Reminders:
- Set a date for the homework
- Exam will be 9/27/2000, in class, closed-notes, closed-book

Review
1. Talked about lists with mixed data.

An Issue of Taste
Programming is part science (the COMP 210 part) and part art (the part built on taste, experience, and all those other "soft" terms). Consider our list-of-nums-and-syms.

We wrote it as

```scheme
;; a list-of-nums-and-syms is one of
;;   – empty, or
;;   – (cons S lons)
;;     where S is a symbol and lons is a list-of-nums-and-syms, or
;;   – (cons N lons)
;;     where N is a number and lons is a list-of-nums-and-syms
```

We could also have written it as

```scheme
;; a NumSym is either
;;   - a number, or
;;   - a symbol

;; a list-of-NumSyms is either
;;   - empty, or
;;   - (cons f r)
;;     where f is a NumSym and r is a list-of-NumSyms
```

Another example:

```scheme
;; a list-of-toppings is one of
;;   - empty, or
;;   - (cons 'cheese a-lot), where a-lot is a list-of-toppings, or
;;   - (cons 'pepperoni a-lot), where a-lot is a list-of-toppings, or
;;   - (cons 'spinach a-lot), where a-lot is a list-of-toppings.
```
Versus

;; a topping is one of
;; – 'cheese, or
;; – 'pepperoni, or
;; – 'spinach

;; a list-of-toppings is one of
;; – empty, or
;; – (cons f r)
;; where f is a topping and r is a list-of-toppings

Which of these data definitions is preferred? This is a matter of taste, experience—in short, what Knuth called "The Art of Computer Programming." As you write more programs, larger programs, programs that are used by other people, and, finally, programs that are modified by other people, you will develop insight into this issue. [In fact, programmers with good taste can disagree over such fundamental issues.]

For COMP 210, here is a general rule to follow:

If there is a meaningful relationship between the two cases, create a new kind of data to represent them—for example, with pizza toppings and a list of pizza toppings. If there is no inherent relationship, as with numbers and symbols, make the alternatives be explicit cases in the list. NumSym is artificial; pizza toppings is not.

Natural Numbers

Recently, we’ve been working with lists and writing programs that recursively traverse various kinds of lists. Is this the only use for recursion? (Obviously, the answer is no!) If this were all that programming involved, we’d be done. For today’s class, we will work with a restricted set of numbers that should be familiar to all of us—the “natural numbers.”

What are the natural numbers? (ask class)

We can define the natural numbers quite simply. The natural numbers form an infinite set, but one with a specific, rule-based structure. The smallest natural number, or the base case (for you fans of mathematical induction), is zero. Zero is a natural number—it is the unique smallest element of the set
of natural numbers. All other natural numbers can be derived from zero by repeated application of \texttt{add1}.

\textbf{Natural numbers:}

1. Zero is a natural number
2. If \( N \) is a natural number, then \( \text{add1} \ N \) is a natural number.

This data definition is \textit{recursive}, just as the data definition for a list is recursive. This structure should remind you of an induction proof from some high school math class. (\( n \) is a natural number if \( n-1 \) is a natural number, with \texttt{zero} as a base case.) Because it has this particular structure, the set of natural numbers is said to be \textit{recursively enumerable}. (Fancy discrete math term)

Notice that the set of natural numbers is totally ordered—that is, for any pair of distinct natural numbers, \( s \) and \( t \), either \((< s \ t) \) or else \((> s \ t) \). We will use this property to talk about why programs over the natural numbers terminate.

\textbf{Programming with the Natural Numbers}

We can use the structure of the natural numbers to organize computations over natural numbers. Consider, for example, the mathematical function \texttt{factorial}. For a natural number \( n \), \( \text{(factorial} \ n \) is defined as

\[
(\text{factorial} \ n) \text{ is the product of the numbers from 1 to } n.
\]

Alternatively, \( (\text{factorial} \ n) = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times \ldots \times n-1 \times n. \)

How would we write the program, \( (\text{factorial} \ n) \)? We need a template for natural numbers. (Of course, some programs over natural numbers will be simple, flat expressions where the template is serious overkill. However, interesting programs over the natural numbers will have a template drawn from the data definition.

;; Factorial: num -> num
;; Purpose: given N, compute N!
(define (Factorial N) … )

Next, we develop some test cases:

(\text{Factorial} 3) \Rightarrow (\times 3 (\times 2 1)) = 6
(\text{Factorial} 5) \Rightarrow (\times 5 (\times 4 (\times 3 (\times 2 1))))
(\text{Factorial} 1) \Rightarrow 1
(\text{Factorial} 0) \Rightarrow ???? what does the definition say ????

The product of 1 to 0. We’ll define it to be 1.
That’s probably enough test examples (determined from looking at the data definition and the natural language description of the program). How do we fill in the ellipsis in the code body?

(define (Factorial N) … )

Not surprisingly, the key lies in the data definition.

;; a natural number is either
;; – 0, or
;; – (add1 n), where n is a natural number

This suggests a template with two cases. Back when we wrote a program or two with real numbers (such as the WorkOut program in Pizza Economics), we use the mathematical notions of open and closed intervals to model the cases that occurred in the problem statement. On the natural numbers, we have more structure, so the data definition actually produces a template.

(define (f a-natnum)
  (cond
    [(= 0 a-natnum) … ]
    [(> 0 a-natnum) (f (something? a-natnum))] ))

Finally, we fill in the expressions controlled by the cases in the cond expressions.

The first case is easy—for N = 0, the program should return 1.

The second case is more complex—for N > 0, the program should multiply N times the product from (N-1) to 1. We cannot write out the code for each value of N. We can, however, notice that the product from (N-1) to 1 is simply (Factorial (- N 1)). This leads to the following code:

(define (Factorial N)
  (cond
    [(= 0 N) 1]
    [(< 0 N) (* N (Factorial (sub1 N)))] ))

Notice that we filled in something with sub1. Was that insight? Was it disciplinary knowledge (based on my special understanding of natural numbers)? Or was it analogous to the way we built templates for lists and compound objects?

With lists, the data definition uses the list constructor, cons, and the template uses the list selectors first and rest. With compound objects, the data definition uses the constructor, such as make-plane, and the template uses
the selectors, such as plane-tailnum and so on. With natural numbers, the data definition uses add1. What undoes an add1? A sub1 does.

This is a new use for a recurrence—to perform a computation rather than to traverse some concrete structure. [To the extent that you can call a Scheme list “concrete.”] It brings up, in a particularly clear way, an issue that we have sloughed off to this point. *How do we know that the recursion will halt—or terminate?* Before you can write any recursive call, you should convince yourself that the recursion will terminate. This is one of the most important properties that a program can have. (Almost all programs are designed to terminate. Major exceptions include a clock program and an operating system. Unfortunately, all of them that have been written to date have terminated one or more times.)

**Why does Factorial terminate?** (ask class)

**Sketch of Proof:**
Go back to the data definition. If we invoke Factorial with an argument N that is a Natural Number, two cases are possible. Either N is zero, in which case Factorial does not call itself, or N > 0, in which case we know that N can be derived from zero by repeated application of add1. In this latter case, we know that repeated application of sub1 will get us back to zero from any natural number. Each time Factorial recurses, it subtracts one from N. Thus, it must, eventually, invoke Factorial with an argument of zero, halting the recursion.

**Next step in the methodology is to test the code.**

**Final Note**
We can simplify the Scheme code a little by using the special function

```
(zero? N) is equivalent to (= 0 N)
```

```
(define (Factorial N)
  (cond
   ((zero? N) 1)
   (else (* N (Factorial (- N 1))))))
```

You should use predicates like zero? whenever possible because they improve the readability of your code.

**This is the last class lecture that will be covered on the exam.**
The exam will also cover lab lectures up to and including those given today and tomorrow.