# FUNCTIONAL DATA STRUCTURES The challenge and beauty of purity

RALF HINZE

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(Pick the slides at .../~ralf/talks.html#T25.)

### **Overview**

#### **X** Search trees

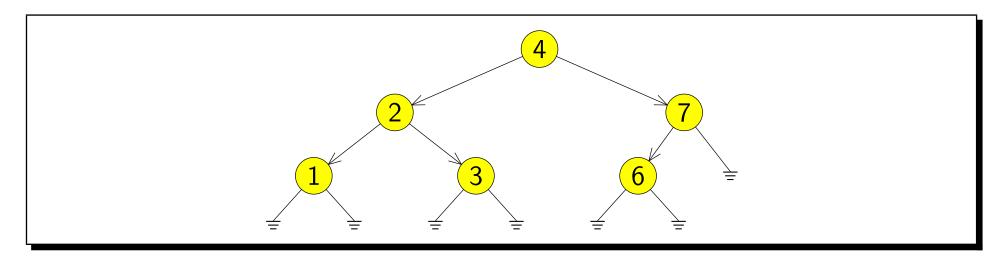
**X** Priority search queues

#### Search trees—Learning targets

- **X** Persistence
- **X** Red-black trees
- **X** Smart constructors
- **X** Number systems

### Unbalanced binary search trees

Elements in the internal nodes are stored in symmetric order.



# Unbalanced binary search trees—Haskell

In Haskell we represent binary trees with the following data type.

data STree  $a = Leaf \mid Node (STree a) a (STree a)$ 

**NB.** The type *STree* is parameterized with the type of elements.

```
stree = Node (Node (Node (Leaf) 1 (Leaf)))
2
(Node (Leaf) 3 (Leaf)))
4
(Node (Node (Leaf) 6 (Leaf))
7
Leaf)
```

# Unbalanced binary search trees—Insertion

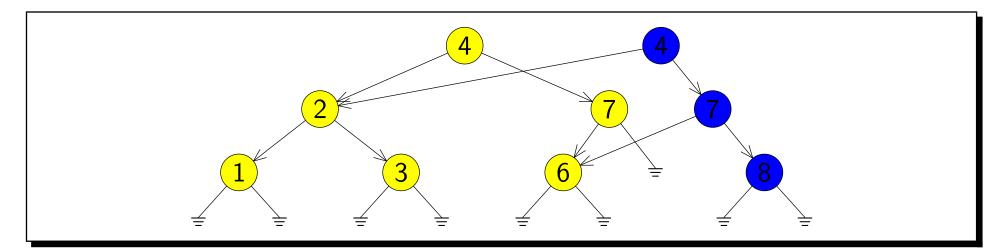
insert	•••	$(Ord \ a) \Rightarrow a \rightarrow STree \ a \rightarrow STree \ a$
$insert \ k \ t$	—	ins t
where		
ins Leaf	=	Node Leaf k Leaf
ins (Node	lar	
$\mid k < a$	=	Node (ins l) a r
$\mid k = a$	=	Node l k r
k > a	=	Node $l \ a \ (ins \ r)$

**NB.** The type of elements must be an instance of *Ord*.

#### Persistence

Functional data structures are always *persistent*: an update creates a new structure that coexists with the old one.

Persistence is achieved via *path copying*. Situation after *insert* 8 *stree*:

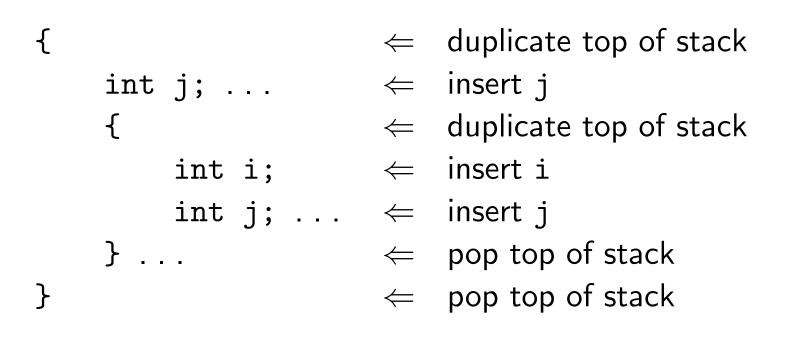


Note that the subtrees rooted at 2 and 6 are *shared*.

#### Persistence

Making use of persistence:

- **X** Arbitrary "undo" (text editor, image manipulation program).
- **X** Nested declarations with static scoping. *Idea*: use a stack of environments (only the "topmost" is active).



#### Balanced search trees: Red-black trees

Unbalanced search trees may degenerate. Red-black trees are among the simplest balancing schemes.

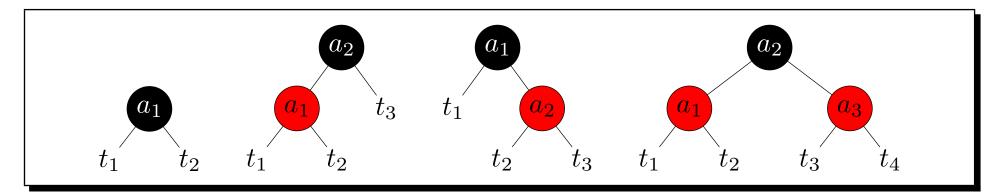
A red-black tree is a binary tree whose nodes are coloured either red or black (leaves are, by definition, black).

data Colour =  $R \mid B$ data RBTree  $a = L \mid N$  Colour (RBTree a) a (RBTree a)

## **Historical roots**

Red-black trees were developed by R. Bayer under the name symmetric binary B-trees as binary tree representations of 2-3-4 trees (a 2-3-4 tree consists of 2-, 3- and 4-nodes and satisfies the invariant that all leaves appear on the same level).

The idea of red-black trees is to represent 3- and 4-nodes by small binary trees, which consist of a black root and one or two auxiliary red children.



## **Balance conditions**

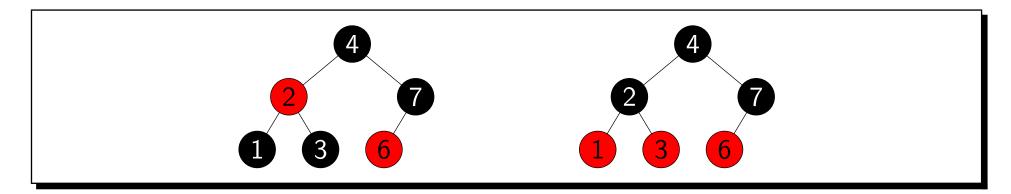
This explains the following two balance conditions.

Red condition: Each red node has a black parent.

**Black condition:** Each path from the root to an empty node contains exactly the same number of black nodes (this number is called the tree's *black height*).

#### **Example red-black trees**

There are two ways to color the above tree.



#### **Properties of red-black trees**

The balance conditions imply the following properties—recall that  $\sum_{k=0}^{n} x^k = (1 - x^{n+1})/(1 - x).$ 

 $black-depth \ t \leqslant depth \ t \leqslant 2 \cdot black-depth \ t$  $2 \uparrow black-depth \ t - 1 \leqslant size \ t \leqslant 4 \uparrow black-depth \ t - 1$ 

depth  $t \leq 2 \cdot lg \ (size \ t+1)$ 

In other words, red-black trees guarantee  $O(\log n)$  worst-case running time of basic dynamic-set operations.

#### **Red-black trees: Insertion**

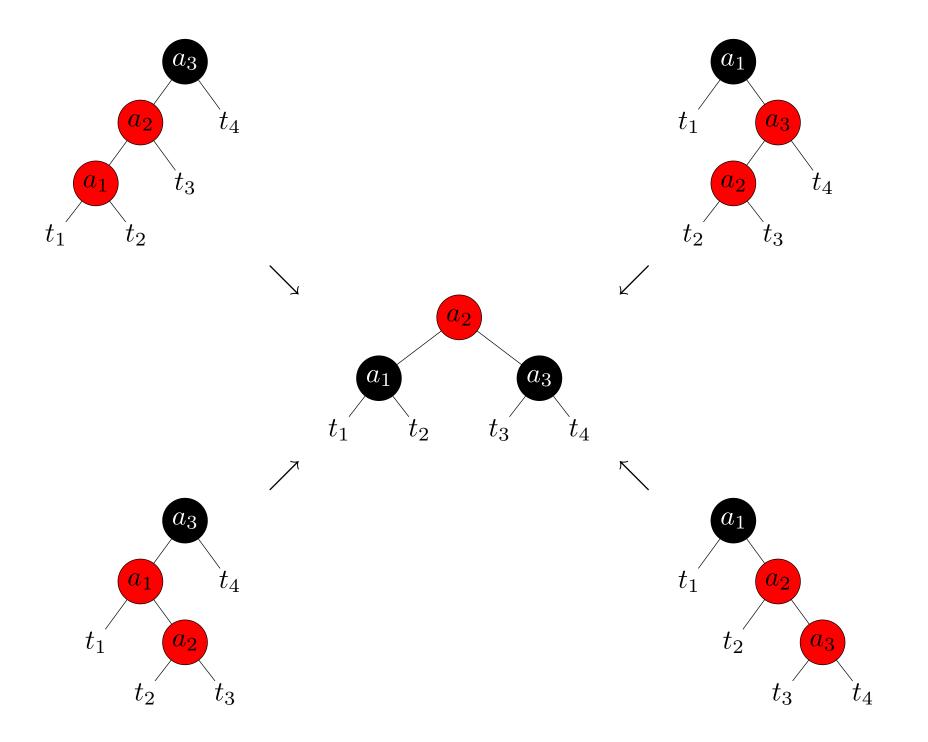
insert	••	$(Ord \ a) \Rightarrow a \rightarrow RBTree \ a \rightarrow RBTree \ a$
insert a t	=	$blacken \ (ins \ t)$
where		
ins L	=	$N \ R \ L \ a \ L$
ins $(N \ c \ l \ b \ r)$		
$\mid a < b$	=	$bal \ c \ (ins \ l) \ b \ r$
a = b	=	$N \ c \ l \ a \ r$
a > b	=	$bal \ c \ l \ b \ (ins \ r)$
blacken $(N \_ l \ a \ r)$	=	N B l a r

**NB.** *bal* is a so-called *smart constructor*.

### **Red-black trees: Balancing**

Since a new node is colored red, only the red condition is possibly violated. The smart constructor bal detects and repairs such violations.

$$\begin{array}{l} bal \ B \ (N \ R \ (N \ R \ t_1 \ a_1 \ t_2) \ a_2 \ t_3) \ a_3 \ t_4 \\ = \ N \ R \ (N \ B \ t_1 \ a_1 \ t_2) \ a_2 \ (N \ B \ t_3 \ a_3 \ t_4) \\ bal \ B \ (N \ R \ t_1 \ a_1 \ (N \ R \ t_2 \ a_2 \ t_3)) \ a_3 \ t_4 \\ = \ N \ R \ (N \ B \ t_1 \ a_1 \ t_2) \ a_2 \ (N \ B \ t_3 \ a_3 \ t_4) \\ bal \ B \ t_1 \ a_1 \ (N \ R \ t_2 \ a_2 \ t_3) \ a_3 \ t_4) \\ = \ N \ R \ (N \ B \ t_1 \ a_1 \ t_2) \ a_2 \ (N \ B \ t_3 \ a_3 \ t_4) \\ bal \ B \ t_1 \ a_1 \ (N \ R \ t_2 \ a_2 \ t_3) \ a_3 \ t_4) \\ = \ N \ R \ (N \ B \ t_1 \ a_1 \ t_2) \ a_2 \ (N \ B \ t_3 \ a_3 \ t_4) \\ bal \ B \ t_1 \ a_1 \ (N \ R \ t_2 \ a_2 \ (N \ R \ t_3 \ a_3 \ t_4)) \\ = \ N \ R \ (N \ B \ t_1 \ a_1 \ t_2) \ a_2 \ (N \ B \ t_3 \ a_3 \ t_4) \\ bal \ B \ t_1 \ a_1 \ (N \ R \ t_2 \ a_2 \ (N \ R \ t_3 \ a_3 \ t_4)) \\ = \ N \ R \ (N \ B \ t_1 \ a_1 \ t_2) \ a_2 \ (N \ B \ t_3 \ a_3 \ t_4) \\ bal \ c \ l \ a \ r \ = \ N \ c \ l \ a \ r \end{array}$$



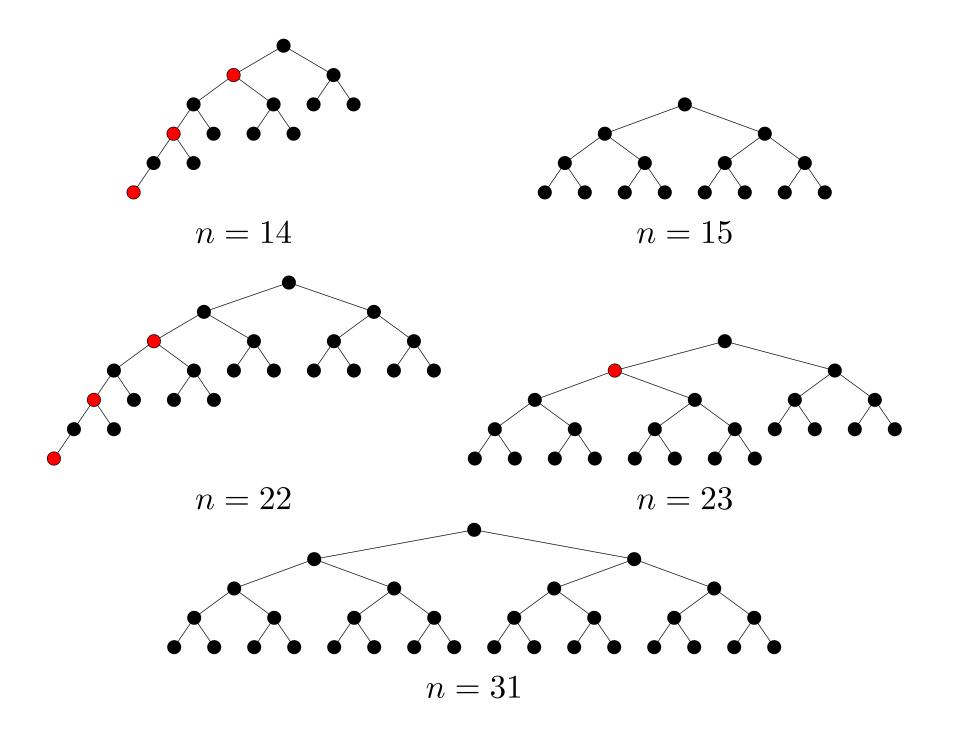
# **Building red-black trees**

We can build a red-black tree by repeatedly inserting elements into an empty tree.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} top-down & :: & (Ord \ a) \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow RBTree \ a \\ top-down & = & foldr \ insert \ L \end{array}$$

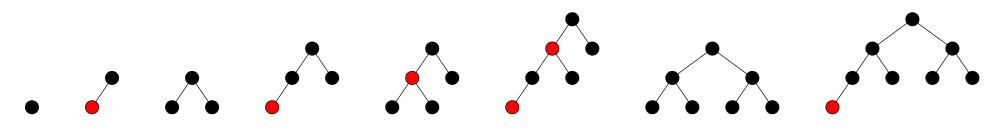
**NB.** The elements are inserted from right to left.

Now, assume that the elements are given in increasing order. Can we improve top-down, which has a running time of  $O(n \log n)$ , for this special case?



### A closer look at *top-down*

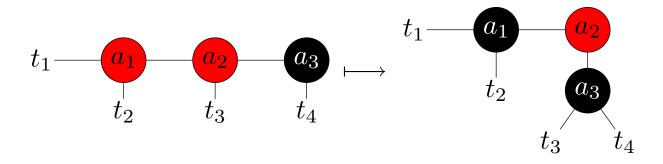
The following trees are generated by top-down [1 ... i] for  $1 \leq i \leq 8$ .



**NB.** *ins* always traverses the *left spine* of the tree to the leftmost leaf.

## A closer look at *top-down*

If we draw the left spine horizontally, the balancing operation (first equation of bal) takes on the following form.

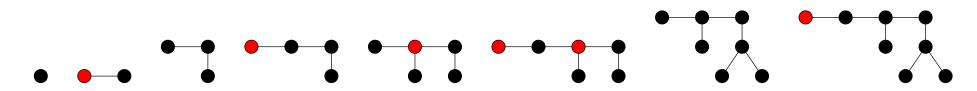


The trees below the left spine  $(t_2, t_3 \text{ and } t_4)$  must be perfectly balanced binary trees (perfect trees for short). Thus, the generated red-black trees correspond to sequences of *topped perfect trees* or *pennants*.

 $rac{1}{2}$  A pennant of rank r contains exactly  $2^r$  nodes.

# A closer look at *top-down*

It is helpful to redraw the examples according to the *left-spine view*.



Let r be the rank of the rightmost pennant; the black condition implies that a pennant of rank i appears either once or twice for all  $0 \leq i \leq r$ .

 $\bigcirc$  The red-black trees generated by top-down correspond to 'binary numbers' composed of the digits 1 and 2.

# The 1-2 number system

Recall that the value of a radix-2 number is given by

$$(b_{n-1}\dots b_0)_2 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i 2^i.$$

Each natural number has a unique representation in the 1-2 number system.

$$()_2, (1)_2, (2)_2, (11)_2, (12)_2, (21)_2, (22)_2, (111)_2, (112)_2 \dots$$

# The 1-2 number system—Haskell

data Digit = One | Twotype Nat = [Digit]

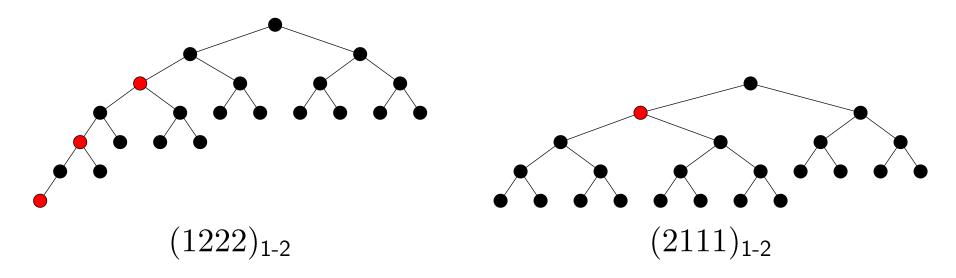
Incrementing a 1-2 number:

incr	••	$Nat \rightarrow Nat$
incr n	=	add One n
add	••	$Digit \rightarrow Nat \rightarrow Nat$
add One []	—	[One]
add One (One : ds)	=	Two: ds
add $One (Two: ds)$	—	One: add One ds

**NB.** The carry is made explicit.

# Corollaries

The trees corresponding to  $(1^{\{n\}})_{1-2}$  are perfectly balanced; the trees corresponding to  $(2^{\{n\}})_{1-2}$  and  $(12^{\{n\}})_{1-2}$  are *skinny trees* (a skinny tree is a tree of smallest possible size for a given height); the trees corresponding to  $(1^{\{n\}}2)_{1-2}$  and  $(21^{\{n\}})_{1-2}$  are *left-complete trees*.



# **Improving** top-down

The analogy to the 1-2 number system can be exploited to improve the implementation of top-down for the special case that the elements appear in ascending order. The digits become containers for pennants:

data Digit  $a = One \ a \ (RBTree \ a)$  $\mid Two \ a \ (RBTree \ a) \ a \ (RBTree \ a) \ .$ 

A red-black tree under the left-spine view is represented as a list of digits.

**type** RBTree' a = [Digit a].

# Improving top-down

Inserting an element corresponds to incrementing a 1-2 number.

insert' ::  $a \rightarrow RBTree' \ a \rightarrow RBTree' \ a$  $insert' \ a \ ps = add \ (One \ a \ L) \ ps$ 

# **Improving** top-down

bottom-up	••	$[a] \rightarrow RBTree \ a$
bottom-up	=	foldl link $L \cdot foldr insert'[]$
link	••	$RBTree \ a \rightarrow Digit \ a \rightarrow RBTree \ a$
$link \ l \ (One \ a \ t)$	—	N B l a t
$ link l (Two a_1 t_1 a_2 t_2) $	—	$egin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

If as is ordered, we have top-down as = bottom-up as.

A standard amortization argument shows that *bottom-up* runs in linear time.

cs top-down and bottom-up construct trees with a minimal number of red nodes among all trees of that size.

### **Overview**

#### ✓ Search trees

**X** Priority search queues

# **Priority search queues—Learning targets**

- **X** Views
- **X** Tournament trees
- **X** Priority search pennants

#### Views

A *view* allows any type to be viewed as a free data type. The following view (minimum view) allows any list to be viewed as an ordered list.

<b>view</b> (Ord $a$ ) $\Rightarrow$ [ $a$ ]	=	$Empty \mid Min  a  [a]  \mathbf{where}$
[]	$\rightarrow$	Empty
$a_1: Empty$	$\rightarrow$	$Min  a_1  []$
$a_1: Min \ a_2 \ a_s$		
$  a_1 \leqslant a_2$	$\rightarrow$	$Min  a_1 \; (a_2:as)$
otherwise	$\rightarrow$	<i>Min</i> $a_2 (a_1 : a_s)$ .

A view declaration for a type T consists of an anonymous data type, the view type, and an anonymous function, the view transformation, that shows how to map elements of T to the view type.

#### Views

The view constructors, Empty and Min, can now be used to pattern match elements of type [a] (where a is an instance of Ord).

However, the view constructors Empty and Min must not be used in expressions—with the notable exception of the view transformation itself.

#### **Priority search queues: signature**

Priority search queues are conceptually finite maps that support efficient access to the binding with the minimum value, where a *binding* is an argument-value pair and a *finite map* is a finite set of bindings.

#### data $PSQ \ k \ p$ -- constructors $\emptyset$ $:: PSQ \ k \ p$ $\{\cdot\}$ $:: (k, p) \rightarrow PSQ \ k \ p$ $:: (k, p) \to PSQ \ k \ p \to PSQ \ k \ p$ insert from-ord-list :: $[(k, p)] \rightarrow PSQ \ k \ p$ -- destructors **view** $PSQ \ k \ p = Empty \mid Min \ (k, p) \ (PSQ \ k \ p)$ $:: k \to PSQ \ k \ p \to PSQ \ k \ p$ delete -- observers lookup $:: k \to PSQ \ k \ p \to Maybe \ p$ to-ord-list :: $PSQ \ k \ p \rightarrow [(k, p)]$ -- modifier

 $adjust \qquad :: \ (p \to p) \to k \to PSQ \ k \ p \to PSQ \ k \ p$ 

# **Application:** single-source shortest path

Dijkstra's algorithm maintains a queue that maps each vertex to its estimated distance from the source and works by repeatedly removing the vertex with minimal distance and updating the distances of its adjacent vertices.

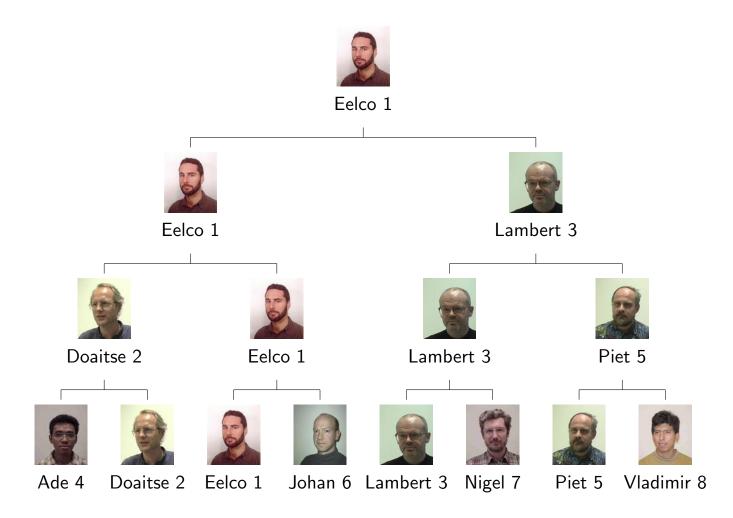
The update operation is typically called *decrease*:

decrease	••	$(k,p) \to PSQ \ k \ p \to PSQ \ k \ p$
decrease $(k, p) q$	=	$adjust \ (min \ p) \ k \ q$
decrease-list	••	$[(k,p)] \to PSQ \ k \ p \to PSQ \ k \ p$
decrease-list bs $q$	=	$foldr \ decrease \ q \ bs.$

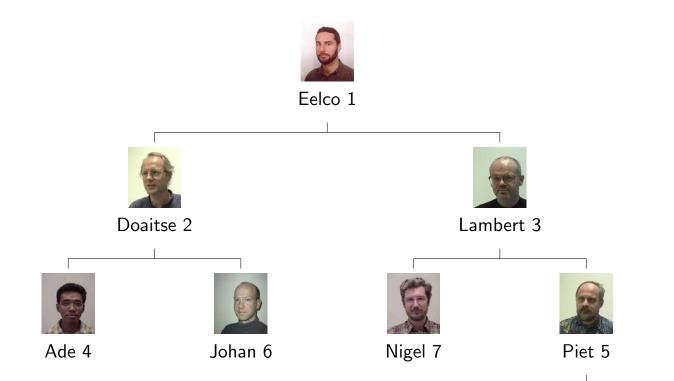
#### **Application:** single-source shortest path

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{type} \ Weight &= \ Vertex \rightarrow Vertex \rightarrow Double \\ dijkstra & :: \ Graph \rightarrow Weight \rightarrow Vertex \\ & \rightarrow [(Vertex, Double)] \\ dijkstra \ g \ w \ s &= \ loop \ (decrease \ (s, 0) \ q_0) \\ \hline \mathbf{where} \\ q_0 &= \ from \ ord \ list \ [(v, +\infty) \mid v \leftarrow vertices \ g] \\ loop \ Empty &= \ [] \\ loop \ (Min \ (u, d) \ q) \\ &= \ (u, d) : \ loop \ (decrease \ list \ bs \ q) \\ \hline \mathbf{where} \ bs &= \ [(v, d + w \ u \ v) \mid v \leftarrow adjacent \ g \ u] \end{aligned}$$

# Implementation: tournament trees

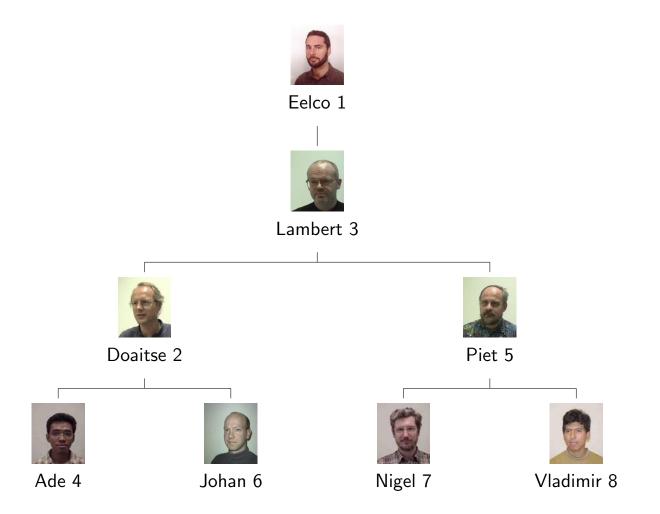


## Heaps — priority search trees

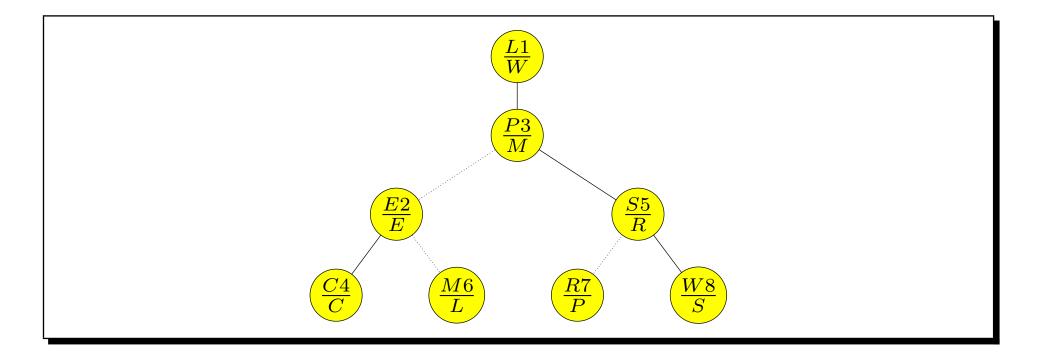


Vladimir 8

## Semi-heaps — priority search pennants



## Priority search pennants: adding split keys



## Priority search pennants: data types

The Haskell data type for priority search pennants is a direct implementation of these ideas.

data PSQ k p = Void | Winner (k, p) (LTree k p) k data LTree k p = Start | Loser (k, p) (LTree k p) k (LTree k p)

#### **NB.** Winner $b \ t \ m \cong Loser \ b \ t \ m \ Start$ .

The maximum key is accessed using the function *max-key*.

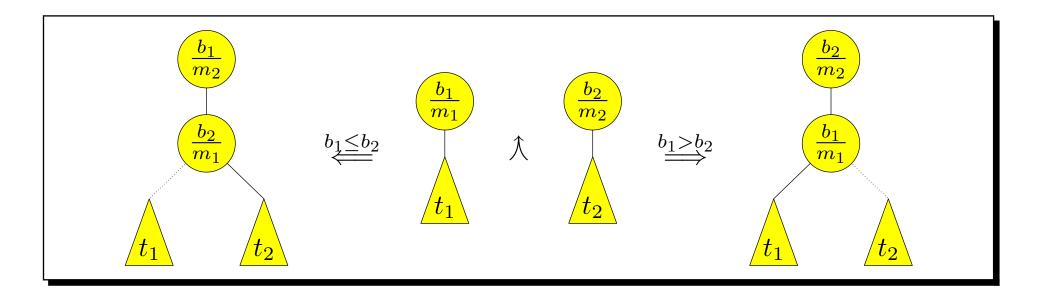
## **Priority search pennants: invariants**

- **Semi-heap conditions:** 1) Every priority in the pennant must be less than or equal to the priority of the winner. 2) For all nodes in the loser tree, the priority of the loser's binding must be less than or equal to the priorities of the bindings of the subtree, from which the loser originates. The loser *originates* from the left subtree if its key is less than or equal to the split key, otherwise it originates from the right subtree.
- **Search-tree condition:** For all nodes, the keys in the left subtree must be less than or equal to the split key and the keys in the right subtree must be greater than the split key.
- **Key condition:** The maximum key and the split keys must also occur as keys of bindings.
- **Finite map condition:** The pennant must not contain two bindings with the same key.

## **Constructors:** $\emptyset$ and $\{\cdot\}$

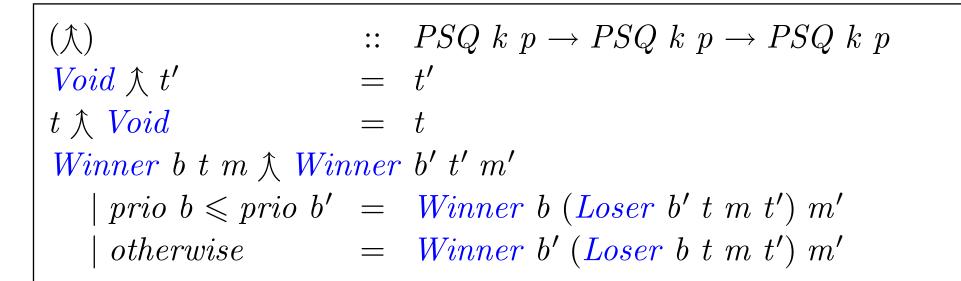
- $\emptyset \qquad :: \quad PSQ \ k \ p$
- $\emptyset = Void$
- $\{\cdot\}$  ::  $(k,p) \to PSQ \ k \ p$
- $\{b\} = Winner \ b \ Start \ (key \ b).$

## Playing a match



**NB.**  $b_1 \leq b_2$  is shorthand for *prio*  $b_1 \leq prio$   $b_2$ .

## Playing a match



#### **Constructors:** *from-ord-list*

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \textit{from-ord-list} & :: & [(k,p)] \to PSQ \ k \ p \\ \textit{from-ord-list} & = & \textit{foldm} \ (\texttt{k}) \ \emptyset \cdot map \ (\lambda b \to \{b\}) \end{array}$$

**NB.** *foldm* folds a list in a binary-sub-division fashion.

#### Destructors

view PSQ k p	—	<i>Empty</i>   <i>Min</i> $(k, p)$ $(PSQ \ k \ p)$ where
Void	$\rightarrow$	Empty
Winner b t m	$\rightarrow$	$Min \ b \ (second-best \ t \ m)$

The function *second-best* determines the second-best player by replaying the tournament without the champion.

#### A second view:

#### priority search pennants as tournament trees

<b>view</b> $PSQ \ k \ p$	=	$\emptyset \mid \{k, p\} \mid PSQ \ k \ p \ \bigwedge PSQ \ k \ p$
where		
Void	$\rightarrow$	Ø
Winner b Start m	$\rightarrow$	$\{b\}$
Winner b (Loser b'	$t_l k$	$t_r) m$
$\mid key \ b' \leqslant k$	$\rightarrow$	Winner b' $t_l \ k \ \bigstar \ Winner \ b \ t_r \ m$
$\mid otherwise$	$\rightarrow$	Winner b $t_l \ k \ \bigstar \ Winner \ b' \ t_r \ m$

**NB.** We have taken the liberty of using  $\emptyset$ ,  $\{\cdot\}$  and  $\uparrow \uparrow$  also as constructors.

#### **Observers:** to-ord-list

## **Observers:** *lookup*

lookup	••	$k \to PSQ \ k \ p \to Maybe \ p$
lookup k 💋	=	Nothing
$lookup \ k \ \{b\}$		
$\mid k$ == $key \ b$	=	$Just (prio \ b)$
$\mid otherwise$	=	Nothing
$lookup  k  (t_l \uparrow t_r)$		
$\mid k \leqslant max$ -key $t_l$	=	$lookup \ k \ t_l$
$\mid otherwise$	=	$lookup \ k \ t_r$

# **Modifier:** *adjust*

#### **Constructors:** *insert*

insert	••	$(k,p) \rightarrow PSQ \ k$	$p \to PSQ \ k \ p$
insert b 🖉	=	$\{b\}$	
$insert b \{b'\}$			
key b < key b'	=	$\set{b} \Uparrow \set{b'}$	
key b = key b'	=	${b}$	update
key b > key b'	=	$\{b'\} \Uparrow \{b\}$	
$insert \ b \ (t_l \uparrow t_r)$			
$  key b \leq max-key t_l$	=	$insert  b  t_l \uparrow t_r$	
otherwise	—	$t_l \uparrow insert \ b \ t_r$	

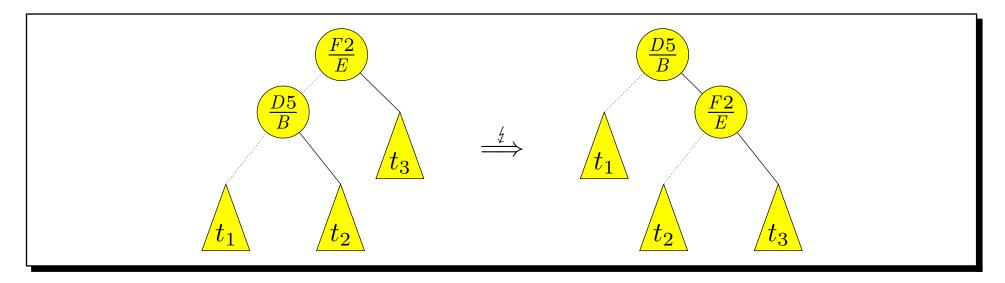
#### **Destructors:** *delete*

delete	••	$k \to PSQ \ k \ p \to PSQ \ k \ p$
delete k $\emptyset$	=	Ø
delete $k \{b\}$		
k = key b	—	Ø
otherwise	=	${b}$
delete $k (t_l \uparrow t_r)$		
$  k \leq max-key t_l$	=	$delete kt_l \updownarrow t_r$
otherwise	—	$t_l \uparrow delete \ k \ t_r$

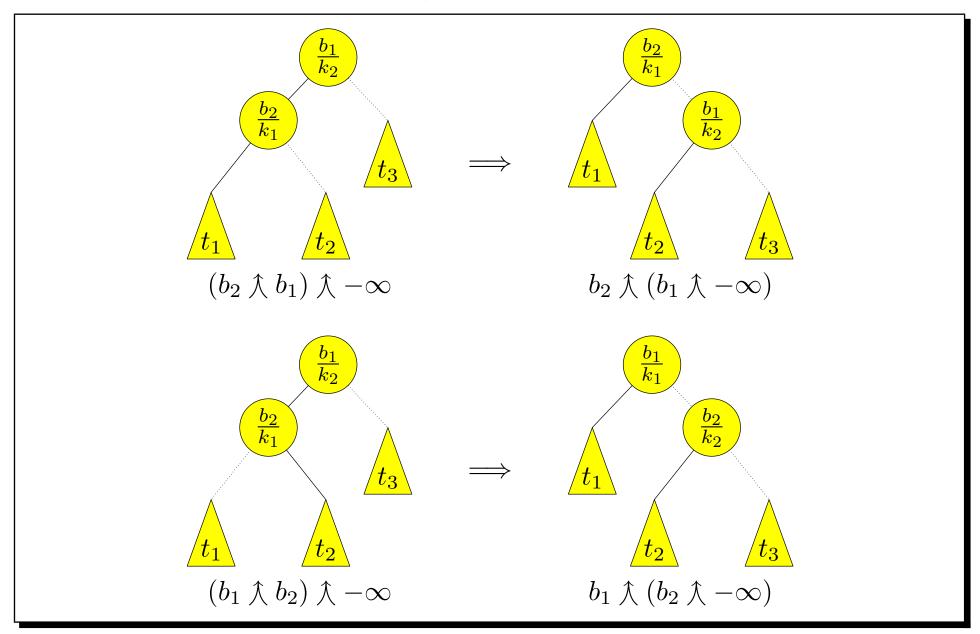
## Adding a balancing scheme

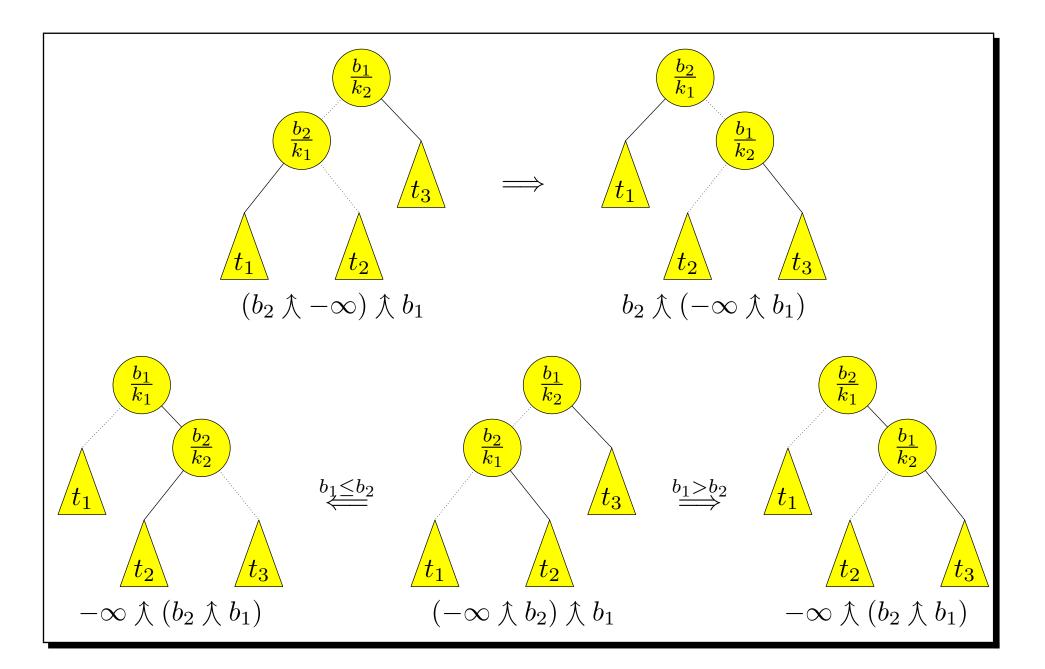
One of the strengths of priority search pennants as compared to priority search trees is that a balancing scheme can be easily added.

Most balancing schemes such as red-black trees use rotations to restore balancing invariants. However, rotations do not preserve the semi-heap property:



## **Single rotation**





## Learning targets

- **X** Persistence
- **X** Red-black trees
- **X** Smart constructors
- **X** Number systems
- **X** Views
- **X** Tournament trees
- **X** Priority search pennants

## **Appendix:** *foldr*

The function foldr captures a common pattern of recursion on lists (it is a so-called *catamorphism*; the greak preposition  $\kappa \alpha \tau \alpha$  means "downwards").

$$\begin{array}{lll} foldr & & :: & (a \to b \to b) \to b \to ([a] \to b) \\ foldr \ (\star) \ e \ [] & = & e \\ foldr \ (\star) \ e \ (a : as) & = & a \star foldr \ (\star) \ e \ as \end{array}$$

For example,

$$foldr (\star) e (a_1 : a_2 : \cdots : a_n : []) = a_1 \star (a_2 \star (\cdots \star (a_n \star e) \cdots))$$

### **Appendix:** *foldl*

The function foldl is similar to foldr, except that the parentheses group from the left.

$$\begin{array}{ll} foldl & :: & (b \to a \to b) \to b \to ([a] \to b) \\ foldl (\star) e [] & = e \\ foldl (\star) e (a:as) & = foldl (\star) (e \star a) as \end{array}$$

For example,

$$foldl(\star) e(a_1:a_2:\cdots:a_n:[]) = (\cdots ((e \star a_1) \star a_2) \star \cdots) \star a_n$$

### **Appendix:** *foldm*

The function foldm folds a list in a binary-sub-division fashion.

foldm	••	$(a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow a \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow a$
$\int foldm (\star) e as$		
null as	=	e
otherwise	=	$fst \ (rec \ (length \ as) \ as)$
where $rec \ 1 \ (a : as)$	=	(a, as)
rec n as	=	$(a_1 \star a_2, as_2)$
where m	=	n ' $div$ ' $2$
$(a_1, as_1)$	=	rec (n-m) as
$(a_2, as_2)$	=	$rec m as_1$