

Maple Lecture 16. Maple Procedures and Recursion

Maple procedures can take procedures as input and give procedures on return. We will also see how to work with indexed procedures. With a remember table we can make recursive procedures to run efficiently.

The material in this lecture is inspired on [2, Section 8.4]. The first example below is taken from [3, pages 75-77], see also [1, Section 3.5] for recursion and remember tables. The most recent information can be found in the Maple 9 manuals [4] and [5].

16.1 Procedures returning Procedures

Newton's method is one of the most fundamental algorithms for approximating solutions of $f(x) = 0$, where the approximations are generated as follows:

$$x(k+1) = x(k) - \frac{f(x(k))}{f'(x(k))}, \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, \dots$$

where $f'(x)$ is the derivative of the function f .

We will make a procedure that returns the right hand side of the iteration above. First of all, we must note the difference between x and $x \rightarrow x$: the first x is just the name x , while $x \rightarrow x$ is the function x .

```
[> newtonstep := proc(f::procedure)
>   description 'returns one step with Newton's method on f':
>   local ix:
>   ix := x -> x:           # identity function
>   ix - eval(f)/D(eval(f)); # implicit return
> end proc;
```

Note that we use the **eval** in the procedure to force Maple to evaluate, because for efficiency, Maple would otherwise delay the evaluation. Let us apply this to approximate a root of $\cos(x) = 1/2$. First we must make a function $g(x) = \cos(x) - 1/2$.

```
[> g := x -> cos(x) - 1/2;           # compute root of g(x) = 0
> gstep := newtonstep(g);           # create a procedure
> gstep(a);                          # symbolic execution
> gstep(1.4);                         # numerical execution
> y := 0.4;                           # starting value
> Digits := 32;                       # working precision
> for i from 1 to 7 do                # we will do 7 steps
>   y := gstep(y);
> end do;
```

We know that $\cos(\pi/3) = 1/2$, let us thus check how accurate our result is:

```
[> evalf(y - Pi/3);
```

16.2 Indexed Procedures

An example of an indexed procedure is the logarithm, where the base can be given as an index.

```
[> interface(verboseproc=3);
> print(log);
```

By default, we get the natural logarithm:

```
[> log(10.0); log(exp(1));
```

To get the decimal logarithm, we need to provide the base 10 of the logarithm as index to the function call:

```
[> log[10](10.0);
```

An index is just like an index in an array :

```
[> a := A[3];
[> type(a, 'indexed');
[> op(a);
```

We see that we can check on whether a name is indexed or not via type and get access to the index with op.

As example, suppose $f(t) = b + (70 - b) \cdot \exp(-0.2 \cdot t)$ models temperature in function of time with b as index. Initially, at $t = 0$, the temperature is 70. As t goes to infinity, the final temperature is b . If b is not provided as index, take $b = 32$ as default.

```
[> cool := proc(t)
>   description 'model of cooling temperature with index':
>   local b:
>   if type(procname, 'indexed')      # test if procedure has an index
>   then b := op(procname):          # take index as base
>   else b := 32:                    # default value of base
>   end if:
>   return b + (70-b)*exp(-0.2*t):   # the general formula
> end proc;
[> cool[20](1.4); cool(1.4);          # test for different values of base
[> cool[20](0);   cool(0);            # initially we are inside
[> cool[20](100); cool(100);         # close to outside temperature
```

We use indexed procedures to implement functions with parameters for which good default values are known. The default values may correspond to cases for which a very efficient implementation exists, whereas for other values, a general recipe needs to be applied.

16.3 Recursive Procedure Definitions

Many functions are defined recursively. We see how Maple has a nice mechanism to avoid superfluous recursive calls. One classical example of a recursive sequence are the Fibonacci numbers:

$$F(0) = 0, \quad F(1) = 1, \quad \text{and} \quad F(n) = F(n-2) + F(n-1), \quad \text{for } n \geq 2.$$

The direct way to implement this goes as follows:

```
[> fib := proc(n::nonnegint)
>   description 'returns the nth Fibonacci number':
>   if n = 0 then
>     return 0:
>   elif n = 1 then
>     return 1:
>   else
>     return fib(n-2)+fib(n-1):
>   end if;
> end proc;
[> for i from 1 to 10 do              # first ten Fibonacci numbers
>   fib(i);
> end do;
```

This is a very expensive way to compute the Fibonacci numbers, because of too many repetitive calls.

```
[> starttime := time();
> fib(20);
> elapsed := (time()-starttime)*seconds;
```

In Figure 1 we see the tree of procedure calls to compute $F(4)$. In general, to compute the n th Fibonacci number, 2^n calls are needed.

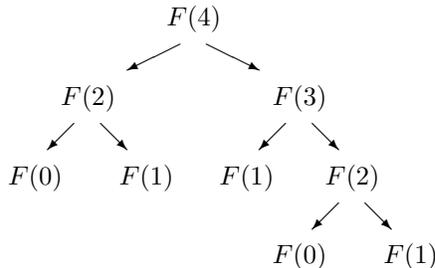


Figure 1: Procedure Calls to compute $F(4)$.

We will slightly modify the definition of the procedure to compute the Fibonacci numbers:

```
[> newfib := proc(n::nonnegint)
>   description 'Fibonacci with remember table':
>   option remember:
>   if n = 0 then
>     return 0;
>   elif n = 1 then
>     return 1;
>   else
>     return newfib(n-2) + newfib(n-1);
>   end if:
> end proc;
[> starttime := time():
[> newfib(20);
[> elapsed := (time()-starttime)*seconds;
```

With the option `remember`, Maple has built a “remember table” for the procedure. This remember table stores the results of all calls of the procedure. Here is how we can consult this table:

```
[> eval(newfib);
[> T := op(4,eval(newfib));
```

If you are curious about the “4”, do `?proc;` to see where the other operands are used for. With calls to `newfib` for higher numbers, we add values to the table:

```
[> newfib(21);
[> eval(T);
```

Once we selected the remember table and assigned it to a variable, we can modify the table.

```
[> newfib(20) := 1;           # introduce error in the table
[> eval(T);
```

We can also unassign values in the table :

```
[> T[20] := evaln(T[20]);
[> eval(T);
[> newfib(22);
```

As the computation of the the 22nd Fibonacci number required the 20th, the 20th element has been recomputed and stored in the remember table:

```
[> eval(T);
```

The command **forget** is used to clear the remember table of a Maple procedure. For example:

```
[> forget(newfib);
```

16.4 Assignments

1. Write a procedure **fractional_power** which returns $x^{1/n}$ for one argument x and index n . If the index is omitted, **fractional_power**(x) = \sqrt{x} .
2. Indices can be sequences. Write a procedure **line** which has one argument x and up to two indices. The output of **line** is as follows: **line**[a, b](x) = $a + bx$, **line**[a](x) = $a_1 + a_2x$, and **line**(x) = x .
3. The secant method to find a solution of $f(x) = 0$ is defined by

$$x_n = x_{n-1} - \frac{x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}}{f(x_{n-1}) - f(x_{n-2})} f(x_{n-1}), \quad \text{for } n \geq 2.$$

While the secant method requires no derivatives, we need two points (x_0 and x_1) to start the iteration. For simplicity we will take for x_0 and x_1 a random float generated by **evalf(rand()/10^12)**.

- (a) Write a Maple procedure to implement the formula above, to execute one step of the secant method. Use the following prototype:

```
secantstep := proc(f::procedure, x0::float, x1::float);
```

Test your implementation on $f(x) = \cos(x) - 1/2 = 0$.

- (b) Use **secantstep** to define the Maple procedure with prototype

```
secant1 := proc(f::procedure, n::nonnegint);
```

which returns x_n , starting from random values for x_0 and x_1 .

Also here, test your implementation on $f(x) = \cos(x) - 1/2 = 0$.

- (c) Write a recursive implementation for the secant method, using the prototype

```
secant2 := proc(f::procedure, n::nonnegint);
```

which also returns x_n , starting from random values for x_0 and x_1 .

Make sure this recursive implementation is as efficient as the iterative version.

4. Execute **diff(sin(x),x)**; and change the remember table of **diff** so that next time we execute **diff(sin(x),x)**; we get **sin(x)** on return.

5. The Bell numbers $B(n)$ are defined by $B(0) = 1$ and $B(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{i} B(i)$, for $n > 0$. They count the number of partitions of a set of n elements.

Write a recursive procedure to compute the Bell numbers. The binomial coefficient $\binom{n-1}{i}$ is computed by **binomial(n-1,i)**. Make sure your procedure is efficient enough to compute $B(50)$.

6. The n -th Chebychev polynomial is also often defined as $\cos(n \arccos(x))$.

Give the definition of the procedure **C** which takes on input x and has index n .

Thus $C[n](x)$ returns $\cos(n \arccos(x))$ while $C[10](0.5)$ returns the value of the 10-th Chebychev polynomial at 0.5. Compare this value with `orthopoly[T](10,0.5)`.

7. Let $L[n](x)$ denote a special kind of the Laguerre polynomial of degree n in the variable x .

We define $L[n](x)$ by $L[0](x) = 1$, $L[1](x) = x$, and

for any degree $n > 1$: $n * L[n](x) = (2 * n - 1 - x) * L[n-1](x) - (n-1) * L[n-2](x)$.

Write a Maple procedure **Laguerre** that returns $L[n](x)$.

Use an index for the degree n and take x as parameter in the procedure.

Make sure your procedure can compute the 50-th Laguerre polynomial.

References

- [1] R.M. Corless. *Essential Maple 7. An introduction for Scientific Programmers*. Springer-Verlag, 2002.
- [2] A. Heck. *Introduction to Maple*. Springer-Verlag, third edition, 2003.
- [3] M.B. Monagan, K.O. Geddes, K.M. Heal, G. Labahn, and S.M. Vorkoetter. *Maple V Programming Guide*. Springer-Verlag, 1998.
- [4] M.B. Monagan, K.O. Geddes, K.M. Heal, G. Labahn, S.M. Vorkoetter, J. McCarron, and P. DeMarco. *Maple 9 Advanced Programming Guide*. Maplesoft, 2003.
- [5] M.B. Monagan, K.O. Geddes, K.M. Heal, G. Labahn, S.M. Vorkoetter, J. McCarron, and P. DeMarco. *Maple 9 Introductory Programming Guide*. Maplesoft, 2003.