6006689520} B_{44}^{31} - \frac{6696179241}{2002229840} B_{44}^{25} - \\
\frac{25769893181}{49235160} B_{44}^{19} - \frac{1975912990729}{300334760} B_{44}^{13} - \\
\frac{1048460696489}{2002229840} B_{44}^{7} - \frac{21252634831}{6006689520} B_{44} - \\
\frac{778171189}{1387545279120} B_{44}^{31} + \frac{1987468196267}{1387545279120} B_{44}^{25} + \\
\frac{155496778477189}{693772639560} B_{44}^{19} + \frac{191631411158401}{693772639560} B_{44}^{13} + \\
\frac{300335488637543}{1387545279120} B_{44}^{7} - \frac{755656433863}{198220754160} B_{44} + \\
\frac{1094352947}{462515093040} B_{44}^{31} - \frac{2794979430821}{462515093040} B_{44}^{25} - \\
\frac{218708802908737}{231257546520} B_{44}^{19} - \frac{9147666303591}{77085848840} B_{44}^{13} - \\
\frac{145152550961823}{154171697680} B_{44}^{7} - \frac{1564893370717}{462515093040} B_{44} - \\
-\frac{4321823003}{1387545279120} B_{44}^{31} + \frac{180949546069}{22746643920} B_{44}^{25} + \\
\frac{863753195062493}{693772639560} B_{44}^{19} + \frac{1088094456732317}{693772639560} B_{44}^{13} + \\
\frac{1732620732685741}{1387545279120} B_{44}^{7} + \frac{13506088516033}{1387545279120} B_{44},
\end{align*}
\]
We obtain 24 points given by lists of elements in the \texttt{RealClosure} of \texttt{Fraction} of \texttt{R}. In each list, the first value corresponds to the indeterminate \texttt{f}, the second to \texttt{e} and so on. See \texttt{ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage} to learn more about the \texttt{realSolve} operation.
9.40 LazardSetSolvingPackage

The LazardSetSolvingPackage package constructor solves polynomial systems by means of Lazard triangular sets. However one condition is relaxed: Regular triangular sets whose saturated ideals have positive dimension are not necessarily normalized.

The decompositions are computed in two steps. First the algorithm of Moreno Maza (implemented in the RegularTriangularSet domain constructor) is called. Then the resulting decompositions are converted into lists of square-free regular triangular sets and the redundant components are removed. Moreover, zero-dimensional regular triangular sets are normalized.

Note that the way of understanding triangular decompositions is detailed in the example of the RegularTriangularSet constructor.

The LazardSetSolvingPackage constructor takes six arguments. The first one, \( R \), is the coefficient ring of the polynomials; it must belong to the category GcdDomain. The second one, \( E \), is the exponent monoid of the polynomials; it must belong to the category OrderedAbelianMonoidSup. The third one, \( V \), is the ordered set of variables; it must belong to the category OrderedSet. The fourth one is the polynomial ring; it must belong to the category RecursivePolynomialCategory\((R,E,V)\). The fifth one is a domain of the category RegularTriangularSetCategory\((R,E,V,P)\) and the last one is a domain of the category SquareFreeRegularTriangularSetCategory\((R,E,V,P)\). The abbreviation for LazardSetSolvingPackage is LAZM3PK.

N.B. For the purpose of solving zero-dimensional algebraic systems, see also LexTriangularPackage and ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage. These packages are easier to call than LAZM3PK. Moreover, the ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage package provides operations to compute either the complex roots or the real roots.

We illustrate now the use of the LazardSetSolvingPackage package constructor with two examples (Butcher and Vermeer).

Define the coefficient ring.

\[
R := \text{Integer}
\]

\[
\text{Integer}
\]

Type: Domain

Define the list of variables,

\[
\text{ls : List Symbol := [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w]}
\]

\[
[b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w]
\]
and make it an ordered set:

\[ V := \text{OVAR}(\text{ls}) \]

\[ \text{OrderedVariableList} \{b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w\} \]

then define the exponent monoid.

\[ E := \text{IndexedExponents} \ V \]

\[ \text{IndexedExponents} \ \text{OrderedVariableList} \{b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w\} \]

Define the polynomial ring.

\[ P := \text{NSMP}(R, \ V) \]

\[ \text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \ \text{OrderedVariableList}\{b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w\}) \]

Let the variables be polynomial.

\[ b1: \ P := 'b1 \]

\[ b1 \]

\[ \text{Type:} \ \text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \ \text{OrderedVariableList}\{b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w\}) \]

\[ x: \ P := 'x \]

\[ x \]

\[ \text{Type:} \ \text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \ \text{OrderedVariableList}\{b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w\}) \]
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

y: \( P := 'y \)

\( y \)

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w])

z: \( P := 'z \)

\( z \)

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w])

t: \( P := 't \)

\( t \)

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w])

u: \( P := 'u \)

\( u \)

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w])

v: \( P := 'v \)

\( v \)

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w])

w: \( P := 'w \)

\( w \)

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w])
Now call the **RegularTriangularSet** domain constructor.

\[
T := \text{REGSET}(R,E,V,P)
\]

\[
\text{RegularTriangularSet}(\text{Integer}, \text{IndexedExponentsOrderedVariableList}[b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w], \text{OrderedVariableList}[b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w], \text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \text{OrderedVariableList}[b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w]))
\]

Define a polynomial system (the Butcher example).

\[
p0 := b1 + y + z - t - w
\]

\[
b1 + y + z - t - w
\]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

\[
p1 := 2*z*u + 2*y*v + 2*t*w - 2*w**2 - w - 1
\]

\[
2v + 2uz + 2wt - 2w^2 - w - 1
\]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

\[
p2 := 3*z*u**2 + 3*y*v**2 - 3*t*w**2 + 3*w**3 + 3*w**2 - t + 4*w
\]

\[
3v^2y + 3u^2z + (-3w^2 - 1)t + 3w^3 + 3w^2 + 4w
\]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

\[
p3 := 6*x*z*v - 6*t*w**2 + 6*w**3 - 3*t*w + 6*w**2 - t + 4*w
\]

\[
6vzx + (-6w^2 - 3w - 1)t + 6w^3 + 6w^2 + 4w
\]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])
Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

\[ p4 := 4*z*u**3 + 4*y*v**3 + 4*t*w**3 - 4*w**4 - 6*w**3 + 4*t*w - 10*w**2 - w - 1 \]

\[ 4*v^3 + 4*u^3 + (4*w^3 + 4*w) t - 4*w^4 - 6*w^3 - 10*w^2 - w - 1 \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

\[ p5 := 8*x*z*u*v + 8*t*w**3 - 8*w**4 + 4*t*w**2 - 12*w**3 + 4*t*w - 14*w**2 - 3*w - 1 \]

\[ 8*u*v*z + (8*w^3 + 4*w^2 + 4*w) t - 8*w^4 - 12*w^3 - 14*w^2 - 3*w - 1 \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

\[ p6 := 12*x*z*v**2 + 12*t*w**3 - 12*w**4 + 12*t*w**2 - 18*w**3 + 8*t*w - 14*w**2 - w - 1 \]

\[ 12*v^2*z + (12*w^3 + 12*w^2 + 8*w) t - 12*w^4 - 18*w^3 - 14*w^2 - w - 1 \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

\[ p7 := -24*t*w**3 + 24*w**4 - 24*t*w**2 + 36*w**3 - 8*t*w + 26*w**2 + 7*w + 1 \]

\[ (-24*w^3 - 24*w^2 - 8*w) t + 24*w^4 + 36*w^3 + 26*w^2 + 7*w + 1 \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

\[ lp := [p0, p1, p2, p3, p4, p5, p6, p7] \]
\[\begin{align*} &b_1 + y + z - t - w, \\
&2 v y + 2 u z + 2 w t - 2 w^2 - w - 1, \\
&3 v^2 y + 3 u^2 z + (-3 w^2 - 1) t + 3 w^3 + 3 w^2 + 4 w, \\
&6 v z x + (-6 w^2 - 3 w - 1) t + 6 w^3 + 6 w^2 + 4 w, \\
&4 v^3 y + 4 u^3 z + (4 w^3 + 4 w) t - 4 w^3 - 6 w^3 - 10 w^2 - w - 1, \\
&8 u v z x + (8 w^3 + 4 w^2 + 4 w) t - 8 w^4 - 12 w^3 - 14 w^2 - 3 w - 1, \\
&12 v^2 z x + (12 w^3 + 12 w^2 + 8 w) t - 12 w^4 - 18 w^3 - 14 w^2 - w - 1, \\
&(-24 w^3 - 24 w^2 - 8 w) t + 24 w^4 + 36 w^3 + 26 w^2 + 7 w + 1 \end{align*}\]

Type: \text{List} \text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer, OrderedVariableList} [b_1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w])

First of all, let us solve this system in the sense of Lazard by means of the \text{REGSET} constructor:

\[
lts := \text{zeroSetSplit}(lp, \text{false}) \$
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
&\{w + 1, u, v, t + 1, b_1 + y + z + 2\}, \{w + 1, v, t + 1, z, b_1 + y + 2\}, \\
&\{w + 1, t + 1, z, y, b_1 + 2\}, \{w + 1, v - u, t + 1, y + z, x, b_1 + 2\}, \\
&\{w + 1, u, t + 1, y, x, b_1 + z + 2\}, \\
&\{144 w^5 + 216 w^4 + 96 w^3 - 111 w - 1, \\
&12 w^2 + 9 w + 1) u - 72 w^5 - 108 w^4 - 42 w^3 - 9 w^2 - 3 w, \\
&(12 w^2 + 9 w + 1) v + 36 w^4 + 54 w^3 + 18 w^2, \\
&(24 w^3 + 24 w^2 + 8 w) t - 24 w^4 - 36 w^3 - 26 w^2 - 7 w - 1, \\
&(12 u v - 12 u^2) z + (12 w v + 12 w^2 + 4) t + (3 w - 5) v + \\
&36 w^4 + 42 w^3 + 6 w^2 - 16 w, \\
&2 v y + 2 u z + 2 w t - 2 w^2 - w - 1, \\
&6 v z x + (-6 w^2 - 3 w - 1) t + 6 w^3 + 6 w^2 + 4 w, b_1 + y + z - t - w) \}
\end{align*}
\]

Type: \text{List RegularTriangularSet} (\text{Integer, IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList} [b_1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w], \text{OrderedVariableList} [b_1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w], \text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial} (\text{Integer, OrderedVariableList} [b_1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w]))

We can get the dimensions of each component of a decomposition as follows.

\[
\text{[coHeight(ts) for ts in lts]}
\]

\[
[3, 3, 3, 2, 2, 0]
\]

Type: \text{List NonNegativeInteger}
The first five sets have a simple shape. However, the last one, which has dimension zero, can be simplified by using Lazard triangular sets.

Thus we call the \texttt{SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet} domain constructor,

\begin{verbatim}
ST := SREGSET(R,E,V,P)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet(Integer,
    IndexedExponentsOrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w],
    OrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w],
    NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,
    OrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w]))
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: Domain}

and set the \texttt{LAZM3PK} package constructor to our situation.

\begin{verbatim}
pack := LAZM3PK(R,E,V,P,T,ST)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
LazardSetSolvingPackage(Integer,
    IndexedExponentsOrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w],
    OrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w],
    NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,
    OrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w]),
    RegularTriangularSet(Integer,
    IndexedExponentsOrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w],
    OrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w],
    NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,
    OrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w])),
    SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet(Integer,
    IndexedExponentsOrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w],
    OrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w],
    NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,
    OrderedVariableList[b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w])))
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: Domain}

We are ready to solve the system by means of Lazard triangular sets:

\begin{verbatim}
zeroSetSplit(lp, false) $pack
\end{verbatim}
We see the sixth triangular set is nicer now: each one of its polynomials has a constant initial.

We follow with the Vermeer example. The ordering is the usual one for this system. Define the polynomial system.

\[
f_0 := (w - v)^2 + (u - t)^2 - 1
\]

\[
t^2 - 2ut + v^2 - 2wv + u^2 + w^2 - 1
\]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w])

\[
f_1 := t^2 - v^3
\]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [b1, x, y, z, t, v, u, w])

\[
f_2 := 2t(w - v) + 3v^2(u - t)
\]

\[
(-3v^2 - 2v + 2w)t + 3uv^2
\]
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Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList
[b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

\[ f_3 := (3 \cdot z \cdot v \cdot w^2 - 1) \cdot (2 \cdot z \cdot t - 1) \]

\[ 6 \cdot v^2 \cdot t \cdot z^2 + (-2 \cdot t - 3 \cdot v^2) \cdot z + 1 \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList
[b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

\[ l_f := [f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3] \]

\[ [t^2 - 2 \cdot u \cdot t + v^2 - 2 \cdot w \cdot v + u^2 + w^2 - 1, \]
\[ t^2 - v^3, \]
\[ (-3 \cdot v^2 - 2 \cdot v + 2 \cdot w) \cdot t + 3 \cdot u \cdot v^2, \]
\[ 6 \cdot v^2 \cdot t \cdot z^2 + (-2 \cdot t - 3 \cdot v^2) \cdot z + 1] \]

Type: List
NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList
[b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

First of all, let us solve this system in the sense of Kalkbrener by means of the REGSET constructor:

\( \text{zeroSetSplit}(l_f, \text{true}) \)

\[ [(729 \cdot u^6 + (-1458 \cdot w^3 + 729 \cdot w^2 - 4158 \cdot w - 1685) \cdot u^4 + \]
\[ (729 \cdot w^6 - 1458 \cdot w^3 + 2619 \cdot w^2 - 4892 \cdot w - 1685) \cdot u^3 + \]
\[ 729 \cdot w^8 + 216 \cdot w^7 - 2900 \cdot w^6 - 2376 \cdot w^5 + 3870 \cdot w^4 + \]
\[ 4072 \cdot w^3 - 1188 \cdot w^2 - 1656 \cdot w + 529, \]
\[ (2187 \cdot u^4 + (-4374 \cdot w^3 - 972 \cdot w^2 - 12474 \cdot w - 2868) \cdot u^3 + \]
\[ 2187 \cdot w^6 - 1944 \cdot w^5 + 10125 \cdot w^4 - 4800 \cdot w^3 + 2501 \cdot w^2 + 4968 \cdot w - 1587) \cdot v + \]
\[ 1944 \cdot w^3 - 108 \cdot w^2 \cdot u^2 + \]
\[ 972 \cdot w^6 + 3024 \cdot w^5 - 1080 \cdot w^4 + 496 \cdot w^3 + 1116 \cdot w^2, \]
\[ (3 \cdot v^2 + 2 \cdot v - 2 \cdot w) \cdot t - 3 \cdot u \cdot v^2, \]
\[ ((4 \cdot v - 4 \cdot w) \cdot t - 6 \cdot u \cdot v^2) \cdot z^2 + (2 \cdot t + 3 \cdot v^2) \cdot z - 1] \]

Type: List
RegularTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponents
OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w], OrderedVariableList
[b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w], NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,
OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w]))
We have obtained one regular chain (i.e. regular triangular set) with dimension 1. This set is in fact a characterist set of the (radical of) of the ideal generated by the input system \( \text{lf} \). Thus we have only the generic points of the variety associated with \( \text{lf} \) (for the elimination ordering given by \( \text{ls} \)).

So let us get now a full description of this variety.

Hence, we solve this system in the sense of Lazard by means of the \textsc{regset} constructor:

\[
\text{zerosetSplit}(\text{lf}, \text{false}) T
\]

\[
\{ (729 \, w^6 + (-1458 \, w^3 + 729 \, w^2 - 4158 \, w - 1685) \) \, u^4 + \\
(729 \, w^6 - 1458 \, w^5 - 2619 \, w^4 - 4892 \, w^3 - 297 \, w^2 + 5814 \, w + 427) \) \, u^2 + \\
729 \, w^8 + 216 \, w^7 - 2900 \, w^6 - 2376 \, w^5 + 3870 \, w^4 + 4072 \, w^3 - \\
1188 \, w^2 - 1656 \, w + 529, \\
(2187 \, u^4 + (-4374 \, w^3 - 972 \, w^2 - 12474 \, w - 2868) \) \, u^2 + \\
2187 \, w^6 - 1944 \, w^5 - 10125 \, w^4 - 4800 \, w^3 + 2501 \, w^2 + 4968 \, w - 1587) \) \, v + \\
(1944 \, w^3 - 108 \, w^2) \) \, u^2 + \\
972 \, w^6 + 3024 \, w^5 - 1080 \, w^4 + 496 \, w^3 + 1116 \, w^2, \\
(3 \, v^2 + 2 \, v - 2 \, w) \, t - 3 \, u \, v^2, \\
((4 \, v - 4 \, w) \, t - 6 \, u \, v^2) \, z^2 + (2 \, t + 3 \, v^2) \, z - 1 \}, \\
\{ 27 \, w^4 + 4 \, w^3 - 54 \, w^2 - 36 \, w + 23, \\
u, \\
(12 \, w + 2) \, v - 9 \, w^2 - 2 \, w + 9, \\
6 \, t^2 - 2 \, v - 3 \, w^2 + 2 \, w + 3, \\
2 \, t \, z - 1 \}, \\
\{ 59049 \, w^6 + 91854 \, w^5 - 45198 \, w^4 + 145152 \, w^3 + 63549 \, w^2 + 60922 \, w + 21420, \\
(31484448266904 \, w^5 - 18316865522574 \, w^4 + 23676995746098 \, w^3 + 6657857188965 \, w^2 + \\
8904703998546 \, w + 3890631403260) \, u^2 + 94262810316408 \, w^5 - 82887296576616 \, w^4 + \\
89801831438784 \, w^3 + 2814734167208 \, w^2 + 38070359425432 \, w + 16003865949120, \\
(243 \, w^2 + 36 \, w + 85) \, v^2 + (-81 \, u^2 - 162 \, w^3 + 36 \, w^2 + 154 \, w + 72) \, v - 72 \, w^3 + 4 \, w^2, \\
(3 \, v^2 + 2 \, v - 2 \, w) \, t - 3 \, u \, v^2, \\
((4 \, v - 4 \, w) \, t - 6 \, u \, v^2) \, z^2 + (2 \, t + 3 \, v^2) \, z - 1 \}, \\
\{ 27 \, w^4 + 4 \, w^3 - 54 \, w^2 - 36 \, w + 23, \\
u, \\
(12 \, w + 2) \, v - 9 \, w^2 - 2 \, w + 9, \\
6 \, t^2 - 2 \, v - 3 \, w^2 + 2 \, w + 3, \\
3 \, v^2 \, z - 1 \}}
\]

Type: List \text{RegularTriangularSet}(\text{Integer}, \text{IndexedExponents} \\
\text{OrderedVariableList} \{ b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w \}, \text{OrderedVariableList} \\
\{ b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w \}, \text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \\
\text{OrderedVariableList} \{ b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w \}))

We retrieve our regular chain of dimension 1 and we get three regular chains of di-
Generally, decompositions computed by the \texttt{zeroSetSplit(lf,false)} construct do not have redundant components. However, to be sure that no redundant component occurs one needs to use the \texttt{SREGSET} or \texttt{LAZM3PK} constructors.

So let us solve the input system in the sense of Lazard by means of the \texttt{LAZM3PK} constructor:

\begin{verbatim}
zeroSetSplit(1f,false) $pack

\[ \{ [729 \, u^6 + (-1458 \, w^3 + 729 \, w^2 - 4158 \, w - 1685) \, u^4 + \(729 \, w^6 - 1458 \, w^5 - 2619 \, w^4 - 4892 \, w^3 - 297 \, w^2 + 5814 \, w + 427) \, u^2 + 729 \, w^6 + 216 \, w^5 - 2900 \, w^6 - 2376 \, w^5 + 3870 \, w^4 + 4072 \, w^3 - 1188 \, w^2 - 1656 \, w + 529, (2187 \, u^4 + (-4374 \, w^3 - 972 \, w^2 - 12474 \, w - 2868) \, u^2 + 2187 \, w^6 - 1944 \, w^5 - 10125 \, w^4 - 4800 \, w^3 + 2501 \, w^2 + 4968 \, w - 1587) \, v + (1944 \, w^3 - 108 \, w^2) \, u^2 + 972 \, w^6 + 3024 \, w^5 - 1080 \, w^4 + 496 \, w^3 + 1116 \, w^2, (3 \, v^2 + 2 \, v - 2 \, w) \, t - 3 \, u \, v^2, ((4 \, v - 4 \, w) \, t - 6 \, u \, v^2) \, z^2 + (2 \, t + 3 \, v^2) \, z - 1, \{ 81 \, w^2 + 18 \, w + 28, 729 \, u^2 - 1890 \, w - 533, 81 \, v^2 + (-162 \, w + 27) \, v - 72 \, w - 112, 11881 \, t + (972 \, w + 2997) \, u \, v + (-11448 \, w - 11536) \, u, 641237934604288 \, z^2 + (((78614584763904 \, w + 26785578742272) \, u + 236143618655616 \, w + 7022198858728) \, v + (358520253138432 \, w + 101922133759488) \, u + 142598803536000 \, w + 54166419595008) \, z + (32655103844499 \, w - 44224572465882) \, u \, v + (43213900115457 \, w - 324320391020700) \, u), \{ 27 \, w^4 + 4 \, w^3 - 54 \, w^2 - 36 \, w + 23, u, 218 \, v - 162 \, w^3 + 3 \, w^2 + 160 \, w + 153, 109 \, t^2 - 27 \, w^3 - 54 \, w^2 + 63 \, w + 80, 1744 \, z + (-1458 \, w^3 + 27 \, w^2 + 1440 \, w + 505) \, t, \{ 27 \, w^4 + 4 \, w^3 - 54 \, w^2 - 36 \, w + 23, u, 218 \, v - 162 \, w^3 + 3 \, w^2 + 160 \, w + 153, 109 \, t^2 - 27 \, w^3 - 54 \, w^2 + 63 \, w + 80, 1308 \, z + 162 \, w^3 - 3 \, w^2 - 814 \, w - 153, \{ 729 \, w^4 + 972 \, w^3 - 1026 \, w^2 + 1684 \, w + 765, 81 \, u^2 + 72 \, w^2 + 16 \, w - 72, 702 \, v - 162 \, w^3 - 225 \, w^2 + 40 \, w - 99, 11336 \, t + (324 \, w^3 - 603 \, w^2 - 1718 \, w - 1557) \, u, 595003968 \, z^2 + ((-963325386 \, w^3 - 898607682 \, w^2 + 1516286466 \, w - 3239166186) \, u - 1579048992 \, w^3 - 1796454288 \, w^2 + 2428328160 \, w - 4368495024) \, z + (9713133306 \, w^3 + 9678670317 \, w^2 - 16726834476 \, w + 28144235393) \, u) \}
\end{verbatim}

Type: \texttt{List SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList \{b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w\})}
OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w],
NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [b1,x,y,z,t,v,u,w])

Due to square-free factorization, we obtained now four zero-dimensional regular chains. Moreover, each of them is normalized (the initials are constant). Note that these zero-dimensional components may be investigated further with the ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage package constructor.

9.41 Library

The Library domain provides a simple way to store Axiom values in a file. This domain is similar to KeyedAccessFile but fewer declarations are needed and items of different types can be saved together in the same file.

To create a library, you supply a file name.

stuff := library "/tmp/Neat.stuff"

"/tmp/Neat.stuff"

Type: Library

Now values can be saved by key in the file. The keys should be mnemonic, just as the field names are for records. They can be given either as strings or symbols.

stuff.int := 32**2

1024

Type: PositiveInteger

stuff."poly" := x**2 + 1

\(x^2 + 1\)

Type: Polynomial Integer

stuff.str := "Hello"

"Hello"
You obtain the set of available keys using the `keys` operation.

```plaintext
keys stuff
```

```
["str","poly","int"]
```

You extract values by giving the desired key in this way.

```plaintext
stuff.poly
```

\[ x^2 + 1 \]

```plaintext
stuff("poly")
```

\[ x^2 + 1 \]

When the file is no longer needed, you should remove it from the file system.

```plaintext
)system rm -rf /tmp/Neat.stuff
```

For more information on related topics, see 9.24 on page 543, 9.81 on page 809, and 9.38 on page 595.

### 9.42 LieExponentials

```plaintext
a: Symbol := 'a
```

```
a
```

Type: Symbol

```plaintext
b: Symbol := 'b
```
Declarations of domains

c coef := Fraction(Integer)

Fraction Integer

Type: Domain

group := LieExponentials(Symbol, coef, 3)

LieExponentials(Symbol, Fraction Integer, 3)

Type: Domain

lpoly := LiePolynomial(Symbol, coef)

LiePolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)

Type: Domain

poly := XPBWPolynomial(Symbol, coef)

XPBWPolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)

Type: Domain

Calculations

ea := exp(a::lpoly)$group

e[a]

Type: LieExponentials(Symbol, Fraction Integer, 3)

eb := exp(b::lpoly)$group
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\[ e^{[b]} \]

Type: LieExponentials(Symbol, Fraction Integer, 3)

g: group := ea*eb

\[ e^{[b]} e^{(1/2 [a \ b^2])} e^{[a \ b]} e^{(1/2 [a^2 \ b])} e^{[a]} \]

Type: LieExponentials(Symbol, Fraction Integer, 3)

g :: poly

\[ 1 + [a] + [b] + \frac{1}{2} [a] [a] + [a \ b] + [b] [a] + \frac{1}{2} [b] [b] + \frac{1}{6} [a] [a] [a] + \frac{1}{2} [a^2 \ b] + [a \ b] [a] + \frac{1}{2} [a b^2] + [b] [b] [a] + \frac{1}{2} [b] [a] [a] + \frac{1}{6} [b] [b] [b] \]

Type: XPBWPolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)

\[ \log(g) \]$

\[ [a] + [b] + \frac{1}{2} [a \ b] + \frac{1}{12} [a^2 \ b] + \frac{1}{12} [a b^2] \]

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)

g1: group := inv(g)

\[ e^{(-[b])} e^{(-[a])} \]

Type: LieExponentials(Symbol, Fraction Integer, 3)

g*gl

1

Type: LieExponentials(Symbol, Fraction Integer, 3)
9.43 **LiePolynomial**

Declaration of domains

RN := Fraction Integer

\[
\text{Fraction Integer}
\]

Type: Domain

Lpoly := LiePolynomial(Symbol,RN)

\[
\text{LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)}
\]

Type: Domain

Dpoly := XDPOLY(Symbol,RN)

\[
\text{XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)}
\]

Type: Domain

Lword := LyndonWord Symbol

\[
\text{LyndonWord Symbol}
\]

Type: Domain

Initialisation

\[
a: \text{Symbol} := 'a
\]

\[
a
\]

Type: Symbol

\[
b: \text{Symbol} := 'b
\]

\[
b
\]
All the Lyndon words of order 4
liste : List Lword := LyndonWordsList([a, b], 4)

\[ [a], [b], [a b], [a^2 b], [a^3 b], [a^2 b^2], [a b^3] \]

Type: List LyndonWord Symbol

r: Lpoly := p + q + 3\cdot\text{LiePoly}(\text{liste}.4) \cdot \text{Lpoly}

\[ a b + 3 [a^2 b] + [a b^2] \]

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)

s:Lpoly := [p, r]

\[ -3 [a^2 b a b] + [a b a b^2] \]

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)

t:Lpoly := s + 2\cdot\text{LiePoly}(\text{liste}.3) - 5\cdot\text{LiePoly}(\text{liste}.5)

\[ 2 [a b] - 5 [a b^2] - 3 [a^2 b a b] + [a b a b^2] \]

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)

degree t

5

Type: PositiveInteger

mirror t

\[-2 [a b] - 5 [a b^2] - 3 [a^2 b a b] + [a b a b^2] \]

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)

Jacobi Relation

\text{Jacobi}(p: \text{Lpoly}, q: \text{Lpoly}, r: \text{Lpoly}) : \text{Lpoly} \Rightarrow [ [p, q] \cdot \text{Lpoly}, \text{r}] + [ [q, r] \cdot \text{Lpoly}, p] + [ [r, p] \cdot \text{Lpoly}, q]
Function declaration Jacobi : ( 
  LiePolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer), 
  LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer), 
  LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)) -> 
  LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer) 
has been added to workspace.

Void

Tests

test: Lpoly := Jacobi(a,b,b)

0

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

test: Lpoly := Jacobi(p,q,r)

0

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

test: Lpoly := Jacobi(r,s,t)

0

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

Evaluation

eval(p, a, p)$Lpoly

\[a b^2\]

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

eval(p, [a,b], [2*bb, 3*aa])$Lpoly

\[-6\ a b\]
\[ r : \text{Lpoly} := [p, c] \]
\[ [a \ b \ c] + [a \ c \ b] \]
Type: \text{LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)}

\[ r1 : \text{Lpoly} := \text{eval}(r, [a, b, c], [bb, cc, aa]) \]
\[ -[a \ b \ c] \]
Type: \text{LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)}

\[ r2 : \text{Lpoly} := \text{eval}(r, [a, b, c], [cc, aa, bb]) \]
\[ -[a \ c \ b] \]
Type: \text{LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)}

\[ r + r1 + r2 \]
\[ 0 \]
Type: \text{LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)}

### 9.44 LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator

\text{LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator}(A, \text{diff}) \text{ is the domain of linear ordinary differential operators with coefficients in a ring } A \text{ with a given derivation.}

#### 9.44.1 Differential Operators with Series Coefficients

**Problem:** Find the first few coefficients of \( \exp(x)/x^i \) of \( \text{Dop} \ \phi \) where

\[ \text{Dop} := D^3 + G/x^2 \ast D + H/x^3 - 1 \]
\[ \phi := \text{sum}(s[i]*\exp(x)/x^i, i = 0..) \]
Solution:
Define the differential.

\[ \text{Dx: LODO(EXPR INT, f \rightarrow D(f, x))} \]

\[ \text{Dx := D()} \]

\[ D \]

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator(Expression Integer, theMap NIL)

Now define the differential operator Dop.

\[ \text{Dop:= Dx**3 + G/x**2*Dx + H/x**3 - 1} \]

\[ D^3 + \frac{G}{x^2} D + \frac{-x^3 + H}{x^3} \]

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator(Expression Integer, theMap NIL)

\[ n == 3 \]

\[ \text{Void} \]

\[ \text{phi == reduce(+,[subscript(s,[i])*exp(x)/x**i for i in 0..n])} \]

\[ \text{Void} \]

\[ \text{phi1 == Dop(phi) / exp x} \]

\[ \text{Void} \]
phi2 == phi1 \times^{n+3} \\

Void

phi3 == retract(phi2)@(POLY INT) \\

Void

pans == phi3 ::UP(x,POLY INT) \\

Void

pans1 == \text{coefficient}(pans, (n+3-i) :: NNI) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 2..n+1 \\

Void

leq == solve(pans1,\text{subscript}(s,[i]) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..n) \\

Void

Evaluate this for several values of \( n \).

leq

Compiling body of rule \( n \) to compute value of type PositiveInteger
Compiling body of rule \( \phi \) to compute value of type Expression
\text{Integer}
Compiling body of rule \( \phi_1 \) to compute value of type Expression
\text{Integer}
Compiling body of rule \( \phi_2 \) to compute value of type Expression
\text{Integer}
Compiling body of rule \( \phi_3 \) to compute value of type Polynomial
\text{Integer}
Compiling body of rule \( \text{pans} \) to compute value of type
\text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x,Polynomial \text{ Integer})
Compiling body of rule \( \text{pans1} \) to compute value of type List
Polynomial \text{ Integer}
Compiling body of rule \( \text{leq} \) to compute value of type List List
\text{Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer}
Compiling function G83347 with type Integer -> Boolean
n==4

\[
\begin{align*}
  s_1 &= \frac{s_0 G}{3}, \\
  s_2 &= \frac{3 s_0 H + s_0 G^2 + 6 s_0 G}{18}, \\
  s_3 &= \frac{(9 s_0 G + 54 s_0) H + s_0 G^3 + 18 s_0 G^2 + 72 s_0 G}{162}
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List List Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer

leq

\[
\begin{align*}
  s_1 &= \frac{s_0 G}{3}, \\
  s_2 &= \frac{3 s_0 H + s_0 G^2 + 6 s_0 G}{18}, \\
  s_3 &= \frac{(9 s_0 G + 54 s_0) H + s_0 G^3 + 18 s_0 G^2 + 72 s_0 G}{162}
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List List Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer

n==7

Compiled code for n has been cleared.
Compiled code for leq has been cleared.
Compiled code for pans has been cleared.
Compiled code for phi2 has been cleared.
Compiled code for phi has been cleared.
Compiled code for phi3 has been cleared.
Compiled code for phi1 has been cleared.
Compiled code for pans has been cleared.
1 old definition(s) deleted for function or rule n

Void

leq

Compiling body of rule n to compute value of type PositiveInteger

+++ |n0;1;G82322| redefined
Compiling body of rule phi to compute value of type Expression
  Integer
++ |*0;phi1;1;G82322| redefined
Compiling body of rule phi1 to compute value of type Expression
Integer

++ |*0;phi2;1;G82322| redefined
Compiling body of rule phi2 to compute value of type Expression
Integer

++ |*0;phi3;1;G82322| redefined
Compiling body of rule phi3 to compute value of type Polynomial
Integer

++ |*0;pans;1;G82322| redefined
Compiling body of rule pans to compute value of type
UnivariatePolynomial(x,Polynomial Integer)

++ |*0;pans1;1;G82322| redefined
Compiling body of rule pans1 to compute value of type List
Polynomial Integer

++ |*0;leq;1;G82322| redefined
Compiling body of rule leq to compute value of type
List List Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer

++ |*0;leq;1;G82322| redefined

\[
\begin{align*}
s_1 &= \frac{s_0 G}{3}, \\
s_2 &= \frac{3 s_0 H + s_0 G^2 + 6 s_0 G}{18}, \\
s_3 &= \frac{(9 s_0 G + 54 s_0) H + s_0 G^3 + 18 s_0 G^2 + 72 s_0 G}{162}, \\
&\quad \times \left(\frac{27 s_0 H^2 + (18 s_0 G^2 + 378 s_0 G + 1296 s_0) H + (s_0 G^4 + 36 s_0 G^3 + 396 s_0 G^2 + 1296 s_0 G)}{1944}\right), \\
s_4 &= \left(\frac{(135 s_0 G + 2268 s_0) H^2 + (30 s_0 G^3 + 1350 s_0 G^2 + 16416 s_0 G + 38880 s_0) H + (s_0 G^5 + 60 s_0 G^4 + 1188 s_0 G^3 + 9504 s_0 G^2 + 25920 s_0 G)}{29160}\right), \\
s_5 &= \left(\frac{(9 s_0 G + 54 s_0) H^3 + (18 s_0 G^2 + 378 s_0 G + 1296 s_0) H + (s_0 G^4 + 36 s_0 G^3 + 396 s_0 G^2 + 1296 s_0 G)}{1944}\right).
\end{align*}
\]
\[ s_6 = \frac{\left( 405 \ s_0 \ H^3 + 
\left( 405 \ s_0 \ G^2 + 18468 \ s_0 \ G + 174960 \ s_0 \right) H^2 + 
\left( 45 \ s_0 \ G^4 + 3510 \ s_0 \ G^3 + 88776 \ s_0 \ G^2 + 777600 \ s_0 \ G + 
1166400 \ s_0 \right) H + 
\left( s_0 \ G^6 + 90 \ s_0 \ G^5 + 2628 \ s_0 \ G^4 + 27864 \ s_0 \ G^3 + 90720 \ s_0 \ G^2 \right) \right)}{524880} , \]

\[ s_7 = \frac{\left( 2835 \ s_0 \ G + 91854 \ s_0 \right) H^3 + 
\left( 945 \ s_0 \ G^3 + 81648 \ s_0 \ G^2 + 2082996 \ s_0 \ G + 14171760 \ s_0 \right) H^2 + 
\left( 63 \ s_0 \ G^5 + 7560 \ s_0 \ G^4 + 317520 \ s_0 \ G^3 + 5554008 \ s_0 \ G^2 + 
34058880 \ s_0 \ G \right) H + 
\left( s_0 \ G^7 + 126 \ s_0 \ G^6 + 4788 \ s_0 \ G^5 + 25272 \ s_0 \ G^4 + 1744416 \ s_0 \ G^3 - 
26827200 \ s_0 \ G^2 - 97977600 \ s_0 \right) \right)}{11022480} . \]

Type: List List Equation Fraction Polynomial Integer

### 9.45 LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1

LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1(A) is the domain of linear ordinary differential operators with coefficients in the differential ring A.

#### 9.45.1 Differential Operators with Rational Function Coefficients

This example shows differential operators with rational function coefficients. In this case operator multiplication is non-commutative and, since the coefficients form a field, an operator division algorithm exists.
We begin by defining \( \text{RFZ} \) to be the rational functions in \( x \) with integer coefficients and \( \text{Dx} \) to be the differential operator for \( d/dx \).

\[
\text{RFZ} := \text{Fraction UnivariatePolynomial('x, Integer)}
\]

\[
\text{Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)}
\]

Type: Domain

\[
x : \text{RFZ} := 'x
\]

\[
x
\]

Type: Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

\[
\text{Dx} : \text{LODO1 FRZ} := \text{D()}
\]

\[
\text{D}
\]

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

Operators are created using the usual arithmetic operations.

\[
b : \text{LODO1 FRZ} := 3*x**2*\text{Dx}**2 + 2*\text{Dx} + 1/x
\]

\[
3 x^2 D^2 + 2 D + \frac{1}{x}
\]

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

\[
a : \text{LODO1 FRZ} := b*(5*x*\text{Dx} + 7)
\]

\[
15 x^3 D^3 + \left(51 x^2 + 10 x\right) D^2 + 29 D + \frac{7}{x}
\]

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

Operator multiplication corresponds to functional composition.
\[ p := x^{**2} + 1/x^{**2} \]
\[ \frac{x^4 + 1}{x^2} \]
Type: Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

Since operator coefficients depend on \( x \), the multiplication is not commutative.

\[(a*b - b*a) \ p\]
\[ -75 x^4 + 540 x - 75 \]
\[ \frac{x^4}{x^4} \]
Type: Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

When the coefficients of operator polynomials come from a field, as in this case, it is possible to define operator division. Division on the left and division on the right yield different results when the multiplication is non-commutative.

The results of \texttt{leftDivide} and \texttt{rightDivide} are quotient-remainder pairs satisfying:

\[
\texttt{leftDivide}(a,b) = [q, r] \text{ such that } a = b*q + r
\]
\[
\texttt{rightDivide}(a,b) = [q, r] \text{ such that } a = q*b + r
\]

In both cases, the \texttt{degree} of the remainder, \( r \), is less than the degree of \( b \).

\[
\texttt{ld := leftDivide}(a,b)
\]
\[
[\text{\texttt{quotient}} = 5 \ x \ D + 7, \text{\texttt{remainder}} = 0]\]
Type: Record(quotient: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer), remainder: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer))

\[ a = b * \texttt{ld.quotient} + \texttt{ld.remainder} \]
\[ 15 \ x^3 \ D^3 + (51 \ x^2 + 10 \ x) \ D^2 + 29 \ D + \frac{7}{x} = \]
\[ 15 \ x^3 \ D^3 + (51 \ x^2 + 10 \ x) \ D^2 + 29 \ D + \frac{7}{x} \]
The operations of left and right division are so-called because the quotient is obtained by dividing \(a\) on that side by \(b\).

\[
\text{rd} := \text{rightDivide}(a,b)
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{quotient} &= 5x D + 7, \\
\text{remainder} &= 10D + \frac{5}{x}
\end{align*}
\]

Type: Record(quotient: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer), remainder: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer))

\[a = \text{rd.quotient} \cdot b + \text{rd.remainder}\]

\[
15x^3 D^3 + (51x^2 + 10x) D^2 + 29D + \frac{7}{x} = \]

\[
15x^3 D^3 + (51x^2 + 10x) D^2 + 29D + \frac{7}{x}
\]

Type: Equation LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

Operations \(\text{rightQuotient}\) and \(\text{rightRemainder}\) are available if only one of the quotient or remainder are of interest to you. This is the quotient from right division.

\[\text{rightQuotient}(a,b)\]

\[
5x D + 7
\]

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

This is the remainder from right division. The corresponding “left” functions \(\text{leftQuotient}\) and \(\text{leftRemainder}\) are also available.

\[\text{rightRemainder}(a,b)\]

\[
10D + \frac{5}{x}
\]
For exact division, the operations \texttt{leftExactQuotient} and \texttt{rightExactQuotient} are supplied. These return the quotient but only if the remainder is zero. The call \texttt{rightExactQuotient(a,b)} would yield an error.

\begin{verbatim}
leftExactQuotient(a,b)
\end{verbatim}

\[
5 x D + 7
\]

Type: Union(LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction
UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer),...)

The division operations allow the computation of left and right greatest common divisors (\texttt{leftGcd} and \texttt{rightGcd}) via remainder sequences, and consequently the computation of left and right least common multiples (\texttt{rightLcm} and \texttt{leftLcm}).

\begin{verbatim}
e := leftGcd(a,b)
\end{verbatim}

\[
3 x^2 D^2 + 2 D + \frac{1}{x}
\]

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction
UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

Note that a greatest common divisor doesn't necessarily divide \texttt{a} and \texttt{b} on both sides. Here the left greatest common divisor does not divide \texttt{a} on the right.

\begin{verbatim}
leftRemainder(a, e)
\end{verbatim}

\[
0
\]

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction
UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

\begin{verbatim}
rightRemainder(a, e)
\end{verbatim}

\[
10 D + \frac{5}{x}
\]

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction
UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)
Similarly, a least common multiple is not necessarily divisible from both sides.

\[ f := \text{rightLcm}(a, b) \]

\[
15x^3 D^3 + (51x^2 + 10x) D^2 + 29D + \frac{7}{x}
\]

Type: \text{LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Integer})

\[ \text{rightRemainder}(f, b) \]

\[
10D + \frac{5}{x}
\]

Type: \text{LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Integer})

\[ \text{leftRemainder}(f, b) \]

\[ 0 \]

Type: \text{LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator1 Fraction UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Integer})

### 9.46 \text{LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator2}

\text{LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator2}(A, M) is the domain of linear ordinary differential operators with coefficients in the differential ring \( A \) and operating on \( M \), an \( A \)-module. This includes the cases of operators which are polynomials in \( D \) acting upon scalar or vector expressions of a single variable. The coefficients of the operator polynomials can be integers, rational functions, matrices or elements of other domains.

#### 9.46.1 Differential Operators with Constant Coefficients

This example shows differential operators with rational number coefficients operating on univariate polynomials.

We begin by making type assignments so we can conveniently refer to univariate polynomials.

\[ Q := \text{Fraction Integer} \]
Fraction Integer

Type: Domain

\[ PQ := \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, Q) \]

\text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Fraction Integer})

Type: Domain

\[ x := PQ := 'x \]

\[ x \]

Type: \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Fraction Integer})

Now we assign \( D_x \) to be the differential operator \( D \) corresponding to \( \frac{d}{dx} \).

\[ D_x := \text{LODO2}(Q, PQ) := D() \]

\[ D \]

Type: \text{LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator2}(\text{Fraction Integer}, \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Fraction Integer}))

New operators are created as polynomials in \( D() \).

\[ a := D_x + 1 \]

\[ D + 1 \]

Type: \text{LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator2}(\text{Fraction Integer}, \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Fraction Integer}))

\[ b := a + \frac{1}{2}D_x^2 - \frac{1}{2} \]

\[ \frac{1}{2}D^2 + D + \frac{1}{2} \]

Type: \text{LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator2}(\text{Fraction Integer}, \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Fraction Integer}))
To apply the operator \( a \) to the value \( p \) the usual function call syntax is used.

\[
p := 4 \cdot x^2 + 2/3
\]

\[
4 \cdot x^2 + \frac{2}{3}
\]

Type: \texttt{UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)}

\[
a \ p
\]

\[
4 \cdot x^2 + 8 \cdot x + \frac{2}{3}
\]

Type: \texttt{UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)}

Operator multiplication is defined by the identity \((a \cdot b) \ p = a \ (b \ (p))\)

\[
(a \cdot b) \ p = a \ b \ p
\]

\[
2 \cdot x^2 + 12 \cdot x + \frac{37}{3} = 2 \cdot x^2 + 12 \cdot x + \frac{37}{3}
\]

Type: \texttt{Equation UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)}

Exponentiation follows from multiplication.

\[
c := (1/9) \cdot b \cdot (a + b)^2
\]

\[
\frac{1}{72} D^6 + \frac{5}{36} D^5 + \frac{13}{24} D^4 + \frac{19}{18} D^3 + \frac{79}{72} D^2 + \frac{7}{12} D + \frac{1}{8}
\]

Type: \texttt{LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator2(Fraction Integer, UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer))}

Finally, note that operator expressions may be applied directly.

\[
(a^2 - 3/4 \cdot b + c) \ (p + 1)
\]

\[
3 \cdot x^2 + \frac{44}{3} \cdot x + \frac{541}{36}
\]

Type: \texttt{UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)}
9.46.2 Differential Operators with Matrix Coefficients Operating on Vectors

This is another example of linear ordinary differential operators with non-commutative multiplication. Unlike the rational function case, the differential ring of square matrices (of a given dimension) with univariate polynomial entries does not form a field. Thus the number of operations available is more limited.

In this section, the operators have three by three matrix coefficients with polynomial entries.

\[
\text{PZ := UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Integer})
\]

\[
\text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Integer})
\]

Type: Domain

\[
x := \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Integer})
\]

\[
x
\]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)

\[
\text{Mat := SquareMatrix}(3, \text{PZ})
\]

\[
\text{SquareMatrix}(3, \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Integer}))
\]

Type: Domain

The operators act on the vectors considered as a Mat-module.

\[
\text{Vect := } \text{DPMM}(3, \text{PZ}, \text{Mat}, \text{PZ})
\]

\[
\text{DirectProductMatrixModule}(3, \\
\text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Integer}), \\
\text{SquareMatrix}(3, \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Integer})), \\
\text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{Integer}))
\]

Type: Domain

\[
\text{Modo := } \text{LODO2}(\text{Mat, Vect})
\]
The matrix $m$ is used as a coefficient and the vectors $p$ and $q$ are operated upon.

$m: \text{Mat} := \text{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} x^2 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & x^4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 4x^2 \end{bmatrix}$

Type: SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer))

$p: \text{Vect} := \text{directProduct} \begin{bmatrix} 3x^2 + 1, 2x, 7x^3 + 2x \end{bmatrix}$

Type: DirectProductMatrixModule(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer), SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)), UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer))

$q: \text{Vect} := m \times p$

$\begin{bmatrix} 3x^4 + x^2 + 2x, 2x^5 + 3x^2 + 1, 28x^5 + 8x^3 \end{bmatrix}$

Type: DirectProductMatrixModule(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer), SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)), UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer))

Now form a few operators.

$Dx : \text{Modo} := D()$
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator2(SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)),
DirectProductMatrixModule(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer),
SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)),
UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)))

a : Modo := Dx + m

\[
D + \begin{bmatrix}
  x^2 & 1 & 0 \\
  1 & x^4 & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & 4x^2
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator2(SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)),
DirectProductMatrixModule(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer),
SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)),
UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)))

b : Modo := m*Dx + 1

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  x^2 & 1 & 0 \\
  1 & x^4 & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & 4x^2
\end{bmatrix} D + \begin{bmatrix}
  1 & 0 & 0 \\
  0 & 1 & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator2(SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)),
DirectProductMatrixModule(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer),
SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)),
UnivariatePolynomial(x, Integer)))

c := a*b

c

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
  x^2 & 1 & 0 \\
  1 & x^4 & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & 4x^2
\end{bmatrix} D^2 + \begin{bmatrix}
  x^4 + 2x + 2 & x^4 + x^2 & 0 \\
  x^4 + x^2 & x^8 + 4x^3 + 2 & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & 16x^4 + 8x + 1
\end{bmatrix} D + \begin{bmatrix}
  x^2 & 1 & 0 \\
  1 & x^4 & 0 \\
  0 & 0 & 4x^2
\end{bmatrix}
\]
These operators can be applied to vector values.

\[ \begin{bmatrix} 3x^4 + x^2 + 8x, 2x^5 + 3x^2 + 3, 28x^5 + 8x^3 + 21x^2 + 2 \end{bmatrix} \]

Type: DirectProductMatrixModule(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer), SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)), UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer))

\[ \begin{bmatrix} 6x^3 + 3x^2 + 3, 2x^4 + 8x, 84x^4 + 7x^3 + 8x^2 + 2x \end{bmatrix} \]

Type: DirectProductMatrixModule(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer), SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)), UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer))

(a + b + c) (p + q)

\[ \begin{bmatrix} 10x^8 + 12x^7 + 16x^6 + 30x^5 + 85x^4 + 94x^3 + 40x^2 + 40x + 17, \\
10x^{12} + 10x^9 + 12x^8 + 92x^7 + 6x^6 + 32x^5 + 72x^4 + 28x^3 + 49x^2 + 32x + 19, \\
2240x^8 + 224x^7 + 1280x^6 + 3508x^5 + 492x^4 + 751x^3 + 98x^2 + 18x + 4 \end{bmatrix} \]

Type: DirectProductMatrixModule(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer), SquareMatrix(3, UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)), UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer))

9.47 List

A is a finite collection of elements in a specified order that can contain duplicates. A list is a convenient structure to work with because it is easy to add or remove
elements and the length need not be constant. There are many different kinds of lists in Axiom, but the default types (and those used most often) are created by the List constructor. For example, there are objects of type \texttt{List Integer}, \texttt{List Float} and \texttt{List Polynomial Fraction Integer}. Indeed, you can even have \texttt{List List List Boolean} (that is, lists of lists of lists of Boolean values). You can have lists of any type of Axiom object.

### 9.47.1 Creating Lists

The easiest way to create a list with, for example, the elements 2, 4, 5, 6 is to enclose the elements with square brackets and separate the elements with commas. The spaces after the commas are optional, but they do improve the readability.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
[2, 4, 5, 6] \\
[2, 4, 5, 6] \\
\text{Type: List PositiveInteger}
\end{array}
\]

To create a list with the single element 1, you can use either \texttt{[1]} or the operation \texttt{list}.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
[1] \\
[1] \\
\text{Type: List PositiveInteger}
\end{array}
\]

\texttt{list(1)}

\[
\begin{array}{c}
[1] \\
\text{Type: List PositiveInteger}
\end{array}
\]

Once created, two lists \(k\) and \(m\) can be concatenated by issuing \texttt{append}(k,m). \texttt{append} does \textit{not} physically join the lists, but rather produces a new list with the elements coming from the two arguments.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\texttt{append([1,2,3],[5,6,7])} \\
[1,2,3,5,6,7]
\end{array}
\]
Type: List PositiveInteger

Use **cons** to append an element onto the front of a list.

`cons(10, [9, 8, 7])`

```
[10, 9, 8, 7]
```

Type: List PositiveInteger

### 9.47.2 Accessing List Elements

To determine whether a list has any elements, use the operation **empty?**.

`empty? [x+1]`

```
false
```

Type: Boolean

Alternatively, equality with the list constant **nil** can be tested.

`([], = nil)`

```
true
```

Type: Boolean

We’ll use this in some of the following examples.

`k := [4, 3, 7, 3, 8, 5, 9, 2]`

```
[4, 3, 7, 3, 8, 5, 9, 2]
```

Type: List PositiveInteger

Each of the next four expressions extracts the **first** element of `k`.

`first k`

```
4
```
The last two forms generalize to $k.i$ and $k(i)$, respectively, where $1 \leq i \leq n$ and $n$ equals the length of $k$.

This length is calculated by “#”.

$n := \#k$

Performing an operation such as $k.i$ is sometimes referred to as \textit{indexing into $k$} or \textit{elting into $k$}. The latter phrase comes about because the name of the operation that extracts elements is called \texttt{elt}. That is, $k.3$ is just alternative syntax for \texttt{elt(k,3)}. It is important to remember that list indices begin with 1. If we issue $k := [1,3,2,9,5]$ then $k.4$ returns 9. It is an error to use an index that is not in the range from 1 to the length of the list.

The last element of a list is extracted by any of the following three expressions.
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This form computes the index of the last element and then extracts the element from the list.

\[ k.(\#k) \]

Type: PositiveInteger

9.47.3 Changing List Elements

We’ll use this in some of the following examples.

\[ k := [4,3,7,3,8,5,9,2] \]

\[ [4,3,7,3,8,5,9,2] \]

Type: List PositiveInteger

List elements are reset by using the \( k.i \) form on the left-hand side of an assignment. This expression resets the first element of \( k \) to 999.

\[ k.1 := 999 \]

999

Type: PositiveInteger

As with indexing into a list, it is an error to use an index that is not within the proper bounds. Here you see that \( k \) was modified.
The operation that performs the assignment of an element to a particular position in a list is called \texttt{setelt}. This operation is \textit{destructive} in that it changes the list. In the above example, the assignment returned the value 999 and \texttt{k} was modified. For this reason, lists are called objects: it is possible to change part of a list (mutate it) rather than always returning a new list reflecting the intended modifications. Moreover, since lists can share structure, changes to one list can sometimes affect others.

\begin{verbatim}
 k := [1,2]

 [1,2]

 Type: List PositiveInteger

 m := cons(0,k)

 [0,1,2]

 Type: List Integer

 Change the second element of \texttt{m}.

 m.2 := 99

 99

 Type: PositiveInteger

 See, \texttt{m} was altered.

 m

 [0,99,2]

 Type: List Integer
\end{verbatim}
But what about $k$? It changed too!

\[ k \]

\[ [99, 2] \]

\textbf{Type: List PositiveInteger}

### 9.47.4 Other Functions

An operation that is used frequently in list processing is that which returns all elements in a list after the first element.

\[ k := [1, 2, 3] \]

\[ [1, 2, 3] \]

\textbf{Type: List PositiveInteger}

Use the \texttt{rest} operation to do this.

\[ \text{rest } k \]

\[ [2, 3] \]

\textbf{Type: List PositiveInteger}

To remove duplicate elements in a list $k$, use \texttt{removeDuplicates}.

\[ \text{removeDuplicates } [4, 3, 4, 3, 5, 3, 4] \]

\[ [4, 3, 5] \]

\textbf{Type: List PositiveInteger}

To get a list with elements in the order opposite to those in a list $k$, use \texttt{reverse}.

\[ \text{reverse } [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6] \]

\[ [6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1] \]
To test whether an element is in a list, use member?: member?(a,k) returns true or false depending on whether a is in k or not.

member?(1/2,[3/4,5/6,1/2])

true

Type: Boolean

member?(1/12,[3/4,5/6,1/2])

false

Type: Boolean

As an exercise, the reader should determine how to get a list containing all but the last of the elements in a given non-empty list k.\footnote{reverse(rest(reverse(k))) works.}

### 9.47.5 Dot, Dot

Certain lists are used so often that Axiom provides an easy way of constructing them. If n and m are integers, then expand [n..m] creates a list containing n, n+1, ..., m. If n > m then the list is empty. It is actually permissible to leave off the m in the dot-dot construction (see below).

The dot-dot notation can be used more than once in a list construction and with specific elements being given. Items separated by dots are called segments.

\[
[1..3,10,20..23]
\]

\[
[1..3,10..10,20..23]
\]

Type: List Segment PositiveInteger

Segments can be expanded into the range of items between the endpoints by using expand.

expand [1..3,10,20..23]
[1, 2, 3, 10, 20, 21, 22, 23]

Type: List Integer

What happens if we leave off a number on the right-hand side of “..”?

expand [1..]

[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, ...]

Type: Stream Integer

What is created in this case is a Stream which is a generalization of a list. See 9.76 on page 790 for more information.

9.48 LyndonWord

Initialisations

a: Symbol := 'a

Type: Symbol

b: Symbol := 'b

Type: Symbol

c: Symbol := 'c

Type: Symbol

lword := LyndonWord(Symbol)

LyndonWord Symbol
magma := Magma(Symbol)

\textbf{Magma Symbol}

\textbf{Type: Domain}

\textbf{word := OrderedFreeMonoid(Symbol)}

\textbf{OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol}

\textbf{Type: Domain}

All Lyndon words of with \texttt{a, b, c} to order 3

\texttt{LyndonWordsList1([a,b,c],3)$lword}

\begin{align*}
&\{[[a],[b],[c]], [[a b],[a c],[b c]], \\
&[a^2 b], [a^2 c], [a b^2], [a b c], [a c b], [a c^2], [b^2 c], [b c^2]\}\}
\end{align*}

\textbf{Type: OneDimensionalArray List LyndonWord Symbol}

All Lyndon words of with \texttt{a, b, c} to order 3 in flat list

\texttt{LyndonWordsList([a,b,c],3)$lword}

\begin{align*}
&\{[a],[b],[c],[a b],[a c],[b c],[a^2 b], [a^2 c], [a b^2], \\
&[a b c],[a c b],[a c^2],[b^2 c],[b c^2]\}\}
\end{align*}

\textbf{Type: List LyndonWord Symbol}

All Lyndon words of with \texttt{a, b} to order 5

\texttt{lw := LyndonWordsList([a,b],5)$lword}

\begin{align*}
&\{[a],[b],[a b],[a^2 b],[a b^2],[a^3 b],[a^2 b^2],[a b^3],[a^4 b], \\
&a^3 b^2],[a^2 b a b],[a^2 b^3],[a b a b^2],[a b^4]\}\}
\end{align*}
Let's try factoring

factor(a::word)$lword

\[[a]\]

Type: List LyndonWord Symbol

factor(w1*w2)$lword

\[[a^2 b a b^2]\]

Type: List LyndonWord Symbol

factor(w2*w2)$lword

\[[a b^2, a b^2]\]

Type: List LyndonWord Symbol

factor(w2*w1)$lword

\[[a b^2, a^2 b]\]

Type: List LyndonWord Symbol
Checks and coercions

lyndon?(w1)$lword

true

Type: Boolean

lyndon?(w1*w2)$lword

true

Type: Boolean

lyndon?(w2*w1)$lword

false

Type: Boolean

lyndonIfCan(w1)$lword

$[a^2 b]$  

Type: Union(LyndonWord Symbol,...)

lyndonIfCan(w2*w1)$lword

"failed"

Type: Union("failed",...)

lyndon(w1)$lword

$[a^2 b]$  

Type: LyndonWord Symbol

lyndon(w1*w2)$lword

$[a^2 b a b^2]$  

Type: LyndonWord Symbol
9.49 Magma

Initialisations

\[x: \text{Symbol} := 'x\]

\[x\]

Type: Symbol

\[y: \text{Symbol} := 'y\]

\[y\]

Type: Symbol

\[z: \text{Symbol} := 'z\]

\[z\]

Type: Symbol

\[\text{word} := \text{OrderedFreeMonoid}('\text{Symbol}')\]

OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol

Type: Domain

\[\text{tree} := \text{Magma}('\text{Symbol}')\]

Magma Symbol

Type: Domain

Let's make some trees

\[a: \text{tree} := x \times x\]

\[[x,x]\]
b:tree := y*y

[y,y]

Type: Magma Symbol

c:tree := a*b

[[x,x],[y,y]]

Type: Magma Symbol

Query the trees

left c

[x,x]

Type: Magma Symbol

right c

[y,y]

Type: Magma Symbol

length c

4

Type: PositiveInteger

Coerce to the monoid

c::word

x^2 y^2
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Type: OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol

Check ordering

a < b

true

Type: Boolean

a < c

true

Type: Boolean

b < c

true

Type: Boolean

Navigate the tree

first c

x

Type: Symbol

rest c

[x, [y, y]]

Type: Magma Symbol

rest rest c

[y, y]
Check ordering

ax:tree := a*x

[[x,x],x]

Type: Magma Symbol

xa:tree := x*a

[x,[x,x]]

Type: Magma Symbol

xa < ax

true

Type: Boolean

lexico(xa,ax)

false

Type: Boolean

9.50 MakeFunction

It is sometimes useful to be able to define a function given by the result of a calculation. Suppose that you have obtained the following expression after several computations and that you now want to tabulate the numerical values of \( f \) for \( x \) between \(-1\) and \(+1\) with increment 0.1.

\[
expr := (x - \exp x + 1)^{2} \times (\sin(x^{2}) \times x + 1)^{3}
\]
You could, of course, use the function `eval` within a loop and evaluate `expr` twenty-one times, but this would be quite slow. A better way is to create a numerical function $f$ such that $f(x)$ is defined by the expression `expr` above, but without retyping `expr`!

The package `MakeFunction` provides the operation `function` which does exactly this.

Issue this to create the function $f(x)$ given by `expr`.

```lisp
function(expr, f, x)
```

$f$

Type: Symbol

To tabulate `expr`, we can now quickly evaluate $f$ 21 times.

```lisp
tbl := [f(0.1 * i - 1) for i in 0..20];
```

```
[0.0005391844 0362701574, 0.0039657551 1844206653, 0.0088541874833983689, 2, 0.0116524883 0907069695, 0.0108618220 9245751364 5, 0.0076366823 2120869665 06, 0.0040584985 7597822062 55, 0.0015349542 8910500836 48, 0.00034249031549879905 716, 0.0000268186 8782625994229, 0.0046915713720051642 621, 0.0026924576 5968519586 08, 0.0104868817369135148 8, 0.0313833725 8543810564 3, 0.0876991144 5154615297 9, 0.2313019789 3439968362, 0.584374955 958098772, 1.4114930171 992819197, 3.2216948276 75164252]
```

Type: List Float

Use the list `$[x1, \ldots, xn]$` as the third argument to `function` to create a multivariate function $f(x1, \ldots, xn)$. 
\[ e := (x - y + 1)^2 \cdot (x^2 + y + 1)^2 \]
\[
x^4 y^4 + (-2 x^5 - 2 x^4 + 2 x^2) y^3 + (x^6 + 2 x^5 + x^4 - 4 x^3 - 4 x^2 + 1) y^2 + (2 x^4 + 4 x^3 + 2 x^2 - 2 x - 2) y + x^2 + 2 x + 1
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

\[
\text{function}(e, g, [x, y])
\]

\[ g \]

Type: Symbol

In the case of just two variables, they can be given as arguments without making them into a list.

\[
\text{function}(e, h, x, y)
\]

\[ h \]

Type: Symbol

Note that the functions created by \texttt{function} are not limited to floating point numbers, but can be applied to any type for which they are defined.

\[
m1 := \text{squareMatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2, Integer)

\[
m2 := \text{squareMatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2, Integer)

\[
h(m1, m2)
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix} -7836 & 8960 \\ -17132 & 19588 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2, Integer)

For more information, see ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??.
9.51 MappingPackage1

Function are objects of type Mapping. In this section we demonstrate some library operations from the packages MappingPackage1, MappingPackage2, and MappingPackage3 that manipulate and create functions. Some terminology: a nullary function takes no arguments, a unary function takes one argument, and a binary function takes two arguments.

We begin by creating an example function that raises a rational number to an integer exponent.

\[
power(q: \text{FRAC INT}, n: \text{INT}) : \text{FRAC INT} = q^n
\]

Function declaration power : (Fraction Integer, Integer) -> Fraction Integer has been added to workspace.

Void

\[
power(2, 3)
\]

Compiling function power with type (Fraction Integer, Integer) -> Fraction Integer

\[
8
\]

Type: Fraction Integer

The twist operation transposes the arguments of a binary function. Here rewop(a, b) is power(b, a).

\[
rewop := \text{twist power}
\]

\[
\text{theMap}(...)\]

Type: ((Integer, Fraction Integer) -> Fraction Integer)

This is 2^3.

\[
rewop(3, 2)
\]

\[
8
\]
Now we define `square` in terms of `power`.

\[
square : \text{FRAC INT} \rightarrow \text{FRAC INT}
\]

The `curryRight` operation creates a unary function from a binary one by providing a constant argument on the right.

\[
square := \text{curryRight} (\text{power}, 2)
\]

\[
\text{theMap(...)}
\]

Type: \((\text{Fraction Integer} \rightarrow \text{Fraction Integer})\)

Likewise, the `curryLeft` operation provides a constant argument on the left.

\[
square 4
\]

16

Type: \(\text{Fraction Integer}\)

The `constantRight` operation creates (in a trivial way) a binary function from a unary one: \(\text{constantRight}(f)\) is the function \(g\) such that \(g(a, b) = f(a)\).

\[
squirrel := \text{constantRight}(\text{square}) \text{\$MAPKG3}\text{(FRAC INT,FRAC INT,FRAC INT)}
\]

\[
\text{theMap(...)}
\]

Type: \(((\text{Fraction Integer},\text{Fraction Integer}) \rightarrow \text{Fraction Integer})\)

Likewise, \(\text{constantLeft}(f)\) is the function \(g\) such that \(g(a, b) = f(b)\).

\[
squirrel(1/2, 1/3)
\]

\[
\frac{1}{4}
\]
The curry operation makes a unary function nullary.

\[
\text{sixteen} := \text{curry} (\text{square}, \frac{4}{1})
\]

\[
\text{theMap(...)}
\]

\[
\text{sixteen()}
\]

16

The "*" operation constructs composed functions.

\[
\text{square2} := \text{square} \ast \text{square}
\]

\[
\text{theMap(...)}
\]

\[
\text{square2 3}
\]

81

Use the "**" operation to create functions that are \( n \)-fold iterations of other functions.

\[
\text{sc} (x: \text{FRAC INT}) : \text{FRAC INT} \Rightarrow x + 1
\]

Function declaration sc : Fraction Integer ->

Fraction Integer has been added to workspace.

Void

This is a list of Mapping objects.
incfns := [sc**i for i in 0..10]

[theMap(...), theMap(...), theMap(...), theMap(...), theMap(...),
 theMap(...), theMap(...), theMap(...), theMap(...), theMap(...)]

Type: List (Fraction Integer -> Fraction Integer)

This is a list of applications of those functions.

[f 4 for f in incfns]

[4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14]

Type: List Fraction Integer

Use the recur operation for recursion:

g := recur f means g(n, x) == f(n, f(n-1, ...f(1, x))).

times(n:NNI, i:INT):INT == n*i

Function declaration times : (NonNegativeInteger, Integer) ->
    Integer has been added to workspace.

    Void

r := recur(times)

theMap(...)

Type: ((NonNegativeInteger, Integer) -> Integer)

This is a factorial function.

fact := curryRight(r, 1)

theMap(...)

Type: (NonNegativeInteger -> Integer)

fact 4
Constructed functions can be used within other functions.

```lisp
mto2ton(m, n) ==
    raiser := square**n
    raiser m

Void

This is $3^3$.

mto2ton(3, 3)

Compiling function mto2ton with type (PositiveInteger, PositiveInteger) -> Fraction Integer

6561

Type: Fraction Integer

Here `shiftfib` is a unary function that modifies its argument.

```lisp
shiftfib(r: List INT) : INT ==
    t := r.1
    r.1 := r.2
    r.2 := r.2 + t
    t

Function declaration shiftfib : List Integer -> Integer
    has been added to workspace.

Void

By currying over the argument we get a function with private state.

```lisp
fibinit: List INT := [0, 1]```

[0, 1]
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686

Type: List Integer

fibs := curry(shiftfib, fibinit)

theMap(...)

Type: (() -> Integer)

[fibs() for i in 0..30]

[0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610, 987, 1597,
2584, 4181, 6765, 10946, 17711, 28657, 46368, 75025, 121393, 196418,
317811, 514229, 832040]

Type: List Integer

9.52 Matrix

The Matrix domain provides arithmetic operations on matrices and standard functions from linear algebra. This domain is similar to the TwoDimensionalArray domain, except that the entries for Matrix must belong to a Ring.

9.52.1 Creating Matrices

There are many ways to create a matrix from a collection of values or from existing matrices.

If the matrix has almost all items equal to the same value, use new to create a matrix filled with that value and then reset the entries that are different.

m : Matrix(Integer) := new(3,3,0)

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

To change the entry in the second row, third column to 5, use setelt.

setelt(m,2,3,5)
5

Type: PositiveInteger

An alternative syntax is to use assignment.

\( m(1,2) := 10 \)

10

Type: PositiveInteger

The matrix was *destructively modified*.

\[
m = \begin{bmatrix}
0 & 10 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 5 \\
0 & 0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

If you already have the matrix entries as a list of lists, use `matrix`.

\[
\text{matrix} \left[ \left[ 1, 2, 3, 4 \right], \left[ 0, 9, 8, 7 \right] \right]
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\
0 & 9 & 8 & 7
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

If the matrix is diagonal, use `diagonalMatrix`.

\[
\text{dm} := \text{diagonalMatrix} \left[ 1, x^2, x^3, x^4, x^5 \right]
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & x^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & x^3 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & x^4 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & x^5
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Polynomial Integer
Use `setRow` and `setColumn` to change a row or column of a matrix.

```plaintext
setRow!(dm, 5, vector [1, 1, 1, 1, 1])

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & x^2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & x^3 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & x^4 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Polynomial Integer

setColumn!(dm, 2, vector [y, y, y, y, y])

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & y & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & y & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & y & x^3 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & y & 0 & x^4 & 0 \\
1 & y & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Polynomial Integer

Use `copy` to make a copy of a matrix.

```plaintext
cdm := copy(dm)
```

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & y & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & y & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & y & x^3 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & y & 0 & x^4 & 0 \\
1 & y & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Polynomial Integer

This is useful if you intend to modify a matrix destructively but want a copy of the original.

```plaintext
setelt(dm, 4, 1, 1-x**7)
```

\[-x^7 + 1\]

Type: Polynomial Integer
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[[dm, cdm]]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & y & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & y & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & y & x^3 & 0 & 0 \\
-x^7 + 1 & y & 0 & x^4 & 0 \\
1 & y & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & y & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & y & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & y & x^3 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & y & 0 & x^4 & 0 \\
1 & y & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List Matrix Polynomial Integer

Use **subMatrix** to extract part of an existing matrix. The syntax is \texttt{subMatrix(m, firstrow, lastrow, firstcol, lastcol)}.

\texttt{subMatrix(dm, 2, 3, 2, 4)}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
y & 0 & 0 \\
y & x^3 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Polynomial Integer

To change a submatrix, use **setsubMatrix**.

\texttt{d := diagonalMatrix [1.2, -1.3, 1.4, -1.5]}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1.2 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & -1.3 & 0.0 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 1.4 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & -1.5
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Float

If \texttt{e} is too big to fit where you specify, an error message is displayed. Use **subMatrix** to extract part of \texttt{e}, if necessary.

\texttt{e := matrix \{[6.7, 9.11], [-31.33, 67.19] \}}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
6.7 & 9.11 \\
-31.33 & 67.19
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Float

This changes the submatrix of \texttt{d} whose upper left corner is at the first row and second column and whose size is that of \texttt{e}.
setsubMatrix!(d,1,2,e)

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1.2 & 6.7 & 9.11 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & -31.33 & 67.19 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 1.4 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & -1.5
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Float

d

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1.2 & 6.7 & 9.11 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & -31.33 & 67.19 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 1.4 & 0.0 \\
0.0 & 0.0 & 0.0 & -1.5
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Float

Matrices can be joined either horizontally or vertically to make new matrices.

\[
a := \text{matrix } \begin{bmatrix} [1/2,1/3,1/4],[1/5,1/6,1/7] \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} \\
\frac{1}{5} & \frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{7}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Fraction Integer

\[
b := \text{matrix } \begin{bmatrix} [3/5,3/7,3/11],[3/13,3/17,3/19] \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{3}{5} & \frac{3}{7} & \frac{3}{11} \\
\frac{3}{13} & \frac{3}{17} & \frac{3}{19}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Fraction Integer

Use horizConcat to append them side to side. The two matrices must have the same number of rows.

\[
\text{horizConcat}(a,b)
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{3}{5} & \frac{3}{7} & \frac{3}{13} & \frac{3}{17} & \frac{3}{19}
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Use \texttt{vertConcat} to stack one upon the other. The two matrices must have the same number of columns.

\begin{align*}
\texttt{vab := vertConcat(a,b)}
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 1 & 1 \\
2 & 4 & 7 \\
1 & 3 & 11
\end{bmatrix}
\end{align*}

Type: Matrix Fraction Integer

The operation \texttt{transpose} is used to create a new matrix by reflection across the main diagonal.

\begin{align*}
\texttt{transpose vab}
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 & 1 \\
1 & 5 & 3 \\
1 & 7 & 11
\end{bmatrix}
\end{align*}

Type: Matrix Fraction Integer

\section*{9.52.2 Operations on Matrices}

Axiom provides both left and right scalar multiplication.

\begin{align*}
\texttt{m := matrix [ [1,2],[3,4] ]}
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
3 & 4
\end{bmatrix}
\end{align*}

Type: Matrix Integer

\begin{align*}
\texttt{4 * m * (-5)}
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
\begin{bmatrix}
-20 & -40 \\
-60 & -80
\end{bmatrix}
\end{align*}

Type: Matrix Integer
You can add, subtract, and multiply matrices provided, of course, that the matrices have compatible dimensions. If not, an error message is displayed.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & -2 \\
-3 & 5 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

This following product is defined but \( n * m \) is not.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
-5 & 10 & 0 \\
-9 & 20 & -2
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

The operations \texttt{nrows} and \texttt{ncols} return the number of rows and columns of a matrix. You can extract a row or a column of a matrix using the operations \texttt{row} and \texttt{column}. The object returned is a \texttt{Vector}.

Here is the third column of the matrix \( n \).

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
-2 \\
1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Vector Integer

You can multiply a matrix on the left by a “row vector” and on the right by a “column vector.”

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 \\
0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Vector Integer

Of course, the dimensions of the vector and the matrix must be compatible or an error message is returned.
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\[ [0, -2] \]

Type: Vector Integer

The operation \texttt{inverse} computes the inverse of a matrix if the matrix is invertible, and returns "failed" if not.

This Hilbert matrix is invertible.

\[
\text{hilb} := \text{matrix}([ [1/(i + j) \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..3] \text{ for } j \text{ in } 1..3])
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{1}{1} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} \\
\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} \\
\frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Fraction Integer

\[
\text{inverse(hilb)}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
72 & -240 & 180 \\
-240 & 900 & -720 \\
180 & -720 & 600
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Union(Matrix Fraction Integer, ...)

This matrix is not invertible.

\[
\text{mm} := \text{matrix}([ [1,2,3,4], [5,6,7,8], [9,10,11,12], [13,14,15,16] ])
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\
5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\
9 & 10 & 11 & 12 \\
13 & 14 & 15 & 16
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

\[
\text{inverse(mm)}
\]

"failed"

Type: Union("failed", ...)

The operation **determinant** computes the determinant of a matrix provided that the entries of the matrix belong to a *CommutativeRing*.

The above matrix \( \text{mm} \) is not invertible and, hence, must have determinant 0.

\[
\text{determinant(\text{mm})}
\]

0

Type: NonNegativeInteger

The operation **trace** computes the trace of a *square* matrix.

\[
\text{trace(\text{mm})}
\]

34

Type: PositiveInteger

The operation **rank** computes the *rank* of a matrix: the maximal number of linearly independent rows or columns.

\[
\text{rank(\text{mm})}
\]

2

Type: PositiveInteger

The operation **nullity** computes the *nullity* of a matrix: the dimension of its null space.

\[
\text{nullity(\text{mm})}
\]

2

Type: PositiveInteger

The operation **nullSpace** returns a list containing a basis for the null space of a matrix. Note that the nullity is the number of elements in a basis for the null space.

\[
\text{nullSpace(\text{mm})}
\]

\[
[[1, -2, 1, 0], [2, -3, 0, 1]]
\]
The operation \texttt{rowEchelon} returns the row echelon form of a matrix. It is easy to see that the rank of this matrix is two and that its nullity is also two.

\texttt{rowEchelon(mm)}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\
0 & 4 & 8 & 12 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Integer

For more information on related topics, see ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, 9.62 on page 722, 9.85 on page 825, 9.57 on page 704, and 9.82 on page 811.

\subsection{9.53 MultiSet}

The domain \texttt{Multiset(R)} is similar to \texttt{Set(R)} except that multiplicities (counts of duplications) are maintained and displayed. Use the operation \texttt{multiset} to create multisets from lists. All the standard operations from sets are available for multisets. An element with multiplicity greater than one has the multiplicity displayed first, then a colon, and then the element.

Create a multiset of integers.

\texttt{s := multiset [1,2,3,4,5,4,3,2,3,4,5,6,7,4,10]}

\{7,2: 5,3: 3,1,10,6,4: 4,2: 2\}

Type: Multiset PositiveInteger

The operation \texttt{insert!} adds an element to a multiset.

\texttt{insert!(3,s)}

\{7,2: 5,4: 3,1,10,6,4: 4,2: 2\}

Type: Multiset PositiveInteger
Use \texttt{remove!} to remove an element. If a third argument is present, it specifies how many instances to remove. Otherwise all instances of the element are removed. Display the resulting multiset.

\begin{verbatim}
remove!(3,s,1); s
{7,2: 5,3: 3,1,10,6,4: 4,2: 2}
Type: Multiset PositiveInteger
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
remove!(5,s); s
{7,3: 3,1,10,6,4: 4,2: 2}
Type: Multiset PositiveInteger
\end{verbatim}

The operation \texttt{count} returns the number of copies of a given value.

\begin{verbatim}
count(5,s)
0
Type: NonNegativeInteger
\end{verbatim}

A second multiset.

\begin{verbatim}
t := multiset [2,2,2,-9]
{−9,3: 2}
Type: Multiset Integer
\end{verbatim}

The union of two multisets is additive.

\begin{verbatim}
U := union(s,t)
{7,3: 3,1,−9,10,6,4: 4,5: 2}
Type: Multiset Integer
\end{verbatim}

The intersect operation gives the elements that are in common, with additive multiplicity.
I := intersect(s,t)

\{5: 2\}

Type: Multiset Integer

The difference of $s$ and $t$ consists of the elements that $s$ has but $t$ does not. Elements are regarded as indistinguishable, so that if $s$ and $t$ have any element in common, the difference does not contain that element.

difference(s,t)

\{7, 3: 1, 10, 6, 4: 4\}

Type: Multiset Integer

The symmetricDifference is the union of difference(s, t) and difference(t, s).

S := symmetricDifference(s,t)

\{7, 3: 1, −9, 10, 6, 4: 4\}

Type: Multiset Integer

Check that the union of the symmetricDifference and the intersect equals the union of the elements.

(U = union(S,I))@Boolean

true

Type: Boolean

Check some inclusion relations.

t1 := multiset [1,2,2,3]; [t1 < t, t1 < s, t < s, t1 <= s]

[false, true, false, true]

Type: List Boolean
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

9.54 MultivariatePolynomial

The domain constructor MultivariatePolynomial is similar to Polynomial except that it specifies the variables to be used. Polynomial are available for MultivariatePolynomial. The abbreviation for MultivariatePolynomial is MPOLY. The type expressions

```
MultivariatePolynomial([x,y],Integer)
```

and

```
MPOLY([x,y],INT)
```

refer to the domain of multivariate polynomials in the variables \(x\) and \(y\) where the coefficients are restricted to be integers. The first variable specified is the main variable and the display of the polynomial reflects this.

This polynomial appears with terms in descending powers of the variable \(x\).

```plaintext
m : MPOLY([x,y],INT) := (x**2 - x*y**3 +3*y)**2
```

\[x^4 - 2y^3x^3 + (y^6 + 6y^3)x^2 - 6y^4x + 9y^2\]

Type: MultivariatePolynomial([x,y],Integer)

It is easy to see a different variable ordering by doing a conversion.

```plaintext
m :: MPOLY([y,x],INT)
```

\[x^2y^6 - 6xy^4 - 2x^3y^3 + 9y^2 + 6x^2y + x^4\]

Type: MultivariatePolynomial([y,x],Integer)

You can use other, unspecified variables, by using Polynomial in the coefficient type of MPOLY.

```plaintext
p : MPOLY([x,y],POLY INT)
```

```
Void
```

```
p := (a**2*x - b*y**2 + 1)**2
```

\[a^4x^2 + (-2a^2by^2 + 2a^2)x + b^2y^4 - 2by^2 + 1\]

Type: MultivariatePolynomial([x,y],Polynomial Integer)
Conversions can be used to re-express such polynomials in terms of the other variables. For example, you can first push all the variables into a polynomial with integer coefficients.

\[ p :: \text{POLY INT} \]

\[ b^2 y^4 + (-2 a^2 b x - 2 b) y^2 + a^4 x^2 + 2 a^2 x + 1 \]

Type: Polynomial Integer

Now pull out the variables of interest.

\[ % :: \text{MPOLY([a,b],POLY INT)} \]

\[ x^2 a^4 + (-2 x y^2 b + 2 x) a^2 + y^4 b^2 - 2 y^2 b + 1 \]

Type: MultivariatePolynomial([a,b],Polynomial Integer)

**Restriction:**

Axiom does not allow you to create types where MultivariatePolynomial is contained in the coefficient type of Polynomial. Therefore, MPOLY([x,y],POLY INT) is legal but POLY MPOLY([x,y],INT) is not.

Multivariate polynomials may be combined with univariate polynomials to create types with special structures.

\[ q : \text{UP(x, FRAC MPOLY([y,z],INT))} \]

This is a polynomial in \( x \) whose coefficients are quotients of polynomials in \( y \) and \( z \).

\[ q := (x^2 - x*(z+1)/y +2)^2 \]

\[ x^4 + \frac{-2 z - 2}{y} x^3 + \frac{4 y^2 + z^2 + 2 z + 1}{y^2} x^2 + \frac{-4 z - 4}{y} x + 4 \]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction MultivariatePolynomial([y,z],Integer))
Use conversions for structural rearrangements. $z$ does not appear in a denominator and so it can be made the main variable.

$$q :: \text{UP}(z, \text{FRAC}\ \text{MPOLY}([x,y],\text{INT}))$$

$$\frac{x^2}{y^2} z^2 + \frac{-2 y x^3 + 2 x^2 - 4 y x}{y^2} z + \frac{y^2 x^4 - 2 y x^3 + (4 y^2 + 1) x^2 - 4 y x + 4 y^2}{y^2}$$

Type: \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(z,\text{Fraction}\ \text{MultivariatePolynomial}([x,y],\text{Integer}))

Or you can make a multivariate polynomial in $x$ and $z$ whose coefficients are fractions in polynomials in $y$.

$$q :: \text{MPOLY}([x,z], \text{FRAC}\ \text{UP}(y,\text{INT}))$$

$$x^4 + \left(-\frac{2}{y} z - \frac{2}{y}\right) x^3 + \left(\frac{1}{y^2} z^2 + \frac{2}{y^2} z + \frac{4 y^2 + 1}{y^2}\right) x^2 +$$

$$\left(-\frac{4}{y} z - \frac{4}{y}\right) x + 4$$

Type: \text{MultivariatePolynomial}([x,z],\text{Fraction}\ \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(y,\text{Integer}))

A conversion like $q :: \text{MPOLY}([x,y], \text{FRAC}\ \text{UP}(z,\text{INT}))$ is not possible in this example because $y$ appears in the denominator of a fraction. As you can see, Axiom provides extraordinary flexibility in the manipulation and display of expressions via its conversion facility.

For more information on related topics, see 9.63 on page 723, 9.83 on page 815, and 9.16 on page 518.

### 9.55 None

The None domain is not very useful for interactive work but it is provided nevertheless for completeness of the Axiom type system.

Probably the only place you will ever see it is if you enter an empty list with no type information.

[ ]
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Such an empty list can be converted into an empty list of any other type.

\[
\text{[ ] :: List Float}
\]

\[
[ ]
\]

Type: List Float

If you wish to produce an empty list of a particular type directly, such as \text{List NonNegativeInteger}, do it this way.

\[
\text{[ ]$\text{List(NonNegativeInteger)}$
\]

\[
[ ]
\]

Type: List NonNegativeInteger

9.56 Octonion

The Octonions, also called the Cayley-Dixon algebra, defined over a commutative ring are an eight-dimensional non-associative algebra. Their construction from quaternions is similar to the construction of quaternions from complex numbers (see 9.64 on page 734).

As \text{Octonion} creates an eight-dimensional algebra, you have to give eight components to construct an octonion.

\[
\text{o01 := octon(1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8)}
\]

\[
1+2\,i+3\,j+4\,k+5\,E+6\,I+7\,J+8\,K
\]

Type: Octonion Integer

\[
\text{o02 := octon(7,2,3,-4,5,6,-7,0)}
\]

\[
7+2\,i+3\,j-4\,k+5\,E+6\,I-7\,J
\]

Type: Octonion Integer
Or you can use two quaternions to create an octonion.

\[
\text{oci3 := octon(\text{quatern(-7,-12,3,-10), quatern(5,6,9,0)})}
\]

\[
-7 - 12 i + 3 j - 10 k + 5 E + 6 I + 9 J
\]

Type: Octonion Integer

You can easily demonstrate the non-associativity of multiplication.

\[
(\text{oci1 * oci2}) * \text{oci3} - \text{oci1} * (\text{oci2 * oci3})
\]

\[
2696 i - 2928 j - 4072 k + 16 E - 1192 I + 832 J + 2616 K
\]

Type: Octonion Integer

As with the quaternions, we have a real part, the imaginary parts \(i, j, k\), and four additional imaginary parts \(E, I, J\) and \(K\). These parts correspond to the canonical basis \((1, i, j, k, E, I, J, K)\).

For each basis element there is a component operation to extract the coefficient of the basis element for a given octonion.

\[
[\text{real oci1, imagi oci1, imagj oci1, imagk oci1, imagE oci1, imagI oci1, imagJ oci1, imagK oci1}]
\]

\[
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8]
\]

Type: List PositiveInteger

A basis with respect to the quaternions is given by \((1, E)\). However, you might ask, what then are the commuting rules? To answer this, we create some generic elements.

We do this in Axiom by simply changing the ground ring from \text{Integer} to \text{Polynomial Integer}.

\[
\text{q : Quaternion Polynomial Integer := quatern(q1, qi, qj, qk)}
\]

\[
q1 + qi i + qj j + qk k
\]

Type: Quaternion Polynomial Integer

\[
\text{E : Octonion Polynomial Integer := octon(0,0,0,1,0,0,0,0)}
\]
E
Type: Octonion Polynomial Integer

Note that quaternions are automatically converted to octonions in the obvious way.

\[ q \ast E \]

\[ q1 \ast E + q1 i + q1 j + q1 k \]
Type: Octonion Polynomial Integer

E \ast q

\[ q1 \ast E - q1 i - q1 j - q1 k \]
Type: Octonion Polynomial Integer

q \ast 1\$(Octonion Polynomial Integer)

\[ q1 + qi i + qj j + qk k \]
Type: Octonion Polynomial Integer

1\$(Octonion Polynomial Integer) \ast q

\[ q1 + qi i + qj j + qk k \]
Type: Octonion Polynomial Integer

Finally, we check that the norm, defined as the sum of the squares of the coefficients, is a multiplicative map.

\[ o : Octonion Polynomial Integer := octon(o1, o1, oj, ok, oE, oI, oJ, oK) \]

\[ o1 + o1 i + o1 j + o1 k + oE E + oI I + oJ J + oK K \]
Type: Octonion Polynomial Integer
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Since the result is 0, the norm is multiplicative.

\[ \text{norm}(o \cdot p) - \text{norm}(p) \cdot \text{norm}(o) \]

0

Type: Polynomial Integer

9.57 OneDimensionalArray

The OneDimensionalArray domain is used for storing data in a one-dimensional indexed data structure. Such an array is a homogeneous data structure in that all the entries of the array must belong to the same Axiom domain. Each array has a fixed length specified by the user and arrays are not extensible. The indexing of one-dimensional arrays is one-based. This means that the “first” element of an array is given the index 1. See also 9.85 on page 825 and 9.26 on page 549.

To create a one-dimensional array, apply the operation oneDimensionalArray to a list.

oneDimensionalArray [i**2 for i in 1..10]

[1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100]

Type: OneDimensionalArray PositiveInteger

Another approach is to first create a, a one-dimensional array of 10 0’s. OneDimensionalArray has the convenient abbreviation ARRAY1.
a : ARRAY1 INT := new(10,0)

[0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0]

Type: OneDimensionalArray Integer

Set each \(i\)th element to \(i\), then display the result.

for i in 1..10 repeat a.i := i; a

[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]

Type: OneDimensionalArray Integer

Square each element by mapping the function \(i \mapsto i^2\) onto each element.

map!(i +-> i ** 2,a); a

[1,4,9,16,25,36,49,64,81,100]

Type: OneDimensionalArray Integer

Reverse the elements in place.

reverse! a

[100,81,64,49,36,25,16,9,4,1]

Type: OneDimensionalArray Integer

Swap the 4th and 5th element.

swap!(a,4,5); a

[100,81,64,36,49,25,16,9,4,1]

Type: OneDimensionalArray Integer

Sort the elements in place.

sort! a
Create a new one-dimensional array \( b \) containing the last 5 elements of \( a \). 

\[
b := a(6..10)
\]

\[
[36, 49, 64, 81, 100]
\]

Type: OneDimensionalArray Integer

Replace the first 5 elements of \( a \) with those of \( b \).

\[
\text{copyInto!}(a, b, 1)
\]

\[
[36, 49, 64, 81, 100, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100]
\]

Type: OneDimensionalArray Integer

\section*{9.58 Operator}

Given any ring \( R \), the ring of the Integer-linear operators over \( R \) is called \( \text{Operator}(R) \). To create an operator over \( R \), first create a basic operator using the operation \text{operator}, and then convert it to \( \text{Operator}(R) \) for the \( R \) you want.

We choose \( R \) to be the two by two matrices over the integers.

\[
R := \text{SQMATRIX}(2, \text{INT})
\]

\( \text{SquareMatrix}(2, \text{Integer}) \)

Type: Domain

Create the operator \( \tilde{\text{t}} \) \text{ilde} on \( R \).

\[
t := \text{operator}("\tilde{\text{t}}") : \text{OP}(R)
\]

\( \text{tilde} \)

Type: Operator SquareMatrix(2,Integer)
Since `Operator` is unexposed we must either package-call operations from it, or expose it explicitly. For convenience we will do the latter.

Expose `Operator`.

```
)set expose add constructor Operator
```

`Operator` is now explicitly exposed in frame G82322

To attach an evaluation function (from \( \mathbb{R} \) to \( \mathbb{R} \)) to an operator over \( \mathbb{R} \), use `evaluate(op, f)` where `op` is an operator over \( \mathbb{R} \) and `f` is a function \( \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \). This needs to be done only once when the operator is defined. Note that `f` must be \( \text{Integer-linear} \) (that is, \( f(ax+y) = a f(x) + f(y) \) for any integer \( a \), and any \( x \) and \( y \) in \( \mathbb{R} \)).

We now attach the transpose map to the above operator \( t \).

```
evaluate(t, m ++> transpose m)
```

```
    \[
    \begin{bmatrix}
    0 & 1 \\
    1 & 0
    \end{bmatrix}
    \]
```

Type: `Operator SquareMatrix(2,Integer)`

Operators can be manipulated formally as in any ring: \( + \) is the pointwise addition and \( * \) is composition. Any element \( x \) of \( \mathbb{R} \) can be converted to an operator \( op_x \) over \( \mathbb{R} \), and the evaluation function of \( op_x \) is left-multiplication by \( x \).

Multiplying on the left by this matrix swaps the two rows.

```
s : \mathbb{R} := matrix [ [0, 1], [1, 0] ]
```

```
    \[
    \begin{bmatrix}
    0 & 1 \\
    1 & 0
    \end{bmatrix}
    \]
```

Type: `SquareMatrix(2,Integer)`

Can you guess what is the action of the following operator?

```
rho := t * s
```

```
    \[
    \begin{bmatrix}
    0 & 1 \\
    1 & 0
    \end{bmatrix}
    \]
```

Type: `Operator SquareMatrix(2,Integer)`

Hint: applying \( \rho \) four times gives the identity, so \( \rho^{*4} - 1 \) should return 0 when applied to any two by two matrix.
z := rho**4 - 1

\[-1 + \tilde{0 1 1 0} \tilde{0 1 1 0} \tilde{0 1 1 0} \tilde{0 1 1 0}\]

Type: Operator SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

Now check with this matrix.

m: R := matrix [ [1, 2], [3, 4] ]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
3 & 4
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

z m

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 \\
0 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

As you have probably guessed by now, rho acts on matrices by rotating the elements clockwise.

rho m

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
3 & 1 \\
4 & 2
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

rho rho m

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
4 & 3 \\
2 & 1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

(rho**3) m
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\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2 & 4 \\
1 & 3
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

Do the swapping of rows and transposition commute? We can check by computing their bracket.

\[
b := t * s - s * t
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Operator SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

Now apply it to \( m \).

\[
b m
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & -3 \\
3 & -1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Integer)

Next we demonstrate how to define a differential operator on a polynomial ring.

This is the recursive definition of the \( n \)-th Legendre polynomial.

\[
L(n) =
\begin{cases}
0 & \text{n = 0} \\
1 & \text{n = 1} \\
\frac{(2n-1)n}{n} x L(n-1) - \frac{n-1}{n} L(n-2) & \text{otherwise}
\end{cases}
\]

Void

Create the differential operator \( \frac{d}{dx} \) on polynomials in \( x \) over the rational numbers.

\[
dx := \text{operator("D")} :: \text{OP(POLY FRAC INT)}
\]

\[
D
\]

Type: Operator Polynomial Fraction Integer

Now attach the map to it.
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evaluate(dx, p +-> D(p, 'x))

\[ D \]

Type: Operator Polynomial Fraction Integer

This is the differential equation satisfied by the \(n\)-th Legendre polynomial.

\[
E \ n == (1 - x**2) * dx**2 - 2 * x * dx + n*(n+1)
\]

Void

Now we verify this for \(n = 15\). Here is the polynomial.

\[
L \ 15
\]

\[
\frac{9694845}{2048} x^{15} - \frac{35102025}{2048} x^{13} + \frac{50702925}{2048} x^{11} - \frac{37182145}{2048} x^9 + \frac{1454935}{2048} x^7 - \frac{2909907}{2048} x^5 + \frac{255255}{2048} x^3 - \frac{6435}{2048} x
\]

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

Here is the operator.

\[
E \ 15
\]

\[
240 - 2 x D - (x^2 - 1) D^2
\]

Type: Operator Polynomial Fraction Integer

Here is the evaluation.

\[
(E \ 15) (L \ 15)
\]

0

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer
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9.59 OrderedVariableList

The domain OrderedVariableList provides symbols which are restricted to a particular list and have a definite ordering. Those two features are specified by a List Symbol object that is the argument to the domain.

This is a sample ordering of three symbols.

\[
\text{ls: List Symbol := ['x,'a,'z]}
\]

\[
[x, a, z]
\]

Type: List Symbol

Let's build the domain

\[
Z := \text{OVAR ls}
\]

OrderedVariableList [x,a,z]

Type: Domain

How many variables does it have?

\[
\text{size()$Z}
\]

3

Type: NonNegativeInteger

They are (in the imposed order)

\[
\text{lv := [index(i::PI)$Z for i in 1..size()$Z]}
\]

\[
[x, a, z]
\]

Type: List OrderedVariableList [x,a,z]

Check that the ordering is right

\[
\text{sorted?(>,lv)}
\]

true

Type: Boolean
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

9.60 OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial

Many systems of differential equations may be transformed to equivalent systems of ordinary differential equations where the equations are expressed polynomially in terms of the unknown functions. In Axiom, the domain constructors OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial (abbreviated ODPOL) and SequentialDifferentialPolynomial (abbreviation SDPOL) implement two domains of ordinary differential polynomials over any differential ring. In the simplest case, this differential ring is usually either the ring of integers, or the field of rational numbers. However, Axiom can handle ordinary differential polynomials over a field of rational functions in a single indeterminate.

The two domains ODPOL and SDPOL are almost identical, the only difference being the choice of a different ranking, which is an ordering of the derivatives of the indeterminates. The first domain uses an orderly ranking, that is, derivatives of higher order are ranked higher, and derivatives of the same order are ranked alphabetically. The second domain uses a sequential ranking, where derivatives are ordered first alphabetically by the differential indeterminates, and then by order. A more general domain constructor, DifferentialSparseMultivariatePolynomial (abbreviation DSMP) allows both a user-provided list of differential indeterminates as well as a user-defined ranking. We shall illustrate ODPOL(FRAC INT), which constructs a domain of ordinary differential polynomials in an arbitrary number of differential indeterminates with rational numbers as coefficients.

\[
dpol := \text{ODPOL(FRAC INT)}
\]

\[
\text{OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer}
\]

Type: Domain

A differential indeterminate \( w \) may be viewed as an infinite sequence of algebraic indeterminates, which are the derivatives of \( w \). To facilitate referencing these, Axiom provides the operation \text{makeVariable} to convert an element of type Symbol to a map from the natural numbers to the differential polynomial ring.

\[
w := \text{makeVariable('w)$dpol}
\]

\[
\text{theMap(...}
\]

Type: (NonNegativeInteger \to OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial

\[
\text{Fraction Integer)
\]

\[
z := \text{makeVariable('z)$dpol}
\]
The fifth derivative of \( w \) can be obtained by applying the map \( w \) to the number 5. Note that the order of differentiation is given as a subscript (except when the order is 0).

\[ w^{(5)} \]

\( w_5 \)

Type: \texttt{OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer}

The first five derivatives of \( z \) can be generated by a list.

\[[z_i \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..5]\]

\[ [z_1, z_2, z_3, z_4, z_5] \]

Type: \texttt{List OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer}

The usual arithmetic can be used to form a differential polynomial from the derivatives.

\[ f := w^4 - w^1 \cdot w^1 \cdot z^3 \]

\[ w_4 - w_1^2 z_3 \]

Type: \texttt{OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer}

\[ g := (z^1)^3 \cdot (z^2)^2 - w^2 \]

\[ z_1^3 z_2^2 - w_2 \]

Type: \texttt{OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer}
The operation \( D \) computes the derivative of any differential polynomial.

\[
D(f)
\]

\[
w_5 - w_1^2 z_4 - 2 w_1 w_2 z_3
\]

Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

The same operation can compute higher derivatives, like the fourth derivative.

\[
D(f,4)
\]

\[
w_8 - w_1^2 z_7 - 8 w_1 w_2 z_6 + (-12 w_1 w_3 - 12 w_2^2) z_5 - 2 w_1 z_3 w_5 +
\]
\[
(-8 w_1 w_4 - 24 w_2 w_3) z_4 - 8 w_2 z_3 w_4 - 6 w_3^2 z_3
\]

Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

The operation \texttt{makeVariable} creates a map to facilitate referencing the derivatives of \( f \), similar to the map \( w \).

\[
df := \texttt{makeVariable}(f)$dpol
\]

\[
\texttt{theMap(...)}
\]

Type: \((\text{NonNegativeInteger} \rightarrow \text{OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer})\)

The fourth derivative of \( f \) may be referenced easily.

\[
df.4
\]

\[
w_8 - w_1^2 z_7 - 8 w_1 w_2 z_6 + (-12 w_1 w_3 - 12 w_2^2) z_5 - 2 w_1 z_3 w_5 +
\]
\[
(-8 w_1 w_4 - 24 w_2 w_3) z_4 - 8 w_2 z_3 w_4 - 6 w_3^2 z_3
\]

Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

The operation \texttt{order} returns the order of a differential polynomial, or the order in a specified differential indeterminate.

\[
\texttt{order}(g)
\]
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2
Type: PositiveInteger

order(g, 'w)

2
Type: PositiveInteger

The operation **differentialVariables** returns a list of differential indeterminates occurring in a differential polynomial.

differentialVariables(g)

\[ [z, w] \]
Type: List Symbol

The operation **degree** returns the degree, or the degree in the differential indeterminate specified.

degree(g)

\[ z_2^2 z_1^3 \]
Type: IndexedExponents OrderlyDifferentialVariable Symbol

degree(g, 'w)

1
Type: PositiveInteger

The operation **weights** returns a list of weights of differential monomials appearing in differential polynomial, or a list of weights in a specified differential indeterminate.

weights(g)

\[ [7, 2] \]
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Type: List NonNegativeInteger

weights(g,’w)

[2]

Type: List NonNegativeInteger

The operation weight returns the maximum weight of all differential monomials appearing in the differential polynomial.

weight(g)

7

Type: PositiveInteger

A differential polynomial is isobaric if the weights of all differential monomials appearing in it are equal.

isobaric?(g)

false

Type: Boolean

To substitute differentially, use eval. Note that we must coerce ’w to Symbol, since in ODPOL, differential indeterminates belong to the domain Symbol. Compare this result to the next, which substitutes algebraically (no substitution is done since w.0 does not appear in g).

eval(g,’w::Symbol),[f])

\[-w_6 + w_1^2 z_5 + 4 w_1 w_2 z_4 + (2 w_1 w_3 + 2 w_2^2) z_3 + z_1^3 z_2^2\]

Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

eval(g,variables(w.0),[f])

\[z_1^3 z_2^2 - w_2\]
Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

Since `OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial` belongs to `PolynomialCategory`, all the operations defined in the latter category, or in packages for the latter category, are available.

\[
\text{monomials}(\text{g})
\]

\[
\left[ z_1^3 z_2^2, -w_2 \right]
\]

Type: List OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

\[
\text{variables}(\text{g})
\]

\[
\left[ z_2, w_2, z_1 \right]
\]

Type: List OrderlyDifferentialVariable Symbol

\[
\text{gcd}(f,g)
\]

\[
1
\]

Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

\[
\text{groebner}([f,g])
\]

\[
\left[ w_4 - w_1^2 z_3, z_1^3 z_2^2 - w_2 \right]
\]

Type: List OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

The next three operations are essential for elimination procedures in differential polynomial rings. The operation `leader` returns the leader of a differential polynomial, which is the highest ranked derivative of the differential indeterminates that occurs.

\[
\text{lg} := \text{leader}(\text{g})
\]

\[
z_2
\]

Type: OrderlyDifferentialVariable Symbol
The operation \texttt{separant} returns the separant of a differential polynomial, which is the partial derivative with respect to the leader.

\begin{verbatim}
sg:=separant(g)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
2 z_1^3 z_2
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer}

The operation \texttt{initial} returns the initial, which is the leading coefficient when the given differential polynomial is expressed as a polynomial in the leader.

\begin{verbatim}
ig:=initial(g)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
z_1^3
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer}

Using these three operations, it is possible to reduce \( f \) modulo the differential ideal generated by \( g \). The general scheme is to first reduce the order, then reduce the degree in the leader. First, eliminate \( z_3 \) using the derivative of \( g \).

\begin{verbatim}
g1 := D g
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
2 z_1^3 z_2 z_3 - w_3 + 3 z_1^2 z_2^3
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer}

Find its leader.

\begin{verbatim}
lgl1:= leader g1
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
z_3
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: OrderlyDifferentialVariable Symbol}

Differentiate \( f \) partially with respect to this leader.

\begin{verbatim}
pdf:=D(f, lgl1)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
-w_1^2
\end{verbatim}
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Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

Compute the partial remainder of $f$ with respect to $g$.

$$\text{prf}: = \text{sg} \ast f - \text{pdf} \ast g \quad \text{1.6.1 PartialFraction}$$

$$= 2z_1^3z_2w_4 - w_1^2w_3 + 3w_1^2z_1^2z_2^3$$

Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

Note that high powers of $lg$ still appear in $\text{prf}$. Compute the leading coefficient of $\text{prf}$ as a polynomial in the leader of $g$.

$$\text{lcf}:= \text{leadingCoefficient univariate} (\text{prf}, \text{lg})$$

$$= 3w_1^2z_1^2$$

Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

Finally, continue eliminating the high powers of $lg$ appearing in $\text{prf}$ to obtain the (pseudo) remainder of $f$ modulo $g$ and its derivatives.

$$\text{ig} \ast \text{prf} - \text{lcf} \ast \text{g} \ast \text{lg}$$

$$= 2z_1^6z_2w_4 - w_1^2z_1^3w_3 + 3w_1^2z_1^2w_2z_2$$

Type: OrderlyDifferentialPolynomial Fraction Integer

9.61 PartialFraction

A partial fraction is a decomposition of a quotient into a sum of quotients where the denominators of the summands are powers of primes.\footnote{Most people first encounter partial fractions when they are learning integral calculus. For a technical discussion of partial fractions, see, for example, Lang’s Algebra.} For example, the rational number $1/6$ is decomposed into $1/2 - 1/3$. You can compute partial fractions of quotients of objects from domains belonging to the category EuclideanDomain. For example, Integer, Complex Integer, and UnivariatePolynomial(x, Fraction Integer) all belong to EuclideanDomain. In the examples following, we demonstrate how to decompose quotients of each of these kinds of object into partial fractions. Issue the system command \text{))show PartialFraction to display the full list of operations defined by PartialFraction.
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It is necessary that we know how to factor the denominator when we want to compute a partial fraction. Although the interpreter can often do this automatically, it may be necessary for you to include a call to factor. In these examples, it is not necessary to factor the denominators explicitly.

The main operation for computing partial fractions is called partialFraction and we use this to compute a decomposition of $1 / 10!$. The first argument to partialFraction is the numerator of the quotient and the second argument is the factored denominator.

$$\text{partialFraction}(1, \text{factorial 10})$$

$$\frac{159}{2^8} - \frac{23}{3^4} - \frac{12}{5^2} + \frac{1}{7}$$

Type: PartialFraction Integer

Since the denominators are powers of primes, it may be possible to expand the numerators further with respect to those primes. Use the operation padicFraction to do this.

$$f := \text{padicFraction}(%)$$

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^4} + \frac{1}{2^5} + \frac{1}{2^6} + \frac{1}{2^7} + \frac{1}{2^8} - \frac{1}{3^2} - \frac{1}{3^3} - \frac{1}{3^4} - \frac{2}{5} - \frac{2}{5^2} + \frac{1}{7}$$

Type: PartialFraction Integer

The operation compactFraction returns an expanded fraction into the usual form. The compacted version is used internally for computational efficiency.

$$\text{compactFraction}(f)$$

$$\frac{159}{2^8} - \frac{23}{3^4} - \frac{12}{5^2} + \frac{1}{7}$$

Type: PartialFraction Integer

You can add, subtract, multiply and divide partial fractions. In addition, you can extract the parts of the decomposition. numberOfFractionalTerms computes the number of terms in the fractional part. This does not include the whole part of the fraction, which you get by calling wholePart. In this example, the whole part is just 0.

$$\text{numberOfFractionalTerms}(f)$$
The operation \texttt{nthFractionalTerm} returns the individual terms in the decomposition. Notice that the object returned is a partial fraction itself. \texttt{firstNumer} and \texttt{firstDenom} extract the numerator and denominator of the first term of the fraction.

\begin{verbatim}
nthFractionalTerm(f,3)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
\frac{1}{25}
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: PartialFraction Integer}

Given two gaussian integers (see 9.11 on page 489), you can decompose their quotient into a partial fraction.

\begin{verbatim}
partialFraction(1,- 13 + 14 * %i)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
- \frac{1}{1+2 i} + \frac{4}{3+8 i}
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: PartialFraction Complex Integer}

To convert back to a quotient, simply use a conversion.

\begin{verbatim}
% :: Fraction Complex Integer
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
- \frac{i}{14+13 i}
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{Type: Fraction Complex Integer}

To conclude this section, we compute the decomposition of

\begin{verbatim}
1
-------------------
2 3 4
(x + 1)(x + 2)(x + 3)(x + 4)
\end{verbatim}

The polynomials in this object have type \texttt{UnivariatePolynomial(x, Fraction Integer)}.

We use the \texttt{primeFactor} operation (see 9.22 on page 533) to create the denominator in factored form directly.
u : FR UP(x, FRAC INT) := reduce(*,[primeFactor(x+i,i) for i in 1..4])

\[(x + 1) (x + 2)^2 (x + 3)^3 (x + 4)^4\]

Type: Factored UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)

These are the compact and expanded partial fractions for the quotient.

\[
\text{partialFraction}(1,u) = \frac{1}{x+1} + \frac{1}{x+2} + \frac{17}{(x+2)^2} + \frac{-12}{x+3} + \frac{-159}{(x+3)^3} + \frac{607}{(x+4)^4}
\]

Type: PartialFraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)

padicFraction %

\[
\text{padicFraction}(\frac{1}{x+1} + \frac{1}{x+2} + \frac{1}{x+3} - \frac{12}{x+3} - \frac{1}{(x+3)^3} + \frac{-159}{(x+3)^3} + \frac{607}{(x+4)^4})
\]

Type: PartialFraction UnivariatePolynomial(x,Fraction Integer)

All see 9.29 on page 563 for examples of factor-free conversion of quotients to full partial fractions.

### 9.62 Permanent

The package Permanent provides the function permanent for square matrices. The permanent of a square matrix can be computed in the same way as the determinant by expansion of minors except that for the permanent the sign for each element is 1, rather than being 1 if the row plus column indices is positive and -1 otherwise. This function is much more difficult to compute efficiently than the determinant. An example of the use of permanent is the calculation of the \(n\)-th derangement number, defined to be the number of different possibilities for \(n\) couples to dance but never with their own spouse.
Consider an $n \times n$ matrix with entries 0 on the diagonal and 1 elsewhere. Think of the rows as one-half of each couple (for example, the males) and the columns the other half. The permanent of such a matrix gives the desired derangement number.

```axiom
kn n ==
  r : MATRIX INT := new(n,n,1)
  for i in 1..n repeat
    r.i.i := 0
  r

Void
```

Here are some derangement numbers, which you see grow quite fast.

```axiom
permanent(kn(5) :: SQMATRIX(5,INT))
```

Compiling function kn with type PositiveInteger -> Matrix Integer

```
44
Type: PositiveInteger
```

```
[permanent(kn(n) :: SQMATRIX(n,INT)) for n in 1..13]
```

Cannot compile conversion for types involving local variables.
In particular, could not compile the expression involving

```axiom
:: SQMATRIX(n,INT)
```

AXIOM will attempt to step through and interpret the code.

```axiom
[0, 1, 2, 9, 44, 265, 1854, 14833, 133496, 1334961, 14684570, 176214841, 2290792932]
Type: List NonNegativeInteger
```

### 9.63 Polynomial

The domain constructor `Polynomial` (abbreviation: `POLY`) provides polynomials with an arbitrary number of unspecified variables.

It is used to create the default polynomial domains in Axiom. Here the coefficients are integers.
Here the coefficients have type Float.

And here we have a polynomial in two variables with coefficients which have type Fraction Integer.

The representation of objects of domains created by Polynomial is that of recursive univariate polynomials.\(^6\)

This recursive structure is sometimes obvious from the display of a polynomial.

---

\(^6\)The term univariate means “one variable,” multivariate means “possibly more than one variable.”
We will demonstrate many of the polynomial facilities by using two polynomials with integer coefficients.

By default, the interpreter expands polynomial expressions, even if they are written in a factored format.

\[
p := (y-1)^2 \times x \times z
\]

\[
(x y^2 - 2 x y + x) z
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

See 9.22 on page 533 to see how to create objects in factored form directly.

\[
q := (y-1) \times x \times (z+5)
\]

\[
(x y - x) z + 5 x y - 5 x
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

The fully factored form can be recovered by using \texttt{factor}.

\[
factor(q)
\]

\[
x (y-1) (z+5)
\]

Type: Factored Polynomial Integer

This is the same name used for the operation to factor integers. Such reuse of names is called and makes it much easier to think of solving problems in general ways. Axiom facilities for factoring polynomials created with \texttt{Polynomial} are currently restricted to the integer and rational number coefficient cases. There are more complete facilities for factoring univariate polynomials: see ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??.

The standard arithmetic operations are available for polynomials.

\[
p - q^{**2}
\]
\[(−x^2 y^2 + 2 x^2 y − x^3) z^2 +
(−10 x^2 + x) y^2 + (20 x^2 − 2 x) y − 10 x^2 + x) z −
25 x^2 y^2 + 50 x^2 y − 25 x^2\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

The operation **gcd** is used to compute the greatest common divisor of two polynomials.

\[\text{gcd}(p, q)\]

\[x y − x\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

In the case of \(p\) and \(q\), the \text{gcd} is obvious from their definitions. We factor the \text{gcd} to show this relationship better.

\[\text{factor} \%\]

\[x (y − 1)\]

Type: Factored Polynomial Integer

The least common multiple is computed by using **lcm**.

\[\text{lcm}(p, q)\]

\[(x y^2 − 2 x y + x) z^2 + (5 x y^2 − 10 x y + 5 x) z\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

Use **content** to compute the greatest common divisor of the coefficients of the polynomial.

\[\text{content} \ p\]

1

Type: PositiveInteger
Many of the operations on polynomials require you to specify a variable. For example, \texttt{resultant} requires you to give the variable in which the polynomials should be expressed.

This computes the resultant of the values of \( p \) and \( q \), considering them as polynomials in the variable \( z \). They do not share a root when thought of as polynomials in \( z \).

\[
\text{resultant}(p, q, z) \quad 5 \ x^2 \ y^3 - 15 \ x^2 \ y^2 + 15 \ x^2 \ y - 5 \ x^2
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

This value is 0 because as polynomials in \( x \) the polynomials have a common root.

\[
\text{resultant}(p, q, x) \quad 0
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

The data type used for the variables created by \texttt{Polynomial} is \texttt{Symbol}. As mentioned above, the representation used by \texttt{Polynomial} is recursive and so there is a main variable for nonconstant polynomials.

The operation \texttt{mainVariable} returns this variable. The return type is actually a union of \texttt{Symbol} and "failed".

\[
\text{mainVariable} \ p \quad z
\]

Type: Union(Symbol,...)

The latter branch of the union is be used if the polynomial has no variables, that is, is a constant.

\[
\text{mainVariable}(1 :: \text{POLY INT}) \quad "failed"
\]

Type: Union("failed",...)

You can also use the predicate \texttt{ground?} to test whether a polynomial is in fact a member of its ground ring.
ground? p

    false

    Type: Boolean

ground?(1 :: POLY INT)

    true

    Type: Boolean

The complete list of variables actually used in a particular polynomial is returned by \texttt{variables}. For constant polynomials, this list is empty.

variables p

    \[ z, y, x \]

    Type: List Symbol

The \texttt{degree} operation returns the degree of a polynomial in a specific variable.

degree(p,x)

    1

    Type: PositiveInteger

degree(p,y)

    2

    Type: PositiveInteger

degree(p,z)

    1

    Type: PositiveInteger
If you give a list of variables for the second argument, a list of the degrees in those variables is returned.

\[
\text{degree}(p, [x, y, z])
\]

\[ [1, 2, 1] \]

Type: List NonNegativeInteger

The minimum degree of a variable in a polynomial is computed using \texttt{minimumDegree}.

\[
\text{minimumDegree}(p, z)
\]

\[ 1 \]

Type: PositiveInteger

The total degree of a polynomial is returned by \texttt{totalDegree}.

\[
\text{totalDegree} p
\]

\[ 4 \]

Type: PositiveInteger

It is often convenient to think of a polynomial as a leading monomial plus the remaining terms.

\[
\text{leadingMonomial} p
\]

\[ x y^2 z \]

Type: Polynomial Integer

The \texttt{reductum} operation returns a polynomial consisting of the sum of the monomials after the first.

\[
\text{reductum} p
\]

\[ (-2 x y + x) z \]
These have the obvious relationship that the original polynomial is equal to the leading monomial plus the reductum.

\[ p - \text{leadingMonomial } p - \text{reductum } p \]

Type: \text{Polynomial Integer}

0

Type: \text{Polynomial Integer}

The value returned by \text{leadingMonomial} includes the coefficient of that term. This is extracted by using \text{leadingCoefficient} on the original polynomial.

\text{leadingCoefficient } p

1

Type: \text{PositiveInteger}

The operation \text{eval} is used to substitute a value for a variable in a polynomial.

\[ p \]

\[ (x y^2 - 2 x y + x) z \]

Type: \text{Polynomial Integer}

This value may be another variable, a constant or a polynomial.

\text{eval}(p, x, w)

\[ (w y^2 - 2 w y + w) z \]

Type: \text{Polynomial Integer}

\text{eval}(p, x, 1)

\[ (y^2 - 2 y + 1) z \]

Type: \text{Polynomial Integer}
Actually, all the things being substituted are just polynomials, some more trivial than others.

\[
eval(p, x, y^{**2} - 1)
\]

\[
(y^4 - 2y^3 + 2y - 1) \ z
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

Derivatives are computed using the \texttt{D} operation.

\[D(p, x)\]

\[
(y^2 - 2y + 1) \ z
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

The first argument is the polynomial and the second is the variable.

\[D(p, y)\]

\[
(2xy - 2x) \ z
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

Even if the polynomial has only one variable, you must specify it.

\[D(p, z)\]

\[
x y^2 - 2xy + x
\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

Integration of polynomials is similar and the \texttt{integrate} operation is used.

Integration requires that the coefficients support division. Consequently, Axiom converts polynomials over the integers to polynomials over the rational numbers before integrating them.

\[\text{integrate}(p, y)\]

\[
\left( \frac{1}{3} xy^3 - x y^2 + x y \right) \ z
\]
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Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

It is not possible, in general, to divide two polynomials. In our example using polynomials over the integers, the operation `monicDivide` divides a polynomial by a monic polynomial (that is, a polynomial with leading coefficient equal to 1). The result is a record of the quotient and remainder of the division.

You must specify the variable in which to express the polynomial.

```
qr := monicDivide(p,x+1,x)
```

\[
\text{quotient} = (y^2 - 2y + 1)z, \text{remainder} = (-y^2 + 2y - 1)z
\]

Type: Record(quotient: Polynomial Integer, remainder: Polynomial Integer)

The selectors of the components of the record are `quotient` and `remainder`. Issue this to extract the remainder.

```
qr.remainder
```

\[-y^2 + 2y - 1\]z

Type: Polynomial Integer

Now that we can extract the components, we can demonstrate the relationship among them and the arguments to our original expression `qr := monicDivide(p,x+1,x)`.

```
p - ((x+1) * qr.quotient + qr.remainder)
```

0

Type: Polynomial Integer

If the "/" operator is used with polynomials, a fraction object is created. In this example, the result is an object of type `Fraction Polynomial Integer`.

```
p/q
```

\[
\frac{(y-1)z}{z+5}
\]

Type: Fraction Polynomial Integer
If you use rational numbers as polynomial coefficients, the resulting object is of type Polynomial Fraction Integer.

\[(2/3) \times x^2 - y + 4/5\]

\[-y + \frac{2}{3} x^2 + \frac{4}{5}\]

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

This can be converted to a fraction of polynomials and back again, if required.

\% :: FRAC POLY INT

\[-15 y + 10 x^2 + 12\]

\[-15\]

Type: Fraction Polynomial Integer

\% :: POLY FRAC INT

\[-y + \frac{2}{3} x^2 + \frac{4}{5}\]

Type: Polynomial Fraction Integer

To convert the coefficients to floating point, map the numeric operation on the coefficients of the polynomial.

\[
\text{map(numeric,\%)}
\]

\[-1.0 y + 0.66666666666666667 x^2 + 0.8\]

Type: Polynomial Float

For more information on related topics, see 9.83 on page 815, 9.54 on page 698, and 9.16 on page 518. You can also issue the system command )show Polynomial to display the full list of operations defined by Polynomial.
9.64 Quaternion

The domain constructor Quaternion implements quaternions over commutative rings. For information on related topics, see 9.11 on page 489 and 9.56 on page 701. You can also issue the system command )show Quaternion to display the full list of operations defined by Quaternion.

The basic operation for creating quaternions is `quatern`. This is a quaternion over the rational numbers.

```lisp
q := quatern(2/11,-8,3/4,1)
```

\[
\frac{2}{11} - 8i + \frac{3}{4}j + k
\]

Type: Quaternion Fraction Integer

The four arguments are the real part, the \(i\) imaginary part, the \(j\) imaginary part, and the \(k\) imaginary part, respectively.

```lisp
[real q, imagI q, imagJ q, imagK q]
```

\[
\left[\frac{2}{11}, -8, \frac{3}{4}, 1\right]
\]

Type: List Fraction Integer

Because \(q\) is over the rationals (and nonzero), you can invert it.

```lisp
inv q
```

\[
\frac{352}{126993} + \frac{15488}{126993}i - \frac{484}{42331}j - \frac{1936}{126993}k
\]

Type: Quaternion Fraction Integer

The usual arithmetic (ring) operations are available

```lisp
q**6
```

\[
-\frac{2029490709319345}{7256313856} - \frac{48251690851}{1288408}i + \frac{144755072553}{41229056}j + \frac{48251690851}{10307264}k
\]

Type: Quaternion Fraction Integer
r := quatern(-2,3,23/9,-89); q + r

\[- \frac{20}{11} - 5 i + \frac{119}{36} j - 88 k\]

Type: Quaternion Fraction Integer

In general, multiplication is not commutative.

q * r - r * q

\[- \frac{2495}{18} i - 1418 j - \frac{817}{18} k\]

Type: Quaternion Fraction Integer

There are no predefined constants for the imaginary $i$, $j$, and $k$ parts, but you can easily define them.

i:=quatern(0,1,0,0); j:=quatern(0,0,1,0); k:=quatern(0,0,0,1)

k

Type: Quaternion Integer

These satisfy the normal identities.

\[[i*i, j*j, k*k, i*j, j*k, k*i, q*i]\]

\[[-1, -1, -1, k, i, j, 8 + \frac{2}{11} i + j - \frac{3}{4} k]\]

Type: List Quaternion Fraction Integer

The norm is the quaternion times its conjugate.

norm q

\[\frac{126993}{1936}\]

Type: Fraction Integer
conjugate q

\[ \frac{2}{11} + 8i - \frac{3}{4}j - k \]

Type: Quaternion Fraction Integer

q * %

126993

\[ \frac{1936}{1936} \]

Type: Quaternion Fraction Integer

9.65 RadixExpansion

It possible to expand numbers in general bases.
Here we expand 111 in base 5. This means

\[ 10^2 + 10^1 + 10^0 = 4 \cdot 5^2 + 2 \cdot 5^1 + 5^0 \]

111::RadixExpansion(5)

421

Type: RadixExpansion 5

You can expand fractions to form repeating expansions.

(5/24)::RadixExpansion(2)

0.00110

Type: RadixExpansion 2

(5/24)::RadixExpansion(3)

0.0122

Type: RadixExpansion 3
(5/24)::RadixExpansion(8)

0.152

Type: RadixExpansion 8

(5/24)::RadixExpansion(10)

0.2083

Type: RadixExpansion 10

For bases from 11 to 36 the letters A through Z are used.

(5/24)::RadixExpansion(12)

0.26

Type: RadixExpansion 12

(5/24)::RadixExpansion(16)

0.35

Type: RadixExpansion 16

(5/24)::RadixExpansion(36)

0.7I

Type: RadixExpansion 36

For bases greater than 36, the digits are separated by blanks.

(5/24)::RadixExpansion(38)

0.7 34 31 25 12

Type: RadixExpansion 38
The `RadixExpansion` type provides operations to obtain the individual digits. Here is a rational number in base 8.

\[ a := (76543/210)::\text{RadixExpansion}(8) \]

```
554.37307
```

Type: `RadixExpansion` 8

The operation `wholeRagits` returns a list of the digits for the integral part of the number.

\[ w := \text{wholeRagits}(a) \]

```
[5, 5, 4]
```

Type: `List` Integer

The operations `prefixRagits` and `cycleRagits` return lists of the initial and repeating digits in the fractional part of the number.

\[ f0 := \text{prefixRagits}(a) \]

```
[3]
```

Type: `List` Integer

\[ f1 := \text{cycleRagits}(a) \]

```
[7, 3, 0, 7]
```

Type: `List` Integer

You can construct any radix expansion by giving the whole, prefix and cycle parts. The declaration is necessary to let Axiom know the base of the digits.

\[ u:\text{RadixExpansion}(8) := \text{wholeRadix}(w) + \text{fractRadix}(f0, f1) \]

```
554.37307
```

Type: `RadixExpansion` 8

If there is no repeating part, then the list `[0]` should be used.
v: RadixExpansion(12) := fractRadix([1,2,3,11], [0])

\[ 0.123\overline{0} \]

Type: RadixExpansion 12

If you are not interested in the repeating nature of the expansion, an infinite stream of digits can be obtained using \texttt{fractRagits}.

\texttt{fractRagits(u)}

\[ [3,7,3,0,7,7] \]

Type: Stream Integer

Of course, it’s possible to recover the fraction representation:

\texttt{a :: Fraction(Integer)}

\[ \frac{76543}{210} \]

Type: Fraction Integer

More examples of expansions are available in \texttt{9.15} on page \texttt{517}, \texttt{9.4} on page \texttt{456}, and \texttt{9.33} on page \texttt{573}.

\textbf{9.66 RealClosure}

The Real Closure 1.0 package provided by Renaud Rioboo (Renaud.Rioboo@lip6.fr) consists of different packages, categories and domains:

- The \texttt{package} \texttt{RealPolynomialUtilitiesPackage} which needs a \texttt{Field} $F$ and a \texttt{UnivariatePolynomialCategory} domain with coefficients in $F$. It computes some simple functions such as Sturm and Sylvester sequences (\texttt{sturmSequence}, \texttt{sylvesterSequence}).

- The \texttt{category} \texttt{RealRootCharacterizationCategory} provides abstract functions to work with “real roots” of univariate polynomials. These resemble variables with some functionality needed to compute important operations.

- The \texttt{category} \texttt{RealClosedField} provides common operations available over real closed fields. These include finding all the roots of a univariate polynomial, taking square (and higher) roots, ...
The domain `RightOpenIntervalRootCharacterization` is the main code that provides the functionality of `RealRootCharacterizationCategory` for the case of archimedean fields. Abstract roots are encoded with a left closed right open interval containing the root together with a defining polynomial for the root.

The `RealClosure` domain is the end-user code. It provides usual arithmetic with real algebraic numbers, along with the functionality of a real closed field. It also provides functions to approximate a real algebraic number by an element of the base field. This approximation may either be absolute (`approximate`) or relative (`relativeApprox`).

CAVEATS

Since real algebraic expressions are stored as depending on “real roots” which are managed like variables, there is an ordering on these. This ordering is dynamical in the sense that any new algebraic takes precedence over older ones. In particular every creation function raises a new “real root”. This has the effect that when you type something like \( \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{2} \) you have two new variables which happen to be equal. To avoid this name the expression such as in \( s2 := \sqrt{2} \); s2 + s2

Also note that computing times depend strongly on the ordering you implicitly provide. Please provide algebraics in the order which seems most natural to you.

LIMITATIONS

This packages uses algorithms which are published in [1] and [2] which are based on field arithmetics, in particular for polynomial gcd related algorithms. This can be quite slow for high degree polynomials and subresultants methods usually work best. Beta versions of the package try to use these techniques in a better way and work significantly faster. These are mostly based on unpublished algorithms and cannot be distributed. Please contact the author if you have a particular problem to solve or want to use these versions.

Be aware that approximations behave as post-processing and that all computations are done exactly. They can thus be quite time consuming when depending on several “real roots”.

REFERENCES


EXAMPLES

We shall work with the real closure of the ordered field of rational numbers.

\[
\text{Ran} := \text{RECLOS} (\text{FRAC INT})
\]

RealClosure Fraction Integer
Some simple signs for square roots, these correspond to an extension of degree 16 of the rational numbers. Examples provided by J. Abbot.

\[\text{fourSquares}(a:Ran,b:Ran,c:Ran,d:Ran):Ran == \sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b} - \sqrt{c} - \sqrt{d}\]

Function declaration \texttt{fourSquares} : (RealClosure Fraction Integer, RealClosure Fraction Integer, RealClosure Fraction Integer, RealClosure Fraction Integer) \rightarrow RealClosure Fraction Integer has been added to workspace.

\texttt{Void}

These produce values very close to zero.

\[\text{squareDiff1} := \text{fourSquares}(73, 548, 60, 586)\]

\[-\sqrt{586} - \sqrt{60} + \sqrt{548} + \sqrt{73}\]

\[\text{Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer}\]

\[\text{recip(squareDiff1)}\]

\[
\left(\left(54602 \sqrt{548} + 149602 \sqrt{73}\right) \sqrt{60} + 49502 \sqrt{73} \sqrt{548} + 9900895\right) \sqrt{586} + \\
\left(154702 \sqrt{73} \sqrt{548} + 30941947\right) \sqrt{60} + 10238421 \sqrt{548} + 28051871 \sqrt{73}\]

\[\text{Type: Union(RealClosure Fraction Integer, ...)}\]

\[\text{sign(squareDiff1)}\]

\[1\]

\[\text{Type: PositiveInteger}\]

\[\text{squareDiff2} := \text{fourSquares}(165, 778, 86, 990)\]
\(-\sqrt{990} - \sqrt{86} + \sqrt{778} + \sqrt{165}\)

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

\text{recip(squareDiff2)}

\[
\left(\left(556778 \sqrt{778} + 1209010 \sqrt{165}\right) \sqrt{86} + \\
401966 \sqrt{165} \sqrt{778} + 144019431\right) \sqrt{990} + \\
\left(1363822 \sqrt{165} \sqrt{778} + 488640503\right) \sqrt{86} + \\
162460913 \sqrt{778} + 352774119 \sqrt{165}
\]

Type: Union(RealClosure Fraction Integer,...)

\text{sign(squareDiff2)}

\[
1
\]

Type: PositiveInteger

\text{squareDiff3 := fourSquares(217,708,226,692)}

\(-\sqrt{692} - \sqrt{226} + \sqrt{708} + \sqrt{217}\)

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

\text{recip(squareDiff3)}

\[
\left(\left(-34102 \sqrt{708} - 61598 \sqrt{217}\right) \sqrt{226} - \\
34802 \sqrt{217} \sqrt{708} - 13641141\right) \sqrt{692} + \\
\left(-60898 \sqrt{217} \sqrt{708} - 23869841\right) \sqrt{226} - \\
13486123 \sqrt{708} - 24359809 \sqrt{217}
\]
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Type: Union(RealClosure Fraction Integer,...)

sign(squareDiff3)

−1

Type: Integer

squareDiff4 := fourSquares(155, 836, 162, 820)

−\sqrt{820} - \sqrt{162} + \sqrt{836} + \sqrt{155}

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

recip(squareDiff4)

\left( \left( -37078 \sqrt{836} - 86110 \sqrt{155} \right) \sqrt{162} - \\
37906 \sqrt{155} \sqrt{836} - 13645107 \right) \sqrt{820} + \\
\left( -85282 \sqrt{155} \sqrt{836} - 30699151 \right) \sqrt{162} - \\
13513901 \sqrt{836} - 31384703 \sqrt{155}

Type: Union(RealClosure Fraction Integer,...)

sign(squareDiff4)

−1

Type: Integer

squareDiff5 := fourSquares(591, 772, 552, 818)

−\sqrt{818} - \sqrt{552} + \sqrt{772} + \sqrt{591}

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer
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recip(squareDiff5)

\[
\left( (70922 \sqrt{772} + 81058 \sqrt{591}) \sqrt{552} + \\
68542 \sqrt{591} \sqrt{772} + 46297673 \right) \sqrt{818} + \\
\left( 83438 \sqrt{591} \sqrt{772} + 56359389 \right) \sqrt{552} + \\
47657051 \sqrt{772} + 54468081 \sqrt{591}
\]

Type: Union(RealClosure Fraction Integer, ...)

sign(squareDiff5)

1

Type: PositiveInteger

squareDiff6 := fourSquares(434,1053,412,1088)

\[ -\sqrt{1088} - \sqrt{412} + \sqrt{1053} + \sqrt{434} \]

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

recip(squareDiff6)

\[
\left( (115442 \sqrt{1053} + 179818 \sqrt{434}) \sqrt{412} + \\
112478 \sqrt{434} \sqrt{1053} + 76037291 \right) \sqrt{1088} + \\
\left( 182782 \sqrt{434} \sqrt{1053} + 123564147 \right) \sqrt{412} + \\
77290639 \sqrt{1053} + 120391609 \sqrt{434}
\]

Type: Union(RealClosure Fraction Integer, ...)

sign(squareDiff6)


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1

Type: PositiveInteger

\[ \text{squareDiff7} := \text{fourSquares}(514,1049,446,1152) \]
\[ -\sqrt{1152} - \sqrt{446} + \sqrt{1049} + \sqrt{514} \]

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

\[
\text{recip(squareDiff7)}
\]

\[
\left( \left( 349522 \sqrt{1049} + 499322 \sqrt{514} \right) \sqrt{446} + \\
325582 \sqrt{514} \sqrt{1049} + 239072537 \right) \sqrt{1152} + \\
\left( 523262 \sqrt{514} \sqrt{1049} + 384227549 \right) \sqrt{446} + \\
250534873 \sqrt{1049} + 357910443 \sqrt{514} \]

Type: Union(RealClosure Fraction Integer,...)

\[
\text{sign(squareDiff7)}
\]

1

Type: PositiveInteger

\[ \text{squareDiff8} := \text{fourSquares}(190,1751,208,1698) \]
\[ -\sqrt{1698} - \sqrt{208} + \sqrt{1751} + \sqrt{190} \]

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

\[
\text{recip(squareDiff8)}
\]
\[
\left( (-214702 \sqrt{1751} - 651782 \sqrt{190}) \sqrt{208} - \\
224642 \sqrt{190 \sqrt{1751} - 129571901} \right) \sqrt{1698} + \\
\left( -641842 \sqrt{190 \sqrt{1751} - 370209881} \right) \sqrt{208} - \\
127595865 \sqrt{1751} - 387349387 \sqrt{190}
\]

Type: Union(RealClosure Fraction Integer,...)

\[\text{sign(squareDiff8)}\]

\[-1\]

Type: Integer

This should give three digits of precision

\[\text{relativeApprox(squareDiff8,10**(-3))::Float}\]

\[-0.23405277715937700123E-10\]

Type: Float

The sum of these 4 roots is 0

\[l := \text{allRootsOf}((x^2 - 2)^2 - 2)\]

\[\{A_{33}, A_{34}, A_{35}, A_{36}\}\]

Type: List RealClosure Fraction Integer

Check that they are all roots of the same polynomial

\[\text{removeDuplicates map(mainDefiningPolynomial,l)}\]

\[\{y^4 - 4 y^2 + 2\}\]

Type: List Union(SparseUnivariatePolynomial RealClosure Fraction Integer,"failed")
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We can see at a glance that they are separate roots

\[ \text{map}(\text{mainCharacterization}, 1) \]

\[ \left[ \left[ -2, -1 \right], \left[ -1, 0 \right], \left[ 0, 1 \right], \left[ 1, 2 \right] \right] \]

Type: \text{List Union}(\text{RightOpenIntervalRootCharacterization(\text{RealClosure Fraction Integer, SparseUnivariatePolynomial RealClosure Fraction Integer}), "failed")}

Check the sum and product

\[ \text{reduce}(+, l), \text{reduce}(\times, l) - 2 \]

\[ [0, 0] \]

Type: \text{List RealClosure Fraction Integer}

A more complicated test that involve an extension of degree 256. This is a way of checking nested radical identities.

\( (s2, s5, s10) := (\sqrt{2}\text{Ran}, \sqrt{5}\text{Ran}, \sqrt{10}\text{Ran}) \)

\( \sqrt{10} \)

Type: \text{RealClosure Fraction Integer}

\[ \text{eq1} := \sqrt{s10+3} \ast \sqrt{s5+2} - \sqrt{s10-3} \ast \sqrt{s5-2} = \sqrt{10 \ast s2+10} \]

\[ -\sqrt{\sqrt{10} - 3} \sqrt{\sqrt{5} - 2} + \sqrt{\sqrt{10} + 3} \sqrt{\sqrt{5} + 2} = \sqrt{10} \sqrt{2} + 10 \]

Type: \text{Equation RealClosure Fraction Integer}

\[ \text{eq1}::\text{Boolean} \]

true

Type: \text{Boolean}
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\[ eq2 := \sqrt{s5+2} \cdot \sqrt{s2+1} - \sqrt{s5-2} \cdot \sqrt{s2-1} = \sqrt{2s10+2} \]

\[ -\sqrt{5-2} \cdot \sqrt{2-1} + \sqrt{5+2} \cdot \sqrt{2+1} = \sqrt{2+10+2} \]

Type: Equation RealClosure Fraction Integer

eq2::Boolean

\textbf{true}

Type: Boolean

Some more examples from J. M. Arnaudies

\[ s3 := \sqrt{3} \]

\[ \sqrt{3} \]

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

\[ s7 := \sqrt{7} \]

\[ \sqrt{7} \]

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

\[ e1 := \sqrt{2s7-3s3,3} \]

\[ \sqrt[3]{2\sqrt{7}-3\sqrt{3}} \]

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

\[ e2 := \sqrt{2s7+3s3,3} \]

\[ \sqrt[3]{2\sqrt{7}+3\sqrt{3}} \]

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer
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This should be null

e2-e1-s3

0

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

A quartic polynomial

pol : UP(x,Ran) := x**4+(7/3)*x**2+30*x-(100/3)

\[ x^4 + \frac{7}{3} x^2 + 30 x - \frac{100}{3} \]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,RealClosure Fraction Integer)

Add some cubic roots

r1 := sqrt(7633)$Ran

\[ \sqrt{7633} \]

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

alpha := sqrt(5*r1-436,3)/3

\[ \frac{1}{3} \sqrt[3]{5 \sqrt[3]{7633} - 436} \]

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

beta := -sqrt(5*r1+436,3)/3

\[ -\frac{1}{3} \sqrt[3]{5 \sqrt[3]{7633} + 436} \]

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

this should be null

pol.(alpha+beta-1/3)
A quintic polynomial

\[ q_{ol} : \text{UP}(x, \text{Ran}) := x^5 + 10x^3 + 20x + 22 \]

\[ x^5 + 10x^3 + 20x + 22 \]

Type: \text{UnivariatePolynomial}(x, \text{RealClosure Fraction Integer})

Add some cubic roots

\[ r_2 := \sqrt{153} \$\text{Ran} \]

\[ \sqrt{153} \]

Type: \text{RealClosure Fraction Integer}

\[ \alpha_2 := \sqrt{r_2 - 11, 5} \]

\[ \sqrt[5]{\sqrt{153} - 11} \]

Type: \text{RealClosure Fraction Integer}

\[ \beta_2 := -\sqrt{r_2 + 11, 5} \]

\[ -\sqrt[5]{\sqrt{153} + 11} \]

Type: \text{RealClosure Fraction Integer}

this should be null

\[ q_{ol}(\alpha_2 + \beta_2) \]

0

Type: \text{RealClosure Fraction Integer}
Finally, some examples from the book Computer Algebra by Davenport, Siret and Tournier (page 77). The last one is due to Ramanujan.

$$\sqrt{4 \sqrt{2} + 9} = 2 \sqrt{2} + 1$$

Type: Equation RealClosure Fraction Integer

\(\text{dst1}::\text{Boolean} \quad \text{true} \quad \text{Type: Boolean} \)

s6:Ran:=\sqrt{6}

\(\sqrt{6}\)

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

\(\text{dst2} := \sqrt{5 + 2s6} + \sqrt{5 - 2s6} = 2s3\)

$$\sqrt{-2 \sqrt{6} + 5} + \sqrt{2 \sqrt{6} + 5} = 2 \sqrt{3}$$

Type: Equation RealClosure Fraction Integer

\(\text{dst2}::\text{Boolean} \quad \text{true} \quad \text{Type: Boolean} \)

s29:Ran:=\sqrt{29}

\(\sqrt{29}\)

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer
\[ \sqrt{2\sqrt{-10 \sqrt{29} + 55} - 2\sqrt{29} + 16} = -\sqrt{2\sqrt{29} + 11} + \sqrt{2\sqrt{3} + 22} + \sqrt{3} \]

Type: Equation RealClosure Fraction Integer

dst4::Boolean

\text{true}

Type: Boolean

\[ \sqrt{(112 + 70s2) + (46 + 34s2) s5} = (5 + 4s2) + (3 + s2) s5 \]

\[ \sqrt{(34 \sqrt{2} + 46) \sqrt{3} + 70 \sqrt{2} + 112} = (\sqrt{2} + 3) \sqrt{3} + 4 \sqrt{3} + 5 \]

Type: Equation RealClosure Fraction Integer

dst6::Boolean

\text{true}

Type: Boolean

f3:Ran:=\sqrt{3,5}

\sqrt{3}

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

f25:Ran:=\sqrt{1/25,5}

\sqrt{\frac{1}{25}}

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer
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f32: Ran := \sqrt{32/5}

\frac{\sqrt{32}}{5}

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

f27: Ran := \sqrt{27/5}

\frac{\sqrt{27}}{5}

Type: RealClosure Fraction Integer

dst5 := \sqrt{(f32-f27,3)} = f25*(1+f3-f3**2) = \frac{\sqrt{3}-\frac{\sqrt{27}}{5}+\frac{\sqrt{32}}{5}}{5} = (-\sqrt{3}^2 + \sqrt{3} + 1) \frac{\sqrt{1}}{25}

Type: Equation RealClosure Fraction Integer

dst5:: Boolean

true

Type: Boolean

9.67 RegularTriangularSet

The RegularTriangularSet domain constructor implements regular triangular sets. These particular triangular sets were introduced by M. Kalkbrener (1991) in his PhD Thesis under the name regular chains. Regular chains and their related concepts are presented in the paper “On the Theories of Triangular sets” By P. Aubry, D. Lazard and M. Moreno Maza (to appear in the Journal of Symbolic Computation). The RegularTriangularSet constructor also provides a new method (by the third author) for solving polynomial system by means of regular chains. This method has two ways of solving. One has the same specifications as Kalkbrener’s algorithm (1991) and the other is closer to Lazard’s method (Discr. App. Math, 1991). Moreover, this new method removes redundant component from the decompositions when this is not too expensive. This is always the case with
square-free regular chains. So if you want to obtain decompositions without redundant components just use the \texttt{SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet} domain constructor or the \texttt{LazardSetSolvingPackage} package constructor. See also the \texttt{LexTriangularPackage} and \texttt{ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage} for the case of algebraic systems with a finite number of (complex) solutions.

One of the main features of regular triangular sets is that they naturally define towers of simple extensions of a field. This allows to perform with multivariate polynomials the same kind of operations as one can do in an \texttt{EuclideanDomain}.

The \texttt{RegularTriangularSet} constructor takes four arguments. The first one, \texttt{R}, is the coefficient ring of the polynomials; it must belong to the category \texttt{GcdDomain}. The second one, \texttt{E}, is the exponent monoid of the polynomials; it must belong to the category \texttt{OrderedAbelianMonoidSup}. The third one, \texttt{V}, is the ordered set of variables; it must belong to the category \texttt{OrderedSet}. The last one is the polynomial ring; it must belong to the category \texttt{RecursivePolynomialCategory(R,E,V)}. The abbreviation for \texttt{RegularTriangularSet} is \texttt{REGSET}. See also the constructor \texttt{RegularChain} which only takes two arguments, the coefficient ring and the ordered set of variables; in that case, polynomials are necessarily built with the \texttt{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial} domain constructor.

We shall explain now how to use the constructor \texttt{REGSET} and how to read the decomposition of a polynomial system by means of regular sets.

Let us give some examples. We start with an easy one (Donati-Traverso) in order to understand the two ways of solving polynomial systems provided by the \texttt{REGSET} constructor.

Define the coefficient ring.

\begin{verbatim}
R := Integer
    Type: Domain
\end{verbatim}

Define the list of variables,

\begin{verbatim}
ls : List Symbol := [x,y,z,t]
    Type: List Symbol
\end{verbatim}

and make it an ordered set;

\begin{verbatim}
V := OVAR(ls)
\end{verbatim}
OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]  

Type: Domain

then define the exponent monoid.

E := IndexedExponents V

IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]  

Type: Domain

Define the polynomial ring.

P := NSMP(R, V)

NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])  

Type: Domain

Let the variables be polynomial.

x: P := ‘x

x  

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial( Integer,  
OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

y: P := ‘y

y  

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial( Integer,  
OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

z: P := ‘z

z  

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial( Integer,  
OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])
t: P := 't

\[ t \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial( Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

Now call the `RegularTriangularSet` domain constructor.

T := REGSET(R,E,V,P)

RegularTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponentsOrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t], NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t]))

Type: Domain

Define a polynomial system.

p1 := x ** 31 - x ** 6 - x - y

\[ x^{31} - x^6 - x - y \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

p2 := x ** 8 - z

\[ x^8 - z \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

p3 := x ** 10 - t

\[ x^{10} - t \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial( Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])
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\[ lp := [p1, p2, p3] \]
\[
\begin{align*}
  x^{31} - x^6 - x - y, x^8 - z, x^{10} - t
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial( Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

First of all, let us solve this system in the sense of Kalkbrener.

\[
\text{zeroSetSplit}(lp) \quad \Rightarrow
\]
\[
\left\{ \begin{align*}
  z^5 - t^4 + t z y^2 + 2 z^3 y - t^8 + 2 t^5 + t^3 - t^2, (t^4 - t) x - t y - z^2
\end{align*} \right\}
\]

Type: List RegularTriangularSet( Integer, IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList [x,y,z], OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial( Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]))

And now in the sense of Lazard (or Wu and other authors).

\[
\text{zeroSetSplit}(lp, false) \quad \Rightarrow
\]
\[
\left\{ \begin{align*}
  z^5 - t^4 + t z y^2 + 2 z^3 y - t^8 + 2 t^5 + t^3 - t^2, (t^4 - t) x - t y - z^2 \\
  t^3 - 1, z^5 - t, t z y^2 + 2 z^3 y + 1, z x^2 - t
\end{align*} \right\}, \{t, z, y, x\}
\]

Type: List RegularTriangularSet( Integer, IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList [x,y,z], OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial( Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]))

We can see that the first decomposition is a subset of the second. So how can both be correct?

Recall first that polynomials from a domain of the category RecursivePolynomialCategory are regarded as univariate polynomials in their main variable. For instance the second polynomial in the first set of each decomposition has main variable \( y \) and its initial (i.e. its leading coefficient w.r.t. its main variable) is \( tz \).

Now let us explain how to read the second decomposition. Note that the non-constant initials of the first set are \( t^4 - t \) and \( tz \). Then the solutions described by this first set are the common zeros of its polynomials that do not cancel the polynomials \( t^4 - t \) and \( t y z \). Now the solutions of the input system \( lp \) satisfying these equations are described by the second and the third sets of the decomposition. Thus, in some sense, they can
be considered as degenerated solutions. The solutions given by the first set are called
the generic points of the system; they give the general form of the solutions. The first
decomposition only provides these generic points. This latter decomposition is useful
when they are many degenerated solutions (which is sometimes hard to compute) and
when one is only interested in general informations, like the dimension of the input
system.

We can get the dimensions of each component of a decomposition as follows.

\[\text{[coHeight(ts) for ts in lts]}\]

\[[1, 0, 0]\]

Type: List NonNegativeInteger

Thus the first set has dimension one. Indeed \( t \) can take any value, except 0 or any third
root of 1, whereas \( z \) is completely determined from \( t, y \) is given by \( z \) and \( t \), and finally
\( x \) is given by the other three variables. In the second and the third sets of the second
decomposition the four variables are completely determined and thus these sets have
dimension zero.

We give now the precise specifications of each decomposition. This assume some
mathematical knowledge. However, for the non-expert user, the above explanations
will be sufficient to understand the other features of the \texttt{RSEGSET} constructor.

The input system \( \text{lp} \) is decomposed in the sense of Kalkbrener as finitely many regular
sets \( T_1, \ldots, T_s \) such that the radical ideal generated by \( \text{lp} \) is the intersection of the radicals
of the saturated ideals of \( T_1, \ldots, T_s \). In other words, the affine variety associated with
\( \text{lp} \) is the union of the closures (w.r.t. Zarisky topology) of the regular-zeros sets of
\( T_1, \ldots, T_s \).

\textbf{N. B.} The prime ideals associated with the radical of the saturated ideal of a regular
triangular set have all the same dimension; moreover these prime ideals can be given
by characteristic sets with the same main variables. Thus a decomposition in the sense
of Kalkbrener is unmixed dimensional. Then it can be viewed as a lazy decomposition
into prime ideals (some of these prime ideals being merged into unmixed dimensional
ideals).

Now we explain the other way of solving by means of regular triangular sets. The input
system \( \text{lp} \) is decomposed in the sense of Lazard as finitely many regular triangular sets
\( T_1, \ldots, T_s \) such that the affine variety associated with \( \text{lp} \) is the union of the regular-zeros
sets of \( T_1, \ldots, T_s \). Thus a decomposition in the sense of Lazard is also a decomposition
in the sense of Kalkbrener; the converse is false as we have seen before.

When the input system has a finite number of solutions, both ways of solving provide
similar decompositions as we shall see with this second example (Caprasse).

Define a polynomial system.

\( f_1 := y^*2*z+2*x*y*t-2*x-z \)
(2 \, t \, y - 2) \, x + z \, y^2 - z

Type: \texttt{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])}

\(f_2 := -x^{**3}z + 4x^{*}y^{**2}z + 4x^{*}y^{*}2y^{*}t + 2y^{*}3t + 4x^{*}2 - 10y^{*}2 + 4x^{*}z - 10y^{*}t + 2\)

\(-z \, x^3 + (4 \, t \, y + 4) \, x^2 + (4 \, z \, y^2 + 4 \, z) \, x + 2 \, t \, y^3 - 10 \, y^2 - 10 \, t \, y + 2\)

Type: \texttt{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])}

\(f_3 := 2y^{*}z^{*}t + x^{*}t^{**2} - x - 2z\)

\((t^2 - 1) \, x + 2 \, t \, z \, y - 2 \, z\)

Type: \texttt{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])}

\(f_4 := -x^{*}z^{**3} + 4y^{*}z^{*}z^{*}2t + 4x^{*}z^{*}t^{**}2 + 2y^{*}t^{**}3 + 4x^{*}z + 4z^{*}2 - 10y^{*}t - 10t^{**}2 + 2\)

\((-z^3 + (4 \, t^2 + 4) \, z) \, x + (4 \, t \, z^2 + 2 \, t^3 - 10 \, t) \, y + 4 \, z^2 - 10 \, t^2 + 2\)

Type: \texttt{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])}

\(l_f := [f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4]\)

\([[(2 \, t \, y - 2) \, x + z \, y^2 - z,\]
\(-z \, x^3 + (4 \, t \, y + 4) \, x^2 + (4 \, z \, y^2 + 4 \, z) \, x + 2 \, t \, y^3 - 10 \, y^2 - 10 \, t \, y + 2,\]
\((t^2 - 1) \, x + 2 \, t \, z \, y - 2 \, z,\)
\((-z^3 + (4 \, t^2 + 4) \, z) \, x + (4 \, t \, z^2 + 2 \, t^3 - 10 \, t) \, y + 4 \, z^2 - 10 \, t^2 + 2]\)

Type: \texttt{List NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])}
First of all, let us solve this system in the sense of Kalkbrener.

\[
\text{zeroSetSplit}(lf) \Rightarrow \\
\left[\begin{array}{l}
\{t^2 - 1, z^8 - 16 z^6 + 256 z^2 - 256, t y - 1, (z^3 - 8 z) x - 8 z^2 + 16\}, \\
\{3 t^2 + 1, z^2 - 7 t^2 - 1, y + t, x + z\}, \\
\{t^8 - 10 t^6 + 10 t^2 - 1, z, (t^3 - 5 t) y - 5 t^2 + 1, x\}, \\
\{t^2 + 3, z^2 - 4, y + t, x - z\}\end{array}\right]
\]

Type: List RegularTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]))

And now in the sense of Lazard (or Wu and other authors).

\[
lts2 := \text{zeroSetSplit}(lf, false) \Rightarrow \\
\left[\begin{array}{l}
\{t^8 - 10 t^6 + 10 t^2 - 1, z, (t^3 - 5 t) y - 5 t^2 + 1, x\}, \\
\{t^2 - 1, z^8 - 16 z^6 + 256 z^2 - 256, t y - 1, (z^3 - 8 z) x - 8 z^2 + 16\}, \\
\{3 t^2 + 1, z^2 - 7 t^2 - 1, y + t, x + z\}, \\
\{t^2 + 3, z^2 - 4, y + t, x - z\}\end{array}\right]
\]

Type: List RegularTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]))

Up to the ordering of the components, both decompositions are identical.

Let us check that each component has a finite number of solutions.

\[
\text{[coHeight(ts) for ts in lts2]} \\
\begin{bmatrix} 0, 0, 0, 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List NonNegativeInteger
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Let us count the degrees of each component,

\[
\text{degrees} := \{\text{degree}(\text{ts}) \text{ for ts in lts2}\}
\]

\[8, 16, 4, 4\]

Type: List NonNegativeInteger

and compute their sum.

\[
\text{reduce}(+, \text{degrees})
\]

32

Type: PositiveInteger

We study now the options of the zeroSetSplit operation. As we have seen yet, there is an optional second argument which is a boolean value. If this value is true (this is the default) then the decomposition is computed in the sense of Kalkbrener, otherwise it is computed in the sense of Lazard.

There is a second boolean optional argument that can be used (in that case the first optional argument must be present). This second option allows you to get some information during the computations.

Therefore, we need to understand a little what is going on during the computations. An important feature of the algorithm is that the intermediate computations are managed in some sense like the processes of a Unix system. Indeed, each intermediate computation may generate other intermediate computations and the management of all these computations is a crucial task for the efficiency. Thus any intermediate computation may be suspended, killed or resumed, depending on algebraic considerations that determine priorities for these processes. The goal is of course to go as fast as possible towards the final decomposition which means to avoid as much as possible unnecessary computations.

To follow the computations, one needs to set to true the second argument. Then a lot of numbers and letters are displayed. Between a [ and a ] one has the state of the processes at a given time. Just after [ one can see the number of processes. Then each process is represented by two numbers between < and >. A process consists of a list of polynomial \( \text{ps} \) and a triangular set \( \text{ts} \); its goal is to compute the common zeros of \( \text{ps} \) that belong to the regular-zeros set of \( \text{ts} \). After the processes, the number between pipes gives the total number of polynomials in all the sets \( \text{ps} \). Finally, the number between braces gives the number of components of a decomposition that are already computed. This number may decrease.

Let us take a third example (Czapor-Geddes-Wang) to see how this information is displayed.

Define a polynomial system.
\[ u \in \mathbb{R} := 2 \]

\[ q_1 := 2^\ast(u-1)^{\ast2} + 2\ast(x-z\ast x+z^{\ast2}) + y^{\ast2}\ast(x-1)^{\ast2} - 2\ast u\ast x + \\
2\ast y\ast t\ast(1-x)\ast(x-z) + 2\ast u\ast z\ast t\ast(t-y) + u^{\ast2}\ast t^{\ast2}\ast(1-2\ast z) + \\
2\ast u\ast t^{\ast2}\ast(z-x) + 2\ast u\ast t\ast y\ast(z-1) + 2\ast u\ast z\ast x\ast(y+1) + (u^{\ast2}-2\ast u)\ast z^{\ast2}\ast t^{\ast2} + \\
2\ast u^{\ast2}\ast z^{\ast2}\ast 2 + 4\ast u\ast (1-u)\ast z + t^{\ast2}\ast(z-x)^{\ast2} \\
\]

\[ (y^2 - 2\ast t\ast y + t^2)\ast x^2 + \\
(-2\ast y^2 + (2\ast t + 4)\ast z + 2\ast t)\ast y + (-2\ast t^2 + 2)\ast z - 4\ast t^2 - 2)\ast x + \\
y^2 + (-2\ast t \ast z - 4\ast t)\ast y + (t^2 + 10)\ast z^2 - 8\ast z + 4\ast t^2 + 2 \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

\[ q_2 := t\ast(2\ast z + 1)\ast(x-z) + y\ast(z+2)\ast(1-x) + u\ast(1-2\ast u)\ast z\ast t + \\
u\ast y\ast(x+u-z\ast x-1) + u\ast(u+1)\ast z^{\ast2}\ast t \\
(-3\ast z\ast y + 2\ast t\ast z + t)\ast x + (z+4)\ast y + 4\ast t\ast z^2 - 7\ast t \ast z \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

\[ q_3 := -u^{\ast2}\ast(z-1)^{\ast2} + 2\ast z\ast(z-x) - 2\ast(x-1) \\
(-2\ast z - 2)\ast x - 2\ast z^2 + 8\ast z - 2 \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

\[ q_4 := u^{\ast2} + 4\ast(z-x\ast x) + 3\ast y^{\ast2} \ast(x-1)^{\ast2} - 3\ast t^{\ast2}\ast(z-x)^{\ast2} + \\
3\ast u^{\ast2}\ast t^{\ast2}\ast(z-1)^{\ast2} + 2 + u^{\ast2}\ast z^{\ast2}\ast(z-2) + 6\ast u\ast t\ast y\ast(z+x+z\ast x-1) \\
(3\ast y^2 - 3\ast t^2 - 4)\ast x^2 + (-6\ast y^2 + (12\ast t\ast z + 12\ast t)\ast y + 6\ast t^2 \ast z)\ast x + 3\ast y^2 + \\
(12\ast t - 12\ast t)\ast y + (9\ast t^2 + 4)\ast z^2 + (-24\ast t^2 - 4)\ast z + 12\ast t^2 + 4 \]
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Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

lq := [q1, q2, q3, q4]

\[
\begin{align*}
\left(y^2 - 2t y + t^2\right) x^2 + \\
(-2y^2 + (2t+4) z + 2t) y + (-2t^2 + 2) z - 4t^2 - 2) x + y^2 + \\
(-2tz - 4t) y + (t^2 + 10) z^2 - 8z + 4t^2 + 2, \\
(-3zy + 2tz + t) x + (z + 4) y + 4t z^2 - 7tz, \\
(-2z - 2) x - 2z^2 + 8z - 2, (3y^2 - 3t^2 - 4) x^2 + \\
(-6y^2 + (12t + 12) y + 6t^2 z) x + 3y^2 + \\
(12t - 12) y + (9t^2 + 4) z^2 + (-24t^2 - 4) z + 12t^2 + 4
\end{align*}
\]

Type: List
NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

Let us try the information option. N.B. The timing should be between 1 and 10 minutes, depending on your machine.

zeroSetSplit(lq,true,true)$T

[1 <4,0> -> |4|; (0)]W[2 <5,0>,<3,1> -> |8|; (0)] [2 <4,1>,<3,1> -> |7|; (0)] [1 <3,1> -> |3|; (0)] GI[3 <3,2>,<4,1>,<3,2> -> |11|; (0)] GW[3 <3,1>,<3,2>,<3,2>,<5,2> -> |13|; (0)]GWW[5 <3,2> <3,2> <4,2> <4,2> <5,2> <5,2> <2,3> -> |29|; (0)] [8 <1,3>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<5,2>,<5,2>,<2,3> -> |28|; (0)] [7 <4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<5,2>,<5,2>,<2,3> -> |27|; (0)] [6 <4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<5,2>,<5,2>,<2,3> -> |26|; (0)] [5 <4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<5,2>,<5,2>,<2,3> -> |25|; (0)] [4 <4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<5,2>,<5,2>,<2,3> -> |24|; (0)] [3 <4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<5,2>,<5,2>,<2,3> -> |23|; (0)] [2 <4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<5,2>,<5,2>,<2,3> -> |22|; (0)] [1 <4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<4,2>,<5,2>,<5,2>,<2,3]
<4, 2>, <4, 2>, <5, 2>, <3, 3>, <2, 3> -> |22|; {0} |GIGI[6 <3, 4>, <4, 2>, <4, 2>,
<5, 2>, <3, 3>, <2, 3> -> |21|; {0} |GGG[5 <4, 2>, <4, 2>, <5, 2>, <3, 3>, <2, 3> -> |18|; {0} |GIGI

[6 <5, 2>, <4, 2>, <5, 2>, <3, 3>, <2, 3> -> |22|; {0} |6 <4, 3>, <4, 2>, <5, 2>, <3, 3>, <2, 3> -> |21|; {0} |GIGI

[8 <4, 2>, <4, 2>, <4, 2>, <4, 2>, <5, 2>, <3, 3>, <2, 3> -> |20|; {0} GGG

<2, 4>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <4, 3>, <2, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 4>, <3, 4> -> |27|; {0} GIGI

<3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 4>, <3, 4> -> |26|; {0} GIGI

[9 <4, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 4>, <3, 4> -> |25|; {0} GIGI

<3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <4, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 4>, <3, 4> -> |24|; {0} GIGI

[10 <4, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <4, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 4>, <3, 4> -> |23|; {0} GIGI

<2, 4>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 3>, <3, 4>, <3, 4> -> |22|; {0} GIGI
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\{1\} \{8 <3,3>,<4,3>,<2,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{24\}; \{1\}\}
W\{8 <2,4>,<3,3>,<2,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{23\}; \{1\}\}\{8 <1,4>,<4,3>,<2,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{22\}; \{1\}\}\{7 <4,3>,
<2,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{21\}; \{1\}\}\{7 <1,4>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{20\}; \{1\}\}\{7 <2,4>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{19\}; \{1\}\}\{7 <1,4>,<4,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{18\}; \{1\}\}\{7 <2,4>,<4,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{17\}; \{1\}\}\{7 <1,4>,<4,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{16\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{15\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <2,4>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{14\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <1,4>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{13\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <2,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{12\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <1,4>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{11\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <2,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{10\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <1,4>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{9\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <2,4>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{8\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <1,4>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{7\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <2,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{6\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <1,4>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{5\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <2,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{4\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <1,4>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{3\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <2,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{2\}; \{1\}\}\{6 <1,4>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,3>,<3,4>,<3,4> \rightarrow \{1\}; \{1\}\}

*** QCMPACK Statistics ***
Table size: 36
Entries reused: 255

*** REGSETGCD: Gcd Statistics ***
Table size: 125
Entries reused: 0

*** REGSETGCD: Inv Set Statistics ***
Table size: 30
Entries reused: 0

\[\{960725655771966 t^{24} + 386820897948702 t^{23} + 8906817198608181 t^{22} + 2704966893949428 t^{21} + 3730403334022864 t^{20} + 7924782817170207 t^{19} + 93126799040354990 t^{18} + 13101273653130910 t^{17} + 15614625042711858 t^{16} + 16626490957259119 t^{15} + 190699288479805763 t^{14} + 24339173367625275 t^{13} + 180532313014960135 t^{12} + 35288089030975378 t^{11} + \]
135054975747656285 \ t^{10} + 34733736952488540 \ t^9 + \\
75947600354493972 \ t^8 + 19772555692457088 \ t^7 + \\
2887155873755428 \ t^6 + 5576152439081664 \ t^5 + \\
6321711820352976 \ t^4 + 438314209312320 \ t^3 + \\
581105748367008 \ t^2 - 60254467992576 \ t + \\
1449115951104,

(26604210869491302385515265737052082361668474181372891857784 \ t^{23} + \\
443104378424686086067294899528269664238693556855017735265295 \ t^{22} + \\
279078393286701234679141342358988327155321305829547909310242 \ t^{21} + \\
33902763614132324651076171766155430546206626391823613392185226 \ t^{20} + \\
94147817950354057554198645220352803719793196473813873434129 \ t^{19} + \\
11547855194679475242211696749673949352585747674184320988144390 \ t^{18} + \\
13436095666759778988170165669941321646721566033356417241432 \ t^{17} + \\
23233813868147873503933551617175640859899102987800663566699334 \ t^{16} + \\
86957402053767233695084544050879074085093313636484983573386433 \ t^{15} + \\
31651554305876934875194194846992655424175006510346802476969 \ t^{14} + \\
12714009902877174877442065952547731879554823889855386072264931 \ t^{13} + \\
3945089913863764044802526964079540198337049550503295825160523 \ t^{12} + \\
3738735704288144509871371560232845884439102270778010470931960 \ t^{11} + \\
25293997512391412026144601435771131587561905532992045692885927 \ t^{10} + \\
5210239009846067123469262799870052773410471135950175008046524 \ t^9 + \\
150838879869302971662598705686082702427403187606238713491129188 \ t^8 + \\
35220872346929301263836862077577955348176912567083907510900 \ t^7 + \\
6079945200395681103086533792568868491101244247440034969288588 \ t^6 + \\
10906348523439008819991375624798602319698772346993433603680 \ t^5 + \\
1405819430871907102294432537538335402102838994019667487458352 \ t^4 + \\
8807152795032054007253667126550774887834782888493605202432 \ t^3 + \\
135882489433640933229781177155797768016065765482378675129440 \ t^2 - \\
1395728434428822622303559894607403014082516609749975646520320 \ t + \\
33463769273189299277258325709308472529217112855749713920) z + \\
85671571484043952879756725964506833932149637101090521164936 \ t^3 + \\
149792392864201791845708374032728942498797519251667250945721 \ t^2 + \\
77258371783645822157410865182159764138123003074190374021550 \ t^{1} + \\
11086225412685421449891894070861211184560556764334742191654 \ t^{0} + \\
213250494460678865219774480106826053783815789621501732672327 \ t^{19} +
366892907516066619572977849178343514501987898410131431699882
171388906471001872879490124368748236314765459039567820048872 +
t17 719243074691460216666023477331022483144921771645523139658986 −
t16 128798674689690072812879965633090291959663143108437632453385 +
t15 9553010883441245909306423132921314040856028790803526430270671 −
t14 1329609245675492874538687646300437824658458709144441096603 +
t13 9475806805814145326383085518325333106881690568644274964864413 +
t12 8032346879251353458861659855664084997602987947998566295339336 +
t11 7338202759292865165994622349207516400662174302614595173333825 +
t10 1308004628480367351164369613111971668880538855640917200187108 +
t9 4268059455741255498880229598973705747098216067697754352634748 +
t8 8928935268581409579131877590403301010345601514470613580600 +
t7 1679152575460683956631925852181341501981598137465328797013652 +
t6 2697574157679229083799715414335783554413158280591408043936 +
t5 3809515278646657529033580829801282724081345372680202920198224 +
t4 197855452942284950329998826937601341312725033539452913286656 +
t3 3647741205738478294236665303396637763303928174935079178528 +
t2 3722212879279038648713080422224976273210890229485838670848 +
t1 890799724853114348361230634484013862024728599906874105856,

(3 z^3 − 11 z^2 + 8 z + 4) y + 2 t z^3 + 4 t z^2 − 5 t z − t,: |
(z + 1) x + [z^2 − 4 z + 1]

Type: List RegularTriangularSet( Integer, IndexedExponents
OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t],
NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial( Integer, OrderedVariableList
[x,y,z,t])))
real algorithm. The value of this flag is true when you are using zeroSetSplit with less than five arguments. Note that there is no available signature for zeroSetSplit with four arguments.

We finish this section by some remarks about both ways of solving, in the sense of Kalkbrener or in the sense of Lazard. For problems with a finite number of solutions, there are theoretically equivalent and the resulting decompositions are identical, up to the ordering of the components. However, when solving in the sense of Lazard, the algorithm behaves differently. In that case, it becomes more incremental than in the sense of Kalkbrener. That means the polynomials of the input system are considered one after another whereas in the sense of Kalkbrener the input system is treated more globally.

This makes an important difference in positive dimension. Indeed when solving in the sense of Kalkbrener, the Primeidealkettensatz of Krull is used. That means any regular triangular containing more polynomials than the input system can be deleted. This is not possible when solving in the sense of Lazard. This explains why Kalkbrener’s decompositions usually contain less components than those of Lazard. However, it may happen with some examples that the incremental process (that cannot be used when solving in the sense of Kalkbrener) provide a more efficient way of solving than the global one even if the Primeidealkettensatz is used. Thus just try both, with the various options, before concluding that you cannot solve your favorite system with zeroSetSplit. There exist more options at the development level that are not currently available in this public version.

9.68 RomanNumeral

The Roman numeral package was added to Axiom in MCMLXXXVI for use in denoting higher order derivatives.

For example, let $f$ be a symbolic operator.

\[ f := \text{operator 'f} \]

\[ f \]

Type: BasicOperator

This is the seventh derivative of $f$ with respect to $x$.

\[ \text{D}(f \, x, x, 7) \]

\[ f^{(vii)}(x) \]

Type: Expression Integer
You can have integers printed as Roman numerals by declaring variables to be of type \texttt{RomanNumeral} (abbreviation \texttt{ROMAN}).

\[
a := \text{roman}(1978 - 1965)
\]

\[
XIII
\]

Type: \texttt{RomanNumeral}

This package now has a small but devoted group of followers that claim this domain has shown its efficacy in many other contexts. They claim that Roman numerals are every bit as useful as ordinary integers.

In a sense, they are correct, because Roman numerals form a ring and you can therefore construct polynomials with Roman numeral coefficients, matrices over Roman numerals, etc..

\[
x : \text{UTS(RomanNumeral, }'x',0) := x
\]

\[x\]

Type: \texttt{UnivariateTaylorSeries(RomanNumeral,x,0)}

Was Fibonacci Italian or ROMAN?

\[
\text{recip}(1 - x - x^{**2})
\]

\[
1 + x + II \, x^{2} + III \, x^{3} + V \, x^{4} + VIII \, x^{5} + XIII \, x^{6} + XXI \, x^{7} +
\]

\[
XXXIV \, x^{8} + LV \, x^{9} + LXXXIX \, x^{10} + O(x^{11})
\]

Type: \texttt{Union(UnivariateTaylorSeries(RomanNumeral,x,0),...)}

You can also construct fractions with Roman numeral numerators and denominators, as this matrix Hilberticus illustrates.

\[
m : \text{MATRIX FRAC ROMAN}
\]

\[
\text{Void}
\]

\[
m := \text{matrix} \, [ \,[1/(i + j) \, \text{for} \, i \, \text{in} \, 1..3] \, \text{for} \, j \, \text{in} \, 1..3]\]
Note that the inverse of the matrix has integral Roman entries.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
I & I & I \\
I & I & I \\
II & II & II \\
I & I & I \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Matrix Fraction RomanNumeral

Unfortunately, the spoil-sports say that the fun stops when the numbers get big—mostly because the Romans didn’t establish conventions about representing very large numbers.

\[
y := \text{factorial 10}
\]

3628800

Type: PositiveInteger

You work it out!

\[
\text{roman y}
\]

\[
(((I)))(((I)))(((I)))(((I)))(((I)))(((I)))(((I)))(((I)))(((I)))
\]

Type: RomanNumeral

Issue the system command \texttt{)show RomanNumeral} to display the full list of operations defined by \texttt{RomanNumeral}.

### 9.69 Segment

The Segment domain provides a generalized interval type.

Segments are created using the \texttt{..} construct by indicating the (included) end points.
s := 3..10

3..10

Type: Segment PositiveInteger

The first end point is called the lo and the second is called hi.

lo s

3

Type: PositiveInteger

These names are used even though the end points might belong to an unordered set.

hi s

10

Type: PositiveInteger

In addition to the end points, each segment has an integer “increment.” An increment can be specified using the “by” construct.

t := 10..3 by -2

10..3by − 2

Type: Segment PositiveInteger

This part can be obtained using the incr function.

incr s

1

Type: PositiveInteger

Unless otherwise specified, the increment is 1.

incr t
A single value can be converted to a segment with equal end points. This happens if segments and single values are mixed in a list.

\[ l := [1..3, 5, 9, 15..11 \text{ by } -1] \]

\[ [1..3, 5, 9, 15..11 \text{ by } -1] \]

Type: List Segment PositiveInteger

If the underlying type is an ordered ring, it is possible to perform additional operations. The `expand` operation creates a list of points in a segment.

\[ \text{expand}\: s \]

\[ [3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10] \]

Type: List Integer

If \( k > 0 \), then \( \text{expand}(l..h \text{ by } k) \) creates the list \([l, l+k, \ldots, lN]\) where \( lN \leq h < lN+k \). If \( k < 0 \), then \( lN \geq h > lN+k \).

\[ \text{expand}\: t \]

\[ [10, 8, 6, 4] \]

Type: List Integer

It is also possible to expand a list of segments. This is equivalent to appending lists obtained by expanding each segment individually.

\[ \text{expand}\: l \]

\[ [1, 2, 3, 5, 9, 15, 14, 13, 12, 11] \]

Type: List Integer

For more information on related topics, see 9.70 on page 774 and 9.84 on page 823.
9.70 SegmentBinding

The SegmentBinding type is used to indicate a range for a named symbol. First give the symbol, then an = and finally a segment of values.

\[ x = a..b \]

\[ x = a..b \]

Type: SegmentBinding Symbol

This is used to provide a convenient syntax for arguments to certain operations.

\[ \text{sum}(i^2, i = 0..n) \]

\[ \frac{2 n^3 + 3 n^2 + n}{6} \]

Type: Fraction Polynomial Integer

\[ \text{draw}(x^2, x = -2..2) \]

The left-hand side must be of type Symbol but the right-hand side can be a segment over any type.

\[ \text{sb} := y = 1/2..3/2 \]

\[ y = \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) .. \left( \frac{3}{2} \right) \]

Type: SegmentBinding Fraction Integer

The left- and right-hand sides can be obtained using the variable and segment operations.

\[ \text{variable(sb)} \]

\[ y \]

Type: Symbol
9.71 Set

The Set domain allows one to represent explicit finite sets of values. These are similar to lists, but duplicate elements are not allowed.

Sets can be created by giving a fixed set of values ...

\[
s := \text{set } [x**2-1, y**2-1, z**2-1]
\]

\[
\{x^2 - 1, y^2 - 1, z^2 - 1\}
\]

Type: Set Polynomial Integer

or by using a collect form, just as for lists. In either case, the set is formed from a finite collection of values.

\[
t := \text{set } [x**i - i+1 \text{ for } i \text{ in } 2..10 \mid \text{prime? } i]
\]

\[
\{x^2 - 1, x^3 - 2, x^5 - 4, x^7 - 6\}
\]

Type: Set Polynomial Integer

The basic operations on sets are intersect, union, difference, and symmetricDifference.

\[
i := \text{intersect}(s, t)
\]

\[
\{x^2 - 1\}
\]

Type: Set Polynomial Integer

\[
u := \text{union}(s, t)
\]
\[ \{x^2 - 1, x^3 - 2, x^5 - 4, x^7 - 6, y^2 - 1, z^2 - 1\} \]

Type: Set Polynomial Integer

The set \( \text{difference}(s,t) \) contains those members of \( s \) which are not in \( t \).

\( \text{difference}(s,t) \)

\[ \{y^2 - 1, z^2 - 1\} \]

Type: Set Polynomial Integer

The set \( \text{symmetricDifference}(s,t) \) contains those elements which are in \( s \) or \( t \) but not in both.

\( \text{symmetricDifference}(s,t) \)

\[ \{x^3 - 2, x^5 - 4, x^7 - 6, y^2 - 1, z^2 - 1\} \]

Type: Set Polynomial Integer

Set membership is tested using the \textbf{member?} operation.

\( \text{member?}(y, s) \)

\textbf{false}  

Type: Boolean

\( \text{member?}((y+1)*(y-1), s) \)

\textbf{true}  

Type: Boolean

The \textbf{subset?} function determines whether one set is a subset of another.

\( \text{subset?}(i, s) \)

\textbf{true}
When the base type is finite, the absolute complement of a set is defined. This finds the set of all multiplicative generators of \texttt{PrimeField 11}—the integers mod 11.

\begin{verbatim}
gs := set [g for i in 1..11 | primitive?(g := i::PF 11)]
\end{verbatim}

\{2, 6, 7, 8\}

Type: Set PrimeField 11

The following values are not generators.

\begin{verbatim}
complement gs
\end{verbatim}

\{1, 3, 4, 5, 9, 10, 0\}

Type: Set PrimeField 11

Often the members of a set are computed individually; in addition, values can be inserted or removed from a set over the course of a computation. There are two ways to do this:

\begin{verbatim}
a := set [i**2 for i in 1..5]
\end{verbatim}

\{1, 4, 9, 16, 25\}

Type: Set PositiveInteger

One is to view a set as a data structure and to apply updating operations.

\begin{verbatim}
insert!(32, a)
\end{verbatim}

\{1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 32\}
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Type: Set PositiveInteger

remove!(25, a)

\{1, 4, 9, 16, 32\}

Type: Set PositiveInteger

a

\{1, 4, 9, 16, 32\}

Type: Set PositiveInteger

The other way is to view a set as a mathematical entity and to create new sets from old.

b := b0 := set [i**2 for i in 1..5]

\{1, 4, 9, 16, 25\}

Type: Set PositiveInteger

b := union(b, 32)

\{1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 32\}

Type: Set PositiveInteger

b := difference(b, 25)

\{1, 4, 9, 16, 32\}

Type: Set PositiveInteger

b0

\{1, 4, 9, 16, 25\}

Type: Set PositiveInteger

For more information about lists, see 9.47 on page 663.
9.72 SingleInteger

The SingleInteger domain is intended to provide support in Axiom for machine integer arithmetic. It is generally much faster than (bignum) Integer arithmetic but suffers from a limited range of values. Since Axiom can be implemented on top of various dialects of Lisp, the actual representation of small integers may not correspond exactly to the host machines integer representation.

In the CCL implementation of AXIOM (Release 2.1 onwards) the underlying representation of SingleInteger is the same as Integer. The underlying Lisp primitives treat machine-word sized computations specially.

You can discover the minimum and maximum values in your implementation by using min and max.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{min()} & \quad \text{SingleInteger} \\
& \quad -134217728 \\
& \quad \text{Type: SingleInteger} \\
\text{max()} & \quad \text{SingleInteger} \\
& \quad 134217727 \\
& \quad \text{Type: SingleInteger}
\end{align*}
\]

To avoid confusion with Integer, which is the default type for integers, you usually need to work with declared variables (?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??) . . .

\[
a := 1234 :: \text{SingleInteger}
\]

\[
1234 \\
\text{Type: SingleInteger}
\]

or use package calling (?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??).

\[
b := 124\text{SingleInteger}
\]

\[
124 \\
\text{Type: SingleInteger}
\]
You can add, multiply and subtract SingleInteger objects, and ask for the greatest common divisor (gcd).

\[ \text{gcd}(a, b) \]

2
Type: SingleInteger

The least common multiple (lcm) is also available.

\[ \text{lcm}(a, b) \]

76508
Type: SingleInteger

Operations \text{mulmod}, \text{addmod}, \text{submod}, \text{and invmod} are similar—they provide arithmetic modulo a given small integer. Here is 5 \ast 6 \text{mod} 13.

\[ \text{mulmod}(5, 6, 13) \]

4
Type: SingleInteger

To reduce a small integer modulo a prime, use \text{positiveRemainder}.

\[ \text{positiveRemainder}(37, 13) \]

11
Type: SingleInteger

Operations \text{And}, \text{Or}, \text{xor}, and \text{Not} provide bit level operations on small integers.

\[ \text{And}(3, 4) \]

0
Type: SingleInteger
Use `shift(int, numToShift)` to shift bits, where `i` is shifted left if `numToShift` is positive, right if negative.

```plaintext
shift(1, 4)$SingleInteger
16
Type: SingleInteger
```

```plaintext
shift(31, -1)$SingleInteger
15
Type: SingleInteger
```

Many other operations are available for small integers, including many of those provided for `Integer`. To see the other operations, use the Browse HyperDoc facility (?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??).

### 9.73 SparseTable

The `SparseTable` domain provides a general purpose table type with default entries. Here we create a table to save strings under integer keys. The value "Try again!" is returned if no other value has been stored for a key.

```plaintext
t: SparseTable(Integer, String, "Try again!") := table()

table()
Type: SparseTable(Integer, String, Try again!)
```

Entries can be stored in the table.

```plaintext
t.3 := "Number three"

"Number three"
Type: String
```

```plaintext
t.4 := "Number four"
```
"Number four"
Type: String

These values can be retrieved as usual, but if a look up fails the default entry will be returned.

t.3

"Number three"
Type: String

t.2

"Try again!"
Type: String

To see which values are explicitly stored, the keys and entries functions can be used.

keys t

[4,3]
Type: List Integer

entries t

["Number four","Number three"]
Type: List String

If a specific table representation is required, the GeneralSparseTable constructor should be used. The domain SparseTable(K, E, dflt) is equivalent to GeneralSparseTable(K,E,Table(K,E), dflt). For more information, see 9.80 on page 805 and 9.30 on page 567.
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9.74 SquareMatrix

The top level matrix type in Axiom is Matrix (see 9.52 on page 686), which provides basic arithmetic and linear algebra functions. However, since the matrices can be of any size it is not true that any pair can be added or multiplied. Thus Matrix has little algebraic structure.

Sometimes you want to use matrices as coefficients for polynomials or in other algebraic contexts. In this case, SquareMatrix should be used. The domain \( \text{SquareMatrix}(n, R) \) gives the ring of \( n \) by \( n \) square matrices over \( R \).

Since SquareMatrix is not normally exposed at the top level, you must expose it before it can be used.

)set expose add constructor SquareMatrix

SquareMatrix is now explicitly exposed in frame G82322

Once SQMATRIX has been exposed, values can be created using the squareMatrix function.

\[
m := \text{squareMatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \\ i & 4 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2, Complex Integer)

The usual arithmetic operations are available.

\[
m^2 - m \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4i \\ 4i & 13 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2, Complex Integer)

Square matrices can be used where ring elements are required. For example, here is a matrix with matrix entries.

\[
mm := \text{squareMatrix} \begin{bmatrix} [m, 1], [1-m, m^2] \end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -i \\ i & 4 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\
\begin{bmatrix} 0 & i \\ -i & -3 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -5i \\ 5i & 17 \end{bmatrix}
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Or you can construct a polynomial with square matrix coefficients.

\[
p := (x + m)^2
\]

\[
x^2 + \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -2 i \\ 2 i & 8 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -5 i \\ 5 i & 17 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: Polynomial SquareMatrix(2,Complex Integer)

This value can be converted to a square matrix with polynomial coefficients.

\[
p :: \text{SquareMatrix}(2, ?)
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix} x^2 + 2 x + 2 & -2 i x - 5 i \\ 2 i x + 5 i & x^2 + 8 x + 17 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: SquareMatrix(2,Polynomial Complex Integer)

For more information on related topics, see ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, and 9.52 on page 686.

### 9.75 SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet

The \text{SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet} domain constructor implements square-free regular triangular sets. See the \text{RegularTriangularSet} domain constructor for general regular triangular sets. Let \( T \) be a regular triangular set consisting of polynomials \( t_1, ..., t_m \) ordered by increasing main variables. The regular triangular set \( T \) is square-free if \( T \) is empty or if \( t_1, ..., t_{m-1} \) is square-free and if the polynomial \( t_m \) is square-free as a univariate polynomial with coefficients in the tower of simple extensions associated with \( t_1, ..., t_{m-1} \).

The main interest of square-free regular triangular sets is that their associated towers of simple extensions are product of fields. Consequently, the saturated ideal of a square-free regular triangular set is radical. This property simplifies some of the operations related to regular triangular sets. However, building square-free regular triangular sets is generally more expensive than building general regular triangular sets.

As the \text{RegularTriangularSet} domain constructor, the \text{SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet} domain constructor also implements a method for solving polynomial systems by means of regular triangular sets. This is in fact the same method with some adaptations to take into account the fact that the computed regular chains are square-free. Note that it is also possible to pass from a decomposition into general regular triangular sets to a decomposition into square-free regular
triangular sets. This conversion is used internally by the LazardSetSolvingPackage package constructor.

**N.B.** When solving polynomial systems with the SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet domain constructor or the LazardSetSolvingPackage package constructor, decompositions have no redundant components. See also LexTriangularPackage and ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage for the case of algebraic systems with a finite number of (complex) solutions.

We shall explain now how to use the constructor SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet.

This constructor takes four arguments. The first one, \( R \), is the coefficient ring of the polynomials; it must belong to the category GcdDomain. The second one, \( E \), is the exponent monoid of the polynomials; it must belong to the category OrderedAbelianMonoidSup. The third one, \( V \), is the ordered set of variables; it must belong to the category OrderedSet. The last one is the polynomial ring; it must belong to the category RecursivePolynomialCategory(\( R, E, V \)). The abbreviation for SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet is SREGSET.

Note that the way of understanding triangular decompositions is detailed in the example of the RegularTriangularSet constructor.

Let us illustrate the use of this constructor with one example (Donati-Traverso). Define the coefficient ring.

\[
R := \text{Integer}
\]

\[
\text{Integer}
\]

Type: Domain

Define the list of variables,

\[
ls : \text{List Symbol} := [x, y, z, t]
\]

\[
[x, y, z, t]
\]

Type: List Symbol

and make it an ordered set;

\[
V := \text{OVAR}(ls)
\]

OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]
then define the exponent monoid.

\[ E := \text{IndexedExponents V} \]

\text{IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList} \{x, y, z, t\}

Type: Domain

Define the polynomial ring.

\[ P := \text{NSMP} (R, V) \]

\text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(Integer, OrderedVariableList \{x, y, z, t\})

Type: Domain

Let the variables be polynomial.

\[ x: P := 'x \]

\[ x \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList \{x, y, z, t\})

\[ y: P := 'y \]

\[ y \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList \{x, y, z, t\})

\[ z: P := 'z \]

\[ z \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList \{x, y, z, t\})
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\[ t: \text{P} := \text{'}t \]

\[ t \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

Now call the SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet domain constructor.

\[ \text{ST} := \text{SREGSET}(R,E,V,P) \]

\begin{verbatim}
SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet(Integer,
IndexedExponentsOrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t],
OrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t],
NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,
OrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t]))
\end{verbatim}

Type: Domain

Define a polynomial system.

\[ \text{p1} := x^{31} - x^6 - x - y \]

\[ x^{31} - x^6 - x - y \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

\[ \text{p2} := x^{8} - z \]

\[ x^{8} - z \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

\[ \text{p3} := x^{10} - t \]

\[ x^{10} - t \]

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])
First of all, let us solve this system in the sense of Kalkbrener.

\[
\text{zeroSetSplit}(lp) \quad \text{ST} \\
\begin{bmatrix}
z^5 - t^4, t z y^2 + 2 z^3 y - t^8 + 2 t^5 + t^3 - t^2, (t^4 - t) x - t y - z^2
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List \(\text{SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet}(\text{Integer}, \text{IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList} [x,y,z,t], \text{OrderedVariableList} [x,y,z,t], \text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \text{OrderedVariableList} [x,y,z,t]))\)

And now in the sense of Lazard (or Wu and other authors).

\[
\text{zeroSetSplit}(lp, \text{false}) \quad \text{ST} \\
\begin{bmatrix}
z^5 - t^4, t z y^2 + 2 z^3 y - t^8 + 2 t^5 + t^3 - t^2, (t^4 - t) x - t y - z^2
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
t^3 - 1, z^5 - t, t y + z^3, z x^2 - t
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: List \(\text{SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet}(\text{Integer}, \text{IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList} [x,y,z,t], \text{OrderedVariableList} [x,y,z,t], \text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \text{OrderedVariableList} [x,y,z,t]))\)

Now to see the difference with the \text{RegularTriangularSet} domain constructor, we define:

\[
T := \text{REGSET}(R, E, V, P)
\]

\[
\text{RegularTriangularSet}(\text{Integer}, \text{IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList} [x,y,z,t], \text{OrderedVariableList} [x,y,z,t], \text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{Integer}, \text{OrderedVariableList} [x,y,z,t]))
\]
and compute:

\[
\text{lts := zeroSetSplit(lp, false)}$T$
\]
\[
\left[ \{ z^5 - t^4, t z y^2 + 2 z^3 y - t^8 + 2 t^5 + t^3 - t^2, (t^4 - t) x - t y - z^2 \},
\{ t^3 - 1, z^5 - t, t z y^2 + 2 z^3 y + 1, z x^2 - t \}, \{ t, z, y, t \} \right]
\]

Type: List RegularTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponents
OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t],
NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]))

If you look at the second set in both decompositions in the sense of Lazard, you will see that the polynomial with main variable \( y \) is not the same.

Let us understand what has happened.

We define:

\[
\text{ts := lts.2}$T$
\]
\[
\left\{ t^3 - 1, z^5 - t, t z y^2 + 2 z^3 y + 1, z x^2 - t \right\}
\]

Type: RegularTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponents
OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t],
NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]))

\[
\text{pol := select(ts,'y)}$T$
\]
\[
t z y^2 + 2 z^3 y + 1
\]

Type: Union( NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,
OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]),...)

\[
\text{tower := collectUnder(ts,'y)}$T$
\]
\[
\left\{ t^3 - 1, z^5 - t \right\}
\]
Type: RegularTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponents, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]))

pack := RegularTriangularSetGcdPackage(R,E,V,P,T)

RegularTriangularSetGcdPackage(Integer, IndexedExponentsOrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t], NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t]), RegularTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponentsOrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t], NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList[x,y,z,t])))

Type: Domain

Then we compute:

toseSquareFreePart(pol,tower) $pack

\[
\left[\left[\text{val} = ty + z^2, \text{tower} = \{t^3 - 1, z^5 - t\}\right]\right]
\]

Type: List Record(val: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]), tower: RegularTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])))

9.76 Stream

A Stream object is represented as a list whose last element contains the wherewithal to create the next element, should it ever be required.

Let \(\text{ints}\) be the infinite stream of non-negative integers.

\(\text{ints} := [i \text{ for } i \text{ in } 0..]\)
By default, ten stream elements are calculated. This number may be changed to something else by the system command \texttt{)set streams calculate}. For the display purposes of this book, we have chosen a smaller value.

More generally, you can construct a stream by specifying its initial value and a function which, when given an element, creates the next element.

\[
f : \text{List INT} \rightarrow \text{List INT}
\]

\[
\text{Void}
\]

\[
f x = [x.1 + x.2, x.1]
\]

\[
\text{Void}
\]

\[
fibs := [i.2 \text{ for } i \text{ in } \text{generate}(f, [1,1])]
\]

\[
\text{Compiling function } f \text{ with type List Integer } \rightarrow \text{ List Integer}
\]

\[
[1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, ...]
\]

\[
\text{Type: Stream Integer}
\]

You can create the stream of odd non-negative integers by either filtering them from the integers, or by evaluating an expression for each integer.

\[
[i \text{ for } i \text{ in } \text{ints} | \text{odd? } i]
\]

\[
[1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, ...]
\]

\[
\text{Type: Stream NonNegativeInteger}
\]

\[
\text{odds := [2*i+1 for i in ints]}
\]

\[
[1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 15, 17, 19, ...]
\]

\[
\text{Type: Stream NonNegativeInteger}
\]
You can accumulate the initial segments of a stream using the \texttt{scan} operation.
\begin{verbatim}
scan(0,+,odds)
\end{verbatim}
\[
[1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100, ...]
\]
\texttt{Type: Stream NonNegativeInteger}

The corresponding elements of two or more streams can be combined in this way.
\begin{verbatim}
[i*j for i in ints for j in odds]
\end{verbatim}
\[
[0, 3, 10, 21, 36, 55, 78, 105, 136, 171, ...]
\]
\texttt{Type: Stream NonNegativeInteger}

Many operations similar to those applicable to lists are available for streams.
\begin{verbatim}
first ints
\end{verbatim}
\[
0
\]
\texttt{Type: NonNegativeInteger}

\begin{verbatim}
rest ints
\end{verbatim}
\[
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, ...]
\]
\texttt{Type: Stream NonNegativeInteger}

\begin{verbatim}
fibs 20
\end{verbatim}
\[
6765
\]
\texttt{Type: PositiveInteger}

The packages \texttt{StreamFunctions1}, \texttt{StreamFunctions2} and \texttt{StreamFunctions3} export some useful stream manipulation operations. For more information, see ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, 9.12 on page 492, and 9.47 on page 663.
9.77 String

The type String provides character strings. Character strings provide all the operations for a one-dimensional array of characters, plus additional operations for manipulating text. For more information on related topics, see 9.8 on page 476 and 9.9 on page 478. You can also issue the system command )show String to display the full list of operations defined by String.

String values can be created using double quotes.

\[
\text{hello} := "Hello, I'm AXIOM!"
\]

"Hello, I’m AXIOM!"

Type: String

Note, however, that double quotes and underscores must be preceded by an extra underscore.

\[
\text{said} := "Jane said, "Look!_"]"

"Jane said, "Look!"

Type: String

\[
\text{saw} := "She saw exactly one underscore: __.""

"She saw exactly one underscore: _."

Type: String

It is also possible to use new to create a string of any size filled with a given character. Since there are many new functions it is necessary to indicate the desired type.

\[
\text{gasp}: \text{String} := \text{new}(32, \text{char } "x")
\]

"xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx"

Type: String

The length of a string is given by “#”.

#gasp
Indexing operations allow characters to be extracted or replaced in strings. For any string \( s \), indices lie in the range \( 1..\#s \).

```plaintext
hello.2
```

\( e \)

**Type:** Character

Indexing is really just the application of a string to a subscript, so any application syntax works.

```plaintext
hello 2
```

\( e \)

**Type:** Character

If it is important not to modify a given string, it should be copied before any updating operations are used.

```plaintext
hullo := copy hello

"Hello, I’m AXIOM!"
```

**Type:** String

```plaintext
hullo.2 := char "u"; [hello, hullo]

["Hello, I’m AXIOM!","Hullo, I’m AXIOM!"]
```
Operations are provided to split and join strings. The `concat` operation allows several strings to be joined together.

```plaintext
saidsw := concat ["alpha","--","omega"]

"alpha--omega"
```

There is a version of `concat` that works with two strings.

```plaintext
concat("hello ","goodbye")

"hello goodbye"
```

Juxtaposition can also be used to concatenate strings.

```
"This " "is " "several " "strings " "concatenated."

"This is several strings concatenated."
```

Substrings are obtained by giving an index range.

```plaintext
hello(1..5)

"Hello"
```

```plaintext
hello(8..)

"I’m AXIOM!"
```
A string can be split into several substrings by giving a separation character or character class.

```lisp
split(hello, char " ")

["Hello,","I’m","AXIOM!"]
Type: List String
```

```lisp
other := complement alphanumeric();

Type: CharacterClass
```

```lisp
split(saidsaw, other)

["alpha","omega"]
Type: List String
```

Unwanted characters can be trimmed from the beginning or end of a string using the operations `trim`, `leftTrim` and `rightTrim`.

```lisp
trim("## ++ relax ++ ##", char ")

" ++ relax ++ "
Type: String
```

Each of these functions takes a string and a second argument to specify the characters to be discarded.

```lisp
trim("## ++ relax ++ ##", other)

"relax"
Type: String
```

The second argument can be given either as a single character or as a character class.

```lisp
leftTrim("## ++ relax ++ ##", other)
```
"relax ++ ##"

Type: String

rightTrim("## ++ relax ++ ##", other)

"## ++ relax"

Type: String

Strings can be changed to upper case or lower case using the operations upperCase, upperCase, lowerCase and lowerCase.

upperCase hello

"HELLO, I’M AXIOM!"

Type: String

The versions with the exclamation mark change the original string, while the others produce a copy.

lowerCase hello

"hello, i’m axiom!"

Type: String

Some basic string matching is provided. The function prefix? tests whether one string is an initial prefix of another.

prefix?("He", "Hello")

true

Type: Boolean

prefix?("Her", "Hello")

false
A similar function, \texttt{suffix?}, tests for suffixes.

\begin{verbatim}
suffix?('', "Hello")
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{true}

Type: Boolean

\begin{verbatim}
suffix?('LO', "Hello")
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{false}

Type: Boolean

The function \texttt{substring?} tests for a substring given a starting position.

\begin{verbatim}
substring?('ll', "Hello", 3)
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{true}

Type: Boolean

\begin{verbatim}
substring?('ll', "Hello", 4)
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{false}

Type: Boolean

A number of \texttt{position} functions locate things in strings. If the first argument to position is a string, then \texttt{position(s,t,i)} finds the location of \texttt{s} as a substring of \texttt{t} starting the search at position \texttt{i}.

\begin{verbatim}
n := position("nd", "underground", 1)
\end{verbatim}

2

Type: PositiveInteger
n := position("nd", "underground", n+1)

10

Type: PositiveInteger

If s is not found, then 0 is returned (minIndex(s)-1 in IndexedString).

n := position("nd", "underground", n+1)

0

Type: NonNegativeInteger

To search for a specific character or a member of a character class, a different first argument is used.

position(char "d", "underground", 1)

3

Type: PositiveInteger

position(hexDigit(), "underground", 1)

3

Type: PositiveInteger

### 9.78 StringTable

This domain provides a table type in which the keys are known to be strings so special techniques can be used. Other than performance, the type StringTable(S) should behave exactly the same way as Table(String,S). See 9.80 on page 805 for general information about tables.

This creates a new table whose keys are strings.

```lisp
(t:: StringTable(Integer) := table()

   table()
```
The value associated with each string key is the number of characters in the string.

```lisp
for s in split("My name is Ian Watt.", char " ")
  repeat
    t.s := #s
    Void

for key in keys t repeat output [key, t.key]

["Ian", 3]
["My", 2]
["Watt.", 5]
["name", 4]
["is", 2]

Void
```

### 9.79 Symbol

Symbols are one of the basic types manipulated by Axiom. The Symbol domain provides ways to create symbols of many varieties.

The simplest way to create a symbol is to “single quote” an identifier.

```lisp
X: Symbol := 'x

x
```

Type: Symbol

This gives the symbol even if \( x \) has been assigned a value. If \( x \) has not been assigned a value, then it is possible to omit the quote.

```lisp
XX: Symbol := x

x
```
Declarations must be used when working with symbols, because otherwise the interpreter tries to place values in a more specialized type \texttt{Variable}.

\begin{verbatim}
A := 'a

\texttt{a}

Type: \texttt{Variable} a

B := b

\texttt{b}

Type: \texttt{Variable} b
\end{verbatim}

The normal way of entering polynomials uses this fact.

\begin{verbatim}
x**2 + 1

\texttt{x^2 + 1}

Type: \texttt{Polynomial Integer}
\end{verbatim}

Another convenient way to create symbols is to convert a string. This is useful when the name is to be constructed by a program.

\begin{verbatim}
"Hello"::Symbol

\texttt{Hello}

Type: \texttt{Symbol}
\end{verbatim}

Sometimes it is necessary to generate new unique symbols, for example, to name constants of integration. The expression \texttt{new()} generates a symbol starting with \%.

\begin{verbatim}
new()$Symbol

\texttt{%A}

Type: \texttt{Symbol}
\end{verbatim}
Successive calls to \texttt{new} produce different symbols.

\texttt{new()}\$Symbol

\texttt{\%B}

Type: Symbol

The expression \texttt{new("s")} produces a symbol starting with \%-s.

\texttt{new("xyz")}\$Symbol

\texttt{\%xyz0}

Type: Symbol

A symbol can be adorned in various ways. The most basic thing is applying a symbol to a list of subscripts.

\texttt{X[i,j]}

\texttt{x_{i,j}}

Type: Symbol

Somewhat less pretty is to attach subscripts, superscripts or arguments.

\texttt{U := subscript(u, [1,2,1,2])}

\texttt{u_{1,2,1,2}}

Type: Symbol

\texttt{V := superscript(v, [n])}

\texttt{v^n}

Type: Symbol

\texttt{P := argscript(p, [t])}
It is possible to test whether a symbol has scripts using the \texttt{scripted?} test.

\texttt{scripted? U}

\texttt{true}

\texttt{Type: Boolean}

\texttt{scripted? X}

\texttt{false}

\texttt{Type: Boolean}

If a symbol is not scripted, then it may be converted to a string.

\texttt{string X}

\texttt{"x"}

\texttt{Type: String}

The basic parts can always be extracted using the \texttt{name} and \texttt{scripts} operations.

\texttt{name U}

\texttt{u}

\texttt{Type: Symbol}

\texttt{scripts U}

\texttt{[sub = [1,2,1,2], sup = [], presup = [], presub = [], args = []]}

\texttt{Type: Record(sub: List OutputForm, sup: List OutputForm, presup: List OutputForm, presub: List OutputForm, args: List OutputForm)}
name X

\[
X
\]

Type: Symbol

scripts X

\[
[\text{sub} = [], \text{sup} = [], \text{presup} = [], \text{presub} = [], \text{args} = []]
\]

Type: Record( sub: List OutputForm, sup: List OutputForm, presup: List OutputForm, presub: List OutputForm, args: List OutputForm)

The most general form is obtained using the \texttt{script} operation. This operation takes an argument which is a list containing, in this order, lists of subscripts, superscripts, presuperscripts, presubscripts and arguments to a symbol.

\[
M := \text{script}(\text{Mammoth}, [ [i,j],[k,l],[0,1],[2],[u,v,w] ]) \]

\[
0^1 M_{i,j}^{k,l}(u,v,w)
\]

Type: Symbol

scripts M

\[
[\text{sub} = [i,j], \text{sup} = [k,l], \text{presup} = [0,1], \text{presub} = [2], \text{args} = [u,v,w]]
\]

Type: Record( sub: List OutputForm, sup: List OutputForm, presup: List OutputForm, presub: List OutputForm, args: List OutputForm)

If trailing lists of scripts are omitted, they are assumed to be empty.

\[
N := \text{script}(\text{Nut}, [ [i,j],[k,l],[0,1] ]) \]

\[
0^1 N_{i,j}^{k,l}
\]

Type: Symbol

scripts N

\[
[\text{sub} = [i,j], \text{sup} = [k,l], \text{presup} = [0,1], \text{presub} = [], \text{args} = []]
\]

Type: Record( sub: List OutputForm, sup: List OutputForm, presup: List OutputForm, presub: List OutputForm, args: List OutputForm)
9.80 Table

The Table constructor provides a general structure for associative storage. This type provides hash tables in which data objects can be saved according to keys of any type. For a given table, specific types must be chosen for the keys and entries.

In this example the keys to the table are polynomials with integer coefficients. The entries in the table are strings.

```plaintext
t: Table(Polynomial Integer, String) := table()

  table()

  Type: Table(Polynomial Integer,String)
```

To save an entry in the table, the `setelt` operation is used. This can be called directly, giving the table a key and an entry.

```plaintext
setelt(t, x^2 - 1, "Easy to factor")

  "Easy to factor"

  Type: String
```

Alternatively, you can use assignment syntax.

```plaintext
t(x^3 + 1) := "Harder to factor"

  "Harder to factor"

  Type: String
```

```plaintext
t(x) := "The easiest to factor"

  "The easiest to factor"

  Type: String
```

Entries are retrieved from the table by calling the `elt` operation.

```plaintext
elt(t, x)

  "The easiest to factor"
```
This operation is called when a table is “applied” to a key using this or the following syntax.

\[ t.x \]

"The easiest to factor"

Parentheses are used only for grouping. They are needed if the key is an infixed expression.

\[ t.(x**2 - 1) \]

"Easy to factor"

Note that the \texttt{elt} operation is used only when the key is known to be in the table—otherwise an error is generated.

\[ t \,(x**3 + 1) \]

"Harder to factor"

You can get a list of all the keys to a table using the \texttt{keys} operation.

\[ \text{keys } t \]

\[ [x, x^3 + 1, x^2 - 1] \]

Type: List Polynomial Integer
If you wish to test whether a key is in a table, the `search` operation is used. This operation returns either an entry or "failed".

```plaintext
search(x, t)

"The easiest to factor"

Type: Union(String,...)
```

```plaintext
search(x**2, t)

"failed"

Type: Union("failed",...)
```

The return type is a union so the success of the search can be tested using `case`.

```plaintext
search(x**2, t) case "failed"

true

Type: Boolean
```

The `remove` operation is used to delete values from a table.

```plaintext
remove!(x**2-1, t)

"Easy to factor"

Type: Union(String,...)
```

If an entry exists under the key, then it is returned. Otherwise `remove` returns "failed".

```plaintext
remove!(x-1, t)

"failed"

Type: Union("failed",...)
```

The number of key-entry pairs can be found using the `#` operation.
Just as keys returns a list of keys to the table, a list of all the entries can be obtained using the members operation.

\[
\text{members } t \\
\quad ["The easiest to factor","Harder to factor"]
\]

A number of useful operations take functions and map them on to the table to compute the result. Here we count the entries which have “Hard” as a prefix.

\[
\text{count}(s: \text{String } \rightarrow \text{prefix?("Hard", s), } t) \\
\quad 1
\]

Other table types are provided to support various needs.

- **AssociationList** gives a list with a table view. This allows new entries to be appended onto the front of the list to cover up old entries. This is useful when table entries need to be stacked or when frequent list traversals are required. See 9.1 on page 447 for more information.

- **EqTable** gives tables in which keys are considered equal only when they are in fact the same instance of a structure. See 9.18 on page 523 for more information.

- **StringTable** should be used when the keys are known to be strings. See 9.78 on page 799 for more information.

- **SparseTable** provides tables with default entries, so lookup never fails. The GeneralSparseTable constructor can be used to make any table type behave this way. See 9.73 on page 781 for more information.

- **KeyedAccessFile** allows values to be saved in a file, accessed as a table. See 9.38 on page 595 for more information.
The domain **TextFile** allows Axiom to read and write character data and exchange text with other programs. This type behaves in Axiom much like a **File** of strings, with additional operations to cause new lines. We give an example of how to produce an upper case copy of a file.

This is the file from which we read the text.

\[
\text{f1: TextFile := open("/etc/group", "input")}
\]

\[
"/etc/group"
\]

Type: TextFile

This is the file to which we write the text.

\[
\text{f2: TextFile := open("/tmp/MOTD", "output")}
\]

\[
"/tmp/MOTD"
\]

Type: TextFile

Entire lines are handled using the **readLine** and **writeLine** operations.

\[
l := \text{readLine! f1}
\]

\[
"root:x:0:root"
\]

Type: String

\[
\text{writeLine!(f2, upperCase l)}
\]

\[
"ROOT:X:0:ROOT"
\]

Type: String

Use the **endOfFile?** operation to check if you have reached the end of the file.

\[
\text{while not endOfFile? f1 repeat}
\]

\[
\text{s := readLine! f1}
\]

\[
\text{writeLine!(f2, upperCase s)}
\]
The file f1 is exhausted and should be closed.

close! f1

"/etc/group"

Type: TextFile

It is sometimes useful to write lines a bit at a time. The write operation allows this.

write!(f2, "-The-")

"-The-"

Type: String

write!(f2, "-End-")

"-End-"

Type: String

This ends the line. This is done in a machine-dependent manner.

writeLine! f2

"

Type: String

close! f2

"/tmp/MOTD"

Type: TextFile

Finally, clean up.

)system rm /tmp/MOTD

For more information on related topics, see 9.24 on page 543, 9.38 on page 595, and 9.41 on page 639.
9.82 TwoDimensionalArray

The TwoDimensionalArray domain is used for storing data in a two dimensional data structure indexed by row and by column. Such an array is a homogeneous data structure in that all the entries of the array must belong to the same Axiom domain (although see ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??). Each array has a fixed number of rows and columns specified by the user and arrays are not extensible. In Axiom, the indexing of two-dimensional arrays is one-based. This means that both the “first” row of an array and the “first” column of an array are given the index 1. Thus, the entry in the upper left corner of an array is in position \((1, 1)\).

The operation \texttt{new} creates an array with a specified number of rows and columns and fills the components of that array with a specified entry. The arguments of this operation specify the number of rows, the number of columns, and the entry.

This creates a five-by-four array of integers, all of whose entries are zero.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: TwoDimensionalArray Integer

The entries of this array can be set to other integers using the operation \texttt{setelt}.

Issue this to set the element in the upper left corner of this array to 17.

\[
\texttt{setelt(arr,1,1,17)}
\]

17

Type: PositiveInteger

Now the first element of the array is 17.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
17 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Like-wise, elements of an array are extracted using the operation \texttt{elt}.

\texttt{elt(arr,1,1)}

\begin{align*}
&17 \\
&\text{Type: PositiveInteger}
\end{align*}

Another way to use these two operations is as follows. This sets the element in position \((3,2)\) of the array to 15.

\texttt{arr(3,2) := 15}

\begin{align*}
&15 \\
&\text{Type: PositiveInteger}
\end{align*}

This extracts the element in position \((3,2)\) of the array.

\texttt{arr(3,2)}

\begin{align*}
&15 \\
&\text{Type: PositiveInteger}
\end{align*}

The operations \texttt{elt} and \texttt{setelt} come equipped with an error check which verifies that the indices are in the proper ranges. For example, the above array has five rows and four columns, so if you ask for the entry in position \((6,2)\) with \texttt{arr(6,2)} Axiom displays an error message. If there is no need for an error check, you can call the operations \texttt{qelt} and \texttt{qsetelt} which provide the same functionality but without the error check. Typically, these operations are called in well-tested programs.

The operations \texttt{row} and \texttt{column} extract rows and columns, respectively, and return objects of \texttt{OneDimensionalArray} with the same underlying element type.

\texttt{row(arr,1)}

\begin{align*}
&[17,0,0,0] \\
&\text{Type: OneDimensionalArray Integer}
\end{align*}
column(arr, 1)

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
17, & 0, & 0, & 0,
0, & 0, & 0, & 0,
0, & -15, & 0, & 0,
0, & 0, & 0, & 0,
0, & 0, & 0, & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: OneDimensionalArray Integer

You can determine the dimensions of an array by calling the operations \texttt{nrows} and \texttt{ncols}, which return the number of rows and columns, respectively.

\texttt{nrows(arr)}

\begin{center}
5
\end{center}

Type: PositiveInteger

\texttt{ncols(arr)}

\begin{center}
4
\end{center}

Type: PositiveInteger

To apply an operation to every element of an array, use \texttt{map}. This creates a new array. This expression negates every element.

\texttt{map(\neg, arr)}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
-17, & 0, & 0, & 0,
0, & 0, & 0, & 0,
0, & -15, & 0, & 0,
0, & 0, & 0, & 0,
0, & 0, & 0, & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: TwoDimensionalArray Integer

This creates an array where all the elements are doubled.

\texttt{map((x \mapsto x + x), arr)}

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
34, & 0, & 0, & 0,
0, & 0, & 0, & 0,
0, & 30, & 0, & 0,
0, & 0, & 0, & 0,
0, & 0, & 0, & 0
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Type: TwoDimensionalArray Integer

To change the array destructively, use map instead of map. If you need to make a copy of any array, use copy.

\[
\text{arrc := copy(arr)}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
17 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 15 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: TwoDimensionalArray Integer

\[
\text{map!(-,arrc)}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
-17 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -15 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: TwoDimensionalArray Integer

\[
\text{arrc}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
-17 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -15 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: TwoDimensionalArray Integer

\[
\text{arr}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
17 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 15 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]
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Type: TwoDimensionalArray Integer

Use member? to see if a given element is in an array.

member?(17, arr)

true

Type: Boolean

member?(10317, arr)

false

Type: Boolean

To see how many times an element appears in an array, use count.

count(17, arr)

1

Type: PositiveInteger

count(0, arr)

18

Type: PositiveInteger

For more information about the operations available for TwoDimensionalArray, issue )show TwoDimensionalArray. For information on related topics, see 9.52 on page 686 and 9.57 on page 704.

9.83 UnivariatePolynomial

The domain constructor UnivariatePolynomial (abbreviated UP) creates domains of univariate polynomials in a specified variable. For example, the domain UP(a1, POLY FRAC INT) provides polynomials in the single variable a1 whose coefficients are general polynomials with rational number coefficients.
Restriction:

Axiom does not allow you to create types where UnivariatePolynomial is contained in the coefficient type of Polynomial. Therefore, UP(x,POLY INT) is legal but POLY UP(x,INT) is not.

\( \text{UP}(x, \text{INT}) \) is the domain of polynomials in the single variable \( x \) with integer coefficients.

\( (p,q) : \text{UP}(x,\text{INT}) \)

\begin{align*}
p &:= (3x-1)^2 \cdot (2x + 8) \\
&= 18x^3 + 60x^2 - 46x + 8 \\
&\text{Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)}
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
q &:= (1 - 6x + 9x^2)^2 \\
&= 81x^4 - 108x^3 + 54x^2 - 12x + 1 \\
&\text{Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)}
\end{align*}

The usual arithmetic operations are available for univariate polynomials.

\begin{align*}
p^{*2} + p*q \\
&= 1458x^7 + 3240x^6 - 7074x^5 + 10584x^4 - 9282x^3 + 4120x^2 - 878x + 72 \\
&\text{Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)}
\end{align*}

The operation \textbf{leadingCoefficient} extracts the coefficient of the term of highest degree.

\text{leadingCoefficient} \ p
The operation \texttt{degree} returns the degree of the polynomial. Since the polynomial has only one variable, the variable is not supplied to operations like \texttt{degree}.

\texttt{degree p}

3

The reductum of the polynomial, the polynomial obtained by subtracting the term of highest order, is returned by \texttt{reductum}.

\texttt{reductum p}

\[ 60x^2 - 46x + 8 \]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

The operation \texttt{gcd} computes the greatest common divisor of two polynomials.

\texttt{gcd(p,q)}

\[ 9x^2 - 6x + 1 \]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

The operation \texttt{lcm} computes the least common multiple.

\texttt{lcm(p,q)}

\[ 162x^5 + 432x^4 - 756x^3 + 408x^2 - 94x + 8 \]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

The operation \texttt{resultant} computes the resultant of two univariate polynomials. In the case of \texttt{p} and \texttt{q}, the resultant is 0 because they share a common root.

\texttt{resultant(p,q)}

0
To compute the derivative of a univariate polynomial with respect to its variable, use D.

\[ \text{D } p \]

\[ 54 x^2 + 120 x - 46 \]

Type: \text{UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)}

Univariate polynomials can also be used as if they were functions. To evaluate a univariate polynomial at some point, apply the polynomial to the point.

\[ p(2) \]

\[ 300 \]

Type: \text{PositiveInteger}

The same syntax is used for composing two univariate polynomials, i.e. substituting one polynomial for the variable in another. This substitutes \( q \) for the variable in \( p \).

\[ p(q) \]

\[ 9565938 x^{12} - 38263752 x^{11} + 70150212 x^{10} - 77944680 x^9 + 58852170 x^8 - \\
32227632 x^7 + 13349448 x^6 - 4280688 x^5 + 1058184 x^4 - \\
192672 x^3 + 23328 x^2 - 1536 x + 40 \]

Type: \text{UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)}

This substitutes \( p \) for the variable in \( q \).

\[ q(p) \]

\[ 8503056 x^{12} + 113374080 x^{11} + 479950272 x^{10} + 404997408 x^9 - \\
1369516896 x^8 - 626146848 x^7 + 2939858712 x^6 - 2780728704 x^5 + \\
1364312160 x^4 - 396838872 x^3 + 69205896 x^2 - 6716184 x + 279841 \]
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Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

To obtain a list of coefficients of the polynomial, use **coefficients**.

\[
l := \text{coefficients } p
\]

\[18, 60, -46, 8\]

Type: List Integer

From this you can use **gcd** and **reduce** to compute the content of the polynomial.

reduce(gcd,l)

2

Type: PositiveInteger

Alternatively (and more easily), you can just call **content**.

content p

2

Type: PositiveInteger

Note that the operation **coefficients** omits the zero coefficients from the list. Sometimes it is useful to convert a univariate polynomial to a vector whose \(i\)-th position contains the degree \(i-1\) coefficient of the polynomial.

\[
ux := (x^4+2*x+3)::UP(x,\text{INT})
\]

\[x^4 + 2x + 3\]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(x,Integer)

To get a complete vector of coefficients, use the operation **vectorise**, which takes a univariate polynomial and an integer denoting the length of the desired vector.

vectorise(ux,5)

\[3, 2, 0, 0, 1\]
It is common to want to do something to every term of a polynomial, creating a new polynomial in the process. This is a function for iterating across the terms of a polynomial, squaring each term.

\[ \text{squareTerms}(p) \equiv \text{reduce}(+, [t^2 \text{ for } t \text{ in monomials } p]) \]

Recall what \( p \) looked like.

\[
18 \, x^3 + 60 \, x^2 - 46 \, x + 8
\]

When the coefficients of the univariate polynomial belong to a field, it is possible to compute quotients and remainders.

\[
(r, s) : \text{UP}(a1, \text{FRAC INT})
\]

\footnote{For example, when the coefficients are rational numbers, as opposed to integers. The important property of a field is that non-zero elements can be divided and produce another element. The quotient of the integers 2 and 3 is not another integer.}
\( r := a1^2 - \frac{2}{3} \)

\( \text{Type: UnivariatePolynomial(a1,Fraction Integer)} \)

\( s := a1 + 4 \)

\( a1 + 4 \)

\( \text{Type: UnivariatePolynomial(a1,Fraction Integer)} \)

When the coefficients are rational numbers or rational expressions, the operation \textit{quo} computes the quotient of two polynomials.

\( r \text{ quo } s \)

\( a1 - 4 \)

\( \text{Type: UnivariatePolynomial(a1,Fraction Integer)} \)

The operation \textit{rem} computes the remainder.

\( r \text{ rem } s \)

\( \frac{46}{3} \)

\( \text{Type: UnivariatePolynomial(a1,Fraction Integer)} \)

The operation \textit{divide} can be used to return a record of both components.

\( d := \text{divide}(r, s) \)

\( \left[ \text{quotient} = a1 - 4, \text{remainder} = \frac{46}{3} \right] \)

\( \text{Type: Record( quotient: UnivariatePolynomial(a1,Fraction Integer), remainder: UnivariatePolynomial(a1,Fraction Integer))} \)

Now we check the arithmetic!
r - (d.quotient * s + d.remainder)

0

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(a1,Fraction Integer)

It is also possible to integrate univariate polynomials when the coefficients belong to a field.

integrate r

\[ \frac{1}{3} a1^3 - \frac{2}{3} a1 \]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(a1,Fraction Integer)

integrate s

\[ \frac{1}{2} a1^2 + 4 a1 \]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(a1,Fraction Integer)

One application of univariate polynomials is to see expressions in terms of a specific variable.

We start with a polynomial in a1 whose coefficients are quotients of polynomials in b1 and b2.

\[ t : \ UP(a1,FRAC POLY INT) \]

Since in this case we are not talking about using multivariate polynomials in only two variables, we use Polynomial. We also use Fraction because we want fractions.

\[ t := a1**2 - a1/b2 + (b1**2-b1)/(b2+3) \]

\[ a1^2 - \frac{1}{b2} a1 + \frac{b1^2 - b1}{b2 + 3} \]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(a1,Fraction Polynomial Integer)
We push all the variables into a single quotient of polynomials.

\[ u : \text{FRAC POLY INT} := t \]

\[ \frac{a^2 b^2 + (b^2 - b + 3 a t^2 - t) b^2 - 3 a}{b^2 + 3 b} \]

Type: Fraction Polynomial Integer

Alternatively, we can view this as a polynomial in the variable \( b \). This is a \textit{mode-directed} conversion: you indicate as much of the structure as you care about and let Axiom decide on the full type and how to do the transformation.

\[ u :: \text{UP(b1,?)} \]

\[ \frac{1}{b^2 + 3} b^2 - \frac{1}{b^2 + 3} b + \frac{a^2 b^2 - a}{b^2} \]

Type: UnivariatePolynomial(b1,Fraction Polynomial Integer)

See ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ?? for a discussion of the factorization facilities in Axiom for univariate polynomials. For more information on related topics, see ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, ?? on page ?? in Section ?? on page ??, 9.63 on page 723, 9.54 on page 698, and 9.16 on page 518.

### 9.84 UniversalSegment

The \texttt{UniversalSegment} domain generalizes \texttt{Segment} by allowing segments without a “hi” end point.

\[ \text{pints} := 1.. \]

1..

Type: UniversalSegment PositiveInteger

\[ \text{nevens} := (0..) \text{ by } -2 \]

0..by −2

Type: UniversalSegment NonNegativeInteger
Values of type `Segment` are automatically converted to type `UniversalSegment` when appropriate.

\[\text{useg: } \text{UniversalSegment(Integer) := 3..10}\]

```
3..10
```

Type: UniversalSegment Integer

The operation `hasHi` is used to test whether a segment has a hi end point.

\[\text{hasHi pints}\]

```
false
```

Type: Boolean

\[\text{hasHi nevens}\]

```
false
```

Type: Boolean

\[\text{hasHi useg}\]

```
true
```

Type: Boolean

All operations available on type `Segment` apply to `UniversalSegment`, with the proviso that expansions produce streams rather than lists. This is to accommodate infinite expansions.

\[\text{expand pints}\]

```
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, ...]
```

Type: Stream Integer

\[\text{expand nevens}\]
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\[0, -2, -4, -6, -8, -10, -12, -14, -16, -18, \ldots\] 
Type: Stream Integer

expand \([1, 3, 10..15, 100..]\)

\([1, 3, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 100, 101, \ldots]\) 
Type: Stream Integer

For more information on related topics, see 9.69 on page 771, 9.70 on page 774, 9.47 on page 663, and 9.76 on page 790.

9.85 Vector

The Vector domain is used for storing data in a one-dimensional indexed data structure. A vector is a homogeneous data structure in that all the components of the vector must belong to the same Axiom domain. Each vector has a fixed length specified by the user; vectors are not extensible. This domain is similar to the OneDimensionalArray domain, except that when the components of a Vector belong to a Ring, arithmetic operations are provided. For more examples of operations that are defined for both Vector and OneDimensionalArray, see 9.57 on page 704.

As with the OneDimensionalArray domain, a Vector can be created by calling the operation new, its components can be accessed by calling the operations elt and qelt, and its components can be reset by calling the operations setelt and qsetelt.

This creates a vector of integers of length 5 all of whose components are 12.

\[ u : \text{VECTOR INT} := \text{new}(5, 12) \]

\([12, 12, 12, 12, 12]\) 
Type: Vector Integer

This is how you create a vector from a list of its components.

\[ v : \text{VECTOR INT} := \text{vector}([1, 2, 3, 4, 5]) \]

\([1, 2, 3, 4, 5]\) 
Type: Vector Integer
Indexing for vectors begins at 1. The last element has index equal to the length of the vector, which is computed by “#/”.

\[ \#(v) \]

5

Type: PositiveInteger

This is the standard way to use \texttt{elt} to extract an element. Functionally, it is the same as if you had typed \texttt{elt(v,2)}.

\[ v.2 \]

2

Type: PositiveInteger

This is the standard way to use \texttt{setelt} to change an element. It is the same as if you had typed \texttt{setelt(v,3,99)}.

\[ v.3 := 99 \]

99

Type: PositiveInteger

Now look at \( v \) to see the change. You can use \texttt{qelt} and \texttt{qsetelt} (instead of \texttt{elt} and \texttt{setelt}, respectively) but \textit{only} when you know that the index is within the valid range.

\[ v \]

\[ [1,2,99,4,5] \]

Type: Vector Integer

When the components belong to a \texttt{Ring}, Axiom provides arithmetic operations for \texttt{Vector}. These include left and right scalar multiplication.

\[ 5 \times v \]

\[ [5,10,495,20,25] \]
Type: Vector Integer

v * 7

[7, 14, 693, 28, 35]

Type: Vector Integer

w : VECTOR INT := vector([2, 3, 4, 5, 6])

[2, 3, 4, 5, 6]

Type: Vector Integer

Addition and subtraction are also available.

v + w

[3, 5, 103, 9, 11]

Type: Vector Integer

Of course, when adding or subtracting, the two vectors must have the same length or an error message is displayed.

v - w

[−1, −1, 95, −1, −1]

Type: Vector Integer

For more information about other aggregate domains, see the following: 9.47 on page 663, 9.52 on page 686, 9.57 on page 704, 9.71 on page 775, 9.80 on page 805, and 9.82 on page 811. Issue the system command )show Vector to display the full list of operations defined by Vector.
9.86 Void

When an expression is not in a value context, it is given type Void. For example, in the expression

\[ r := (a; b; \text{if } c \text{ then } d \text{ else } e; f) \]

values are used only from the subexpressions \(c\) and \(f\): all others are thrown away. The subexpressions \(a, b, d\) and \(e\) are evaluated for side-effects only and have type Void. There is a unique value of type Void.

You will most often see results of type Void when you declare a variable.

\[ a : \text{Integer} \]

\[ \text{Void} \]

Usually no output is displayed for Void results. You can force the display of a rather ugly object by issuing `)set message void on`.

\)

\[ b : \text{Fraction Integer} \]

\[ "()" \]

\[ \text{Type: Void} \]

\)

All values can be converted to type Void.

\[ 3::\text{Void} \]

\[ \text{Void} \]

Once a value has been converted to Void, it cannot be recovered.

\[ % :: \text{PositiveInteger} \]

Cannot convert from type Void to PositiveInteger for value "()"
The `WuWenTsunTriangularSet` domain constructor implements the characteristic set method of Wu Wen Tsun. This algorithm computes a list of triangular sets from a list of polynomials such that the algebraic variety defined by the given list of polynomials decomposes into the union of the regular-zero sets of the computed triangular sets. The constructor takes four arguments. The first one, \( R \), is the coefficient ring of the polynomials; it must belong to the category `IntegralDomain`. The second one, \( E \), is the exponent monoid of the polynomials; it must belong to the category `OrderedAbelianMonoidSup`. The third one, \( V \), is the ordered set of variables; it must belong to the category `OrderedSet`. The last one is the polynomial ring; it must belong to the category `RecursivePolynomialCategory(R,E,V)`. The abbreviation for `WuWenTsunTriangularSet` is `WUTSET`.

Let us illustrate the facilities by an example.

Define the coefficient ring.

\[
R := \text{Integer}
\]

\[
\text{Type: Domain}
\]

Define the list of variables,

\[
ls : \text{List Symbol} := [x,y,z,t]
\]

\[
[x,y,z,t]
\]

\[
\text{Type: List Symbol}
\]

and make it an ordered set;

\[
V := \text{OVAR(ls)}
\]

\[
\text{OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]}
\]

\[
\text{Type: Domain}
\]

then define the exponent monoid.

\[
E := \text{IndexedExponents V}
\]
IndexedExponents OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]

Type: Domain

Define the polynomial ring.

\[ P := \text{NSMP}(R, V) \]

NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

Type: Domain

Let the variables be polynomial.

\[ x: P := 'x \]

\( x \)

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

\[ y: P := 'y \]

\( y \)

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

\[ z: P := 'z \]

\( z \)

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])

\[ t: P := 't \]

\( t \)

Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])
Now call the \texttt{WuWenTsunTriangularSet} domain constructor.

\begin{verbatim}
T := WUTSET(R,E,V,P)
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
WuWenTsunTriangularSet(Integer,
 IndexedExponentsOrderedVariableList[x, y, z, t],
 OrderedVariableList[x, y, z, t],
 NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,
 OrderedVariableList[x, y, z, t]))
\end{verbatim}

\text{Type: Domain}

Define a polynomial system.

\begin{verbatim}
p1 := x ** 31 - x ** 6 - x - y
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
x^{31} - x^{6} - x - y
\end{verbatim}

\text{Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])}

\begin{verbatim}
p2 := x ** 8 - z
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
x^{8} - z
\end{verbatim}

\text{Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])}

\begin{verbatim}
p3 := x ** 10 - t
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
x^{10} - t
\end{verbatim}

\text{Type: NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])}

\begin{verbatim}
lp := [p1, p2, p3]
\end{verbatim}

\begin{verbatim}
[\begin{bmatrix}
x^{31} - x^{6} - x - y, x^{8} - z, x^{10} - t\end{bmatrix}
\end{verbatim}

\text{Type: List}

\text{NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer,OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])}
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

Compute a characteristic set of the system.

\[
\text{characteristicSet}(lp) = \{z^5 - t^4, \\
 t^4 z^2 y^2 + 2 t^3 z^4 y + (-t^7 + 2 t^4 - t) z^6 + t^6 z, \\
 (t^3 - 1) z^3 x - z^3 y - t^3 \}
\]

Type: Union( WuWenTsUnTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponents
OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t],
NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t])),...)

Solve the system.

\[
\text{zeroSetSplit}(lp) = \left[ \{t, z, y, x\}, \{t^3 - 1, z^5 - t^4, z^3 y + t^3 z x^2 - t\}, \\
 \{z^5 - t^4, t^4 z^2 y^2 + 2 t^3 z^4 y + (-t^7 + 2 t^4 - t) z^6 + t^6 z, \\
 (t^3 - 1) z^3 x - z^3 y - t^3 \} \right]
\]

Type: List WuWenTsUnTriangularSet(Integer, IndexedExponents
OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t], OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t],
NewSparseMultivariatePolynomial(Integer, OrderedVariableList [x,y,z,t]))

The RegularTriangularSet and SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet domain constructors, the LazardSetSolvingPackage package constructors as well as, SquareFreeRegularTriangularSet and ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage package constructors also provide operations to compute triangular decompositions of algebraic varieties. These five constructor use a special kind of characteristic sets, called regular triangular sets. These special characteristic sets have better properties than the general ones. Regular triangular sets and their related concepts are presented in the paper “On the Theories of Triangular sets” By P. Aubry, D. Lazard and M. Moreno Maza (to appear in the Journal of Symbolic Computation). The decomposition algorithm (due to the third author) available in the four above constructors provide generally better timings than the characteristic set method. In fact, the WUTSET constructor remains interesting for the purpose of manipulating characteristic sets whereas the other constructors are more convenient for solving polynomial systems.

Note that the way of understanding triangular decompositions is detailed in the example of the RegularTriangularSet constructor.
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

9.88 XPBWPolynomial

Initialisations

\[ a : \text{Symbol} := 'a \]

\[ a \]

\[ \text{Type: Symbol} \]

\[ b : \text{Symbol} := 'b \]

\[ b \]

\[ \text{Type: Symbol} \]

\[ \text{RN := Fraction(Integer)} \]

\[ \text{Fraction Integer} \]

\[ \text{Type: Domain} \]

\[ \text{word := OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol} \]

\[ \text{OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol} \]

\[ \text{Type: Domain} \]

\[ \text{lword := LyndonWord(Symbol)} \]

\[ \text{LyndonWord Symbol} \]

\[ \text{Type: Domain} \]

\[ \text{base := PoincareBirkhoffWittLyndonBasis Symbol} \]

\[ \text{PoincareBirkhoffWittLyndonBasis Symbol} \]

\[ \text{Type: Domain} \]
dpoly := XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol, RN)

XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)
Type: Domain

rpoly := XRecursivePolynomial(Symbol, RN)

XRecursivePolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)
Type: Domain

lpoly := LiePolynomial(Symbol, RN)

LiePolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)
Type: Domain

poly := XPBWPolynomial(Symbol, RN)

XPBWPolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)
Type: Domain

liste : List lword := LyndonWordsList([a,b], 6)

[[a],[b],[a b],[a^2 b],[a b^2],[a^3 b],[a b^3],[a^4 b],[a^3 b^2],[a^2 b a b],[a^2 b^3],[a b a b^2],[a b^4],[a^4 b^2],
 [a^3 b a b],[a^3 b^3],[a^2 b a b^2],[a^2 b^2 a b],[a^2 b^4],[a b a b^3],[a b^5]]

List LyndonWord Symbol

Let’s make some polynomials

0$poly

0
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

Type: XPBWPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

1$poly

1

Type: XPBWPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

p : poly := a

[a]

Type: XPBWPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

q : poly := b

[b]

Type: XPBWPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

pq: poly := p*q

[a b]+[b][a]

Type: XPBWPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

Coerce to distributed polynomial

pq :: dpoly

a b

Type: XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

Check some polynomial operations

mirror pq

[b][a]
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

Type: XPBWPolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)

ListOfTerms pq

\[
\left[ [k = \left[ b \right] [a], c = 1], [k = \left[ a \, b \right], c = 1] \right]
\]

Type: List Record(k: PoincareBirkhoffWittLyndonBasis Symbol, c: Fraction Integer)

reductum pq

\[ \left[ a \, b \right] \]

Type: XPBWPolynomial(Symbol, Fraction Integer)

leadingMonomial pq

\[ \left[ b \right] [a] \]

Type: PoincareBirkhoffWittLyndonBasis Symbol

coefficients pq

\[ [1, 1] \]

Type: List Fraction Integer

leadingTerm pq

\[ [k = \left[ b \right] [a], c = 1] \]

Type: Record(k: PoincareBirkhoffWittLyndonBasis Symbol, c: Fraction Integer)

degree pq

\[ 2 \]

Type: PositiveInteger
\[ pq4 := \exp(pq, 4) \]

\[
\begin{align*}
1 & + [a \ b] + [b] \ [a] + \frac{1}{2} \ [a \ b] \ [a \ b] + \frac{1}{2} \ [a \ b^2] \ [a] + \frac{1}{2} \ [b] \ [a^2 \ b] + \\
& + \frac{3}{2} \ [b] \ [a \ b] \ [a] + \frac{1}{2} \ [b] \ [b] \ [a] \ [a]
\end{align*}
\]

Type: XPBWPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

\[ \log(pq4, 4) - pq \]

\[ 0 \]

Type: XPBWPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

Calculations with verification in XDistributedPolynomial.

\[ lp1 : lpoly := \text{LiePoly liste.10} \]

\[
[a^3 \ b^2]
\]

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

\[ lp2 : lpoly := \text{LiePoly liste.11} \]

\[
[a^2 \ b \ a \ b]
\]

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

\[ lp : lpoly := [lp1, lp2] \]

\[
[a^3 \ b^2 \ a^2 \ b \ a \ b]
\]

Type: LiePolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

\[ lpd1 : dpoly := lp1 \]

\[
a^3 \ b^2 - 2a^2 \ b \ a \ b - a^2 \ b^2 \ a + 4a \ b \ a \ b \ a - a \ b^2 \ a^2 - 2b \ a \ b \ a^2 + b^2 \ a^3
\]

Type: XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)
lpd2: dpoly := lp2

\[ a^2 b a b a b - a^2 b^2 a - 3 a b a^2 b + 4 a b a b a - \]
\[ a b^2 a^2 + 2 b a^3 b - 3 b a^2 b a + b a b a^2 \]

Type: XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

lpd : dpoly := lpd1 * lpd2 - lpd2 * lpd1

\[
\begin{align*}
& a^3 b^2 a^2 b a b - a^3 b^2 a^2 b - a - 3 a h a^2 b + 4 a^3 b^2 a b a b a - \\
& a^3 b^2 a^2 b + a^2 b^2 a^2 b - 3 a h a^2 b^2 a + a + a^3 b^2 a b a b a - \\
& a^2 b^2 a^2 b + 3 a^3 b^2 a^2 b + 6 a^2 b a b a^2 b a + 12 a^2 b a b a b a b a + \\
& 3 a^2 b a b a^2 a^2 b + 3 a^3 b^2 a^2 b a^2 b a^2 b - 3 a^2 b^2 a b a^2 b + \\
& 3 a^2 b^2 a b a^2 b a - 3 a^2 b^2 a b a b a^2 + a^2 b^2 a b a^2 b a^3 + 3 a b a^2 a^3 b^2 \quad - \\
& 6 a b a^2 b a^2 b a b - 3 a b a^2 b a^2 b a + 12 a b a^2 b a b a b a - 3 a b a^2 b a b a^2 - \\
& 6 a b a^2 b a^2 b a^2 + 3 a b a^2 b a^3 - 4 a b a b a^4 b^2 + 12 a b a b a^3 b a b - \\
& 12 a b a b a^2 b a^2 b + 8 a b a b a b a b a - 12 a b a b a b a^2 b a + \\
& 3 a^2 b^2 a^3 a^2 b - 3 b a^2 b a^2 b a^2 b a^2 b a - 3 a b^2 a^2 b a b a^2 + \\
& a b^2 a^2 b a^2 b - 2 a b^2 a^2 b a^2 b a^2 b a - 3 a b^2 a^2 b a b a^2 + \\
& a b^2 a^2 b^3 b - 2 b a^3 b a^2 b - 3 b a^3 b a^2 b a - 2 b a^3 b a^3 b - \\
& 8 b a^3 b a^3 b a b + 2 b a^3 b a^3 b a^2 + 4 b a^3 b a^3 b a^2 a^2 + 2 b a^3 b a^3 b a^2 a - \\
& 3 b a^3 b a^3 b - 6 b a^3 b a b - 3 a b a^2 b^3 a + 12 a b^2 a^2 b a b a - \\
& 3 a b a^2 b a^2 b a^2 b a + 3 a b a^2 b a^2 b a^2 b - 3 b a^2 b a^2 b a^2 b + \\
& 3 b a b a^2 b a^2 a^2 b - 12 b a b a^3 b a b a + 3 b a b a^2 b a^2 b - \\
& 4 b a b a^2 b a^3 b + 6 b a b a^2 b a^3 b a b - b a b a^2 b^2 a^3 + b^2 a^3 b a b - \\
& b^2 a^3 b^2 a^3 - 3 b a^2 b a^2 b a^2 b + 4 b^2 a^2 b a b a - b^2 a^2 b a^2 b^2 a^2 + \\
& 2 b^2 a^3 b a^3 b a b a^2 b a^2 b a^2 b a^2 \\
\end{align*}
\]

Type: XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

lp : dpoly - lpd

0

Type: XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol,Fraction Integer)

Calculations with verification in XRrecursivePolynomial.

p := 3 * lp
\[ 3 \left[ a^3 b^2 a^2 b a b \right] \]

Type: \text{XPBWPolynomial}(\text{Symbol, Fraction Integer})

\( q := l p 1 \)

\[ [a^3 b^2] \]

Type: \text{XPBWPolynomial}(\text{Symbol, Fraction Integer})

\( p q := p \cdot q \)

\[ 3 \left[ a^3 b^2 a^2 b a b \right] [a^3 b^2] \]

Type: \text{XPBWPolynomial}(\text{Symbol, Fraction Integer})

\( \text{pr: rpoly := p :: rpoly} \)

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{a (a (a b b (a (a b (a b 3 + b a (-3)) + b } \\
&\text{(a (a b (-9) + b a 12) + b a a (-3))) + b a } \\
&\text{(a (a b 6 + b a (-9)) + b a a 3)) + b (a b (a a} \\
&\text{(a b b (-3) + b b a 9) + b (a (a b 18 + b a (-36)) + b a a 9 } \\
&\text{)) + b (a a (a b (-12) + b a 18) + b a a a (-3))) \\
&\text{)+ b a a (a (a b b 3 + b a b (-9)) + b a a b 9) + b (a} \\
&\text{(a (a b (-6) + b a 9) + b a a (-9)) + b a a a 3)) \\
&\text{))+ b (a (a b (a a b 9 + b (a b (-18) + b a} \\
&\text{(-9))) + b (a b a 36 + b a a (-9))) + b (a b a a } \\
&\text{(-18) + b a a a 9) + b a (a a (a a b (-12) + b a b 36) + b a a b } \\
&\text{(-36))) + b (a a (a b 24 + b a (-36)) + b a a 36) + b a a a \\
&\text{(-12))) + b a a (a (a b b 3 + b a b (-9) } \\
&\text{)+ b a a b 9) + b (a (a b (-6) + b a 9) + b a a (-9) } \\
&\text{)+ b a a a 3)))) + b (a a (a b (a a} \\
&\text{(a b b (-6) + b (a b 12 + b a 6)) + b (a b a (-24) + b a a 6 } \\
&\text{))+ b (a b a a 12 + b a a (-6))) + b a (a (a b b 9 + b (a b} \\
&\text{(-18) + b a a a 9)) + b a a (a a (a b b (-3) + b b a 9 } \\
&\text{)+ b (a (a b 18 + b a (-36)) + b a a 9) + b (a a (a b} \\
&\text{(-12) + b a 18) + b a a a (-3))) + b a a a (a } \\
&\text{(a b (a b 3 + b a (-3)) + b (a (a b (-9) + b a 12) + b a a } \\
&\text{(-3))) + b a (a (a b 6 + b a (-9)) + b a a 3))) \\
\end{align*}
\]

Type: \text{XRecursivePolynomial}(\text{Symbol, Fraction Integer})
9.89 XPolynomial

The XPolynomial domain constructor implements multivariate polynomials whose set of variables is Symbol. These variables do not commute. The only parameter of this constructor is the coefficient ring which may be non-commutative. However, coefficients and variables commute. The representation of the polynomials is recursive. The abbreviation for XPolynomial is XPOLY.

Other constructors like XPolynomialRing, XRecursivePolynomial as well as XDistributedPolynomial, LiePolynomial and XPBWPolynomial implement multivariate polynomials in non-commutative variables.

We illustrate now some of the facilities of the XPOLY domain constructor.

Define a polynomial ring over the integers.

\[ \text{poly} := \text{XPolynomial}(\text{Integer}) \]

XPolynomial Integer

Type: Domain

Define a first polynomial,

\[ \text{pr} : \text{poly} := 2x + 3y - 5 \]

\[-5 + x^2 + y^3\]
and a second one.

\[ \text{pr2: poly := pr*pr} \]

\[ 25 + x (-20 + x 4 + y 6) + y (-30 + x 6 + y 9) \]

Type: XPolynomial Integer

Rewrite \( \text{pr} \) in a distributive way,

\[ \text{pd := expand pr} \]

\[ -5 + 2 x + 3 y \]

Type: XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol,Integer)

compute its square,

\[ \text{pd2 := pd*pd} \]

\[ 25 - 20 x - 30 y + 4 x^2 + 6 x y + 6 y x + 9 y^2 \]

Type: XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol,Integer)

and checks that:

\[ \text{expand(pr2) - pd2} \]

\[ 0 \]

Type: XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol,Integer)

We define:

\[ \text{qr := pr**3} \]

\[ -125 + x (150 + x (-60 + x 8 + y 12) + y (-90 + x 12 + y 18)) + y (225 + x (-90 + x 12 + y 18) + y (-135 + x 18 + y 27)) \]
and:

\[ qd := \text{pd}^3 \]

\[-125 + 150 \, x + 225 \, y - 60 \, x^2 - 90 \, x \, y - 90 \, y \, x - 135 \, y^2 + 8 \, x^3 + 12 \, x^2 \, y + \\
12 \, x \, y \, x + 18 \, x \, y^2 + 12 \, y \, x^2 + 18 \, y \, x \, y + 18 \, y^2 \, x + 27 \, y^3 \]

Type: XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol,Integer)

We truncate \( qd \) at degree 3:

\[ \text{trunc}(qd,2) \]

\[-125 + 150 \, x + 225 \, y - 60 \, x^2 - 90 \, x \, y - 90 \, y \, x - 135 \, y^2 \]

Type: XDistributedPolynomial(Symbol,Integer)

The same for \( qr \):

\[ \text{trunc}(qr,2) \]

\[-125 + x \, (150 + x \, (-60) + y \, (-90)) + y \, (225 + x \, (-90) + y \, (-135)) \]

Type: XPolynomial Integer

We define:

\[ \text{Word} := \text{OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol} \]

\[ \text{OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol} \]

Type: Domain

and:

\[ w: \, \text{Word} := x \, y^2 \]

\[ x \, y^2 \]
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Type: OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol

The we can compute the right-quotient of qr by r:

\[ \text{rquo(qr, w)} \]

18

Type: XPolynomial Integer

and the shuffle-product of pr by r:

\[ \text{sh(pr, w::poly)} \]

\[
x (x y y 4 + y (x y 2 + y (-5 + x 2 + y 9))) + y x y y 3
\]

Type: XPolynomial Integer

9.90 XPolynomialRing

The XPolynomialRing domain constructor implements generalized polynomials with coefficients from an arbitrary Ring (not necessarily commutative) and whose exponents are words from an arbitrary OrderedMonoid (not necessarily commutative too). Thus these polynomials are (finite) linear combinations of words.

This constructor takes two arguments. The first one is a Ring and the second is an OrderedMonoid. The abbreviation for XPolynomialRing is XPR.

Other constructors like XPolynomial, XRecursivePolynomial XDistributedPolynomial, LiePolynomial and XPBWPolynomial implement multivariate polynomials in non-commutative variables.

We illustrate now some of the facilities of the XPR domain constructor.

Define the free ordered monoid generated by the symbols.

\[
\text{Word := OrderedFreeMonoid(Symbol)}
\]

\[
\text{OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol}
\]

Type: Domain

Define the linear combinations of these words with integer coefficients.


poly := XPR(Integer, Word)

\[ XPolynomialRing(Integer, OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol) \]

Type: Domain

Then we define a first element from \texttt{poly}.

\[
p: poly := 2 * x - 3 * y + 1
\]

1 + 2 x - 3 y

Type: XPolynomialRing(Integer, OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol)

And a second one.

\[
q: poly := 2 * x + 1
\]

1 + 2 x

Type: XPolynomialRing(Integer, OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol)

We compute their sum,

\[
p + q
\]

2 + 4 x - 3 y

Type: XPolynomialRing(Integer, OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol)

their product,

\[
p * q
\]

1 + 4 x - 3 y + 4 x^2 - 6 y x

Type: XPolynomialRing(Integer, OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol)

and see that variables do not commute.

\[(p+q)**2-p**2-q**2-2*p*q\]
−6\,xy + 6\,yx

Type: \text{XPolynomialRing}(\text{Integer},\text{OrderedFreeMonoid Symbol})

Now we define a ring of square matrices,

\[
M := \text{SquareMatrix}(2,\text{Fraction Integer})
\]

\text{SquareMatrix}(2,\text{Fraction Integer})

Type: \text{Domain}

and the linear combinations of words with these matrices as coefficients.

\[
poly1 := \text{XPR}(\text{M},\text{Word})
\]

\text{XPolynomialRing}(\text{SquareMatrix}(2,\text{Fraction Integer}),
\text{OrderedFreeMonoidSymbol})

Type: \text{Domain}

Define a first matrix,

\[
m1 : \text{M} := \text{matrix}\left(\left[\left[i \ast j \ast 2 \text{ for } i \text{ in } 1..2\right] \text{ for } j \text{ in } 1..2\right]\right)
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 \\
4 & 8
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: \text{SquareMatrix}(2,\text{Fraction Integer})

a second one,

\[
m2 : \text{M} := m1 - 5/4
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
-1/4 & 2 \\
4 & 27
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: \text{SquareMatrix}(2,\text{Fraction Integer})

and a third one.

\[
m3 : \text{M} := m2 \ast 2
\]
Define a polynomial,

\[
pm: \text{poly1} := m1 \cdot x + m2 \cdot y + m3 \cdot z - 2/3
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{129}{16} & 13 \\
26 & \frac{857}{16}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Type: \text{SquareMatrix}(2,\text{Fraction Integer})

and the following power.

\[qm^{**3}\]
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9.91 ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage

The ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage package constructor provides operations for computing symbolically the complex or real roots of zero-dimensional algebraic systems.

The package provides no multiplicity information (i.e. some returned roots may be double or higher) but only distinct roots are returned.

Complex roots are given by means of univariate representations of irreducible regular chains. These representations are computed by the univariateSolve operation (by calling the InternalRationalUnivariateRepresentationPackage package constructor which does the job).

Real roots are given by means of tuples of coordinates lying in the RealClosure of the coefficient ring. They are computed by the realSolve and positiveSolve operations. The former computes all the solutions of the input system with real coordinates whereas the later concentrate on the solutions with (strictly) positive coordinates. In both cases, the computations are performed by the RealClosure constructor.

Both computations of complex roots and real roots rely on triangular decompositions. These decompositions can be computed in two different ways. First, by applying the
zeroSetSplit operation from the \texttt{REGSET} domain constructor. In that case, no Groebner bases are computed. This strategy is used by default. Secondly, by applying the \texttt{zeroSetSplit} from \texttt{LEXTRIPK}. To use this later strategy with the operations \texttt{univariateSolve}, \texttt{realSolve} and \texttt{positiveSolve} one just needs to use an extra boolean argument.

Note that the way of understanding triangular decompositions is detailed in the example of the \texttt{RegularTriangularSet} constructor.

The \texttt{ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage} constructor takes three arguments. The first one \texttt{R} is the coefficient ring; it must belong to the categories \texttt{OrderedRing}, \texttt{EuclideanDomain}, \texttt{CharacteristicZero} and \texttt{RealConstant}. This means essentially that \texttt{R} is \texttt{Integer} or \texttt{Fraction(Integer)}. The second argument \texttt{ls} is the list of variables involved in the systems to solve. The third one MUST BE \texttt{concat(ls,s)} where \texttt{s} is an additional symbol used for the univariate representations. The abbreviation for \texttt{ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage} is \texttt{ZDSOLVE}.

We illustrate now how to use the constructor \texttt{ZDSOLVE} by two examples: the \textit{Arnborg and Lazard} system and the \textit{L-3} system (Aubry and Moreno Maza). Note that the use of this package is also demonstrated in the example of the \texttt{LexTriangularPackage} constructor.

Define the coefficient ring.

\[ R := \text{Integer} \]

\texttt{Integer} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{Type: Domain}

Define the lists of variables:

\[ \text{ls} : \text{List Symbol} := [x,y,z,t] \]

\texttt{[x,y,z,t]} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{Type: List Symbol}

and:

\[ \text{ls2} : \text{List Symbol} := [x,y,z,t,\%A] \]

\texttt{[x,y,z,t,\%A]} \hspace{1cm} \texttt{Type: List Symbol}

Call the package:

\texttt{ZDSOLVE(R,ls,ls2)}
pack := ZDSOLVE(R,ls,ls2)

ZeroDimensionalSolvePackage(Integer,[x,y,z,t], [x,y,z,t]

Type: Domain

Define a polynomial system (Arnborg-Lazard)

\[
p1 := x^2yz + x^2yz^2 + x^2yz^2 + x^2yz + x^2yz + yz
\]

\[x^2y^2z(y^2 + x^2 + 1)z + x^y\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

\[
p2 := x^2yz^2 + x^2yz^2 + x^2yz^2 + x^2yz + x^2yz + x + z
\]

\[x^2y^2z^2(x^2 + 1)z + x\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

\[
p3 := x^2yz^2 + (x^2 + x)z + x + 1
\]

\[x^2y^2z^2((x^2 + x)z + x + 1)z + 1\]

Type: Polynomial Integer

lp := [p1, p2, p3]

\[
[x^2y^2z(y^2 + x^2 + 1)z + x^y, \]

\[x^2y^2z^2(x^2 + 1)z + x, \]

\[x^2y^2z^2((x^2 + x)z + x + 1)z + 1]\]

Type: List Polynomial Integer

Note that these polynomials do not involve the variable \(t\); we will use it in the second example.

First compute a decomposition into regular chains (i.e. regular triangular sets).
\textbf{CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES}

We can see easily from this decomposition (consisting of a single regular chain) that the input system has 20 complex roots.

Then we compute a univariate representation of this regular chain.

We can see easily from this decomposition (consisting of a single regular chain) that the input system has 20 complex roots.

Then we compute a univariate representation of this regular chain.
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\[
\text{complexRoots} = ?^{12} - 12 ?^{11} + 24 ?^{10} + 4 ?^{9} - 9 ?^{8} + 27 ?^{7} - \\
21 ?^{6} + 27 ?^{5} - 9 ?^{4} + 4 ?^{3} + 24 ?^{2} - 12 ? + 1,
\]

\[
\text{coordinates} = [63 x + 62 \% A^{11} - 721 \% A^{10} + 1220 \% A^{9} + 705 \% A^{8} - 285 \% A^{7} + \\
1512 \% A^{6} - 735 \% A^{5} + 1401 \% A^{4} - 21 \% A^{3} + 215 \% A^{2} + 1577 \% A - 142, \\
63 y - 75 \% A^{11} + 890 \% A^{10} - 1682 \% A^{9} - 516 \% A^{8} + 588 \% A^{7} - 1953 \% A^{6} + \\
1323 \% A^{5} - 1815 \% A^{4} + 426 \% A^{3} - 243 \% A^{2} - 1801 \% A + 679, \\
z - \% A],
\]

\[
\text{complexRoots} = ?^{6} + ?^{5} + ?^{4} + ?^{3} + ?^{2} + ? + 1, \\
\text{coordinates} = [x - \% A^{5}, y - \% A^{3}, z - \% A]
\]

\[
\text{complexRoots} = ?^{2} + 5 ? + 1, \text{coordinates} = [x - 1, y - 1, z - \% A]]
\]

Type: List Record( complexRoots: SparseUnivariatePolynomial Integer, coordinates: List Polynomial Integer)

We see that the zeros of our regular chain are split into three components. This is due to the use of univariate polynomial factorization.

Each of these components consist of two parts. The first one is an irreducible univariate polynomial \( p(?) \) which defines a simple algebraic extension of the field of fractions of \( \mathbb{R} \). The second one consists of multivariate polynomials \( \text{pol1}(x, \% A), \text{pol2}(y, \% A) \) and \( \text{pol3}(z, \% A) \). Each of these polynomials involve two variables: one is an indeterminate \( x, y \) or \( z \) of the input system \( lp \) and the other is \( \% A \) which represents any root of \( p(?) \).

Recall that this \( \% A \) is the last element of the third parameter of \( \text{ZDSOLVE} \). Thus any complex root \( ? \) of \( p(?) \) leads to a solution of the input system \( lp \) by replacing \( \% A \) by this \( ? \) in \( \text{pol1}(x, \% A), \text{pol2}(y, \% A) \) and \( \text{pol3}(z, \% A) \). Note that the polynomials \( \text{pol1}(x, \% A), \text{pol2}(y, \% A) \) and \( \text{pol3}(z, \% A) \) have degree one w.r.t. \( x, y \) or \( z \) respectively. This is always the case for all univariate representations. Hence the operation \( \text{univariateSolve} \) replaces a system of multivariate polynomials by a list of univariate polynomials, what justifies its name. Another example of univariate representations illustrates the \( \text{LexTriangularPackage} \) package constructor.

We now compute the solutions with real coordinates:

\[
lr := \text{realSolve}(lp)\text{pack}
\]
\[ \begin{align*} 
\text{\%B1}, & \quad \frac{1184459}{1645371} - \frac{\%B1^{19}}{\%B1^{18}} - \frac{\%B1^{18}}{\%B1^{17}} + \frac{79900378}{\%B1^{16}} + \\
& \quad \frac{1645371}{43953929} + \frac{\%B1^{15}}{\%B1^{14}} + \frac{\%B1^{14}}{\%B1^{13}} - \frac{\%B1^{13}}{\%B1^{12}} - \\
& \quad \frac{43953929}{548457} + \frac{\%B1^{11}}{\%B1^{10}} - \frac{\%B1^{10}}{\%B1^{9}} + \frac{1645371}{\%B1^{8}} + \\
& \quad \frac{548457}{35978916} - \frac{\%B1^{7}}{\%B1^{6}} + \%B1^{6} + \%B1^{5} - \%B1^{4} + \\
& \quad \frac{35978916}{182819} - \%B1^{3} + \frac{\%B1^{2}}{\%B1} - \frac{343}{\%B1} - \%B1 + \frac{\%B1}{1645371}. \\
\text{\%B2}, & \quad \frac{1184459}{1645371} - \frac{\%B2^{19}}{\%B2^{18}} - \frac{\%B2^{18}}{\%B2^{17}} + \frac{79900378}{\%B2^{16}} + \\
& \quad \frac{1645371}{43953929} + \frac{\%B2^{15}}{\%B2^{14}} + \frac{\%B2^{14}}{\%B2^{13}} - \frac{\%B2^{13}}{\%B2^{12}} - \\
& \quad \frac{43953929}{548457} + \frac{\%B2^{11}}{\%B2^{10}} - \frac{\%B2^{10}}{\%B2^{9}} + \frac{1645371}{\%B2^{8}} + \\
& \quad \frac{548457}{35978916} - \frac{\%B2^{7}}{\%B2^{6}} + \%B2^{6} + \%B2^{5} - \%B2^{4} + \\
& \quad \frac{35978916}{182819} - \%B2^{3} + \frac{\%B2^{2}}{\%B2} - \frac{343}{\%B2} - \%B2 + \frac{\%B2}{1645371}. \\
\end{align*} \]
\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{[\%B3,} \\
&\frac{1184459 \times \%B3^{19}}{1645371} - \frac{2335702 \times \%B3^{18}}{43953929} - \frac{5460230 \times \%B3^{17}}{548457} + \frac{79900378 \times \%B3^{16}}{1645371} - \frac{3731 \times \%B3^{15}}{182819} - \frac{271667666 \times \%B3^{14}}{185305020} - \frac{21784873 \times \%B3^{13}}{35978916} + \frac{1645371 \times \%B3^{12}}{182819} - \frac{688291 \times \%B3^{11}}{35825878} + \frac{3378002 \times \%B3^{10}}{33825878} - \frac{1645371 \times \%B3^{9}}{140671876} + 801511 \times \%B3^{8} + 9741532 \times \%B3^{7} - 3459 \times \%B3^{6} - 688291 \times \%B3^{5} + 538986 \times \%B3^{4} + 21784873 \times \%B3^{3} - 13243117 \times \%B3^{2} - 343 \times \%B3 - 1645371 \times \%B3 + 3378002] \\
&\text{[\%B4,} \\
&\frac{1184459 \times \%B4^{19}}{1645371} - \frac{2335702 \times \%B4^{18}}{43953929} - \frac{5460230 \times \%B4^{17}}{548457} + \frac{79900378 \times \%B4^{16}}{1645371} - \frac{3731 \times \%B4^{15}}{182819} - \frac{271667666 \times \%B4^{14}}{185305020} - \frac{21784873 \times \%B4^{13}}{35978916} + \frac{1645371 \times \%B4^{12}}{182819} - \frac{688291 \times \%B4^{11}}{35825878} + \frac{3378002 \times \%B4^{10}}{33825878} - \frac{1645371 \times \%B4^{9}}{140671876} + 801511 \times \%B4^{8} + 9741532 \times \%B4^{7} - 3459 \times \%B4^{6} - 688291 \times \%B4^{5} + 538986 \times \%B4^{4} + 21784873 \times \%B4^{3} - 13243117 \times \%B4^{2} - 343 \times \%B4 - 1645371 \times \%B4 + 3378002] \\
\end{align*}
\]
\[ \% B5, \]
\[
\begin{align*}
1184459 & \% B5^{19} - \frac{2335702}{548457} \% B5^{18} - \frac{5460230}{182819} \% B5^{17} + \frac{79900378}{1645371} \% B5^{16} + \\
1645371 & \% B5^{15} + \frac{13420192}{35978916} \% B5^{14} + \frac{37317166766}{5382578} \% B5^{13} + \frac{193381378}{118784873} \% B5^{12} + \\
548457 & \% B5^{11} + \frac{358600781}{182819} \% B5^{10} + \frac{1645371}{1645371} \% B5^{9} + \frac{548457}{548457} \% B5^{8} + \\
35978916 & \% B5^7 + \frac{1389370}{35978916} \% B5^6 + \frac{688291}{5382578} \% B5^5 + \frac{3378002}{118784873} \% B5^4 + \\
182819 & \% B5^3 + \frac{111933}{1389370} \% B5^2 - \frac{4459}{8270} \% B5 - \frac{9741532}{1645371} \% B5^1, \\
1645371 & .
\end{align*}
\]

\[ \% B6, \]
\[
\begin{align*}
1184459 & \% B6^{19} - \frac{2335702}{548457} \% B6^{18} - \frac{5460230}{182819} \% B6^{17} + \frac{79900378}{1645371} \% B6^{16} + \\
1645371 & \% B6^{15} + \frac{13420192}{35978916} \% B6^{14} + \frac{37317166766}{5382578} \% B6^{13} + \frac{193381378}{118784873} \% B6^{12} + \\
548457 & \% B6^{11} + \frac{358600781}{182819} \% B6^{10} + \frac{1645371}{1645371} \% B6^{9} + \frac{548457}{548457} \% B6^{8} + \\
35978916 & \% B6^7 + \frac{1389370}{35978916} \% B6^6 + \frac{688291}{5382578} \% B6^5 + \frac{3378002}{118784873} \% B6^4 + \\
182819 & \% B6^3 + \frac{111933}{1389370} \% B6^2 - \frac{4459}{8270} \% B6 - \frac{9741532}{1645371} \% B6^1, \\
1645371 & .
\end{align*}
\]
The number of real solutions for the input system is:
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# lr

Type: PositiveInteger

Each of these real solutions is given by a list of elements in \( \text{RealClosure}(R) \). In these 8 lists, the first element is a value of \( z \), the second of \( y \) and the last of \( x \). This is logical since by setting the list of variables of the package to \([x,y,z,t] \) we mean that the elimination ordering on the variables is \( t < z < y < x \). Note that each system treated by the \text{ZDSOLVE} package constructor needs only to be zero-dimensional w.r.t. the variables involved in the system itself and not necessarily w.r.t. all the variables used to define the package.

We can approximate these real numbers as follows. This computation takes between 30 sec. and 5 min, depending on your machine.

\[
\left[ \left[ \text{approximate}(r, 1/1000000) \text{ for } r \text{ in point} \right] \text{ for point in lr} \right]
\]
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\[
\begin{pmatrix}
-2611346176791927789686176932377577719238259963063541781922275233 \\
04401899966807292833849076862359320744212592598673381593224350480 \\
929483752303207337236806668167446173001727271353311571242897
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
116522540052022530583981916045891437572266102768589900087901348 \\
1991494092244137539839713940195234333204081399281531888294957554551 \\
639634176193083959775447971402314692324690349219380555939984
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
-3752594550275917221096588729651788272998517054675603239578198141 \\
006304901735282826590621902304466963941971038923304526273329316373 \\
75745061978982286110976997087250466235373
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
103954826933545989368770712448340260558008145511201705922005223665 \\
91759409659486442339410294529502651799899601048118758225302053465 \\
051315812439017247289173865014702966308864
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
-1715967 \\
-126139353378430352108483951797708239037726150396958622482899843 \\
66060366067635937456481377349837660312126782256580143620693591995 \\
146518222580524697287410022543952491
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
9441814414418574458649962043492240425365974709662536639036419607 \\
958058825854931998401916991765944326824641135187385388881478763 \\
4019307857605820364195858622304768,
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
76358333471126442225156252444108312253474756690008589338834162172 \\
501904994376346730876809042845208919919925302105720971453918982731 \\
3890725914035
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
26241887640860971997842976104780666339342304678958516022785809785 \\
03784549205788499019640602266966026891580103543567625390186298871 \\
4128491675648
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
168310690863834958832217232654225913562986313181951031452750161 \\
44149747345532818072136486835557964678160350777199075077835213366 \\
48453365491383623741304759
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
16831068680952133890017099827059136389630776687312261111677851880 \\
049074252262986803258878109626141402985973669684268487998903770687 \\
9999845423381649008099328,
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
4961550109835010186422681013422108735958714801003760639707968096 \\
6469128267084728344431172917219104249213450966312411133
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
49615498727577383155091920782102090298528971186110971262363840408 \\
29376592619143131702548674679271836349216048242215424
\end{pmatrix}
\]
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
-21128699918575091836412047556545843787017248986548599438982813 \\
535264444652845575264927349316917314078272014329550347334817207 \\
60987205458490087800075641605341789468836611952973998050294416266 \\
8550098127961950496210221942870898395967492585059442776850225178975 \\
8706752831632503615
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
16276155849379875802429066624371045808891444661684597180431538394 \\
083725255330980807036369958550221601121110871032636095510260277694 \\
1408739114182126221161839781628574830753225914661319399754572005223 \\
498385896428563444808158620382723778737354460106161415180109356172 \\
051706396253618176
\end{bmatrix},
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
19739877 \\
2097152
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
-29972499368327033037990158048615209492150403875070717770128576 \\
672019225305974224789535602435986014310145780163808277161116037221 \\
287484778035809872843149225484238365880136293417053217025833335 \\
09180969017893720398593530409046049339873873070385341034789909888 \\
08148539811320184654825488006153947704169948729587599602107521589 \\
19488147648710315309312954673321901337026710982009022830051075 \\
186071859284570302778073977965255813862672239286969160869728203675
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
2308433274852278590728910081191811023906504143124326461239367948 \\
739333192720608960702213891341764787983606202295191766329376317868514 \\
5501476602720625902225205551741826688968838066366025744317604722 \\
4029209319672947516024726883412114183318848728661844439272872851 \\
128970807675528564895056585864033178565910387065006112801516154035227 \\
4103736909556054476949527092207070895300949412575195547088792959 \\
9552929920110858608125566354854294715540316759795426563581353984,
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
-5128198263542822489096276397868940806009384106630804590796633 \\
58450096210949052045982531625008472301004703502449473652303892581 \\
8959289319315847013539276214354343387426304729390912285013385199 \\
06964902315660943179944333379507087264201172758774998929661127731837 \\
229426240711657391043665545741640828847013055439126204193358451073 \\
594015777589660282236457586461183151294397397471516692046506185060 \\
376287516256195847052412587282839139194642913955
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
22882819397784393305312087931812904711836310924553689903863908242 \\
4350946344236249773080647489773914492160779462865385174118890197 \\
11741868145114978337284191822497675868358729486447308566225526872 \\
092037244118004814057028371983106422912756761957746144438159967135 \\
026293917497835900414708601277527329964886277426724876224800632668 \\
088893248918508424949343473376030759399802682084829048596781777514 \\
4465749978278726169630532176372171273252096
\end{bmatrix},
\]

Type: List List Fraction Integer

We can also concentrate on the solutions with real (strictly) positive coordinates:
Thus we have checked that the input system has no solution with strictly positive coordinates.

Let us define another polynomial system \((L-3)\).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{f0} & := x^3 + y + z + t - 1 \\
& = z + y + x^3 + t - 1 \\
& \text{Type: Polynomial Integer} \\
\text{f1} & := x + y^3 + z + t - 1 \\
& = z + y^3 + x + t - 1 \\
& \text{Type: Polynomial Integer} \\
\text{f2} & := x + y + z^3 + t - 1 \\
& = z^3 + y + x + t - 1 \\
& \text{Type: Polynomial Integer} \\
\text{f3} & := x + y + z + t^3 - 1 \\
& = z + y + x + t^3 - 1 \\
& \text{Type: Polynomial Integer}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\text{lfs} := [\text{f0}, \text{f1}, \text{f2}, \text{f3}]
\]

\[
[z + y + x^3 + t - 1, z + y^3 + x + t - 1, \\
z^3 + y + x + t - 1, z + y + x + t^3 - 1]
\]
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

First compute a decomposition into regular chains (i.e. regular triangular sets).

\[
lts := \text{triang}\text{Solve}\{\text{if}\}$\text{pack}$
\[
\left\{ t^2 + t + 1, z^3 - z - t^3 + t, (3z + 3t^3 - 3) y^2 + (3z^2 + (6t^3 - 6) z + 3t^6 - 6t^3 + 3) y + (3t^3 - 3) z^2 + (3t^6 - 6t^3 + 3) z + t^9 - 3t^6 + 5t^3 - 3t, x + y + z, \right\},
\[
\left\{ 16 - 6t^3 + 9t^{10} + 4t^7 + 15t^4 - 54t^2 + 27,  \\
(4907232 r^{15} + 40893984 r^{14} - 115013088 r^{13} + 22805712 r^{12} + 36330336 r^{11} + 162959040 r^{10} - 159859440 r^9 - 156802608 r^8 + 117168768 r^7 + 126282384 r^6 - 129351600 r^5 + 306646992 r^4 + 475302816 r^3 - 1006837776 r^2 - 237269088 r + 480716208) z + \right\}
\[
48r^{54} - 912r^{51} + 8232r^{48} - 72r^{46} - 46848r^{45} + 1152r^{43} + 186324r^{42} - 3780r^{40} - 543144r^{39} - 3168r^{38} - 21384r^{37} + 11775251 r^{36} + 41184 r^{35} + 278003 r^{34} - 1843242r^{33} - 301815 r^{32} - 1440726 r^{31} + 1912012 r^{30} + 1442826 r^{29} + 4696262 r^{28} - 922481 r^{27} - 4816188 r^{26} - 10583524 r^{25} - 208751 r^{24} + 11472138 r^{23} + 16762859 r^{22} - 857663 r^{21} - 19328175 r^{20} - 18270421 r^{19} + 4914903 r^{18} + 22483044 r^{17} + 12926517 r^{16} - 8605511 r^{15} - 17455518 r^{14} - 5014597 r^{13} + 8108814 r^{12} + 8465535 r^{11} + 190542 r^{10} - 4305624 r^9 - 2226123 r^8 + 661905 r^7 + 1169775 r^6 + 226260 r^5 - 209952 r^4 - 141183 r^3 + 27216 t,  \\
(3z + 3t^3 - 3) y^2 + (3z^2 + (6t^3 - 6) z + 3t^6 - 6t^3 + 3) y + (3t^3 - 3) z^2 + (3t^6 - 6t^3 + 3) z + t^9 - 3t^6 + 5t^3 - 3t, x + y + z + t^3 - 1, \right\},
\[
\left\{ t - 1, z, y^2 - 1, x + y, \right\},
\left\{ t - 1, z, y^2 - 1, x + y, \right\},
\left\{ t - 1, z, y^2 - 1, z, y + 1, x, \right\},
\left\{ t^{16} - 6t^3 + 9t^{10} + 4t^7 + 15t^4 - 54t^2 + 27,  \\
(4907232 r^{29} + 40893984 r^{28} - 115013088 r^{27} - 1730448 r^{26} - 168139584 r^{25} + 738024480 r^{24} - 195372288 r^{23} + 315849456 r^{22} - 2567279232 r^{21} + 937147968 r^{20} + 1026357696 r^{19} + 4780488240 r^{18} - 2893767696 r^{17} - 5617160352 r^{16} + 3427651728 r^{15} + 5001100848 r^{14} + 8720098416 r^{13} + 2313732960 r^{12} - 499046544 r^{11} - 16243306272 r^{10} - 9748123200 r^9 + 3927244320 r^8 + 25257280896 r^7 + 10348032096 r^6 - 17128672128 r^5 - 14755488768 r^4 + 544086720 r^3 + 10848188736 r^2 + 1423614528 t - 2884297248) z - \right\}
\]
Then we compute a univariate representation.
univariateSolve(1f)$pack
CHAPTER 9. SOME EXAMPLES OF DOMAINS AND PACKAGES

[complexRoots = ?, coordinates = [x – 1, y – 1, z + 1, t – %A]],
[complexRoots = ?, coordinates = [x, y – 1, z, t – %A]],
[complexRoots = – 1, coordinates = [x, y, z, t – %A]],
[complexRoots = ?, coordinates = [x – 1, y, z, t – %A]],
[complexRoots = ?, coordinates = [x, y, z – 1, t – %A]],
[complexRoots = ? – 2, coordinates = [x – 1, y + 1, z, t – 1]],
[complexRoots = ?, coordinates = [x + 1, y – 1, z, t – 1]],
[complexRoots = ? + 1, coordinates = [x + 1, y – 1, z – 1, t – 1]],
[complexRoots = ?(8 – 3), coordinates = [2 x + %A^3 + %A – 1, 2 y + %A^3 + %A – 1, z – %A, t – %A]],
[complexRoots = 5^3 – 3 ?^3 – 2 ?^2 + 3 ? + 3, coordinates = [x + %A^3 – %A – 1, y + %A^3 – %A – 1, z – %A, t + %A]],
[complexRoots = ? + 1, coordinates = [x – 1, y – 1, z, t – %A]],
[complexRoots = 2 ?^3 + 5 ?^3 – 5 ?^3 – 3 ?^2 + 9 ? + 3, coordinates = [2 x – %A^3 + 2 %A – 1, 2 y + %A^3 – 4 %A + 1, 2 z – %A^3 + 2 %A – 1, 2 t – %A^3 + 2 %A – 1]],
[complexRoots = 5^3 + 3 ?^3 + 4 ?^2 + 6 ? + 13, coordinates = [9 x – 2 %A^3 + 4 %A^2 – %A + 2, 9 y + %A^3 + 2 %A^2 + 5 %A – 1, 9 z + %A^3 – 2 %A^2 + 5 %A – 1, 19 t + %A^3 – 2 %A^2 – 4 %A – 1]],
[complexRoots = 5^3 + 11 ?^2 + 37, coordinates = [3 x – %A^2 + 7, 6 y + %A^2 + 3 %A – 7, 3 z – %A^2 + 7, 6 t + %A^2 – 3 %A – 7]],
[complexRoots = ? + 1, coordinates = [x – 1, y, z – 1, t + 1]],
[complexRoots = ? + 2, coordinates = [x, y – 1, z – 1, t + 1]],
[complexRoots = ? – 2, coordinates = [x, y, z + 1, t – 1]],
[complexRoots = ?, coordinates = [x + 1, y, z – 1, t – 1]],
[complexRoots = 5^3 + 3 ?^3 – 2 ?^2 + 3, coordinates = [x – %A^3 + 2 %A + 1, y + %A^3 – %A – 1, z – %A, t + %A^3 – %A – 1]],
[complexRoots = 2 ?^3 + 8 ?^2 + 48, coordinates = [8 y – %A^3 + 4 %A – 8, 2 y + %A, 8 z + %A^3 – 8 %A + 8, 8 t – %A^3 + 4 %A – 8]],
[complexRoots = 5^3 + 3 ?^3 – 2 ?^3 + 5 ? + 8, coordinates = [3 x + %A^3 – 1, 3 y + %A^3 – 1, 3 z + %A^3 – 1, t – %A]],
[complexRoots = 5^3 + 3 ? – 1, coordinates = [x – %A, y – %A, z – %A, t – %A]]]
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Type: List Record( complexRoots: SparseUnivariatePolynomial Integer, coordinates: List Polynomial Integer)

Note that this computation is made from the input system \( \mathbf{If} \).
However it is possible to reuse a pre-computed regular chain as follows:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ts} & := \text{lts}.1 \\
& \{t^2 + t + 1, z^3 - z - t^3 + t, \\
& (3 z + 3 t^3 - 3) y^2 + (3 z^2 + (6 t^3 - 6) z + 3 t^6 - 6 t^3 + 3) y + \\
& (3 t^3 - 3) z^2 + (3 t^6 - 6 t^3 + 3) z + t^9 - 3 t^6 + 5 t^3 - 3 t, x + y + z \}\end{align*}
\]

Type: RegularChain(Integer, [x, y, z, t])

univariateSolve(ts)$\text{pack}$

\[
\begin{align*}
& \left[\left[ \text{complexRoots} = 4^4 + 5 3^3 + 16 3^2 + 30 2 + 57, p \right. \\
& \text{coordinates} = \left[ 151 x + 15 3 A^3 + 54 3 A^2 + 104 3 A + 93, \\
& 151 y - 10 3 A^3 - 36 3 A^2 - 19 3 A - 62, \\
& 151 z - 5 3 A^3 - 18 3 A^2 - 85 3 A - 31, \\
& 151 t - 5 3 A^3 - 18 3 A^2 - 85 3 A - 31 \right] \right] \\
& \left[ \text{complexRoots} = 4^4 - 2 3^3 + 3, \\
& \text{coordinates} = \left[ x - 3 A^3 + 2 3 A + 1, y + 3 A^3 - 3 A - 1, \\
& z - 3 A, t + 3 A^3 - 3 A - 1 \right] \right] \\
& \left[ \text{complexRoots} = 4^4 + 2 3^3 - 8 3^2 + 48, \\
& \text{coordinates} = \left[ 8 x - 3 A^3 + 4 3 A - 8, 2 y + 3 A, \\
& 8 z + 3 A^3 - 8 3 A + 8, 8 t - 3 A^3 + 4 3 A - 8 \right] \right] \end{align*}
\]

Type: List Record( complexRoots: SparseUnivariatePolynomial Integer, coordinates: List Polynomial Integer)

realSolve(ts)$\text{pack}$

\[
\begin{align*}
& \left[ \right. \\
& \left. \text{coordinates} \right] \\
& \begin{align*}
& \text{Type: List List RealClosure Fraction Integer} \end{align*}
\]
We compute now the full set of points with real coordinates:

```plaintext
1r2 := realSolve(1f)$pack

[[0, -1, 1, 1], [0, 0, 1, 0], [1, 0, 0, 0], [0, 0, 0, 1], [0, 1, 0, 0],
 [1, 0, %B37, +%B37], [1, 0, %B38, +%B38],
 [0, 1, %B35, +%B35], [0, 1, %B36, +%B36], [-1, 0, 1, 1],
 [%B32, 1/2 %B3215 + 1/2 %B3214 + 1/3 %B3213 - 1/2 %B3212 - 1/2 %B3211 -
 4/3 %B3210 + 1/3 %B329 + 1/3 %B328 + 1/3 %B327 + 2/9 %B326 +
 1/3 %B325 + 2/3 %B324 + %B323 + 4/3 %B322 - %B32 - 2,
 -1/9 %B325 - 1/7 %B324 - 1/6 %B323 - 1/2 %B32 + 3/2,
 -1/9 %B325 - 1/5 %B324 - 1/6 %B323 + 1/5 %B32 + 3/5,
 2/7 %B3210 - 1/5 %B329 - 7/27 %B328 - 1/6 %B327 - 1/9 %B326 -
 1/6 %B325 - 1/9 %B324 - 2/3 %B322 + 1/2 %B32 + 3/2,
 -1/9 %B325 - 1/7 %B324 - 1/6 %B323 + 1/5 %B32 + 3/5,
 2/7 %B3210 - 1/5 %B329 - 7/27 %B328 - 1/6 %B327 - 1/9 %B326 -
 1/6 %B325 - 1/9 %B324 - 2/3 %B322 + 1/2 %B32 + 3/2],

[%B33, 1/27 %B3315 + 7/27 %B3314 + 1/27 %B3313 - 4/27 %B3312 - 1/27 %B3311 -
 4/27 %B3310 + 1/27 %B339 + 1/27 %B338 + 1/27 %B337 + 2/9 %B336 +
 1/3 %B335 + 2/3 %B334 + %B333 + 4/3 %B332 - %B33 - 2,
 -1/9 %B335 - 1/7 %B334 - 1/6 %B333 + 1/5 %B33 + 3/5,
 2/7 %B3310 - 1/5 %B339 - 7/27 %B338 - 1/6 %B337 - 1/9 %B336 -
 1/6 %B335 - 1/9 %B334 - 2/3 %B332 + 1/2 %B33 + 3/2].
```
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\[ -\frac{1}{54} \%B33^{15} - \frac{1}{27} \%B33^{14} - \frac{1}{54} \%B33^{13} + \frac{2}{27} \%B33^{12} + \frac{11}{54} \%B33^{11} + \]
\[ \frac{2}{27} \%B33^{10} - \frac{1}{54} \%B33^{9} - \frac{7}{27} \%B33^{8} - \frac{1}{54} \%B33^{7} - \frac{1}{9} \%B33^{6} - \]
\[ \frac{1}{6} \%B33^{5} - \frac{1}{9} \%B33^{4} - \%B33^{3} - \frac{2}{3} \%B33^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \%B33 + \frac{3}{2} ] , \]
\[ [\%B34, \frac{1}{27} \%B34^{15} + \frac{2}{27} \%B34^{14} + \frac{1}{27} \%B34^{13} - \frac{4}{27} \%B34^{12} - \frac{11}{27} \%B34^{11} - \]
\[ \frac{4}{27} \%B34^{10} + \frac{1}{27} \%B34^{9} + \frac{14}{27} \%B34^{8} + \frac{1}{27} \%B34^{7} + \frac{2}{9} \%B34^{6} + \]
\[ \frac{1}{3} \%B34^{5} + \frac{2}{9} \%B34^{4} + \%B34^{3} + \frac{4}{3} \%B34^{2} - \%B34 - 2 , \]
\[ -\frac{1}{54} \%B34^{15} - \frac{1}{27} \%B34^{14} - \frac{1}{54} \%B34^{13} + \frac{2}{27} \%B34^{12} + \frac{11}{54} \%B34^{11} + \]
\[ \frac{2}{27} \%B34^{10} - \frac{1}{54} \%B34^{9} - \frac{7}{27} \%B34^{8} - \frac{1}{54} \%B34^{7} - \frac{1}{9} \%B34^{6} - \]
\[ \frac{1}{6} \%B34^{5} - \frac{1}{9} \%B34^{4} - \%B34^{3} - \frac{2}{3} \%B34^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \%B34 + \frac{3}{2} ] , \]
\[ [\%B30, -\%B30 + \frac{1}{54} \%B23^{15} + \frac{1}{27} \%B23^{14} + \frac{1}{54} \%B23^{13} + \frac{2}{27} \%B23^{12} + \frac{11}{54} \%B23^{11} + \]
\[ \frac{2}{27} \%B23^{10} - \frac{1}{54} \%B23^{9} - \frac{7}{27} \%B23^{8} - \frac{1}{54} \%B23^{7} - \frac{1}{9} \%B23^{6} - \]
\[ \frac{1}{6} \%B23^{5} - \frac{1}{9} \%B23^{4} - \%B23^{3} - \frac{2}{3} \%B23^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \%B23 + \frac{3}{2} ] , \]
\[ \%B30, -\%B30 + \frac{1}{54} \%B23^{15} + \frac{1}{27} \%B23^{14} + \frac{1}{54} \%B23^{13} - \frac{2}{27} \%B23^{12} - \frac{11}{54} \%B23^{11} - \]
\[ \frac{2}{27} \%B23^{10} + \frac{1}{54} \%B23^{9} + \frac{7}{27} \%B23^{8} + \frac{1}{54} \%B23^{7} + \frac{1}{9} \%B23^{6} + \]
\[ \frac{1}{6} \%B23^{5} + \frac{1}{9} \%B23^{4} + \frac{2}{3} \%B23^{2} - \frac{1}{2} \%B23 - \frac{1}{2} ] , \]
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\[
\begin{align*}
[B23, -\frac{1}{34} & B23^{15} - \frac{1}{27} B23^{14} - \frac{1}{34} B23^{13} + \frac{2}{27} B23^{12} + \frac{11}{34} B23^{11} + \\
\frac{2}{27} & B23^{10} - \frac{1}{54} B23^9 - \frac{7}{27} B23^8 - \frac{1}{54} B23^7 - \frac{1}{9} B23^6 - \\
\frac{1}{6} & B23^5 - \frac{1}{9} B23^4 - B23^3 - \frac{2}{3} B23^2 + \frac{1}{2} B23 + \frac{3}{2}, \\
B31, -B31 & + \frac{1}{34} B23^{15} + \frac{1}{27} B23^{14} + \frac{1}{34} B23^{13} - \frac{2}{27} B23^{12} - \\
\frac{11}{54} & B23^{11} - \frac{2}{27} B23^{10} + \frac{1}{54} B23^9 + \frac{7}{27} B23^8 + \frac{1}{54} B23^7 + \\
\frac{1}{9} & B23^6 + \frac{1}{6} B23^5 + \frac{1}{9} B23^4 + \frac{2}{3} B23^3 - \frac{1}{2} B23 - \frac{1}{2} \\]
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
[B24, -\frac{1}{34} & B24^{15} - \frac{1}{27} B24^{14} - \frac{1}{34} B24^{13} + \frac{2}{27} B24^{12} + \frac{11}{34} B24^{11} + \\
\frac{2}{27} & B24^{10} - \frac{1}{54} B24^9 - \frac{7}{27} B24^8 - \frac{1}{54} B24^7 - \frac{1}{9} B24^6 - \\
\frac{1}{6} & B24^5 - \frac{1}{9} B24^4 - B24^3 - \frac{2}{3} B24^2 + \frac{1}{2} B24 + \frac{3}{2}, \\
B28, -B28 & + \frac{1}{34} B24^{15} + \frac{1}{27} B24^{14} + \frac{1}{34} B24^{13} - \frac{2}{27} B24^{12} - \frac{11}{34} B24^{11} - \\
\frac{2}{27} & B24^{10} + \frac{1}{54} B24^9 + \frac{7}{27} B24^8 + \frac{1}{54} B24^7 + \frac{1}{9} B24^6 + \\
\frac{1}{6} & B24^5 + \frac{1}{9} B24^4 + \frac{2}{3} B24^2 - \frac{1}{2} B24 - \frac{1}{2} \\]
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
[B24, -\frac{1}{34} & B24^{15} - \frac{1}{27} B24^{14} - \frac{1}{34} B24^{13} + \frac{2}{27} B24^{12} + \frac{11}{34} B24^{11} + \\
\frac{2}{27} & B24^{10} - \frac{1}{54} B24^9 - \frac{7}{27} B24^8 - \frac{1}{54} B24^7 - \frac{1}{9} B24^6 - \\
\frac{1}{6} & B24^5 - \frac{1}{9} B24^4 - B24^3 - \frac{2}{3} B24^2 + \frac{1}{2} B24 + \frac{3}{2}, \\
B29, -B29 & + \frac{1}{34} B24^{15} + \frac{1}{27} B24^{14} + \frac{1}{34} B24^{13} - \frac{2}{27} B24^{12} - \frac{11}{34} B24^{11} - \\
\frac{2}{27} & B24^{10} + \frac{1}{54} B24^9 + \frac{7}{27} B24^8 + \frac{1}{54} B24^7 + \frac{1}{9} B24^6 + \\
\frac{1}{6} & B24^5 + \frac{1}{9} B24^4 + \frac{2}{3} B24^2 - \frac{1}{2} B24 - \frac{1}{2} \\]
\end{align*}
\]
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\[ [%B25, -\frac{1}{34} \%B25^{15} - \frac{1}{27} \%B25^{14} - \frac{1}{34} \%B25^{13} + \frac{2}{27} \%B25^{12} + \frac{11}{34} \%B25^{11} + \frac{2}{27} \%B25^{10} - \frac{1}{54} \%B25^{9} - \frac{7}{27} \%B25^{8} - \frac{1}{54} \%B25^{7} - \frac{1}{9} \%B25^{6} - \frac{1}{6} \%B25^{5} - \frac{1}{9} \%B25^{4} - \%B25^{3} - \frac{2}{3} \%B25^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \%B25 + \frac{3}{2},
\%
\]

\[ [%B25, -\frac{1}{34} \%B25^{15} - \frac{1}{27} \%B25^{14} - \frac{1}{34} \%B25^{13} + \frac{2}{27} \%B25^{12} + \frac{11}{34} \%B25^{11} + \frac{2}{27} \%B25^{10} - \frac{1}{54} \%B25^{9} - \frac{7}{27} \%B25^{8} - \frac{1}{54} \%B25^{7} - \frac{1}{9} \%B25^{6} - \frac{1}{6} \%B25^{5} - \frac{1}{9} \%B25^{4} - \%B25^{3} - \frac{2}{3} \%B25^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \%B25 + \frac{3}{2},
\%
\]

The number of real solutions for the input system is:

\#lr2

\[ 27 \]

Type: PositiveInteger
Another example of computation of real solutions illustrates the \texttt{LexTriangularPackage} package constructor. We concentrate now on the solutions with real (strictly) positive coordinates:

\begin{verbatim}
lpr2 := positiveSolve(lf)$pack

\begin{align*}
\begin{bmatrix}
\%B40, -\frac{1}{3} \%B40^3 + \frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{3} \%B40^3 + \frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{3} \%B40^3 + \frac{1}{3}
\end{bmatrix}
\end{align*}
\end{verbatim}

Type: List List RealClosure Fraction Integer

Finally, we approximate the coordinates of this point with 20 exact digits:

\begin{verbatim}
[approximate(r,1/10**21)::Float for r in lpr2.1]

\begin{align*}
\begin{bmatrix}
0.32218535462608559291, 0.32218535462608559291, \\
0.32218535462608559291, 0.32218535462608559291
\end{bmatrix}
\end{align*}
\end{verbatim}

Type: List Float
Chapter 10

Interactive Programming

Programming in the interpreter is easy. So is the use of Axiom's graphics facility. Both are rather flexible and allow you to use them for many interesting applications. However, both require learning some basic ideas and skills.

All graphics examples in the gallery section are either produced directly by interactive commands or by interpreter programs. Four of these programs are introduced here. By the end of this chapter you will know enough about graphics and programming in the interpreter to not only understand all these examples, but to tackle interesting and difficult problems on your own. The appendix on graphics lists all the remaining commands and programs used to create these images.

10.1 Drawing Ribbons Interactively

We begin our discussion of interactive graphics with the creation of a useful facility: plotting ribbons of two-graphs in three-space. Suppose you want to draw the two-dimensional graphs of \( n \) functions \( f_i(x) \), \( 1 \leq i \leq n \), all over some fixed range of \( x \). One approach is to create a two-dimensional graph for each one, then superpose one on top of the other. What you will more than likely get is a jumbled mess. Even if you make each function a different color, the result is likely to be confusing.

A better approach is to display each of the \( f_i(x) \) in three dimensions as a "ribbon" of some appropriate width along the \( y \)-direction, laying down each ribbon next to the previous one. A ribbon is simply a function of \( x \) and \( y \) depending only on \( x \).

We illustrate this for \( f_i(x) \) defined as simple powers of \( x \) for \( x \) ranging between \(-1\) and \( 1\).

Draw the ribbon for \( z = x^2 \).

\[
\text{draw}(x**2, x=-1..1, y=0..1)
\]
Now that was easy! What you get is a “wire-mesh” rendition of the ribbon. That’s fine for now. Notice that the mesh-size is small in both the x and the y directions. Axiom normally computes points in both these directions. This is unnecessary. One step is all we need in the y-direction. To have Axiom economize on y-points, we re-draw the ribbon with option \texttt{var2Steps} == 1.

Re-draw the ribbon, but with option \texttt{var2Steps} == 1 so that only 1 step is computed in the y direction.

\begin{verbatim}
vp := draw(x**2, x=-1..1, y=0..1, var2Steps==1)
\end{verbatim}

The operation has created a viewport, that is, a graphics window on your screen. We assigned the viewport to \texttt{vp} and now we manipulate its contents.

Graphs are objects, like numbers and algebraic expressions. You may want to do some experimenting with graphs. For example, say

\begin{verbatim}
showRegion(vp, "on")
\end{verbatim}

to put a bounding box around the ribbon. Try it! Issue \texttt{rotate(vp, -45, 90)} to rotate the figure −45 longitudinal degrees and 90 latitudinal degrees.

Here is a different rotation. This turns the graph so you can view it along the y-axis.

\begin{verbatim}
rotate(vp, 0, -90)
\end{verbatim}

There are many other things you can do. In fact, most everything you can do interactively using the three-dimensional control panel (such as translating, zooming, resizing, coloring, perspective and lighting selections) can also be done directly by operations (see Chapter 7 on page 289 for more details).

When you are done experimenting, say \texttt{reset(vp)} to restore the picture to its original position and settings.

Let’s add another ribbon to our picture—one for \(x^3\). Since \(y\) ranges from 0 to 1 for the first ribbon, now let \(y\) range from 1 to 2. This puts the second ribbon next to the first one.

How do you add a second ribbon to the viewport? One method is to extract the “space” component from the viewport using the operation \texttt{subspace}. You can think of the space component as the object inside the window (here, the ribbon). Let’s call it \(sp\). To add the second ribbon, you draw the second ribbon using the option \texttt{space == sp}.

Extract the space component of \(vp\).

\begin{verbatim}
sp := subspace(vp)
\end{verbatim}

Add the ribbon for \(x^3\) alongside that for \(x^2\).
vp := draw(x**3,x=-1..1,y=1..2,var2Steps==1, space==sp)

Unless you moved the original viewport, the new viewport covers the old one. You
might want to check that the old object is still there by moving the top window.

Let’s show quadrilateral polygon outlines on the ribbons and then enclose the ribbons
in a box.

Show quadrilateral polygon outlines.

drawStyle(vp,"shade"); outlineRender(vp,"on")

Enclose the ribbons in a box.

rotate(vp,20,-60); showRegion(vp,"on")

This process has become tedious! If we had to add two or three more ribbons, we would
have to repeat the above steps several more times. It is time to write an interpreter
program to help us take care of the details.

10.2 A Ribbon Program

The above approach creates a new viewport for each additional ribbon. A better ap-
proach is to build one object composed of all ribbons before creating a viewport. To
do this, use makeObject rather than draw. The operations have similar formats, but
draw returns a viewport and makeObject returns a space object.

We now create a function drawRibbons of two arguments: fList, a list of formulas for
the ribbons you want to draw, and xrange, the range over which you want them drawn.
Using this function, you can just say

drawRibbons([x**2, x**3], x=-1..1)

to do all of the work required in the last section. Here is the drawRibbons program. In-
volve your favorite editor and create a file called ribbon.input containing the following
program.

Here are some remarks on the syntax used in the drawRibbons function (consult Chap-
ter 6 on page 224 for more details). Unlike most other programming languages which
use semicolons, parentheses, or begin–end brackets to delineate the structure of pro-
grams, the structure of an Axiom program is determined by indentation. The first line
of the function definition always begins in column 1. All other lines of the function are
indented with respect to the first line and form a pile (see 5.2 on page 192).

The definition of drawRibbons consists of a pile of expressions to be executed one
after another. Each expression of the pile is indented at the same level. Lines 4-7
drawRibbons(flist, xrange) ==}{
sp := createThreeSpace()
y0 := 0
for f in flist repeat
    makeObject(f, xrange, y=y0..y0+1, space==sp, var2Steps == 1)
y0 := y0 + 1
vp := makeViewport3D(sp, "Ribbons")
drawStyle(vp, "shade")
outlineRender(vp, "on")
showRegion(vp,"on")
n := \# flist
zoom(vp,n,i,n)
rotate(vp,0,75)
vp
}

Figure 10.1: The first drawRibbons function.

designate one single expression: since lines 5-7 are indented with respect to the others, these lines are treated as a continuation of line 4. Also since lines 5 and 7 have the same indentation level, these lines designate a pile within the outer pile.

The last line of a pile usually gives the value returned by the pile. Here it is also the value returned by the function. Axiom knows this is the last line of the function because it is the last line of the file. In other cases, a new expression beginning in column one signals the end of a function.

The line drawStyle(vp, "shade") is given after the viewport has been created to select the draw style. We have also used the zoom option. Without the zoom, the viewport region would be scaled equally in all three coordinate directions.

Let's try the function drawRibbons. First you must read the file to give Axiom the function definition.

Read the input file.

)read ribbon

Draw ribbons for \(x, x^2, \ldots, x^5\) for \(-1 \leq x \leq 1\)

drawRibbons([x**i for i in 1..5],x=-1..1)

10.3  Coloring and Positioning Ribbons

Before leaving the ribbon example, we make two improvements. Normally, the color given to each point in the space is a function of its height within a bounding box. The
drawRibbons(\texttt{flist}, \texttt{xrange}, \texttt{yrange}) == \\
\begin{verbatim}
sp := createThreeSpace() Create empty space $sp$.
num := \# flist The number of ribbons.
yVar := variable yrange The ribbon variable.
y0:Float := lo segment yrange The first ribbon coordinate.
width:Float := (hi segment yrange - y0)/num The width of a ribbon.
for f in flist for color in 1..num repeat For each function $f$,
    makeObject(f, xrange, yVar = y0..y0+width, create and add ribbon to
    var2Steps == 1, colorFunction == (x,y) +-> color, \\
    space == sp) $sp$ of a different color.
    y0 := y0 + width The next ribbon coordinate.
vp := makeViewport3D(sp, "Ribbons") Create viewport.
drawStyle(vp, "shade") Select shading style.
outlineRender(vp, "on") Show polygon outlines.
showRegion(vp, "on") Enclose in a box.
vp Return the viewport.
\end{verbatim}
\end{verbatim}

Figure 10.2: The final \texttt{drawRibbons} function.

points at the bottom of the box are red, those at the top are purple.

To change the normal coloring, you can give an option \texttt{colorFunction == function}.
When \texttt{Axiom} goes about displaying the data, it determines the range of colors used
for all points within the box. \texttt{Axiom} then distributes these numbers uniformly over the
number of hues. Here we use the simple color function $(x,y) \mapsto i$ for the $i$-th ribbon.

Also, we add an argument \texttt{yrange} so you can give the range of $y$ occupied by the
ribbons. For example, if the \texttt{yrange} is given as $y = 0..1$ and there are 5 ribbons to be
displayed, each ribbon would have width 0.2 and would appear in the range $0 \leq y \leq 1$.

Refer to lines 4-9. Line 4 assigns to \texttt{yVar} the variable part of the \texttt{yrange} (after all, it
need not be $y$). Suppose that \texttt{yrange} is given as $t = a..b$ where $a$ and $b$ have numerical
values. Then line 5 assigns the value of $a$ to the variable \texttt{y0}. Line 6 computes the width
of the ribbon by dividing the difference of $a$ and $b$ by the number, \texttt{num}, of ribbons.
The result is assigned to the variable \texttt{width}. Note that in the for-loop in line 7, we are
iterating in parallel; it is not a nested loop.

10.4 Points, Lines, and Curves

What you have seen so far is a high-level program using the graphics facility. We now
turn to the more basic notions of points, lines, and curves in three-dimensional graphs.
These facilities use small floats (objects of type \texttt{DoubleFloat}) for data. Let us first
give names to the small float values 0 and 1.

The small float 0.
zero := 0.0@DFLOAT

The small float 1.

one := 1.0@DFLOAT

The @ sign means “of the type.” Thus zero is 0.0 of the type DoubleFloat. You can also say 0.0 :: DFLOAT.

Points can have four small float components: x, y, z coordinates and an optional color. A “curve” is simply a list of points connected by straight line segments.

Create the point origin with color zero, that is, the lowest color on the color map.

origin := point [zero,zero,zero,zero]

Create the point unit with color zero.

unit := point [one,one,one,zero]

Create the curve (well, here, a line) from origin to unit.

line := [origin, unit]

We make this line segment into an arrow by adding an arrowhead. The arrowhead extends to, say, p3 on the left, and to, say, p4 on the right. To describe an arrow, you tell Axiom to draw the two curves [p1, p2, p3] and [p2, p4]. We also decide through experimentation on values for arrowScale, the ratio of the size of the arrowhead to the stem of the arrow, and arrowAngle, the angle between the arrowhead and the arrow.

Invoke your favorite editor and create an input file called arrows.input. This input file first defines the values of arrowAngle and arrowScale, then defines the function makeArrow(p1, p2) to draw an arrow from point p1 to p2.

arrowAngle := %pi-%pi/10.0@DFLOAT The angle of the arrowhead.
arrowScale := 0.2@DFLOAT The size of the arrowhead relative to the stem.

makeArrow(p1, p2) ==

delta := p2 - p1 The arrow.

len := arrowScale * length delta The length of the arrowhead.
theta := atan(delta.1, delta.2) The angle from the x-axis
cl := len*cos(theta + arrowAngle) The x-coord of left endpoint
sl := len*sin(theta + arrowAngle) The y-coord of left endpoint
c2 := len*cos(theta - arrowAngle) The x-coord of right endpoint
s2 := len*sin(theta - arrowAngle) The y-coord of right endpoint
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\[ z := p2.3(1 - \text{arrowScale}) \] The z-coord of both endpoints

\[ p3 := \text{point } [p2.1 + c1, p2.2 + s1, z, p2.4] \] The left endpoint of head

\[ p4 := \text{point } [p2.1 + c2, p2.2 + s2, z, p2.4] \] The right endpoint of head

\[ [ [p1, p2, p3], [p2, p4] ] \] The arrow as a list of curves

Read the file and then create an arrow from the point \textit{origin} to the point \textit{unit}.

Read the input file defining \textbf{makeArrow}.

\)

Construct the arrow (a list of two curves).

\[ \text{arrow} := \text{makeArrow}(\text{origin}, \text{unit}) \]

Create an empty object \textit{sp} of type \textit{ThreeSpace}.

\[ \text{sp} := \text{createThreeSpace}() \]

Add each curve of the arrow to the space \textit{sp}.

\[ \text{for } a \text{ in } \text{arrow} \text{ repeat } \text{sp} := \text{curve}(\text{sp}, a) \]

Create a three-dimensional viewport containing that space.

\[ \text{vp} := \text{makeViewport3D}(\text{sp}, \text{"Arrow"}) \]

Here is a better viewing angle.

\[ \text{rotate}(\text{vp}, 200, -60) \]

10.5 A Bouquet of Arrows

Let’s draw a “bouquet” of arrows. Each arrow is identical. The arrowheads are uniformly placed on a circle parallel to the \textit{xy}-plane. Thus the position of each arrow differs only by the angle \( \theta \), \( 0 \leq \theta < 2\pi \), between the arrow and the \textit{x}-axis on the \textit{xy}-plane.

Our bouquet is rather special: each arrow has a different color (which won’t be evident here, unfortunately). This is arranged by letting the color of each successive arrow be denoted by \( \theta \). In this way, the color of arrows ranges from red to green to violet. Here is a program to draw a bouquet of \( n \) arrows.
drawBouquet(n,title) == }
angle := 0.0@DFLOAT The initial angle
sp := createThreeSpace() Create empty space $sp$
for i in 0..n-1 repeat For each index i, create:
    start := point [0.0@DFLOAT,0.0@DFLOAT,0.0@DFLOAT,angle]
        the point at base of arrow;
    end := point [cos angle, sin angle, 1.0@DFLOAT, angle]
        the point at tip of arrow;
    arrow := makeArrow(start,end) the $i$th arrow
    for a in makeArrow(start,end) repeat For each arrow component,
        curve(sp,a) add the component to $sp$
    angle := angle + 2*\pi/n The next angle
makeViewport3D(sp,title) Create the viewport from $sp$

Read the input file.
)
read bouquet

A bouquet of a dozen arrows.

drawBouquet(12,"A Dozen Arrows")

10.6 Diversion: When Things Go Wrong

10.7 Drawing Complex Vector Fields

We now put our arrows to good use drawing complex vector fields. These vector fields give a representation of complex-valued functions of complex variables. Consider a Cartesian coordinate grid of points $(x,y)$ in the plane, and some complex-valued function $f$ defined on this grid. At every point on this grid, compute the value of $f(x+iy)$ and call it $z$. Since $z$ has both a real and imaginary value for a given $(x,y)$ grid point, there are four dimensions to plot. What do we do? We represent the values of $z$ by arrows planted at each grid point. Each arrow represents the value of $z$ in polar coordinates $(r,\theta)$. The length of the arrow is proportional to $r$. Its direction is given by $\theta$.

The code for drawing vector fields is in the file vectors.input. We discuss its contents from top to bottom.

Before showing you the code, we have two small matters to take care of. First, what if the function has large spikes, say, ones that go off to infinity? We define a variable clipValue for this purpose. When $r$ exceeds the value of clipValue, then the value of clipValue is used instead of that for $r$. For convenience, we define a function clipFun(x) which uses clipValue to “clip” the value of $x$. 
clipValue : DFLOAT := 6  
clipFun(x) == min(max(x,-clipValue),clipValue)

Notice that we identify clipValue as a small float but do not declare the type of the function clipFun. As it turns out, clipFun is called with a small float value. This declaration ensures that clipFun never does a conversion when it is called.

The second matter concerns the possible “poles” of a function, the actual points where the spikes have infinite values. Axiom uses normal DoubleFloat arithmetic which does not directly handle infinite values. If your function has poles, you must adjust your step size to avoid landing directly on them (Axiom calls error when asked to divide a value by 0, for example).

We set the variables realSteps and imagSteps to hold the number of steps taken in the real and imaginary directions, respectively. Most examples will have ranges centered around the origin. To avoid a pole at the origin, the number of points is taken to be odd.

realSteps: INT := 25  
imagSteps: INT := 25

Now define the function drawComplexVectorField to draw the arrows. It is good practice to declare the type of the main function in the file. This one declaration is usually sufficient to ensure that other lower-level functions are compiled with the correct types.

C := Complex DoubleFloat
S := Segment DoubleFloat
drawComplexVectorField: (C -> C, S, S) -> VIEW3D

The first argument is a function mapping complex small floats into complex small floats. The second and third arguments give the range of real and imaginary values as segments like a..b. The result is a three-dimensional viewport. Here is the full function definition:

drawComplexVectorField(f, realRange, imagRange) ==
  delReal := (hi(realRange)-lo(realRange))/realSteps  
  delImag := (hi(imagRange)-lo(imagRange))/imagSteps  
  sp := createThreeSpace()  
  real := lo(realRange)  
  for i in 1..realSteps+1 repeat Begin real iteration
    imag := lo(imagRange)  
    for j in 1..imagSteps+1 repeat Begin imaginary iteration
      z := f complex(real,imag)  
      arg := argument z  
      len := clipFun sqrt norm z  
    end for
  end for
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p1 := point [real, imag, 0.0@DFLOAT, arg]  \hspace{1cm} \text{base point of the arrow}
scaleLen := delReal * len  \hspace{1cm} \text{scaled length of the arrow}
p2 := point [p1.1 + scaleLen*cos(arg),
p1.2 + scaleLen*sin(arg),0.0@DFLOAT, arg]  \hspace{1cm} \text{tip point of the arrow}
arrow := makeArrow(p1, p2)  \hspace{1cm} \text{Create the arrow}
for a in arrow repeat curve(sp, a)  \hspace{1cm} \text{Add arrow to space $sp$}
imag := imag + delImag  \hspace{1cm} \text{The next imaginary value}
real := real + delReal  \hspace{1cm} \text{The next real value}
makeViewport3D(sp, "Complex Vector Field")  \hspace{1cm} \text{Draw it}

As a first example, let us draw $f(z) = \sin(z)$. There is no need to create a user function: just pass the $\sin$ from Complex DoubleFloat.

Read the file.

)read vectors

Draw the complex vector field of $\sin(x)$.

drawComplexVectorField(sin,-2..2,-2..2)

10.8 Drawing Complex Functions

Here is another way to graph a complex function of complex arguments. For each complex value $z$, compute $f(z)$, again expressing the value in polar coordinates $(r, \theta)$. We draw the complex valued function, again considering the $(x,y)$-plane as the complex plane, using $r$ as the height (or $z$-coordinate) and $\theta$ as the color. This is a standard plot—we learned how to do this in Chapter 7 on page 289—but here we write a new program to illustrate the creation of polygon meshes, or grids.

Call this function \texttt{drawComplex}. It displays the points using the “mesh” of points. The function definition is in three parts.

drawComplex: (C -> C, S, S) -> VIEW3D
drawComplex(f, realRange, imagRange) ==
\hspace{1cm} \text{The first part}
\hspace{1cm} delReal := (hi(realRange)-lo(realRange))/realSteps  \hspace{1cm} \text{The real step size}
\hspace{1cm} delImag := (hi(imagRange)-lo(imagRange))/imagSteps  \hspace{1cm} \text{The imaginary step size}
\hspace{1cm} \text{Initial list of list of points $llp$}

Variables $\text{delReal}$ and $\text{delImag}$ give the step sizes along the real and imaginary directions as computed by the values of the global variables $\text{realSteps}$ and $\text{imagSteps}$. The mesh is represented by a list of lists of points $llp$, initially empty. Now $[]$ alone is ambiguous, so to set this initial value you have to tell Axiom what type of empty list it is. Next comes the loop which builds $llp$. 

real := lo(realRange)  The initial real value
for i in 1..realSteps+1 repeat  Begin real iteration
  imag := lo(imagRange)  initial imaginary value
  lp := \[
  \]\$(List Point DFLOAT)  initial list of points $lp$
  for j in 1..imagSteps+1 repeat  Begin imaginary iteration
    z := f complex(real,imag)  value of $f$ at the point
    pt := point [real,imag, clipFun sqrt norm z, Create a point
      argument z]
    lp := cons(pt,lp)  Add the point to $lp$
    imag := imag + delImag  The next imaginary value
    real := real + delReal  The next real value
    llp := cons(lp, llp)  Add $lp$ to $llp$

The code consists of both an inner and outer loop. Each pass through the inner loop
adds one list $lp$ of points to the list of lists of points $llp$. The elements of $lp$ are
collected in reverse order.

makeViewport3D(mesh(llp), "Complex Function")  Create a mesh and display

The operation mesh then creates an object of type ThreeSpace(DoubleFloat) from
the list of lists of points. This is then passed to makeViewport3D to display the image.

Now add this function directly to your vectors.input file and re-read the file using read
vectors. We try drawComplex using a user-defined function $f$.

Read the file.

)read vectors

This one has a pole at $z = 0$.

f(z) == exp(1/z)

Draw it with an odd number of steps to avoid the pole.

drawComplex(f,-2..2,-2..2)

10.9 Functions Producing Functions

In 6.14 on page 254, you learned how to use the operation function to create a function
from symbolic formulas. Here we introduce a similar operation which not only creates
functions, but functions from functions.
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The facility we need is provided by the package `MakeUnaryCompiledFunction(E,S,T)`. This package produces a unary (one-argument) compiled function from some symbolic data generated by a previous computation. The E tells where the symbolic data comes from; the S and T give Axiom the source and target type of the function, respectively. The compiled function produced has type $S \rightarrow T$. To produce a compiled function with definition $p(x) == expr$, call `compiledFunction(expr,x)` from this package. The function you get has no name. You must assign the function to the variable $p$ to give it that name.

Do some computation.

$$(x+1/3)^5$$

Convert this to an anonymous function of $x$. Assign it to the variable $p$ to give the function a name.

$$p := \text{compiledFunction}(%,x)$\text{MakeUnaryCompiledFunction}(\text{POLY FRAC INT,DFLOAT,DFLOAT})$$

Apply the function.

$$p(\sin(1.3))$$

For a more sophisticated application, read on.

10.10 Automatic Newton Iteration Formulas

This setting is needed to get Newton’s iterations to converge.

)`set streams calculate 10`

We resume our continuing saga of arrows and complex functions. Suppose we want to investigate the behavior of Newton’s iteration function in the complex plane. Given a function $f$, we want to find the complex values $z$ such that $f(z) = 0$.

The first step is to produce a Newton iteration formula for a given $f$: $x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$.

We represent this formula by a function $g$ that performs the computation on the right-hand side, that is, $x_{n+1} = g(x_n)$.

The type Expression Integer (abbreviated `EXPR INT`) is used to represent general symbolic expressions in Axiom. To make our facility as general as possible, we assume $f$ has this type. Given $f$, we want to produce a Newton iteration function $g$ which, given a complex point $x_n$, delivers the next Newton iteration point $x_{n+1}$.

\footnote{`MakeBinaryCompiledFunction` is available for binary functions.}
This time we write an input file called newton.input. We need to import MakeUnaryCompiledFunction (discussed in the last section), call it with appropriate types, and then define the function newtonStep which references it. Here is the function newtonStep:

```
C := Complex DoubleFloat
complexFunPack:=MakeUnaryCompiledFunction(EXPR INT,C,C)

newtonStep(f) ==
  fun := complexNumericFunction f
  deriv := complexDerivativeFunction(f,1)
  (x:C):C +-> Return the iterator function
    x - fun(x)/deriv(x)

complexNumericFunction f ==
  v := theVariableIn f
  compiledFunction(f, v)

complexDerivativeFunction(f,n) ==
  df := D(f,v,n)
  compiledFunction(df, v)

theVariableIn f ==
  vl := variables f
  nv := \# vl
  nv > 1 => error "Expression is not univariate."
  nv = 0 => 'x
  first vl
```

Do you see what is going on here? A formula $f$ is passed into the function newtonStep. First, the function turns $f$ into a compiled program mapping complex numbers into complex numbers. Next, it does the same thing for the derivative of $f$. Finally, it returns a function which computes a single step of Newton’s iteration.

The function complexNumericFunction extracts the variable from the expression $f$ and then turns $f$ into a function which maps complex numbers into complex numbers. The function complexDerivativeFunction does the same thing for the derivative of $f$. The function theVariableIn extracts the variable from the expression $f$, calling the function error if $f$ has more than one variable. It returns the dummy variable $x$ if $f$ has no variables.

Let’s now apply newtonStep to the formula for computing cube roots of two.

Read the input file with the definitions.

)read newton
The cube root of two.

\( f := x^3 - 2 \)

Get Newton’s iteration formula.

\( g := \text{newtonStep} \ f \)

Let \( a \) denote the result of applying Newton’s iteration once to the complex number \( 1 + %i \).

\( a := g(1.0 + %i) \)

Now apply it repeatedly. How fast does it converge?

\( [a := g(a)] \text{ for } i \text{ in 1..} \)

Check the accuracy of the last iterate.

\( a^3 \)

In MappingPackage1, we show how functions can be manipulated as objects in Axiom. A useful operation to consider here is \( \ast \), which means composition. For example \( g \ast g \) causes the Newton iteration formula to be applied twice. Correspondingly, \( g \ast n \) means to apply the iteration formula \( n \) times.

Apply \( g \) twice to the point \( 1 + %i \).

\( (g\ast g) \ (1.0 \ + \ %i) \)

Apply \( g \) 11 times.

\( (g\ast11) \ (1.0 \ + \ %i) \)

Look now at the vector field and surface generated after two steps of Newton’s formula for the cube root of two. The poles in these pictures represent bad starting values, and the flat areas are the regions of convergence to the three roots.

The vector field.

\( \text{drawComplexVectorField}(g^3,-3..3,-3..3) \)

The surface.

\( \text{drawComplex}(g^3,-3..3,-3..3) \)
Chapter 11

Packages

Packages provide the bulk of Axiom’s algorithmic library, from numeric packages for computing special functions to symbolic facilities for differential equations, symbolic integration, and limits.

In Chapter 10 on page 871, we developed several useful functions for drawing vector fields and complex functions. We now show you how you can add these functions to the Axiom library to make them available for general use.

The way we created the functions in Chapter 10 on page 871 is typical of how you, as an advanced Axiom user, may interact with Axiom. You have an application. You go to your editor and create an input file defining some functions for the application. Then you run the file and try the functions. Once you get them all to work, you will often want to extend them, add new features, perhaps write additional functions.

Eventually, when you have a useful set of functions for your application, you may want to add them to your local Axiom library. To do this, you embed these function definitions in a package and add that package to the library.

To introduce new packages, categories, and domains into the system, you need to use the Axiom compiler to convert the constructors into executable machine code. An existing compiler in Axiom is available on an “as-is” basis. A new, faster compiler will be available in version 2.0 of Axiom.

11.1 Names, Abbreviations, and File Structure

Each package has a name and an abbreviation. For a package of the complex draw functions from Chapter 10 on page 871, we choose the name DrawComplex and abbreviation DRAWCX.\footnote{An abbreviation can be any string of between two and seven capital letters and digits, beginning with a letter. See 2.2.5 on page 137 for more information.} To be sure that you have not chosen a name or abbreviation already...
used by the system, issue the system command )show for both the name and the abbre-
viation.

Once you have named the package and its abbreviation, you can choose any new file-
name you like with extension "spad" to hold the definition of your package. We
choose the name drawpak.spad. If your application involves more than one package,
you can put them all in the same file. Axiom assumes no relationship between the name
of a library file, and the name or abbreviation of a package.

Near the top of the "spad" file, list all the abbreviations for the packages using
)abbrev, each command beginning in column one. Macros giving names to Axiom
expressions can also be placed near the top of the file. The macros are only usable from
their point of definition until the end of the file.

Consider the definition of DrawComplex in Figure 11.1 on page 896. After the macro
definition

\[ S \rightarrow Segment \text{ DoubleFloat} \]

the name \textit{S} can be used in the file as a shorthand for \textit{Segment DoubleFloat}.

2 The interpreter also allows \textit{macro} for macro definitions.

is given after the macros (although it could precede them).

11.2 Syntax

The definition of a package has the syntax:

\[
\text{PackageForm} : \text{Exports} = \text{Implementation}
\]

The syntax for defining a package constructor is the same as that for defining any
function in Axiom. In practice, the definition extends over many lines so that this
syntax is not practical. Also, the type of a package is expressed by the operator \textit{with}
followed by an explicit list of operations. A preferable way to write the definition of a
package is with a \textit{where} expression:

The definition of a package usually has the form:

\[
\text{PackageForm} : \text{Exports} = \text{Implementation where}
\text{optional type declarations}
\text{Exports} = \text{with}
\text{list of exported operations}
\text{Implementation} = \text{add}
\text{list of function definitions for exported operations}
\]

2 The interpreter also allows \textit{macro} for macro definitions.
The DrawComplex package takes no parameters and exports five operations, each a separate item of a pile. Each operation is described as a declaration: a name, followed by a colon (:), followed by the type of the operation. All operations have types expressed as mappings with the syntax

\[ \text{source} \rightarrow \text{target} \]

### 11.3 Abstract Datatypes

A constructor as defined in Axiom is called an abstract datatype in the computer science literature. Abstract datatypes separate “specification” (what operations are provided) from “implementation” (how the operations are implemented). The Exports (specification) part of a constructor is said to be “public” (it provides the user interface to the package) whereas the Implementation part is “private” (information here is effectively hidden—programs cannot take advantage of it).

The Exports part specifies what operations the package provides to users. As an author of a package, you must ensure that the Implementation part provides a function for each operation in the Exports part.\(^3\)

An important difference between interactive programming and the use of packages is in the handling of global variables such as `realSteps` and `imagSteps`. In interactive programming, you simply change the values of variables by assignment. With packages, such variables are local to the package—their values can only be set using functions exported by the package. In our example package, we provide two functions `setRealSteps` and `setImagSteps` for this purpose.

Another local variable is `clipValue` which can be changed using the exported operation `setClipValue`. This value is referenced by the internal function `clipFun` that decides whether to use the computed value of the function at a point or, if the magnitude of that value is too large, the value assigned to `clipValue` (with the appropriate sign).

### 11.4 Capsules

The part to the right of `add` in the Implementation part of the definition is called a capsule. The purpose of a capsule is:

- to define a function for each exported operation, and
- to define a local environment for these functions to run.

What is a local environment? First, what is an environment? Think of the capsule as an input file that Axiom reads from top to bottom. Think of the input file as having a

---

\(^3\)The DrawComplex package enhances the facility described in Chapter 10.8 on page 880 by allowing a complex function to have arrows emanating from the surface to indicate the direction of the complex argument.
)clear all at the top so that initially no variables or functions are defined. When this file is read, variables such as `realSteps` and `arrowSize` in `DrawComplex` are set to initial values. Also, all the functions defined in the capsule are compiled. These include those that are exported (like `drawComplex`), and those that are not (like `makeArrow`). At the end, you get a set of name-value pairs: variable names (like `realSteps` and `arrowSize`) are paired with assigned values, while operation names (like `drawComplex` and `makeArrow`) are paired with function values.

This set of name-value pairs is called an environment. Actually, we call this environment the “initial environment” of a package: it is the environment that exists immediately after the package is first built. Afterwards, functions of this capsule can access or reset a variable in the environment. The environment is called local since any changes to the value of a variable in this environment can be seen only by these functions.

Only the functions from the package can change the variables in the local environment. When two functions are called successively from a package, any changes caused by the first function called are seen by the second.

Since the environment is local to the package, its names don’t get mixed up with others in the system or your workspace. If you happen to have a variable called `realSteps` in your workspace, it does not affect what the `DrawComplex` functions do in any way.

The functions in a package are compiled into machine code. Unlike function definitions in input files that may be compiled repeatedly as you use them with varying argument types, functions in packages have a unique type (generally parameterized by the argument parameters of a package) and a unique compilation residing on disk.

The capsule itself is turned into a compiled function. This so-called capsule function is what builds the initial environment spoken of above. If the package has arguments (see below), then each call to the package constructor with a distinct pair of arguments builds a distinct package, each with its own local environment.

### 11.5 Input Files vs. Packages

A good question at this point would be “Is writing a package more difficult than writing an input file?”

The programs in input files are designed for flexibility and ease-of-use. Axiom can usually work out all of your types as it reads your program and does the computations you request. Let’s say that you define a one-argument function without giving its type. When you first apply the function to a value, this value is understood by Axiom as identifying the type for the argument parameter. Most of the time Axiom goes through the body of your function and figures out the target type that you have in mind. Axiom sometimes fails to get it right. Then—and only then—do you need a declaration to tell Axiom what type you want.

Input files are usually written to be read by Axiom—and by you. Without suitable documentation and declarations, your input files are likely incomprehensible to a colleague—and to you some months later!
Packages are designed for legibility, as well as run-time efficiency. There are few new concepts you need to learn to write packages. Rather, you just have to be explicit about types and type conversions. The types of all functions are pre-declared so that Axiom—and the reader—knows precisely what types of arguments can be passed to and from the functions (certainly you don't want a colleague to guess or to have to work this out from context!). The types of local variables are also declared. Type conversions are explicit, never automatic.\footnote{There is one exception to this rule: conversions from a subdomain to a domain are automatic. After all, the objects both have the domain as a common type.}

In summary, packages are more tedious to write than input files. When writing input files, you can casually go ahead, giving some facts now, leaving others for later. Writing packages requires forethought, care and discipline.

## 11.6 Compiling Packages

Once you have defined the package `DrawComplex`, you need to compile and test it. To compile the package, issue the system command `)compile drawpak`. Axiom reads the file `drawpak.spad` and compiles its contents into machine binary. If all goes well, the file `DRAWCX.NRLIB` is created in your local directory for the package. To test the package, you must load the package before trying an operation.

Compile the package.

`)compile drawpak`  

Expose the package.

`)expose DRAWCX`  

Use an odd step size to avoid a pole at the origin.

```axiom
setRealSteps 51
```

```axiom
setImagSteps 51
```

Define `f` to be the Gamma function.

```axiom
f(z) == Gamma(z)
```

Clip values of function with magnitude larger than 7.

```axiom
setClipValue 7
```

Draw the Gamma function.

```axiom
drawComplex(f,-%pi..%pi,-%pi..%pi, false)
```
11.7 Parameters

The power of packages becomes evident when packages have parameters. Usually these parameters are domains and the exported operations have types involving these parameters.

In Chapter 2 on page 126, you learned that categories denote classes of domains. Although we cover this notion in detail in the next chapter, we now give you a sneak preview of its usefulness.

In 6.15 on page 258, we defined functions \texttt{bubbleSort}(m) and \texttt{insertionSort}(m) to sort a list of integers. If you look at the code for these functions, you see that they may be used to sort \textit{any} structure \texttt{m} with the right properties. Also, the functions can be used to sort lists of \textit{any} elements—not just integers. Let us now recall the code for \texttt{bubbleSort}.

\begin{verbatim}
bubbleSort(m) ==
n := #m
for i in 1..(n-1) repeat
  for j in n..(i+1) by -1 repeat
    if m.j < m.(j-1) then swap!(m,j,j-1)
m
\end{verbatim}

What properties of “lists of integers” are assumed by the sorting algorithm? In the first line, the operation \# computes the maximum index of the list. The first obvious property is that \texttt{m} must have a finite number of elements. In Axiom, this is done by your telling Axiom that \texttt{m} has the “attribute” \texttt{finiteAggregate}. An attribute is a property that a domain either has or does not have. As we show later in 12.9 on page 904, programs can query domains as to the presence or absence of an attribute.

The operation \texttt{swap} swaps elements of \texttt{m}. Using Browse, you find that \texttt{swap} requires its elements to come from a domain of category \texttt{IndexedAggregate} with attribute \texttt{shallowlyMutable}. This attribute means that you can change the internal components of \texttt{m} without changing its external structure. Shallowly-mutable data structures include lists, streams, one- and two-dimensional arrays, vectors, and matrices.

The category \texttt{IndexedAggregate} designates the class of aggregates whose elements can be accessed by the notation \texttt{m.s} for suitable selectors \texttt{s}. The category \texttt{IndexedAggregate} takes two arguments: \texttt{Index}, a domain of selectors for the aggregate, and \texttt{Entry}, a domain of entries for the aggregate. Since the sort functions access elements by integers, we must choose \texttt{Index =Integer}. The most general class of domains for which \texttt{bubbleSort} and \texttt{insertionSort} are defined are those of category \texttt{IndexedAggregate(Integer,Entry)} with the two attributes \texttt{shallowlyMutable} and \texttt{finiteAggregate}.

Using Browse, you can also discover that Axiom has many kinds of domains with attribute \texttt{shallowlyMutable}. Those of class \texttt{IndexedAggregate(Integer,Entry)} include \texttt{Bits, FlexibleArray, OneDimensionalArray, List, String, and Vector}, and also \texttt{HashTable} and \texttt{EqTable} with integer keys. Although you may never want to sort all such structures, we nonetheless demonstrate Axiom’s ability to do so.
Another requirement is that Entry has an operation $<$. One way to get this operation is to assume that Entry has category OrderedSet. By definition, will then export a $<$ operation. A more general approach is to allow any comparison function $f$ to be used for sorting. This function will be passed as an argument to the sorting functions.

Our sorting package then takes two arguments: a domain $S$ of objects of any type, and a domain $A$, an aggregate of type IndexedAggregate(Integer, $S$) with the above two attributes. Here is its definition using what are close to the original definitions of bubbleSort and insertionSort for sorting lists of integers. The symbol $!$ is added to the ends of the operation names. This uniform naming convention is used for Axiom operation names that destructively change one or more of their arguments.

```
SortPackage(S,A) : Exports == Implementation where
  S: Object
  A: IndexedAggregate(Integer,S)
    with (finiteAggregate; shallowlyMutable)

Exports == with
  bubbleSort!: (A,(S,S) -> Boolean) -> A
  insertionSort!: (A, (S,S) -> Boolean) -> A

Implementation == add
  bubbleSort!(m,f) ==
    n := \#m
    for i in 1..(n-1) repeat
      for j in n..(i+1) by -1 repeat
        if f(m.j,m.(j-1)) then swap!(m,j,j-1)
      m
  insertionSort!(m,f) ==
    for i in 2..\#m repeat
      j := i
      while j > 1 and f(m.j,m.(j-1)) repeat
        swap!(m,j,j-1)
      j := (j - 1) pretend PositiveInteger
    m
```

11.8 Conditionals

When packages have parameters, you can say that an operation is or is not exported depending on the values of those parameters. When the domain of objects $S$ has an $<$ operation, we can supply one-argument versions of bubbleSort and insertionSort which use this operation for sorting. The presence of the operation $<$ is guaranteed when $S$ is an ordered set.

```
Exports == with
```
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bubbleSort!: (A, (S, S) -> Boolean) -> A
insertionSort!: (A, (S, S) -> Boolean) -> A

if S has OrderedSet then
  bubbleSort!: A -> A
  insertionSort!: A -> A

In addition to exporting the one-argument sort operations conditionally, we must provide conditional definitions for the operations in the Implementation part. This is easy: just have the one-argument functions call the corresponding two-argument functions with the operation < from S.

Implementation == add
...
if S has OrderedSet then
  bubbleSort!(m) == bubbleSort!(m,\$S)
  insertionSort!(m) == insertionSort!(m,\$S)

In 6.15 on page 258, we give an alternative definition of bubbleSort using first and rest that is more efficient for a list (for which access to any element requires traversing the list from its first node). To implement a more efficient algorithm for lists, we need the operation setelt which allows us to destructively change the first and rest of a list. Using Browse, you find that these operations come from category UnaryRecursiveAggregate. Several aggregate types are unary recursive aggregates including those of List and AssociationList. We provide two different implementations for bubbleSort! and insertionSort!: one for list-like structures, another for array-like structures.

Implementation == add
...
if A has UnaryRecursiveAggregate(S) then
  bubbleSort!(m,fn) ==
    empty? m => m
    l := m
    while not empty? (r := l.rest) repeat
      r := bubbleSort! r
      x := l.first
      if fn(r.first,x) then
        l.first := r.first
        r.first := x
        l.rest := r
        l := l.rest
      m
    insertionSort!(m,fn) ==
    ...


The ordering of definitions is important. The standard definitions come first and then the predicate

\[ A \text{ has UnaryRecursiveAggregate}(S) \]

is evaluated. If \( \text{true} \), the special definitions cover up the standard ones.

Another equivalent way to write the capsule is to use an \( \text{if} - \text{then} - \text{else} \) expression:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{if } A \text{ has UnaryRecursiveAggregate}(S) \text{ then} \\
\quad \ldots \\
\text{else} \\
\quad \ldots
\end{align*}
\]

### 11.9 Testing

Once you have written the package, embed it in a file, for example, \texttt{sortpak.spad}. Be sure to include an \texttt{)abbrev} command at the top of the file:

\texttt{)abbrev package SORTPAK SortPackage}

Now compile the file (using \texttt{)compile sortpak.spad}). Expose the constructor. You are then ready to begin testing.

\texttt{)expose SORTPAK}

Define a list.

\[ l := [1,7,4,2,11,-7,3,2] \]

Since the integers are an ordered set, a one-argument operation will do.

\texttt{bubbleSort!(l)}

Re-sort it using “greater than.”

\texttt{bubbleSort!(l,\ (x,y) \to x > y)}

Now sort it again using \( < \) on integers.

\texttt{bubbleSort!(l, \<$\text{Integer}$)}
A string is an aggregate of characters so we can sort them as well.

\`
bubbleSort! "Mathematical Sciences"
\`

Is \( < \) defined on booleans?

\`
false < true
\`

Good! Create a bit string representing ten consecutive boolean values \texttt{true}.

\`
u : Bits := new(10,true)
\`

Set bits 3 through 5 to \texttt{false}, then display the result.

\`
u(3..5) := false; u
\`

Now sort these booleans.

\`
bubbleSort! u
\`

Create an “eq-table”, a table having integers as keys and strings as values.

\`
t : EqTable(Integer,String) := table()
\`

Give the table a first entry.

\`
t.1 := "robert"
\`

And a second.

\`
t.2 := "richard"
\`

What does the table look like?

\`
t
\`

Now sort it.

\`
bubbleSort! t
\`
11.10 How Packages Work

Recall that packages as abstract datatypes are compiled independently and put into the library. The curious reader may ask: “How is the interpreter able to find an operation such as \texttt{bubbleSort}!? Also, how is a single compiled function such as \texttt{bubbleSort}! able to sort data of different types?”

After the interpreter loads the package \texttt{SortPackage}, the four operations from the package become known to the interpreter. Each of these operations is expressed as a \textit{modemap} in which the type of the operation is written in terms of symbolic domains.

See the modemap for \texttt{bubbleSort}!.

\texttt{)display op bubbleSort}!

There are 2 exposed functions called \texttt{bubbleSort}!:

\begin{enumerate}
\item \texttt{\{D1 \rightarrow D1 from SortPackage(D2,D1) if D2 has ORDSET and D2 has OBJECT and D1 has IndexedAggregate(Integer, D2) with finiteAggregate shallowlyMutable}
\item \texttt{\{(D1,((D3,D3) \rightarrow Boolean)) \rightarrow D1 from SortPackage(D3,D1) if D3 has OBJECT and D1 has IndexedAggregate(Integer,D3) with finiteAggregate shallowlyMutable}
\end{enumerate}

What happens if you ask for \texttt{bubbleSort}![\{1, -5, 3\}]? There is a unique modemap for an operation named \texttt{bubbleSort}! with one argument. Since \{1, -5, 3\} is a list of integers, the symbolic domain \texttt{D1} is defined as \texttt{List(Integer)}. For some operation to apply, it must satisfy the predicate for some \texttt{D2}. What \texttt{D2}? The third expression of the and requires \texttt{D1} has \texttt{IndexedAggregate(Integer, D2)} with two attributes. So the interpreter searches for an \texttt{IndexedAggregate} among the ancestors of \texttt{List(Integer)} (see 12.4 on page 900). It finds one: \texttt{IndexedAggregate(Integer, Integer)}. The interpreter tries defining \texttt{D2} as \texttt{Integer}. After substituting for \texttt{D1} and \texttt{D2}, the predicate evaluates to \texttt{true}. An applicable operation has been found!

Now Axiom builds the package \texttt{SortPackage(List(Integer), Integer)}. According to its definition, this package exports the required operation: \texttt{bubbleSort}!: \texttt{List Integer \rightarrow List Integer}. The interpreter then asks the package for a function implementing this operation. The package gets all the functions it needs (for example, \texttt{rest} and \texttt{swap}) from the appropriate domains and then it returns a \texttt{bubbleSort}! to the interpreter together with the local environment for \texttt{bubbleSort}!. The interpreter applies the function to the argument \{1, -5, 3\}. The \texttt{bubbleSort}! function is executed in its local environment and produces the result.
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C ==> Complex DoubleFloat
S ==> Segment DoubleFloat
INT ==> Integer unless abbreviated by macros
DFLOAT ==> DoubleFloat like these at the top of a file
VIEW3D ==> ThreeDimensionalViewport
CURVE ==> List List Point DFLOAT

)abbrev package DRAWCX DrawComplex
Identify kinds and abbreviations
DrawComplex(): Exports == Implementation where Type definition begins here

Exports == with
  drawComplex: (C -> C,S,S,Boolean) -> VIEW3D Exported Operations
  drawComplexVectorField: (C -> C,S,S) -> VIEW3D
  setRealSteps: INT -> INT
  setImagSteps: INT -> INT
  setClipValue: DFLOAT-> DFLOAT

Implementation == add
  arrowScale : DFLOAT := (0.2)::DFLOAT --relative size Local variable 1
  arrowAngle : DFLOAT := pi()-pi()/(20::DFLOAT) Local variable 2
  realSteps : INT := 11 --\# real steps Local variable 3
  imagSteps : INT := 11 --\# imaginary steps Local variable 4
  clipValue : DFLOAT := 10::DFLOAT --maximum vector length Local variable 5

  setRealSteps(n) == realSteps := n Exported function definition 1
  setImagSteps(n) == imagSteps := n Exported function definition 2
  setClipValue(c) == clipValue := c Exported function definition 3

  clipFun: DFLOAT -> DFLOAT --Clip large magnitudes.
  clipFun(x) == min(max(x, -clipValue), clipValue)
                 Local function definition 1

  makeArrow: (Point DFLOAT,Point DFLOAT,DFLOAT,DFLOAT) -> CURVE
  makeArrow(pl, p2, len, arg) == ...
                                  Local function definition 2

  drawComplex(f, realRange, imagRange, arrows?) == ...
                                  Exported function definition 4

Figure 11.1: The DrawComplex package.
Chapter 12

Categories

This chapter unravels the mysteries of categories—what they are, how they are related to domains and packages, how they are defined in Axiom, and how you can extend the system to include new categories of your own.

We assume that you have read the introductory material on domains and categories in 2.1.1 on page 128. There you learned that the notion of packages covered in the previous chapter are special cases of domains. While this is in fact the case, it is useful here to regard domains as distinct from packages.

Think of a domain as a datatype, a collection of objects (the objects of the domain). From your “sneak preview” in the previous chapter, you might conclude that categories are simply named clusters of operations exported by domains. As it turns out, categories have a much deeper meaning. Categories are fundamental to the design of Axiom. They control the interactions between domains and algorithmic packages, and, in fact, between all the components of Axiom.

Categories form hierarchies as shown on the inside cover pages of this book. The inside front-cover pages illustrate the basic algebraic hierarchy of the Axiom programming language. The inside back-cover pages show the hierarchy for data structures.

Think of the category structures of Axiom as a foundation for a city on which superstructures (domains) are built. The algebraic hierarchy, for example, serves as a foundation for constructive mathematical algorithms embedded in the domains of Axiom. Once in place, domains can be constructed, either independently or from one another.

Superstructures are built for quality—domains are compiled into machine code for runtime efficiency. You can extend the foundation in directions beyond the space directly beneath the superstructures, then extend selected superstructures to cover the space. Because of the compilation strategy, changing components of the foundation generally means that the existing superstructures (domains) built on the changed parts of the foundation (categories) have to be rebuilt—that is, recompiled.

Before delving into some of the interesting facts about categories, let’s see how you
12.1 Definitions

A category is defined by a function with exactly the same format as any other function in Axiom.

The definition of a category has the syntax:

\[
\text{CategoryForm : Category == Extensions [ with Exports ]}
\]

The brackets [ ] here indicate optionality.

The first example of a category definition is SetCategory, the most basic of the algebraic categories in Axiom.

SetCategory(): Category ==

Join(Type,CoercibleTo OutputForm) with

"=": (\$, \$) -> Boolean

The definition starts off with the name of the category (SetCategory); this is always in column one in the source file. All parts of a category definition are then indented with respect to this first line.

In Chapter 2 on page 126, we talked about Ring as denoting the class of all domains that are rings, in short, the class of all rings. While this is the usual naming convention in Axiom, it is also common to use the word “Category” at the end of a category name for clarity. The interpretation of the name SetCategory is, then, “the category of all domains that are (mathematical) sets.”

The name SetCategory is followed in the definition by its formal parameters enclosed in parentheses (). Here there are no parameters. As required, the type of the result of this category function is the distinguished name Category.

Then comes the ==. As usual, what appears to the right of the == is a definition, here, a category definition. A category definition always has two parts separated by the reserved word with.

The first part tells what categories the category extends. Here, the category extends two categories: Type, the category of all domains, and CoercibleTo(OutputForm). The operation Join is a system-defined operation that forms a single category from two or more other categories.

Every category other than Type is an extension of some other category. If, for example, SetCategory extended only the category Type, the definition here would read “Type with ...”. In fact, the Type is optional in this line; “with ...” suffices.


12.2 Exports

To the right of the with is a list of all the exports of the category. Each exported operation has a name and a type expressed by a declaration of the form “name: type”.

Categories can export symbols, as well as 0 and 1 which denote domain constants. In the current implementation, all other exports are operations with types expressed as mappings with the syntax

\[ \text{source} \rightarrow \text{target} \]

The category SetCategory has a single export: the operation = whose type is given by the mapping (\$, \$) \rightarrow \text{Boolean}. The $ in a mapping type always means “the domain.” Thus the operation = takes two arguments from the domain and returns a value of type Boolean.

The source part of the mapping here is given by a tuple consisting of two or more types separated by commas and enclosed in parentheses. If an operation takes only one argument, you can drop the parentheses around the source type. If the mapping has no arguments, the source part of the mapping is either left blank or written as (). Here are examples of formats of various operations with some contrived names.

- `someIntegerConstant : \$
- `aZeroArgumentOperation: () \rightarrow \text{Integer}
- `aOneArgumentOperation: \text{Integer} \rightarrow \$
- `aTwoArgumentOperation: (\text{Integer}, \$) \rightarrow \text{Void}
- `aThreeArgumentOperation: (\$, \text{Integer}, \$) \rightarrow \text{Fraction}($)

12.3 Documentation

The definition of SetCategory above is missing an important component: its library documentation. Here is its definition, complete with documentation.

```plaintext
++ Description:
++ \text{axiomType\{SetCategory\}} is the basic category
++ for describing a collection of elements with
++ \text{axiomOp\{=\}} (equality) and a \text{axiomFun\{coerce\}}
++ to \text{axiomType\{OutputForm\}}.

SetCategory(): Category ==
  Join(Type, CoercibleTo OutputForm) with
    "=": (\$, \$) \rightarrow \text{Boolean}
    ++ \text{axiom\{x = y\}} tests if \text{axiom\{x\}} and
    ++ \text{axiom\{y\}} are equal.
```

1The numbers 0 and 1 are operation names in Axiom.
Documentary comments are an important part of constructor definitions. Documentation is given both for the category itself and for each export. A description for the category precedes the code. Each line of the description begins in column one with ++. The description starts with the word Description: \(^\text{2}\) All lines of the description following the initial line are indented by the same amount.

Surround the name of any constructor (with or without parameters) with an \{\bf \}. Similarly, surround an operator name with \{\tt \}, an Axiom operation with \{\bf \}, and a variable or Axiom expression with $$$. Library documentation is given in a \TeX-like language so that it can be used both for hard-copy and for Browse. These different wrappings cause operations and types to have mouse-active buttons in Browse. For hard-copy output, wrapped expressions appear in a different font. The above documentation appears in hard-copy as:

SetCategory is the basic category for describing a collection of elements with \(=\) (equality) and a coerce to OutputForm.

and

\(x = y\) tests if \(x\) and \(y\) are equal.

For our purposes in this chapter, we omit the documentation from further category descriptions.

### 12.4 Hierarchies

A second example of a category is SemiGroup, defined by:

\begin{verbatim}
SemiGroup(): Category == SetCategory with
"*: (\$,\$) -> $
"**": (\$, PositiveInteger) -> $
\end{verbatim}

This definition is as simple as that for SetCategory, except that there are two exported operations. Multiple exported operations are written as a pile, that is, they all begin in the same column. Here you see that the category mentions another type, PositiveInteger, in a signature. Any domain can be used in a signature.

Since categories extend one another, they form hierarchies. Each category other than Type has one or more parents given by the one or more categories mentioned before the \textit{with} part of the definition. SemiGroup extends SetCategory and SetCategory extends both Type and CoercibleTo (OutputForm). Since CoercibleTo (OutputForm) also extends Type, the mention of Type in the definition is unnecessary but included for emphasis.

\(^\text{2}\) Other information such as the author’s name, date of creation, and so on, can go in this area as well but are currently ignored by Axiom.
12.5 Membership

We say a category designates a class of domains. What class of domains? That is, how does Axiom know what domains belong to what categories? The simple answer to this basic question is key to the design of Axiom:

**Domains belong to categories by assertion.**

When a domain is defined, it is asserted to belong to one or more categories. Suppose, for example, that an author of domain `String` wishes to use the binary operator `*` to denote concatenation. Thus "hello" * "there" would produce the string "hellothere"\(^3\). The author of `String` could then assert that `String` is a member of `SemiGroup`. According to our definition of `SemiGroup`, strings would then also have the operation `**` defined automatically. Then "−−" * 4 would produce a string of eight dashes "−−−−−−−−". Since `String` is a member of `SemiGroup`, it also is a member of `SetCategory` and thus has an operation = for testing that two strings are equal.

Now turn to the algebraic category hierarchy inside the front cover of this book. Any domain that is a member of a category extending `SemiGroup` is a member of `SemiGroup` (that is, it is a semigroup). In particular, any domain asserted to be a `Ring` is a semigroup since `Ring` extends `Monoid`, that, in turn, extends `SemiGroup`. The definition of `Integer` in Axiom asserts that `Integer` is a member of category `IntegerNumberSystem`, that, in turn, asserts that it is a member of `EuclideanDomain`. Now `EuclideanDomain` extends `PrincipalIdealDomain` and so on. If you trace up the hierarchy, you see that `EuclideanDomain` extends `Ring`, and, therefore, `SemiGroup`. Thus `Integer` is a semigroup and also exports the operations `*` and `**`.

12.6 Defaults

We actually omitted the last part of the definition of `SemiGroup` in 12.4 on page 900. Here now is its complete Axiom definition.

```axiom
SemiGroup(): Category == SetCategory with
   "*": ($, $) -> $
   "**": ($, PositiveInteger) -> $
   add
      import RepeatedSquaring($)
      x: $ ** n: PositiveInteger == expt(x, n)
```

The `add` part at the end is used to give “default definitions” for exported operations. Once you have a multiplication operation `*`, you can define exponentiation for positive integer exponents using repeated multiplication:

---
\(^3\)Actually, concatenation of strings in Axiom is done by juxtaposition or by using the operation `concat`. The expression "hello" * "there" produces the string "hellothere".
This definition for ** is called a default definition. In general, a category can give default definitions for any operation it exports. Since SemiGroup and all its category descendants in the hierarchy export **, any descendant category may redefine ** as well.

A domain of category SemiGroup (such as Integer) may or may not choose to define its own ** operation. If it does not, a default definition that is closest (in a “tree-distance” sense of the hierarchy) to the domain is chosen.

The part of the category definition following an add operation is a capsule, as discussed in the previous chapter. The line

import RepeatedSquaring($)

references the package RepeatedSquaring($), that is, the package RepeatedSquaring that takes “this domain” as its parameter. For example, if the semigroup Polynomial (Integer) does not define its own exponentiation operation, the definition used may come from the package RepeatedSquaring (Polynomial (Integer)). The next line gives the definition in terms of expt from that package.

The default definitions are collected to form a “default package” for the category. The name of the package is the same as the category but with an ampersand (&) added at the end. A default package always takes an additional argument relative to the category. Here is the definition of the default package SemiGroup& as automatically generated by Axiom from the above definition of SemiGroup.

SemiGroup\&($): Exports == Implementation where
\$: SemiGroup
Exports == with
  "**": ($, PositiveInteger) -> $
Implementation == add
  import RepeatedSquaring($)
  x:\$ ** n:PositiveInteger == expt(x,n)

## 12.7 Axioms

In the previous section you saw the complete Axiom program defining SemiGroup. According to this definition, semigroups (that is, are sets with the operations "*" and "**").

You might ask: “Aside from the notion of default packages, isn’t a category just a macro, that is, a shorthand equivalent to the two operations * and ** with their types?” If a category were a macro, every time you saw the word SemiGroup, you would rewrite
it by its list of exported operations. Furthermore, every time you saw the exported operations of \texttt{SemiGroup} among the exports of a constructor, you could conclude that the constructor exported \texttt{SemiGroup}.

A category is \textit{not} a macro and here is why. The definition for \texttt{SemiGroup} has documentation that states:

\begin{quote}
Category \texttt{SemiGroup} denotes the class of all multiplicative semigroups, that is, a set with an associative operation \texttt{*}.

Axioms:
\texttt{associative}(* : ($,$)\rightarrow$) - (x*y)*z = x*(y*z)
\end{quote}

According to the author’s remarks, the mere exporting of an operation named \texttt{*} and \texttt{**} is not enough to qualify the domain as a \texttt{SemiGroup}. In fact, a domain can be a semigroup only if it explicitly exports a \texttt{**} and a \texttt{*} satisfying the associativity axiom.

In general, a category name implies a set of axioms, even mathematical theorems. There are numerous axioms from \texttt{Ring}, for example, that are well-understood from the literature. No attempt is made to list them all. Nonetheless, all such mathematical facts are implicit by the use of the name \texttt{Ring}.

### 12.8 Correctness

While such statements are only comments, Axiom can enforce their intention simply by shifting the burden of responsibility onto the author of a domain. A domain belongs to category \texttt{Ring} only if the author asserts that the domain belongs to \texttt{Ring} or to a category that extends \texttt{Ring}.

This principle of assertion is important for large user-extendable systems. Axiom has a large library of operations offering facilities in many areas. Names such as \texttt{norm} and \texttt{product}, for example, have diverse meanings in diverse contexts. An inescapable hindrance to users would be to force those who wish to extend Axiom to always invent new names for operations. Axiom allows you to reuse names, and then use context to disambiguate one from another.

Here is another example of why this is important. Some languages, such as APL, denote the \texttt{Boolean} constants \texttt{true} and \texttt{false} by the integers 1 and 0. You may want to let infix operators \texttt{+} and \texttt{*} serve as the logical operators \texttt{or} and \texttt{and}, respectively. But note this: \texttt{Boolean} is not a ring. The \textit{inverse axiom} for \texttt{Ring} states:

\begin{quote}
Every element \texttt{x} has an additive inverse \texttt{y} such that \texttt{x+y = 0}.
\end{quote}

\texttt{Boolean} is not a ring since \texttt{true} has no inverse—there is no inverse element \texttt{a} such that \texttt{1+a = 0} (in terms of booleans, (\texttt{true or a}) = \texttt{false}). Nonetheless, Axiom \textit{could} easily and correctly implement \texttt{Boolean} this way. \texttt{Boolean} simply would not assert that it is of category \texttt{Ring}. Thus the “+” for \texttt{Boolean} values is not confused with
the one for Ring. Since the Polynomial constructor requires its argument to be a ring, Axiom would then refuse to build the domain Polynomial(Boolean). Also, Axiom would refuse to wrongfully apply algorithms to Boolean elements that presume that the ring axioms for “+” hold.

12.9 Attributes

Most axioms are not computationally useful. Those that are can be explicitly expressed by what Axiom calls an attribute. The attribute \texttt{commutative("*")}, for example, is used to assert that a domain has commutative multiplication. Its definition is given by its documentation:

A domain \( R \) has \texttt{commutative("*")} if it has an operation "*": \((R,R) \rightarrow R\) such that \(x \ast y = y \ast x\).

Just as you can test whether a domain has the category \texttt{Ring}, you can test that a domain has a given attribute.

Do polynomials over the integers have commutative multiplication?

\texttt{Polynomial Integer has commutative("*")}

Do matrices over the integers have commutative multiplication?

\texttt{Matrix Integer has commutative("*")}

Attributes are used to conditionally export and define operations for a domain (see 13.3 on page 909). Attributes can also be asserted in a category definition.

After mentioning category \texttt{Ring} many times in this book, it is high time that we show you its definition:

\texttt{Ring(): Category ==
Join(Rng,Monoid,LeftModule($: Rng)) with
characteristic: -> NonNegativeInteger
coerce: Integer -> $
unitsKnown
add
n:Integer
coerce(n) == n * 1$
}

There are only two new things here. First, look at the $ on the last line. This is not a typographic error! The first $ says that the 1 is to come from some domain. The second $ says that the domain is “this domain.” If $ is \texttt{Fraction(Integer)}, this line reads
\texttt{coerce(n) == n * 1$Fraction(Integer)}.
The second new thing is the presence of attribute “unitsKnown”. Axiom can always distinguish an attribute from an operation. An operation has a name and a type. An attribute has no type. The attribute unitsKnown asserts a rather subtle mathematical fact that is normally taken for granted when working with rings. Because programs can test for this attribute, Axiom can correctly handle rather more complicated mathematical structures (ones that are similar to rings but do not have this attribute).

12.10 Parameters

Like domain constructors, category constructors can also have parameters. For example, category MatrixCategory is a parameterized category for defining matrices over a ring $R$ so that the matrix domains can have different representations and indexing schemes. Its definition has the form:

$$\text{MatrixCategory}(R, \text{Row}, \text{Col}): \text{Category} ==$$

$$\text{TwoDimensionalArrayCategory}(R, \text{Row}, \text{Col}) \text{ with } ...$$

The category extends TwoDimensionalArrayCategory with the same arguments. You cannot find TwoDimensionalArrayCategory in the algebraic hierarchy listing. Rather, it is a member of the data structure hierarchy, given inside the back cover of this book. In particular, TwoDimensionalArrayCategory is an extension of HomogeneousAggregate since its elements are all one type.

The domain Matrix(R), the class of matrices with coefficients from domain $R$, asserts that it is a member of category MatrixCategory($R$, Vector($R$), Vector($R$)). The parameters of a category must also have types. The first parameter to MatrixCategory $R$ is required to be a ring. The second and third are required to be domains of category FiniteLinearAggregate($R$). In practice, examples of categories having parameters other than domains are rare.

Adding the declarations for parameters to the definition for MatrixCategory, we have:

$$R: \text{Ring}$$

$$(\text{Row}, \text{Col}): \text{FiniteLinearAggregate}(R)$$

$$\text{MatrixCategory}(R, \text{Row}, \text{Col}): \text{Category} ==$$

$$\text{TwoDimensionalArrayCategory}(R, \text{Row}, \text{Col}) \text{ with } ...$$

---

4With this axiom, the units of a domain are the set of elements $x$ that each have a multiplicative inverse $y$ in the domain. Thus 1 and $-1$ are units in domain Integer. Also, for Fraction Integer, the domain of rational numbers, all non-zero elements are units.

5This is another extension of HomogeneousAggregate that you can see in the data structure hierarchy.
12.11 Conditionals

As categories have parameters, the actual operations exported by a category can depend on these parameters. As an example, the operation `determinant` from category `MatrixCategory` is only exported when the underlying domain `R` has commutative multiplication:

```plaintext
if R has commutative("*") then
determinant: $ -> R
```

Conditionals can also define conditional extensions of a category. Here is a portion of the definition of `QuotientFieldCategory`:

```plaintext
QuotientFieldCategory(R) : Category == ... with ...
  if R has OrderedSet then OrderedSet
  if R has IntegerNumberSystem then
    ceiling: $ -> R
  ...
```

Think of category `QuotientFieldCategory(R)` as denoting the domain `Fraction(R)`, the class of all fractions of the form \(a/b\) for elements of `R`. The first conditional means in English: “If the elements of `R` are totally ordered (`R` is an `OrderedSet`), then so are the fractions \(a/b\).”

The second conditional is used to conditionally export an operation `ceiling` which returns the smallest integer greater than or equal to its argument. Clearly, “ceiling” makes sense for integers but not for polynomials and other algebraic structures. Because of this conditional, the domain `Fraction(Integer)` exports an operation `ceiling`: `Fraction(Integer) \rightarrow Integer`, but `Fraction Polynomial Integer` does not.

Conditionals can also appear in the default definitions for the operations of a category. For example, a default definition for `ceiling` within the part following the `add` reads:

```plaintext
if R has IntegerNumberSystem then
  ceiling x == ...
```

Here the predicate used is identical to the predicate in the `Exports` part. This need not be the case. See 11.8 on page 891 for a more complicated example.

12.12 Anonymous Categories

The part of a category to the right of a `with` is also regarded as a category—an “anonymous category.” Thus you have already seen a category definition in Chapter 11 on page 885. The `Exports` part of the package `DrawComplex` (11.3 on page 887) is an anonymous category. This is not necessary. We could, instead, give this category a name:
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DrawComplexCategory(): Category == with
    drawComplex: (C -> C,S,S,Boolean) -> VIEW3D
    drawComplexVectorField: (C -> C,S,S) -> VIEW3D
    setRealSteps: INT -> INT
    setImagSteps: INT -> INT
    setClipValue: DFLOAT-> DFLOAT

and then define DrawComplex by:

DrawComplex(): DrawComplexCategory == Implementation
    where
        ...

There is no reason, however, to give this list of exports a name since no other domain or package exports it. In fact, it is rare for a package to export a named category. As you will see in the next chapter, however, it is very common for the definition of domains to mention one or more category before the with.

)read alql.boot

)load DLIST ICARD DBASE QEQUAT MTHING OPQUERY )update
Chapter 13

Domains

We finally come to the domain constructor. A few subtle differences between packages and domains turn up some interesting issues. We first discuss these differences then describe the resulting issues by illustrating a program for the QuadraticForm constructor. After a short example of an algebraic constructor, CliffordAlgebra, we show how you use domain constructors to build a database query facility.

13.1 Domains vs. Packages

Packages are special cases of domains. What is the difference between a package and a domain that is not a package? By definition, there is only one difference: a domain that is not a package has the symbol $\mathbf{\$}$ appearing somewhere among the types of its exported operations. The $\mathbf{\$}$ denotes “this domain.” If the $\mathbf{\$}$ appears before the $\rightarrow$ in the type of a signature, it means the operation takes an element from the domain as an argument. If it appears after the $\rightarrow$, then the operation returns an element of the domain.

If no exported operations mention $\mathbf{\$}$, then evidently there is nothing of interest to do with the objects of the domain. You might then say that a package is a “boring” domain! But, as you saw in Chapter 11 on page 885, packages are a very useful notion indeed. The exported operations of a package depend solely on the parameters to the package constructor and other explicit domains.

To summarize, domain constructors are versatile structures that serve two distinct practical purposes: Those like Polynomial and List describe classes of computational objects; others, like SortPackage, describe packages of useful operations. As in the last chapter, we focus here on the first kind.
13.2 Definitions

The syntax for defining a domain constructor is the same as for any function in Axiom:

```
DomainForm : Exports == Implementation
```

As this definition usually extends over many lines, a `where` expression is generally used instead.

A recommended format for the definition of a domain is:
```
DomainForm : Exports == Implementation where
             optional type declarations
             Exports == [Category Assertions] with
             list of exported operations
             Implementation == [Add Domain] add
             [Rep := Representation]
             list of function definitions for exported operations
```

Note: The brackets `[ ]` here denote optionality.

A complete domain constructor definition for QuadraticForm is shown in Figure 13.1 on page 910. Interestingly, this little domain illustrates all the new concepts you need to learn.

A domain constructor can take any number and type of parameters. QuadraticForm takes a positive integer \( n \) and a field \( K \) as arguments. Like a package, a domain has a set of explicit exports and an implementation described by a capsule. Domain constructors are documented in the same way as package constructors.

Domain QuadraticForm\((n, K)\), for a given positive integer \( n \) and domain \( K \), explicitly exports three operations:

- `quadraticForm(A)` creates a quadratic form from a matrix \( A \).
- `matrix(q)` returns the matrix \( A \) used to create the quadratic form \( q \).
- `q.v` computes the scalar \( v^T A v \) for a given vector \( v \).

Compared with the corresponding syntax given for the definition of a package, you see that a domain constructor has three optional parts to its definition: Category Assertions, Add Domain, and Representation.

13.3 Category Assertions

The Category Assertions part of your domain constructor definition lists those categories of which all domains created by the constructor are unconditionally members. The word “unconditionally” means that membership in a category does not depend on the values of the parameters to the domain constructor. This part thus defines the link
CHAPTER 13. DOMAINS

)abbrev domain QFORM QuadraticForm
++ Description:
++ This domain provides modest support for
++ quadratic forms.
QuadraticForm(n, K): Exports == Implementation where
  n: PositiveInteger
  K: Field

Exports == AbelianGroup with --The exports
  quadraticForm: SquareMatrix(n,K) -> $ --export this
    ++ quadratic form from a symmetric,
    ++ square matrix \bs{}axiom\{m\}.
  matrix: \$ -> SquareMatrix(n,K) -- export matrix
    ++ \bs{}axiom\{matrix(qf)\} creates a square matrix
    ++ from the quadratic form \bs{}axiom\{qf\}.
  elt: (\$, DirectProduct(n,K)) -> K -- export elt
    ++ \bs{}axiom\{qf(v)\} evaluates the quadratic form
    ++ \bs{}axiom\{qf\} on the vector \bs{}axiom\{v\},
    ++ producing a scalar.

Implementation == SquareMatrix(n,K) add --The exports
  Rep := SquareMatrix(n,K) --representation
  quadraticForm m == --definition
    not symmetric? m => error
    "quadraticForm requires a symmetric matrix"
    m :: $
  matrix q == q :: Rep --definition
  elt(q,v) == dot(v, (matrix q * v)) --definition

Figure 13.1: The QuadraticForm domain.

between the domains and the category hierarchies given on the inside covers of this book. As described in 12.8 on page 903, it is this link that makes it possible for you to pass objects of the domains as arguments to other operations in Axiom.

Every QuadraticForm domain is declared to be unconditionally a member of category AbelianGroup. An abelian group is a collection of elements closed under addition. Every object \( x \) of an abelian group has an additive inverse \( y \) such that \( x+y = 0 \). The exports of an abelian group include 0, +, -, and scalar multiplication by an integer. After asserting that QuadraticForm domains are abelian groups, it is possible to pass quadratic forms to algorithms that only assume arguments to have these abelian group properties.
In 12.11 on page 906, you saw that \( \text{Fraction}(R) \), a member of \( \text{QuotientFieldCategory}(R) \), is a member of \( \text{OrderedSet} \) if \( R \) is a member of \( \text{OrderedSet} \). Likewise, from the \textit{Exports} part of the definition of \( \text{ModMonic}(R, S) \),

\[
\text{UnivariatePolynomialCategory}(R) \quad \text{with}
\]

\[
\text{if} \; R \; \text{has Finite} \; \quad \text{then Finite}
\]

\[
... 
\]

you see that \( \text{ModMonic}(R, S) \) is a member of \( \text{Finite} \) is \( R \) is.

The \textit{Exports} part of a domain definition is the same kind of expression that can appear to the right of an \( == \) in a category definition. If a domain constructor is unconditionally a member of two or more categories, a \textit{Join} form is used. The \textit{Exports} part of the definition of \( \text{FlexibleArray}(S) \) reads, for example:

\[
\text{Join}(\text{ExtensibleLinearAggregate}(S), \quad \text{OneDimensionalArrayAggregate}(S)) \quad \text{with}...
\]

13.4 A Demo

Before looking at the \textit{Implementation} part of \( \text{QuadraticForm} \), let’s try some examples.

Build a domain \( QF \).

\[
QF := \text{QuadraticForm}(2, \text{Fraction Integer})
\]

Define a matrix to be used to construct a quadratic form.

\[
A := \text{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1, 1/2, 1/2, 1 \end{bmatrix}
\]

Construct the quadratic form. A package call \( QF \) is necessary since there are other \( \text{QuadraticForm} \) domains.

\[
q : QF := \text{quadraticForm}(A)
\]

Looks like a matrix. Try computing the number of rows. Axiom won’t let you.

\[
nrows \; q
\]

Create a direct product element \( v \). A package call is again necessary, but Axiom understands your list as denoting a vector.
v := directProduct([2,-1])

Compute the product $v^T A v$.

$q.v$

What is $3q$ minus $q$ plus $q$?

$3q - q + q$

### 13.5 Browse

The Browse facility of HyperDoc is useful for investigating the properties of domains, packages, and categories. From the main HyperDoc menu, move your mouse to **Browse** and click on the left mouse button. This brings up the Browse first page. Now, with your mouse pointer somewhere in this window, enter the string “quadraticform” into the input area (all lower case letters will do). Move your mouse to **Constructors** and click. Up comes a page describing **QuadraticForm**. From here, click on **Description**. This gives you a page that includes a part labeled by “Description:”. You also see the types for arguments $n$ and $K$ displayed as well as the fact that **QuadraticForm** returns an **AbelianGroup**. You can go and experiment a bit by selecting **Field** with your mouse. Eventually, use the “UP” button several times to return to the first page on **QuadraticForm**.

Select **Operations** to get a list of operations for **QuadraticForm**. You can select an operation by clicking on it to get an individual page with information about that operation. Or you can select the buttons along the bottom to see alternative views or get additional information on the operations. Then return to the page on **QuadraticForm**.

Select **Cross Reference** to get another menu. This menu has buttons for **Parents**, **Ancestors**, and others. Clicking on **Parents**, you see that **QuadraticForm** has one parent **AbelianMonoid**.

### 13.6 Representation

The Implementation part of an Axiom capsule for a domain constructor uses the special variable $Rep$ to identify the lower level data type used to represent the objects of the domain. The $Rep$ for quadratic forms is **SquareMatrix**($n$, $K$). This means that all objects of the domain are required to be $n$ by $n$ matrices with elements from $K$.

The code for **quadraticForm** in Figure 13.1 on page 910 checks that the matrix is symmetric and then converts it to $\$, which means, as usual, “this domain.” Such explicit conversions are generally required by the compiler. Aside from checking that the
matrix is symmetric, the code for this function essentially does nothing. The \( m :: \) \$ on line 28 coerces \( m \) to a quadratic form. In fact, the quadratic form you created in step (3) of 13.4 on page 911 is just the matrix you passed it in disguise! Without seeing this definition, you would not know that. Nor can you take advantage of this fact now that you do know! When we try in the next step of 13.4 on page 911 to regard \( q \) as a matrix by asking for \texttt{nrows}, the number of its rows, Axiom gives you an error message saying, in effect, “Good try, but this won’t work!”

The definition for the \texttt{matrix} function could hardly be simpler: it just returns its argument after explicitly coercing its argument to a matrix. Since the argument is already a matrix, this coercion does no computation.

Within the context of a capsule, an object of \$ is regarded both as a quadratic form \textit{and} as a matrix.\footnote{In case each of \$ and \textit{Rep} have the same named operation available, the one from \$ takes precedence. Thus, if you want the one from \textit{Rep}, you must package call it using a \$\text{Rep} suffix.} This makes the definition of \( q.v \) easy—it just calls the \texttt{dot} product from \texttt{DirectProduct} to perform the indicated operation.

### 13.7 Multiple Representations

To write functions that implement the operations of a domain, you want to choose the most computationally efficient data structure to represent the elements of your domain.

A classic problem in computer algebra is the optimal choice for an internal representation of polynomials. If you create a polynomial, say \( 3x^2 + 5 \), how does Axiom hold this value internally? There are many ways. Axiom has nearly a dozen different representations of polynomials, one to suit almost any purpose. Algorithms for solving polynomial equations work most efficiently with polynomials represented one way, whereas those for factoring polynomials are most efficient using another. One often-used representation is a list of terms, each term consisting of exponent-coefficient records written in the order of decreasing exponents. For example, the polynomial \( 3x^2 + 5 \) is represented by the list \([\{e : 2, c : 3\}, \{e : 0, c : 5\}]\).

What is the optimal data structure for a matrix? It depends on the application. For large sparse matrices, a linked-list structure of records holding only the non-zero elements may be optimal. If the elements can be defined by a simple formula \( f(i, j) \), then a compiled function for \( f \) may be optimal. Some programmers prefer to represent ordinary matrices as vectors of vectors. Others prefer to represent matrices by one big linear array where elements are accessed with linearly computable indexes.

While all these simultaneous structures tend to be confusing, Axiom provides a helpful organizational tool for such a purpose: categories. \texttt{PolynomialCategory}, for example, provides a uniform user interface across all polynomial types. Each kind of polynomial implements functions for all these operations, each in its own way. If you use only the top-level operations in \texttt{PolynomialCategory} you usually do not care what kind of polynomial implementation is used.
Within a given domain, however, you define (at most) one representation.\footnote{You can make that representation a \texttt{Union} type, however. See \ref{domain-unions} for examples of unions.} If you want to have multiple representations (that is, several domains, each with its own representation), use a category to describe the \texttt{Exports}, then define separate domains for each representation.

### 13.8 Add Domain

The capsule part of \texttt{Implementation} defines functions that implement the operations exported by the domain—usually only some of the operations. In our demo in 13.4 on page \pageref{demo-3}, we asked for the value of $3 \times q - q + q$. Where do the operations $\times$, $+$, and $-$ come from? There is no definition for them in the capsule!

The \texttt{Implementation} part of a definition can optionally specify an “add-domain” to the left of an \texttt{add} (for \texttt{QuadraticForm}, \texttt{defines SquareMatrix(n,K)} is the add-domain). The meaning of an add-domain is simply this: if the capsule part of the \texttt{Implementation} does not supply a function for an operation, Axiom goes to the add-domain to find the function. So do $\times$, $+$ and $-$ (from \texttt{QuadraticForm}) come from \texttt{SquareMatrix(n,K)}?

### 13.9 Defaults

In Chapter 11 on page \pageref{category-defaults}, we saw that categories can provide default implementations for their operations. How and when are they used? When Axiom finds that \texttt{QuadraticForm(2, Fraction Integer)} does not implement the operations $\times$, $+$, and $-$, it goes to \texttt{SquareMatrix(2,Fraction Integer)} to find it. As it turns out, \texttt{SquareMatrix(2, Fraction Integer)} does not implement any of these operations!

What does Axiom do then? Here is its overall strategy. First, Axiom looks for a function in the capsule for the domain. If it is not there, Axiom looks in the add-domain for the operation. If that fails, Axiom searches the add-domain of the add-domain, and so on. If all those fail, it then searches the default packages for the categories of which the domain is a member. In the case of \texttt{QuadraticForm}, it searches \texttt{AbelianGroup}, then its parents, grandparents, and so on. If this fails, it then searches the default packages of the add-domain. Whenever a function is found, the search stops immediately and the function is returned. When all fails, the system calls \texttt{error} to report this unfortunate news to you. To find out the actual order of constructors searched for \texttt{QuadraticForm}, consult \texttt{Browse}: from the \texttt{QuadraticForm}, click on \texttt{Cross Reference}, then on \texttt{Lineage}.

Let’s apply this search strategy for our example $3 \times q - q + q$. The scalar multiplication comes first. Axiom finds a default implementation in \texttt{AbelianGroup}. Remember from 12.6 on page \pageref{semigroup-definitions} that \texttt{SemiGroup} provides a default definition for $x^n$ by repeated squaring? \texttt{AbelianGroup} similarly provides a definition for $nx$ by repeated doubling.
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But the search of the defaults for QuadraticForm fails to find any + or * in the default packages for the ancestors of QuadraticForm. So it now searches among those for SquareMatrix. Category MatrixCategory, which provides a uniform interface for all matrix domains, is a grandparent of SquareMatrix and has a capsule defining many functions for matrices, including matrix addition, subtraction, and scalar multiplication. The default package MatrixCategory\& is where the functions for + and − (from QuadraticForm) come from.

You can use Browse to discover where the operations for QuadraticForm are implemented. First, get the page describing QuadraticForm. With your mouse somewhere in this window, type a “2”, press the Tab key, and then enter “Fraction Integer” to indicate that you want the domain QuadraticForm(2, Fraction Integer). Now click on Operations to get a table of operations and on * to get a page describing the * operation. Finally, click on implementation at the bottom.

13.10 Origins

Aside from the notion of where an operation is implemented, a useful notion is the origin or “home” of an operation. When an operation (such as quadraticForm) is explicitly exported by a domain (such as QuadraticForm), you can say that the origin of that operation is that domain. If an operation is not explicitly exported from a domain, it is inherited from, and has as origin, the (closest) category that explicitly exports it. The operations + and − (from AbelianMonoid) of QuadraticForm, for example, are inherited from AbelianMonoid. As it turns out, AbelianMonoid is the origin of virtually every + operation in Axiom!

Again, you can use Browse to discover the origins of operations. From the Browse page on QuadraticForm, click on Operations, then on origins at the bottom of the page.

The origin of the operation is the only place where on-line documentation is given. However, you can re-export an operation to give it special documentation. Suppose you have just invented the world’s fastest algorithm for inverting matrices using a particular internal representation for matrices. If your matrix domain just declares that it exports MatrixCategory, it exports the inverse operation, but the documentation the user gets from Browse is the standard one from MatrixCategory. To give your version of inverse the attention it deserves, simply export the operation explicitly with new documentation. This redundancy gives inverse a new origin and tells Browse to present your new documentation.

13.11 Short Forms

In Axiom, a domain could be defined using only an add-domain and no capsule. Although we talk about rational numbers as quotients of integers, there is no type
RationalNumber in Axiom. To create such a type, you could compile the following “short-form” definition:

\[
\text{RationalNumber}() \equiv \text{Fraction}(\text{Integer})
\]

The \textit{Exports} part of this definition is missing and is taken to be equivalent to that of \text{Fraction}(\text{Integer}). Because of the add-domain philosophy, you get precisely what you want. The effect is to create a little stub of a domain. When a user asks to add two rational numbers, Axiom would ask \text{RationalNumber} for a function implementing this +. Since the domain has no capsule, the domain then immediately sends its request to \text{Fraction}(\text{Integer}).

The short form definition for domains is used to define such domains as \text{MultivariatePolynomial}:

\[
\text{MultivariatePolynomial}(\text{vl: List Symbol, R: Ring}) \equiv \\
\quad \text{SparseMultivariatePolynomial}(\text{R}, \text{OrderedVariableList vl})
\]

### 13.12 Example 1: Clifford Algebra

Now that we have \text{QuadraticForm} available, let’s put it to use. Given some quadratic form \( Q \) described by an \( n \) by \( n \) matrix over a field \( K \), the domain \text{CliffordAlgebra}(n, K, Q) defines a vector space of dimension \( 2^n \) over \( K \). This is an interesting domain since complex numbers, quaternions, exterior algebras and spin algebras are all examples of Clifford algebras.

The basic idea is this: the quadratic form \( Q \) defines a basis \( e_1, e_2, \ldots, e_n \) for the vector space \( K^n \)—the direct product of \( K \) with itself \( n \) times. From this, the Clifford algebra generates a basis of \( 2^n \) elements given by all the possible products of the \( e_i \) in order without duplicates, that is, \( 1, e_1, e_2, e_1e_2, e_3, e_1e_3, e_2e_3, e_1e_2e_3, \) and so on.

The algebra is defined by the relations

\[
\begin{align*}
    e_i e_i &= Q(e_i) \\
    e_i e_j &= -e_j e_i \quad \text{for } i \neq j
\end{align*}
\]

Now look at the snapshot of its definition given in Figure 13.2 on page 917. Lines 9-10 show part of the definitions of the \textit{Exports}. A Clifford algebra over a field \( K \) is asserted to be a ring, an algebra over \( K \), and a vector space over \( K \). Its explicit exports include \( e(n) \), which returns the \( n \)-th unit element.

The \textit{Implementation} part begins by defining a local variable \textit{Qeelist} to hold the list of all \( q.v \) where \( v \) runs over the unit vectors from 1 to the dimension \( n \). Another local variable \textit{dim} is set to \( 2^n \), computed once and for all. The representation for the domain
NNI ==> NonNegativeInteger
PI ==> PositiveInteger

CliffordAlgebra(n,K,q): Exports == Implementation where
  n: PI
  K: Field
  q: QuadraticForm(n, K)

Exports == Join(Ring,Algebra(K),VectorSpace(K)) with
  e: PI -> $

Implementation == add
  Qeelist :=
    [q.unitVector(i::PI) for i in 1..n]
  dim := 2**n
  Rep := PrimitiveArray K
  New ==> new(dim, 0$K)$Rep
  x + y ==
    z := New
    for i in 0..dim-1 repeat z.i := x.i + y.i
    z
  addMonomProd: (K, NNI, K, NNI, $) -> $
  addMonomProd(c1, b1, c2, b2, z) == ...
  x * y ==
    z := New
    for ix in 0..dim-1 repeat
      if x.ix \notequal{} 0 then for iy in 0..dim-1 repeat
        if y.iy \notequal{} 0 then addMonomProd(x.ix,ix,y.iy,iy,z)
      z

Figure 13.2: Part of the CliffordAlgebra domain.

is PrimitiveArray(K), which is a basic array of elements from domain K. Line 18
defines New as shorthand for the more lengthy expression new(dim, 0$K)$Rep, which
computes a primitive array of length 2n filled with 0’s from domain K.

Lines 19-22 define the sum of two elements x and y straightforwardly. First, a new array
of all 0’s is created, then filled with the sum of the corresponding elements. Indexing
for primitive arrays starts at 0. The definition of the product of x and y first requires the
definition of a local function addMonomProd. Axiom knows it is local since it is not
an exported function. The types of all local functions must be declared.
13.13 Example 2: Building A Query Facility

We now turn to an entirely different kind of application, building a query language for a database.

Here is the practical problem to solve. The Browse facility of Axiom has a database for all operations and constructors which is stored on disk and accessed by HyperDoc. For our purposes here, we regard each line of this file as having eight fields: class, name, type, nargs, exposed, kind, origin, and condition. Here is an example entry:

```plaintext
"odeterminant" -> "R"['x'] 'd' 'Matrix(R)' 'has(R, commutative("*"))
```

In English, the entry means:

The operation **determinant**: $\rightarrow R$ with 1 argument, is exposed and is exported by domain $\text{Matrix}(R)$ if $R$ has commutative("*").

Our task is to create a little query language that allows us to get useful information from this database.

13.13.1 A Little Query Language

First we design a simple language for accessing information from the database. We have the following simple model in mind for its design. Think of the database as a box of index cards. There is only one search operation—it takes the name of a field and a predicate (a boolean-valued function) defined on the fields of the index cards. When applied, the search operation goes through the entire box selecting only those index cards for which the predicate is true. The result of a search is a new box of index cards. This process can be repeated again and again.

The predicates all have a particularly simple form: `symbol = pattern`, where `symbol` designates one of the fields, and `pattern` is a “search string”—a string that may contain a “*” as a wildcard. Wildcards match any substring, including the empty string. Thus the pattern “*ma*t” matches “mat”, “doormat” and “smart”.

To illustrate how queries are given, we give you a sneak preview of the facility we are about to create.

Extract the database of all Axiom operations.

```plaintext
ops := getDatabase("o")
```

How many exposed three-argument `map` operations involving streams?

```plaintext
ops.(name="map").(nargs=3).(type="*Stream")
```
As usual, the arguments of \texttt{elt}(\cdot) associate to the left. The first \texttt{elt} produces the set of all operations with name \texttt{map}. The second \texttt{elt} produces the set of all \texttt{map} operations with three arguments. The third \texttt{elt} produces the set of all three-argument \texttt{map} operations having a type mentioning \texttt{Stream}.

Another thing we’d like to do is to extract one field from each of the index cards in the box and look at the result. Here is an example of that kind of request.

What constructors explicitly export a \texttt{determinant} operation?

\[
\texttt{elt(elt(elt(elt(ops,name="determinant"),origin),sort),unique)}
\]

The first \texttt{elt} produces the set of all index cards with name \texttt{determinant}. The second \texttt{elt} extracts the \texttt{origin} component from each index card. Each origin component is the name of a constructor which directly exports the operation represented by the index card. Extracting a component from each index card produces what we call a \texttt{datalist}. The third \texttt{elt}, \texttt{sort}, causes the datalist of origins to be sorted in alphabetic order. The fourth, \texttt{unique}, causes duplicates to be removed.

Before giving you a more extensive demo of this facility, we now build the necessary domains and packages to implement it.

### 13.13.2 The Database Constructor

We work from the top down. First, we define a database, our box of index cards, as an abstract datatype. For sake of illustration and generality, we assume that an index card is some type \texttt{S}, and that a database is a box of objects of type \texttt{S}. Here is the Axiom program defining the \texttt{Database} domain.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{PI} & \rightarrow \text{PositiveInteger} \\
\text{Database}(S) : \text{Exports} & \Rightarrow \text{Implementation} \text{ where} \\
S & : \text{Object with} \\
\text{elt} & : (\$, \text{Symbol}) \rightarrow \text{String} \\
\text{display} & : \$ \rightarrow \text{Void} \\
\text{fullDisplay} & : \$ \rightarrow \text{Void} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Exports} & \Rightarrow \text{with} \\
\text{elt} & : (\$, \text{QueryEquation}) \rightarrow \$ \quad \text{Select by an equation} \\
\text{elt} & : (\$, \text{Symbol}) \rightarrow \text{DataList String} \quad \text{Select by a field name} \\
"+" & : (\$,\$) \rightarrow \$ \quad \text{Combine two databases} \\
"-" & : (\$,\$) \rightarrow \$ \quad \text{Subtract one from another} \\
\text{display} & : \$ \rightarrow \text{Void} \quad \text{A brief database display} \\
\text{fullDisplay} & : \$ \rightarrow \text{Void} \quad \text{A full database display} \\
\text{fullDisplay} & : (\$,\text{PI},\text{PI}) \rightarrow \text{Void} \quad \text{A selective display} \\
\text{coerce} & : \$ \rightarrow \text{OutputForm} \quad \text{Display a database} \\
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\text{Implementation} \Rightarrow \text{add} \\
\]

...
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The domain constructor takes a parameter S, which stands for the class of index cards. We describe an index card later. Here think of an index card as a string which has the eight fields mentioned above.

First, we tell Axiom what operations we are going to require from index cards. We need an elt to extract the contents of a field (such as name and type) as a string. For example, \( c\)\_\(\text{name}\) returns a string that is the content of the \(\text{name}\) field on the index card \(c\). We need to display an index card in two ways: display shows only the name and type of an operation; fullDisplay displays all fields. The display operations return no useful information and thus have return type Void.

Next, we tell Axiom what operations the user can apply to the database. This part defines our little query language. The most important operation is \(db\) . field = pattern which returns a new database, consisting of all index cards of \(db\) such that the \(\text{field}\) part of the index card is matched by the string pattern called \(\text{pattern}\). The expression \(\text{field} = \text{pattern}\) is an object of type QueryEquation (defined in the next section).

Another elt is needed to produce a DataList object. Operation + is to merge two databases together; - is used to subtract away common entries in a second database from an initial database. There are three display functions. The fullDisplay function has two versions: one that prints all the records, the other that prints only a fixed number of records. A coerce to OutputForm creates a display object.

The Implementation part of Database is straightforward.

```
Implementation == add
s: Symbol
Rep := List S
elt(db, equation) == ...
elt(db, key) == [x.key for x in db]::DataList(String)
display(db) == for x in db repeat display x
fullDisplay(db) == for x in db repeat fullDisplay x
fullDisplay(db, n, m) == for x in db for i in 1..m
    repeat
        if i >= n then fullDisplay x
    x+y == removeDuplicates! merge(x,y)
    x-y == mergeDifference(copy(x::Rep),
                       y::Rep)$MergeThing(S)
coerce(db): OutputForm == (#db):: OutputForm
```

The database is represented by a list of elements of \(S\) (index cards). We leave the definition of the first elt operation (on line 4) until the next section. The second elt collects all the strings with field name \(\text{key}\) into a list. The display function and first fullDisplay function simply call the corresponding functions from \(S\). The second fullDisplay function provides an efficient way of printing out a portion of a large list. The + is defined by using the existing merge operation defined on lists, then removing duplicates from the result. The - operation merge requires writing a corresponding subtraction operation. A package MergeThing (not shown) provides this.
The \texttt{coerce} function converts the database to an \texttt{OutputForm} by computing the number of index cards. This is a good example of the independence of the representation of an Axiom object from how it presents itself to the user. We usually do not want to look at a database—but do care how many “hits” we get for a given query. So we define the output representation of a database to be simply the number of index cards our query finds.

### 13.13.3 Query Equations

The predicate for our search is given by an object of type \texttt{QueryEquation}. Axiom does not have such an object yet so we have to invent it.

\begin{verbatim}
QueryEquation(): Exports == Implementation where
Exports == with
equation: (Symbol, String) -> \$
variable: \$ -> Symbol
value: \$ -> String

Implementation == add
Rep := Record(var:Symbol, val:String)
equation(x, s) == [x, s]
variable q == q.var
value q == q.val
\end{verbatim}

Axiom converts an input expression of the form $a = b$ to $\text{equation}(a, b)$. Our equations always have a symbol on the left and a string on the right. The \texttt{Exports} part thus specifies an operation \texttt{equation} to create a query equation, and \texttt{variable} and \texttt{value} to select the left- and right-hand sides. The \texttt{Implementation} part uses \texttt{Record} for a space-efficient representation of an equation.

Here is the missing definition for the \texttt{elt} function of \texttt{Database} in the last section:

\begin{verbatim}
elt(db,eq) ==
field := variable eq
value := value eq
[x for x in db | matches?(value,x.field)]
\end{verbatim}

Recall that a database is represented by a list. Line 4 simply runs over that list collecting all elements such that the pattern (that is, \texttt{value}) matches the selected field of the element.

### 13.13.4 DataLists

Type \texttt{DataList} is a new type invented to hold the result of selecting one field from each of the index cards in the box. It is useful to make datalists extensions of lists—lists that have special \texttt{elt} operations defined on them for sorting and removing duplicates.
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DataList(S:OrderedSet) : Exports == Implementation where
Exports == ListAggregate(S) with
  elt: ($,"unique") -> $
  elt: ($,"sort") -> $
  elt: ($,"count") -> NonNegativeInteger
  coerce: List S -> $

Implementation == List(S) add
Rep := List S
elt(x,"unique") == removeDuplicates(x)
elt(x,"sort") == sort(x)
elt(x,"count") == #x
coerce(x:List S) == x :: $

The Exports part asserts that datalists belong to the category ListAggregate. Therefore, you can use all the usual list operations on datalists, such as first, rest, and concat. In addition, datalists have four explicit operations. Besides the three elt operations, there is a coerce operation that creates datalists from lists.

The Implementation part needs only to define four functions. All the rest are obtained from List(S).

13.13.5 Index Cards

An index card comes from a file as one long string. We define functions that extract substrings from the long string. Each field has a name that is passed as a second argument to elt.

IndexCard() == Implementation where
Exports == with
  elt: ($, Symbol) -> String
  display: $ -> Void
  fullDisplay: $ -> Void
  coerce: String -> $
Implementation == String add ...

We leave the Implementation part to the reader. All operations involve straightforward string manipulations.

13.13.6 Creating a Database

We must not forget one important operation: one that builds the database in the first place! We’ll name it getDatabase and put it in a package. This function is implemented by calling the Common Lisp function getBrowseDatabase(s) to get appropriate information from Browse. This operation takes a string indicating which lines you want
from the database: “o” gives you all operation lines, and “k”, all constructor lines. Similarly, “c”, “d”, and “p” give you all category, domain and package lines respectively.

OperationsQuery(): Exports == Implementation where
   Exports == with
      getDatabase: String -> Database(IndexCard)
   Implementation == add
      getDatabase(s) == getBrowseDatabase(s)$Lisp

We do not bother creating a special name for databases of index cards. Database (IndexCard) will do. Notice that we used the package OperationsQuery to create, in effect, a new kind of domain: Database (IndexCard).

13.13.7 Putting It All Together

To create the database facility, you put all these constructors into one file. At the top of the file put )abbrev commands, giving the constructor abbreviations you created.

)abbrev domain ICARD IndexCard
)abbrev domain QEQUAT QueryEquation
)abbrev domain MTHING MergeThing
)abbrev domain DLIST DataList
)abbrev domain DBASE Database
)abbrev package OPQUERY OperationsQuery

With all this in alql.spad, for example, compile it using

)compile alql

and then load each of the constructors:

)load ICARD QEQUAT MTHING DLIST DBASE OPQUERY

You are ready to try some sample queries.

13.13.8 Example Queries

Our first set of queries give some statistics on constructors in the current Axiom system.

How many constructors does Axiom have?

\footnote{You could use separate files, but we are putting them all together because, organizationally, that is the logical thing to do.}
ks := getDatabase "k"

Break this down into the number of categories, domains, and packages.

[ks.(kind=k) for k in ["c","d","p"] ]

What are all the domain constructors that take no parameters?

elt(ks.(kind="d").(nargs="0"),name)

How many constructors have “Matrix” in their name?

mk := ks.(name="*Matrix*")

What are the names of those that are domains?

elt(mk.(kind="d"),name)

How many operations are there in the library?

o := getDatabase "o"

Break this down into categories, domains, and packages.

[o.(kind=k) for k in ["c","d","p"] ]

The query language is helpful in getting information about a particular operation you might like to apply. While this information can be obtained with Browse, the use of the query database gives you data that you can manipulate in the workspace.

How many operations have “eigen” in the name?

eigens := o.(name="*eigen*")

What are their names?

elt(eigens,name)

Where do they come from?

elt(elt(elt(eigens,origin),sort),unique)
The operations + and - are useful for constructing small databases and combining them. However, remember that the only matching you can do is string matching. Thus a pattern such as "*Matrix*" on the type field matches any type containing Matrix, MatrixCategory, SquareMatrix, and so on.

How many operations mention “Matrix” in their type?

\[
\text{tm} := \text{o.(type="*Matrix*")}
\]

How many operations come from constructors with “Matrix” in their name?

\[
\text{fm} := \text{o.(origin="*Matrix*")}
\]

How many operations are in \( \text{fm} \) but not in \( \text{tm} \)?

\[
\text{fm} - \text{tm}
\]

Display the operations that both mention “Matrix” in their type and come from a constructor having “Matrix” in their name.

\[
\text{fullDisplay}(\text{fm}-%)
\]

How many operations involve matrices?

\[
\text{m} := \text{tm+f}\text{m}
\]

Display 4 of them.

\[
\text{fullDisplay}(\text{m}, \text{202, 205})
\]

How many distinct names of operations involving matrices are there?

\[
\text{elt(elt(elt(m,name),unique),count)}
\]
Chapter 14

Browse

This chapter discusses the Browse component of HyperDoc. We suggest you invoke Axiom and work through this chapter, section by section, following our examples to gain some familiarity with Browse.

14.1 The Front Page: Searching the Library

To enter Browse, click on Browse on the top level page of HyperDoc to get the front page of Browse.

![Figure 14.1: The Browse front page.](image)

To use this page, you first enter a search string into the input area at the top, then click
on one of the buttons below. We show the use of each of the buttons by example.

Constructors

First enter the search string Matrix into the input area and click on Constructors. What you get is the constructor page for Matrix. We show and describe this page in detail in 14.2 on page 930. By convention, Axiom does a case-insensitive search for a match. Thus matrix is just as good as Matrix, has the same effect as MaTrix, and so on. We recommend that you generally use small letters for names however. A search string with only capital letters has a special meaning (see 14.3.3 on page 947).

Click on to return to the Browse front page.

Use the symbol “*” in search strings as a wild card. A wild card matches any substring, including the empty string. For example, enter the search string *matrix* into the input area and click on Constructors. What you get is a table of all constructors whose names contain the string “matrix.”

![Figure 14.2: Table of exposed constructors matching *matrix*.](image)

All constructors containing the string are listed, whether exposed or unexposed. You can hide the names of the unexposed constructors by clicking on the *unexposed* button in the Views panel at the bottom of the window. (The button will change to exposed only.)

One of the names in this table is Matrix. Click on Matrix. What you get is again the constructor page for Matrix. As you see, Browse gives you a large network of information in which there are many ways to reach the same pages.

---

1To get only categories, domains, or packages, rather than all constructors, you can click on the corresponding button to the right of Constructors.
Again click on the \textit{Browse} to return to the table of constructors whose names contain \texttt{matrix}. Below the table is a Views panel. This panel contains buttons that let you view constructors in different ways. To learn about views of constructors, skip to 14.2.3 on page 940.

Click on \textit{Browse} to return to the Browse front page.

\section*{Operations}

Enter \texttt{*matrix} into the input area and click on \textbf{Operations}. This time you get a table of operations whose names end with \texttt{matrix} or \texttt{Matrix}.

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{fig14_03}
\caption{Table of operations matching \texttt{*matrix}.}
\end{figure}

If you select an operation name, you go to a page describing all the operations in Axiom of that name. At the bottom of an operation page is another kind of Views panel, one for operation pages. To learn more about these views, skip to 14.3.2 on page 944.

Click on \textit{Browse} to return to the Browse front page.

\section*{Attributes}

This button gives you a table of attribute names that match the search string. Enter the search string \texttt{*} and click on \textbf{Attributes} to get a list of all system attributes.

Click on \textit{Browse} to return to the Browse front page.

Again there is a Views panel at the bottom with buttons that let you view the attributes in different ways.
General

This button does a general search for all constructor, operation, and attribute names matching the search string. Enter the search string "matrix" into the input area. Click on General to find all constructs that have matrix as a part of their name.

The summary gives you all the names under a heading when the number of entries is less than 10.

Click on \( \text{\shortdownarrow} \) to return to the Browse front page.
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Documentation

Again enter the search key *matrix* and this time click on Documentation. This search matches any constructor, operation, or attribute name whose documentation contains a substring matching matrix.

![Figure 14.6: Table of constructs with documentation matching *matrix*.](image)

Click on to return to the Browse front page.

Complete

This search combines both General and Documentation.

### 14.2 The Constructor Page

In this section we look in detail at a constructor page for domain Matrix. Enter matrix into the input area on the main Browse page and click on Constructors.

The header part tells you that Matrix has abbreviation MATRIX and one argument called R that must be a domain of category Ring. Just what domains can be arguments of Matrix? To find this out, click on the R on the second line of the heading. What you get is a table of all acceptable domain parameter values of R, or a table of rings in Axiom.

Click on to return to the constructor page for Matrix.
If you have access to the source code of Axiom, the third line of the heading gives you the name of the source file containing the definition of Matrix. Click on it to pop up an editor window containing the source code of Matrix.

We recommend that you leave the editor window up while working through this chapter as you occasionally may want to refer to it.
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14.2.1 Constructor Page Buttons

We examine each button on this page in order.

Description

Click here to bring up a page with a brief description of constructor Matrix. If you have access to system source code, note that these comments can be found directly over the constructor definition.
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Fig. 14.11: Description page for Matrix.

Operations

Click here to get a table of operations exported by Matrix. You may wish to widen the window to have multiple columns as below.

Fig. 14.12: Table of operations from Matrix.

If you click on an operation name, you bring up a description page for the operations. For a detailed description of these pages, skip to 14.3.2 on page 944.
Attributes

Click here to get a table of the two attributes exported by Matrix: finiteAggregate and shallowlyMutable. These are two computational properties that result from Matrix being regarded as a data structure.

![Attributes from Matrix.](image)

Example pages have several examples of Axiom commands. Each example has an active button to its left. Click on it! A pre-computed answer is pasted into the page immediately following the command. If you click on the button a second time, the answer disappears. This button thus acts as a toggle: “now you see it; now you don’t.”

Note also that the Axiom commands themselves are active. If you want to see Axiom execute the command, then click on it! A new Axiom window appears on your screen and the command is executed.

At the end of the page is generally a menu of buttons that lead you to further sections. Select one of these topics to explore its contents.
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Figure 14.14: Example page for Matrix.

Exports

Click here to see a page describing the exports of Matrix exactly as described by the source code.

Figure 14.15: Exports of Matrix.

As you see, Matrix declares that it exports all the operations and attributes exported by category MatrixCategory(R, Row, Col). In addition, two operations, diagonalMatrix and inverse, are explicitly exported.

To learn a little about the structure of Axiom, we suggest you do the following exercise.
Otherwise, go on to the next section.

Matrix explicitly exports only two operations. The other operations are thus exports of MatrixCategory. In general, operations are usually not explicitly exported by a domain. Typically they are inherited from several different categories. Let’s find out from where the operations of Matrix come.

1. Click on MatrixCategory, then on Exports. Here you see that MatrixCategory explicitly exports many matrix operations. Also, it inherits its operations from TwoDimensionalArrayCategory.

2. Click on TwoDimensionalArrayCategory, then on Exports. Here you see explicit operations dealing with rows and columns. In addition, it inherits operations from HomogeneousAggregate.

3. Click on and then click on Object, then on Exports, where you see there are no exports.

4. Click on repeatedly to return to the constructor page for Matrix.

Related Operations

Click here bringing up a table of operations that are exported by packages but not by Matrix itself.

![Figure 14.16: Related operations of Matrix.](image)

To see a table of such packages, use the Relatives button on the Cross Reference page described next.
14.2.2 Cross Reference

Click on the Cross Reference button on the main constructor page for Matrix. This gives you a page having various cross reference information stored under the respective buttons.

Figure 14.17: Cross-reference page for Matrix.

Parents

The parents of a domain are the same as the categories mentioned under the Exports button on the first page. Domain Matrix has only one parent but in general a domain can have any number.

Ancestors

The ancestors of a constructor consist of its parents, the parents of its parents, and so on. Did you perform the exercise in the last section under Exports? If so, you see here all the categories you found while ascending the Exports chain for Matrix.

Relatives

The relatives of a domain constructor are package constructors that provide operations in addition to those exported by the domain.

Try this exercise.

1. Click on Relatives, bringing up a list of packages.
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2. Click on LinearSystemMatrixPackage bringing up its constructor page.\(^2\)

3. Click on Operations. Here you see rank, an operation also exported by Matrix itself.

4. Click on rank. This rank has two arguments and thus is different from the rank from Matrix.

5. Click on \(\leftarrow\) to return to the list of operations for the package LinearSystemMatrixPackage.

6. Click on solve to bring up a solve for linear systems of equations.

7. Click on \(\leftarrow\) several times to return to the cross reference page for Matrix.

Dependents

The dependents of a constructor are those domains or packages that mention that constructor either as an argument or in its exports.

If you click on Dependents two entries may surprise you: RectangularMatrix and SquareMatrix. This happens because Matrix, as it turns out, appears in signatures of operations exported by these domains.

Lineage

The term lineage refers to the search order for functions. If you are an expert user or curious about how the Axiom system works, try the following exercise. Otherwise, you best skip this button and go on to Clients.

Clicking on Lineage gives you a list of domain constructors: InnerIndexedTwoDimensionalArray, MatrixCategory\&, TwoDimensionalArrayCategory\&, HomogeneousAggregate\&, Aggregate\&. What are these constructors and how are they used?

We explain by an example. Suppose you create a matrix using the interpreter, then ask for its rank. Axiom must then find a function implementing the rank operation for matrices. The first place Axiom looks for rank is in the Matrix domain.

If not there, the lineage of Matrix tells Axiom where else to look. Associated with the matrix domain are five other lineage domains. Their order is important. Axiom first searches the first one, InnerIndexedTwoDimensionalArray. If not there, it searches the second MatrixCategory\&. And so on.

Where do these lineage constructors come from? The source code for Matrix contains this syntax for the function body of Matrix:\(^3\)

---

\(^2\)You may want to widen your HyperDoc window to make what follows more legible.

\(^3\)InnerIndexedTwoDimensionalArray is a special domain implemented for matrix-like domains to provide efficient implementations of two-dimensional arrays. For example, domains of category
InnerIndexedTwoDimensionalArray(R,mnRow,mnCol,Row,Col)
  add ...

where the “...” denotes all the code that follows. In English, this means: “The functions for matrices are defined as those from InnerIndexedTwoDimensionalArray domain augmented by those defined in ‘...’,” where the latter take precedence.

This explains InnerIndexedTwoDimensionalArray. The other names, those with names ending with an ampersand & are default packages for categories to which Matrix belongs. Default packages are ordered by the notion of “closest ancestor.”

Clients

A client of Matrix is any constructor that uses Matrix in its implementation. For example, Complex is a client of Matrix; it exports several operations that take matrices as arguments or return matrices as values.4

Benefactors

A benefactor of Matrix is any constructor that Matrix uses in its implementation. This information, like that for clients, is gathered from run-time structures.5

Cross reference pages for categories have some different buttons on them. Starting with the constructor page of Matrix, click on Ring producing its constructor page. Click on Cross Reference, producing the cross-reference page for Ring. Here are buttons Parents and Ancestors similar to the notion for domains, except for categories the relationship between parent and child is defined through category extension.

Children

Category hierarchies go both ways. There are children as well as parents. A child can have any number of parents, but always at least one. Every category is therefore a descendant of exactly one category: Object.

Descendants

These are children, children of children, and so on. Category hierarchies are complicated by the fact that categories take parameters. Where a parameterized category fits into a hierarchy may depend on values of its pa-

---

4 A constructor is a client of Matrix if it handles any matrix. For example, a constructor having internal (unexported) operations dealing with matrices is also a client.

5 The benefactors exclude constructors such as PrimitiveArray whose operations macro-expand and so vanish from sight!
rameters. In general, the set of categories in Axiom forms a directed acyclic graph, that is, a graph with directed arcs and no cycles.

Domains

This produces a table of all domain constructors that can possibly be rings (members of category \textit{Ring}). Some domains are unconditional rings. Others are rings for some parameters and not for others. To find out which, select the conditions button in the views panel. For example, \texttt{DirectProduct(n, R)} is a ring if \texttt{R} is a ring.

14.2.3 Views Of Constructors

Below every constructor table page is a Views panel. As an example, click on Cross Reference from the constructor page of \textit{Matrix}, then on Benefactors to produce a short table of constructor names.

The Views panel is at the bottom of the page. Two items, names and conditions, are in italics. Others are active buttons. The active buttons are those that give you useful alternative views on this table of constructors. Once you select a view, you notice that the button turns off (becomes italicized) so that you cannot reselect it.

names

This view gives you a table of names. Selecting any of these names brings up the constructor page for that constructor.

abbrs

This view gives you a table of abbreviations, in the same order as the original constructor names. Abbreviations are in capitals and are limited to 7 characters. They can be used interchangeably with constructor names in input areas.

kinds

This view organizes constructor names into the three kinds: categories, domains and packages.

files

This view gives a table of file names for the source code of the constructors in alphabetic order after removing duplicates.
parameters

This view presents constructors with the arguments. This view of the benefactors of Matrix shows that Matrix uses as many as five different List domains in its implementation.

filter

This button is used to refine the list of names or abbreviations. Starting with the names view, enter m* into the input area and click on filter. You then get a shorter table with only the names beginning with m.

documentation

This gives you documentation for each of the constructors.

conditions

This page organizes the constructors according to predicates. The view is not available for your example page since all constructors are unconditional. For a table with conditions, return to the Cross Reference page for Matrix, click on Ancestors, then on conditions in the view panel. This page shows you that CoercibleTo(OutputForm) and SetCategory are ancestors of Matrix(R) only if R belongs to category SetCategory.

14.2.4 Giving Parameters to Constructors

Notice the input area at the bottom of the constructor page. If you leave this blank, then the information you get is for the domain constructor Matrix(R), that is, Matrix for an arbitrary underlying domain R.

In general, however, the exports and other information do usually depend on the actual value of R. For example, Matrix exports the inverse operation only if the domain R is a Field. To see this, try this from the main constructor page:

1. Enter Integer into the input area at the bottom of the page.
2. Click on Operations, producing a table of operations. Note the number of operation names that appear at the top of the page.
3. Click on to return to the constructor page.
4. Use the Delete or Backspace keys to erase Integer from the input area.
5. Click on Operations to produce a new table of operations. Look at the number of operations you get. This number is greater than what you had before. Find, for example, the operation inverse.
6. Click on `inverse` to produce a page describing the operation `inverse`. At the bottom of the description, you notice that the **Conditions** line says “R has Field.” This operation is *not* exported by `Matrix(Integer)` since `Integer` is not a *field*.

Try putting the name of a domain such as `Fraction Integer` (which is a field) into the input area, then clicking on **Operations**. As you see, the operation `inverse` is exported.

### 14.3 Miscellaneous Features of Browse

#### 14.3.1 The Description Page for Operations

From the constructor page of `Matrix`, click on **Operations** to bring up the table of operations for `Matrix`.

Find the operation `inverse` in the table and click on it. This takes you to a page showing the documentation for this operation.

![Figure 14.18: Operation `inverse` from `Matrix`.](image)

Here is the significance of the headings you see.

**Arguments**

This lists each of the arguments of the operation in turn, paraphrasing the *signature* of the operation. As for signatures, a $\mathfrak{d}$ is used to designate *this domain*, that is, `Matrix(R)`. 
Returns

This describes the return value for the operation, analogous to the Arguments part.

Origin

This tells you which domain or category explicitly exports the operation. In this example, the domain itself is the Origin.

Conditions

This tells you that the operation is exported by Matrix(R) only if “R has Field,” that is, “R is a member of category Field.” When no Conditions part is given, the operation is exported for all values of R.

Description

Here are the ++ comments that appear in the source code of its Origin, here Matrix. You find these comments in the source code for Matrix.

![Figure 14.19: Operations map from Matrix.](image)

Click on to return to the table of operations. Click on map. Here you find three different operations named map. This should not surprise you. Operations are identified by name and signature. There are three operations named map, each with different signatures. What you see is the descriptions view of the operations. If you like, select the button in the heading of one of these descriptions to get only that operation.
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Where
This part qualifies domain parameters mentioned in the arguments to the operation.

14.3.2 Views of Operations

We suggest that you go to the constructor page for Matrix and click on Operations to bring up a table of operations with a Views panel at the bottom.

names
This view lists the names of the operations. Unlike constructors, however, there may be several operations with the same name. The heading for the page tells you the number of unique names and the number of distinct operations when these numbers are different.

filter
As for constructors, you can use this button to cut down the list of operations you are looking at. Enter, for example, m* into the input area to the right of filter then click on filter. As usual, any logical expression is permitted. For example, use *
! or *?
to get a list of destructive operations and predicates.

documentation
This gives you the most information: a detailed description of all the operations in the form you have seen before. Every other button summarizes these operations in some form.

signatures
This views the operations by showing their signatures.

parameters
This views the operations by their distinct syntactic forms with parameters.

origins
This organizes the operations according to the constructor that explicitly exports them.
conditions

This view organizes the operations into conditional and unconditional operations.

usage

This button is only available if your user-level is set to development. The usage button produces a table of constructors that reference this operation.\(^6\)

implementation

This button is only available if your user-level is set to development. If you enter values for all domain parameters on the constructor page, then the implementation button appears in place of the conditions button. This button tells you what domains or packages actually implement the various operations.\(^7\)

With your user-level set to development, we suggest you try this exercise. Return to the main constructor page for Matrix, then enter Integer into the input area at the bottom as the value of \(R\). Then click on Operations to produce a table of operations. Note that the conditions part of the Views table is replaced by implementation. Click on implementation. After some delay, you get a page describing what implements each of the matrix operations, organized by the various domains and packages.

![Implementation Domains for Matrix](image)

Figure 14.20: Implementation domains for Matrix.

\(^6\)Axiom requires an especially long time to produce this table, so anticipate this when requesting this information.

\(^7\)This button often takes a long time; expect a delay while you wait for an answer.
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generalize

This button only appears for an operation page of a constructor involving a unique operation name.

From an operations page for Matrix, select any operation name, say rank. In the views panel, the filter button is replaced by generalize. Click on it! What you get is a description of all Axiom operations named rank.8

![Figure 14.21: All operations named rank in Axiom.](image)

all domains

This button only appears on an operation page resulting from a search from the front page of Browse or from selecting generalize from an operation page for a constructor.

Note that the filter button in the Views panel is replaced by all domains. Click on it to produce a table of all domains or packages that export a rank operation.

We note that this table specifically refers to all the rank operations shown in the preceding page. Return to the descriptions of all the rank operations and select one of them by clicking on the button in its heading. Select all domains. As you see, you have a smaller table of constructors. When there is only one constructor, you get the constructor page for that constructor.

---

8If there were more than 10 operations of the name, you get instead a page with a Views panel at the bottom and the message to Select a view below. To get the descriptions of all these operations as mentioned above, select the description button.
14.3.3 Capitalization Convention

When entering search keys for constructors, you can use capital letters to search for abbreviations. For example, enter UTS into the input area and click on Constructors. Up comes a page describing UnivariateTaylorSeries whose abbreviation is UTS.

Constructor abbreviations always have three or more capital letters. For short constructor names (six letters or less), abbreviations are not generally helpful as their abbreviation is typically the constructor name in capitals. For example, the abbreviation for Matrix is MATRIX.

Abbreviations can also contain numbers. For example, POLY2 is the abbreviation for constructor PolynomialFunctions2. For default packages, the abbreviation is the same as the abbreviation for the corresponding category with the “&” replaced by “-”. For example, for the category default package MatrixCategory& the abbreviation is MATCAT- since the corresponding category MatrixCategory has abbreviation MATCAT.
Chapter 15

What’s New in Axiom Version 2.0

Many things have changed in this new version of Axiom and we describe many of the more important topics here.

15.1 Important Things to Read First

If you have any private .spad files (that is, library files which were not shipped with Axiom) you will need to recompile them. For example, if you wrote the file regress.spad then you should issue )compile regress.spad before trying to use it.

The internal representation of Union has changed. This means that Axiom data saved with Release 1.x may not be readable by this Release. If you cannot recreate the saved data by recomputing in Release 2.0, please contact NAG for assistance.

15.2 The New Axiom Library Compiler

A new compiler is now available for Axiom. The programming language is referred to as the Aldor, and improves upon the old Axiom language in many ways. The )compile command has been upgraded to be able to invoke the new or old compilers. The language and the compiler are described in the hard-copy documentation which came with your Axiom system.

To ease the chore of upgrading your .spad files (old compiler) to .as files (new compiler), the )compile command has been given a )translate option. This invokes a special version of the old compiler which parses and analyzes your old code and pro-
duces augmented code using the new syntax. Please be aware that the translation is not necessarily one hundred percent complete or correct. You should attempt to compile the output with the Aldor compiler and make any necessary corrections.

15.3 The NAG Library Link

The Nag Library link allows you to call NAG Fortran routines from within Axiom, passing Axiom objects as parameters and getting them back as results.

The Nag Library and, consequently, the link are divided into chapters, which cover different areas of numerical analysis. The statistical and sorting chapters of the Library, however, are not included in the link and various support and utility routines (mainly the F06 and X chapters) have been omitted.

Each chapter has a short (at most three-letter) name; for example, the chapter devoted to the solution of ordinary differential equations is called D02. When using the link via the HyperDoc interface, you will be presented with a complete menu of these chapters. The names of individual routines within each chapter are formed by adding three letters to the chapter name, so for example the routine for solving ODEs by Adams method is called d02cjf.

15.3.1 Interpreting NAG Documentation

Information about using the Nag Library in general, and about using individual routines in particular, can be accessed via HyperDoc. This documentation refers to the Fortran routines directly; the purpose of this subsection is to explain how this corresponds to the Axiom routines.

For general information about the Nag Library users should consult Essential Introduction to the NAG Foundation Library. The documentation is in ASCII format, and a description of the conventions used to represent mathematical symbols is given in Introduction to NAG On-Line Documentation. Advice about choosing a routine from a particular chapter can be found in the Chapter Documents.

Correspondence Between Fortran and Axiom types

The NAG documentation refers to the Fortran types of objects; in general, the correspondence to Axiom types is as follows.

- Fortran INTEGER corresponds to Axiom Integer.
- Fortran DOUBLE PRECISION corresponds to Axiom DoubleFloat.
- Fortran COMPLEX corresponds to Axiom Complex DoubleFloat.
- Fortran LOGICAL corresponds to Axiom Boolean.
• Fortran CHARACTER*(*) corresponds to Axiom String.

(Exceptially, for NAG EXTERNAL parameters – ASPs in link parlance – REAL and COMPLEX correspond to MachineFloat and MachineComplex, respectively; see ?? on page ??.)

The correspondence for aggregates is as follows.

• A one-dimensional Fortran array corresponds to an Axiom Matrix with one column.

• A two-dimensional Fortran ARRAY corresponds to an Axiom Matrix.

• A three-dimensional Fortran ARRAY corresponds to an Axiom ThreeDimensionalMatrix.

Higher-dimensional arrays are not currently needed for the Nag Library.

Arguments which are Fortran FUNCTIONs or SUBROUTINEs correspond to special ASP domains in Axiom. See ?? on page ??.

Classification of NAG parameters

NAG parameters are classified as belonging to one (or more) of the following categories: Input, Output, Workspace or External procedure. Within External procedures a similar classification is used, and parameters may also be Dummies, or User Workspace (data structures not used by the NAG routine but provided for the convenience of the user).

When calling a NAG routine via the link the user only provides values for Input and External parameters.

The order of the parameters is, in general, different from the order specified in the Nag Library documentation. The Browser description for each routine helps in determining the correspondence. As a rule of thumb, Input parameters come first followed by Input/Output parameters. The External parameters are always found at the end.

IFAIL

NAG routines often return diagnostic information through a parameter called ifail. With a few exceptions, the principle is that on input ifail takes one of the values −1, 0, 1. This determines how the routine behaves when it encounters an error:

• a value of 1 causes the NAG routine to return without printing an error message;
• a value of 0 causes the NAG routine to print an error message and abort;
• a value of -1 causes the NAG routine to return and print an error message.
The user is STRONGLY ADVISED to set \texttt{ifail} to $-1$ when using the link. If \texttt{ifail} has been set to 1 or $-1$ on input, then its value on output will determine the possible cause of any error. A value of 0 indicates successful completion, otherwise it provides an index into a table of diagnostics provided as part of the routine documentation (accessible via Browse).

15.3.2 Using the Link

The easiest way to use the link is via the HyperDoc interface. You will be presented with a set of fill-in forms where you can specify the parameters for each call. Initially, the forms contain example values, demonstrating the use of each routine (these, in fact, correspond to the standard NAG example program for the routine in question). For some parameters, these values can provide reasonable defaults; others, of course, represent data. When you change a parameter which controls the size of an array, the data in that array are reset to a “neutral” value – usually zero.

When you are satisfied with the values entered, clicking on the “Continue” button will display the Axiom command needed to run the chosen NAG routine with these values. Clicking on the “Do It” button will then cause Axiom to execute this command and return the result in the parent Axiom session, as described below. Note that, for some routines, multiple HyperDoc “pages” are required, due to the structure of the data. For these, returning to an earlier page causes HyperDoc to reset the later pages (this is a general feature of HyperDoc); in such a case, the simplest way to repeat a call, varying a parameter on an earlier page, is probably to modify the call displayed in the parent session.

An alternative approach is to call NAG routines directly in your normal Axiom session (that is, using the Axiom interpreter). Such calls return an object of type Result. As not all parameters in the underlying NAG routine are required in the AXIOM call (and the parameter ordering may be different), before calling a NAG routine you should consult the description of the Axiom operation in the Browser. (The quickest route to this is to type the routine name, in lower case, into the Browser’s input area, then click on Operations.) The parameter names used coincide with NAG’s, although they will appear here in lower case. Of course, it is also possible to become familiar with the Axiom form of a routine by first using it through the HyperDoc interface.

As an example of this mode of working, we can find a zero of a function, lying between 3 and 4, as follows:

\[
\text{answer:=c05adf(3.0,4.0,1.0e-5,0.0,-1,sin(X)::ASP1(F))}
\]

By default, Result only displays the type of returned values, since the amount of information returned can be quite large. Individual components can be examined as follows:

\[
\text{answer . x}
\]
answer . ifail

In order to avoid conflict with names defined in the workspace, you can also get the
values by using the String type (the interpreter automatically coerces them to Symbol)

answer "x"

It is possible to have Axiom display the values of scalar or array results automatically.
For more details, see the commands showScalarValues and showArrayValues.
There is also a .input file for each NAG routine, containing Axiom interpreter com-
mands to set up and run the standard NAG example for that routine.

)read c05adf.input

### 15.3.3 Providing values for Argument Subprograms

There are a number of ways in which users can provide values for argument subpro-
grams (ASPs). At the top level the user will see that NAG routines require an object
from the Union of a Filename and an ASP.

For example **c05adf** requires an object of type

\[
\text{Union}(\text{fn: FileName}, \text{fp: Asp1 F})
\]

The user thus has a choice of providing the name of a file containing Fortran source
code, or of somehow generating the ASP within Axiom. If a filename is specified, it is
searched for in the local machine, i.e., the machine that Axiom is running on.

**Providing ASPs via FortranExpression**

The FortranExpression domain is used to represent expressions which can be trans-
lated into Fortran under certain circumstances. It is very similar to Expression except
that only operators which exist in Fortran can be used, and only certain variables can
occur. For example the instantiation FortranExpression([X],[M],MachineFloat) is the domain of expressions containing the scalar \(X\) and the array \(M\).

This allows us to create expressions like:

\[
f : \text{FortranExpression}([X],[M],\text{MachineFloat}) := \sin(X)+M[3,1]
\]

but not
f : FortranExpression([X],[M],MachineFloat) := sin(M)+Y

Those ASPs which represent expressions usually export a \texttt{coerce} from an appropriate instantiation of \texttt{FortranExpression} (or perhaps \texttt{Vector FortranExpression} etc.). For convenience there are also retractions from appropriate instantiations of \texttt{Expression}, \texttt{Polynomial} and \texttt{Fraction Polynomial}.

**Providing ASPs via FortranCode**

\texttt{FortranCode} allows us to build arbitrarily complex ASPs via a kind of pseudo-code. It is described fully in ?? on page ??.

Every ASP exports two \texttt{coerce} functions: one from \texttt{FortranCode} and one from \texttt{List FortranCode}. There is also a \texttt{coerce} from \texttt{Record(localSymbols: SymbolTable, code: List FortranCode)} which is used for passing extra symbol information about the ASP.

So for example, to integrate the function abs(x) we could use the built-in \texttt{abs} function. But suppose we want to get back to basics and define it directly, then we could do the following:

\begin{verbatim}
d01ajf(-1.0, 1.0, 0.0, 1.0e-5, 800, 200, -1, cond(LT(X,0), assign(F,-X), assign(F,X))) result
\end{verbatim}

The \texttt{cond} operation creates a conditional clause and the \texttt{assign} an assignment statement.

**Providing ASPs via FileName**

Suppose we have created the file “asp.f” as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
DOUBLE PRECISION FUNCTION F(X)
DOUBLE PRECISION X
F=4.0D0/(X*X+1.0D0)
RETURN
END
\end{verbatim}

and wish to pass it to the NAG routine \texttt{d01ajf} which performs one-dimensional quadrature. We can do this as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
d01ajf(0.0 ,1.0, 0.0, 1.0e-5, 800, 200, -1, "asp.f")
\end{verbatim}

**15.3.4 General Fortran-generation utilities in Axiom**

This section describes more advanced facilities which are available to users who wish to generate Fortran code from within Axiom. There are facilities to manipulate templates,
Template Manipulation

A template is a skeletal program which is “fleshed out” with data when it is processed. It is a sequence of active and passive parts: active parts are sequences of Axiom commands which are processed as if they had been typed into the interpreter; passive parts are simply echoed verbatim on the Fortran output stream.

Suppose, for example, that we have the following template, stored in the file “test.tem”:

```axiom
-- A simple template
beginVerbatim
   DOUBLE PRECISION FUNCTION F(X)
   DOUBLE PRECISION X
endVerbatim
outputAsFortran("F",f)
beginVerbatim
   RETURN
   END
endVerbatim
```

The passive parts lie between the two tokens `beginVerbatim` and `endVerbatim`. There are two active statements: one which is simply an Axiom (``--) comment, and one which produces an assignment to the current value of \( f \). We could use it as follows:

```
(4) -> f := 4.0/(1+X**2)

4
(4) -------
   2
   X + 1
```

```
(5) -> processTemplate "test.tem"
   DOUBLE PRECISION FUNCTION F(X)
   DOUBLE PRECISION X
   F=4.0D0/(X*X+1.0D0)
   RETURN
   END

(5) "CONSOLE"
```

(A more reliable method of specifying the filename will be introduced below.) Note that the Fortran assignment \( F=4.0D0/(X*X+1.0D0) \) automatically converted 4.0 and 1
into DOUBLE PRECISION numbers; in general, the Axiom Fortran generation facility will convert anything which should be a floating point object into either a Fortran REAL or DOUBLE PRECISION object.

Which alternative is used is determined by the command

)set fortran precision

It is sometimes useful to end a template before the file itself ends (e.g. to allow the template to be tested incrementally or so that a piece of text describing how the template works can be included). It is of course possible to “comment-out” the remainder of the file. Alternatively, the single token endInput as part of an active portion of the template will cause processing to be ended prematurely at that point.

The processTemplate command comes in two flavours. In the first case, illustrated above, it takes one argument of domain FileName, the name of the template to be processed, and writes its output on the current Fortran output stream. In general, a filename can be generated from directory, name and extension components, using the operation filename, as in

processTemplate filename("","test","tem")

There is an alternative version of processTemplate, which takes two arguments (both of domain FileName). In this case the first argument is the name of the template to be processed, and the second is the file in which to write the results. Both versions return the location of the generated Fortran code as their result (“CONSOLE” in the above example).

It is sometimes useful to be able to mix active and passive parts of a line or statement. For example you might want to generate a Fortran Comment describing your data set. For this kind of application we provide three functions as follows:

fortranLiteral writes a string on the Fortran output stream

fortranCarriageReturn writes a carriage return on the Fortran output stream

fortranLiteralLine writes a string followed by a return on the Fortran output stream

So we could create our comment as follows:

m := matrix [ [1,2,3],[4,5,6] ]

fortranLiteralLine concat ["C The Matrix has ", nrows(m)::String, " rows and ", ncols(m)::String, " columns"]

or, alternatively:
The Matrix has \( \text{nrows}(m) \) rows and \( \text{ncols}(m) \) columns.

We should stress that these functions, together with the `outputAsFortran` function are the only sure ways of getting output to appear on the Fortran output stream. Attempts to use Axiom commands such as `output` or `writeline` may appear to give the required result when displayed on the console, but will give the wrong result when Fortran and algebraic output are sent to differing locations. On the other hand, these functions can be used to send helpful messages to the user, without interfering with the generated Fortran.

**Manipulating the Fortran Output Stream**

Sometimes it is useful to manipulate the Fortran output stream in a program, possibly without being aware of its current value. The main use of this is for gathering type declarations (see “Fortran Types” below) but it can be useful in other contexts as well. Thus we provide a set of commands to manipulate a stack of (open) output streams. Only one stream can be written to at any given time. The stack is never empty—its initial value is the console or the current value of the Fortran output stream, and can be determined using

\[ \text{topFortranOutputStack}() \]

(see below). The commands available to manipulate the stack are:

- `clearFortranOutputStack` resets the stack to the console
- `pushFortranOutputStack` pushes a `FileName` onto the stack
- `popFortranOutputStack` pops the stack
- `showFortranOutputStack` returns the current stack
- `topFortranOutputStack` returns the top element of the stack

These commands are all part of `FortranOutputStackPackage`. 
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Fortran Types

When generating code it is important to keep track of the Fortran types of the objects which we are generating. This is useful for a number of reasons, not least to ensure that we are actually generating legal Fortran code. The current type system is built up in several layers, and we shall describe each in turn.

FortranScalarType

This domain represents the simple Fortran datatypes: REAL, DOUBLE PRECISION, COMPLEX, LOGICAL, INTEGER, and CHARACTER. It is possible to coerce a String or Symbol into the domain, test whether two objects are equal, and also apply the predicate functions real? etc.

FortranType

This domain represents “full” types: i.e., datatype plus array dimensions (where appropriate) plus whether or not the parameter is an external subprogram. It is possible to coerce an object of FortranScalarType into the domain or construct one from an element of FortranScalarType, a list of Polynomial Integers (which can of course be simple integers or symbols) representing its dimensions, and a Boolean declaring whether it is external or not. The list of dimensions must be empty if the Boolean is true. The functions scalarTypeOf, dimensionsOf and external? return the appropriate parts, and it is possible to get the various basic Fortran Types via functions like fortranReal.

For example:

```lisp
(type):=construct(real,[i,10],false)$FortranType
```

or

```lisp
(type):=[real,[i,10],false]$FortranType
```

```lisp
scalarTypeOf type
```

```lisp
dimensionsOf type
```

```lisp
external? type
```

```lisp
fortranLogical()
```

```lisp
construct(integer,[],true)$FortranType
```
SymbolTable

This domain creates and manipulates a symbol table for generated Fortran code. This is used by FortranProgram to represent the types of objects in a subprogram. The commands available are:

- **empty**: creates a new SymbolTable
- **declare**: creates a new entry in a table
- **fortranTypeOf**: returns the type of an object in a table
- **parametersOf**: returns a list of all the symbols in the table
- **typeList**: returns a list of all objects of a given type
- **typeLists**: returns a list of lists of all objects sorted by type
- **externalList**: returns a list of all EXTERNAL objects
- **printTypes**: produces Fortran type declarations from a table

```lisp
symbols := empty()$SymbolTable

declare!(X, fortranReal(), symbols)

declare!(M, construct(real, [i, j], false)$FortranType, symbols)

declare!([i, j], fortranInteger(), symbols)

symbols

fortranTypeOf(i, symbols)

typeList(real, symbols)

printTypes symbols
```
CHAPTER 15. WHAT’S NEW IN AXIOM VERSION 2.0

TheSymbolTable

This domain creates and manipulates one global symbol table to be used, for example, during template processing. It is also used when linking to external Fortran routines. The information stored for each subprogram (and the main program segment, where relevant) is:

• its name;
• its return type;
• its argument list;
• and its argument types.

Initially, any information provided is deemed to be for the main program segment. Issuing the following command indicates that from now on all information refers to the subprogram $F$.

newSubProgram $F$

It is possible to return to processing the main program segment by issuing the command:

endSubProgram()

The following commands exist:

- **returnType** declares the return type of the current subprogram
- **returnTypeOf** returns the return type of a subprogram
- **argumentList** declares the argument list of the current subprogram
- **argumentListOf** returns the argument list of a subprogram
- **declare** provides type declarations for parameters of the current subprogram
- **symbolTableOf** returns the symbol table of a subprogram
- **printHeader** produces the Fortran header for the current subprogram

In addition there are versions of these commands which are parameterised by the name of a subprogram, and others parameterised by both the name of a subprogram and by an instance of TheSymbolTable.
Advanced Fortran Code Generation

This section describes facilities for representing Fortran statements, and building up complete subprograms from them.

Switch

This domain is used to represent statements like $x < y$. Although these can be represented directly in Axiom, it is a little cumbersome, since Axiom evaluates the last statement, for example, to true (since $x$ is lexicographically less than $y$).

Instead we have a set of operations, such as LT to represent $<$, to let us build such statements. The available constructors are:

- LT <
- GT >
- LE \leq
- GE \geq
- EQ =
- AND and
- OR or
- NOT not

So for example:

LT(x, y)
CHAPTER 15. WHAT’S NEW IN AXIOM VERSION 2.0

FortranCode

This domain represents code segments or operations: currently assignments, conditionals, blocks, comments, gotos, continues, various kinds of loops, and return statements.

For example we can create quite a complicated conditional statement using assignments, and then turn it into Fortran code:

\[
\begin{align*}
  c &:= \\
  &\text{cond}(\text{LT}(X,Y), \text{assign}(F,X), \text{cond}(\text{GT}(Y,Z), \text{assign}(F,Y), \text{assign}(F,Z)))
\end{align*}
\]

printCode c

The Fortran code is printed on the current Fortran output stream.

FortranProgram

This domain is used to construct complete Fortran subprograms out of elements of FortranCode. It is parameterised by the name of the target subprogram (a Symbol), its return type (from \text{Union}(\text{FortranScalarType}, \text{"void"})) , its arguments (from \text{List} Symbol), and its symbol table (from SymbolTable). One can coerce elements of either FortranCode or Expression into it.

First of all we create a symbol table:

\[
\text{symbols} := \text{empty()}
\]

Now put some type declarations into it:

\[
\text{declare!}([X,Y], \text{fortranReal()}, \text{symbols})
\]

Then (for convenience) we set up the particular instantiation of \text{FortranProgram}

\[
\text{FP} := \text{FortranProgram}(F, \text{real}, [X,Y], \text{symbols})
\]

Create an object of type \text{Expression(Integer)}:

\[
\text{asp} := X \cdot \sin(Y)
\]

Now coerce it into \text{FP}, and print its Fortran form:

\[
\text{outputAsFortran(asp::FP)}
\]
We can generate a FortranProgram using FortranCode. For example:

Augment our symbol table:

```lisp
declare!(Z,fortranReal(),symbols)
```

and transform the conditional expression we prepared earlier:

```lisp
outputAsFortran([c,returns()]:FF)
```

### 15.3.5 Some technical information

The model adopted for the link is a server-client configuration – Axiom acting as a client via a local agent (a process called nagman). The server side is implemented by the nagd daemon process which may run on a different host. The nagman local agent is started by default whenever you start Axiom. The nagd server must be started separately. Instructions for installing and running the server are supplied in ?? on page ?? on ??.

On the Axiom side, one sees a set of packages (ask Browse for Nag*) for each chapter, each exporting operations with the same name as a routine in the Nag Library. The arguments and return value of each operation belong to standard Axiom types.

The man pages for the Nag Library are accessible via the description of each operation in Browse (among other places).

In the implementation of each operation, the set of inputs is passed to the local agent nagman, which makes a Remote Procedure Call (RPC) to the remote nagd daemon process. The local agent receives the RPC results and forwards them to the Axiom workspace where they are interpreted appropriately.

How are Fortran subroutines turned into RPC calls? For each Fortran routine in the Nag Library, a C main() routine is supplied. Its job is to assemble the RPC input (numeric) data stream into the appropriate Fortran data structures for the routine, call the Fortran routine from C and serialize the results into an RPC output data stream.

Many Nag Library routines accept ASPs (Argument Subprogram Parameters). These specify user-supplied Fortran routines (e.g. a routine to supply values of a function is required for numerical integration). How are they handled? There are new facilities in Axiom to help. A set of Axiom domains has been provided to turn values in standard Axiom types (such as Expression Integer) into the appropriate piece of Fortran for each case (a filename pointing to Fortran source for the ASP can always be supplied instead). Ask Browse for Asp* to see these domains. The Fortran fragments are included in the outgoing RPC stream, but nagd intercepts them, compiles them, and links them with the main() C program before executing the resulting program on the numeric part of the RPC stream.
15.4 Interactive Front-end and Language

The `leave` keyword has been replaced by the `break` keyword for compatibility with the new Axiom extension language. See section 5.4.3 on page 200 for more information.

Curly braces are no longer used to create sets. Instead, use `set` followed by a bracketed expression. For example,

\begin{verbatim}
set [1,2,3,4]
\end{verbatim}

Curly braces are now used to enclose a block (see section 5.2 on page 192 for more information). For compatibility, a block can still be enclosed by parentheses as well.

“Free functions” created by the Aldor compiler can now be loaded and used within the Axiom interpreter. A free function is a library function that is implemented outside a domain or category constructor.

New coercions to and from type Expression have been added. For example, it is now possible to map a polynomial represented as an expression to an appropriate polynomial type.

Various messages have been added or rewritten for clarity.

15.5 Library

The `FullPartialFractionExpansion` domain has been added. This domain computes factor-free full partial fraction expansions. See section `FullPartialFractionExpansion` for examples.

We have implemented the Bertrand/Cantor algorithm for integrals of hyperelliptic functions. This brings a major speedup for some classes of algebraic integrals.

We have implemented a new (direct) algorithm for integrating trigonometric functions. This brings a speedup and an improvement in the answer quality.

The `SmallFloat` domain has been renamed `DoubleFloat` and `SmallInteger` has been renamed `SingleInteger`. The new abbreviations as `DFLOAT` and `SINT`, respectively.

We have defined the macro `SF`, the old abbreviation for `SmallFloat`, to expand to `DoubleFloat` and modified the documentation and input file examples to use the new names and abbreviations. You should do the same in any private Axiom files you have.

There are many new categories, domains and packages related to the NAG Library Link facility. See the file `src/algebra/exposed.lsp` for a list of constructors in the `naglink` Axiom exposure group.

We have made improvements to the differential equation solvers and there is a new facility for solving systems of first-order linear differential equations. In particular, an important fix was made to the solver for inhomogeneous linear ordinary differential
equations that corrected the calculation of particular solutions. We also made improvements to the polynomial and transcendental equation solvers including the ability to solve some classes of systems of transcendental equations.

The efficiency of power series have been improved and left and right expansions of \( \tan(f(x)) \) at \( x = a \) pole of \( f(x) \) can now be computed. A number of power series bugs were fixed and the GeneralUnivariatePowerSeries domain was added. The power series variable can appear in the coefficients and when this happens, you cannot differentiate or integrate the series. Differentiation and integration with respect to other variables is supported.

A domain was added for representing asymptotic expansions of a function at an exponential singularity.

For limits, the main new feature is the exponential expansion domain used to treat certain exponential singularities. Previously, such singularities were treated in an ad hoc way and only a few cases were covered. Now Axiom can do things like

\[
\lim ( (x+1)^{(x+1)}/x^x - x^x/(x-1)^{(x-1)}, x = \text{plusInfinity})
\]

in a systematic way. It only does one level of nesting, though. In other words, we can handle \( \exp(\text{somefunctionwithapole}) \), but not \( \exp(\exp(\text{somefunctionwithapole})) \).

The computation of integral bases has been improved through careful use of Hermite row reduction. A \( p \)-adic algorithm for function fields of algebraic curves in finite characteristic has also been developed.

Miscellaneous: There is improved conversion of definite and indefinite integrals to InputForm; binomial coefficients are displayed in a new way; some new simplifications of radicals have been implemented; the operation complexForm for converting to rectangular coordinates has been added; symmetric product operations have been added to LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator.

15.6 HyperTex

The buttons on the titlebar and scrollbar have been replaced with ones which have a 3D effect. You can change the foreground and background colors of these “controls” by including and modifying the following lines in your .Xdefaults file.

Axiom.hyperdoc.ControlBackgroundColor: White
Axiom.hyperdoc.ControlForegroundColor: Black

For various reasons, HyperDoc sometimes displays a secondary window. You can control the size and placement of this window by including and modifying the following line in your .Xdefaults file.

Axiom.hyperdoc.FormGeometry: =950x450+100+0
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This setting is a standard X Window System geometry specification: you are requesting a window 950 pixels wide by 450 deep and placed in the upper left corner.

Some key definitions have been changed to conform more closely with the CUA guidelines. Press F9 to see the current definitions.

Input boxes (for example, in the Browser) now accept paste-ins from the X Window System. Use the second button to paste in something you have previously copied or cut. An example of how you can use this is that you can paste the type from an Axiom computation into the main Browser input box.

15.7 Documentation

We describe here a few additions to the on-line version of the AXIOM book which you can read with HyperDoc.

A section has been added to the graphics chapter, describing how to build two-dimensional graphs from lists of points. An example is given showing how to read the points from a file. See section 7.1.9 on page 302 for details.

A further section has been added to that same chapter, describing how to add a two-dimensional graph to a viewport which already contains other graphs. See section 7.1.10 on page 309 for details.

Chapter 3 and the on-line HyperDoc help have been unified.

An explanation of operation names ending in “?” and “!” has been added to the first chapter. See the end of the section 1.3.6 on page 78 for details.

An expanded explanation of using predicates has been added to the sixth chapter. See the example involving evenRule in the middle of the section 6.21 on page 281 for details.

Documentation for the )compile, )library and )load commands has been greatly changed. This reflects the ability of the )compile to now invoke the Aldor compiler, the impending deletion of the )load command and the new )library command. The )library command replaces )load and is compatible with the compiled output from both the old and new compilers.
Chapter 16

Axiom System Commands

This chapter describes system commands, the command-line facilities used to control the Axiom environment. The first section is an introduction and discusses the common syntax of the commands available.

16.1 Introduction

System commands are used to perform Axiom environment management. Among the commands are those that display what has been defined or computed, set up multiple logical Axiom environments (frames), clear definitions, read files of expressions and commands, show what functions are available, and terminate Axiom.

Some commands are restricted: the commands

)set userlevel interpreter
)set userlevel compiler
)set userlevel development

set the user-access level to the three possible choices. All commands are available at development level and the fewest are available at interpreter level. The default user-level is interpreter. In addition to the )set command (discussed in ?? on page ??) you can use the HyperDoc settings facility to change the user-level.

Each command listing begins with one or more syntax pattern descriptions plus examples of related commands. The syntax descriptions are intended to be easy to read and do not necessarily represent the most compact way of specifying all possible arguments and options; the descriptions may occasionally be redundant.

All system commands begin with a right parenthesis which should be in the first available column of the input line (that is, immediately after the input prompt, if any). System commands may be issued directly to Axiom or be included in .input files.
A system command argument is a word that directly follows the command name and is not followed or preceded by a right parenthesis. A system command option follows the system command and is directly preceded by a right parenthesis. Options may have arguments: they directly follow the option. This example may make it easier to remember what is an option and what is an argument:

```plaintext
)syscmd arg1 arg2 opt1 opt1arg1 opt1arg2 opt2 opt2arg1 ...
```

In the system command descriptions, optional arguments and options are enclosed in brackets ("["] and "]"). If an argument or option name is in italics, it is meant to be a variable and must have some actual value substituted for it when the system command call is made. For example, the syntax pattern description

```plaintext
)read fileName [ )quietly]
```

would imply that you must provide an actual file name for `fileName` but need not use the `)quietly` option. Thus

```plaintext
)read matrix.input
```

is a valid instance of the above pattern.

System command names and options may be abbreviated and may be in upper or lower case. The case of actual arguments may be significant, depending on the particular situation (such as in file names). System command names and options may be abbreviated to the minimum number of starting letters so that the name or option is unique. Thus

```plaintext
) s Integer
```

is not a valid abbreviation for the `)set` command, because both `)set` and `)show` begin with the letter "s". Typically, two or three letters are sufficient for disambiguating names. In our descriptions of the commands, we have used no abbreviations for either command names or options.

In some syntax descriptions we use a vertical line "|" to indicate that you must specify one of the listed choices. For example, in

```plaintext
)set output fortran on | off
```

only `on` and `off` are acceptable words for following `boot`. We also sometimes use "...") to indicate that additional arguments or options of the listed form are allowed. Finally, in the syntax descriptions we may also list the syntax of related commands.

### 16.2 `)abbreviation`

**User Level Required:** compiler  
**Command Syntax:**
CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

\begin{verbatim}
)abbreviation query [nameOrAbbrev]
)abbreviation category abbrev fullname []quiet
)abbreviation domain abbrev fullname []quiet
)abbreviation package abbrev fullname []quiet
)abbreviation remove nameOrAbbrev

Command Description:

This command is used to query, set and remove abbreviations for category, domain and package constructors. Every constructor must have a unique abbreviation. This abbreviation is part of the name of the subdirectory under which the components of the compiled constructor are stored. Furthermore, by issuing this command you let the system know what file to load automatically if you use a new constructor. Abbreviations must start with a letter and then be followed by up to seven letters or digits. Any letters appearing in the abbreviation must be in uppercase.

When used with the query argument, this command may be used to list the name associated with a particular abbreviation or the abbreviation for a constructor. If no abbreviation or name is given, the names and corresponding abbreviations for all constructors are listed.

The following shows the abbreviation for the constructor List:

)abbreviation query List

The following shows the constructor name corresponding to the abbreviation NNI:

)abbreviation query NNI

The following lists all constructor names and their abbreviations.

)abbreviation query

To add an abbreviation for a constructor, use this command with category, domain or package. The following add abbreviations to the system for a category, domain and package, respectively:

)abbreviation domain SET Set
)abbreviation category COMPCAT ComplexCategory
)abbreviation package LIST2MAP ListToMap

If the )quiet option is used, no output is displayed from this command. You would normally only define an abbreviation in a library source file. If this command is issued for a constructor that has already been loaded, the constructor will be reloaded next time it is referenced. In particular, you can use this command to force the automatic reloading of constructors.
\end{verbatim}
To remove an abbreviation, the `remove` argument is used. This is usually only used to correct a previous command that set an abbreviation for a constructor name. If, in fact, the abbreviation does exist, you are prompted for confirmation of the removal request. Either of the following commands will remove the abbreviation `VECTOR2` and the constructor name `VectorFunctions2` from the system:

\begin{verbatim}
)abbreviation remove VECTOR2
)abbreviation remove VectorFunctions2
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Also See: \texttt{\textbackslash compile}}

### 16.3 \texttt{\textbackslash boot}

\textbf{User Level Required:} development

\textbf{Command Syntax:}

\begin{verbatim}
)boot bootExpression
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Command Description:}

This command is used by Axiom system developers to execute expressions written in the BOOT language. For example,

\begin{verbatim}
)boot times3(x) == 3*x
\end{verbatim}

creates and compiles the Common Lisp function “times3” obtained by translating the BOOT code.

\textbf{Also See: \texttt{\textbackslash fin}, \texttt{\textbackslash lisp}, \texttt{\textbackslash set}, and \texttt{\textbackslash system}.}

### 16.4 \texttt{\textbackslash cd}

\textbf{User Level Required:} interpreter

\textbf{Command Syntax:}

\begin{verbatim}
)cd directory
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Command Description:}

This command sets the Axiom working current directory. The current directory is used for looking for input files (for \texttt{\textbackslash read}), Axiom library source files (for \texttt{\textbackslash compile}), saved history environment files (for \texttt{\textbackslash history \textbackslash restore}), compiled Axiom library files (for \texttt{\textbackslash library}), and files to edit (for \texttt{\textbackslash edit}). It is also used for writing spool files (via \texttt{\textbackslash spool}), writing history input files (via \texttt{\textbackslash history \textbackslash write}) and history environment files (via \texttt{\textbackslash history \textbackslash save}), and compiled Axiom library files (via \texttt{\textbackslash compile}).
If issued with no argument, this command sets the Axiom current directory to your home directory. If an argument is used, it must be a valid directory name. Except for the “)” at the beginning of the command, this has the same syntax as the operating system cd command.

Also See: )compile, )edit, )history, )library, )read, and )spool.

16.5  )close

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

)close

)close )quietly

Command Description:

This command is used to close down interpreter client processes. Such processes are started by HyperDoc to run Axiom examples when you click on their text. When you have finished examining or modifying the example and you do not want the extra window around anymore, issue )close to the Axiom prompt in the window.

If you try to close down the last remaining interpreter client process, Axiom will offer to close down the entire Axiom session and return you to the operating system by displaying something like

This is the last AXIOM session. Do you want to kill AXIOM?

Type “y” (followed by the Return key) if this is what you had in mind. Type “n” (followed by the Return key) to cancel the command.

You can use the )quietly option to force Axiom to close down the interpreter client process without closing down the entire Axiom session.

Also See: )quit and )pquit.

16.6  )clear

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

)clear all

)clear completely
CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

\)clear properties all
\)clear properties obj1 [obj2 ...]
\)clear value all
\)clear value obj1 [obj2 ...]
\)clear mode all
\)clear mode obj1 [obj2 ...]

**Command Description:**

This command is used to remove function and variable declarations, definitions and values from the workspace. To empty the entire workspace and reset the step counter to 1, issue

\)clear all

To remove everything in the workspace but not reset the step counter, issue

\)clear properties all

To remove everything about the object \(x\), issue

\)clear properties x

To remove everything about the objects \(x, y\) and \(f\), issue

\)clear properties x y f

The word *properties* may be abbreviated to the single letter “p”.

\)clear p all
\)clear p x
\)clear p x y f

All definitions of functions and values of variables may be removed by either

\)clear value all
\)clear v all

This retains whatever declarations the objects had. To remove definitions and values for the specific objects \(x, y\) and \(f\), issue

\)clear value x y f
\)clear v x y f
To remove the declarations of everything while leaving the definitions and values, issue

)clear mode all
)clear m all

To remove declarations for the specific objects \(x, y\) and \(f\), issue

)clear mode \(x, y\ f\)
)clear m \(x, y\ f\)

The \)display names and \)display properties commands may be used to see what is currently in the workspace.

The command

)clear completely

does everything that \)clear all does, and also clears the internal system function and constructor caches.

Also See: \)display, \)history, and \)undo.

16.7 \)compile

User Level Required: compiler

Command Syntax:

)compile
)compile fileName
)compile fileName.as
)compile directory/fileName.as
)compile fileName.ao
)compile directory/fileName.ao
)compile fileName.al
)compile directory/fileName.al
)compile fileName.lsp
)compile directory/fileName.lsp
)compile fileName.spad
)compile directory/fileName.spad
CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

You use this command to invoke the new Axiom library compiler or the old Axiom system compiler. The }compile system command is actually a combination of Axiom processing and a call to the Aldor compiler. It is performing double-duty, acting as a front-end to both the Aldor compiler and the old Axiom system compiler. (The old Axiom system compiler was written in Lisp and was an integral part of the Axiom environment. The Aldor compiler is written in C and executed by the operating system when called from within Axiom.)

The command compiles files with file extensions .as, .ao and .al with the Aldor compiler and files with file extension .spad with the old Axiom system compiler. It also can compile files with file extension .lsp. These are assumed to be Lisp files generated by the Aldor compiler. If you omit the file extension, the command looks to see if you have specified the }new or }old option. If you have given one of these options, the corresponding compiler is used. Otherwise, the command first looks in the standard system directories for files with extension .as, .ao and .al and then files with extension .spad. The first file found has the appropriate compiler invoked on it. If the command cannot find a matching file, an error message is displayed and the command terminates.

The }translate option is used to invoke a special version of the old system compiler that will translate a .spad file to a .as file. That is, the .spad file will be parsed and analyzed and a file using the new syntax will be created. By default, the .as file is created in the same directory as the .spad file. If that directory is not writable, the current directory is used. If the current directory is not writable, an error message is given and the command terminates. Note that }translate implies the }old option so
the file extension can safely be omitted. If \texttt{translate} is given, all other options are ignored. Please be aware that the translation is not necessarily one hundred percent complete or correct. You should attempt to compile the output with the Aldor compiler and make any necessary corrections.

We now describe the options for the new Aldor compiler.

The first thing \texttt{)compile} does is look for a source code filename among its arguments. Thus

\begin{verbatim}
)compile mycode.as
)compile /u/jones/as/mycode.as
)compile mycode
\end{verbatim}

all invoke \texttt{)compiler on the file /u/jones/as/mycode.as} if the current Axiom working directory is \texttt{/u/jones/as}. (Recall that you can set the working directory via the \texttt{)cd command}. If you don’t set it explicitly, it is the directory from which you started Axiom.)

This is frequently all you need to compile your file. This simple command:

1. Invokes the Aldor compiler and produces Lisp output.
2. Calls the Lisp compiler if the Aldor compilation was successful.
3. Uses the \texttt{)library command} to tell Axiom about the contents of your compiled file and arrange to have those contents loaded on demand.

Should you not want the \texttt{)library command} automatically invoked, call \texttt{)compile with the )nolibrary option}. For example,

\begin{verbatim}
)compile mycode.as )nolibrary
\end{verbatim}

The general description of Aldor command line arguments is in the Aldor documentation. The default options used by the \texttt{)compile command} can be viewed and set using the \texttt{)set compiler args} Axiom system command. The current defaults are

\begin{verbatim}
-O -Fasy -Fao -Flsp -laxiom -Mno-AXL_W_WillObsolete -DAxiom
\end{verbatim}

These options mean:

- \texttt{-O}: perform all optimizations,
- \texttt{-Fasy}: generate a \texttt{.asy} file,
- \texttt{-Fao}: generate a \texttt{.ao} file,
- \texttt{-Flsp}: generate a \texttt{.lsp} (Lisp) file,
- \texttt{-laxiom}: use the \texttt{axiom library libaxiom.al},
CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

- `-Mno-AXL_W_WillObsolete`: do not display messages about older generated files becoming obsolete, and
- `-DAxiom`: define the global assertion Axiom so that the Aldor libraries for generating stand-alone code are not accidentally used with Axiom.

To supplement these default arguments, use the `moreargs` option on `compile`. For example,

)`compile mycode.as moreargs "-v"

uses the default arguments and appends the `-v` (verbose) argument flag. The additional argument specification must be enclosed in double quotes.

To completely replace these default arguments for a particular use of `compile`, use the `onlyargs` option. For example,

)`compile mycode.as onlyargs "-v -O"

only uses the `-v` (verbose) and `-O` (optimize) arguments. The argument specification must be enclosed in double quotes. In this example, Lisp code is not produced and so the compilation output will not be available to Axiom.

To completely replace the default arguments for all calls to `compile` within your Axiom session, use `set compiler args`. For example, to use the above arguments for all compilations, issue

)`set compiler args "-v -O"

Make sure you include the necessary `-l` and `-Y` arguments along with those needed for Lisp file creation. As above, the argument specification must be enclosed in double quotes.

By default, the `library` system command exposes all domains and categories it processes. This means that the Axiom interpreter will consider those domains and categories when it is trying to resolve a reference to a function. Sometimes domains and categories should not be exposed. For example, a domain may just be used privately by another domain and may not be meant for top-level use. The `library` command should still be used, though, so that the code will be loaded on demand. In this case, you should use the `nolibrary` option on `compile` and the `noexpose` option in the `library` command. For example,

)`compile mycode.as nolibrary
)`library mycode noexpose

Once you have established your own collection of compiled code, you may find it handy to use the `dir` option on the `library` command. This causes `library` to process all compiled code in the specified directory. For example,
You must give an explicit directory after `dir`, even if you want all compiled code in the current working directory processed, e.g.

```
)library )dir .
```

The `)compile` command works with several file extensions. We saw above what happens when it is invoked on a file with extension `.as`. A `.ao` file is a portable binary compiled version of a `.as` file, and `)compile` simply passes the `.ao` file onto Aldor. The generated Lisp file is compiled and `)library` is automatically called, just as if you had specified a `.as` file.

A `.al` file is an archive file containing `.ao` files. The archive is created (on Unix systems) with the `ar` program. When `)compile` is given a `.al` file, it creates a directory whose name is based on that of the archive. For example, if you issue

```
)compile mylib.al
```

the directory `mylib.axldir` is created. All members of the archive are unarchived into the directory and `)compile` is called on each `.ao` file found. It is your responsibility to remove the directory and its contents, if you choose to do so.

A `.lsp` file is a Lisp source file, presumably, in our context, generated by Aldor when called with the `-Flsp` option. When `)compile` is used with a `.lsp` file, the Lisp file is compiled and `)library` is called. You must also have present a `.asy` generated from the same source file.

The following are descriptions of options for the old system compiler.

You can compile category, domain, and package constructors contained in files with file extension `.spad`. You can compile individual constructors or every constructor in a file.

The full filename is remembered between invocations of this command and `)edit` commands. The sequence of commands

```
)compile matrix.spad
)edit
)compile
```

will call the compiler, edit, and then call the compiler again on the file `matrix.spad`.

If you do not specify a directory, the working current directory (see ?? on page ??) is searched for the file. If the file is not found, the standard system directories are searched.

If you do not give any options, all constructors within a file are compiled. Each constructor should have an `)abbreviation` command in the file in which it is defined. We suggest that you place the `)abbreviation` commands at the top of the file in the
order in which the constructors are defined. The list of commands serves as a table of
contents for the file.

The \texttt{library} option causes directories containing the compiled code for each con-
structor to be created in the working current directory. The name of such a directory
consists of the constructor abbreviation and the \texttt{.NRLIB} file extension. For example,
the directory containing the compiled code for the \texttt{MATRIX} constructor is called \texttt{MAT-
RIX.NRLIB}. The \texttt{nolibrary} option says that such files should not be created. The
default is \texttt{library}. Note that the semantics of \texttt{library} and \texttt{nolibrary} for the
new Aldor compiler and for the old system compiler are completely different.

The \texttt{vartrace} option causes the compiler to generate extra code for the constructor
to support conditional tracing of variable assignments. (see ?? on page ??). Without
this option, this code is suppressed and one cannot use the \texttt{vars} option for the trace
command.

The \texttt{constructor} option is used to specify a particular constructor to compile. All
other constructors in the file are ignored. The constructor name or abbreviation follows
\texttt{constructor}. Thus either

\begin{verbatim}
)compile matrix.spad )constructor RectangularMatrix
\end{verbatim}

or

\begin{verbatim}
)compile matrix.spad )constructor RMATRIX
\end{verbatim}

compiles the \texttt{RectangularMatrix} constructor defined in \texttt{matrix.spad}.

The \texttt{break} and \texttt{nobreak} options determine what the old system compiler does when
it encounters an error. \texttt{break} is the default and it indicates that processing should stop
at the first error. The value of the \texttt{set break} variable then controls what happens.

Also See: \texttt{abbreviation}, \texttt{edit}, and \texttt{library}.

16.8 \texttt{display}

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

\begin{verbatim}
)display all
)display properties
)display properties all
)display properties [\texttt{obj1} [\texttt{obj2} ...]]
)display value all
)display value [\texttt{obj1} [\texttt{obj2} ...]]
\end{verbatim}
CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

\[
\text{\texttt{display mode all}} \\
\text{\texttt{display mode \{obj1 obj2 \ldots\}}} \\
\text{\texttt{display names}} \\
\text{\texttt{display operations opName}}
\]

Command Description:

This command is used to display the contents of the workspace and signatures of functions with a given name.\(^1\)

The command

\[
\text{\texttt{display names}}
\]

lists the names of all user-defined objects in the workspace. This is useful if you do not wish to see everything about the objects and need only be reminded of their names.

The commands

\[
\text{\texttt{display all}} \\
\text{\texttt{display properties}} \\
\text{\texttt{display properties all}}
\]

all do the same thing: show the values and types and declared modes of all variables in the workspace. If you have defined functions, their signatures and definitions will also be displayed.

To show all information about a particular variable or user functions, for example, something named \texttt{d}, issue

\[
\text{\texttt{display properties d}}
\]

To just show the value (and the type) of \texttt{d}, issue

\[
\text{\texttt{display value d}}
\]

To just show the declared mode of \texttt{d}, issue

\[
\text{\texttt{display mode d}}
\]

All modemap s for a given operation may be displayed by using \texttt{display operations}. A modemap is a collection of information about a particular reference to an operation. This includes the types of the arguments and the return value, the location of the implementation and any conditions on the types. The modemap may contain patterns. The following displays the modemap for the operation \texttt{complex}:

\[
\text{\texttt{d op complex}}
\]

Also See: \texttt{clear, history, set, show, and what}.

\(^1\)A signature gives the argument and return types of a function.
16.9  )edit

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

)edit [filename]

Command Description:

This command is used to edit files. It works in conjunction with the )read and )compile commands to remember the name of the file on which you are working. By specifying the name fully, you can edit any file you wish. Thus

)edit /u/julius/matrix.input

will place you in an editor looking at the file /u/julius/matrix.input. By default, the editor is vi, but if you have an EDITOR shell environment variable defined, that editor will be used. When Axiom is running under the X Window System, it will try to open a separate xterm running your editor if it thinks one is necessary. For example, under the Korn shell, if you issue

export EDITOR=emacs

then the emacs editor will be used by )edit.

If you do not specify a file name, the last file you edited, read or compiled will be used. If there is no “last file” you will be placed in the editor editing an empty unnamed file. It is possible to use the )system command to edit a file directly. For example,

)system emacs /etc/rc.tcpip

calls emacs to edit the file.

Also See: )system, )compile, and )read.

16.10  )fin

User Level Required: development

Command Syntax:

)fin

Command Description:

This command is used by Axiom developers to leave the Axiom system and return to the underlying Common Lisp system. To return to Axiom, issue the “(spad)” function call to Common Lisp.

Also See: )pquit and )quit.
16.11 )frame

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

- )frame new *frameName*
- )frame drop [*frameName*]
- )frame next
- )frame last
- )frame names
- )frame import *frameName* [*objectName1* [*objectName2* ...]]
- )set message frame on | off
- )set message prompt frame

Command Description:

A frame can be thought of as a logical session within the physical session that you get when you start the system. You can have as many frames as you want, within the limits of your computer’s storage, paging space, and so on. Each frame has its own step number, environment and history. You can have a variable named a in one frame and it will have nothing to do with anything that might be called a in any other frame.

Some frames are created by the HyperDoc program and these can have pretty strange names, since they are generated automatically. To find out the names of all frames, issue

- )frame names

It will indicate the name of the current frame.

You create a new frame “quark” by issuing

- )frame new quark

The history facility can be turned on by issuing either)set history on or )history on. If the history facility is on and you are saving history information in a file rather than in the Axiom environment then a history file with filename quark.axh will be created as you enter commands. If you wish to go back to what you were doing in the “initial” frame, use

- )frame next

or
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)`frame last`

to cycle through the ring of available frames to get back to “initial”.

If you want to throw away a frame (say “quark”), issue

)`frame drop quark`

If you omit the name, the current frame is dropped.

If you do use frames with the history facility on and writing to a file, you may want to delete some of the older history files. These are directories, so you may want to issue a command like `rm -r quark.axh` to the operating system.

You can bring things from another frame by using `)`frame import. For example, to bring the f and g from the frame “quark” to the current frame, issue

)`frame import quark f g`

If you want everything from the frame “quark”, issue

)`frame import quark`

You will be asked to verify that you really want everything.

There are two `)`set flags to make it easier to tell where you are.

)`set message frame on | off`

will print more messages about frames when it is set on. By default, it is off.

)`set message prompt frame`

will give a prompt that looks like

`initial (1) ->`

when you start up. In this case, the frame name and step make up the prompt.

Also See: `)`history and `)`set.

16.12 `)`help

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:
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Command Description:
This command displays help information about system commands. If you issue

)help

then this very text will be shown. You can also give the name or abbreviation of a system command to display information about it. For example,

)help clear

will display the description of the )clear system command.

All this material is available in the Axiom User Guide and in HyperDoc. In HyperDoc, choose the Commands item from the Reference menu.

16.13 )history

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

)history )on
)history )off
)history )write historyInputFileName
)history )show [n] [both]
)history )save savedHistoryName
)history )restore [savedHistoryName]
)history )reset
)history )change n
)history )memory
)history )file
%
%% (n)
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\{set\} history on | off

Command Description:
The \texttt{history} facility within Axiom allows you to restore your environment to that of another session and recall previous computational results. Additional commands allow you to review previous input lines and to create an \texttt{.input} file of the lines typed to Axiom.

Axiom saves your input and output if the history facility is turned on (which is the default). This information is saved if either of

\{set\} history on
\{history\} on

has been issued. Issuing either

\{set\} history off
\{history\} off

will discontinue the recording of information.

Whether the facility is disabled or not, the value of \texttt{%} in Axiom always refers to the result of the last computation. If you have not yet entered anything, \texttt{%} evaluates to an object of type \texttt{Variable(\%)}. The function \texttt{\%} may be used to refer to other previous results if the history facility is enabled. In that case, \texttt{\%(n)} is the output from step \texttt{n} if \texttt{n > 0}. If \texttt{n < 0}, the step is computed relative to the current step. Thus \texttt{\%(\texttt{-1})} is also the previous step, \texttt{\%(\texttt{-2})}, is the step before that, and so on. If an invalid step number is given, Axiom will signal an error.

The environment information can either be saved in a file or entirely in memory (the default). Each frame (16.11 on page 980) has its own history database. When it is kept in a file, some of it may also be kept in memory for efficiency. When the information is saved in a file, the name of the file is of the form \texttt{FRAME.axh} where “\texttt{FRAME}” is the name of the current frame. The history file is placed in the current working directory (see ?? on page ??). Note that these history database files are not text files (in fact, they are directories themselves), and so are not in human-readable format.

The options to the \{history\} command are as follows:

\{change\} \texttt{n} will set the number of steps that are saved in memory to \texttt{n}. This option only has effect when the history data is maintained in a file. If you have issued \{history\} memory (or not changed the default) there is no need to use \{history\} change.

\{on\} will start the recording of information. If the workspace is not empty, you will be asked to confirm this request. If you do so, the workspace will be cleared and history data will begin being saved. You can also turn the facility on by issuing \{set\} history on.
)off will stop the recording of information. The )show command will not
work after issuing this command. Note that this command may be issued to save
time, as there is some performance penalty paid for saving the environment data.
You can also turn the facility off by issuing )set history off.

)file indicates that history data should be saved in an external file on disk.

)memory indicates that all history data should be kept in memory rather than saved
in a file. Note that if you are computing with very large objects it may not be
practical to keep this data in memory.

)reset will flush the internal list of the most recent workspace calculations so that
the data structures may be garbage collected by the underlying Common Lisp
system. Like )history )change, this option only has real effect when history
data is being saved in a file.

)restore [savedHistoryName] completely clears the environment and restores it to
a saved session, if possible. The )save option below allows you to save a ses-
sion to a file with a given name. If you had issued )history )save jacobi
the command )history )restore jacobi would clear the current workspace
and load the contents of the named saved session. If no saved session name is
specified, the system looks for a file called last.axh.

)save savedHistoryName is used to save a snapshot of the environment in a file. This
file is placed in the current working directory (see ?? on page ??). Use )history
)restore to restore the environment to the state preserved in the file. This option
also creates an input file containing all the lines of input since you created the
workspace frame (for example, by starting your Axiom session) or last did a
)clear all or )clear completely.

)show [n] [both] can show previous input lines and output results. )show will dis-
play up to twenty of the last input lines (fewer if you haven’t typed in twenty
lines). )show n will display up to n of the last input lines. )show both will dis-
play up to five of the last input lines and output results. )show n both will
display up to n of the last input lines and output results.

)write historyInputFileName creates an .input file with the input lines typed since the start
of the session/frame or the last )clear all or )clear completely. If historyInputFileName does not contain a period (“.”) in the filename, .input is
appended to it. For example, )history )write chaos and )history )write
chaos.input both write the input lines to a file called chaos.input in your cur-
rent working directory. If you issued one or more )undo commands, )history
)write eliminates all input lines backtracked over as a result of )undo. You can
edit this file and then use )read to have Axiom process the contents.

Also See: )frame, )read, )set, and )undo.
16.14 \textbf{library}

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

\begin{verbatim}
)library libName1 [libName2 ...]
)library )dir dirName
)library )only objName1 [objlib2 ...]
)library )noexpose
\end{verbatim}

Command Description:

This command replaces the \texttt{)load} system command that was available in Axiom releases before version 2.0. The \texttt{)library} command makes available to Axiom the compiled objects in the libraries listed.

For example, if you \texttt{)compile dopler.as} in your home directory, issue \texttt{)library dopler} to have Axiom look at the library, determine the category and domain constructors present, update the internal database with various properties of the constructors, and arrange for the constructors to be automatically loaded when needed. If the \texttt{)noexpose} option has not been given, the constructors will be exposed (that is, available) in the current frame.

If you compiled a file with the old system compiler, you will have an \texttt{NRLIB} present, for example, \texttt{DOPLER.NRLIB}, where DOPLER is a constructor abbreviation. The command \texttt{)library DOPLER} will then do the analysis and database updates as above.

To tell the system about all libraries in a directory, use \texttt{)library )dir dirName} where \texttt{dirName} is an explicit directory. You may specify `.` as the directory, which means the current directory from which you started the system or the one you set via the \texttt{)cd} command. The directory name is required.

You may only want to tell the system about particular constructors within a library. In this case, use the \texttt{)only} option. The command \texttt{)library dopler )only Test1} will only cause the Test1 constructor to be analyzed, autoloaded, etc.

Finally, each constructor in a library are usually automatically exposed when the \texttt{)library} command is used. Use the \texttt{)noexpose} option if you not want them exposed. At a later time you can use \texttt{)set expose add constructor} to expose any hidden constructors.

Note for Axiom beta testers: At various times this command was called \texttt{)local} and \texttt{)with} before the name \texttt{)library} became the official name.

Also See: \texttt{)cd,}\texttt{)compile,}\texttt{)frame, and}\texttt{)set}.
16.15  )lisp

User Level Required: development

Command Syntax:

)lisp [lispExpression]

Command Description:
This command is used by Axiom system developers to have single expressions evaluated by the Common Lisp system on which Axiom is built. The lispExpression is read by the Common Lisp reader and evaluated. If this expression is not complete (unbalanced parentheses, say), the reader will wait until a complete expression is entered. Since this command is only useful for evaluating single expressions, the )fin command may be used to drop out of Axiom into Common Lisp.

Also See: }system, }boot, and }fin.

16.16  )load

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Description:
This command is obsolete. Use }library instead.

16.17  )trace

User Level Required: development

Command Syntax:
This command has the same arguments as options as the )trace command.

Command Description:
This command is used by Axiom system developers to trace Common Lisp or BOOT functions. It is not supported for general use.

Also See: }boot, }lisp, and }trace.

16.18  )pquit

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

)pquit


CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

**Command Description:**

This command is used to terminate Axiom and return to the operating system. Other than by redoing all your computations or by using the \texttt{)history restore} command to try to restore your working environment, you cannot return to Axiom in the same state.

\texttt{)pquit} differs from \texttt{))quit} in that it always asks for confirmation that you want to terminate Axiom (the “p” is for “protected”). When you enter the \texttt{)pquit} command, Axiom responds

Please enter \texttt{y} or \texttt{yes} if you really want to leave the interactive environment and return to the operating system:

If you respond with \texttt{y} or \texttt{yes}, you will see the message

\begin{quote}
You are now leaving the Axiom interactive environment.
Issue the command \texttt{axiom} to the operating system to start a new session.
\end{quote}

and Axiom will terminate and return you to the operating system (or the environment from which you invoked the system). If you responded with something other than \texttt{y} or \texttt{yes}, then the message

\begin{quote}
You have chosen to remain in the Axiom interactive environment.
\end{quote}

will be displayed and, indeed, Axiom would still be running.

**Also See:** \texttt{)fin}, \texttt{)history}, \texttt{)}close, \texttt{)quit}, and \texttt{)system}.

### 16.19 \texttt{)quit}

**User Level Required:** interpreter

**Command Syntax:**

\begin{verbatim}
)quit
)set quit protected | unprotected
\end{verbatim}

**Command Description:**

This command is used to terminate Axiom and return to the operating system. Other than by redoing all your computations or by using the \texttt{)history restore} command to try to restore your working environment, you cannot return to Axiom in the same state.

\texttt{)quit} differs from \texttt{)pquit} in that it asks for confirmation only if the command

\begin{verbatim}
)set quit protected
\end{verbatim}
has been issued. Otherwise, )quit will make Axiom terminate and return you to the operating system (or the environment from which you invoked the system).

The default setting is )set quit protected so that )quit and )pquit behave in the same way. If you do issue

)set quit unprotected

we suggest that you do not (somehow) assign )quit to be executed when you press, say, a function key.

Also See: )fin, )history, )close, )pquit, and )system.

16.20 )read

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

)read [fileName]

)read [fileName] [)quiet] [)ifthere]

Command Description:

This command is used to read .input files into Axiom. The command

)read matrix.input

will read the contents of the file matrix.input into Axiom. The “.input” file extension is optional. See 4.1 on page 177 for more information about .input files.

This command remembers the previous file you edited, read or compiled. If you do not specify a file name, the previous file will be read.

The )ifthere option checks to see whether the .input file exists. If it does not, the )read command does nothing. If you do not use this option and the file does not exist, you are asked to give the name of an existing .input file.

The )quiet option suppresses output while the file is being read.

Also See: )compile, )edit, and )history.

16.21 )set

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

)set

)set label1 [...] labelN
CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

\texttt{\texttt{)}set label1 [... labelN} new\texttt{Value}

\textbf{Command Description:}

The \texttt{)}set command is used to view or set system variables that control what messages are displayed, the type of output desired, the status of the history facility, the way Axiom user functions are cached, and so on. Since this collection is very large, we will not discuss them here. Rather, we will show how the facility is used. We urge you to explore the \texttt{)}set options to familiarize yourself with how you can modify your Axiom working environment. There is a HyperDoc version of this same facility available from the main HyperDoc menu.

The \texttt{)}set command is command-driven with a menu display. It is tree-structured. To see all top-level nodes, issue \texttt{)}set by itself.

\texttt{)}set

Variables with values have them displayed near the right margin. Subtrees of selections have “...” displayed in the value field. For example, there are many kinds of messages, so issue \texttt{)}set message to see the choices.

\texttt{)}set message

The current setting for the variable that displays whether computation times are displayed is visible in the menu displayed by the last command. To see more information, issue

\texttt{)}set message time

This shows that time printing is on now. To turn it off, issue

\texttt{)}set message time off

As noted above, not all settings have so many qualifiers. For example, to change the \texttt{)}quit command to being unprotected (that is, you will not be prompted for verification), you need only issue

\texttt{)}set quit unprotected

\textit{Also See: \texttt{)}quit.}

\subsection{16.22 }show

\textbf{User Level Required:} interpreter

\textbf{Command Syntax:}
CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

)show nameOrAbbrev
)show nameOrAbbrev )operations
)show nameOrAbbrev )attributes

Command Description: This command displays information about Axiom domain, package and category constructors. If no options are given, the )operations option is assumed. For example,

)show POLY
)show POLY )operations
)show Polynomial
)show Polynomial )operations

each display basic information about the Polynomial domain constructor and then provide a listing of operations. Since Polynomial requires a Ring (for example, Integer) as argument, the above commands all refer to an unspecified ring R. In the list of operations, $ means Polynomial(R).

The basic information displayed includes the signature of the constructor (the name and arguments), the constructor abbreviation, the exposure status of the constructor, and the name of the library source file for the constructor.

If operation information about a specific domain is wanted, the full or abbreviated domain name may be used. For example,

)show POLY INT
)show POLY INT )operations
)show Polynomial Integer
)show Polynomial Integer )operations

are among the combinations that will display the operations exported by the domain Polynomial(Integer) (as opposed to the general domain constructor Polynomial). Attributes may be listed by using the )attributes option.

Also See: )display, )set, and )what.

16.23 )spool

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

)spool [fileName]

)spool

Command Description:
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This command is used to save (spool) all Axiom input and output into a file, called a spool file. You can only have one spool file active at a time. To start spool, issue this command with a filename. For example,

)spool integrate.out

To stop spooling, issue )spool with no filename.

If the filename is qualified with a directory, then the output will be placed in that directory. If no directory information is given, the spool file will be placed in the current directory. The current directory is the directory from which you started Axiom or is the directory you specified using the )cd command.

Also See: )cd.

16.24 )synonym

User Level Required: interpreter

Command Syntax:

)synonym

)synonym synonym fullCommand

)what synonyms

Command Description:

This command is used to create short synonyms for system command expressions. For example, the following synonyms might simplify commands you often use.

)synonym save history )save
)synonym restore history )restore
)synonym mail system mail
)synonym ls system ls
)synonym fortran set output fortran

Once defined, synonyms can be used in place of the longer command expressions. Thus

)fortran on

is the same as the longer

)set fortran output on

To list all defined synonyms, issue either of
16.25 \texttt{\textbackslash system}

\textbf{User Level Required:} interpreter

\textbf{Command Syntax:}

\begin{verbatim}
)system cmdExpression
\end{verbatim}

\textbf{Command Description:}

This command may be used to issue commands to the operating system while remaining in Axiom. The \textit{cmdExpression} is passed to the operating system for execution.

To get an operating system shell, issue, for example, \texttt{)system sh}. When you enter the key combination, [Ctrl]–[D] (pressing and holding the [Ctrl] key and then pressing the [D] key) the shell will terminate and you will return to Axiom. We do not recommend this way of creating a shell because Common Lisp may field some interrupts instead of the shell. If possible, use a shell running in another window.

If you execute programs that misbehave you may not be able to return to Axiom. If this happens, you may have no other choice than to restart Axiom and restore the environment via \texttt{)history restore}, if possible.

\textbf{Also See:} \texttt{\textbackslash boot,} \texttt{\textbackslash fin,} \texttt{\textbackslash lisp,} \texttt{\textbackslash pquit,} and \texttt{\textbackslash quit}.

16.26 \texttt{\textbackslash trace}

\textbf{User Level Required:} interpreter

\textbf{Command Syntax:}

\begin{verbatim}
)trace
)trace off
)trace function [options]
)trace constructor [options]
)trace domainOrPackage [options]
\end{verbatim}

where options can be one or more of
CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

)after S-expression
)before S-expression
)break after
)break before
)cond S-expression
)count
)count n
)depth n
)local op1 [... opN]
)nonquietly
)nt
)off
)only listOfDataToDisplay
)ops
)ops op1 [... opN]
)restore
)stats
)stats reset
)timer
)varbreak
)varbreak var1 [... varN]
)vars
)vars var1 [... varN]
)within executingFunction

Command Description:
This command is used to trace the execution of functions that make up the Axiom system, functions defined by users, and functions from the system library. Almost all options are available for each type of function but exceptions will be noted below.

To list all functions, constructors, domains and packages that are traced, simply issue
CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

)trace

To untrace everything that is traced, issue

)trace )off

When a function is traced, the default system action is to display the arguments to the function and the return value when the function is exited. Note that if a function is left via an action such as a THRO, no return value will be displayed. Also, optimization of tail recursion may decrease the number of times a function is actually invoked and so may cause less trace information to be displayed. Other information can be displayed or collected when a function is traced and this is controlled by the various options. Most options will be of interest only to Axiom system developers. If a domain or package is traced, the default action is to trace all functions exported.

Individual interpreter, lisp or boot functions can be traced by listing their names after )trace. Any options that are present must follow the functions to be traced.

)trace f

traces the function f. To untrace f, issue

)trace f )off

Note that if a function name contains a special character, it will be necessary to escape the character with an underscore

)trace _/D_,1

To trace all domains or packages that are or will be created from a particular constructor, give the constructor name or abbreviation after )trace.

)trace MATRIX
)trace List Integer

The first command traces all domains currently instantiated with Matrix. If additional domains are instantiated with this constructor (for example, if you have used Matrix(Integer) and Matrix(Float)), they will be automatically traced. The second command traces List(Integer). It is possible to trace individual functions in a domain or package. See the )ops option below.

The following are the general options for the )trace command.

)break after causes a Common Lisp break loop to be entered after exiting the traced function.

)break before causes a Common Lisp break loop to be entered before entering the traced function.
)break is the same as )break before.

)count causes the system to keep a count of the number of times the traced function is entered. The total can be displayed with )trace )stats and cleared with )trace )stats reset.

)count n causes information about the traced function to be displayed for the first n executions. After the n-th execution, the function is untraced.

)depth n causes trace information to be shown for only n levels of recursion of the traced function. The command

)trace fib )depth 10

will cause the display of only 10 levels of trace information for the recursive execution of a user function fib.

)math causes the function arguments and return value to be displayed in the Axiom monospace two-dimensional math format.

)nonquietly causes the display of additional messages when a function is traced.

)nt This suppresses all normal trace information. This option is useful if the )count or )timer options are used and you are interested in the statistics but not the function calling information.

)off causes untracing of all or specific functions. Without an argument, all functions, constructors, domains and packages are untraced. Otherwise, the given functions and other objects are untraced. To immediately retrace the untraced functions, issue )trace )restore.

)only listOfDataToDisplay causes only specific trace information to be shown. The items are listed by using the following abbreviations:

a display all arguments
v display return value
1 display first argument
2 display second argument
15 display the 15th argument, and so on

)restore causes the last untraced functions to be retraced. If additional options are present, they are added to those previously in effect.

)stats causes the display of statistics collected by the use of the )count and )timer options.

)stats reset resets to 0 the statistics collected by the use of the )count and )timer options.
CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

)timer causes the system to keep a count of execution times for the traced function. The total can be displayed with )trace )stats and cleared with )trace )stats reset.

)varbreak var1 [... varN] causes a Common Lisp break loop to be entered after the assignment to any of the listed variables in the traced function.

)vars causes the display of the value of any variable after it is assigned in the traced function. Note that library code must have been compiled (see ?? on page ??) using the )vartrace option in order to support this option.

)vars var1 [... varN] causes the display of the value of any of the specified variables after they are assigned in the traced function. Note that library code must have been compiled (see ?? on page ??) using the )vartrace option in order to support this option.

)within executingFunction causes the display of trace information only if the traced function is called when the given executingFunction is running.

The following are the options for tracing constructors, domains and packages.

)local [op1 [... opN]] causes local functions of the constructor to be traced. Note that to untrace an individual local function, you must use the fully qualified internal name, using the escape character _ before the semicolon.

)trace FRAC )local
)trace FRAC_;cancelGcd )off

)ops op1 [... opN] By default, all operations from a domain or package are traced when the domain or package is traced. This option allows you to specify that only particular operations should be traced. The command

)trace Integer )ops min max _+ _-

traces four operations from the domain Integer. Since + and − are special characters, it is necessary to escape them with an underscore.

Also See: )boot, )lisp, and )ltrace.

16.27 )undo

User Level Required: interpreter
Command Syntax:

)undo

)undo integer
CHAPTER 16. AXIOM SYSTEM COMMANDS

.undo integer [option]

.undo redo

where option is one of

.after

.before

**Command Description:**

This command is used to restore the state of the user environment to an earlier point in the interactive session. The argument of an )undo is an integer which must designate some step number in the interactive session.

 undo n
 undo n )after

These commands return the state of the interactive environment to that immediately after step n. If n is a positive number, then n refers to step number n. If n is a negative number, it refers to the n-th previous command (that is, undoes the effects of the last \(-n\) commands).

A )clear all resets the )undo facility. Otherwise, an )undo undoes the effect of )clear with options properties, value, and mode, and that of a previous undo. If any such system commands are given between steps n and n + 1 \((n > 0)\), their effect is undone for )undo m for any \(0 < m \leq n\).

The command )undo is equivalent to )undo -1 (it undoes the effect of the previous user expression). The command )undo 0 undoes any of the above system commands issued since the last user expression.

 undo n )before

This command returns the state of the interactive environment to that immediately before step n. Any )undo or )clear system commands given before step n will not be undone.

 undo redo

This command reads the file redo.input. created by the last )undo command. This file consists of all user input lines, excluding those backtracked over due to a previous )undo.

**Also See:** )history. The command )history )write will eliminate the "undone" command lines of your program.
16.28  )what

User Level Required:  interpreter

Command Syntax:

)what categories  pattern1  [pattern2 ...]
)
what commands  pattern1  [pattern2 ...]
)
what domains  pattern1  [pattern2 ...]
)
what operations  pattern1  [pattern2 ...]
)
what packages  pattern1  [pattern2 ...]
)
what synonym  pattern1  [pattern2 ...]
)
what things  pattern1  [pattern2 ...]
)
apropos  pattern1  [pattern2 ...]

Command Description:
This command is used to display lists of things in the system. The patterns are all strings and, if present, restrict the contents of the lists. Only those items that contain one or more of the strings as substrings are displayed. For example,

)what synonym

displays all command synonyms,

)what synonym ver

displays all command synonyms containing the substring “ver”,

)what synonym ver pr

displays all command synonyms containing the substring “ver” or the substring “pr”. Output similar to the following will be displayed

---------------- System Command Synonyms ----------------

user-defined synonyms satisfying patterns:
  ver pr

)apr ...........................  )what things
)apropos  ......................  )what things
)prompt  ........................ )set message prompt
)version  ...................... )lisp *yearweek*
Several other things can be listed with the )what command:

categories displays a list of category constructors.

commands displays a list of system commands available at your user-level. Your user-level is set via the )set userlevel command. To get a description of a particular command, such as "')what", issue )help what.

domains displays a list of domain constructors.

operations displays a list of operations in the system library. It is recommended that you qualify this command with one or more patterns, as there are thousands of operations available. For example, say you are looking for functions that involve computation of eigenvalues. To find their names, try )what operations eig. A rather large list of operations is loaded into the workspace when this command is first issued. This list will be deleted when you clear the workspace via )clear all or )clear completely. It will be re-created if it is needed again.

packages displays a list of package constructors.

synonym lists system command synonyms.

things displays all of the above types for items containing the pattern strings as substrings. The command synonym )apropos is equivalent to )what things.

Also See: )display, )set, and )show.
Chapter 17

Categories

This is a listing of all categories in the Axiom library at the time this book was produced. Use the Browse facility (described in Chapter 14 on page 926) to get more information about these constructors.

This sample entry will help you read the following table:

| CategoryNameCategoryAbbreviation: Category\textsubscript{1} \ldots Category\textsubscript{N} with op\textsubscript{1} \ldots op\textsubscript{M} |
|---|---|

where

- Category\textsubscript{Name} is the full category name, e.g., \texttt{CommutativeRing}.
- Category\textsubscript{Abbreviation} is the category abbreviation, e.g., \texttt{COMRING}.
- Category\textsubscript{1}, \ldots, Category\textsubscript{N} is a category to which the category belongs.
- op\textsubscript{1}, \ldots, op\textsubscript{M} is an operation exported by the category.
Appendix A

constructorListing

### APPENDIX A. CONSTRUCTORLISTING

| Algebra CharacteristicNonZero CharacteristicZero characteristicPolynomial coordinates discriminant minimalPolynomial norm rank regularRepresentation represents trace traceMatrix FINAALG FiniteRankNonAssociativeAlgebra NonAssociativeAlgebra JacobiIdentity? JordanAlgebra? alternative? antiAssociative? antiCommutative? associative? associatorDependence commutative? conditionsForIdempotents coordinates flexible? jordanAdmissible? leftAlternative? leftCharacteristicPolynomial leftDiscriminant leftMinimalPolynomial leftNorm leftRecip leftRegularRepresentation leftTrace leftTraceMatrix leftUnit leftUnits lieAdmissible? lieAlgebra? noncommutativeJordanAlgebra? powerAssociative? rank recip represents rightAlternative? rightCharacteristicPolynomial rightDiscriminant rightMinimalPolynomial rightNorm rightRecip rightRegularRepresentation rightTrace rightTraceMatrix rightUnit rightUnits someBasis structuralConstants unit FSAGG FiniteSetAggregate Dictionary Finite SetAggregate cardinality complement max min universe FINITE Finite SetCategory index lookup random size FPS FloatingPointSystem RealNumberSystem base bits decreasePrecision digits exponent float increasePrecision mantissa max order precision FRAMALG FramedAlgebra FiniteRankAlgebra basis convert coordinates discriminant regularRepresentation represents traceMatrix FRNAALG FramedNonAssociativeAlgebra FiniteRankNonAssociativeAlgebra apply basis conditionsForIdempotents convert coordinates elt leftDiscriminant leftRankPolynomial leftRegularRepresentation leftTraceMatrix represents rightDiscriminant rightRankPolynomial rightRegularRepresentation rightTraceMatrix structuralConstants FAMONC FreeAbelianMonoidCategory CancellationAbelianMonoid RetractableTo * coefficient highCommonTerms mapCoef mapGen nthCoef nthFactor size terms FEVALAB FullyEvalableOver Etable Evalable InnerEvalable map FLINEXP FullyLinearlyExplicitRingOver LinearlyExplicitRingOver FPATMAB FullyPatternMatchable Object PatternMatchable FRETRETCT FullyRetractableTo RetractableTo FFCAT FunctionFieldCategory MonogenicAlgebra D absolutelyIrreducible? branchPoint? branchPointAtInfinity? complementaryBasis differentiate elt genus integral? integralAtInfinity? integralBasis integralBasisAtInfinity integralCoordinates integralDerivationMatrix integralMatrix integralMatrixAtInfinity integralRepresents inverseIntegralMatrix inverseIntegralMatrixAtInfinity nonSingularModel normalizeAtInfinity numberOfComponents primitivePart ramified? ramifiedAtInfinity? rationalPoint? rationalPoints reduceBasisAtInfinity represents singular? singularAtInfinity? yCoordinates FS FunctionSpace AbelianGroup AbelianMonoid Algebra CharacteristicNonZero CharacteristicZero ConvertibleTo ExpressionSpace Field FullyLinearlyExplicitRingOver FullyPatternMatchable FullyRetractableTo Group Monoid PartialDifferentialRing Patternable RetractableTo Ring ** / applyQuote coerce convert denom denominator eval ground ground? isExpt isMult isPlus isPower isTimes numerator univariate variables GCDDOM GcdDomain IntegralDomain gcd lcm GRALG GradedAlgebra GradedModule One product GRMOD GradedModule RetractableTo SetCategory * + - Zero degree GROUP Group Monoid ** / commutator conjugate inv HOAGG HomogeneousAggregate Aggregate SetCategory any? count every? map map! member? members parts
OneDimensionalArrayAggregate FiniteLinearAggregate OAGROUP OrderedAbelianGroup AbelianGroup OrderedCancellationAbelianMonoid OAMONS OrderedAbelianMonoid sup OrderedCancellationAbelianMonoid sup OAMON OrderedAbelianMonoid AbelianMonoid OrderedAbelianSemigroup OASGP OrderedAbelianSemigroup AbelianMonoid OrderedSet OCAMON OrderedCancellationAbelianMonoid CancellationAbelianMonoid OrderedAbelianMonoid ORDFIN OrderedFinite Finite OrderedSet ORDMON OrderedMonoid Monoid OrderedSet OMAGG OrderedMultiSetAggregate MultiSetAggregate PriorityQueueAggregate min ORDRING OrderedRing OrderedAbelianGroup OrderedMonoid Ring abs negative? positive? sign ORDSMT OrderedSet SetCategory < max min PADICCT PADicIntegerCategory CharacteristicZero EuclideanDomain approximate complete digits extend moduloP modulus order quotientByP sqrt PDRING PartialDifferentialRing Ring D differentiate PTRANFN PartialTranscendentalFunctions acosIfCan acoshIfCan acotIfCan asinIfCan asinhIfCan atanIfCan atanIfCan cotIfCan cscIfCan cschIfCan expIfCan logIfCan nRootIfCan secIfCan sechIfCan sinhIfCan sinIfCan tanIfCan tanIfCan PATAB Patternable ConvertibleTo Object PATMAB PatternMatchable SetCategory patternMatch PERMCAT PermutationCategory Group OrderedSet < cycle cycles elt eval orbit PPCURVE PlottablePlaneCurveCategory CoercibleTo listBranches xRange yRange PSCURVE PlottableSpaceCurveCategory CoercibleTo listBranches xRange yRange zRange PTCAT PointCategory VectorCategory convert cross dimension extend length point POLYCAT PolynomialCategory ConvertibleTo Evaluable FiniteAbelianMonoidRing FullyLinearlyExplicitRingOver GcdDomain InnerEvaluable OrderedSet PartialDifferentialRing PatternMatchable PolynomialFactorizationExplicit RetractableTo coefficient content degree discriminant isExpt isPlus isTimes mainVariable minimumDegree monicDivide monomial monomials multivariate primitiveMonomials primitivePart resultant squareFree squareFreePart totalDegree univariate variables PFECAT PolynomialFactorizationExplicit UniqueFactorizationDomain charthRoot conditionP factorPolynomial factorSquareFreePolynomial gcdPolynomial solveLinearPolynomialEquation squareFreePolynomial PSCAT PowerSeriesCategory AbelianMonoidRing complete monomial pole? variables PRIMCAT PrimitiveFunctionCategory integral PID PrincipalIdealDomain GcdDomain expressIdealMember principalIdeal PRQAGG PriorityQueueAggregate BagAggregate max merge merge! QUATCAT QuaternionCategory Algebra CharacteristicNonZero CharacteristicZero ConvertibleTo DifferentialExtension DivisionRing EntireRing FullyEvaluableOver FullyLinearlyExplicitRingOver FullyRetractableTo OrderedSet abs conjugate imagI imagJ imagK norm quatern rational rationalIfCan real QUAGG QueueAggregate BagAggregate back dequeue! enqueue! front length rotate! QFCAT QuotientFieldCategory Algebra CharacteristicNonZero CharacteristicZero ConvertibleTo DifferentialExtension Field FullyEvaluableOver FullyLinearlyExplicitRingOver FullyPatternMatchable OrderedRing OrderedSet Patternable PolynomialFactorizationExplicit RealConstant RetractableTo StepThrough
APPENDIX A. CONSTRUCTORLISTING

ceiling denom denominator floor fractionPart numer numerator random wholePart RADCAT RadicalCategory nthRoot sqrt REAL RealConstant ConvertibleTo RNS RealNumberSystem CharacteristicZero ConvertibleTo Field OrderedRing PatternMatchable RadicalCategory RealConstant RetractableTo abs ceiling floor fractionPart norm round truncate wholePart RMATCAT RectangularMatrixCategory BiModule HomogeneousAggregate Module antisymmetric? column diagonal? elt exquo listOfLists map matrix maxColIndex maxRowIndex minColIndex minRowIndex ncols nrows nullSpace nullity qelt rank row rowEchelon square? symmetric? RCAGG RecursiveAggregate HomogeneousAggregate children cyclic? elt leaf? leaves node? nodes setChildren! setelt setValue! value RETRACT RetractableTo coerce retract retractIfCan RMODULE RightModule AbelianGroup * RING Ring LeftModule Monoid Rng characteristic coerce RNG Rng AbelianGroup SemiGroup SEGCAT SegmentCategory SetCategory BY SEGMENT convert hi high incr lo low segment SEGXCAT SegmentExpansionCategory SegmentCategory expand map SGROUP SemiGroup SetCategory | SETAGG SetAggregate Collection SetCategory brace difference intersect subset? symmetricDifference union SETCAT SetCategory CoercibleTo Object = SEXCAT SExpressionCategory SetCategory | atom? car cdr convert destruct elt eq expr float float? integer integer? list? pair? string? symbol symbol? unequal SPFCA SpecialFunctionCategory Beta Gamma abs airyAi airyBi besselI besselJ besselK besselY digamma polygamma SMTATCAT SquareMatrixCategory Algebra BiModule DifferentialExtension FullyLinearlyExplicitRingOver FullyRetractableTo Module RectangularMatrixCategory determinant diagonal diagonalMatrix diagonalProduct inverse minor det scalarMatrix trace SKAGG StackAggregate BagAggregate depth pop! push! top STEP StepThrough SetCategory init nextItem STAGG StreamAggregate LinearAggregate UnaryRecursiveAggregate explicitlyFinite? possiblyInfinite? SRAGG StringAggregate OneDimensionalArrayAggregate coerce elt leftTrim lowerCase lowerCase! match match? position prefix? replace rightTrim split substring? suffix? trim upperCase upperCase! STRICAT StringCategory StringAggregate string TBAGG TableAggregate IndexedAggregate KeyedDictionary map setelt table SPACEC ThreeSpaceCategory SetCategory check closedCurve closedCurve? coerce components composite composites copy create3Space curve curve? enterPointData lllop lllop llop lp lprop merge mesh? modifyPointData numberOfComponents numberOfComposites objects point point? polygon polygon? subspace TRANFUN TranscendentalFunctionCategory ArcHyperbolicFunctionCategory ArcTrigonometricFunctionCategory ElementaryFunctionCategory HyperbolicFunctionCategory TrigonometricFunctionCategory pi TRIGCAT TrigonometricFunctionCategory cos cot csc sec sin tan ARR2CAT TwoDimensionalArrayCategory HomogeneousAggregate column elt fill! map map! maxColIndex maxRowIndex minColIndex minRowIndex ncols new nrows parts qelt qsetelt! row setColumn! setRow! setelt URAGG UnaryRecursiveAggregate RecursiveAggregate concat concat! cycleEntry cycleLength cycleSplit! cycleTail elt first last rest second setelt first! setelt last! setelt rest! split! tail third UFD UniqueFactorization-
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain</th>
<th>GcdDomain</th>
<th>factor</th>
<th>prime?</th>
<th>squareFree</th>
<th>squareFreePart</th>
<th>ULSCA</th>
<th>T</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UnivariateLaurentSeriesCategory</td>
<td>Field</td>
<td>RadicalCategory</td>
<td>TranscendentalFunctionCategory</td>
<td>UnivariatePowerSeriesCategory</td>
<td>integrate</td>
<td>multiplyCoefficients</td>
<td>rationalFunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QuotientFieldCategory</td>
<td>RetractableTo</td>
<td>UnivariateLaurentSeriesCategory</td>
<td>coerce</td>
<td>degree</td>
<td>laurent</td>
<td>removeZeroes</td>
<td>taylor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VectorSpace</td>
<td>Module</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>dimension</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix B

Domains

This is a listing of all domains in the Axiom library at the time this book was produced. Use the Browse facility (described in Chapter 14 on page 926) to get more information about these constructors.

This sample entry will help you read the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DomainName</th>
<th>DomainAbbreviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ALGSC</td>
<td>ALGFF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

where

- DomainName is the full domain name, e.g., Integer.
- DomainAbbreviation is the domain abbreviation, e.g., INT.
- Category\_i is a category to which the domain belongs.
- op\_j is an operation exported by the domain.

Domains

APPENDIX B. DOMAINS

1009
derivationCoordinates differentiate discriminant divide elt euclideanSize evaluateIdealMember exquo extendedEuclidean factor gcd generator genus integral?
APPENDIX B. DOMAINS

```
```
Appendix B. Domains

retractIfCan sec sech sin sinh sizeLess? solveLinearPolynomialEquation sqrt
tanh trace traceMatrix unit? unitCanonical unitNormal zero? CONTFRAC
ContinuedFraction Algebra Field 0 1 * ** + - = approximants associates?
characteristic coerce complete continuedFraction convergents denominators
divide euclideanSize expressIdealMember exquo extend extendedEuclidean
factor gcd inv lcm multiEuclidean numerators one? partialDenominators
partialNumerators partialQuotients prime? principalIdeal quo recip reduced-
ContinuedFraction reducedForm rem sizeLess? squareFree squareFreePart unit?
unitCanonical unitNormal wholePart zero? DBASE Database SetCategory
+ - = coerce display elt fullDisplay DFLOAT DoubleFloat ConvertibleTo
DifferentialRing FloatingPointSystem TranscendentalFunctionCategory 0 1 * **
+ - / < = D abs acos acosh acot acoth acsc acsch asec asech asin asinh associates?
atanh base bits ceiling characteristic coerce convert cos cosh cot csc
csch decreasePrecision differentiate digits divide euclideanSize exp exp1 exponent
expressIdealMember exquo extendedEuclidean factor float floor fractionPart gcd
hash increasePrecision inv lcm log log10 log2 mantissa max min multiEuclidean
negative? norm nthRoot one? order patternMatch pi positive? precision
prime? principalIdeal quo rationalApproximation recip rem retract retractIfCan
round sec sech sign sin sinh sizeLess? sqrt squareFree squareFreePart tanh
truncate unit? unitCanonical unitNormal wholePart zero? DLIST DataList
ListAggregate # < = any? children coerce concat concat! construct convert copy
copyInto! count cycleEntry cycleLength cycleSplit! cycleTail cyclic? datalist
delete delete! elt empty empty? entries entry? eq? every? explicitlyFinite?
fill! find first index? indices insert insert! last leaf? leaves less? list map map!
max maxIndex member? members merge merge! min minIndex more? new
node? nodes parts position possiblyInfinite? qelt qsetelt! reduce remove remove!
removeDuplicates removeDuplicates! rest reverse reverse! second select select!
setchildren! setelt setfirst! setlast! setrest! setvalue! size? sort sort! sorted? split!
swap! tail third value DECIMAL DecimalExpansion QuotientFieldCategory 0
1 * ** + - / < = D abs associates? ceiling characteristic coerce convert decimal
denom denominator differentiate divide euclideanSize expressIdealMember
exquo extendedEuclidean factor floor fractionPart gcd init inv lcm map max
min multiEuclidean negative? nextItem numer numerator one? patternMatch
positive? prime? principalIdeal quo random recip reducedSystem rem retract
retractIfCan sign sizeLess? squareFree squareFreePart unit? unitCanonical
unitNormal wholePart zero? DHMATRIX DenavitHartenbergMatrix Matrix
Category # * ** + - = antisymmetric? any? coerce column copy count
determinant diagonal? diagonalMatrix elt empty empty? eq? every? exquo fill!
horizontal identity inverse less? listOfLists map map! matrix maxColIndex
maxRowIndex member? members minColIndex minRowIndex minordet more?
ncols new nrows nullSpace nullity parts qelt qsetelt! rank rotatex rotatexy rotatez
row rowEchelon scalarMatrix scale setColumn! setRow! setelt setsubMatrix!
sign? square? squareTop subMatrix swapColumns! swapRows! symmetric?
translate transpose vertConcat zero DEQUEUE Dequeue DequeueAggregate
# = any? back bag bottom! coerce copy count depth dequeue dequeue! empty
empty? enqueue! eq? every? extract! extractBottom! extractTop! front height
insert! insertBottom! insertTop! inspect length less? map map! member?
members more? parts pop! push! reverse! rotate! size? top top! DERHAM
DeRhamComplex LeftAlgebra RetractableTo 0 1 * ** + - = characteristic
coefficient coerce degree exteriorDifferential generator homogeneous? leading-
BasisTerm leadingCoefficient map one? recip reductum retract retractIfCan
retractable? totalDifferential zero? DSMP DifferentialSparseMultivariate
Polynomial DifferentialPolynomialCategory RetractableTo 0 1 * ** + - / < =
D associates? characteristic chartRoot coefficient coefficients coerce conditionP
content convert degree differentialVariables differentiate discriminant eval exquo
factor factorPolynomial factorSquareFreePolynomial gcd gcdPolynomial ground
? initial isExpt isPlus isTimes isobaric? lcm leader leadingCoefficient
leadingMonomial mainVariable makeVariable map mapExponents max min
minimumDegree monicDivide monomial monomial? monomials multivariate
numberOfMonomials one? order patternMatch prime? primitiveMonomials
primitivePart recip reducedSystem reductum resultant retract retractIfCan
separant solveLinearPolynomialEquation squareFree squareFreePart square-
FreePolynomial totalDegree unit? unitCanonical unitNormal univariate variables
weight weights zero? DPMM DirectProductMatrixModule DirectProductCat-
egory LeftModule 0 1 * ** + - / < = D abs any? characteristic coerce copy
count differentiate dimension directProduct dot elt empty empty? entries entry?
eq? every? fill! first index index? indices less? lookup map map! max maxIndex
member? members min minIndex more? negative? one? parts positive? qelt
qsetelt! random recip reducedSystem reductum resultant retract retractIfCan
setelt sign size size? sup swap! unitVector zero? DFMO DirectProductModule DirectProductCat-
egory LeftModule 0 1 * ** + - / < = D abs any? characteristic coerce copy
count differentiate dimension directProduct dot elt empty empty? entries entry?
eq? every? fill! first index index? indices less? lookup map map! max maxIndex
member? members min minIndex more? negative? one? parts positive? qelt
qsetelt! random recip reducedSystem reductum resultant retractIfCan setelt sign size size?
sup swap! unitVector zero? DIRPROD DirectProduct DirectProductCategory
0 1 * ** + - / < = D abs any? characteristic coerce copy count differentiate
dimension directProduct dot elt empty empty? entries entry? eq? every? fill! first
index index? indices less? lookup map map! max maxIndex member? members
min minIndex more? negative? one? parts positive? qelt qsetelt! random recip
reducedSystem reductum resultant retractIfCan setelt sign size size? sup swap!
unitVector zero? DMP DistributedMultivariatePolynomial PolynomialCategory 0 1 * **
+ - / < = D associates? characteristic chartRoot coefficient coefficients coerce
conditionP const content convert degree differentiate discriminant eval exquo
factor factorPolynomial factorSquareFreePolynomial gcd gcdPolynomial ground?
isExpt isPlus isTimes lcm leadingCoefficient leadingMonomial main-
Variable map mapExponents max min minimumDegree monicDivide monomial
monomial? monomials multivariate numberOfMonomials one? prime? primitive
Monomials primitivePart recip reducedSystem reductum reorder resultant
retract retractIfCan solveLinearPolynomialEquation squareFree squareFreePart
squareFreePolynomial totalDegree unit? unitCanonical unitNormal univariate
variables zero? DROPT DrawOption SetCategory = adaptive clip coerce colorFunction coordinate coordinates curveColor option option? pointColor range ranges space style title toScale tubePoints tubeRadius unit var1Steps var2Steps EFULS ElementaryFunctionsUnivariateLaurentSeries PartialTran-
scendentalFunctions ** acos acosIfCan acosh acoshIfCan acot acotIfCan acoth acothIfCan acsc acscIfCan acsch acschIfCan asec asecIfCan asech asechIfCan
asin asinIfCan asinh asinhIfCan atan atanIfCan atanh atanhIfCan cos cosIfCan
cosh coshIfCan cot cotIfCan coth cothIfCan csc cscIfCan csch cschIfCan exp
expIfCan log logIfCan nthRootIfCan sec sechIfCan sech sechIfCan sin sinIfCan
sinh sinhIfCan tan tanIfCan tanh tanhIfCan EFUPXS ElementaryFunction-
sUnivariatePuiseuxSeries PartialTranscendentalFunctions ** acos acosIfCan
acosh acoshIfCan acot acotIfCan acoth acothIfCan acsc acscIfCan acsch acschIfCan
asec asecIfCan asech asechIfCan asin asinIfCan asinh asinhIfCan atan
atanIfCan atanh atanhIfCan cos cosIfCan cosh coshIfCan cot cotIfCan coth
cothIfCan csc cscIfCan csch cschIfCan exp expIfCan log logIfCan nthRootIfCan
sec sechIfCan sech sechIfCan sin sinIfCan sinh sinhIfCan tan tanIfCan
tanh tanhIfCan EFQTL EqTable TableAggregate = any? bag coerce construct copy
count dictionary elt empty empty? entries entry? eq? every? extract! fill! find
first index? indices insert! inspect key? keys less? map map! maxIndex member?
members minIndex more? parts qelt qsetelt! reduce remove remove! removeDu-
plicates search select select! setelt size? swap! table EQ Equation CoercibleTo
InnerEvalable Object SetCategory * ** + - = coerce equation eval lhs map
rhs EMR EuclideanModularRing EuclideanDomain 0 1 * ** + - = associates?
characteristic coerce divide euclideanSize exQuo expressIdealMember exquo
extendedEuclidean gcd inv lcm modulus multiEuclidean one? principalIdeal
quo recip reduce rem sizeLess? unit? unitCanonical unitNormal zero? EXIT
Exit SetCategory = coerce EXPR Expression AlgebraicallyClosedFunction-
Space CombinatorialOpsCategory FunctionSpace LiouvillianFunctionCategory
RetractableTo SpecialFunctionCategory TranscendentalFunctionCategory 0 1 *
** + - / < = Beta Ci D Ei Gamma Si abs acos acosh acot acsch airyAi
airyBi applyQuote asec asech asin asinh associates? atan atanh belong? besseI
besselJ besselK besselY binomial box characteristic chartRoot coerce commu-
tator conjugate convert cos cosh cot coth csc csch definingPolynomial denom
denominator differentiate digamma diilog distribute divide elt erf euclideanSize
eval exp expressIdealMember exquo extendedEuclidean factor factorial facto-
rials freeOf? gcd ground ground? height integral inv is? isExpt isMult isPlus
isPower isTimes kernel kernels lcm li log mainKernel map max minPoly
multiEuclidean nthRoot numerator one? operator operators paren
patternMatch permutation pi polygamma prime? principalIdeal product quo
recep reduce reducedSystem rem retract retractIfCan rootOf rootsOf sec sech
sin sinh sizeLess? sqrt squareFree squareFreePart subst summation tan tanh
tower unit? unitCanonical unitNormal univariate variables zero? zeroOf zerosOf
EAB ExtAlgBasis OrderedSet < = Nul coerce degree exponents max min FR
Factored Algebra DifferentialExtension Eltable Evalable FullyEvalableOver
FullyRetractableTo GcdDomain InnerEvalable IntegralDomain RealConstant
UniqueFactorizationDomain 0 1 * ** + - = D associates? characteristic coerce
APPENDIX B. DOMAINS

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MinimalPolynomial rightNorm rightPower rightRankPolynomial rightRecip
rightRegularRepresentation rightTrace rightTraceMatrix rightUnit rightUnits
someBasis structuralConstants unit zero? GRIMAGE GraphImage SetCategory
= appendPoint coerce component graphImage key makeGraphImage point
pointLists putColorInfo ranges units HASHTBL HashTable TableAggregate
\# = any? bag coerce construct copy count dictionary elt empty empty? entries
entry? eq? every? extract! fill! find first index? indices insert! inspect key?
keys less? map map! maxIndex member? members minIndex more? parts
qelt qsetelt! reduce remove remove! removeDuplicates search select select!
setelt size? swap! table HEAP Heap PriorityQueue Aggregate \# = any? bag
coerce copy count empty empty? eq? every? extract! heap insert! inspect
less? map map! max member? members merge merge! more? parts size?
HEXADEC HexadecimalExpansion QuotientFieldCategory 0 1 * ** + - / <
= D abs associates? ceiling characteristic coerce convert denom denominator
differentiate divide euclideanSize expressIdealMember exquo extendedEuclidean
factor floor fractionPart gcd hex init inv lcm map max min multiEuclidean
negative? nextItem numer numerator one? patternMatch positive? prime?
principalIdeal quo random recip reducedSystem rem retract retractIfCan sign
sizeLess? squareFree squareFreePart unit? unitCanonical unitNormal wholePart
zero? ICARD IndexCard OrderedSet \# = coerce display elt fullDisplay max
min IBITS IndexedBits BitAggregate \# = And Not Or \^ any? coerce
concat construct convert copy copyInto! count delete elt empty empty? entries
maxIndex member? members merge min minIndex more? nand new nor
not or parts position qelt qsetelt! reduce remove removeDuplicates reverse
reverse! select setelt size? sort sort! sorted? swap! xor IDPAG IndexedDi-
rectProductAbelianGroup AbelianGroup IndexedDirectProductCategory 0 *
+ - = coerce leadingCoefficient leadingSupport map monomial reductum zero?
IDPAM IndexedDirectProductAbelianMonoid AbelianMonoid IndexedDi-
rectProductCategory 0 * + = coerce leadingCoefficient leadingSupport map
monomial reductum zero? IDPO IndexedDirectProductObject IndexedDi-
rectProductCategory = coerce leadingCoefficient leadingSupport map monomial
reductum IDPOAMS IndexedDirectProductOrderedAbelianMonoidSup IndexedDirectProductCategory
OrderedAbelianMonoidSup 0 * + - < = coerce leadingCoefficient leadingSupport map
max min monomial reductum sup zero? IDPOAM IndexedDirectProductOrderedAbelianMonoid IndexedDi-
rectProductCategory OrderedAbelianMonoid 0 * + - < = coerce leadingCoefficient
leadingSupport map max min monomial reductum sup zero? INDE IndexedEx-
ponents IndexedDirectProductCategory OrderedAbelianMonoid Sup 0 * + - < = coerce
leadingCoefficient leadingSupport map max min monomial reductum sup zero?
IFARRAY IndexedFlexibleArray ExtensibleLinearAggregate OneDimensionalArrayAggregate \# = any? coercion
concat! construct convert copy copyInto! count delete delete! elt empty empty? entries entry?
eq? every? fill! find first flexibleArray index? indices insert insert! less?
map map! max maxIndex member? members merge merge! min minIndex
more? new parts physicalLength physicalLength! position qelt qsetelt! reduce
CachableSet ConvertibleTo Patternable \(<\) argument coerce convert height
is? kernel max min name operator position setPosition symbolIfCan KAF
KeyedAccessFile FileCategory TableAggregate \(\#\) = any? bag close! coer
copy construct count dictionary elt empty? entries entry? \(\text{eq}\) every?
extract! fill! find first index? indices insert! inspect iomode key? keys less? map
maxIndex member? members minIndex more? name open pack! parts qelt qsetelt!
read! reduce remove remove! removeDuplicates reopen! search select select!
setelt size? swap! table write! LAUPOL LaurentPolynomial CharacteristicNonZero CharacteristicZero ConvertibleTo DifferentialExtension
EuclideanDomain FullyRetractableTo IntegralDomain RetractableTo 0 1
\(*\) ** + - = \(D\) associates? characteristic charthRoot coefficient coerce convert degree
differentiate divide euclideanSize expressIdealMember exquo extendedEuclidean
gcd lcm leadingCoefficient monomial monomial? multiEuclidean one? order
principalIdeal quo recip reductum rem retract retractIfCan separate size-
less? trailingCoefficient unit? unitCanonical unitNormal zero? LIB Library
TableAggregate \(\#\) = any? bag coerce construct copy count dictionary elt empty
entries entry? \(\text{eq}\) every? extract! fill! find first index? indices insert! inspec
tkey? keys less? library map map! maxIndex member? members minIndex
more? pack! parts qelt qsetelt! reduce remove remove! removeDuplicates search
select select! setelt size? swap! table LSQM LieSquareMatrix CoercibleTo
FramedNonAssociativeAlgebra SquareMatrixCategory 0 1 \(*\) ** + - / = \(D\)
antiCommutator antisymmetric? any? apply associative? associator
associatorDependence basis characteristic coer column commutative? com-
mutator conditionsForIdempotents convert coordinates copy count determinant
diagonal diagonal? diagonalMatrix diagonalProduct differentiate elt empty
entries entry? \(\text{eq}\) every? flexible? inverse jordanAdmissible? leftAlternative?
leftCharacteristicPolynomial leftDiscriminant leftMinimalPolynomial leftNorm
leftPower leftRankPolynomial leftRecip leftRegularRepresentation leftTrace
leftTraceMatrix leftUnit leftUnits less? lieAdmissible? lieAlgebra? listOfLists
map! matrix maxColIndex maxRowIndex member? members minColIndex
minRowIndex minor det more? ncols noncommutativeJordanAlgebra? nrows
nullSpace nullity one? parts plenaryPower powerAssociative? qelt rank recip
reducedSystem represents retract retractIfCan rightAlternative? rightChar-
acteristicPolynomial rightDiscriminant rightMinimalPolynomial rightNorm
rightPower rightRankPolynomial rightRecip rightRegularRepresentation right-
Trace rightTraceMatrix rightUnit rightUnits row rowEchelon scalarMatrix size?
someBasis square? structuralConstants symmetric? trace unit zero? LODO
LinearOrdinaryDifferentialOperator MonogenicLinearOperator 0 1 \(*\) ** +
- = \(D\) characteristic coefficient coer degree elt leadingCoefficient leftDivide
leftExactQuotient leftGcd leftLcm leftQuotient leftRemainder minimumDegree
monomial one? recip reductum rightDivide rightExactQuotient rightGcd
rightLcm rightQuotient rightRemainder zero? LMOPS ListMonoidOps RetractableTo SetCategory = coerce leftMult listOfMonoms makeMulti makeTerm
makeUnit mapExpon mapGen nthExpon nthFactor outputForm plus retract
retractIfCan reverse reverse! rightMult size LMDICT ListMultiDictionary
APPENDIX B. DOMAINS

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Appendix B. Domains

ground? initial isExpt isPlus isTimes isobaric? lcm leader leadingCoefficient
leadingMonomial mainVariable makeVariable map mapExponents max min
minimumDegree monicDivide monomial monomial? monomials multivariate
numberOfMonomials one? order prime? primitiveMonomials primitivePart
recip reducedSystem reductum resultant retract retractIfCan separant solve-
LinearPolynomialEquation squareFree squareFreePart squareFreePolynomial
totalDegree unit? unitCanonical unitNormal univariate variables weight weights
zero? SDVAR SequentialDifferentialVariable DifferentialVariableCategory
<= D coerce differentiate makeVariable max min order retract retractIfCan
variable variable weight SET Set FiniteSetAggregate #=> any? bag brace cardinality
coerce complement construct convert copy count dictionary difference empty?
eq? every? extract! find index insert! inspect intersect less? lookup map
max member? members min more? parts random remove remove!
removeDuplicates select select! size size? subset? symmetricDifference union
universe SEXOF SExpressionOf SExpressionCategory #=> atom? car cdr
convert convert destruct elt eq expr float float? integer integer? list? null?
pair? string string? symbol symbol? uequal SEX SExpression SExpressionCategory
# = atom? car cdr coerce convert destruct elt eq expr float float? integer
* ** + - / = D associates? basis characteristic characteristicPolynomial charthRoot coerce conditionP convert
coordinates createPrimitiveElement definingPolynomial derivationCoordinates
differentiate discreteLog discriminant divide euclideanSize expressIdealMember
exquo extendedEuclidean factor factorsOfCyclicGroupSize gcd generator index
init inv lcm lift lookup minimalPolynomial multiEuclidean nextItem norm one?
order prime? primeFrobenius primitive? primitiveElement principalIdeal
quo random rank recip reducedSystem regularRepresentation rem
representationType represents retract retractIfCan size sizeLess? squareFree
squareFreePart tableForDiscreteLogarithm trace traceMatrix unit? unitCanonical
unitNormal zero? SAOS SingletonAsOrderedSet OrderedSet <= coerce create max min SINT SingleInteger IntegerNumberSystem 0 1
* ** + - <= And D Not Or ~ abs addmod and associates? base binomial bit? characteristic coercive
coerce convert copy dec differentiate divide euclideanSize even? expressIdealMember
exquo extendedEuclidean factor factorial gcd hash inc init invmod lcm length
mask max min mulmod multiEuclidean negative? nextItem not odd? one?
or patternMatch permutation positive? positiveRemainder powmod prime?
principalIdeal quo random rational rational? rationalIfCan recip reducedSystem
rem retract retractIfCan shift sign sizeLess? squareFree squareFreePart submod
symmetricRemainder unit? unitCanonical unitNormal xor zero? SMP Sparse-
MultivariatePolynomial PolynomialCategory 0 1 * ** + - <= D associates?
characteristic charthRoot coefficient coefficients coerce conditionP convert
degree differentiate differentiate discriminant eval exquo factor factorPolynomial
factorSquareFreePolynomial gcd gcdPolynomial ground? isExpt isPlus
isTimes lcm leadingCoefficient leadingMonomial mainVariable map mapExpo-
nents max min minimumDegree monicDivide monomial monomial? monomials
multivariate numberOfMonomials one? patternMatch prime? primitiveMono-
mials primitivePart recip reducedSystem reductum resultant retract retractIfCan
solveLinearPolynomialEquation squareFree squareFreePart squareFreePolynomial
totalDegree unit? unitCanonical unitNormal univariate variables zero?
SMTS SparseMultivariateTaylorSeries MultivariateTaylorSeriesCategory 0 1
* ** + - / = D acos acosh acot acoth acsc acsch asec asech asin asinh associates?
atan atanh characteristic chartRoot coefficient coerce complete cos cosh cot coth
csc csch csubst degree differentiate eval exp exquo extend fintegrate integrate
leadingCoefficient leadingMonomial log map monomial monomial? nthRoot one?
order pi pole? polynomial recip reductum sec sech sin sinh sqrt tan tanh unit?
unitCanonical unitNormal variables zero? STBL SparseTable TableAggregate
\# = any? bag coerce construct copy count dictionary elt empty empty? entries
entry? eq? every? extract! fill! find first index? indices insert! inspect key?
keys less? map map! maxIndex member? members minIndex more? parts qelt
qsetelt! reduce remove remove! removeDuplicates search select! setelt size?
swap! table SUP SparseUnivariatePolynomial UnivariatePolynomialCategory
0 1 * ** + - / < = D associates? characteristic chartRoot coefficient coefficients
coequare composite conditionP content degree differentiate discriminant divide
divideExponents elt euclideanSize eval expressIdealMember exquo extendedEuclidean
factor factorPolynomial factorSquareFreePolynomial gcd gcdPolynomial
ground ground? init integrate isExpt isPlus isTimes lcm leadingCoefficient
leadingMonomial mainVariable makeSUP map mapExponents max min
minimumDegree monicDivide monomial monomial? monomials multiEuclidean
multiplyExponents multivariate nextItem numberOfMonomials one? order
outputForm prime? primitiveMonomials primitivePart principalIdeal pseudoDivide
pseudoQuotient pseudoRemainder quo recip reducedSystem reductum rem
resultant retract retractIfCan separate sizeLess? solveLinearPolynomialEquation
squareFree squareFreePart squareFreePolynomial subResultantGcd totalDegree
unit? unitCanonical unitNormal univariate variables zero? SUTS SparseUnivariateTaylorSeries
UnivariateTaylorSeriesCategory 0 1 * ** + - / = D acos acosh acot acoth acsc
acsch asec asech asin asinh associates? atan atanh center characteristic chartRoot coefficient coefficients
coequare complete cos cosh cot coth csc csch degree differentiate elt eval exp exquo extend
integrate leadingCoefficient leadingMonomial log map monomial monomial?
multiplyCoefficients multiplyExponents nthRoot one? order pi pole? polynomial
quoByVar recip reductum sec sech series sin sinh sqrt tan tanh terms truncate
unit? unitCanonical unitNormal variable variables zero? SQMATRIX SquareMatrix
CoercibleTo SquareMatrixCategory 0 1 * ** + - / = D antisymmetric?
any? characteristic coerce column copy count determinant diagonal diagonal?
diagonalMatrix diagonalProduct differentiate elt empty empty? eq? every?
exquo inverse less? listOFLists map map! matrix maxColIndex maxRowIndex
member? members minColIndex minRowIndex minor det more? ncols nrows
nullSpace nullity one? parts qelt rank recip reducedSystem retract retractIfCan
row rowEchelon scalarMatrix size? square? squareMatrix symmetric? trace
transpose zero? STACK Stack StackAggregate \# = any? bag coerce copy
count depth empty empty? eq? every? extract! insert! inspect less? map map!
member? members more? parts pop! push! size? stack top STREAM Stream
LazyStreamAggregate \( \# = \) any? child? children coerce complete concat concat!
cons construct convert copy count cycleEntry cycleLength cycleSplit! cycleTail
cyclic? delay delete distance elt empty empty? entries entry? eq? every? explici-
tEntries? explicitlyEmpty? explicitlyFinite? extend! filterUntil filterWhile
find findCycle first frst generate index? indices insert last lazy? lazyEvaluate
leaf? less? map map! maxIndex member? members minIndex more? new node?
null? numberOfComputedEntries output parts possiblyInfinite? qelt qsetelt!
reduce remove removeDuplicates repeating repeating? rst rst second select
setchildren! setelt setfirst! setlast! setrest! setValue! showAll? showAllElements
size? split! swap! tail third value STRTBL StringTable TableAggregate \# =
any? bag coerce construct copy count dictionary elt empty empty? entries
entry? eq? every? extract! fill! find first index? indices insert! inspect key?
keys less? map map! maxIndex member? members minIndex more? parts qelt
qsetelt! reduce remove remove removeDuplicates search select select! setelt
size? swap! table STRING String StringCategory \# <= any? coerce concat
construct copy copyInto! count delete elt empty empty? entries entry? eq?
every? fill! find first index? indices insert leftTrim less? lowerCase lowerCase!
map map! match? max maxIndex member? members merge min minIndex
more? new parts position prefix? qelt qsetelt! reduce remove removeDuplicates
replace reverse reverse! rightTrim select setelt size? sort sort! sorted? split string
substring? suffix? swap! trim upperCase upperCase! COMPPROP SubSpace-
ComponentProperty SetCategory = close closed? coerce copy new solid solid?
SUBSPACE SubSpace SetCategory = addPoint addPoint2 addPointLast birth
child children closeComponent coerce deepCopy defineProperty extractClosed
extractIndex extractPoint extractProperty internal? leaf? level merge modify-
Point new numberOfChildren parent pointData root? separate shallowCopy
subspace traverse SUCH SuchThat SetCategory = coerce construct lhs rhs
SYMBOL Symbol ConvertibleTo OrderedSet PatternMatchable \# <= argscript
coerce convert elt list max min name new patternMatch resetNew script scripted?
scripts string subscript superscript SYMPOLY SymmetricPolynomial Finite-
AbelianMonoidRing 0 1 * ** + - / = associates? characteristic charthRoot
coefficient coefficients coerce content degree exquo ground ground? leading-
Coefficient leadingMonomial map mapExponents minimumDegree monomial
monomial? monomial monomial? numberOfMonomials one? primitivePart recip reductum retractIfCan
unit? unitCanonical unitNormal zero? TABLEAU Tableau
Object coerce listOfLists tableau TABLE Table TableAggregate \# = any? bag
coerce construct copy count dictionary elt empty empty? entries entry? eq?
every? extract! fill! find first index? indices insert! inspect key? keys less?
map map! maxIndex member? members minIndex more? parts qelt qsetelt!
reduce remove remove removeDuplicates search select select! setelt size? swap!
table TS TaylorSeries MultivariateTaylorSeriesCategory 0 1 * ** + - / = D
acos acosh acot acoth acsc acsch asec asech asin asinh associates? atan atan
characteristic charthRoot coefficient coerce complete cos cosh cot coth csc csch
degree differentiate eval exp exquo extend integrate integrate leadingCoefficient
leadingMonomial log map monomial monomial? nthRoot one? order pi pole?
polynomial recip reductum sec sech sin sinh sqrt tan tanh unit? unitCanonical
Appendix A

Packages

This is a listing of all packages in the Axiom library at the
time this book was produced. Use the Browse facility (described
in Chapter 14 on page 926) to get more information about these
constructors.

This sample entry will help you read the following table:

Package Name PackageAbbreviation: Category1...CategoryN with op1...opM

where

- PackageName is the full package name, e.g., PadeApproximantPackage.
- PackageAbbreviation is the package abbreviation, e.g., PADEPAC.
- Categoryi is a category to which the package belongs.
- opj is an operation exported by the package.

Packages

AF AlgebraicFunction ** belong? definingPolynomial inrootof iroot minPoly
operator rootOf INTHERAL AlgebraicHermiteIntegration HermiteIntegrate
INTALG AlgebraicIntegrate algintegrate palginfieldint palgintegrate
INTAF AlgebraicIntegration algint ALGMANIP AlgebraicManipulations
ratDenom ratPoly rootKerSimp rootSimp rootSplit ALGMFACT Algebraic-
MultFact factor ALGPKG AlgebraPackage basisOfCenter basisOfCentroid
basisOfCommutingElements basisOfLeftAnnihilator basisOfLeftNucleus
basisOfLeftNucleoid basisOfMiddleNucleus basisOfNucleus basisOfRightAn-
nihilator basisOfRightNucleus basisOfRightNucleoid biRank doubleRank
leftRank radicalOfLeftTraceForm rightRank weakBiRank ALGFAC AlgFac-
tor doublyTransitive? factor split ANY1 AnyFunctions1 coerce retract
retractIfCan retractable? APPRULE ApplyRules applyRules localUnquote
PMPRED AttachPredicates suchThat BALFACT BalancedFactorisation
balancedFactorisation BOP1 BasicOperatorFunctions1 constantOpIfCan
constantOperator derivative evaluate BEZOUT BezoutMatrix bezoutDis-
criminant bezoutMatrix bezoutResultant BOUNDZRO BoundIntegerRoots
APPENDIX A. PACKAGES

Functions2 map ERROR ErrorFunctions error GBEUCLID EuclideanGroebnerBasisPackage euclideanGroebner euclideanNormalForm EVALCYC EvaluateCycleIndicators eval EXPR2 ExpressionFunctions2 map ES1 ExpressionSpaceFunctions1 map ES2 ExpressionSpaceFunctions2 map EXPRODE ExpressionSpaceODESolver seriesSolve EXPR2UPS ExpressionToUnivariatePowerSeries laurent puiseux series taylor EXPRTUBE ExpressionTubePlot constantToUnaryFunction tubePlot FR2 FactoredFunctions2 map FACTFUNC FactoredFunctions log nthRoot FRUTIL FactoredFunctionUtilities mergeFactors refine FACUTIL FactoringUtilities completeEval degree lowerPolynomial normalDeriv raisePolynomial ran variables FORDER FindOrderFinite order FDIV2 FiniteDivisorFunctions2 map FFF FiniteFieldFunctions createMultiplicationMatrix createMultiplicationTable createZechTable sizeMultiplication FFHOM FiniteFieldHomomorphisms coerce FFPOLY2 FiniteFieldPolynomialPackage2 rootOfIrreduciblePoly FFPOLY FiniteFieldPolynomialPackage createIrreduciblePoly createNormalPoly createNormalPrimitivePoly createPrimitiveNormalPoly createPrimitivePoly leastAffineMultiple nextIrreduciblePoly nextNormalPoly nextNormalPrimitivePoly nextPrimitiveNormalPoly nextPrimitivePoly normal? numberOfIrreduciblePoly numberOfNormalPoly numberOfPrimitivePoly primitive? random reducedQPowers FFSLPE FiniteFieldSolveLinearPolynomialEquation solveLinearPolynomialEquation FLAGG2 FiniteLinearAggregateFunctions2 map FLOOR FloatingComplexPackage complexSolve FLOATCP FloatingComplexPackage complexSolve FRAC2 FractionFunctions2 map FSPECF FunctionalSpecialFunction Beta Gamma abs airyAi airyBi belong? besselI besselJ besselK besselY digamma iiGamma iiabs operator polygamma FFCA T2 FunctionFieldCategoryFunctions2 map FFINTBAS FunctionFieldIntegralBasis integralBasis PMASSFS FunctionSpaceAssertions assert constant multiple optional PMPREDFS FunctionSpaceAttachPredicates suchThat FSCINT FunctionSpaceComplexIntegration complexIntegrate internalIntegrate FS2 FunctionSpaceFunctions2 map FSINT FunctionSpaceIntegration integrate FSRED FunctionSpaceReduce bringDown newReduce SUMFS FunctionSpaceSum sum FSUPS FunctionSpaceToUnivariatePowerSeries exprToGenUPS exprToUPS FSUPFACT FunctionSpaceUnivariatePolynomialFactor factor qfactor GAUSSFACT GaussianFactorizationPackage factor prime? sumSquares GHENSEL GeneralHenselPackage HenselLift completeHensel GENPGCD GeneralPolynomialGcdPackage gcdPolynomial randomR GENUPS GenerateUnivariatePowerSeries laurent puiseux series taylor GENEZ GenExEuclid compBound reduction solvedivible tablePow testModulus GENUFACT GenUFactorize factor INTG0 GenusZeroIntegration palgLODE0 palgRDE0 palgextint0 palgint0 palglimint0 GOSPER GosperSummationMethod GosperMethod GRDEF GraphicsDefaults adaptive clipPointsDefault drawToScale maxPoints minPoints screenResolution GRAY GrayCode firstSubsetGray nextSubsetGray
GBF GroebnerFactorizationPackage factorGroebnerBasis groebnerFactorize GBI GROEBNSOL GroebnerSolve generateInHallBasis? HallBasis generateInHallBasis? ifunc HEUGCD HeuGcd content contprim ged gcdcofact gcdcofactprim gcdprim lntgcd IDECOMP IdealeD compositionPackage primaryDecomp prim? radical zeroDimPrimary? zeroDimPrime? INCRMAPS IncrementingMaps increment incrementBy ITFUN2 InfiniteTupleFunctions2 map ITFUN3 InfiniteTupleFunctions3 map INFINITY Infinity infinity minusInfinity plusInfinity IALGFACT InnerAlgFactor factor ICDEN InnerCommonDenominator clearDenominator commonDenominator splitDenominator IMATLIN InnerMatrixLinearAlgebraFunctions determinant inverse nullSpace nullity rank rowEchelon IMATQF InnerMatrixQuotientFieldFunctions inverse nullSpace nullity rank rowEchelon INMODGCD InnerModularGcd modularGcd reduction INNM FACT InnerMultFact factor INBFF InnerNormalBasisFieldFunctions * * / basis ANDExp expPot index inv lookup minimalPolynomial norm normal? normalElement pol qPot random repSq setFieldInfo trace xn INEP InnerNumericEigenPackage charpol innerEigenvectors INFSP InnerNumericFloatSolvePackage innerSolve innerSolve1 makeEq INPSIGN InnerPolySign signAround ISUMP InnerPolySum sum ITRIGMNP InnerTrigonometricManipulations IF2FIF2G GF2FG explogs2trigs trigs2explogs INFORM1 InputFormFunctions1 interpret packageCall COMBINAT IntegerCombinatoricFunctions binomial factorial multinomial partition permutation stirling1 stirling2 INFACT IntegerFactorizationPackage BasicMethod PollardSmallFactor factor squareFree ZLINDEP IntegerLinearDependence linearDependenceOverZ linearlyDependentOverZ? solveLinearlyOverQ INTHEORY IntegerNumberTheoryFunctions bernoulli chineseRemainder divisors euler eulerPhi fibonacci harmonic jacobi legendre moebiusMu numberOfDivisors sumOfDivisors sumOfKthPowerDivisors PRIMES IntegerPrimesPackage nextPrime prevPrime prime? primes INTRET IntegerReactions integer integer IfCan IROOT IntegerRoots approxNthRoot approxSqrt perfectNthPower? perfectNthRoot perfectSqrt perfectSquare? IATool IntegralBasisTools diagonalProduct idealiser leastPower IR2 IntegrationResultFunctions2 map IRRF2F IntegrationResultRFToFunction complexExpand complexIntegrate expand integrate split IR2F IntegrationResultToFunction complexExpand expand split INTOOLS IntegrationTools kmax ksec mkPrim union vark varselect INVLAPLA InverseLaplaceTransform inverseLaplace IRREDFFX IrredPolyOverFiniteField generateIrredPoly IRSN IrrepSymNatPackage dimensionOfIrreducibleRepresentation irreducibleRepresentation KERNEL2 KernelFunctions2 constantIfCan constantKernel KOVACIC Kovacic kovacic LAPACE LaplaceTransform laplace LEADCDET LeadingCoefDetermination distFact polCase LINDEP LinearDependence linearDependence linearlyDependent? solveLinear LPEFRAC
APPENDIX A. PACKAGES

LinearPolynomialEquationByFractions solveLinearPolynomialEquationByFractions LSMP LinearSystemMatrixPackage aSolution hasSolution rank solve LSPP LinearSystemPolynomialPackage linSolve LGROBP LinearGrobnerPackage anticoord choosemon computeBasis coordinate groebgen intcompBasis linGenPos minPol totolex transform LF LiouvillianFunction Ci Ei Si belong? diglog erf integral li operator LIST2 ListFunctions2 map reduce scan LIST3 ListFunctions3 map LIST2MAP ListToMap match MKBCFUNC MakeBinaryCompiledFunction binaryFunction compiledFunction MKFLCFN MakeFloatCompiledFunction makeFloatFunction MKFUNC MakeFunction function MKRECORD MakeRecord makeRecord makeRecord MKUCFUNC MakeUnaryCompiledFunction compiledFunction unaryFunction MAPPKG1 MappingPackage1 ** coerce fixedPoint id nullary recur MAPPKG2 MappingPackage2 const constant curry diag MAPPKG3 MappingPackage3 * constantLeft constantRight curryLeft curryRight twist MAPHACK1 MappingPackageInternalHacks1 iter recur MAPHACK2 MappingPackageInternalHacks2 arg1 arg2 MAPHACK3 MappingPackageInternalHacks3 comp MATCAT2 MatrixCategoryFunctions2 map reduce MCDEN MatrixCommonDenominator clearDenominator commonDenominator splitDenominator MATLIN MatrixLinearAlgebraFunctions determinant inverse minorNDet nullSpace nullity rank rowEchelon MTHING MergeThing mergeDifference MESH MeshCreationRoutinesForThreeDimensions meshFun2Var meshPar1Var meshPar2Var ptFunc MDDFACT ModularDistinctDegreeFactorizer ddFact exptMod factor gcd separateFactors MHROWRED ModularHermitianRowReduction rowEchelon rowEchelon MRF2 MonoidRingFunctions2 map MSYSCMD MoreSystemCommands systemCommand MPC2 MPolyCatFunctions2 map reshape MPC3 MPolyCatFunctions3 map MPRFF MPolyCatRationalFunctionFactorizer factor pushdown pushterm pushucoef pushuconst pushufract MRATFAC MRationalFactorizer factor MFINFACT MultFiniteFactorize factor MMAP MultipleMap map MULTFACT MultivariateFactorize factor MLIFT MultivariateLifting corrPoly lifting lifting1 MULTSQFR MultivariateSquareFree squareFree squareFreePrim NCODIV NonCommutativeOperatorDivision leftDivide leftExactQuotient leftGcd leftLcm leftQuotient leftRemainder NONE1 NoneFunctions1 coerce NODE1 NonLinearFirstOrderODESolver solve NLINSOL NonLinearSolvePackage solve solveInField NPOE NPOEF NPOEF listexp npcoef NFINTEGAS NumberFieldIntegralBasis discriminant integralBasis NUMFMT NumberFormats FormatArabic FormatRoman ScanArabic ScanRoman NTPOLFN NumberTheoreticPolynomials Functions bernoulliB cyclotomic eulerE NUMODE NumericalOrdinaryDifferentialEquations rk4 rk4a rk4f rk4q NUMQUAD NumericalQuadrature romberg romberg a trapezoidal romberg rombergo simpson simpsono trapezoidal trapezoidal NCEP NumericComplexEigenPackage characteristicPolynomial complexEigenvalues complexEigenvectors NCNTFRAC NumericContinuedFraction continuedFraction NREP NumericRealEigenPackage characteristicPolynomial realEigenvalues realEigenvectors NUMTUBE NumericTubePlot tube NUMERIC Numeric complex Numeric numeric OCTCT2 OctonionCate-
APPENDIX A. PACKAGES

goryFunctions2 map ODEINT ODEIntegration expint int ODETOOLS ODETools particularSolution variationOfParameters wronskianMatrix ARRAY12 OneDimensionalArrayFunctions2 map reduce scan ONECOMP2 OnePointCompletionFunctions2 map OPQUERY OperationsQuery getDatabase ORDCOMP2 OrderedCompletionFunctions2 map ORDFUNS OrderingFunctions pureLex reverseLex totalLex ORTHPOL OrthogonalPolynomialFunctions ChebyshevU chebyshevT hermiteH laguerreL legendreP OUT OutputPackage output PADEPA C PadApproximantPackage pade PADE PadApproximants pade padeY YSTREAM ParadoxicalCombinatorsForStreams Y PARTPERM PartitionsAndPermutations conjugate conjugates partitions permutations sequences shuffle shuffleIn PATTERN1 PatternFunctions1 addBadValue badValues predicate satisfy? suchThat PATTERN2 PatternFunctions2 map PMASS PatternMatchAssertions assert constant multiple optional PMFS PatternMatchFunctionSpace patternMatch PMINS PatternMatchIntegerNumberSystem patternMatch PMKERNEL PatternMatchKernel patternMatch PMLSAGG PatternMatchListAggregate patternMatch PMPLCAT PatternMatchPolynomialCategory patternMatch PMDOW N PatternMatchPushDown fixPredicate patternMatch PMQFCAT PatternMatchQuotientFieldCategory patternMatch PATTERN2 PatternMatchResultFunctions2 map PMSYM PatternMatchSymbol patternMatch PMTOOLS PatternMatchTools patternMatch patternMatchTimes PATTERN2 PatternMatch Is is? PERMAN Permanent permanent PGE PermutationGroupExamples abelianGroup alternatingGroup cyclicGroup dihedralGroup janko2 mathieu11 mathieu12 mathieu22 mathieu23 mathieu24 rubiksGroup symmetricGroup youngGroup PICOERCE PiCoercions coerce PLOT1 PlotFunctions1 plot plotPolar PLOTTOOL PlotTools calcRanges PTFUNC2 PointFunctions2 map PTPACK PointPack Package color hue phiCoord rCoord shade thetaCoord xCoord yCoord zCoord PFOQ PointsOfFiniteOrderRational order torsion? torsionIfCan PFOTOOLS PointsOfFiniteOrderTools badNum doubleDisc getGoodPrime mix polyred PFO PointsOfFiniteOrder order torsion? torsionIfCan POLTOPOL PolToPol dmpToNdmp dmpToP ndmpToDmp ndmpToP pToDmp pToNdmp PGROEB PolyGroebner lexGroebner totalGroebner PAN2EXPR PolynomialAN2Expression coerce POLYCATQ PolynomialCategoryQuotientFunctions isExpt isPlus isPower isTimes mainVariable multivariate univariate variables PFBRU PolynomialFactorizationByRecursionUnivariate bivariateSLPEBR factorByRecursion factorSFBRicUnit factorSquareFreeByRecursion randomR solveLinearPolynomialEquationByRecursion PFBR PolynomialFactorizationByRecursion bivariateSLPEBR factorByRecursion factorSFBRicUnit factorSquareFreeByRecursion randomR solveLinearPolynomialEquationByRecursion POLY2 PolynomialFunctions2 map PGCD PolynomialGcdPackage gcd gcdPrimitive PINTERPA PolynomialInterpolationAlgorithms LagrangeInterpolation PINTERP PolynomialInterpolation interpolate PNTHEORY PolynomialNumberTheoryFunctions bernoulli chebyshevT chebyshevU cyclotomic euler fixedDivisor hermite laguerre legendre POLYROOT PolynomialRoots
froot qroot rroot SOLVEFOR PolynomialSolveByFormulas aCubic aLinear aQuadratic aQuartic aSolution cubic linear mapSolve quadratic quartic solve PSQFR PolynomialSquareFree squareFree POLY2UP PolynomialToUnivariatePolynomial univariate LIMITPS PowerSeriesLimitPackage complexLimit limit PRIMARR2 PrimitiveArrayFunctions2 map reduce scan PRIMELT PrimitiveElement primitiveElement ODEPRIM PrimitiveRatDE denomLODE ODEPRRIC PrimitiveRatRicDE changevar constantCoefficientRicDE denomRicDE leadingCoefficientRicDE polyRicDE singRicDE PRINT PrintPackage print INTPAF PureAlgebraicIntegration palgLODE palgRDE palgextint palgint palglimint ODEPAL PureAlgebraicLODE algDsolve QALGSET2 QuasiAlgebraicSet2 radicalSimplify QATCT2 QuaternionCategoryFunctions2 map QFCAT2 QuotientFieldCategoryFunctions2 map REP RadicalEigenPackage eigenMatrix graminschmidt normalise orthonormalBasis radicalEigenvalues radicalEigenvector radicalEigenvectors SOLVERAD RadicalSolvePackage contractSolve radicalRatsolve RADUTIL RadixUtilities radix RANDSRC RandomNumberSource randnum reseed size RATFACT RationalFactorize factor DEFINTRF RationalFunctionDefiniteIntegration integrate RFFACT RationalFunctionFactorizer factorFract RFFACT RationalFunctionFactor factor INTRF RationalFunctionIntegration extendedIntegrate infieldIntegrate internalIntegrate limitedIntegrate LIMITTRF RationalFunctionLimitPackage complexLimit limit SIGNRF RationalFunctionSign sign SUMRF RationalFunctionSum sum RF RationalFunction coerce eval mainVariable multivariate univariate variables INTRAT RationalIntegration extendedit infeldint integrate limitedIntedit ODERAT RationalLODE ratDsolve RATRET RationalRetractions rational rationalIfCan ODERTRIC RationalRicDE changevar constantCoefficientRicDE polyRicDE ricDsolve singRicDE TODETLS RateODETools genericPolynomial REALSOLV RealSolvePackage realSolve solve REAL0Q RealZeroPackageQ realZeros refine REAL0 RealZeroPackage midpoint midpoints realZeros refine RMCAT2 RectangularMatrixCategoryFunctions2 map reduce RIV ReducedDivisor order ODERED ReduceLODE reduceLODE REDORDER ReductionOfOrder ReduceOrder REPDeb RepetitiveDoubling double REPSQ RepeatedSquaring expt REP1 RepresentationPackage1 antisymmetricTensors createGenericMatrix permutationRepresentation symmetricTensors tensorProduct REP2 RepresentationPackage2 areEquivalent? completeEchelonBasis createRandomElement cyclicSubmodule isAbsolutelyIrreducible? meatAx scanOneDimSubspaces split standardBasisOfCyclicSubmodule RESLATC ResolveLatticeCompletion coerce RETSOL RetractSolvePackage solveRetract SAERFFC SAERationalFunctionAlgFactor factor SEGBIND2 SegmentBindingFunctions2 map SEG2 SegmentFunctions2 map SAFACT SimpleAlgebraicExtensionAlgFactor factor DLOATSFUN DoubleFloatSpecialFunctions Beta Gamma airyAi airyBi besselI besselJ besselK besselY digamma hypergeometric0F1 logGamma polygamma SCACHE SortedCache cache clearCache enterInCache SUP2 SparseUnivariatePolynomialFunctions2 map SPECOUT SpecialOutputPackage outputAsFortran outputAsScript outputAsTex MAT-
APPENDIX A. PACKAGES

STOR StorageEfficientMatrixOperations  ** copy! leftScalarTimes! minus! plus! power! rightScalarTimes! times! STREAM1 StreamFunctions1 concat STREAM2 StreamFunctions2 map reduce scan STREAM3 StreamFunctions3 map STTAYLOR StreamTaylorSeriesOperations * + - / adddiag coerce compose deriv eval evenlambert gderiv generalLambert int integers integrate invmultisect lagrange lambert lazyGintegrate lazyIntegrate mapdiv mapmult monom multiset nlde oddintegers oddlambert power powern recip revert STTF StreamTranscendentalFunctions  ** acos acosh acot acoth acsc acscn asin asinh atan atanh cos cosh cot coth csc csch exp log sec sech sinh sincosh tan tanh SUBRESP SubResultantPackage primitivePart subresultantVector SYMFUNC SymmetricFunctions symFunc SGCFC SymmetricGroupCombinatoricFunctions coleman inverseColeman listYoungTableaus makeYoungTableau nextColeman nextLatticePermutation nextPartition numberOfImproperPartitions subSet unrankImproperPartitions0 unrankImproperPartitions1 ODESYS SystemODESolver solveInField triangulate SYSSOLP SystemSolvePackage solve triangularSystems TABLBUMP TableauxBumpers bat bat1 bumprow bumpTab bumpTab1 inverse lex maxrow mr slex tab tab1 untab TANEXP TangentExpansions tanAn tanNa tanSum TOOLSIGN ToolsForSign direction nonQsign sign DRAWCURV TopLevelDrawFunctionsForAlgebraicCurves draw DRAWCURV TopLevelDrawFunctionsForCompiledFunctions draw makeObject recolor DRAW TopLevelDrawFunctions draw makeObject TOPSP TopLevelThreeSpace createThreeSpace INTHERTR TranscendentalHermiteIntegration HermiteIntegrate INTEGR TranscendentalIntegration expextendedint expintfrm poly expintfm poly primextendedint primextintfrac primintegrate frac primintegrate primintegrate frac primintegrate frac primintegrate frac primintegrate frac TRMANIP TranscendentalManipulations cos2sec cosh2sech cot2tan cot2trig coth2coth trich csc2sin csch2sinh expand expandPower htrigs removeCosSq removeCoshSq removeSinSq removeSinhSq sec2cos sech2cosh simplify simplifyExp sin2ccsinh2ccosh tan2cot tan2trig tanh2coth tanh2trigh RDETR TranscendentalRischDE DSPDE SPDE baseRDE expRDE primRDE SOLVESER TransSolvePackageService decomposeFunc unvectorise SOLVETRA TransSolvePackage solve TRIMAT TriangularMatrixOperations LowTriBddDenomInv UpTriBddDenomInv TRIGMNIP TrigonometricManipulations complexElementary complexNormalize imag real real? trigs TUBETOOL TubePlotTools * + - cosSinInfo cross dot loopPoints point unitVector CLIP TwoDimensionalPlotClipping clip clipParametric clip WithRanges TWOFACT TwoFactorize generalSqFr generalTwoFactor twoFactor UNIFACT UnivariateFactorize factor factorSquareFree genFact henselFact henselFact quadratic sqrt root trueFactors ULS2 UnivariateLaurentSeriesFunctions2 map UPOLYC2 UnivariatePolynomialCategoryFunctions2 map UPCDEN UnivariatePolynomialCommonDenominator clearDenominator commonDenominator splitDenominator UP2 UnivariatePolynomialFunctions2 map UPSQFREE UnivariatePolynomialSquareFree BumInSepFFE squareFree squareFreePart UPXS2 UnivariatePuiseuxSeriesFunctions2 map UTS2 UnivariateTaylorSeriesFunctions2 map UTSODE
UnivariateTaylorSeriesODESolver mpsode ode ode1 ode2 stFunc1 stFunc2 stFuncN UNISEG2 UniversalSegmentFunctions2 map UDPO UserDefined-PartialOrdering getOrder largest less? more? setOrder userOrdered? UDVO UserDefinedVariableOrdering getVariableOrder resetVariableOrder setVariableOrder VECTOR2 VectorFunctions2 map reduce scan VIEWDEF ViewDefaultsPackage axesColorDefault lineColorDefault pointColorDefault pointSizeDefault tubePointsDefault tubeRadiusDefault unitsColorDefault var1StepsDefault var2StepsDefault viewDefaults viewPosDefault viewSizeDefault viewWriteAvailable viewWriteDefault VIEW ViewportPackage coerce drawCurves graphCurves WEIER WeierstrassPreparation cfirst clikeUniv crest qqq sts2stst weierstrass WFFINTBS WildFunctionFieldIntegralBasis integralBasis listSquaredFactors
Appendix A

Operations

This appendix contains a partial list of Axiom operations with brief descriptions. For more details, use the Browse facility of HyperDoc: enter the name of the operation for which you want more information in the input area on the main Browse menu and then click on Operations.
Appendix A

Programs for AXIOM Images

This appendix contains the Axiom programs used to generate the images in the gallery color insert of this book. All these input files are included with the Axiom system. To produce the images on page 6 of the gallery insert, for example, issue the command:

)read images6

These images were produced on an IBM RS/6000 model 530 with a standard color graphics adapter. The smooth shaded images were made from X Window System screen dumps. The remaining images were produced with Axiom-generated PostScript output. The images were reproduced from slides made on an Agfa ChromaScript PostScript interpreter with a Matrix Instruments QCR camera.

A.1 images1.input

)read tknot

Read torus knot program

torusKnot(15,17, 0.1, 6, 700)  A (15,17) torus knot
A.2 images2.input

These images illustrate how Newton’s method converges when computing the complex cube roots of 2. Each point in the (x,y)-plane represents the complex number $x + iy$, which is given as a starting point for Newton’s method. The poles in these images represent bad starting values. The flat areas are the regions of convergence to the three roots.

```plaintext
)read newton
)read vectors
f := newtonStep(x**3 - 2)  
Create a Newton’s iteration function for $x^3 = 2$

The function $f^n$ computes $n$ steps of Newton’s method.

```plaintext
clipValue := 4  
Clip values with magnitude > 4

drawComplexVectorField(f**3, -3..3, -3..3)  
The vector field for $f^3$
drawComplex(f**3, -3..3, -3..3)  
The surface for $f^3$
drawComplex(f**4, -3..3, -3..3)  
The surface for $f^4$
```

A.3 images3.input

```plaintext
)tknot
for i in 0..4 repeat torusKnot(2, 2 + i/4, 0.5, 25, 250)
```

A.4 images5.input

The parameterization of the Etruscan Venus is due to George Frances.

```plaintext
venus(a,r,steps) ==  
surf := (u:DFLOAT, v:DFLOAT): Point DFLOAT +->
  cv := cos(v)
  sv := sin(v)
  cu := cos(u)
  su := sin(u)
  x := r * cos(2*u) * cv + sv * cu
  y := r * sin(2*u) * cv - sv * su
  z := a * cv
  point [x,y,z]
draw(surf, 0..%pi, -%pi..%pi, var1Steps==steps,
```

```plaintext
```
```plaintext
```
APPENDIX A. PROGRAMS FOR AXIOM IMAGES

The Figure-8 Klein Bottle parameterization is from "Differential Geometry and Computer Graphics" by Thomas Banchoff, in Perspectives in Mathematics, Anniversary of Oberwolfach 1984, Birkhäuser-Verlag, Basel, pp. 43-60.

\[
\text{klein}(x,y) = \\
\begin{align*}
\text{cx} &:= \cos(x) \\
\text{cy} &:= \cos(y) \\
\text{sx} &:= \sin(x) \\
\text{sy} &:= \sin(y) \\
\text{sx2} &:= \sin(x/2) \\
\text{cx2} &:= \cos(x/2) \\
\text{sq2} &:= \sqrt{2.0 @ DFLOAT} \\
\text{point} &\left[\text{cx} \times (\text{cx2} \times (\text{sq2} + \text{cy}) + (\text{sx2} \times \text{sy} \times \text{cy})), \_ \right. \\
\text{sx} \times (\text{cx2} \times (\text{sq2} + \text{cy}) + (\text{sx2} \times \text{sy} \times \text{cy})), \_ \\
-\text{sx2} \times (\text{sq2} + \text{cy}) + \text{cx2} \times \text{sy} \times \text{cy}\right]
\end{align*}
\]

draw(klein, 0..4*\%pi, 0..2*\%pi, var1Steps==50, Figure-8 Klein bottle
var2Steps==50, title=="Figure Eight Klein Bottle")

The next two images are examples of generalized tubes.

\[
\text{rotateBy}(p, \theta) = \] \\
\begin{align*}
c &:= \cos(\theta) \\
s &:= \sin(\theta) \\
\text{point} &\left[p.1 \times c - p.2 \times s, p.1 \times s + p.2 \times c\right]
\end{align*}
\]

twist2(u, t) == An ellipse that twists $t$ revolves once
theta := t
rotateBy(p, theta)

ntubeDrawOpt(bcircle, twist, 0..2*\%pi, 0..2*\%pi, Twisted Torus
var1Steps == 70, var2Steps == 250)

\[
\text{twist2}(u, t) = \] \\
\begin{align*}
\theta &:= t \\
\text{create a twisting circle}
\end{align*}
\]
\[ p := \text{point} \left[ \sin u, \cos(u) \right] \]
\[ \text{rotateBy}(p, \theta) \]
\[ \text{cf}(u,v) := \sin(21 \times u) \]
Color function with \$21\$ stripes
\[ \text{ntubeDrawOpt}(\text{bcircle}, \text{twist2}, 0..2\pi, 0..2\pi, \text{Striped Torus}) \]
\[ \text{colorFunction} := \text{cf}, \text{var1Steps} := 168, \]
\[ \text{var2Steps} := 126 \]

**A.5 images6.input**

\[ \text{gam}(x,y) := \]
\[ g := \text{Gamma} \left( \text{complex}(x,y) \right) \]
\[ \text{point} \left[ x,y,\max(\min(\text{real} g, 4), -4), \text{argument} g \right] \]
\[ \text{draw}(\text{gam}, -\pi..\pi, -\pi..\pi, \text{The Gamma Function}) \]
\[ \text{title} == "\text{Gamma}(x + \%i*y)" \]
\[ \text{var1Steps} == 100, \text{var2Steps} == 100 \]

\[ b(x,y) := \text{Beta}(x,y) \]
\[ \text{draw}(b, -3.1..3, -3.1 .. 3, \text{title} == "\text{Beta}(x,y)") \]

\[ \text{atf}(x,y) := \]
\[ a := \text{atan} \left( \text{complex}(x,y) \right) \]
\[ \text{point} \left[ x,y,\text{real} a, \text{argument} a \right] \]
\[ \text{draw}(\text{atf}, -3.0..\pi, -3.0..\pi) \]

**A.6 images7.input**

First we look at the conformal map \( z \mapsto z + 1/z \).

\[ )\text{read conformal} \]
Read program for drawing conformal maps
\[ f \ z \ == \ z \]
The coordinate grid for the complex plane
\[ \text{conformalDraw}(f, -2..2, -2..2, 9, 9, \text{"cartesian")} \]
\[ \text{Mapping 1: Source} \]
\[ f \ z \ == \ z + 1/z \]
The map \( z \ \text{mapsto} \ z + 1/z \)
conformalDraw(f, -2..2, -2..2, 9, 9, "cartesian") Mapping 1: Target

The map $z \mapsto -(z + 1)/(z - 1)$ maps the unit disk to the right half-plane, as shown on the Riemann sphere.

$f\ z\ ==\ z$ The unit disk

riemannConformalDraw(f, 0.1..0.99, 0..2*π, 7, 11, "polar") Mapping 2: Source

$f\ z\ ==\ -(z+1)/(z-1)$ The map $x \mapsto -(z+1)/(z-1)$

riemannConformalDraw(f, 0.1..0.99, 0..2*π, 7, 11, "polar") Mapping 2: Target

riemannSphereDraw(-4..4, -4..4, 7, 7, "cartesian") Riemann Sphere Mapping

A.7 images8.input

)read dhtri
)read tetra
drawPyramid 4 Sierpinsky’s Tetrahedron

Sierpinsky’s Tetrahedron

)read antoine
drawRings 2 Antoine’s Necklace

Antoine’s Necklace

)read scherk
drawScherk(3,3) Scherk’s Minimal Surface

Scherk’s Minimal Surface

)read ribbonsNew
drawRibbons([x**i for i in 1..5], x=-1..1, y=0..2) Ribbon Plot

A.8 conformal.input

The functions in this section draw conformal maps both on the plane and on the Riemann sphere.

C := Complex DoubleFloat Complex Numbers
S := Segment DoubleFloat Draw ranges
R3 := Point DFLOAT Points in 3-space

conformalDraw(f, rRange, tRange, rSteps, tSteps, coord) draws the image of the coordinate grid under $f$ in the complex plane. The grid may
be given in either polar or Cartesian coordinates. Argument $f$ is the function to draw; $rRange$ is the range of the radius (in polar) or real (in Cartesian); $tRange$ is the range of $\theta$ (in polar) or imaginary (in Cartesian); $tSteps$, $rSteps$, are the number of intervals in the $r$ and $\theta$ directions; and $coord$ is the coordinate system to use (either "polar" or "cartesian").

```lisp
conformalDraw: (C -> C, S, S, PI, PI, String) -> VIEW3D
conformalDraw(f, rRange, tRange, rSteps, tSteps, coord) ==
  transformC := Function for changing an $(x,y)$ coord = "polar" => polar2Complex
  cartesian2Complex
  cm := makeConformalMap(f, transformC)
  sp := createThreeSpace() Create a fresh space
  adaptGrid(sp, cm, rRange, tRange, rSteps, tSteps) Plot the coordinate lines
  makeViewport3D(sp, "Conformal Map") Draw the image

riemannConformalDraw: (C->C, S, S, PI, PI, String) -> VIEW3D
riemannConformalDraw(f, rRange, tRange, rSteps, tSteps, coord) draws the image of the coordinate grid under $f$ on the Riemann sphere. The grid may be given in either polar or Cartesian coordinates. Its arguments are the same as those for conformalDraw.

```
APPENDIX A. PROGRAMS FOR AXIOM IMAGES

\[
u := u + \text{delU}
\]
\[
v := \text{lo vRange}
\]
\[
\text{for } i \text{ in } 1..\text{vSteps repeat}
\]
\[
c := \text{curryRight}(f,v)
\]
\[
\text{cf} := (t:\text{DFLOAT}) : \text{DFLOAT} + \rightarrow 1
\]
\[
\text{makeObject}(c,u\text{Range}::\text{SEG Float},\text{colorFunction}==\text{cf},
\]
\[
\text{Draw the } u \text{ coordinate line}
\]
\[
space == \text{sp}, \text{tubeRadius} == .02, \text{tubePoints} == 6)
\]
\[
v := v + \text{delV}
\]
\[
\text{void()}
\]
\[
\text{riemannTransform}(z) ==
\]
\[
r := \text{sqrt norm z}
\]
\[
\cosTheta := (\text{real z})/r
\]
\[
\sinTheta := (\text{imag z})/r
\]
\[
\text{cp} := 4*r/(4+r**2)
\]
\[
\text{sp} := \text{sqrt}(1-\text{cp}\text{**cp})
\]
\[
\text{if } r>2 \text{ then } \text{sp} := -\text{sp}
\]
\[
\text{point } [\cosTheta*\text{cp}, \sinTheta*\text{cp}, -\text{sp} + 1]
\]
\[
\text{cartesian2Complex}(r:\text{DFLOAT}, i:\text{DFLOAT}) : \text{C} ==
\]
\[
\text{Convert Cartesian coordinates to complex Cartesian form}
\]
\[
\text{polar2Complex}(r:\text{DFLOAT}, \text{th}:\text{DFLOAT}) : \text{C} ==
\]
\[
\text{Convert polar coordinates to complex Cartesian form}
\]
\[
\text{makeConformalMap}(f, \text{transformC}) ==
\]
\[
(\text{u:DFLOAT, v:DFLOAT}) : \text{R3} + \rightarrow
\]
\[
\text{point } [\text{real z}, \text{imag z}, 0.0@\text{DFLOAT}]
\]
\[
\text{makeRiemannConformalMap}(f, \text{transformC}) ==
\]
\[
(\text{u:DFLOAT, v:DFLOAT}) : \text{R3} + \rightarrow
\]
\[
\text{riemannTransform}(f \text{ transformC(u, v)} \text{ on the Riemann sphere}
\]
\[
\text{riemannSphereDraw}: (\text{S, S, PI, PI, String}) \rightarrow \text{VIEW3D}
\]
\[
\text{Draw a picture of the mapping of the complex plane to the Riemann sphere}
\]
\[
\text{riemannSphereDraw(rRange, tRange, rSteps, tSteps, coord)} ==
\]
\[
\text{transformC} :=
\]
\[
\text{coord} = "\text{polar}" \Rightarrow \text{polar2Complex}
\]
\[
\text{cartesian2Complex}
\]
\[
\text{grid} := (\text{u:DFLOAT, v:DFLOAT}) : \text{R3} + \rightarrow
\]
\[
\text{Coordinate grid function}
APPENDIX A. PROGRAMS FOR AXIOM IMAGES

\[ z_1 := \text{transformC}(u, v) \]
\[ \text{point} \ [\text{real} \ z_1, \ \text{imag} \ z_1, \ 0] \]
\[ \text{sp} := \text{createThreeSpace()} \]
\[ \text{adaptGrid}(\text{sp}, \text{grid}, \text{rRange}, \text{tRange}, \text{rSteps}, \text{tSteps}) \]
\[ \text{connectingLines}(\text{sp}, \text{grid}, \text{rRange}, \text{tRange}, \text{rSteps}, \text{tSteps}) \]
\[ \text{makeObject} (\text{riemannSphere},0..2\cdot\pi,0..\pi,\text{space}==\text{sp}) \]
\[ f := (z:C) : C \rightarrow z \]
\[ \text{cm} := \text{makeRiemannConformalMap}(f, \text{transformC}) \]
\[ \text{adaptGrid}(\text{sp}, \text{cm}, \text{rRange}, \text{tRange}, \text{rSteps}, \text{tSteps}) \]
\[ \text{makeViewport3D}(\text{sp}, "\text{Riemann Sphere}"") \]

```
connectingLines(sp,f,uRange,vRange,uSteps,vSteps) ==
  delU := (hi(uRange) - lo(uRange))/uSteps
  delV := (hi(vRange) - lo(vRange))/vSteps
  uSteps := uSteps + 1; vSteps := vSteps + 1
  u := lo uRange
  for i in 1..uSteps repeat
    v := lo vRange
    for j in 1..vSteps repeat
      p1 := f(u,v)
      p2 := riemannTransform complex(p1.1, p1.2)
      fun := lineFromTo(p1,p2)
      cf := (t:DFLOAT):DFLOAT +-> 3
      makeObject(fun, 0..1,sp,tubePoints==4, Draw the connecting line
       tubeRadius==0.01,colorFunction==cf)\n
  v := v + delV
  u := u + delU
  void() \n
riemannSphere(u,v) ==
  A sphere sitting on the
  sv := sin(v) complex plane, with radius 1
   0.99@DFLOAT*(point [cos(u)*sv,sin(u)*sv,cos(v),0.0@DFLOAT])+
  point [0.0@DFLOAT, 0.0@DFLOAT, 1.0@DFLOAT, 4.0@DFLOAT]

lineFromTo(p1, p2) ==
  Create a line function
  d := p2 - p1
  (t:DFLOAT):Point DFLOAT +->
  p1 + t*d
```

A.9  t knot . input

Create a \((p,q)\) torus-knot with radius \(r\) around the curve. The
formula was derived by Larry Lambe.
APPENDIX A. PROGRMAM FOR AXIOM IMAGES

The functions in this file create generalized tubes (also known as generalized cylinders). These functions draw a 2-d curve in the normal planes around a 3-d curve.

\texttt{ntubeDraw}(\texttt{spaceCurve, planeCurve, u0..u1, t0..t1}) draws \texttt{planeCurve} in the normal planes of \texttt{spaceCurve}. The parameter \texttt{u0..u1} specifies the parameter range for \texttt{planeCurve} and \texttt{t0..t1} specifies the parameter range for \texttt{spaceCurve}. Additionally, the plane curve function takes a second parameter: the current parameter of \texttt{spaceCurve}. This allows the plane curve to change shape as it goes around the space curve. See A.4 for an example of this.

\texttt{ntubeDraw}: \texttt{(ThreeCurve,TwoCurve,S,S) -> VIEW3D}

\texttt{ntubeDraw}(spaceCurve, planeCurve, uRange, tRange) ==
  ntubeDrawOpt(spaceCurve, planeCurve, uRange, _
APPENDIX A. PROGRAMS FOR AXIOM IMAGES

\[ \text{tRange, } \text{List DROPT} \]

\text{ntubeDrawOpt: (ThreeCurve, TwoCurve, S, S, List DROPT) \rightarrow VIEW3D}

\text{ntubeDrawOpt (spaceCurve, planeCurve, uRange, tRange, 1) ==}

\begin{verbatim}
This function is similar to \text{ntubeDraw}, but takes optional parameters that it passes to the draw command.

delT:DFLOAT := (hi(tRange) - lo(tRange))/10000
oldT:DFLOAT := lo(tRange) - 1
fun := \text{ngeneralTube (spaceCurve, planeCurve, delT, oldT)}
draw (fun, uRange, tRange, 1)
\end{verbatim}

\text{nfronetFrame(c, t, delT)} numerically computes the Frenet frame about the curve \( c \) at \( t \). Parameter \( \text{delT} \) is a small number used to compute derivatives.

\text{nfronetFrame(c, t, delT) ==}

\begin{verbatim}
f0 := c(t)
f1 := c(t+delT)
t0 := f1 - f0 The tangent
n0 := f1 + f0
b := cross(t0, n0) The binormal
n := cross(b, t0) The normal
ln := length n
lb := length b
ln = 0 or lb = 0 =>
  error "Frenet Frame not well defined"
 n := (1/ln)*n Make into unit length vectors
 b := (1/lb)*b
 [f0, t0, n, b]\$FrenetFrame
\end{verbatim}

\text{ngeneralTube(\text{spaceCurve, planeCurve, delT, oldT}) creates a function that can be passed to the system axiomFundraw command. The function is a parameterized surface for the general tube around \text{spaceCurve}. \text{delT} is a small number used to compute derivatives. \text{oldT} is used to hold the current value of the \text{t} parameter for \text{spaceCurve}. This is an efficiency measure to ensure that frames are only computed once for each value of \text{t}.}

\text{ngeneralTube: (ThreeCurve, TwoCurve, DFLOAT, DFLOAT) \rightarrow Surface}

\text{ngeneralTube (spaceCurve, planeCurve, delT, oldT) ==}

\begin{verbatim}
free frame Indicate that $frame$ is global
(v:DFLOAT, t: DFLOAT): R3 ++>
if (t \$\sim$= oldT) then If not already computed
  frame := nfronetFrame (spaceCurve, t, delT) compute new frame
\end{verbatim}
oldT := t
p := planeCurve(v, t)
frame.value + p.1*frame.normal + p.2*frame.binormal  
Project $p$ into the normal plane

A.11  dhtri.input

Create affine transformations (DH matrices) that transform a given triangle into another.

tri2tri: (List Point DFLOAT, List Point DFLOAT) -> DHMATRIX(DFLOAT)

tri2tri(t1, t2) ==
n1 := triangleNormal(t1)
n2 := triangleNormal(t2)
tet2tet(concat(t1, n1), concat(t2, n2))

tet2tet: (List Point DFLOAT, List Point DFLOAT) -> DHMATRIX(DFLOAT)

tet2tet(t1, t2) ==
m1 := makeColumnMatrix t1
m2 := makeColumnMatrix t2
m2 * inverse(m1)

makeColumnMatrix(t) ==
m := new(4,4,0)\$DHMATRIX(DFLOAT)
for x in t for i in 1..repeat
  for j in 1..3 repeat
    m(j,i) := x.j
  m(4,i) := 1
m

triangleNormal(t) ==
a := triangleArea t
p1 := t.2 - t.1
p2 := t.3 - t.2
c := cross(p1, p2)
len := length(c)
len = 0 => error "degenerate triangle!"
c := (1/len)*c
t.1 + sqrt(a) * c

triangleArea t ==
a := length(t.2 - t.1)

Compute a vector normal to the given triangle, whose length is the square root of the area of the triangle.

Compute the area of a triangle using Heron’s
APPENDIX A. PROGRAMS FOR AXIOM IMAGES

b := length(t.3 - t.2)
c := length(t.1 - t.3)
s := (a+b+c)/2
sqrt(s*(s-a)*(s-b)*(s-c))

A.12 tetra.input

)set expose add con DenavitHartenbergMatrix

x1:DFLOAT := sqrt(2.0@DFLOAT/3.0@DFLOAT)  Set up the coordinates of the
x2:DFLOAT := sqrt(3.0@DFLOAT)/6  

corners of the tetrahedron.

p1 := point [-0.5@DFLOAT, -x2, 0.0@DFLOAT]  Some needed points
p2 := point [0.5@DFLOAT, -x2, 0.0@DFLOAT]
p3 := point [0.0@DFLOAT, 2*x2, 0.0@DFLOAT]
p4 := point [0.0@DFLOAT, 0.0@DFLOAT, x1]

baseTriangle := [p2, p1, p3]  The base of the tetrahedron

mt := [0.5@DFLOAT*(p2+p1), 0.5@DFLOAT*(p1+p3), 0.5@DFLOAT*(p3+p2)]   The middle triangle inscribed
in the base of the tetrahedron

bt1 := [mt.1, p1, mt.2]  The bases of the triangles of
bt2 := [p2, mt.1, mt.3]  
bt3 := [mt.2, p3, mt.3]  the subdivided tetrahedron
bt4 := [0.5@DFLOAT*(p2+p4), 0.5@DFLOAT*(p1+p4), 0.5@DFLOAT*(p3+p4)]


tt1 := tri2tri(baseTriangle, bt1)  Create the transformations
tt2 := tri2tri(baseTriangle, bt2) that bring the base of the
tt3 := tri2tri(baseTriangle, bt3) tetrahedron to the bases of
tt4 := tri2tri(baseTriangle, bt4) the subdivided tetrahedron
drawPyramid(n) == Draw a Sierpinsky tetrahedron
s := createThreeSpace() with $n$ levels of recursive
dh := rotatex(0.0@DFLOAT) subdivision
drawPyramidInner(s, n, dh)
makeViewport3D(s, "Sierpinsky Tetrahedron")
drawPyramidInner(s, n, dh) ==  Recursively draw a Sierpinsky
n = 0 => makeTetrahedron(s, dh, n) tetrahedron
drawPyramidInner(s, n-1, dh * tt1)  Draw the 4 recursive pyramids
drawPyramidInner(s, n-1, dh * tt2)
drawPyramidInner(s, n-1, dh * tt3)
drawPyramidInner(s, n-1, dh * tt4)
APPENDIX A. PROGRAMS FOR AXIOM IMAGES

makeTetrahedron(sp, dh, color) == Draw a tetrahedron into the
  w1 := dh*p1 given space with the given
  w2 := dh*p2 color, transforming it by
  w3 := dh*p3 the given DH matrix
  w4 := dh*p4
polygon(sp, [w1, w2, w4])
polygon(sp, [w1, w3, w4])
polygon(sp, [w2, w3, w4])
void()

A.13 antoine.input

Draw Antoine’s Necklace. Thank you to Matthew Grayson at IBM’s T.J
Watson Research Center for the idea.

)set expose add con DenavitHartenbergMatrix Bring DH matrices into
the environment
torusRot: DHMATRIX(DFLOAT) The transformation for
drawing a sub ring
drawRings(n) == Draw Antoine’s Necklace with $n$
s := createThreeSpace() levels of recursive subdivision
dh:DHMATRIX(DFLOAT) := identity() The number of subrings is $10^n$
drawRingsInner(s, n, dh) Do the real work
makeViewport3D(s, "Antoine’s Necklace")

In order to draw Antoine rings, we take one ring, scale it down
to a smaller size, rotate it around its central axis, translate it
to the edge of the larger ring and rotate it around the edge to a
point corresponding to its count (there are 10 positions around
the edge of the larger ring). For each of these new rings we
recursively perform the operations, each ring becoming 10 smaller
rings. Notice how the DHMATRIX operations are used to build up
the proper matrix composing all these transformations.

drawRingsInner(s, n, dh) == Recursively draw Antoine’s
  n = 0 => Necklace
drawRing(s, dh)
  void()
t := 0.0@DFLOAT Angle around ring
p := 0.0@DFLOAT Angle of subring from plane
tr := 1.0@DFLOAT Amount to translate subring
APPENDIX A. PROGRAMS FOR AXIOM IMAGES

inc := 0.1@DFLOAT  
The translation increment
for i in 1..10 repeat  
   Subdivide into 10 linked rings
   tr := tr + inc
   inc := -inc
   dh' := dh*rotatez(t)*translate(tr,0.0@DFLOAT,0.0@DFLOAT)*
   Transform ring in center
to a link
   rotatey(p)*scale(0.35@DFLOAT, 0.48@DFLOAT, 0.4@DFLOAT)
drawRingsInner(s, n-1, dh')
t := t + 36.0@DFLOAT
p := p + 90.0@DFLOAT
void()

drawRing(s, dh) ==  
   Draw a single ring into
   free torusRot
   torusRot := dh transformed by the given
   DHMATRIX
   makeObject(torus, 0..2*%pi, 0..2*%pi, var1Steps == 6, 
   space == s, var2Steps == 15)
   torus(u,v) ==  
   Parameterization of a torus,
   transformed by the given
   DHMATRIX in $torusRot.$
   torusRot*point [(1+cu)*cos(v),(1+cu)*sin(v),(sin u)/6]

torus := cos(u)/6
A.14 scherk.input

Scherk’s minimal surface, defined by: \( e^{\cos(x)} = \cos(y) \). See: A
Comprehensive Introduction to Differential Geometry, Vol. 3, by Michael

(xOffset, yOffset):DFLOAT  
Offsets for a single piece
of Scherk’s minimal surface
drawScherk(m,n) ==  
   Draw Scherk’s minimal surface
   free xOffset, yOffset
   space := createThreeSpace()
   for i in 0..m-1 repeat
      xOffset := i*%pi
      for j in 0 .. n-1 repeat
         rem(i+j, 2) = 0 => 'iter
         yOffset := j*%pi
         drawOneScherk(space)
   Draw only odd patches
drawOneScherk(space)  
   Draw a patch
makeViewport3D(space, "Scherk’s Minimal Surface")
APPENDIX A. PROGRAMS FOR AXIOM IMAGES

scherk1(u,v) == The first patch that makes up a single piece of Scherk’s minimal surface
x := cos(u)/exp(v)
point [xOffset + acos(x), yOffset + u, v, abs(v)]
scherk2(u,v) == The second patch
x := cos(u)/exp(v)
point [xOffset - acos(x), yOffset + u, v, abs(v)]
scherk3(u,v) == The third patch
x := exp(v) * cos(u)
point [xOffset + u, yOffset + acos(x), v, abs(v)]
scherk4(u,v) == The fourth patch
x := exp(v) * cos(u)
point [xOffset + u, yOffset - acos(x), v, abs(v)]
drawOneScherk(s) == Draw the surface by breaking it into four patches and then drawing the patches
makeObject(scherk1,-%pi/2..%pi/2,0..%pi/2,space==s,
    var1Steps == 28, var2Steps == 28)
makeObject(scherk2,-%pi/2..%pi/2,0..%pi/2,space==s,
    var1Steps == 28, var2Steps == 28)
makeObject(scherk3,-%pi/2..%pi/2,-%pi/2..0,space==s,
    var1Steps == 28, var2Steps == 28)
makeObject(scherk4,-%pi/2..%pi/2,-%pi/2..0,space==s,
    var1Steps == 28, var2Steps == 28)
void()
Appendix B

Glossary

Glossary

1. (syntax) Suffix character for destructive operations.

2. (syntax) A separator for items in a tuple, for example, to separate arguments of a function $f(x,y)$.

3. (syntax) The expression $a \Rightarrow b$ is equivalent to ifthen exit $b$.

4. (syntax) A suffix character for Boolean-valued function names, for example, odd?.

5. Prefix character for "optional" pattern variables. For example, the pattern $f(x+y)$ does not match the expression $f(?)$, but $f(?x+y)$ does, with $x$ matching 0 and $y$ matching 7.

6. The special type ? means don't care. For example, the declaration: $x : Polynomial?$ means that values assigned to $x$ must be polynomials over an arbitrary underlying domain.

abstract datatype

A programming language principle used in Axiom where a datatype definition has defined in two parts: (1) a public part describing a set of exports, principally operations that apply to objects of that type, and (2) a private part describing the implementation of the datatype usually in terms of a representation for objects of the type. Programs that create and otherwise manipulate objects of the type may only do so through its exports. The representation and other implementation information is specifically hidden.

abstraction

Described functionally or conceptually without regard to
implementation.

accuracy
the degree of exactness of an approximation or measurement. In computer algebra systems, computations are typically carried out with complete accuracy using integers or rational numbers of indefinite size. Domain Float provides a function precision to change the precision for floating-point computations. Computations using DoubleFloat have a fixed precision but uncertain accuracy.

add-chain
a hierarchy formed by domain extensions. If domain A extends domain B and domain B extends domain C, then A has add-chain B–C.

aggregate
a data structure designed to hold multiple values. Examples of aggregates are List, Set, Matrix and Bits.

AKCL
Austin Kyoto Common LISP, a version of KCL produced by William Schelter, Austin, Texas.

algorithm
a step-by-step procedure for a solution of a problem; a program

ancestor
(of a domain or category) a category that is a parent, or a parent of a parent, and so on. See a Cross Reference page of a constructor in Browse.

application
(syntax) an expression denoting “application” of a function to a set of argument parameters. Applications are written as a parameterized form. For example, the form f(x,y) indicates the “application of the function f to the tuple of arguments x and y.” See also evaluation and invocation.

apply
See application.

argument
1. (actual argument) a value passed to a function at the time of a function call; also called an actual parameter. 2. (formal argument) a variable used in the definition of a function to denote the actual argument passed when the function is called.

arity
1. (function) the number of arguments. 2. (operator or operation) corresponds to the arity of a function implementing the operator or operation.
assignment  
(syntax) an expression of the form $x := e$, meaning “assign the value of $e$ to $x$.” After evaluation, the variable $x$ points to an object obtained by evaluating the expression $e$. If $x$ has a type as a result of a previous declaration, the object assigned to $x$ must have that type. The interpreter must often coerce the value of $e$ to make that happen. For example, the expression $x : \text{Float} := 11$ first declares $x$ to be a float, then forces the interpreter to coerce the integer 11 to 11.0 in order to assign a floating-point value to $x$.

attribute  
a name or functional form denoting any useful computational or mathematical property. For example, \text{commutative}($\ast$) asserts that $\ast$ is commutative. Also, \text{finiteAggregate} is used to assert that an aggregate has a finite number of immediate components.

basis  
(algebra) $S$ is a basis of a module $M$ over a ring if $S$ generates $M$, and $S$ is linearly independent.

benefactor  
(of a given domain) a domain or package that the given domain explicitly references (for example, calls functions from) in its implementation. See a Cross Reference page of a constructor in Browse.

binary  
operation or function with \text{arity} 2.

binding  
the association of a variable with properties such as \text{value} and \text{type}. The top-level \text{environment} in the interpreter consists of bindings for all user variables and functions. When a \text{function} is applied to arguments, a local environment of bindings is created, one for each formal \text{argument} and \text{local variable}.

block  
(syntax) a control structure where expressions are sequentially evaluated.

body  
a \text{function body} or \text{loop body}.

boolean  
objects denoted by the literals true and false; elements of domain \text{Boolean}. See also Bits.

built-in function  
a \text{function} in the standard Axiom library. Contrast \text{user function}.
APPENDIX B. GLOSSARY

**cache**
1. (noun) a mechanism for immediate retrieval of previously computed data. For example, a function that does a lengthy computation might store its values in a hash table using the function argument as the key. The hash table then serves as a cache for the function (see also set function cache). Also, when recurrence relations that depend upon $n$ previous values are compiled, the previous $n$ values are normally cached (use set functions recurrence to change this).
2. (verb) to save values in a cache.

**capsule**
the part of the body of a domain constructor that defines the functions implemented by the constructor.

**case**
(syntax) an operator used to evaluate code conditionally based on the branch of a Union. For example, if value $u$ is Union(Integer,"failed"), the conditional expression if u caseInteger then A else B evaluates A if $u$ is an integer and $B$ otherwise.

**Category**
the distinguished object denoting the type of a category; the class of all categories.

**category**
(basic concept) types denoting classes of domains. Examples of categories are Ring ("the class of all rings") and Aggregate ("the class of all aggregates"). Categories form a hierarchy (formally, a directed acyclic graph) with the distinguished category Type at the top. Each category inherits the properties of all its ancestors. Categories optionally provide "default definitions" for operations they export. Categories are defined in Axiom by functions called category constructors. Technically, a category designates a class of domains with common operations and attributes but usually with different functions and representations for its constituent objects. Categories are always defined using the Axiom library language (see also category extension). See also file cat-def.spad for definitions of basic algebraic categories in Axiom, aggecat.spad for data structure.

**category constructor**
a function that creates categories, described by an abstract datatype in the Axiom programming language. For example, the category constructor Module is a function that takes a domain parameter $R$ and creates the category "modules over $R".

**category extension**
A category $A$ **directly extends** a category $B$ if its definition has the form $A == B \text{with...}$ or $A == \text{Join}(...,B,...)$. In this case, we also say that $B$ is the **parent** of $A$. We say that a category $A$ extends $B$ if $B$ is an **ancestor** of $A$. A category $A$ may also directly extend $B$ if $B$ appears in a conditional expression within the Exports part of the definition to the right of a with. See, for example, file `catdef.spad` for definitions of the algebra categories in Axiom, `agcateg.spad` for data structure categories.

**category hierarchy**

Hierarchy formed by category extensions. The root category is **Type**. A category can be defined as a **Join** of two or more categories so as to have multiple parents. Categories may also be parameterized so as to allow conditional inheritance.

**character**

1. an element of a character set, as represented by a keyboard key. 2. a component of a string. For example, the 1st element of the string "hellothere" is the character $h$.

**client**

(of a given domain) any domain or package that explicitly calls functions from the given domain. See a **Cross Reference** page of a constructor in Browse.

**coercion**

An automatic transformation of an object of one type to an object of a similar or desired target type. In the interpreter, coercions and retractions are done automatically by the interpreter when a type mismatch occurs. Compare **conversion**.

**comment**

Textual remarks imbedded in code. Comments are preceded by a double dash (\-\-). For Axiom library code, stylized comments for on-line documentation are preceded by two plus signs (\+\+).

**Common LISP**

A version of LISP adopted as an informal standard by major users and suppliers of LISP.

**compile-time**

The time when category or domain constructors are compiled. Contrast **run-time**.

**compiler**

A program that generates low-level code from a higher-level source language. Axiom has three compilers. A **graphics compiler** converts graphical formulas to a compiled subroutine so that points can be rapidly produced for graphics commands. An **interpreter compiler** optionally compiles user functions when first invoked (use \(\text{set functions compile to turn this feature on}\)). A **library compiler**...
piler compiles all constructors (available on an “as-is” basis for Release 1).

computational object
In Axiom, domains are objects. This term is used to distinguish the objects that are members of domains rather than the domains themselves.

conditional
a control structure of the form \( \text{if} \ A \text{then} \ B \text{else} \ C \). The evaluation of \( A \) produces true or false. If true, \( B \) evaluates to produce a value; otherwise \( C \) evaluates to produce a value. When the value is not required, the \( \text{else} \ C \) part can be omitted.

constant
(syntax) a reserved word used in signatures in Axiom programming language to signify that an operation always returns the same value. For example, the signature \( 0 : \text{constant} \rightarrow \) in the source code of \texttt{AbelianMonoid} tells the Axiom compiler that 0 is a constant so that suitable optimizations might be performed.

constructor
a function that creates a category, domain, or package.

continuation
when a line of a program is so long that it must be broken into several lines, then all but the first line are called continuation lines. If such a line is given interactively, then each incomplete line must end with an underscore.

control structure
program structures that can specify a departure from normal sequential execution. Axiom has four kinds of control structures: blocks, case statements, conditionals, and loops.

conversion
the transformation of an object of one type to one of another type. Conversions that can be performed automatically by the interpreter are called coercions. These happen when the interpreter encounters a type mismatch and a similar or declared target type is needed. In general, the user must use the infix operation :: to cause this transformation.

copying semantics
the programming language semantics used in PASCAL but not in Axiom. See also pointer semantics for details.

data structure
a structure for storing data in the computer. Examples are lists and hash tables.

datatype
equivalent to *domain* in Axiom.

**Declaration**

(syntax) an expression of the form \( x : T \) where \( T \) is some *type*. A declaration forces all values assigned to \( x \) to be of that type. If a value is of a different type, the interpreter will try to coerce the value to type \( T \). Declarations are necessary in case of ambiguity or when a user wants to introduce an unexposed domain.

**Default definition**

a function defined by a *category*. Such definitions appear in category definitions of the form \( C : Category == TaddI \) in an optional implementation part \( I \) to the right of the keyword *add*.

**Default package**

an optional *package* of functions associated with a category. Such functions are necessarily defined in terms of other operations exported by the category.

**Definition**

(syntax) 1. An expression of the form \( f(a) == b \) defining function \( f \) with formal arguments \( a \) and *body* \( b \); equivalent to the statement \( f == (a) + - b \). 2. An expression of the form \( a == b \) where \( a \) is a *symbol*, equivalent to \( a() == b \). See also *macro* where a similar substitution is done at *parse* time.

**Delimiter**

a *character* that marks the beginning or end of some syntactically correct unit in the language, for example, " for strings, blanks for identifiers.

**Dependent**

(of a given constructor) another constructor that mentions the given constructor as an argument or among the types of an exported operation. See a *Cross Reference* page of a constructor in Browse.

**Destructive operation**

An operation that changes a component or structure of a value. In Axiom, destructive operations have names ending with an exclamation mark (!). For example, domain *List* has two operations to reverse the elements of a list, one named *reverse* that returns a copy of the original list with the elements reversed, another named *reverse* that reverses the elements *in place*, thus destructively changing the original list.

**Documentation**

1. on-line or hard-copy descriptions of Axiom; 2. text in library code preceded by ++ comments as opposed to general comments preceded by -.
domain  
(basic concept) a domain corresponds to the usual notion of datatypes. Examples of domains are List Float ("lists of floats"), Fraction Polynomial Integer ("fractions of polynomials of integers"), and Matrix Stream CardinalNumber ("matrices of infinite streams of cardinal numbers"). The term domain actually abbreviates domain of computation. Technically, a domain denotes a class of objects, a class of operations for creating and otherwise manipulating these objects, and a class of attributes describing computationally useful properties. Domains may also define functions for its exported operations, often in terms of some representation for the objects. A domain itself is an object created by a function called a domain constructor. The types of the exported operations of a domain are arbitrary; this gives rise to a special class of domains called packages.

domain constructor  
a function that creates domains, described by an abstract datatype in the Axiom programming language. Simple domains like Integer and Boolean are created by domain constructors with no arguments. Most domain constructors take one or more parameters, one usually denoting an underlying domain. For example, the domain Matrix(R) denotes "matrices over R."Domains Mapping, Record, and Union are primitive domains. All other domains are written in the Axiom programming language and can be modified by users with access to the library source code and the library compiler.

domain extension  
a domain constructor A is said to extend a domain constructor B if A's definition has the form A == Badd... This intuitively means "functions not defined by A are assumed to come from B." Successive domain extensions form add-chains affecting the search order for functions not implemented directly by the domain during dynamic lookup.

dot notation  
using an infix dot (.) for the operation elt. If u is the list [7,4,-11] then both u(2) and u.2 return 4. Dot notation nests to the left: f.g.h is equivalent to (f.g).h.

dynamic  
that which is done at run-time as opposed to compile-time. For example, the interpreter may build a domain "matrices over integers" dynamically in response to user input. However, the compilation of all functions for matrices and integers is done during compile-time. Contrast static.

dynamic lookup  
In Axiom, a domain may or may not explicitly provide function
definitions for all its exported operations. These definitions may instead come from domains in the \textit{add-chain} or from default packages. When a function call is made for an operation in the domain, up to five steps are carried out.

1. If the domain itself implements a function for the operation, that function is returned.

2. Each of the domains in the \textit{add-chain} are searched; if one of these domains implements the function, that function is returned.

3. Each of the default packages for the domain are searched in order of the \textit{lineage}. If any of the default packages implements the function, the first one found is returned.

4. Each of the default packages for each of the domains in the \textit{add-chain} are searched in the order of their \textit{lineage}. If any of the default packages implements the function, the first one found is returned.

5. If all of the above steps fail, an error message is reported.

\textbf{empty}

the unique value of objects with type \texttt{Void}.

\textbf{environment}

a set of bindings.

\textbf{evaluation}

a systematic process that transforms an \textit{expression} into an object called the \textit{value} of the expression. Evaluation may produce side effects.

\textbf{exit}

(\textit{reserved word}) an \textit{operator} that forces an exit from the current \textit{block}. For example, the block \((a := 1; i: if i > 0 then exit; a := 2)\) will prematurely exit at the second statement with value 1 if the value of \textit{i} is greater than zero. See \texttt{=} for an alternate syntax.

\textbf{explicit export}

1. (of a domain \textit{D}) any \textit{attribute}, \textit{operation}, or \textit{category} explicitly mentioned in the \textit{type} exports part \textit{E} for the domain constructor definition \textit{D : E == I} 2. (of a category \textit{C}) any \textit{attribute}, \textit{operation}, or \textit{category} explicitly mentioned in the \textit{type} specification part \textit{E} for the category constructor definition \textit{C : Category == E}

\textbf{export}

\textit{explicit export} or \textit{implicit export} of a domain or category
expose
some constructors are exposed, others unexposed. Exposed domains and packages are recognized by the interpreter. Use \texttt{)set expose} to control what is exposed. Unexposed constructors will appear in Browse prefixed by a star ("*").

expression
1. any syntactically correct program fragment. 2. an element of domain \texttt{Expression}.

extend
see category extension or domain extension.

field
(algebra) a domain that is a ring where every non-zero element is invertible and where $xy = yx$; a member of category \texttt{Field}. For a complete list of fields, click on \texttt{Domains} under Cross Reference for \texttt{Field} in Browse.

file
1. a program or collection of data stored on disk, tape or other medium. 2. an object of a \texttt{File} domain.

float
a floating-point number with user-specified precision; an element of domain \texttt{Float}. Floats are literals written either without an exponent (for example, 3.1416), or with an exponent (for example, 3.12E $-$ 12). Use function \texttt{precision} to change the precision of the mantissa (20 digits by default). See also small float.

formal parameter
(of a function) an identifier bound to the value of an actual argument on invocation. In the function definition $f(x,y) = u$, for example, $x$ and $y$ are the formal parameters.

frame
the basic unit of an interactive session; each frame has its own step number, environment, and history. In one interactive session, users can create and drop frames, and have several active frames simultaneously.

free
(syntax) A keyword used in user-defined functions to declare that a variable is a free variable of that function. For example, the statement \texttt{freex} declares the variable $x$ within the body of a function $f$ to be a free variable in $f$. Without such a declaration, any variable $x$ that appears on the left-hand side of an assignment before it is referenced is regarded as a local variable of that function. If the intention of the assignment is to give a value to a global variable $x$, the body of that function must contain the statement \texttt{freex}. A variable that is a parameter to the function is
always local.

free variable
(of a function) a variable that appears in a body of a function but is not bound by that function. Contrast with local variable.

function
implementation of operation. A function takes zero or more argument parameters and produces a single return value. Functions are objects that can be passed as parameters to functions and can be returned as values of functions. Functions can also create other functions (see also InputForm). See also application and invocation. The terms operation and function are distinct notions in Axiom. An operation is an abstraction of a function, described by a name and a signature. A function is created by providing an implementation of that operation by Axiom code. Consider the example of defining a user-function fact to compute the factorial of a nonnegative integer. The Axiom statement

\[
\text{fact} : \text{Integer} \rightarrow \text{Integer}
\]

describes the operation, whereas the statement

\[
\text{fact}(n) = \text{reduce}(*,[1..n])
\]
defines the function. See also generic function.

function body
the part of a function's definition that is evaluated when the function is called at run-time; the part of the function definition to the right of the ==.

garbage collection
a system function that automatically recycles memory cells from the heap. Axiom is built upon Common LISP that provides this facility.

garbage collector
a mechanism for reclaiming storage in the heap.

Gaussian
a complex-valued expression, for example, one with both a real and imaginary part; a member of a Complex domain.

generic function
the use of one function to operate on objects of different types. One might regard Axiom as supporting generic operations but not generic functions. One operation \( + : (D,D) \rightarrow D \) exists for adding elements in a ring; each ring however provides its own type-specific function for implementing this operation.

global variable
A variable that can be referenced freely by functions. In Axiom, all top-level user-defined variables defined during an interactive user session are global variables. Axiom does not allow fluid variables, that is, variables bound by a function \( f \) that can be referenced by functions that \( f \) calls.
Gröbner basis
(algebra) a special basis for a polynomial ideal that allows a simple test for membership. It is useful in solving systems of polynomial equations.

group
(algebra) a monoid where every element has a multiplicative inverse.

hash table
a data structure designed for fast lookup of information stored under "keys". A hash table consists of a set of entries, each of which associates a key with a value. Finding the object stored under a key can be fast for a large number of entries since keys are hashed into numerical codes for fast lookup.

heap
1. an area of storage used by data in programs. For example, Axiom will use the heap to hold the partial results of symbolic computations. When cancellations occur, these results remain in the heap until garbage collected. 2. an object of a Heap domain.

history
a mechanism that records input and output data for an interactive session. Using the history facility, users can save computations, review previous steps of a computation, and restore a previous interactive session at some later time. For details, issue the system command ]history ? to the interpreter. See also frame.

ideal
(algebra) a subset of a ring that is closed under addition and multiplication by arbitrary ring elements; thus an ideal is a module over the ring.

identifier
(syntax) an Axiom name; a literal of type Symbol. An identifier begins with an alphabetical character, %, ?, or !, and may be followed by any of these or digits. Certain distinguished reserved words are not allowed as identifiers but have special meaning in Axiom.

immutable
an object is immutable if it cannot be changed by an operation; it is not a mutable object. Algebraic objects are generally immutable: changing an algebraic expression involves copying parts of the original object. One exception is an object of type Matrix. Examples of mutable objects are data structures such as those of type List. See also pointer semantics.

implicit export
(of a domain or category) any exported attribute or operation or cat-
egory that is not an explicit export. For example, Monoid and * are implicit exports of Ring.

index
1. a variable that counts the number of times a loop is repeated.
2. the "address" of an element in a data structure (see also category LinearAggregate).

infix
(syntax) an operator placed between two operands; also called a binary operator. For example, in the expression $a + b$, + is the infix operator. An infix operator may also be used as a prefix. Thus $+(a,b)$ is also permissible in the Axiom language. Infix operators have a precedence relative to one another.

input area
a rectangular area on a HyperDoc screen into which users can enter text.

instantiate
to build a category, domain, or package at run-time.

integer
a literal object of domain Integer, the class of integers with an unbounded number of digits. Integer literals consist of one or more consecutive digits (0-9) with no embedded blanks. Underscores can be used to separate digits in long integers if desirable.

interactive
a system where the user interacts with the computer step-by-step.

interpreter
the part of Axiom responsible for handling user input during an interactive session. The interpreter parses the user's input expression to create an expression tree, then does a bottom-up traversal of the tree. Each subtree encountered that is not a value consists of a root node denoting an operation name and one or more leaf nodes denoting operands. The interpreter resolves type mismatches and uses type-inferencing and a library database to determine appropriate types for the operands and the result, and an operation to be performed. The interpreter next builds a domain to perform the indicated operation, and invokes a function from the domain to compute a value. The subtree is then replaced by that value and the process continues. Once the entire tree has been processed, the value replacing the top node of the tree is displayed back to the user as the value of the expression.

invocation
(of a function) the run-time process involved in evaluating a function application. This process has two steps. First, a local environment is created where formal arguments are locally bound by
assignment to their respective actual argument. Second, the function body is evaluated in that local environment. The evaluation of a function is terminated either by completely evaluating the function body or by the evaluation of a return expression.

iteration repeated evaluation of an expression or a sequence of expressions. Iterations use the reserved words for, while, and repeat.

Join a primitive Axiom function taking two or more categories as arguments and producing a category containing all of the operations and attributes from the respective categories.

KCL Kyoto Common LISP, a version of Common LISP that features compilation of LISP into the C Programming Language.

library In Axiom, a collection of compiled modules representing category or domain constructors.

lineage the sequence of default packages for a given domain to be searched during dynamic lookup. This sequence is computed first by ordering the category ancestors of the domain according to their level number, an integer equal to the minimum distance of the domain from the category. Parents have level 1, parents of parents have level 2, and so on. Among categories with equal level numbers, ones that appear in the left-most branches of Joins in the source code come first. See a Cross Reference page of a constructor in Browse. See also dynamic lookup.

LISP acronym for List Processing Language, a language designed for the manipulation of non-numerical data. The Axiom library is translated into LISP then compiled into machine code by an underlying LISP system.

list an object of a List domain.

literal an object with a special syntax in the language. In Axiom, there are five types of literals: booleans, integers, floats, strings, and symbols.

local (syntax) A keyword used in user-defined functions to declare that a variable is a local variable of that function. Because of default assumptions on variables, such a declaration is often not necessary
but is available to the user for clarity when appropriate.

**local variable**

(of a function) a variable bound by that function and such that its binding is invisible to any function that function calls. Also called a *lexical* variable. By default in the interpreter:

1. any variable \( x \) that appears on the left-hand side of an assignment is normally regarded a local variable of that function. If the intention of an assignment is to change the value of a *global* variable \( x \), the body of the function must then contain the statement `free x`.

2. any other variable is regarded as a *free variable*.

An optional declaration `local x` is available to declare explicitly a variable to be a local variable. All formal parameters are local variables to the function.

**loop**

1. an expression containing a repeat. 2. a collection expression having a for or a while, for example, `[f(i) for i in S]`.

**loop body**

the part of a loop following the repeat that tells what to do each iteration. For example, the body of the loop `for i in S repeat B` is \( B \). For a collection expression, the body of the loop precedes the initial for or while.

**macro**

1. *(interactive syntax)* An expression of the form `macro a == b` where \( a \) is a symbol causes \( a \) to be textually replaced by the expression \( b \) at *parse* time. 2. An expression of the form `macro f(a) == b` defines a parameterized macro expansion for a parameterized form \( f \). This macro causes a form \( f(x) \) to be textually replaced by the expression \( c \) at parse time, where \( c \) is the expression obtained by replacing \( a \) by \( x \) everywhere in \( b \). See also *definition* where a similar substitution is done during *evaluation*. 3. *(programming language syntax)* An expression of the form `a => b` where \( a \) is a symbol.

**mode**

a type expression containing a question-mark (?). For example, the mode `POLY ?` designates *the class of all polynomials over an arbitrary ring*.

**mutable**

objects that contain pointers to other objects and that have operations defined on them that alter these pointers. Contrast *immutable*. Axiom uses *pointer semantics* as does *LISP* in contrast with many other languages such as PASCAL that use *copying semantics*. See *pointer semantics* for details.
name
1. a symbol denoting a variable, such as the variable $x$. 2. a symbol denoting an operation, that is, the operation $\text{divide} : (\text{Integer, Integer}) \to \text{Integer}$.

nullary
a function with no arguments, for example, characteristic; operation or function with arity zero.

object
a data entity created or manipulated by programs. Elements of domains, functions, and domains themselves are objects. The most basic objects are literals; all other objects must be created by functions. Objects can refer to other objects using pointers and can be mutable.

object code
code that can be directly executed by hardware; also known as machine language.

operand
an argument of an operator (regarding an operator as a function).

operation
an abstraction of a function, described by a signature. For example, $\text{fact} : \text{NonNegativeInteger} \to \text{NonNegativeInteger}$ describes an operation for "the factorial of a (non-negative) integer."

operator
special reserved words in the language such as $+$ and $\ast$; operators can be either prefix or infix and have a relative precedence.

overloading
the use of the same name to denote distinct operations; an operation is identified by a signature identifying its name, the number and types of its arguments, and its return types. If two functions can have identical signatures, a package call must be made to distinguish the two.

package
a special case of a domain, one for which the exported operations depend solely on the parameters and other explicit domains (contain no $\$). Intuitively, packages are collections of (polymorphic) functions. Facilities for integration, differential equations, solution of linear or polynomial equations, and group theory are provided by packages.

package call
(syntax) an expression of the form $e \$ p$ where $e$ is an application and $p$ denotes some package (or domain).

package constructor
same as domain constructor.

parameter
see argument.

parameterized datatype
a domain that is built on another, for example, polynomials with integer coefficients.

parameterized form
a expression of the form \( f(x,y) \), an application of a function.

parent
(of a domain or category) a category which is explicitly declared in the source code definition for the domain either to the left of the with or as an export of the domain. See category extension. See also a Cross Reference page of a constructor in Browse.

parse
1. (verb) to transform a user input string representing a valid Axiom expression into an internal representation as a tree-structure; the resulting internal representation is then "interpreted" by Axiom to perform some indicated action.

partially ordered set
a set with a reflexive, transitive and antisymmetric binary operation.

pattern matching
1. (on expressions) Given an expression called the "subject" \( u \), the attempt to rewrite \( u \) using a set of "rewrite rules." Each rule has the form \( A == B \) where \( A \) indicates an expression called a "pattern" and \( B \) denotes a "replacement." The meaning of this rule is "replace \( A \) by \( B \)." If a given pattern \( A \) matches a subexpression of \( u \), that subexpression is replaced by \( B \). Once rewritten, pattern matching continues until no further changes occur. 2. (on strings) the attempt to match a string indicating a "pattern" to another string called a "subject", for example, for the purpose of identifying a list of names. In Browse, users may enter search strings for the purpose of identifying constructors, operations, and attributes.

pile
alternate syntax for a block, using indentation and column alignment (see also block).

pointer
a reference implemented by a link directed from one object to another in the computer memory. An object is said to refer to another if it has a pointer to that other object. Objects can also refer to themselves (cyclic references are legal). Also more
than one object can refer to the same object. See also pointer semantics.

**pointer semantics**
the programming language semantics used in languages such as LISP that allow objects to be mutable. Consider the following sequence of Axiom statements:

```axiom
x: VectorInteger := [1,4,7]
y := x
swap!(x,2,3)
```

The function `swap` is used to interchange the second and third value in the list `x`, producing the value `[1,7,4]`. What value does `y` have after evaluation of the third statement? The answer is different in Axiom than it is in a language with copying semantics. In Axiom, first the vector `[1,2,3]` is created and the variable `x` set to point to this object. Let’s call this object `V`. Next, the variable `y` is made to point to `V` just as `x` does. Now the third statement interchanges the last 2 elements of `V` (the `!` at the end of the name `swap` tells you that this operation is destructive, that is, it changes the elements in place). Both `x` and `y` perceive this change to `V`. Thus both `x` and `y` then have the value `[1,7,4]`. In PASCAL, the second statement causes a copy of `V` to be stored under `y`. Thus the change to `V` made by the third statement does not affect `y`. 
polymorphic
a function (for example, one implementing an algorithm) defined with
categorical types so as to be applicable over a variety of domains
(the domains which are members of the categorical types). Every
Axiom function defined in a domain or package constructor with a
domain-valued parameter is polymorphic. For example, the same
matrix + function is used to add "matrices over integers" as
"matrices over matrices over integers."

postfix
an operator that follows its single operand. Postfix operators are
not available in Axiom.

precedence
(syntax) refers to the so-called binding power of an operator. For
example, * has higher binding power than + so that the expression
a + b * c is equivalent to a + (b * c).

precision
the number of digits in the specification of a number. The
operation digits sets this for objects of Float.

predicate
1. a Boolean-valued function, for example, odd : Integer – > Boolean.
2. a Boolean-valued expression.

prefix
(syntax) an operator such as – that is written before its single
operand. Every function of one argument can be used as a prefix
operator. For example, all of the following have equivalent
meaning in Axiom: f(x), fx, and f.x. See also dot notation.

quote
the prefix operator ' meaning do not evaluate.

Record
(basic domain constructor) a domain constructor used to create an
inhomogeneous aggregate composed of pairs of selectors and values.
A Record domain is written in the form Record(a1 : D1,...,an : Dn)
(n > 0) where a1, ..., an are identifiers called the selectors of the
record, and D1, ..., Dn are domains indicating the type of the
component stored under selector an.

recurrence relation
A relation that can be expressed as a function f with some argument
n which depends on the value of f at k previous values. In most
cases, Axiom will rewrite a recurrence relation on compilation so
as to cache its previous k values and therefore make the computation
significantly more efficient.

recursion
use of a self-reference within the body of a function. Indirect recursion is when a function uses a function below it in the call chain.

recursive
1. A function that calls itself, either directly or indirectly through another function. 2. self-referential. See also recursive.

reference
see pointer

relative
(of a domain) A package that exports operations relating to the domain, in addition to those exported by the domain. See a Cross Reference page of a constructor in Browse.

representation
a domain providing a data structure for elements of a domain, generally denoted by the special identifier Rep in the Axiom programming language. As domains are abstract datatypes, this representation is not available to users of the domain, only to functions defined in the function body for a domain constructor. Any domain can be used as a representation.

reserved word
a special sequence of non-blank characters with special meaning in the Axiom language. Examples of reserved words are names such as for, if, and free, operator names such as + and mod, special character strings such as == and :=.

retraction
to move an object in a parameterized domain back to the underlying domain, for example to move the object 7 from a “fraction of integers” (domain Fraction Integer) to “the integers” (domain Integer).

return
when leaving a function, the value of the expression following return becomes the value of the function.

ring
a set with a commutative addition, associative multiplication, a unit element, where multiplication is distributive over addition and subtraction.

rule
(syntax) 1. An expression of the form ruleA == B indicating a "rewrite rule." 2. An expression of the form rule(R1;...;Rn) indicating a set of "rewrite rules" R1,...,Rn. See pattern matching for details.
run-time
the time when computation is done. Contrast with compile-time, and dynamic as opposed to static. For example, the decision of the interpreter to build a structure such as “matrices with power series entries” in response to user input is made at run-time.

run-time check
an error-checking that can be done only when the program receives user input; for example, confirming that a value is in the proper range for a computation.

search string
a string entered into an input area on a HyperDoc screen.

selector
an identifier used to address a component value of a Record datatype.

semantics
the relationships between symbols and their meanings. The rules for obtaining the meaning of any syntactically valid expression.

semigroup
(algebra) a monoid which need not have an identity; it is closed and associative.

side effect
action that changes a component or structure of a value. See destructive operation for details.

signature
(syntax) an expression describing the type of an operation. A signature has the form name : source − > target, where source is the type of the arguments of the operation, and target is the type of the result.

small float
an object of the domain DoubleFloat for floating-point arithmetic as provided by the computer hardware.

small integer
an object of the domain SingleInteger for integer arithmetic as provided by the computer hardware.

source
the type of the argument of a function; the type expression before the − > in a signature. For example, the source of f : (Integer,Integer)− > Integer is (Integer,Integer).

sparse
data structure whose elements are mostly identical (a sparse matrix is one filled mostly with zeroes).
static
that computation done before run-time, such as compilation. Contrast *dynamic*.

step number
the number that precedes user input lines in an interactive session; the output of user results is also labeled by this number.

stream
an object of `Stream(R)`, a generalization of a list to allow an infinite number of elements. Elements of a stream are computed "on demand." Streams are used to implement various forms of power series.

string
an object of domain `String`. Strings are literals consisting of an arbitrary sequence of characters surrounded by double-quotes ("), for example, "Lookhere!".

subdomain
(*basic concept*) a domain together with a predicate characterizing the members of the domain that belong to the subdomain. The exports of a subdomain are usually distinct from the domain itself. A fundamental assumption however is that values in the subdomain are automatically coercable to values in the domain. For example, if \( n \) and \( m \) are declared to be members of a subdomain of the integers, then any binary operation from `Integer` is available on \( n \) and \( m \). On the other hand, if the result of that operation is to be assigned to, say, \( k \), also declared to be of that subdomain, a *run-time* check is generally necessary to ensure that the result belongs to the subdomain.

such that clause
(*syntax*) the use of | followed by an expression to filter an iteration.

suffix
(*syntax*) an operator that is placed after its operand. Suffix operators are not allowed in the Axiom language.

symbol
objects denoted by `identifier` literals; an element of domain `Symbol`. The interpreter, by default, converts the symbol \( x \) into `Variable(x)`.

syntax
rules of grammar and punctuation for forming correct expressions.

system commands
top-level Axiom statements that begin with `. System commands
allow users to query the database, read files, trace functions, and so on.

tag
an identifier used to discriminate a branch of a Union type.

target
the type of the result of a function; the type expression following the \( \rightarrow \) in a signature.

top-level
refers to direct user interactions with the Axiom interpreter.

totally ordered set
(algebra) a partially ordered set where any two elements are comparable.

trace
use of system function \( \)trace to track the arguments passed to a function and the values returned.

tuple
an expression of two or more other expressions separated by commas, for example, 4,7,11. Tuples are also used for multiple arguments both for applications (for example, \( f(x,y) \)) and in signatures (for example, \((\text{Integer, Integer}) \rightarrow \text{Integer}\)). A tuple is not a data structure, rather a syntax mechanism for grouping expressions.

type
The type of any category is the unique symbol \textit{Category}. The type of a domain is any category to which the domain belongs. The type of any other object is either the (unique) domain to which the object belongs or a subdomain of that domain. The type of objects is in general not unique.

Type
a category with no operations or attributes, of which all other categories in Axiom are extensions.

type checking
a system function that determines whether the datatype of an object is appropriate for a given operation.

type constructor
a domain constructor or category constructor.

type inference
when the interpreter chooses the type for an object based on context. For example, if the user interactively issues the definition \( f(x) \equiv (x + %i) \ast 2 \) then issues \( f(2) \), the interpreter will infer the type of \( f \) to be \textit{Integer} \rightarrow \textit{ComplexInteger}.

unary
operation or function with \textit{arity} 1.

\textbf{underlying domain}

for a \textit{domain} that has a single domain-valued parameter, the \textit{underlying domain} refers to that parameter. For example, the domain "matrices of integers" (\texttt{Matrix Integer}) has underlying domain \texttt{Integer}.

\textbf{Union}

(basic domain constructor) a domain constructor used to combine any set of domains into a single domain. A \texttt{Union} domain is written in the form \texttt{Union(a1 : D1,\ldots,an : Dn)} (n > 0) where \texttt{a1, \ldots, an} are identifiers called the \textit{tags} of the union, and \texttt{D1, \ldots, Dn} are domains called the \textit{branches} of the union. The tags \texttt{ai} are optional, but required when two of the \texttt{Di} are equal, for example, \texttt{Union(inches : Integer,centimeters : Integer)}. In the interpreter, values of union domains are automatically coerced to values in the branches and vice-versa as appropriate. See also \textit{case}.

\textbf{unit}

\textit{(algebra)} an invertible element.

\textbf{user function}

a function defined by a user during an interactive session. Contrast \textit{built-in function}.

\textbf{user variable}

a variable created by the user at top-level during an interactive session.

\textbf{value}

1. the result of evaluating an expression. 2. a property associated with a \textit{variable} in a \textit{binding} in an \textit{environment}.

\textbf{variable}

a means of referring to an object, but not an object itself. A variable has a name and an associated \textit{binding} created by \textit{evaluation} of Axiom expressions such as declarations, assignments, and definitions. In the top-level \textit{environment} of the interpreter, variables are global variables. Such variables can be freely referenced in user-defined functions although a \textit{free} declaration is needed to assign values to them. See \textit{local variable} for details.

\textbf{Void}

the type given when the \textit{value} and \textit{type} of an expression are not
needed. Also used when there is no guarantee at run-time that a value and predictable mode will result.

**wild card**
a symbol that matches any substring including the empty string; for example, the search string "*an*" matches any word containing the consecutive letters "a" and "n".

**workspace**
an interactive record of the user input and output held in an interactive history file. Each user input and corresponding output expression in the workspace has a corresponding **step number**. The current output expression in the workspace is referred to as %.
The output expression associated with step number $n$ is referred to by $%%(n)$. The $k$-th previous output expression relative to the current step number $n$ is referred to by $%%(-k)$. Each interactive **frame** has its own workspace.
Appendix A

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Testing involves function calls which are intended to fail in the normal course of testing. In order to distinguish cases where things fail by design you can issue the command \{\tt set message test on\}. This inhibits the message "Daly Bug". You can now distinguish between intentional failures which do not contain the "Daly Bug" message and unintentional failures which do.

RDJ note to RSS: Expressions not statements or lines-- By an expression I mean any syntactically correct program fragment. Everything in AXIOM is an expression since every fragment has a value and a type. In most languages including LISP, a "statement" is different from an expression: it is executed for side-effect only and an error is incurred if you assign it a value. This "gimmick" takes care of incomplete expressions such as "if x > 0 then y" in blocks. In LISP, "u := (if x > 0 then y)" is illegal but in AXIOM it is legal. Also, in AXIOM the value of a repeat loop is void even though you might be be able to prove that it always returns a valid value (you have an example of this)! This will be considered a bug not a feature. But it is how things stand. In any case---this point should be in a box somewhere since it is key to a user’s understanding to the language. I am not sure where. You only gain an appreciation for it after awhile in chapter 5.