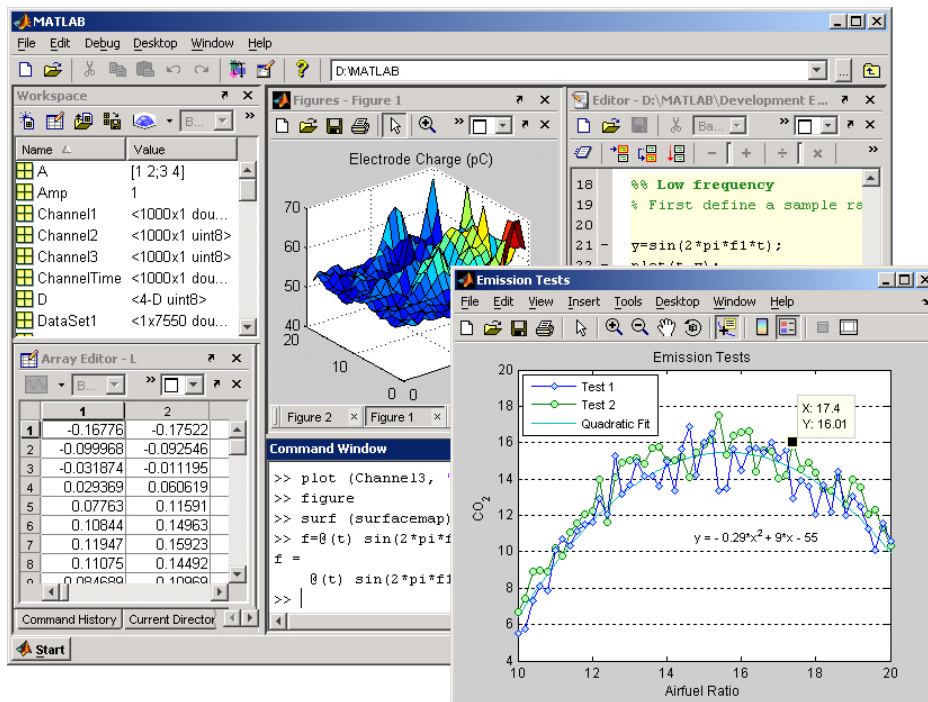




UNIVERSITÉ
DE LORRAINE

UE Mathématiques et Logiciels Scientifiques I Analyse Numérique - MATLAB

POLYCOPE DE TP – L3 SPI - ME GC



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Enoncés des TP - Introduction à MATLAB pour le calcul numérique

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1 Prise en main de MATLAB

1.1 Introduction

MATLAB (abréviation de *MATrix LABoratory*) est un système interactif, basé sur le calcul matriciel, qui permet de réaliser des calculs scientifiques sans nécessiter d'écrire de longs programmes informatiques. Le but de ces séances de TP est de vous introduire aux fonctionnalités de base de MATLAB dans l'optique de son utilisation en analyse numérique. Néanmoins, MATLAB vous sera utile non seulement en calcul scientifique, mais aussi pour l'exploitation de données expérimentales.

1.2 Organisation des TP

Les TP MATLAB se dérouleront de la manière suivante :

- 3 séances d'initiation à MATLAB ,
- 7 séances d'application à l'analyse numérique.

Pour réaliser ces TP, vous devez télécharger sur ARCHE (<http://arche.univ-lorraine.fr>) l'archive 'tpmatlab_l3spi.zip' et l'extraire sur votre PC. Cette archive contient la documentation et les programmes MATLAB à utiliser et compléter lors des séances.

1.3 Premiers pas dans MATLAB

Sur votre PC, allez dans le répertoire de travail '*TP0 INITIATION MATLAB*' qui contient les programmes MATLAB (fichiers **.m*) pour les séances d'initiation. Le fichier '*Tp0_matlab.m*' contient les commandes (ou *instructions*) MATLAB utiles au premier TP. Ouvrez ce fichier par double-clic, et l'interface graphique représentée sur la figure 1 apparaîtra à l'écran.

L'interface graphique de MATLAB se décompose en :

- **Command Window** : pour entrer les commandes MATLAB (après le prompt `>>`) et voir les résultats s'afficher.
- **MATLAB Editor** : pour éditer les fichiers **.m* contenant les commandes et fonctions MATLAB .
- **Current Folder** : affiche l'ensemble des fichiers **.m* contenus dans le répertoire de travail.
- **Workspace** : affiche les données, matrices, *etc* ... que vous créez durant la séance de travail.
- **Command History** : historique des commandes de la séance de travail.

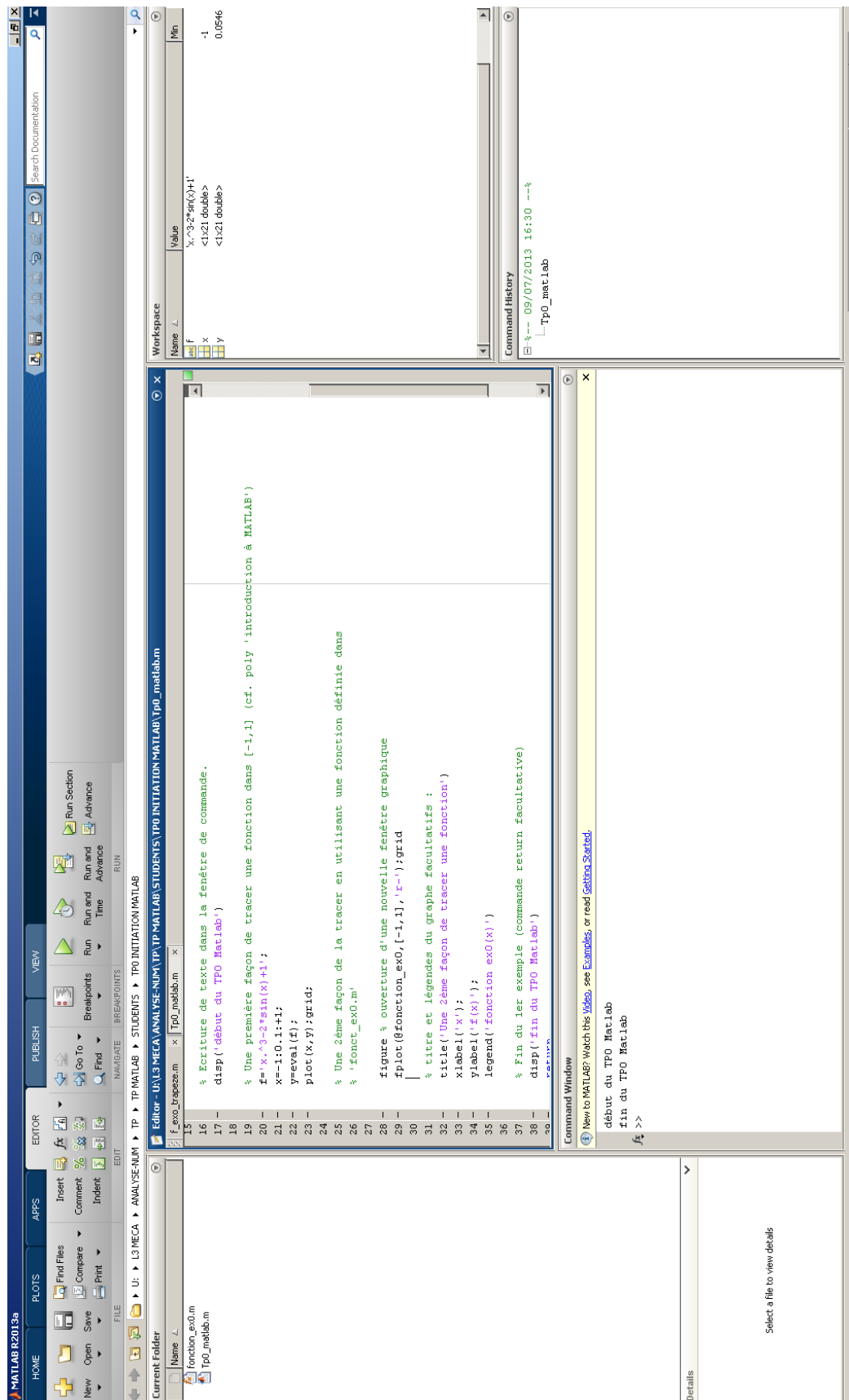


Figure 1: Interface graphique de MATLAB version 8.01

1.4 Exécution d'un programme MATLAB

Il y a 3 manières équivalentes d'exécuter le programme `'Tp0_matlab.m'` :

- Taper `>> Tp0_matlab` dans la **Command Window**,
- Cliquer sur le bouton  dans la barre du menu **EDITOR** de l'interface graphique,
- Placer la souris dans le **MATLAB Editor** du programme `'Tp0_matlab.m'` et taper F5 au clavier.

Le résultat du programme s'affiche dans la **Command Window**. Il est à noter que le programme `'Tp0_matlab.m'` utilise une fonction définie dans le fichier `'fonction_ex0.m'` qui doit nécessairement se trouver dans le répertoire de travail, sinon MATLAB ne trouvera pas la fonction et affichera un message d'erreur.

1.5 Notation des travaux pratiques

Les séances de TP donneront lieu à 2 notes : une pour l'EC *'Introduction à MATLAB'*, et une note de TP pour l'EC *'Analyse numérique'*.

- A l'issue des 3 séances d'initiation, vous renommerez le répertoire de travail contenant vos fichiers `*.m` en `'Nom-Prenom_TP0_MATLAB'`. Ces fichiers, ainsi qu'une évaluation par votre encadrant de votre travail et assiduité durant les séances, serviront de note à l'EC.
- La note de TP d'analyse numérique sera basée sur l'évaluation de votre travail et assiduité et sur les compte-rendus individuels que vous devez rendre à la fin du semestre.
 - Les compte-rendu devront répondre aux questions de l'énoncé, et comporter 6 pages au maximum. Les réponses doivent être rédigées de façon précise et succincte (ne recopiez pas l'énoncé !), et seront illustrées par les graphiques que vous avez réalisé avec MATLAB.
 - Les compte-rendu doivent être rédigés avec le traitement de texte WORD ou convertis en fichiers PDF. Ne rendez pas de fichiers MATLAB. N'oubliez pas de mettre votre nom, votre parcours licence et l'intitulé du TP sur les compte-rendu.

2 TP d'initiation à MATLAB

2.1 Introduction

Vous devez effectuer en 3 séances les exercices donnés ci-dessous. Pour cela, vous devez lire en premier le polycopié *'Introduction à MATLAB'* et exécuter tous les exemples qu'il contient. Il sera souvent nécessaire de rechercher des informations complémentaires au poly dans l'aide en ligne de MATLAB :

```
>>helpwin commande
```

2.2 Enoncés des exercices d'initiation

Exercice 1. (*Algèbre linéaire et calcul matriciel*)

On considère la matrice rectangulaire $\mathcal{M}$ définie par :

$$\mathcal{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 8 & 12 \\ 3 & 8 & 13 \\ 2 & 9 & 18 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- 1) Créez la matrice $\mathcal{M}$ dans MATLAB . Donnez le nombre de lignes et de colonnes (commande `size`).
- 2) Extrayez de $\mathcal{M}$ la matrice carrée :

$$\mathcal{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 8 & 12 \\ 3 & 8 & 13 \\ 2 & 9 & 18 \end{bmatrix}$$

- 3) On considère le système linéaire $\mathcal{A}X = F$, tel que le second membre F est défini par :

$$F = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 11 \end{pmatrix}$$

Montrez que le système possède une solution unique en calculant son déterminant et résolvez le système linéaire.

- 4) Vérifiez que la solution donnée par MATLAB est exacte en calculant le résidu $R = F - \mathcal{A}X$.

Exercice 2. (Graphisme sous MATLAB)

Cet exercice a pour objet d'initier aux multiples possibilités graphiques de MATLAB . Utilisez l'aide en ligne (`helpwin plot`) pour le détail des options disponibles.

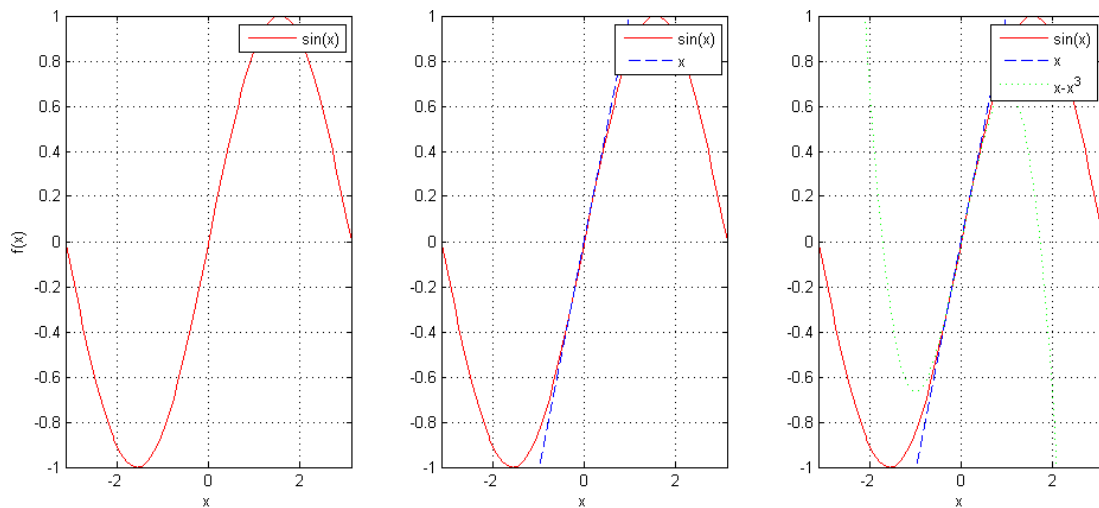


Figure 2: Graphisme obtenu sous Matlab

- 1) Sur une même fenêtre graphique (commande `subplot`) tracez les trois graphes représentant dans $[-\pi, \pi] \times [-1, 1]$ la fonction $x \mapsto \sin(x)$ et ses développements de Taylor autour de $x = 0$, i.e. $x \mapsto x$ et $x \mapsto x - x^3/3$. Vous devrez respecter la mise en forme de la figure 2, c'est-à-dire que chaque graphe ait une couleur et un trait différent, et que les figures soient correctement légendées.
- 2) Utilisez la barre des taches de la fenêtre graphique MATLAB pour exporter les graphes sous format *jpeg* ou *png*, ainsi que pour faire un zoom autour du point $x = 0$.

Exercice 3. (Fonctions MATLAB et boucles de contrôle)

- 1) A l'aide de la boucle `for`, Ecrivez la fonction MATLAB `F=fact(n)` qui calcule la factorielle de l'entier n (Faites un test conditionnel (boucle `if`) qui calcule $n!$ seulement si $n \geq 0$).
Application : calculez la factorielle de -1, 0 et 3.
- 2) Ecrivez la fonction `R=residumat(A,X,F)` qui calcule le résidu du système linéaire $AX = F$ de taille $n \times m$, soit :

$$\text{Pour } i = 1, \dots, n, \quad R_i = F_i - \sum_{j=1}^m A_{i,j} X_j$$

Testez-la sur l'exemple de l'exercice 1.

- 3) Ecrivez la fonction MATLAB `[r1,r2]=racines_poly(a,b,c)` qui calcule les racines *réelles* du polynôme du second degré $ax^2 + bx + c$, en faisant un test suivant la valeur du discriminant Δ . Appliquez-le au calcul des racines de $x^2 + x - 2$.

Exercice 4. (Intégration numérique par méthode du trapèze)

- 1) Ecrivez la fonction MATLAB `trapeze(a,b,f,n)` qui calcule l'intégrale $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ par la formule du trapèze composite avec n sous intervalles de taille uniforme¹.
- 2) Validez la fonction que vous avez écrite en vérifiant qu'elle donne l'intégrale exacte d'une fonction linéaire (polynôme de degré 1).
- 3) Vous allez maintenant utiliser votre fonction `trapeze(a,b,f,n)` pour calculer l'intégrale

$$I = \int_1^\pi \frac{\sin x}{2x^3} dx \simeq 0.198557 \dots \quad (1)$$

qui a été vue en TD d'analyse numérique. Il est possible de calculer la valeur exacte de cette intégrale à l'aide de la *toolbox* de calcul formel `symbolic` de MATLAB, en tapant ces lignes :

```
>> syms x
>> I=double(int(f_exo_trapeze(x),1,pi))
```

- a) Pour un nombre de sous-intervalles n suffisamment grand, calculez le facteur de réduction de la méthode du trapèze et vérifiez qu'on retrouve le résultat théorique.
- b) Pour $n \in [50, 200]$, représentez en échelle semi-logarithmique (commande `semilogy`) l'erreur numérique $E_n = |I_n - I|$ de la méthode du trapèze et montrez qu'elle est au second-order en traçant sur le même graphe la fonction $n \mapsto 1/n^2$.

¹On rappelle que, d'après le cours, cette formule s'écrit :

$$I_h = \frac{h}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} [f(x_k) + f(x_{k+1})],$$

avec $h = (b - a)/n$ et $x_k = a + kh$.

3 TP d'analyse numérique avec MATLAB

3.1 Introduction

Vous disposez de 7 séances pour réaliser les 4 travaux pratiques ci-dessous. Les 2 premiers TP doivent s'effectuer en 2-3 séances, les 2 autres pourront nécessiter jusqu'à 2 séances chacun.

3.2 Enoncés des TP

Travaux pratiques 1. (*Interpolation de données et de fonctions*)

Ce TP concerne l'interpolation de données tabulées $\{(x_i, y_i), i = 0, \dots, n\}$ par un polynôme de Lagrange de degré n et par polynômes par morceaux (aussi appelés *splines*) de degré arbitraire k . Le répertoire de travail MATLAB est 'TP1 INTERPOLATION'. Le fichier 'TP1_interpolation.m' contient 2 exemples d'interpolation de la fonction $f(x) = \sin(2x) - 1 + x$ sur les noeuds $x_i = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$:

- L'interpolant de Lagrange $p(x)$ est construit avec la fonction MATLAB `p=polyfit(x,y,n)` qui calcule les coefficients de $p(x)$. Ce polynôme est tracé dans $[-2, 4]$ en calculant ses valeurs sur la grille $\{x_{grid,i}, i = 1, \dots, m\}$ avec la fonction `polyval(p,xgrid)`.
- Le polynôme par morceaux de degré k est construit à l'aide de la fonction `pp=splinefit(x,y,k+1)`, et il est évalué sur la grille `xgrid` à l'aide de la fonction `y=ppval(pp,xgrid)`.

- 1) Pour la fonction $f(x) = \sin(2x) - 1 + x$, augmentez le nombre des points d'interpolation et observez la convergence des interpolants vers la fonction exacte.

Année	1965	1970	1980	1985	1990	1991
Production	17769	24001	25961	34336	29036	33417

Table 1: Production lorraine de mirabelles (en kilos).

- 2) La production lorraine de mirabelles a évolué de la manière décrite dans le tableau 1. Interpolez les données du tableau avec des interpolants de Lagrange et de type splines (essayez plusieurs degrés) et tracez leur graphe dans l'intervalle $[1960, 1995]$. Utilisez ces interpolants pour estimer la production de mirabelles en 1996, 1997 et 1998. Comparez ces résultats avec les valeurs réelles 12380, 27403 et 32059.
- 3) Interpolez la fonction de Runge $f(x) = 1/(1 + 100x^2)$ dans $[-1, 1]$ avec des interpolants de Lagrange de degré n croissant. Reportez les divers interpolants sur un même graphe. Qu'observez-vous ?
- 4) Même question pour les polynômes par morceaux, en faisant varier le nombre de points et en gardant le degré k constant, puis en fixant le nombre de points et en faisant varier le degré polynomial.

Travaux pratiques 2. (*Résolution itérative d'équations non-linéaires*)

Ce TP concerne la résolution de l'équation non-linéaire :

$$f(x) = 0 \quad \text{pour } x \in [a, b] \quad (1)$$

par les méthodes itératives de la bisection (ou dichotomie), du point fixe et de Newton qui ont été vues en cours et TD. Le répertoire de travail MATLAB est 'TP2 NONLIN EQT'

- 1) Le fichier `'Tp2_eqt_non_lin.m'` applique l'algorithme de la bisection à la résolution du problème (1) pour la fonction $f(x) = \sin(2x) + x - 1$, que nous appellerons par la suite *problème test*. Le critère d'arrêt de l'algorithme est basé sur le nombre d'itérations maximal $k_{\max}$ et le résidu de l'équation $r_k = |f(x_k)|$, et s'écrit :

$$k < k_{\max} \quad \text{et} \quad r_k < \epsilon, \quad k_{\max} \text{ et } \epsilon \text{ fixés par l'utilisateur}$$

Comprenez le code source `MATLAB`, et appliquez l'algorithme pour intervalle départ $I_0 = [-4, 4]$ et une tolérance $\epsilon = 10^{-10}$. Exportez les graphes dans votre compte-rendu Word et commentez-les².

- 2) Ecrivez l'algorithme de Newton dans le même esprit que celui de la bisection. Plus précisément, créez la fonction `MATLAB [x,res]=Newton4(f,df,x0,eps,kmax)` qui retourne le résidu r_k et la solution x_k à chaque itération, avec pour variable d'entrée la fonction $f(x)$, sa dérivée, la condition initiale x_0 , la tolérance et le nombre maximal d'itérations.
 - a) Validez votre programme en l'appliquant au problème test à partir de $x_0 = 0$.
 - b) Que se passe-t-il si on initialise l'algorithme avec $x_0 = 0.9$?
 - c) Comparez sa vitesse de convergence avec celle de l'algorithme de la bisection.
- 3) Dans cette question vous allez combiner les algorithmes de la bisection et de Newton pour résoudre le problème des tiges (*cf.* cours) avec $a1 = 10$, $a2 = 13$, $a3 = 8$ et $a4 = 10$: Pour une valeur de l'angle ω que vous choisirez, appliquez ces algorithmes à la détermination de la (ou des) valeur(s) admissible(s) de l'angle θ . Je vous propose la méthodologie suivante, basée sur la méthode décrite dans l'exercice 2 du TD 2 : déterminez graphiquement le ou les zero(s) de l'équation dans l'intervalle $[-\pi, \pi]$, raffinez l'encadrement du zéro par la méthode de la bisection, puis appliquez l'algorithme de Newton pour le(s) calculer avec la tolérance de $\epsilon = 10^{-14}$. Dans le compte-rendu, expliquez votre méthodologie (valeur de l'angle ω , encadrement initial, tolérance et nombre d'itérations pour chacun des algorithmes, résultat final) et montrez les graphes des résidus.

Travaux pratiques 3. (*Schémas numériques pour équations différentielles ordinaires*)

Ce TP concerne la résolution numérique du problème de Cauchy (aussi appelé problème à valeur initiale) :

$$\begin{cases} \dot{y}(t) = f(t, y(t)), & t \in [t_0, t_f], \\ y(t_0) = y_0, \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

par les schémas *explicites* vus en cours et dans le TD 3 (schémas d'Euler progressif, Runge-Kutta, ...). Le répertoire de travail `MATLAB` est `'TP3 RESOL EDO'`.

- 1) Le fichier `'Tp3_resol_edo.m'` applique le schéma EP1 à la résolution de l'EDO du premier ordre (1) avec $f(t, y) = -y(1/10 - \sin(t))$ pour $t \in [0, 12]$ et la condition initiale $y(0) = 1$, dont la solution exacte est :

$$y(t) = \frac{e^{-1/10 t - \cos(t)}}{e^{-1}}.$$

Cette EDO sera appelée *exemple 1* dans la suite de l'énoncé.

- a) Comprenez le code source `MATLAB`, et exécutez-le pour le pas de temps $h = 0.4$.

²Il est important d'observer que les graphes du résidu et de l'erreur ont le même comportement : ainsi, lorsqu'on ne connaît pas la solution exacte (ce qui est le cas dans la vie réelle), la valeur du résidu fournit un bon renseignement sur la qualité de la solution numérique.

- b) Déterminez analytiquement la condition de stabilité du schéma EP1 appliqué à l'exemple 1. Reportez sur un même graphe les solutions données par EP1 pour des valeurs de h décroissantes qui vérifient la condition de stabilité. Qu'observez-vous ?
- c) Quels sont les avantages du schéma de Heun par rapport à EP1 ? Programmez le schéma de Heun (`[t,y]=HEUN(f,t0,tf,y0,h)`) dans le même esprit que la fonction MATLAB EP1. Comparez sur un même graphe la solution donnée par EP1 et HEUN pour $h = 0.4$. Conclusions ?

2) On considère maintenant l'EDO du second ordre :

$$\begin{cases} \ddot{y}(t) = f(t, y(t)), & t \in [t_0, t_f], \\ y(t_0) = y_0, \quad \dot{y}(t_0) = v_0. \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

avec $f(t, y) = -\omega^2 y$, où $\omega > 0$ est la pulsation propre. Cette EDO est autonome et linéaire (sa solution analytique est une somme de sinus et cosinus), et elle représente la modélisation mathématique du pendule linéaire ($y(t)$ est l'angle θ du pendule) ou de l'oscillateur harmonique sans frottement ($y(t)$ est le déplacement de la masse). Cette EDO est de type conservatif car l'énergie mécanique est conservée au cours du mouvement (*cf.* exercice 4). On considère dans cette partie la résolution de cette EDO pour $\omega = 4$, $t_0 = 0$, $t_f = 2\pi$ et $y_0 = (1, 0)$, et ce problème sera appelé dans la suite *exemple 2*.

- a) Calculez la solution analytique de l'exemple 2 et tracez son graphe dans MATLAB .
- b) A partir de la fonction MATLAB EP1, créez une version adaptée à la résolution d'EDO du second ordre (nommez-la par exemple `[t,y]=EP1_2D(f,t0,tf,y0,h)`). Conseil : réécrivez l'EDO (2) en un système d'EDO du premier ordre (*cf.* cours et TD), et remplacez les variables y_0 et $y(:)$ par $y_0(2)$ et $y(:,2)$ respectivement.
- c) Utilisez le schéma EP1 pour résoudre l'exemple 2 et comparez la solution numérique et analytique sur une même figure³ : que se passe-t-il ? Est-ce en accord avec les propriétés de stabilité théorique de EP1 pour ce type d'EDO (*cf.* exercice 5) ? Vaut-il la peine de tester le schéma de Heun pour cet exemple ?

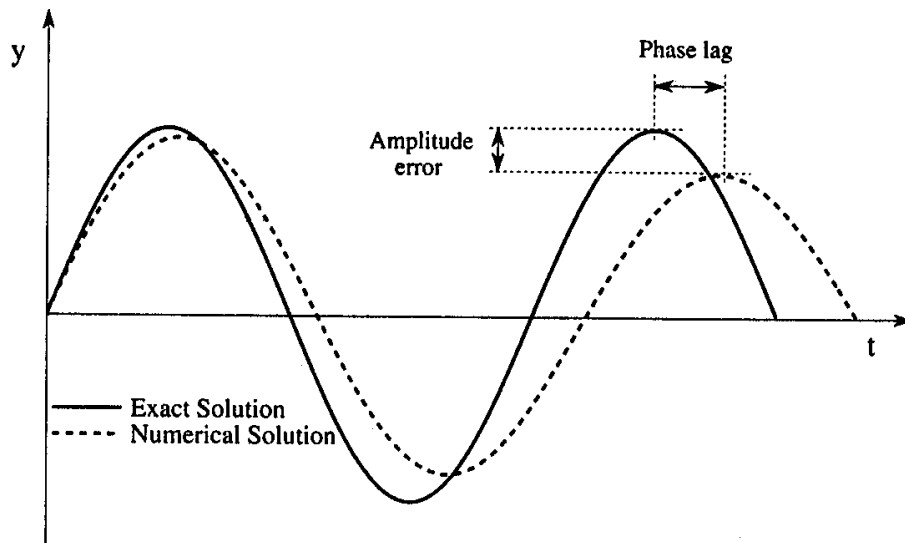


Figure 3: Décomposition de l'erreur numérique en une composante d'erreur d'amplitude (ou dissipation numérique) et une composante d'erreur de phase (ou dispersion numérique).

³Il est à noter que la solution analytique est telle que $|y(t)| < 1$ donc restreignez les axes de la figure tel que : `axis([t0 tf -5 5])` par exemple.

- d) Programmez le schéma RK4 (*cf.* exercice 5). Énoncez la condition de stabilité pour ce schéma, et déterminez la valeur maximale $h_{\max}$ du pas de temps. Utilisez RK4 avec un pas de temps h légèrement inférieur à $h_{\max}$, puis une valeur bien inférieure (*ie.*, $h_{\max}/10$). Comment qualifiez-vous le type d'erreur donné par RK4 par rapport à ce qui est représenté sur la figure 3 ?
- e) Tracez la solution numérique dans le plan $[x(t), y(t)]$. Ce type de graphe est appelé *portrait de phases* de l'EDO ; la solution qui correspond à une condition initiale donnée est appelée *trajectoire*. Pourquoi observe-t-on une courbe fermée ?
- 3) On considère maintenant l'EDO (2) avec $f(t, y) = -g \sin(y)/l$, qui correspond à l'équation du pendule non-linéaire de l'exercice 5. Les conditions initiales correspondent au cas où le pendule est lancé avec la vitesse angulaire v_0 à partir de la position d'équilibre stable $y_0 = 0$. On se placera dans les conditions de l'exercice 5, soit : $g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2$ et $l = 0.6 \text{ m}$.
- a) En utilisant la conservation de l'énergie mécanique au cours du mouvement, *ie.*:

$$\forall t \in [t_0, t_f], \quad E(t) \equiv ml^2 \left[\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} y(t) + \frac{g}{l} (1 - \cos(y(t))) \right] = C^{\text{te}},$$

déterminez la vitesse angulaire (notée v_0^*) telle que le pendule atteigne la position d'équilibre instable $y = \pi$ avec une vitesse angulaire nulle. Application numérique : calculez v_0^* en fonction des données du problème.

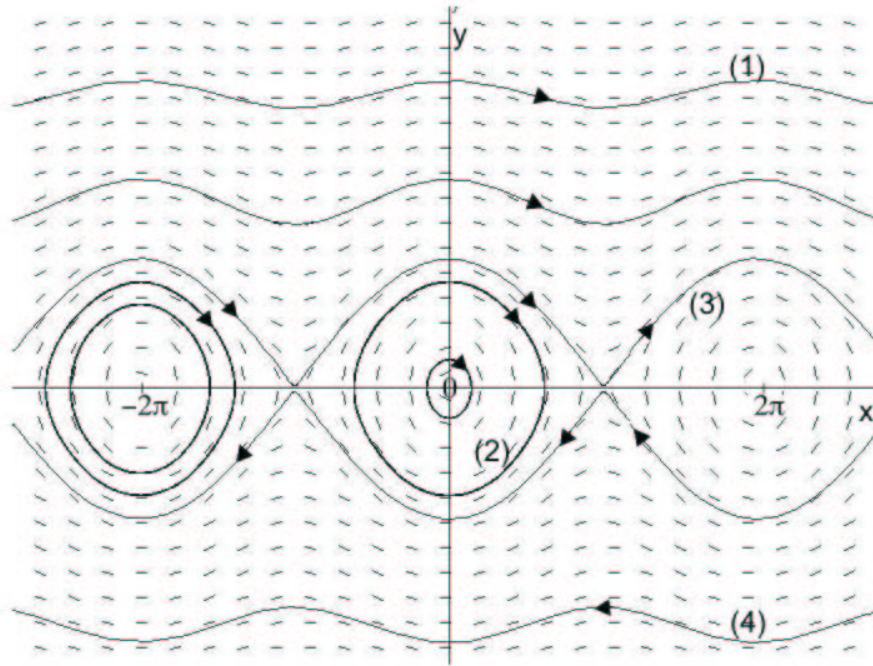


Figure 4: Portrait de phases du pendule non-linéaire pour diverses trajectoires partant de la condition initiale $y_0 = (0, v_0)$. La trajectoire (3) partant de $v_0 = v_0^*$ correspond à une solution allant de la position d'équilibre stable $y = 0$ à la position d'équilibre instable $y = \pi$, la trajectoire (2) correspond à des oscillations du pendule autour de la position d'équilibre stable ($|v_0| < |v_0^*|$), les trajectoires (1) et (4) correspondent à des tours du pendule sur lui-même ($|v_0| > |v_0^*|$).

- b) Énoncez la condition de stabilité du schéma RK4. Utilisez ce schéma pour calculer des solutions numériques en faisant varier la condition initiale v_0 afin de construire un portrait de phases analogue à celui représenté sur la figure 4.

Travaux pratiques 4. (*Méthodes itératives pour systèmes d'équations linéaires*)

Ce TP concerne la résolution de systèmes linéaires de taille $n \times n$ de la forme $\mathcal{A}X = F$ avec les méthodes itératives vues en cours : algorithme de Jacobi, Gauss-Seidel et relaxation (ou *S.O.R.*). Ces algorithmes seront appliqués à la résolution du problème test :

$$\mathcal{K}X = F, \quad (1)$$

où $\mathcal{K}$ est la matrice tridiagonale $\text{Tridiag}_n[-1, 2, -1]$ (vue en cours et dans l'exercice 4 du TD 4) et la solution exacte est choisie comme $X = (1, \dots, 1)$. Ce TP a pour but d'illustrer les propriétés de convergence des algorithmes qui ont été vues théoriquement dans l'exercice 4, et il est donc important que cet exercice ait été entièrement fait et compris. Le répertoire de travail MATLAB du TP est '*TP4 SYST LIN*'.

- 1) Le fichier '*Tp4_resol_systlin.m*' applique la méthode de Jacobi à la résolution de (1). Comprenez et exécutez ce programme pour un système linéaire de petite taille, tel que $n = 2$. La suite des questions a pour but de comparer la performance des divers algorithmes pour le cas $n = 2$. Tous les tests seront effectués pour la même condition initiale $X_0 = 0$ et la tolérance $\epsilon = 10^{-10}$.
 - a) Programmez la méthode *S.O.R.* pour un paramètre de relaxation ω quelconque. Conseil : utilisez au maximum la manière utilisée pour programmer la méthode de Jacobi.
 - b) Programmez la fonction `w=w_optimal(n)` qui donne la valeur du paramètre de relaxation optimal pour le problème test (1).
 - c) Utilisez ces fonctions pour résoudre le problème test avec les méthodes de Gauss-Seidel et *S.O.R.* avec paramètre de relaxation optimal ω_{opt} .
 - d) Comparez sur le même graphe les résultats donnés par les méthodes de Jacobi, G-S et *S.O.R.* (résidu, erreur et facteur de réduction). Lorsque vous aurez confirmé les résultats théoriques du cours sur la valeur asymptotique du facteur de réduction, les méthodes que vous avez programmées seront considérées comme validées, et vous pourrez passer aux questions suivantes.
- 2) On considère dans cette question le problème test (1) avec $n = 31$.
 - a) Utilisez les trois méthodes itératives pour résoudre ce problème avec la tolérance de $\epsilon = 10^{-8}$.
 - b) Comparez les divers résultats des méthodes sur les mêmes graphes. Pourquoi observe-t-on que l'erreur relative est-elle bien supérieure à la norme du résidu ?
 - c) Pour chaque méthode, estimez le nombre minimal d'itérations pour que l'erreur relative soit inférieure à $\epsilon = 10^{-6}$. Est-ce en accord avec les résultats théoriques vus en TD ?

Introduction à Matlab

1 Introduction

Matlab (*MATrix LABoratory*) est un logiciel pour le calcul scientifique, orienté vers le vecteurs et les listes de données. Matlab est un langage interprété, chaque ligne d'un programme Matlab est lue, interprétée et exécutée.

Pour entrer dans Matlab cliquez sur **Start/Programmes/Matlab** sous l'environnement Windows, ou tapez **matlab** au prompt de la shell sous Unix. Matlab se présente avec un environnement interactif et un prompt (généralement **>>**) dans lequel on peut introduire des *commandes*. Par exemple, pour sortir de Matlab tapez la commande:

```
>> quit
```

2 Aide en ligne

Matlab offre une aide en ligne très complète. Tapez:

```
>> help commande
```

pour une explication de l'utilisation de la commande Matlab **commande**

```
>> lookfor sujet
```

pour une liste des commandes Matlab qui concernent le sujet **sujet**

```
>> helpwin
```

pour ouvrir un guide des commandes Matlab sur différents sujets.

3 Déclaration des variables

Matlab permet de créer et d'initialiser des variables. La déclaration des variables en Matlab suit les règles suivantes:

- toutes les variables sont des *matrices*
- pas de déclaration de type

```
>> a=5 variable scalaire (1 × 1)
```

```
>> b=[4 6] vecteur ligne (1 × 2)
```

```
>> c=[-5; 2] vecteur colonne (2 × 1)
```

```
>> d=[2 3; -1 7] matrice carrée (2 × 2)
```

Dans ces exemples on a utilisé les opérateurs suivants:

- séparateur de ligne: point virgule ou return
- séparateur de colonne: virgule ou espace blanc

Il faut noter que Matlab montre les nombres avec quatre chiffres après la virgule, tandis que la représentation interne est faite avec 16 chiffres. Pour changer la façon de montrer les nombres en Matlab, on utilise la commande **format**. Par exemple, si avant de taper **>> pi** (en Matlab la variable **pi** est une approximation de π), nous écrivons

```
>> format long nous obtiendrons 3.1416;
```

```
>> format short nous obtiendrons 3.14159265358979;
```

```
>> format long e nous obtiendrons 3.141592653589793e+00;
```

```
>> format short e nous obtiendrons 3.1416e+00.
```

4 Workspace

Matlab permet de connaître plusieurs informations sur les variables déclarées. Tapez:

```
>> who                pour afficher toutes les variables.

>> whos              pour afficher toutes les variables
                    avec indication sur leur taille.

>> size(a)           pour afficher les dimensions de la
                    matrice a.

>> clear var         pour effacer la variable var.

>> clear (ou >> clear all) pour effacer toutes les variables.
```

Pour ces opérations vous pouvez aussi utiliser l'interface graphique de Matlab.

5 Opérations fondamentales

Matlab peut effectuer plusieurs opérations entre matrices. Les opérations fondamentales peuvent être partagées en deux catégories.

Opérations matricielles

Les opérations matricielles usuelles sont définies par $+$, $-$, $*$, $/$, $^$

```
>> C = A + B          est la somme matricielle,  $C_{ij} = A_{ij} + B_{ij}$ 

>> C = A * B          est le produit matriciel,  $C_{ij} = \sum_k A_{ik} B_{kj}$ 

>> C = A / B          est la division matricielle,  $C = AB^{-1}$ 

>> C = A^3            est la troisième puissance matricielle (C = A*A*A)
```

Il faut remarquer que ces opérations sont bien définies seulement si les matrices ont des *dimensions cohérentes*. Pour l'addition $A+B$, A et B doivent avoir la même taille; pour le produit $A*B$, le nombre des colonnes de A et le nombre des lignes de B doivent être égaux; les opérations A/B et B^3 demandent une matrice B carrée. Par exemple:

```
>> A = [1 2 3; 4 5 6]; B = [7 8 9; 10 11 12]; C = [13 14; 15 16; 17 18];
>> A + B
ans =

     8     10     12
    14     16     18

>> A + C
```

```
??? Error using ==> +
Matrix dimensions must agree.
```

```
>> A * C
ans =

     94     100
    229     244
```

```
>> A * B
??? Error using ==> *
Inner matrix dimensions must agree.
```

Notez que Matlab renvoie un message d'erreur si le dimensions des matrices ne s'accordent pas avec l'opération commandée.

Opérations élément par élément

Pour exécuter des opérations entre matrices élément par élément il faut faire précéder l'opérateur d'un point. Les opérateurs élément par élément sont donc $.*$, $./$, $.^$

```
>> C = A .* B          est le produit élément par élément,  $C_{ij} = A_{ij} B_{ij}$ 

>> C = A ./ B          est la division élément par élément,  $C_{ij} = \frac{A_{ij}}{B_{ij}}$ 

>> C = A.^3            est la troisième puissance élément par élément,  $C_{ij} = A_{ij}^3$ 
```

6 Manipulation des matrices

Après avoir défini la matrice A (par exemple la matrice carrée A de taille n), Matlab permet les opérations suivantes sur les *sous-matrices* de A .

Extraction de sous-matrices

```
>> A(2,3)              extraction de l'élément  $A_{23}$ 

>> A(:,5)              extraction de la colonne  $[A_{13}; \dots; A_{n3}]$ 

>> A(1:4,3)            extraction de la sous-colonne  $[A_{13}; \dots; A_{43}]$ 

>> A(1,:)              extraction de la ligne  $[A_{1j}, \dots, A_{1n}]$ 

>> diag(A)             extraction de la diagonale  $[A_{11}; \dots; A_{nn}]$ 
```

Construction de matrices particulières

Matlab permet, en plus, de définir des matrices particulières (une fois définis les entiers **n**, **m** et le vecteur **v**).

```
>> A = eye(n)           matrice identité  $n \times n$ 

>> A = diag(v)          matrice diagonale avec v comme diagonale

>> A = zeros(n,m)       matrice de zéros avec n lignes et m colonnes

>> A = ones(n,m)        matrice de un avec n lignes et m colonnes

>> A = rand(n,m)        matrice aléatoire avec n lignes et m colonnes

>> x = [but:pas:fin]     vecteur ligne de points équidistribués
                        avec pas pas entre but et fin
```

Fonctions matricielles

Soit **A** une matrice, Matlab permet d'effectuer directement les opérations suivantes.

```
>> C = A'               transposée de A,  $C_{ij} = A_{ji}$ 

>> C = inv(A)           inverse de A (matrice carrée),  $C = A^{-1}$ 

>> d = det(A)           déterminant de A (matrice carrée)

>> r = rank(A)          rang de A

>> nrm = norm(A)        norme 2 de A

>> v = eig(A)           valeurs propres de A (matrice carrée)
```

Soit **A** une matrice carrée de taille **n** et soit **b** un vecteur de taille **n**, alors le vecteur **x**, solution du système linéaire **Ax = b** est défini par

```
>> x = A^-1 * b
```

Cette commande est théoriquement correcte, cependant si on est intéressé seulement à la solution **x** et pas à l'inverse **A^-1**, il est préférable utiliser un *backslash*

```
>> x = A \ b
```

Cette commande résout le système linéaire avec des algorithmes fiables et optimales.

7 Graphisme 2D

Matlab offre plusieurs possibilités pour tracer un graphe en 2D. On va en présenter deux: la commande **plot** et la commande **fplot**.

Avant d'expliquer ces deux commandes en détail, on souligne qu'avec **plot** on doit toujours utiliser des vecteurs, alors qu'avec **fplot** non.

On considère maintenant la fonction $f(x) = x^3 - 2 \sin x + 1$ et on voit comment on peut tracer son graphe dans l'intervalle $[-1, 1]$, en utilisant les commandes **plot** et **fplot**.

Commande plot

Pour tracer le graphe de $f(x)$ il faut passer par les étapes suivantes :

- Définir la fonction $f(x)$:

```
>> f = 'x.^3 - 2*sin(x) + 1';
```

le mot **f** contient la définition de la fonction choisie (les guillemets font partie de la définition dans la syntaxe Matlab).

- Définir un *vecteur de points* dans l'intervalle donné:

```
>> x = [-1:0.1:+1];
```

on a défini un vecteur de 21 points equidistribués dans l'intervalle donné, avec un pas de 0.1.

- Évaluer la fonction **f** dans l'intervalle $[-1, 1]$, en utilisant la commande **eval**:

```
>> y = eval(f);
```

on note que dans la définition de la fonction f on a dû écrire $.^$ (puissance élément par élément) et pas $^$ (puissance matricielle), parce qu'il faut évaluer la fonction en chaque élément du *vecteur* **x**. C'est-à-dire:

$$y(i) = x(i)^3 - 2 \sin(x(i)) + 1, \quad \text{pour } i = 1, \dots, 21;$$

La variable **y** est donc un *vecteur* qui contient les valeurs de **f** pour chaque entrée du vecteur **x**.

- Tracer le graphe :

```
>> plot(x,y); grid;
```

cette commande ouvre une fenêtre avec le graphe. La commande **grid** dessine une grille de repère.

Le résultat de ces commandes est représenté dans la Figure 1.

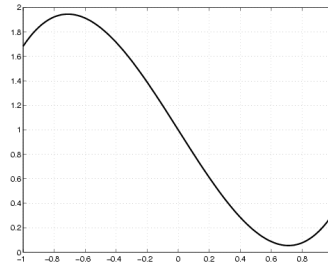


Figure 1: Graphe de la fonction $f(x) = x^3 - 2\sin(x) + 1$

Commande fplot

Pour tracer le graphe avec la commande `fplot` il faut passer par les étapes suivantes :

- Définir la fonction $f(x)$:

```
>> f = 'x^3 - 2*sin(x) + 1';
```

- Tracer le graphe :

```
>> fplot(f, [-1, 1]); grid;
```

La commande `fplot` demande la définition de la fonction `f` et de l'intervalle où il faut la tracer. La définition des vecteurs `x` et `y` n'est plus nécessaire et on note que dans la définition de `f` il suffit d'écrire `f='x^3 - ...'` au lieu de `f = x.^3 - ...'`, comme on avait fait pour utiliser `plot`. Le graphe obtenu est encore montré dans la Figure 1.

Exemple Tracer le graphe des fonctions $f_1(x) = \sin(2x) - 1 + x$ et $f_2(x) = x^3 - 2\sin(x)$ dans l'intervalle $[-1, 1]$ sur la même fenêtre.

En utilisant la commande `fplot`, il faut procéder de la façon suivante:

- Définir les fonctions:

```
>> f1 = 'sin(2*x) - 1 + x';
>> f2 = 'x^3 - 2*sin(x)';
```

- Tracer le graphe:

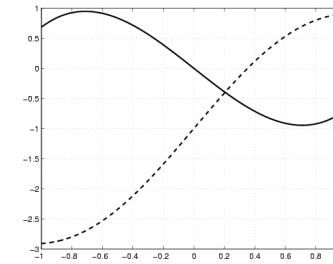


Figure 2: Résultat de l'exemple

```
>> fplot(f1, [-1, 1]); grid; hold on;
```

La commande `hold on` affiche tous les prochains graphes sur la fenêtre qu'on vient d'ouvrir. Donc le graphe:

```
>> fplot(f2, [-1, 1]);
```

est affiché sur la même fenêtre, comme on peut le voir dans la Figure 2.

La commande `hold off` arrête cet effet.

Pour plus de détails sur les fonctions `plot` et `fplot` (par exemple comment changer la couleur du graphe) tapez `help plot` ou `help fplot`.

8 Boucles de contrôle

Matlab offre, comme plusieurs autres langages, quelques boucles de contrôle. Ces commandes sont spécialement utiles pour écrire des programmes Matlab.

Boucle for

Si l'on veut exécuter des instructions pour chaque valeur

$$i = m, m + 1, \dots, n$$

d'une certaine variable i entre deux bornes assignés m et n , on utilise `for`. Par exemple pour calculer le produit scalaire `ps` entre deux vecteurs `x` et `y` de taille `n` on utilise:

```
>> ps = 0;
>> for i = 1:n;
>>     ps = ps + x(i)*y(i);
>> end;
```

Cette boucle est équivalente au le produit matriciel entre le vecteur transposé de **x** et le vecteur **y**, en supposant que les facteurs soient deux vecteurs colonne:

```
>> ps = x'*y;
```

Boucle while

Si l'on veut exécuter plusieurs fois des instructions tandis qu'une expression logique est vraie, on utilise **while**. Par exemple, le même calcul qu'on a considéré avec la boucle **for** peut être exécuté avec

```
>> ps = 0;
>> i = 0;
>> while (i < n);
>>     i = i + 1;
>>     ps = ps + x(i)*y(i);
>> end;
```

Instruction conditionnelle if

Si l'on veut exécuter des instructions seulement si une expression logique est vraie, on utilise **if**. Par exemple, si l'on veut calculer la racine carrée d'une variable scalaire **r** seulement si **r** n'est pas négative:

```
>> if (r >= 0)
>>     racine = sqrt(r);
>> end;
```

On a plusieurs *opérateurs logiques* à disposition:

Opérateur	Action logique
&	and
	or
~	not
==	equal to

Taper par exemple **help &** pour une explication de la liste des opérateurs.

9 Scripts et fonctions

Matlab permet d'écrire des programmes. Les outils principaux sont les script files et les fonctions.

Script files

Un script file est une suite de commandes Matlab. Les noms des script files doivent avoir l'extension **“.m”**. Pour exécuter un script file tapez son nom, sans extension, dans le prompt Matlab.

Fonctions

Une fonction Matlab est une suite de commandes qui nécessite un input pour être exécutée et qui renvoie un output. La déclaration des fonctions en Matlab suit les règles suivantes.

- Une fonction est contenue dans un fichier **“.m”** avec le même nom que la fonction.
- Le fichier qui définit une fonction doit commencer par:
`function [output arguments] = nom_fonction(input arguments)`
Par exemple, l'en-tête d'une fonction pour la méthode de dichotomie pourrait être:

```
function [zero,res,niter]=bisection(fun,a,b,tol,nmax,varargin)
%BISECTION Find function zeros.
%   ZERO=BISECTION(FUN,A,B,TOL,NMAX) tries to find a zero ZERO
%   of the continuous function FUN in the interval [A,B]
%   using the bisection method.
.
.
.   % instructions
.
zero = ...; res = ...; niter = ...;
.
.   % instructions
.
.
return           % fin du corps de la fonction
```

- Les lignes de commentaires qui éventuellement suivent cet en-tête constituent le help de la fonction. En Matlab les lignes de commentaire sont introduites par **%**.
- Toutes les variables internes à la fonction sont locales.

Par exemple, supposons qu'on aie écrit sur le fichier **my_function.m** le lignes suivantes:

```
function f = my_function(x);
f = x.^3 - 2*sin(x) + 1;
return;
```

Il est possible d'utiliser la fonction `my_function.m` de la même façon que les autres commandes Matlab. Donc les commandes

```
>> x = 0;
>> y = x.^3 - 2*sin(x) + 1
```

et

```
>> x = 0;
>> y = my_function(x)
```

sont équivalentes et renvoient le même résultat:

```
y =
    1
```

Fonctions de plusieurs variables

Pour définir des fonctions dépendantes d'un ou plusieurs paramètres nous pouvons utiliser les fonctions *inline*. Pour définir une fonction *inline* `f` qui dépend de la variable `x` on écrit:

```
>> f = inline('log(x) - 1','x');
```

Si `f` dépend de de plusieurs variables, nous écrirons par exemple

```
>> f = inline('log(x) - p','x','p');
```

Pour évaluer une fonction `f` définie grâce à *inline*, il faut utiliser la commande `feval` en donnant les valeurs des paramètres comme montré dans l'exemple suivant:

```
>> f = inline('x.^3 + a.*x','x','a');
>> xval = 1; aval = 2;
>> fval = feval(f, xval, yval)
fval =
    3
```

10 Polynômes en Matlab

Considérons un polynôme de degré n :

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0.$$

Matlab représente les polynômes de degré n sous la forme d'un vecteur $p = [a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_0]$ de taille $n+1$ qui contient les coefficients en ordre décroissant par rapport au degré associé. Par exemple, le vecteur associé au polynôme $f(x) = 3x^3 - 4x^2 + x$ est

```
>> p = [3, -4, 1, 0];
```

Mois	Heure de son réveil (moyenne)	Mois	Heure de son réveil (moyenne)
1	8.0	7	8.0
2	7.5	8	10.0
3	7.5	9	8.0
4	7.5	10	7.5
5	7.6	11	7.5
6	7.8	12	7.7

Table 1: Heure de son réveil (de 0 à 24 avec décimes d'heure)

Pour évaluer ce polynôme on utilise la commande `polyval`:

```
>> x = [0:.1:1];
>> y = polyval(p, x);
```

Dans ce cas, les éléments du vecteur `y` sont les valeurs du polynôme calculées pour chaque élément du vecteur `x`.

Pour obtenir le vecteur associé au polynôme de degré n approximant un jeu de données on utilise `polyfit`. Si la taille des données est plus grande de $n+1$ on a le polynôme approximant au sens des moindres carrés; si elle est égal à $n+1$ on a le polynôme interpolant. Par exemple, si on veut calculer le polynôme de degré 8 qui approxime le données de la Table 10 (au sens des moindre carrées) et en tracer le graphe, il faut utiliser les commandes qui suivent;

```
x = [1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12];
y = [8 7.5 7.5 7.5 7.6 7.8 8 10 8 7.5 7.5 7.7];
p = polyfit(x,y,8); % Calculons le polynome interpolant (degre=8)
plot(x, y, 'or');
axis([1 12 6 12])
hold on;
f = inline('polyval(p,x)','x','p');
fplot(f, [1 12], [], [], [], p); % Trace le graphe de f(x,p)
                                % pour x entre 0 et 12, en donnant
                                % p comme parametre de f.
```

Il faut noter que `f` est déclarée comme fonction *inline* avec les arguments `x` et `p` (le vecteur associé au polynôme interpolant); la commande `fplot` (voir `help fplot`) accepte le paramètre `p` à donner à `f`.

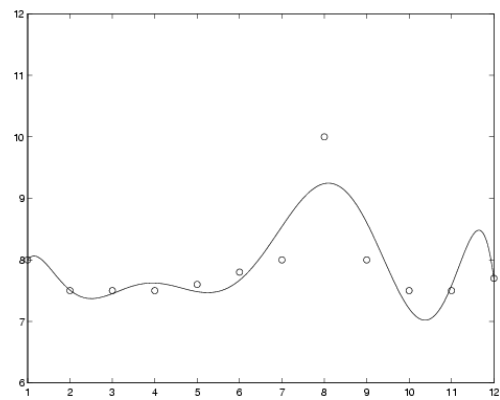


Figure 3: Données et polynôme d'interpolation

MATLAB Primer

Third Edition

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ON THE THIRD EDITION

The Third Edition of the MATLAB Primer is based on version 4.0/4.1 of MATLAB. While this edition reflects an extensive general revision of the Second Edition, most significant is the new information to help one begin to use the major new features of version 4.0/4.1, the sparse matrix and enhanced graphics capabilities.

The plain TeX source and corresponding PostScript file of the latest printing of the MATLAB Primer are always available via anonymous ftp from:

Address: math.ufl.edu Directory: pub/matlab Files: primer.tex, primer.ps

You are advised to download anew each term the latest printing of the Primer since minor improvements and corrections may have been made in the interim. If ftp is unavailable to you, the Primer can be obtained via `listserv` by sending an email message to `listserv@math.ufl.edu` containing the single line `send matlab/primer.tex`.

Also available at this ftp site are both English (`primer35.tex`, `primer35.ps`) and Spanish (`primer35sp.tex`, `primer35sp.ps`) versions of the Second Edition of the Primer, which was based on version 3.5 of MATLAB. The Spanish translation is by Celestino Montes, University of Seville, Spain. A Spanish translation of the Third Edition is under development.

Users of the Primer usually appreciate the convenience and durability of a bound copy with a cover, copy center style.

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INTRODUCTION

MATLAB is an interactive, matrix-based system for scientific and engineering numeric computation and visualization. You can solve complex numerical problems in a fraction of the time required with a programming language such as Fortran or C. The name MATLAB is derived from MATrix LABoratory.

The purpose of this Primer is to help you begin to use MATLAB. It is not intended to be a substitute for the User's Guide and Reference Guide for MATLAB. The Primer can best be used hands-on. You are encouraged to work at the computer as you read the Primer and freely experiment with examples. This Primer, along with the on-line help facility, usually suffice for students in a class requiring use of MATLAB.

You should liberally use the on-line help facility for more detailed information. When using MATLAB, the command `help functionname` will give information about a specific function. For example, the command `help eig` will give information about the eigenvalue function `eig`. By itself, the command `help` will display a list of topics for which on-line help is available; then `help topic` will list those specific functions under this topic for which help is available. The list of functions in the last section of this Primer also gives most of this information. You can preview some of the features of MATLAB by first entering the command `demo` and then selecting from the options offered.

The scope and power of MATLAB go far beyond these notes. Eventually you will want to consult the MATLAB User's Guide and Reference Guide. Copies of the complete documentation are often available for review at locations such as consulting desks, terminal rooms, computing labs, and the reserve desk of the library. Consult your instructor or your local computing center to learn where this documentation is located at your institution.

MATLAB is available for a number of environments: Sun/Apollo/VAXstation/HP workstations, VAX, MicroVAX, Gould, PC and AT compatibles, 80386 and 80486 computers, Apple Macintosh, and several parallel machines. There is a relatively inexpensive Student Edition available from Prentice Hall publishers. The information in these notes applies generally to all of these environments.

MATLAB is licensed by The MathWorks, Inc., 24 Prime Park Way, Natick, MA 01760, (508)653-1415, Fax: (508)653-2997, Email: info@mathworks.com.

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1. Accessing MATLAB.

On most systems, after logging in one can enter MATLAB with the system command `matlab` and exit MATLAB with the MATLAB command `quit` or `exit`. However, your local installation may permit MATLAB to be accessed from a menu or by clicking an icon.

On systems permitting multiple processes, such as a Unix system or MS Windows, you will find it convenient, for reasons discussed in section 14, to keep both MATLAB and your local editor active. If you are working on a platform which runs processes in multiple windows, you will want to keep MATLAB active in one window and your local editor active in another.

You should consult your instructor or your local computer center for details of the local installation.

2. Entering matrices.

MATLAB works with essentially only one kind of object—a rectangular numerical matrix with possibly complex entries; all variables represent matrices. In some situations, 1-by-1 matrices are interpreted as scalars and matrices with only one row or one column are interpreted as vectors.

Matrices can be introduced into MATLAB in several different ways:

- Entered by an explicit list of elements,
- Generated by built-in statements and functions,
- Created in a diskfile with your local editor,
- Loaded from external data files or applications (see the User's Guide).

For example, either of the statements

```
A = [1 2 3; 4 5 6; 7 8 9]
```

and

```
A = [  
1 2 3  
4 5 6  
7 8 9 ]
```

creates the obvious 3-by-3 matrix and assigns it to a variable *A*. Try it. The elements within a row of a matrix may be separated by commas as well as a blank. When listing a number in exponential form (e.g. 2.34e-9), blank spaces must be avoided.

MATLAB allows complex numbers in all its operations and functions. Two convenient ways to enter complex matrices are:

```
A = [1 2;3 4] + i*[5 6;7 8]  
A = [1+5i 2+6i;3+7i 4+8i]
```

When listing complex numbers (e.g. 2+6i) in a matrix, blank spaces must be avoided. Either *i* or *j* may be used as the imaginary unit. If, however, you use *i* and *j* as variables and overwrite their values, you may generate a new imaginary unit with, say, `ii = sqrt(-1)`.

Listing entries of a large matrix is best done in an ASCII file with your local editor, where errors can be easily corrected (see sections 12 and 14). The file should consist of a rectangular array of just the numeric matrix entries. If this file is named, say, `data.ext` (where `.ext` is any extension), the MATLAB command `load data.ext` will read this file to the variable `data` in your MATLAB workspace. This may also be done with a script file (see section 12).

The built-in functions `rand`, `magic`, and `hilb`, for example, provide an easy way to create matrices with which to experiment. The command `rand(n)` will create an $n \times n$ matrix with randomly generated entries distributed uniformly between 0 and 1, while `rand(m,n)` will create an $m \times n$ one. `magic(n)` will create an integral $n \times n$ matrix which is a magic square (rows, columns, and diagonals have common sum); `hilb(n)` will create the $n \times n$ Hilbert matrix, the king of ill-conditioned matrices (m and n denote, of course, positive integers). Matrices can also be generated with a for-loop (see section 6 below).

Individual matrix and vector entries can be referenced with indices inside parentheses in the usual manner. For example, `A(2,3)` denotes the entry in the second row, third column of matrix *A* and `x(3)` denotes the third coordinate of vector *x*. Try it. A matrix or a vector will only accept *positive* integers as indices.

3. Matrix operations, array operations.

The following matrix operations are available in MATLAB:

+	addition
−	subtraction
*	multiplication
^	power
'	conjugate transpose
\	left division
/	right division

These matrix operations apply, of course, to scalars (1-by-1 matrices) as well. If the sizes of the matrices are incompatible for the matrix operation, an error message will result, except in the case of scalar-matrix operations (for addition, subtraction, and division as well as for multiplication) in which case each entry of the matrix is operated on by the scalar.

The “matrix division” operations deserve special comment. If *A* is an invertible square matrix and *b* is a compatible column, resp. row, vector, then

$x = A \backslash b$ is the solution of $A * x = b$ and, resp.,
 $x = b / A$ is the solution of $x * A = b$.

In left division, if *A* is square, then it is factored using Gaussian elimination and these factors are used to solve $A * x = b$. If *A* is not square, it is factored using Householder orthogonalization with column pivoting and the factors are used to solve the under- or over- determined system in the least squares sense. Right division is defined in terms of left division by $b / A = (A' \backslash b)'$.

Array operations.

The matrix operations of addition and subtraction already operate entry-wise but the other matrix operations given above do not—they are *matrix* operations. It is important to observe that these other operations, `*`, `^`, `\`, and `/`, can be made to operate entry-wise by preceding them by a period. For example, either `[1,2,3,4].*[1,2,3,4]` or `[1,2,3,4].^2` will yield `[1,4,9,16]`. Try it. This is particularly useful when using Matlab graphics.

4. Statements, expressions, and variables; saving a session.

MATLAB is an *expression* language; the expressions you type are interpreted and evaluated. MATLAB statements are usually of the form

variable = *expression*, or simply
expression

Expressions are usually composed from operators, functions, and variable names. Evaluation of the expression produces a matrix, which is then displayed on the screen and assigned to the variable for future use. If the variable name and `=` sign are omitted, a variable `ans` (for answer) is automatically created to which the result is assigned.

A statement is normally terminated with the carriage return. However, a statement can be continued to the next line with three or more periods followed by a carriage return. On the other hand, several statements can be placed on a single line if separated by commas or semicolons.

If the last character of a statement is a semicolon, the printing is suppressed, but the assignment is carried out. This is essential in suppressing unwanted printing of intermediate results.

MATLAB is case-sensitive in the names of commands, functions, and variables. For example, `solveUT` is not the same as `solveut`.

The command `who` (or `whos`) will list the variables currently in the workspace. A variable can be cleared from the workspace with the command `clear variablename`. The command `clear` alone will clear all nonpermanent variables.

The permanent variable `eps` (epsilon) gives the machine unit roundoff—about 10^{-16} on most machines. It is useful in specifying tolerances for convergence of iterative processes.

A runaway display or computation can be stopped on most machines without leaving MATLAB with CTRL-C (CTRL-BREAK on a PC).

Saving a session.

When one logs out or exits MATLAB all variables are lost. However, invoking the command `save` before exiting causes all variables to be written to a non-human-readable diskfile named `matlab.mat`. When one later reenters MATLAB, the command `load` will restore the workspace to its former state.

5. Matrix building functions.

Convenient matrix building functions are

<code>eye</code>	identity matrix
<code>zeros</code>	matrix of zeros
<code>ones</code>	matrix of ones
<code>diag</code>	create or extract diagonals
<code>triu</code>	upper triangular part of a matrix
<code>tril</code>	lower triangular part of a matrix
<code>rand</code>	randomly generated matrix
<code>hilb</code>	Hilbert matrix
<code>magic</code>	magic square
<code>toeplitz</code>	see <code>help toeplitz</code>

For example, `zeros(m,n)` produces an m -by- n matrix of zeros and `zeros(n)` produces an n -by- n one. If A is a matrix, then `zeros(size(A))` produces a matrix of zeros having the same size as A .

If x is a vector, `diag(x)` is the diagonal matrix with x down the diagonal; if A is a square matrix, then `diag(A)` is a vector consisting of the diagonal of A . What is `diag(diag(A))`? Try it.

Matrices can be built from blocks. For example, if A is a 3-by-3 matrix, then

`B = [A, zeros(3,2); zeros(2,3), eye(2)]`

will build a certain 5-by-5 matrix. Try it.

6. For, while, if — and relations.

In their basic forms, these MATLAB flow control statements operate like those in most computer languages.

For.

For example, for a given n , the statement

`x = []; for i = 1:n, x=[x,i^2], end`

or

`x = [];`
`for i = 1:n`
 `x = [x,i^2]`
`end`

will produce a certain n -vector and the statement

`x = []; for i = n:-1:1, x=[x,i^2], end`

will produce the same vector in reverse order. Try them. Note that a matrix may be empty (such as `x = []`).

The statements

```
for i = 1:m
    for j = 1:n
        H(i, j) = 1/(i+j-1);
    end
end
H
```

will produce and print to the screen the m -by- n hilbert matrix. The semicolon on the inner statement is essential to suppress printing of unwanted intermediate results while the last `H` displays the final result.

The `for` statement permits *any* matrix to be used instead of `1:n`. The variable just consecutively assumes the value of each column of the matrix. For example,

```
s = 0;
for c = A
    s = s + sum(c);
end
```

computes the sum of all entries of the matrix A by adding its column sums (Of course, `sum(sum(A))` does it more efficiently; see section 8). In fact, since `1:n = [1,2,3,...,n]`, this column-by-column assignment is what occurs with “if `i = 1:n,...`” (see section 11).

While.

The general form of a `while` loop is

```
while relation
    statements
end
```

The statements will be repeatedly executed as long as the relation remains true. For example, for a given number a , the following will compute and display the smallest nonnegative integer n such that $2^n \geq a$:

```
n = 0;
while 2^n < a
    n = n + 1;
end
n
```

If.

The general form of a simple `if` statement is

```
if relation
    statements
end
```

The statements will be executed only if the relation is true. Multiple branching is also possible, as is illustrated by

```
if n < 0
    parity = 0;
```

```
elseif rem(n,2) == 0
    parity = 2;
else
    parity = 1;
end
```

In two-way branching the `elseif` portion would, of course, be omitted.

Relations.

The relational operators in MATLAB are

<	less than
>	greater than
<=	less than or equal
>=	greater than or equal
==	equal
~=	not equal.

Note that “=” is used in an assignment statement while “==” is used in a relation. Relations may be connected or quantified by the logical operators

&	and
	or
~	not.

When applied to scalars, a relation is actually the scalar 1 or 0 depending on whether the relation is true or false. Try entering `3 < 5`, `3 > 5`, `3 == 5`, and `3 == 3`. When applied to matrices of the same size, a relation is a matrix of 0's and 1's giving the value of the relation between corresponding entries. Try `a = rand(5)`, `b = triu(a)`, `a == b`.

A relation between matrices is interpreted by `while` and `if` to be true if each entry of the relation matrix is nonzero. Hence, if you wish to execute *statement* when matrices A and B are equal you could type

```
if A == B
    statement
end
```

but if you wish to execute *statement* when A and B are not equal, you would type

```
if any(any(A ~= B))
    statement
end
```

or, more simply,

```
if A == B else
    statement
end
```

Note that the seemingly obvious

```
if A ~= B, statement, end
```

will not give what is intended since *statement* would execute only if *each* of the corresponding entries of *A* and *B* differ. The functions **any** and **all** can be creatively used to reduce matrix relations to vectors or scalars. Two **any**'s are required above since **any** is a vector operator (see section 8).

7. Scalar functions.

Certain MATLAB functions operate essentially on scalars, but operate element-wise when applied to a matrix. The most common such functions are

sin	asin	exp	abs	round
cos	acos	log (natural log)	sqrt	floor
tan	atan	rem (remainder)	sign	ceil

8. Vector functions.

Other MATLAB functions operate essentially on a vector (row or column), but act on an m -by- n matrix ($m \geq 2$) in a column-by-column fashion to produce a row vector containing the results of their application to each column. Row-by-row action can be obtained by using the transpose; for example, **mean(A')'**. A few of these functions are

max	sum	median	any
min	prod	mean	all
sort		std	

For example, the maximum entry in a matrix *A* is given by **max(max(A))** rather than **max(A)**. Try it.

9. Matrix functions.

Much of MATLAB's power comes from its matrix functions. The most useful ones are

eig	eigenvalues and eigenvectors
chol	cholesky factorization
svd	singular value decomposition
inv	inverse
lu	LU factorization
qr	QR factorization
hess	hessenberg form
schur	schur decomposition
rref	reduced row echelon form
expm	matrix exponential
sqrtm	matrix square root
poly	characteristic polynomial
det	determinant
size	size
norm	1-norm, 2-norm, F-norm, ∞ -norm
cond	condition number in the 2-norm
rank	rank

MATLAB functions may have single or multiple output arguments. For example,

```
y = eig(A), or simply eig(A)
```

produces a column vector containing the eigenvalues of *A* while

```
[U,D] = eig(A)
```

produces a matrix *U* whose columns are the eigenvectors of *A* and a diagonal matrix *D* with the eigenvalues of *A* on its diagonal. Try it.

10. Command line editing and recall.

The command line in MATLAB can be easily edited. The cursor can be positioned with the left/right arrows and the Backspace (or Delete) key used to delete the character to the left of the cursor. Other editing features are also available. On a PC try the Home, End, and Delete keys; on a Unix system or a PC the Emacs commands Ctl-a, Ctl-e, Ctl-d, and Ctl-k work; on other systems see **help cedit** or **type cedit**.

A convenient feature is use of the up/down arrows to scroll through the stack of previous commands. One can, therefore, recall a previous command line, edit it, and execute the revised command line. For small routines, this is much more convenient than using an M-file which requires moving between MATLAB and the editor (see sections 12 and 14). For example, **flopcounts** (see section 15) for computing the inverse of matrices of various sizes could be compared by repeatedly recalling, editing, and executing

```
a = rand(8); flops(0); inv(a); flops
```

If one wanted to compare plots of the functions $y = \sin mx$ and $y = \sin nx$ on the interval $[0, 2\pi]$ for various m and n , one might do the same for the command line:

```
m=2; n=3; x=0:.01:2*pi; y=sin(m*x); z=cos(n*x); plot(x,y,x,z)
```

11. Submatrices and colon notation.

Vectors and submatrices are often used in MATLAB to achieve fairly complex data manipulation effects. "Colon notation" (which is used both to generate vectors and reference submatrices) and subscripting by integral vectors are keys to efficient manipulation of these objects. Creative use of these features to vectorize operations permits one to minimize the use of loops (which slows MATLAB) and to make code simple and readable. *Special effort should be made to become familiar with them.*

The expression **1:5** (met earlier in **for** statements) is actually the row vector **[1 2 3 4 5]**. The numbers need not be integers nor the increment one. For example,

```
0.2:0.2:1.2
```

gives **[0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0, 1.2]**, and

```
5:-1:1 gives [5 4 3 2 1].
```

The following statements will, for example, generate a table of sines. Try it.

```
x = [0.0:0.1:2.0]';
y = sin(x);
[x y]
```

Note that since `sin` operates entry-wise, it produces a vector y from the vector x .

The colon notation can be used to access submatrices of a matrix. For example,

`A(1:4,3)` is the column vector consisting of the first four entries of the third column of A .

A colon by itself denotes an entire row or column:

`A(:,3)` is the third column of A , and `A(1:4,:)` is the first four rows.

Arbitrary integral vectors can be used as subscripts:

`A(:, [2 4])` contains as columns, columns 2 and 4 of A .

Such subscripting can be used on both sides of an assignment statement:

`A(:, [2 4 5]) = B(:, 1:3)` replaces columns 2,4,5 of A with the first three columns of B . Note that the *entire* altered matrix A is printed and assigned. Try it.

Columns 2 and 4 of A can be multiplied on the right by the 2-by-2 matrix `[1 2; 3 4]`:

`A(:, [2,4]) = A(:, [2,4])*[1 2; 3 4]`

Once again, the entire altered matrix is printed and assigned.

If x is an n -vector, what is the effect of the statement `x = x(n:-1:1)`? Try it. Also try `y = flipr(x)` and `y = flipud(x')`.

To appreciate the usefulness of these features, compare these MATLAB statements with a Pascal, FORTRAN, or C routine to effect the same.

12. M-files.

MATLAB can execute a sequence of statements stored in diskfiles. Such files are called “M-files” because they must have the file type of “.m” as the last part of their filename. Much of your work with MATLAB will be in creating and refining M-files. M-files are usually created using your local editor.

There are two types of M-files: *script files* and *function files*.

Script files.

A script file consists of a sequence of normal MATLAB statements. If the file has the filename, say, `rotate.m`, then the MATLAB command `rotate` will cause the statements in the file to be executed. Variables in a script file are global and will change the value of variables of the same name in the environment of the current MATLAB session.

Script files may be used to enter data into a large matrix; in such a file, entry errors can be easily corrected. If, for example, one enters in a diskfile `data.m`

```
A = [
1 2 3 4
5 6 7 8
];
```

then the MATLAB statement `data` will cause the assignment given in `data.m` to be carried out. However, it is usually easier to use the MATLAB function `load` (see section 2).

An M-file can reference other M-files, including referencing itself recursively.

Function files.

Function files provide extensibility to MATLAB. You can create new functions specific to your problem which will then have the same status as other MATLAB functions. Variables in a function file are by default local. A variable can, however, be declared global (see `help global`).

We first illustrate with a simple example of a function file.

```
function a = randint(m,n)
%RANDINT Randomly generated integral matrix.
%   randint(m,n) returns an m-by-n such matrix with entries
%   between 0 and 9.
a = floor(10*rand(m,n));
```

A more general version of this function is the following:

```
function a = randint(m,n,a,b)
%RANDINT Randomly generated integral matrix.
%   randint(m,n) returns an m-by-n such matrix with entries
%   between 0 and 9.
%   rand(m,n,a,b) return entries between integers a and b.
if nargin < 3, a = 0; b = 9; end
a = floor((b-a+1)*rand(m,n)) + a;
```

This should be placed in a diskfile with filename `randint.m` (corresponding to the function name). The first line declares the function name, input arguments, and output arguments; without this line the file would be a script file. Then a MATLAB statement `z = randint(4,5)`, for example, will cause the numbers 4 and 5 to be passed to the variables m and n in the function file with the output result being passed out to the variable z . Since variables in a function file are local, their names are independent of those in the current MATLAB environment.

Note that use of `nargin` (“number of input arguments”) permits one to set a default value of an omitted input variable—such as a and b in the example.

A function may also have multiple output arguments. For example:

```
function [mean, stdev] = stat(x)
% STAT Mean and standard deviation
%   For a vector x, stat(x) returns the mean of x;
%   [mean, stdev] = stat(x) both the mean and standard deviation.
%   For a matrix x, stat(x) acts columnwise.
[m n] = size(x);
if m == 1
    m = n; % handle case of a row vector
end
mean = sum(x)/m;
stdev = sqrt(sum(x.^2)/m - mean.^2);
```

Once this is placed in a diskfile `stat.m`, a MATLAB command `[xm, xd] = stat(x)`, for example, will assign the mean and standard deviation of the entries in the vector x to

xm and xd , respectively. Single assignments can also be made with a function having multiple output arguments. For example, `xm = stat(x)` (no brackets needed around xm) will assign the mean of x to xm .

The `%` symbol indicates that the rest of the line is a comment; MATLAB will ignore the rest of the line. Moreover, the first few contiguous comment lines, which document the M-file, are available to the on-line help facility and will be displayed if, for example, `help stat` is entered. Such documentation should *always* be included in a function file.

This function illustrates some of the MATLAB features that can be used to produce efficient code. Note, for example, that `x.^2` is the matrix of squares of the entries of x , that `sum` is a vector function (section 8), that `sqrt` is a scalar function (section 7), and that the division in `sum(x)/m` is a matrix-scalar operation. Thus all operations are vectorized and loops avoided.

If you can't vectorize some computations, you can make your `for` loops go faster by preallocating any vectors or matrices in which output is stored. For example, by including the second statement below, which uses the function `zeros`, space for storing E in memory is preallocated. Without this MATLAB must resize E one column larger in each iteration, slowing execution.

```
M = magic(6);
E = zeros(6,50);
for j = 1:50
    E(:,j) = eig(M^i);
end
```

Some more advanced features are illustrated by the following function. As noted earlier, some of the input arguments of a function—such as `tol` in this example, may be made optional through use of `nargin` (“number of input arguments”). The variable `nargout` can be similarly used. Note that the fact that a relation is a number (1 when true; 0 when false) is used and that, when `while` or `if` evaluates a relation, “nonzero” means “true” and 0 means “false”. Finally, the MATLAB function `feval` permits one to have as an input variable a string naming another function. (Also see `eval`.)

```
function [b, steps] = bisect(fun, x, tol)
%BISECT Zero of a function of one variable via the bisection method.
%   bisect(fun,x) returns a zero of the function. fun is a string
%   containing the name of a real-valued MATLAB function of a
%   single real variable; ordinarily functions are defined in
%   M-files. x is a starting guess. The value returned is near
%   a point where fun changes sign. For example,
%   bisect('sin',3) is pi. Note the quotes around sin.
%
%   An optional third input argument sets a tolerance for the
%   relative accuracy of the result. The default is eps.
%   An optional second output argument gives a matrix containing a
%   trace of the steps; the rows are of form [c f(c)].
```

```
% Initialization
if nargin < 3, tol = eps; end
trace = (nargout == 2);
if x ~= 0, dx = x/20; else, dx = 1/20; end
a = x - dx; fa = feval(fun,a);
b = x + dx; fb = feval(fun,b);

% Find change of sign.
while (fa > 0) == (fb > 0)
    dx = 2.0*dx;
    a = x - dx; fa = feval(fun,a);
    if (fa > 0) ~= (fb > 0), break, end
    b = x + dx; fb = feval(fun,b);
end
if trace, steps = [a fa; b fb]; end

% Main loop
while abs(b - a) > 2.0*tol*max(abs(b),1.0)
    c = a + 0.5*(b - a); fc = feval(fun,c);
    if trace, steps = [steps; [c fc]]; end
    if (fb > 0) == (fc > 0)
        b = c; fb = fc;
    else
        a = c; fa = fc;
    end
end
end
```

Some of MATLAB's functions are built-in while others are distributed as M-files. The actual listing of any non-built-in M-file—MATLAB's or your own—can be viewed with the MATLAB command `type functionname`. Try entering `type eig`, `type vander`, and `type rank`.

13. Text strings, error messages, input.

Text strings are entered into MATLAB surrounded by single quotes. For example,

```
s = 'This is a test'
```

assigns the given text string to the variable `s`.

Text strings can be displayed with the function `disp`. For example:

```
disp('this message is hereby displayed')
```

Error messages are best displayed with the function `error`

```
error('Sorry, the matrix must be symmetric')
```

since when placed in an M-File, it aborts execution of the M-file.

In an M-file the user can be prompted to interactively enter input data with the function `input`. When, for example, the statement

```
iter = input('Enter the number of iterations: ')
```

is encountered, the prompt message is displayed and execution pauses while the user keys in the input data. Upon pressing the return key, the data is assigned to the variable `iter` and execution resumes.

14. Managing M-files.

While using MATLAB one frequently wishes to create or edit an M-file with the local editor and then return to MATLAB. One wishes to keep MATLAB active while editing a file since otherwise all variables would be lost upon exiting.

This can be easily done using the `!`-feature. If, while in MATLAB, you precede it with an `!`, any system command—such as those for editing, printing, or copying a file—can be executed without exiting MATLAB. If, for example, the system command `ed` accesses your editor, the MATLAB command

```
>> !ed rotate.m
```

will let you edit the file named `rotate.m` using your local editor. Upon leaving the editor, you will be returned to MATLAB just where you left it.

However, as noted in section 1, on systems permitting multiple processes, such as one running Unix or MS Windows, it may be preferable to keep both MATLAB and your local editor active, keeping one process suspended while working in the other. If these processes can be run in multiple windows, you will want to keep MATLAB active in one window and your editor active in another.

You should consult your instructor or your local computing center for details of the local installation.

Many debugging tools are available. See `help dbtype` or the list of functions in the last section.

When in MATLAB, the command `pwd` will return the name of the present working directory and `cd` can be used to change the working directory. Either `dir` or `ls` will list the contents of the working directory while the command `what` lists only the M-files in the directory. The MATLAB commands `delete` and `type` can be used to delete a diskfile and print an M-file to the screen, respectively. While these commands may duplicate system commands, they avoid the use of an `!`. You may enjoy entering the command `why` a few times.

M-files must be in a directory accessible to MATLAB. M-files in the present working directory are always accessible. On most mainframe or workstation network installations, personal M-files which are stored in a subdirectory of one's home directory named `matlab` will be accessible to MATLAB from any directory in which one is working. The current list of directories in MATLAB's search path is obtained by the command `path`. This command can also be used to add or delete directories from the search path. See `help path`.

15. Comparing efficiency of algorithms: `flops`, `tic` and `toc`.

Two measures of the efficiency of an algorithm are the number of floating point operations (`flops`) performed and the elapsed time.

The MATLAB function `flops` keeps a running total of the `flops` performed. The command `flops(0)` (not `flops = 0!`) will reset `flops` to 0. Hence, entering `flops(0)` immediately before executing an algorithm and `flops` immediately after gives the `flop` count for the algorithm. For example, the number of `flops` required to solve a given linear system via Gaussian elimination can be obtained with:

```
flops(0), x = A\b; flops
```

The elapsed time (in seconds) can be obtained with the stopwatch timers `tic` and `toc`; `tic` starts the timer and `toc` returns the elapsed time. Hence, the commands

```
tic, any statement, toc
```

will return the elapsed time for execution of the statement. The elapsed time for solving the linear system above can be obtained, for example, with:

```
tic, x = A\b; toc
```

You may wish to compare this time—and `flop` count—with that for solving the system using `x = inv(A)*b;`. Try it.

It should be noted that, on timesharing machines, elapsed time may not be a reliable measure of the efficiency of an algorithm since the rate of execution depends on how busy the computer is at the time.

16. Output format.

While all computations in MATLAB are performed in double precision, the format of the displayed output can be controlled by the following commands.

<code>format short</code>	fixed point with 4 decimal places (the default)
<code>format long</code>	fixed point with 14 decimal places
<code>format short e</code>	scientific notation with 4 decimal places
<code>format long e</code>	scientific notation with 15 decimal places
<code>format rat</code>	approximation by ratio of small integers
<code>format hex</code>	hexadecimal format
<code>format bank</code>	fixed dollars and cents
<code>format +</code>	+, -, blank

Once invoked, the chosen format remains in effect until changed.

The command `format compact` will suppress most blank lines allowing more information to be placed on the screen or page. The command `format loose` returns to the non-compact format. These commands are independent of the other format commands.

17. Hardcopy.

Hardcopy is most easily obtained with the **diary** command. The command

```
diary filename
```

causes what appears subsequently on the screen (except graphics) to be written to the named diskfile (if the filename is omitted it will be written to a default file named **diary**) until one gives the command **diary off**; the command **diary on** will cause writing to the file to resume, etc. When finished, you can edit the file as desired and print it out on the local system. The **!**-feature (see section 14) will permit you to edit and print the file without leaving MATLAB.

18. Graphics.

MATLAB can produce planar plots of curves, 3-D plots of curves, 3-D mesh surface plots, and 3-D faceted surface plots. The primary commands for these facilities are **plot**, **plot3**, **mesh**, and **surf**, respectively. An introduction to each of these is given below.

To preview some of these capabilities, enter the command **demo** and select some of the graphics options.

Planar plots.

The **plot** command creates linear x-y plots; if x and y are vectors of the same length, the command **plot(x,y)** opens a graphics window and draws an x-y plot of the elements of x versus the elements of y . You can, for example, draw the graph of the sine function over the interval -4 to 4 with the following commands:

```
x = -4:.01:4; y = sin(x); plot(x,y)
```

Try it. The vector x is a partition of the domain with meshsize 0.01 while y is a vector giving the values of sine at the nodes of this partition (recall that **sin** operates entrywise).

You will usually want to keep the current graphics window (“figure”) exposed—but moved to the side—and the command window active.

One can have several graphics figures, one of which will at any time be the designated “current” figure where graphs from subsequent plotting commands will be placed. If, for example, figure 1 is the current figure, then the command **figure(2)** (or simply **figure**) will open a second figure (if necessary) and make it the current figure. The command **figure(1)** will then expose figure 1 and make it again the current figure. The command **gcf** will return the number of the current figure.

As a second example, you can draw the graph of $y = e^{-x^2}$ over the interval -1.5 to 1.5 as follows:

```
x = -1.5:.01:1.5; y = exp(-x.^2); plot(x,y)
```

Note that one must precede **^** by a period to ensure that it operates entrywise (see section 3).

MATLAB supplies a function **fplot** to easily and efficiently plot the graph of a function. For example, to plot the graph of the function above, one can first define the function in an M-file called, say, **expnormal.m** containing

```
function y = expnormal(x)
y = exp(-x.^2);
```

Then the command

```
fplot('expnormal', [-1.5,1.5])
```

will produce the graph. Try it.

Plots of parametrically defined curves can also be made. Try, for example,

```
t=0:.001:2*pi; x=cos(3*t); y=sin(2*t); plot(x,y)
```

The graphs can be given titles, axes labeled, and text placed within the graph with the following commands which take a string as an argument.

title	graph title
xlabel	x-axis label
ylabel	y-axis label
gtext	place text on the graph using the mouse
text	position text at specified coordinates

For example, the command

```
title('Best Least Squares Fit')
```

gives a graph a title. The command **gtext('The Spot')** allows one to interactively place the designated text on the current graph by placing the mouse pointer at the desired position and clicking the mouse. To place text in a graph at designated coordinates, one would use the command **text** (see **help text**).

The command **grid** will place grid lines on the current graph.

By default, the axes are auto-scaled. This can be overridden by the command **axis**. Some features of **axis** are:

axis([xmin,xmax,ymin,ymax])	set axis scaling to prescribed limits
axis(axis)	freezes scaling for subsequent graphs
axis auto	returns to auto-scaling
v = axis	returns vector v showing current scaling
axis square	same scale on both axes
axis equal	same scale and tic marks on both axes
axis off	turns off axis scaling and tic marks
axis on	turns on axis scaling and tic marks

The **axis** command should be given *after* the **plot** command.

Two ways to make multiple plots on a single graph are illustrated by

```
x=0:.01:2*pi;y1=sin(x);y2=sin(2*x);y3=sin(4*x);plot(x,y1,x,y2,x,y3)
```

and by forming a matrix Y containing the functional values as columns

```
x=0:.01:2*pi; Y=[sin(x)', sin(2*x)', sin(4*x)']; plot(x,Y)
```

Another way is with **hold**. The command **hold on** freezes the current graphics screen so that subsequent plots are superimposed on it. The axes may, however, become rescaled. Entering **hold off** releases the “hold.”

One can override the default linetypes, pointtypes and colors. For example,

```
x=0:.01:2*pi; y1=sin(x); y2=sin(2*x); y3=sin(4*x);
plot(x,y1,'--',x,y2,':',x,y3,'+')
```

renders a dashed line and dotted line for the first two graphs while for the third the symbol + is placed at each node. The line- and mark-types are

Linetypes: solid (—), dashed (---), dotted (:), dashdot (-.)
Marktypes: point (.), plus (+), star (*), circle (o), x-mark (x)

Colors can be specified for the line- and mark-types.

Colors: yellow (y), magenta (m), cyan (c), red (r)
green (g), blue (b), white (w), black (k)

For example, `plot(x,y,'r--')` plots a red dashed line.

The command `subplot` can be used to partition the screen so that several small plots can be placed in one figure. See `help subplot`.

Other specialized 2-D plotting functions you may wish to explore via `help` are:

`polar`, `bar`, `hist`, `quiver`, `compass`, `feather`, `rose`, `stairs`, `fill`

Graphics hardcopy

A hardcopy of the current graphics figure can be most easily obtained with the MATLAB command `print`. Entered by itself, it will send a high-resolution copy of the current graphics figure to the default printer.

The `printopt` M-file is used to specify the default setting used by the `print` command. If desired, one can change the defaults by editing this file (see `help printopt`).

The command `print filename` saves the current graphics figure to the designated filename in the default file format. If *filename* has no extension, then an appropriate extension such as `.ps`, `.eps`, or `.jet` is appended. If, for example, PostScript is the default file format, then

```
print lissajous
```

will create a PostScript file `lissajous.ps` of the current graphics figure which can subsequently be printed using the system `print` command. If *filename* already exists, it will be overwritten unless you use the `-append` option. The command

```
print -append lissajous
```

will append the (hopefully different) current graphics figure to the existing file `lissajous.ps`. In this way one can save several graphics figures in a single file.

The default settings can, of course, be overwritten. For example,

```
print -deps -f3 saddle
```

will save to an Encapsulated PostScript file `saddle.eps` the graphics figure 3 — even if it is not the current figure.

3-D line plots.

Completely analogous to `plot` in two dimensions, the command `plot3` produces curves in three dimensional space. If *x*, *y*, and *z* are three vectors of the same size, then the command `plot3(x,y,z)` will produce a perspective plot of the piecewise linear curve in 3-space passing through the points whose coordinates are the respective elements of *x*, *y*, and *z*. These vectors are usually defined parametrically. For example,

```
t=.01:.01:20*pi; x=cos(t); y=sin(t); z=t.^3; plot3(x,y,z)
```

will produce a helix which is compressed near the *x-y* plane (a “slinky”). Try it.

Just as for planar plots, a title and axis labels (including `zlabel`) can be added. The features of `axis` command described there also hold for 3-D plots; setting the axis scaling to prescribed limits will, of course, now require a 6-vector.

3-D mesh and surface plots.

Three dimensional wire mesh surface plots are drawn with the command `mesh`. The command `mesh(z)` creates a three-dimensional perspective plot of the elements of the matrix *z*. The mesh surface is defined by the *z*-coordinates of points above a rectangular grid in the *x-y* plane. Try `mesh(eye(10))`.

Similarly, three dimensional faceted surface plots are drawn with the command `surf`. Try `surf(eye(10))`.

To draw the graph of a function $z = f(x, y)$ over a rectangle, one first defines vectors *xx* and *yy* which give partitions of the sides of the rectangle. With the function `meshgrid` one then creates a matrix *x*, each row of which equals *xx* and whose column length is the length of *yy*, and similarly a matrix *y*, each column of which equals *yy*, as follows:

```
[x,y] = meshgrid(xx,yy);
```

One then computes a matrix *z*, obtained by evaluating *f* entrywise over the matrices *x* and *y*, to which `mesh` or `surf` can be applied.

You can, for example, draw the graph of $z = e^{-x^2-y^2}$ over the square $[-2, 2] \times [-2, 2]$ as follows (try it):

```
xx = -2:.2:2;
yy = xx;
[x,y] = meshgrid(xx,yy);
z = exp(-x.^2 - y.^2);
mesh(z)
```

One could, of course, replace the first three lines of the preceding with

```
[x,y] = meshgrid(-2:.2:2, -2:.2:2);
```

Try this plot with `surf` instead of `mesh`.

As noted above, the features of the `axis` command described in the section on planar plots also hold for 3-D plots as do the commands for titles, axes labelling and the command `hold`.

The color shading of surfaces is set by the `shading` command. There are three settings for shading: `faceted` (default), `interpolated`, and `flat`. These are set by the commands

shading faceted, shading interp, or shading flat

Note that on surfaces produced by `surf`, the settings `interpolated` and `flat` remove the superimposed mesh lines. Experiment with various shadings on the surface produced above. The command `shading` (as well as `colormap` and `view` below) should be entered *after* the `surf` command.

The color profile of a surface is controlled by the `colormap` command. Available pre-defined colormaps include:

`hsv` (default), `hot`, `cool`, `jet`, `pink`, `copper`, `flag`, `gray`, `bone`

The command `colormap(cool)` will, for example, set a certain color profile for the current figure. Experiment with various colormaps on the surface produced above.

The command `view` can be used to specify in spherical or cartesian coordinates the viewpoint from which the 3-D object is to be viewed. See `help view`.

The MATLAB function `peaks` generates an interesting surface on which to experiment with shading, `colormap`, and `view`.

Plots of parametrically defined surfaces can also be made. The MATLAB functions `sphere` and `cylinder` will generate such plots of the named surfaces. (See `type sphere` and `type cylinder`.) The following is an example of a similar function which generates a plot of a torus.

```
function [x,y,z] = torus(r,n,a)
%TORUS Generate a torus
%   torus(r,n,a) generates a plot of a torus with central
%   radius a and lateral radius r.  n controls the number
%   of facets on the surface.  These input variables are optional
%   with defaults r = 0.5, n = 30, a = 1.
%
%   [x,y,z] = torus(r,n,a) generates three (n+1)-by-(n+1)
%   matrices so that surf(x,y,z) will produce the torus.
%
%   See also SPHERE, CYLINDER

if nargin < 3, a = 1; end
if nargin < 2, n = 30; end
if nargin < 1, r = 0.5; end
theta = pi*(0:2:2*n)/n;
phi = 2*pi*(0:2:n)/n;
xx = (a + r*cos(phi))*cos(theta);
yy = (a + r*cos(phi))*sin(theta);
zz = r*sin(phi)*ones(size(theta));
if nargin == 0
    surf(xx,yy,zz)
    ar = (a + r)/sqrt(2);
    axis([-ar,ar,-ar,ar,-ar,ar])
else
    %
```

```
x = xx; y = yy; z = zz;
end
```

Other 3-D plotting functions you may wish to explore via `help` are:

`meshz`, `surf`, `surfl`, `contour`, `pcolor`

Handle Graphics.

Beyond those described above, MATLAB's graphics system provides low level functions which permit one to control virtually all aspects of the graphics environment to produce sophisticated plots. Enter the command `set(1)` and `gca,set(ans)` to see some of the properties of figure 1 which one can control. This system is called Handle Graphics, for which one is referred to the MATLAB User's Guide.

19. Sparse Matrix Computations.

In performing matrix computations, MATLAB normally assumes that a matrix is dense; that is, any entry in a matrix *may* be nonzero. If, however, a matrix contains sufficiently many zero entries, computation time could be reduced by avoiding arithmetic operations on zero entries and less memory could be required by storing only the nonzero entries of the matrix. This increase in efficiency in time and storage can make feasible the solution of significantly larger problems than would otherwise be possible. MATLAB provides the capability to take advantage of the sparsity of matrices.

Matlab has two storage modes, full and sparse, with full the default. The functions `full` and `sparse` convert between the two modes. For a matrix *A*, full or sparse, `nnz(A)` returns the number of nonzero elements in *A*.

A sparse matrix is stored as a linear array of its nonzero elements along with their row and column indices. If a full tridiagonal matrix *F* is created via, say,

```
F = floor(10*rand(6)); F = triu(tril(F,1),-1);
```

then the statement `S = sparse(F)` will convert *F* to sparse mode. Try it. Note that the output lists the nonzero entries in column major order along with their row and column indices. The statement `F = full(S)` restores *S* to full storage mode. One can check the storage mode of a matrix *A* with the command `issparse(A)`.

A sparse matrix is, of course, usually generated directly rather than by applying the function `sparse` to a full matrix. A sparse banded matrix can be easily created via the function `spdiags` by specifying diagonals. For example, a familiar sparse tridiagonal matrix is created by

```
m = 6; n = 6; e = ones(n,1); d = -2*e;
T = spdiags([e,d,e],[-1,0,1],m,n)
```

Try it. The integral vector `[-1,0,1]` specifies in which diagonals the columns of `[e,d,e]` should be placed (use `full(T)` to view). Experiment with other values of *m* and *n* and, say, `[-3,0,2]` instead of `[-1,0,1]`. See `help spdiags` for further features of `spdiags`.

The sparse analogs of `eye`, `zeros`, `ones`, and `randn` for full matrices are, respectively,

`speye`, `sparse`, `spones`, `sprandn`

The latter two take a matrix argument and replace only the nonzero entries with ones and normally distributed random numbers, respectively. `randn` also permits the sparsity structure to be randomized. The command `sparse(m,n)` creates a sparse zero matrix.

The versatile function `sparse` permits creation of a sparse matrix via listing its nonzero entries. Try, for example,

```
i = [1 2 3 4 4 4]; j = [1 2 3 1 2 3]; s = [5 6 7 8 9 10];
S = sparse(i,j,s,4,3), full(S)
```

In general, if the vector s lists the nonzero entries of S and the integral vectors i and j list their corresponding row and column indices, then

```
sparse(i,j,s,m,n)
```

will create the desired sparse $m \times n$ matrix S . As another example try

```
n = 6; e = floor(10*rand(n-1,1)); E = sparse(2:n,1:n-1,e,n,n)
```

The arithmetic operations and most MATLAB functions can be applied independent of storage mode. The storage mode of the result? Operations on full matrices always give full results. Selected other results are ($S=\text{sparse}$, $F=\text{full}$):

Sparse: $S+S$, $S*S$, $S.*S$, $S.*F$, $S^{\wedge}n$, $S \backslash S$

Full: $S+F$, $S*F$, $S \backslash F$, $F \backslash S$

Sparse: $\text{inv}(S)$, $\text{chol}(S)$, $\text{lu}(S)$, $\text{diag}(S)$, $\text{max}(S)$, $\text{sum}(S)$

For sparse S , $\text{eig}(S)$ is full if S is symmetric but undefined if S is unsymmetric; `svd` requires a full argument. A matrix built from blocks, such as $[A,B;C,D]$, is sparse if any constituent block is sparse.

You may wish to compare, for the two storage modes, the efficiency of solving a tridiagonal system of equations for, say, $n = 20, 50, 500, 1000$ by entering, recalling and editing the following two command lines:

```
n=20;e=ones(n,1);d=-2*e; T=spdiags([e,d,e],[-1,0,1],n,n); A=full(T);
b=ones(n,1);s=sparse(b);tic,T\s;sparsetime=toc, tic,A\b;fulltime=toc
```

20. Reference.

There are many MATLAB features which cannot be included in these introductory notes. Listed below are some of the MATLAB functions and operators available, grouped by subject area¹. Use the on-line help facility or consult the Reference Guide for more detailed information on the functions.

There are many functions beyond these. There exist, in particular, several “toolboxes” of functions for specific areas². Included among such are signal processing, control systems, robust-control, system identification, optimization, splines, chemometrics, μ -analysis and synthesis, state-space identification, neural networks, image processing, symbolic math (Maple kernel), and statistics. These can be explored via the command `help`.

MANAGING COMMANDS AND FUNCTIONS	
help	help facility
what	list M-files on disk
type	list named M-file
lookfor	keyword search through the help entries
which	locate functions and files
demo	run demonstrations
path	control MATLAB's search path
cedit	set parameters for command line editing and recall
version	display MATLAB version you are running
whatsnew	display toolbox README files
info	info about MATLAB and The MathWorks
why	receive flippant answer

MANAGING VARIABLES AND THE WORKSPACE	
who	list current variables
whos	list current variables, long form
save	save workspace variables to disk
load	retrieve variables from disk
clear	clear variables and functions from memory
pack	consolidate workspace memory
size	size of matrix
length	length of vector
disp	display matrix or text

¹ Source: MATLAB Reference Guide, version 4.1

² The toolboxes, which are optional, may not be installed on your system.

WORKING WITH FILES AND THE OPERATING SYSTEM	
cd	change current working directory
pwd	show current working directory
dir, ls	directory listing
delete	delete file
getenv	get environment variable
!	execute operating system command
unix	execute operating system command; return result
diary	save text of MATLAB session

CONTROLLING THE COMMAND WINDOW	
clc	clear command window
home	send cursor home—to top of screen
format	set output format
echo	echo commands inside script commands
more	control paged output in command window

STARTING AND QUITTING FROM MATLAB	
quit	terminate MATLAB
startup	M-file executed when MATLAB is started
matlabrc	master startup M-file

MATRIX OPERATORS	ARRAY OPERATORS
+ addition	+ addition
— subtraction	— subtraction
* multiplication	.* multiplication
^ power	.^ power
/ right division	./ right division
\ left division	.\ left division
' conjugate transpose	
.' transpose	
kron Kronecker tensor product	

RELATIONAL AND LOGICAL OPERATORS			
<	less than	&	and
<=	less than or equal	 	or
>	greater than	~	not
>=	greater than or equal	xor	exclusive or
==	equal		
~=	not equal		

SPECIAL CHARACTERS	
=	assignment statement
[]	used to form vectors and matrices; enclose multiple function output variables
()	arithmetic expression precedence; enclose function input variables
.	decimal point
..	parent directory
...	continue statement to next line
,	separate subscripts, function arguments, statements
;	end rows, suppress printing
%	comments
:	subscripting, vector generation
!	execute operating system command

SPECIAL VARIABLES AND CONSTRAINTS	
ans	answer when expression not assigned
eps	floating point precision
realmax	largest floating point number
reallmin	smallest positive floating point number
pi	π
i, j	imaginary unit
inf	infinity
NaN	Not-a-Number
flops	floating point operation count
nargin	number of function input arguments
nargout	number of function output arguments
computer	computer type

TIME AND DATE	
date	current date
clock	wall clock
etime	elapsed time function
tic, toc	stopwatch timer functions
cputime	elapsed CPU time

SPECIAL MATRICES	
zeros	matrix of zeros
ones	matrix of ones
eye	identity
diag	diagonal
toeplitz	Toeplitz
magic	magic square
compan	companion
linspace	linearly spaced vectors
logspace	logarithmically spaced vectors
meshgrid	array for 3-D plots
rand	uniformly distributed random numbers
randn	normally distributed random numbers
hilb	Hilbert
invhilb	inverse Hilbert (exact)
vander	Vandermonde
pascal	Pascal
hadamard	Hadamard
hankel	Hankel
rosser	symmetric eigenvalue test matrix
wilkinson	Wilkinson's eigenvalue test matrix
gallery	two small test matrices

MATRIX MANIPULATION	
diag	create or extract diagonals
rot90	rotate matrix 90 degrees
fliplr	flip matrix left-to-right
flipud	flip matrix up-to-down
reshape	change size
tril	lower triangular part
triu	upper triangular part
.'	transpose
:	convert matrix to single column; $A(:)$

LOGICAL FUNCTIONS	
exist	check if variables or functions exist
any	true if any element of vector is true
all	true if all elements of vector are true
find	find indices of non-zero elements
isnan	true for NaNs
isinf	true for infinite elements
finite	true for finite elements
isieee	true for IEEE floating point arithmetic
isempty	true for empty matrix
issparse	true for sparse matrix
isstr	true for text string
strcmp	compare string variables

CONTROL FLOW	
if	conditionally execute statements
else	used with if
elseif	used with if
end	terminate if , for , while
for	repeat statements for a specific number of times
while	repeat statments while condition is true
break	terminate execution of for or while loops
return	return to invoking function
error	display message and abort function

PROGRAMMING	
input	prompt for user input
keyboard	invoke keyboard as if it were a script file
menu	generate menu of choices for user input
pause	wait for user response
function	define function
eval	execute string with MATLAB expression
feval	evaluate function specified by string
global	define global variables
nargchk	validate number of input arguments

TEXT AND STRINGS	
string	about character strings in MATLAB
abs	convert string to numeric values
blanks	a string of blanks
eval	evaluate string with MATLAB expression
num2str	convert number to string
int2str	convert integer to string
str2num	convert string to number
isstr	true for string variables
strcmp	compare string variables
upper	convert string to uppercase
lower	convert string to lowercase
hex2num	convert hex string to floating point number
hex2dec	convert hex string to decimal integer
dec2hex	convert decimal integer to hex string

DEBUGGING	
dbstop	set breakpoint
dbclear	remove breakpoint
dbcont	remove execution
dbdown	change local workspace context
dbstack	list who called whom
dbstatus	list all breakpoints
dbstep	execute one or more lines
dbtype	list M-file with line numbers
dbup	change local workspace context
dbdown	opposite of dbup
dbquit	quit debug mode

SOUND PROCESSING FUNCTIONS	
saxis	sound axis scaling
sound	convert vector to sound
auread	Read Sun audio file
auwrite	Write Sun audio file
lin2mu	linear to mu-law conversion
mu2lin	mu-law to linear conversion

ELEMENTARY MATH FUNCTIONS	
abs	absolute value or complex magnitude
angle	phase angle
sqrt	square root
real	real part
imag	imaginary part
conj	complex conjugate
gcd	greatest common divisor
lcm	least common multiple
round	round to nearest integer
fix	round toward zero
floor	round toward $-\infty$
ceil	round toward ∞
sign	signum function
rem	remainder
exp	exponential base e
log	natural logarithm
log10	log base 10

TRIGONOMETRIC FUNCTIONS	
sin, asin, sinh, asinh	sine, arcsine, hyperbolic sine, hyperbolic arcsine
cos, acos, cosh, acosh	cosine, arccosine, hyperbolic cosine, hyperbolic arccosine
tan, atan, tanh, atanh	tangent, arctangent, hyperbolic tangent, hyperbolic arctangent
cot, acot, coth, acoth	cotangent, arccotangent, hyperbolic cotan., hyperbolic arccotan.
sec, asec, sech, asech	secant, arcsecant, hyperbolic secant, hyperbolic arcsecant
csc, acsc, csch, acsch	cosecant, arccosecant, hyperbolic cosecant, hyperbolic arccosecant

SPECIAL FUNCTIONS	
bessel	bessel function
beta	beta function
gamma	gamma function
rat	rational approximation
rats	rational output
erf	error function
erfinv	inverse error function
ellipke	complete elliptic integral
ellipj	Jacobian elliptic integral
expint	exponential integral
log2	dissect floating point numbers
pow2	scale floating point numbers

MATRIX DECOMPOSITIONS AND FACTORIZATIONS	
inv	inverse
lu	factors from Gaussian elimination
rref	reduced row echelon form
chol	Cholesky factorization
qr	orthogonal-triangular decomposition
nls	nonnegative least squares
lscov	least squares in presence of known covariance
null	null space
orth	orthogonalization
eig	eigenvalues and eigenvectors
hess	Hessenberg form
schur	Schur decomposition
cdf2rdf	complex diagonal form to real block diagonal form
rsf2csf	real block diagonal form to complex diagonal form
balance	diagonal scaling for eigenvalue accuracy
qz	generalized eigenvalues
polyeig	polynomial eigenvalue solver
svd	singular value decomposition
pinv	pseudoinverse

MATRIX CONDITIONING	
cond	condition number in 2-norm
rcond	LINPACK reciprocal condition number estimator
condest	Hager/Higham condition number estimator
norm	1-norm, 2-norm, F-norm, OC-norm
normest	2-norm estimator
rank	rank

ELEMENTARY MATRIX FUNCTIONS	
expm	matrix exponential
expm1	M-file implementation of expm
expm2	matrix exponential via Taylor series
expm3	matrix exponential via eigenvalues and eigenvectors
logm	matrix logarithm
sqrtn	matrix square root
fmm	evaluate general matrix function
poly	characteristic polynomial
det	determinant
trace	trace

POLYNOMIALS	
poly	construct polynomial with specified roots
roots	polynomial roots—companion matrix method
roots1	polynomial roots—Laguerre's method
polyval	evaluate polynomial
polyvalm	evaluate polynomial with matrix argument
conv	multiply polynomials
deconv	divide polynomials
residue	partial-fraction expansion (residues)
polyfit	fit polynomial to data
polyder	differentiate polynomial

COLUMN-WISE DATA ANALYSIS	
max	largest component
min	smallest component
mean	average or mean value
median	median value
std	standard deviation
sort	sort in ascending order
sum	sum of elements
prod	product of elements
cumsum	cumulative sum of elements
cumprod	cumulative product of elements
hist	histogram

SIGNAL PROCESSING	
abs	complex magnitude
angle	phase angle
conv	convolution and polynomial multiplication
deconv	deconvolution and polynomial division
corrcoef	correlation coefficients
cov	covariance matrix
filter	one-dimensional digital filter
filter2	two-dimensional digital filter
cplxpair	sort numbers into complex pairs
unwrap	remove phase angle jumps across 360° boundaries
nextpow2	next higher power of 2
fft	radix-2 fast Fourier transform
fft2	two-dimensional FFT
ifft	inverse fast Fourier transform
ifft2	inverse 2-D FFT
fftshift	zero-th lag to center of spectrum

FINITE DIFFERENCES AND DATA INTERPOLATION	
diff	approximate derivatives
gradient	approximate gradient
del2	five point discrete Laplacian
subspace	angle between two subspaces
spline	cubic spline interpolation
interp1	1-D data interpolation
interp2	2-D data interpolation
interpft	1-D data interpolation via FFT method
griddata	data gridding

NUMERICAL INTEGRATION	
quad	adaptive 2-panel Simpson's Rule
quad8	adaptive 8-panel Newton-Cotes Rule
trapz	trapezoidal method

DIFFERENTIAL EQUATION SOLUTION	
ode23	2nd/3rd order Runge-Kutta method
ode23p	solve via ode23 , displaying plot
ode45	4th/5th order Runge-Kutta-Fehlberg method

NONLINEAR EQUATIONS AND OPTIMIZATION	
fmin	minimize function of one variable
fmin s	minimize function of several variables
fsolve	solution to a system of nonlinear equations (find zeros of a function of several variables)
fzero	find zero of function of one variable
fplot	plot graph of a function

TWO DIMENSIONAL GRAPHS	
plot	linear plot
loglog	log-log scale plot
semilogx	semilog scale plot
semilogy	semilog scale plot
fill	draw filled 2-D polygons
polar	polar coordinate plot
bar	bar graph
stairs	stairstep plot
errorbar	error bar plot
hist	histogram plot
rose	angle histogram plot
compass	compass plot
feather	feather plot
fplot	plot function

GRAPH ANNOTATION	
title	graph title
xlabel	x-axis label
ylabel	y-axis label
zlabel	z-axis label for 3-D plots
grid	grid lines
text	text annotation
gtext	mouse placement of text
ginput	graphical input from mouse

FIGURE WINDOW/AXIS CREATION AND CONTROL	
figure	create figure (graph window)
gcf	get handle to current figure
clf	clear current figure
close	close figure
hold	hold current graph
ishold	return hold status
subplot	create axes in tiled positions
axes	create axes in arbitrary positions
gca	get handle to to current axes
axis	control axis scaling and appearance
caxis	control pseudocolor axis scaling

GRAPH HARDCOPY AND STORAGE	
print	print graph or save graph to file
printopt	configure local printer defaults
orient	set paper orientation

THREE DIMENSIONAL GRAPHS	
mesh	3-D mesh surface
meshc	combination mesh/contour plot
meshz	3-D mesh with zero plane
surf	3-D shaded surface
surfc	combination surface/contour plot
surf1	3-D shaded surface with lighting
plot3	plot lines and points in 3-D space
fill3	draw filled 3-D polygons in 3-D space
contour	contour plot
contour3	3-D contour plot
clabel	contour plot elevation labels
contourc	contour plot computation (used by contour)
pcolor	pseudocolor (checkerboard) plot
quiver	quiver plot
image	display image
waterfall	waterfall plot
slice	volumetric visualization plot

3-D GRAPH APPEARANCE	
view	3-D graph viewpoint specification
viewmtx	view transformation matrices
hidden	mesh hidden line removal mode
shading	color shading mode
axis	axis scaling and appearance
caxis	pseudocolor axis scaling
specular	specular reflectance
diffuse	diffuse reflectance
surfnorm	surface normals
colormap	color lookup table (see below)
brighten	brighten or darken color map
spinmap	spin color map
rgbplot	plot colormap
hsv2rgb	hsv to rgb color map conversion
rgb2hsv	rgb to hsv color map conversion

COLOR MAPS	
hsv	hue-saturation-value (default)
jet	variant of hsv
gray	linear gray-scale
hot	black-red-yellow-white
cool	shades of cyan and magenta
bone	gray-scale with tinge of blue
copper	linear copper tone
pink	pastel shades of pink
flag	alternating red, white, blue, and black

3-D OBJECTS	
sphere	generate sphere
cylinder	generate cylinder
peaks	generate demo surface

MOVIES AND ANIMATION	
moviein	initialize movie frame memory
getframe	get movie frame
movie	play recorded movie frames

HANDLE GRAPHICS OBJECTS	
figure	create figure window
axes	create axes
line	create line
text	create text
patch	create patch
surface	create surface
image	create image
uicontrol	create user interface control
uimenu	create user interface menu

HANDLE GRAPHICS OPERATIONS	
set	set object properties
get	get object properties
reset	reset object properties
delete	delete object
drawnow	flush pending graphics events

SPARSE MATRIX FUNCTIONS	
spdiags	sparse matrix formed from diagonals
speye	sparse identity matrix
sprandn	sparse random matrix
spones	replace nonzero entries with ones
sprandsym	sparse symmetric random matrix
spfun	apply function to nonzero entries
sparse	create sparse matrix; convert full matrix to sparse
full	convert sparse matrix to full matrix
find	find indices of nonzero entries
spconvert	convert from sparse matrix external format
issparse	true if matrix is sparse
nnz	number of nonzero entries
nonzeros	nonzero entries
nzmax	amount of storage allocated for nonzero entries
spalloc	allocate memory for nonzero entries
spy	visualize sparsity structure
gplot	plot graph, as in “graph theory”
colmmd	column minimum degree
colperm	order columns based on nonzero count
dmlperm	Dulmage-Mendelsohn decomposition
randperm	random permutation vector
symmmd	symmetric minimum degree
symrcm	reverse Cuthill-McKee ordering
condest	estimate 1-norm condition
normest	estimate 2-norm
sprank	structural rank
spaugment	form least squares augmented system
spparms	set parameters for sparse matrix routines
symbfact	symbolic factorization analysis
parsefun	sparse auxillary functions and parameters