MGS 2012: FUN Lecture 2

Purely Functional Data Structures

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Purely Functional Data structures (1)

Why is there a need to consider purely functional data structures?

- The standard implementations of many data structures assume imperative update. To what extent truly necessary?
- Purely functional data structures are persistent, while imperative ones are ephemeral:
 - Persistence is a useful property in its own right.
 - Can't expect added benefits for free.

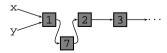
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Purely Functional Data structures (2)

Linked list:



After insert, if ephemeral:

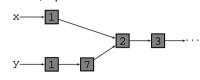


Purely Functional Data structures (3)

Linked list:



After insert, if persistent:



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Purely Functional Data structures (4)

This lecture draws from:

Chris Okasaki. *Purely Functional Data Structures*. Cambridge University Press, 1998.

We will look at some examples of how *numerical representations* can be used to derive purely functional data structures.

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Numerical Representations (1)

Strong analogy between lists and the usual representation of natural numbers:

```
data List a = data Nat =

Nil Zero
| Cons a (List a) | Succ Nat

tail (Cons _ xs) = xs | pred (Succ n) = n

append Nil ys = ys | plus Zero n = n

append (Cons x xs) ys = plus (Succ m) n =

Cons x (append xs ys) | Succ (plus m n)
```

Numerical Representations (2)

This analogy can be taken further for designing *container* structures because:

- inserting an element resembles incrementing a number
- combining two containers resembles adding two numbers

etc.

Thus, representations of natural numbers with certain properties *induce* container types with similar properties. Called *Numerical Representations*.

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Random Access Lists

We will consider *Random Access Lists* in the following. Signature:

data RList a

empty :: RList a
isEmpty :: RList a -> Bool

cons :: a -> RList a -> RList a

head :: RList a -> a

tail :: RList a -> RList a lookup :: Int -> RList a -> a update :: Int -> a -> RList a -> RList a

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Positional Number Systems (1)

- A number is written as a *sequence* of *digits* b₀b₁ . . . b_{m-1}, where b_i ∈ D_i for a fixed family of digit sets given by the positional system.
- b_0 is the *least significant* digit, b_{m-1} the *most significant* digit (note the ordering).
- Each digit b_i has a **weight** w_i . Thus:

value
$$(b_0 b_1 \dots b_{m-1}) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} b_i w_i$$

where the fixed sequence of weights w_i is given by the positional system.

Positional Number Systems (2)

- A number is written written in **base** B if $w_i = B^i$ and $D_i = \{0, \dots, B-1\}$.
- The sequence w_i is usually, but not necessarily, increasing.
- A number system is *redundant* if there is more than one way to represent some numbers (disallowing trailing zeroes).
- A representation of a positional number system can be *dense*, meaning including zeroes, or *sparse*, eliding zeroes.

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Exercise 1: Positional Number Systems

Suppose $w_i=2^i$ and $D_i=\{0,1,2\}$. Give three different ways to represent 17.

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Exercise 1: Solution

- 10001, since value(10001) = $1 \cdot 2^0 + 1 \cdot 2^4$
- 1002, since value $(1002) = 1 \cdot 2^0 + 2 \cdot 2^3$
- 1021, since value(1021) = $1 \cdot 2^0 + 2 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^3$
- 1211, since $\mathrm{value}(1211) = 1 \cdot 2^0 + 2 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^3$

From Positional System to Container

Given a positional system, a numerical representation may be derived as follows:

- for a container of size n, consider a representation $b_0b_1 \dots b_{m-1}$ of n,
- represent the collection of n elements by a sequence of trees of size w_i such that there are b_i trees of that size.

For example, given the positional system of exercise 1, a container of size 17 might be represented by 1 tree of size 1, 2 trees of size 2, 1 tree of size 4, and 1 tree of size 8.

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What Kind of Trees?

The kind of tree should be chosen depending on needed sizes and properties. Two possibilities:

· Complete Binary Leaf Trees

Sizes: $2^n, n \ge 0$

Complete Binary Trees

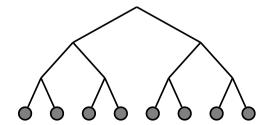
data Tree a = Leaf a
$$\mid \mbox{ Node (Tree a) a (Tree a)}$$
 Sizes: $2^{n+1}-1, n \geq 0$

(Balance has to be ensured separately.)

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Example: Complete Binary Leaf Tree

Size $2^3 = 8$:



Example: Complete Binary Tree

Size $2^4 - 1 = 15$:

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Binary Random Access Lists (1)

Binary Random Access Lists are induced by

- the usual binary representation, i.e. $w_i=2^i$, $D_i=\{0,1\}$
- complete binary leaf trees

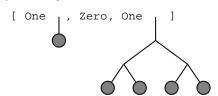
Thus:

The Int field keeps track of tree size for speed.

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Binary Random Access Lists (2)

Example: Binary Random Access List of size 5:



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Binary Random Access Lists (3)

The increment function on dense binary numbers:

```
inc [] = [One]
inc (Zero : ds) = One : ds
inc (One : ds) = Zero : inc ds -- Carry
```

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Binary Random Access Lists (4)

Inserting an element first in a binary random access list is analogous to inc:

```
cons :: a -> RList a -> RList a
cons x ts = consTree (Leaf x) ts

consTree :: Tree a -> RList a -> RList a
consTree t [] = [One t]
consTree t (Zero : ts) = (One t : ts)
consTree t (One t' : ts) =
    Zero : consTree (link t t') ts
```

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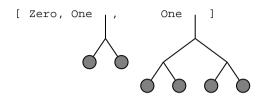
Binary Random Access Lists (5)

The utility function link joins two equally sized trees:

```
-- t1 and t2 are assumed to be the same size link t1 t2 = Node (2 * size t1) t1 t2
```

Binary Random Access Lists (6)

Example: Result of consing element onto list of size 5:



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Exercise 2: unconsTree

The decrement function on dense binary numbers:

```
dec [One] = []
dec (One : ds) = Zero : ds
dec (Zero : ds) = One : dec ds -- Borrow
```

Define unconsTree following the above pattern:

```
unconsTree :: RList a -> (Tree a, RList a)
```

And then head and tail:

```
head :: RList a -> a
tail :: RList a -> RList a
```


Exercise 2: Solution (1)

Note: partial operation.

Exercise 2: Solution (2)

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Binary Random Access Lists (7)

Lookup is done in two stages: first find the right tree, then lookup in that tree:

Note: partial operation.

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Binary Random Access Lists (8)

The operation update has exactly the same structure.

Binary Random Access Lists (9)

Time complexity:

- cons. head, tail, perform O(1) work per digit, thus $O(\log n)$ worst case.
- lookup and update take $O(\log n)$ to find the right tree, and then $O(\log n)$ to find the right element in that tree, so $O(\log n)$ worst case overall.

Time complexity for cons, head, tail disappointing: can we do better?

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Skew Binary Numbers (1)

Skew Binary Numbers:

- $w_i = 2^{i+1} 1$ (rather than 2^i)
- $D_i = \{0, 1, 2\}$

Representation is redundant. But we obtain a canonical form if we insist that only the least significant non-zero digit may be 2.

Note: The weights correspond to the sizes of complete binary trees.

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Skew Binary Numbers (2)

Theorem: Every natural number n has a unique skew binary canonical form. Proof **sketch**. By induction on n.

Base case: the case for 0 is direct.

Skew Binary Numbers (3)

- Inductive case. Assume n has a unique skew binary representation $b_0b_1 \dots b_{m-1}$
 - If the least significant non-zero digit is smaller than 2. then n+1 has a unique skew binary representation obtained by adding 1 to the least significant digit b_0 .
 - If the least significant non-zero digit b_i is 2, then note that $1 + 2(2^{i+1} - 1) = 2^{i+2} - 1$. Thus n+1 has a unique skew binary representation obtained by setting b_i to 0 and adding 1 to b_{i+1} .

Exercise 3a: Skew Binary Numbers

- Give the canonical skew binary representation for 31, 30, 29, and 28.
- Solution: 00001, 0002, 0021, 0211

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Exercise 3b: Skew Binary Numbers

Assume a sparse skew binary representation of the natural numbers

```
type Nat = [Int]
```

where the integers represent the weight of each non-zero digit. Assume further that the integers are stored in increasing order, except that the first two may be equal indicating that the smallest non-zero digit is 2. E.g. 28 = [3,3,7,15].

Implement a function inc to increment a natural number. (E.g. inc [3,3,7,15] = [7,7,15])

Exercise 3b: Solution

```
inc :: Nat -> Nat
inc (w1 : w2 : ws)
     w1 == w2 = w1 * 2 + 1 : ws
inc ws
           = 1 : ws
```

Note! No carry propagation!

E.g.:

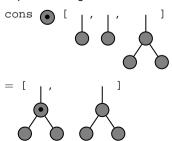
```
inc [1,3,7,15] = [1,1,3,7,15]
inc [1,1,3,7,5] = [3,3,7,15]
inc [3,3,7,15] = [7,7,15]
```

Skew Binary Random Access Lists (1)

```
data Tree a = Leaf a | Node (Tree a) a (Tree a)
type RList a = [(Int, Tree a)]
empty :: RList a
empty = []
cons :: a -> RList a -> RList a
cons x ((w1, t1) : (w2, t2) : wts) | w1 == w2 =
   (w1 * 2 + 1, Node t1 x t2) : wts
cons x wts = ((1, Leaf x) : wts)
```

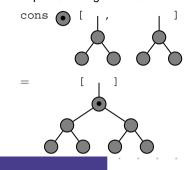
Skew Binary Random Access Lists (2)

Example: Consing onto list of size 5:



Skew Binary Random Access Lists (3)

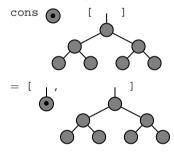
Example: Consing onto list of size 6:



0 0 0 MGS 2012: FUN Lecture 2 – p.37/41

Skew Binary Random Access Lists (4)

Example: Consing onto list of size 7:



0 0 0 0 MGS 2012: FUN Lecture 2 – p.38/41

Skew Binary Random Access Lists (5)

Note: again, partial operations.

Skew Binary Random Access Lists (6)

Skew Binary Random Access Lists (7)

Time complexity:

- cons, head, tail: O(1).
- lookup and update take $O(\log n)$ to find the right tree, and then $O(\log n)$ to find the right element in that tree, so $O(\log n)$ worst case overall.

Okasaki:

"Although there are better implementations of lists, and better implementations of (persistent) arrays, none are better at both."