



The functional essence of imperative binary search trees

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Functional programming 101 : list reversal

```
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
```

```
reverse :: List a → List a
```

```
reverse xs = reverseAcc xs Nil
```

```
where
```

```
reverseAcc :: List a → List a → List a
```

```
reverseAcc Nil      acc = acc
```

```
reverseAcc (Cons x xs) acc = reverseAcc xs (Cons x acc)
```

Pure functional programming

Compositional programs - each assembled from other functions that can be tested and verified independently.

There are a variety of *elementary* techniques for verifying that a program is correct:

- testing automatically;
- writing pen and paper proofs;
- developing a formal proofs using proof assistants.

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How does this compare to list reversal in an imperative language?

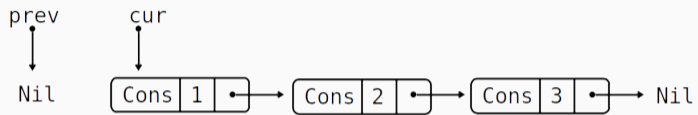
Linked list reversal in C

```
list_t* reverse( list_t* curr ) {  
    list_t* prev = NULL;  
    while(curr ≠ NULL) {  
        list_t* next = curr->tail;  
        curr->tail = prev;  
        prev = curr;  
        curr = next; }  
    return prev; }
```

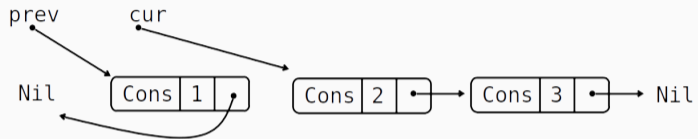
Each cell in the list stores a value and a pointer to the remaining lists.

To reverse the list, we update the pointer in each cell to point to the *previous* element, until there are no cells left.

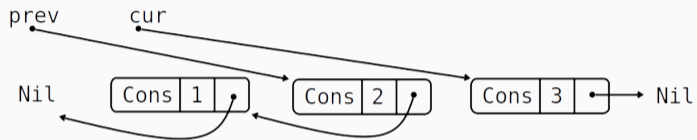
In-place execution



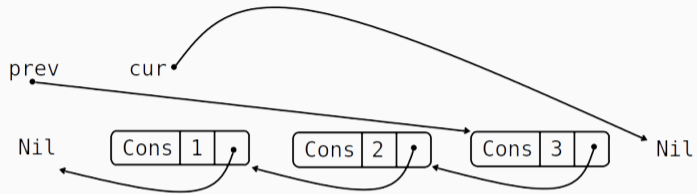
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In-place execution



Correctness?

Giving a *formal proof* that such a program is correct is **very hard**.

- Hoare logic is not suitable for reasoning about this kind of imperative code: what if the list structure in memory has cycles? Or if the two pointers map to lists sharing the same memory locations?
- Extensions of Hoare logic, notably separation logic, have had a lot of success - but these methods are certainly not elementary.

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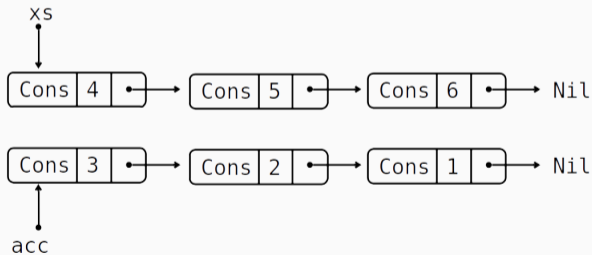
But the C algorithm has an important property: it is executed *in-place* - it does not need to allocate new memory or deallocate unused memory.

Functional reverse

`reverseAcc` :: `List a` → `List a` → `List a`

`reverseAcc Nil` `acc = acc`

`reverseAcc (Cons x xs)` `acc = reverseAcc xs (Cons x acc)`

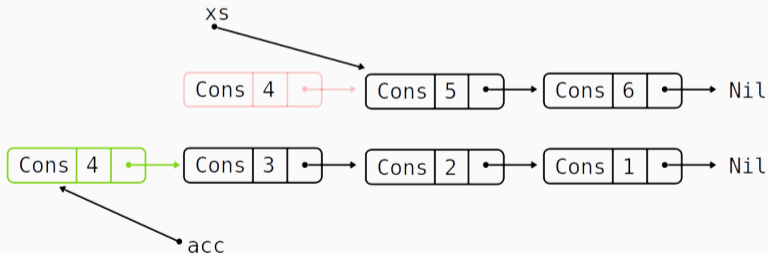


Towards in-place functional programming

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In-place functional programming

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reverseAcc :: List a → List a → List a
reverseAcc Nil      acc = acc
reverseAcc (Cons x xs) acc = reverseAcc xs (Cons x acc)
```

The reverseAcc function has a few important properties:

- we can see that we are matching on one Cons cell on the left;
- and allocating one new Cons cell on the right.
- all other variables (like x or acc) are used linearly, i.e. they are not copied or discarded.

We will call such programs *fully in-place* – or fip for short.

Making this more precise..

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \Gamma ::= \emptyset \mid \Gamma, x \mid \Gamma, \diamond_k \quad (\text{owned environment}) \\
 \Delta ::= \emptyset \mid \Delta, y \quad (\text{borrowed environment})
 \end{array}$$

$$\frac{}{\Delta \mid x \vdash x} \text{VAR} \qquad \frac{}{\Delta \mid \emptyset \vdash C} \text{ATOM}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \mid \Gamma_i \vdash v_i}{\Delta \mid \Gamma_1, \dots, \Gamma_n \vdash (v_1, \dots, v_n)} \text{TUPLE} \qquad \frac{\Delta \mid \Gamma_i \vdash v_i}{\Delta \mid \Gamma_1, \dots, \Gamma_k, \diamond_k \vdash C^k v_1 \dots v_k} \text{REUSE}$$

$$\frac{\bar{y} \in \Delta, \text{dom}(\Sigma) \quad \Delta \mid \Gamma \vdash e}{\Delta \mid \Gamma \vdash f(\bar{y}; e)} \text{CALL} \qquad \frac{\Delta, \Gamma_2 \mid \Gamma_1 \vdash e_1 \quad \Delta \mid \Gamma_2, \Gamma_3, \bar{x} \vdash e_2 \quad \bar{x} \notin \Delta, \Gamma_2, \Gamma_3}{\Delta \mid \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, \Gamma_3 \vdash \text{let } \bar{x} = e_1 \text{ in } e_2} \text{LET}$$

$$\frac{y \in \Delta \quad \Delta \mid \Gamma \vdash e}{\Delta \mid \Gamma \vdash y e} \text{BAPP} \qquad \frac{y \in \Delta \quad \Delta, \bar{x}_i \mid \Gamma \vdash e_i \quad \bar{x}_i \notin \Delta, \Gamma}{\Delta \mid \Gamma \vdash \text{match } y \{ C_i \bar{x}_i \mapsto e_i \}} \text{BMATCH}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \mid \Gamma \vdash e}{\Delta \mid \Gamma, \diamond_0 \vdash e} \text{EMPTY} \qquad \frac{\Delta \mid \Gamma, \bar{x}_i, \diamond_k \vdash e_i \quad k = |\bar{x}_i| \quad \bar{x}_i \notin \Delta, \Gamma}{\Delta \mid \Gamma, x \vdash \text{match! } x \{ C_i \bar{x}_i \mapsto e_i \}} \text{DMATCH!}$$

$$\frac{}{\Vdash \emptyset} \text{DEFBASE} \qquad \frac{\Vdash \Sigma' \quad \bar{y} \mid \bar{x} \vdash e}{\Vdash \Sigma', f(\bar{y}; \bar{x}) = e} \text{DEFFUN}$$

Fig. 4. Well-formed FIP expressions, where the multiplicity of each variable in Γ is 1.

In-place reverse in Koka

These rules (and corresponding *memory reuse*) have been implemented in the Koka compiler.

Re-implementing the reverse function in Koka becomes:

```
fip fun reverse-acc( xs : list<a>, acc : list<a> ) : list<a>
  match xs
    Cons(x,xx) → reverse-acc( xx, Cons(x,acc) )
    Nil       → acc
```

The **fip** keyword indicates that a function can be executed *fully in place*.

The compiler checks that each function with the **fip** annotation can be executed without (de)allocating memory.

Beyond list reversal

List reversal is not so interesting - what about algorithms for *trees*?

```
type tree
```

```
  Node( left : tree, key : int, right : tree )
```

```
  Leaf
```

Let's look at algorithms on *binary search trees*.

In particular, *restructuring* binary search trees, where accessing an element restructures the tree.

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Let's look at algorithms on *binary search trees*.

In particular, *restructuring* binary search trees, where accessing an element restructures the tree.

We aim to define an access function:

```
fun access-spec (t : tree, k : key) : tree
```

```
  Node (smaller(t,k), k, bigger(t,k))
```

which inserts the key, if it is not yet present, and moves it to the root if it is.

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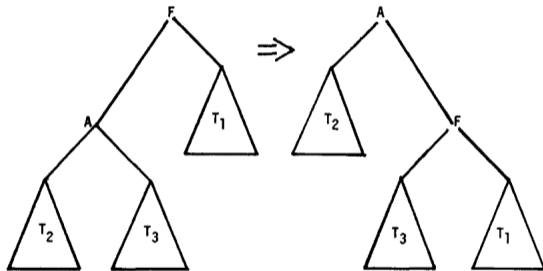


FIG. 1 The simple exchange transformation

```
fip fun rotateRight (t : tree) : tree
  match t
    (Node (Node (t2, a, t3), f, t1) → Node (t2, a, Node (t3, f, t1)))
```

Move to root trees

Allen & Munroe suggest *repeated* rotations, ensuring the key being looked up is moved to the root of the new binary tree.

In this fashion, frequently accessed elements naturally ‘bubble up’ to the root of the tree.

Can we give a purely functional—yet in place—algorithm?

Warm up ; look up

```
fun lookup (k : int, t : tree)
  match t with
  | Node (l, x, r) => if k == x
    then x
    else if k < x
      then lookup (k, l)
      else lookup (k, r)
```

This is not in place: we only ever recurse on one subtree.

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Key idea

Search through the tree recursively, accumulating the unvisited subtrees on a 'stack'.

Once we find the element, unwind the 'stack' to rebuild the new tree, rotating as we move back up.

Stacks

A simple stack of subtrees will not work – to reconstruct a binary search tree we need to record if we went left or right!

```
type zipper
```

```
  Done
```

```
  // we went left; the tree stores bigger elements than the key being accessed
```

```
  Left(up : zipper, x : int, right : tree )
```

```
  // we went right; the tree stores smaller elements than the key being accessed
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```
  Right(left : tree, x : int, up : zipper )
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```

Using these zippers we can construct a pair of functions:

```
  // search through the tree for the given key
```

```
fun access (key : int, t : tree, z : zipper) : (tree, zipper)
```

```
  // rebuild the entire tree, rotating as necessary
```

```
fun rebuild (t : tree, z : zipper) : tree
```


Accessing a given key

```
def(1) fun access(t : tree, k : int, z : zipper)
  match t
    Node(l,x,r) => if x == k then rebuild(z, Node(l,k,r))
                  else if k < x then access(l, k, Left(z,x,r))
                  else access(r, k, Right(l,x,z))
    Leaf       => rebuild(z, Node(Leaf,k,Leaf) )
```

The access function has the same structure as the (more familiar) lookup function.

If the key is already present, the tree is restructured; otherwise the new key is inserted.

The function is in-place, but may do at most one allocation.

In-place reuse

```
fib fun access (...)  
  Node(l,x,r) → if ... then access(l, k, Left(z,x,r))
```

Why is this in-place? We match on a node, but extend our zipper?

In-place reuse

```
fix fun access (...)
  Node(l,x,r) → if ... then access(l, k, Left(z,x,r))
```

Why is this in-place? We match on a node, but extend our zipper?

Memory re-use is *not* restricted to the same constructors or even the same types!

Instead, we only check that the variables are not duplicated or discarded;

And that the *sizes* of deallocations and allocations line up.

Reconstructing the tree

```
def rebuild(z : zipper, t : tree )
  match z
    Done          => t
    Right(l,x,z) => match t // we went right looking for k
      Node(s,k,b) => rebuild(z, Node( Node(l,x,s), k, b))
    Left(z,x,r)  => match t // we went left looking for k
      Node(s,k,b) => rebuild(z, Node( s, k, Node(b,x,r)))
```

Now we rebuild the entire tree, popping elements off the zipper.

In each case, we rotate the tree as required to ensure the result remains a binary search tree.

From this definition, it is easy to see that the key *k* stays at the root – just as we wanted!

Zipper - defunctionalised continuations

How do you come up with code like this?

Zipers - defunctionalised continuations

How do you come up with code like this?

It is 'just' the tail recursive version arising from the defunctionalised CPS-transformed direct implementation that is in-place, but not tail recursive:

```
fun access( t : tree, k : key )
  match t
    Node(l,x,r) → if x < k then match access(r,k) // lookup and rotate
                  Node(s,y,b) → Node( Node(l,x,s), y, b)
                  elif x > k then match access(l,k) // lookup and rotate
                  Node(s,y,b) → Node( s, y, Node(b,x,r))
                  else Node(l,k,r)
    Leaf → Node(Leaf,k,Leaf)
```

And the implementation above follows calculationaly from the original access-spec.

Towards *constructor contexts*

The zippers are used as a 'stack of trees' – we have immediate access to the tree we last added to the zipper.

But that's not always what we want: many *top down* algorithms work by *accumulating* (unfinished) trees, extending the tree with new nodes at the fringe.

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But that's not always what we want: many *top down* algorithms work by *accumulating* (unfinished) trees, extending the tree with new nodes at the fringe.

Consider the following fragment of code from the previous slide:

```
Node(l,x,r) →  
  if x < k then match access(r,k) // lookup and rotate  
    Node(s,y,b) → Node( Node(l,x,s), y, b)
```

...

We *could* implement these unfinished trees as zippers, just as we *could* implement queues using lists...

Koka's constructor contexts

Koka lets you write *constructor contexts*, or elements of an algebraic datatype with a single hole:

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Node(Leaf, 3 , □)
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```

There are two operations on these contexts:

```
fun (++) : ctx → ctx → ctx    // append contexts  
fun (++.): ctx → tree → tree  // fill in the hole
```

Tail recursive map

Using such contexts, we can write a tail recursive map function in a single pass:

```
fix fun map-td(xs : list<a>, f : a → b, acc : list-ctx<b> ) : list<b>
  match xs
    Cons(x,xs) → map-td( xs, f, acc ++ Cons(f(x), □) )
    Nil       → acc ++. Nil
```

And start our map with an empty accumulator:

```
fix fun map(xs,f)
  map-td(xs, f, □)
```

This pattern – accumulating (partial) results in a constructor context – pops up again and again.

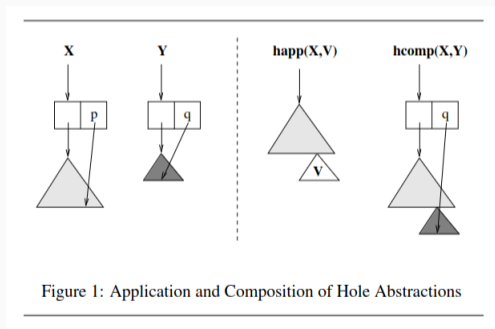
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But instead, we represent them as ‘Minamide tuples’, allocating an additional pointer to the context’s hole.



Then *all* operations on constructor contexts require constant time.

Towards top down move to root trees

Let's take a closer look at the direct implementation:

```
Node(l,x,r) →  
  if x < k then match access(r,k) // lookup and rotate  
    Node(s,y,b) → Node( Node(l,x,s), y, b)
```

...

We can also phrase this in terms of two accumulating constructor contexts – the left and right subtrees – where we collect the parts of the trees we do not visit.

Top down move to root trees

```
fip(1) fun access-td(t : tree, k : key, accl : ctx, accr : ctx) : tree
  match t
    Node(l,x,r) →
      if x < k then access-td( r, k, accl ++ Node(l,x,□), accr )
      elif x > k then access-td( l, k, accl, accr ++ Node(□,x,r) )
      else Node( accl ++. l, x, accr ++. r )
    Leaf → Node( accl ++. Leaf, k, accr ++. Leaf)
```

- The resulting Koka functions are *fast*, with performance on par with C!
- The functional algorithms are easy to verify, relating them to the (slow) functional spec.
- The functional algorithms capture the *essence* of the imperative pointer algorithms.

What about the imperative implementations?

What about the imperative implementations?

```
Definition heap_mtr_insert_td : val :=
fun ( name, root ) {
  var: left_dummy := #0 in
  var: right_dummy := #0 in
  var: node := root in
  var: left_hook := &left_dummy in
  var: right_hook := &right_dummy in
  while: ( true ) {
    if: ( node != #0 ) {
      if: ( node->value == name ) {
        *left_hook = node->left;;
        *right_hook = node->right;;
        root = node;;
        break
      }
      else {
        if: ( node->value > name )
        {
          *right_hook = node;;
          right_hook = &(node->left);;
          node = node->left
        }
        else
        {
          *left_hook = node;;
          left_hook = &(node->right);;
          node = node->right
        }
      }
    }
    else {
      *left_hook = #0;;
      *right_hook = #0;;
      root = AllocN #3 #0;;
      root->value = name;;
      break
    }
  };
  root->left = left_dummy;;
  root->right = right_dummy;;
  ret: root
}
```

```
node := root;
left_hook := addr(left(dummy));
right_hook := addr(right(dummy));
while node ≠ null do
  if value(node) = name then
    begin
      0(left_hook) := left(node);
      0(right_hook) := right(node);
      root := node;
      go to bottom
    end;
  if value(node) > name then
    begin
      0(right_hook) := node;
      right_hook := addr(left(node));
      node := left(node)
    end
  else
    begin
      0(left_hook) := node;
      left_hook := addr(right(node));
      node := right(node)
    end;
end;
0(left_hook) := null;
0(right_hook) := null;
root := new_node ( );
value(root) := name;
bottom:
  left(root) := left(dummy);
  right(root) := right(dummy)
```

Fig. 1. The move-to-root top-down algorithm formalized in AddressC on the left, versus a screenshot of Stephenson's published algorithm on the right

Verifying imperative version

Using a proof assistant, we have given a formal proof of correctness of both top-down and bottom-up move to root trees.

That is, we can prove a Hoare triple of (roughly) the following form:

```
Lemma heap_mtr_insert_td_correct (k : key) (p : ptr) (t : tree) :  
  { is_tree t p }  
  heap_mtr_insert_td k p  
  { is_tree (mtr_insert_td k t) p }.
```

In this way, we prove that the functional version (`mtr_insert_td`) coincides precisely with the (published) imperative algorithms (`heap_mtr_insert_td`).

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Formal verification exposes the *granite* of functional programming, rather than the mere *limestone* of imperative algorithms.

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- The functional implementation captures the key parts of the specification – it is essential for spelling out the loop invariant.
- This is (to the best of our knowledge) the first formal proof of these algorithms.

From move-to-root trees to splay trees to zip trees

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But it does not do any *rebalancing* along the way...

The more established *splay trees* (Sleator and Tarjan 1985) address precisely this issue.

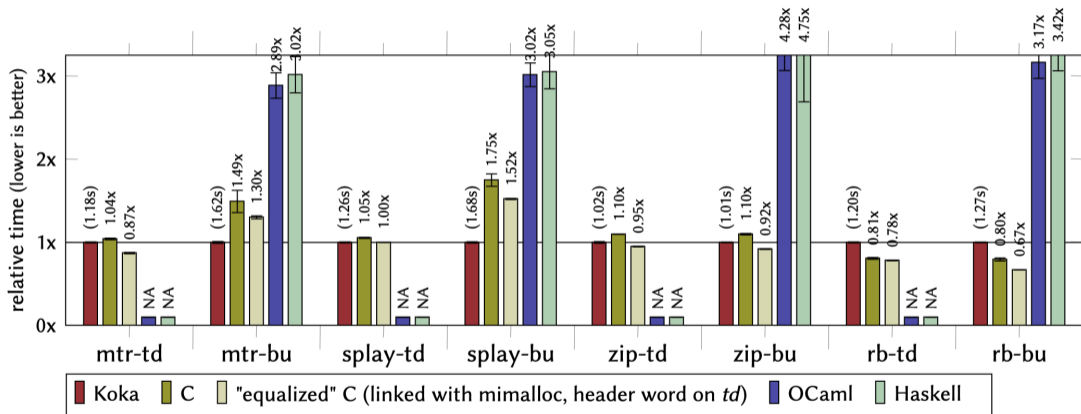
The key difference is in the `rebuild` function that tries to rebalance the resulting tree.

Similarly, the more recent *zip trees* (Tarjan et al. 2021) can be shown to have a fully in-place functional counterpart.

Comparing the same algorithm across different languages is always going to be unfair.

- Koka, Haskell, and OCaml have automatic memory management - as opposed to C;
- Haskell and OCaml use mark-and-sweep garbage collectors; Koka uses reference counting.
- Koka uses arbitrary precision integers for keys and all comparisons and arithmetic operations include branches for the case where big integer arithmetic is required;
- Haskell is lazy, most other functional languages are not.

Benchmarks



10M pseudorandom insertions of a key between 0 and 100.000 on an initially empty tree.

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We write a ‘direct style’ recursive implementation.

Transforming this to fip functions is *guaranteed* to produce fast code.

Conclusions

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- Elementary verification techniques only! Structural induction on trees suffices.
- Modern proof assistants can relate the functional and imperative versions - the functional algorithm captures the essence of the loop invariant.
- But if you need to write the functional version to verify imperative code – why write imperative programs to begin with?

Questions?

When to execute in place?

Even if a function is fip, it is not *always* safe to execute it in place.

Consider the following example:

```
fun makePalindrome( xs : list<a> ) : list<a>
  return (append(xs, reverse(xs)))
```

Clearly this call to reverse should not run in place!

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Consider the following example:

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When can we tell it is safe to execute fip functions in place?

Static vs dynamic checks

Koka uses a *reference counted garbage collection*.

As a result, we know at execution time how many references exist to any given value.

We can check if a reference is unique at run-time and re-use existing memory locations when possible:

```
fun fun reverse-acc( xs : list<a>, acc : list<a> ) : list<a>
  match xs
  Cons(x,xx) →
    val addr = if is-unique(xs) then &xs else { dup(x); dup(xx); decref(xs); alloc(2) }
    reverse-acc( xx, Cons@addr(x,acc) )...
```

Zippers

The original zipper paper describes a functional approach to navigating through a tree (Huet 1997).

A pair of a zipper and tree, allows you to 'move focus' to a child, without loss of information:

```
fix fun left (t : tree, z : zipper) : (tree, zipper)
  match t
    Node (l, x, r) → (l, Left(z,x,r))
```

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```

Huet (1997) writes:

Efficient destructive algorithms on binary trees may be programmed with these completely applicative primitives, which all use constant time, since they all reduce to local pointer manipulation.

Using our fip calculus we can make this precise – and check this property statically!

Zipper-based traversal turn out to be very useful.

Schorr-Waite-Deutsch style map on trees

```
fix fun load (t : tree, f : int → int, z : zipper) : tree
```

```
  match t
```

```
    Node (l, x, r) → load(l,f,Left(z, f(x), r))
```

```
    Leaf          → unload(z,f,Leaf)
```

```
fix fun unload (z : zipper, f : int → int, t : tree) : tree
```

```
  match z
```

```
    Left (z,x,r)  → load(r,f,Right(t,x,z))
```

```
    Right (l,x,z) → unload(z,f,Node(l,x,t))
```

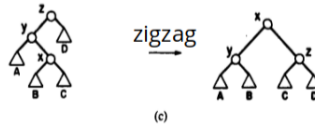
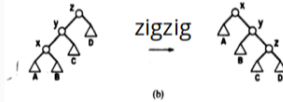
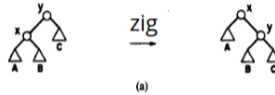
```
    Done         → t
```

This traversal does not allocate any heap or stack space – yet works for any* data type!

Self-Adjusting Binary Search Trees

DANIEL DOMINIC SLEATOR AND ROBERT ENDRE TARJAN

AT&T Bell Laboratories, Murray Hill, NJ



Rebuilding splay trees

```
def rebuild(z : zipper, t : tree) : tree
  match tree
    Node(tl,tx,tr) => match z
      Done => Node(tl,tx,tr)
      Right(rl,rx,Done) => Node(Node(rl,rx,tl),tx,tr) // zig
      Left(Done,lx,lr) => Node(tl,tx,Node(tr,lx,lr))
      Right(rl,rx,Right(l,x,up)) => rebuild(up, Node(Node(Node(l,x,rl),rx,tl),tx,tr)) // zigzig
      Left(Right(l,x,up),lx,lr) => rebuild(up, Node(Node(l,x,tl),tx,Node(tr,lx,lr)))
      Right(rl,rx,Left(up,x,r)) => rebuild(up, Node(Node(rl,rx,tl),tx,Node(tr,x,r))) // zigzag
      Left(Left(up,x,r),lx,lr) => rebuild(up, Node(tl,tx,Node(tr,lx,Node(lr,x,r))))
```

So what's our the papers

- In place versions of:
 - Splay trees;
 - Schorr Waite traversal of trees;
 - Generic map over any algebraic datatype;
 - Red black tree insertion;
 - Mergesort;
 - Finger tree insertions;
 - ...
- Top-down & bottom-up implementations of:
 - move to root trees;
 - splay trees;
 - zip trees;
 - proofs that they 'are all equal';
 - proofs that the functional versions coincide with published imperative ones.
- Lots of metatheory, showing that it is *safe* to execute fip programs in place.