

# Verified Analysis of Functional Data Structures

with Isabelle/HOL

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# Lecture 1

## Introduction

① Motivation

② Time

③ Binary Trees

① Motivation

② Time

③ Binary Trees

## General aims

- Verification of correctness *and* complexity of functional data structures
- Algebraic proofs about functions *and* their execution time
- Verified in an interactive theorem prover (Isabelle/HOL)

Complexity analysis should be as algebraic as proving

$$\binom{r}{m} \binom{m}{k} = \binom{r}{k} \binom{r-k}{m-k}$$

Part of a project on Verified Algorithm Analysis

# This course

- An introduction to the basic methods
- A whirlwind tour of verified functional data structures (and some proofs)
- Specifically:
  - “Classical” search trees and priority queues
- First functional versions:
  - Chris Okasaki. *Purely Functional Data Structures*.
- Now: verified algebraic proofs
  - See `src/HOL/Data_Structures` in the Isabelle distribution or [online](#)

① Motivation

② Time

③ Binary Trees



## ② Time

A Lightweight Approach

A Monadic Approach

Amortized Analysis

## Principle: Count function calls

For every function  $f :: \tau_1 \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \tau_n \Rightarrow \tau$   
define a *timing function*  $t_f :: \tau_1 \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow \tau_n \Rightarrow \text{nat}$ :  
Translation of defining equations:

$$\frac{e \rightsquigarrow e'}{f\ p_1 \dots p_n = e \rightsquigarrow t\_f\ p_1 \dots p_n = e' + 1}$$

Translation of expressions:

$$\frac{s_1 \rightsquigarrow t_1 \quad \dots \quad s_k \rightsquigarrow t_k}{g\ s_1 \dots s_k \rightsquigarrow t_1 + \dots + t_k + t\_g\ s_1 \dots s_k}$$

- Variable  $\rightsquigarrow 0$ , Constant  $\rightsquigarrow 0$
- Constructor calls and primitive operations on *bool* and numbers cost 1

# Example

$$\mathit{app} [] \ ys = \ ys$$

$\rightsquigarrow$

$$\mathit{t\_app} [] \ ys = 0 + 1$$

$$\mathit{app} (x\#xs) \ ys = x \# \mathit{app} \ xs \ ys$$

$\rightsquigarrow$

$$\mathit{t\_app} (x\#xs) \ ys = 0 + (0 + 0 + \mathit{t\_app} \ xs \ ys) + 1 + 1$$

# A compact formulation of

$$e \rightsquigarrow t$$

$t$  is the sum of all  $t_g s_1 \dots s_k$   
such that  $g s_1 \dots s_n$  is a subterm of  $e$

If  $g$  is

- a constructor or
- a predefined function on *bool* or numbers

then  $t_g \dots = 1$ .

## *if* and *case*

So far we model a call-by-value semantics

Conditionals and case expressions are evaluated **lazily**.

Translation:

$$\frac{b \rightsquigarrow t \quad s_1 \rightsquigarrow t_1 \quad s_2 \rightsquigarrow t_2}{\text{if } b \text{ then } s_1 \text{ else } s_2 \rightsquigarrow t + (\text{if } b \text{ then } t_1 \text{ else } t_2)}$$

Similarly for *case*

$O(\cdot)$  is enough

$\implies$  Reduce all additive constants to 1

Example

$$t_{app} (x\#xs) ys = t_{app} xs ys + 1$$

## ② Time

A Lightweight Approach

A Monadic Approach

Amortized Analysis

- Start with the definition of a function  $f_{tm}$  that computes both the result and the running time simultaneously
- Define  $f_{tm}$  via a monad that counts function calls behind the scene
- Derive  $f$  and  $t_f$  from  $f_{tm}$



# The time monad

**datatype** 'a tm = TM 'a nat

*val* (TM v n) = v

*time* (TM v n) = n

The programmer must only use:

Bind:

$TM\ u\ m \gg= f =$

(let  $TM\ v\ n = f\ u$  in  $TM\ v\ (m+n)$ )

*return* v =  $TM\ v\ 0$

Equality plus 1 clock tick:  $\Rightarrow$

# Simple example

Using do-notation rather than  $\gg=$ :

*app\_tm :: 'a list  $\Rightarrow$  'a list  $\Rightarrow$  'a list tm*

*app\_tm [] ys  $\Rightarrow$  return ys*

*app\_tm (x # xs) ys  $\Rightarrow$  do {*

*zs  $\leftarrow$  app\_tm xs ys;*

*return (x # zs)*

*}*

# Simple example

Define

$$\mathit{app} \ xs \ ys = \mathit{val} \ (\mathit{app\_tm} \ xs \ ys)$$
$$\mathit{t\_app} \ xs \ ys = \mathit{time} \ (\mathit{app\_tm} \ xs \ ys)$$

Prove automatically:

$$\mathit{app} \ [] \ ys = []$$
$$\mathit{app} \ (x \# xs) \ ys = (\mathit{let} \ zs = \mathit{app} \ xs \ ys \ \mathit{in} \ x \# zs)$$

Prove with (some) insight:

$$\mathit{t\_app} \ xs \ ys = \mathit{length} \ xs + 1$$

## ② Time

A Lightweight Approach

A Monadic Approach

Amortized Analysis

# Recall

*Amortized complexity* = average complexity of single operation in a sequence of operations, in the worst case

## Example

Consider a  $k$ -bit binary counter.

An individual increment has complexity  $O(k)$ .

In a sequence of increments starting from 0, each increment has amortized **constant** complexity.

# Formalization

Implementation: Data structure of type  $\tau$  with

- Operation(s)  $f :: \tau \Rightarrow \tau$   
(may have additional parameters)
- Initial value:  $init :: \tau$   
(function “empty”)

Claim: Operation  $f$  has a certain amortized complexity of at most  $a_f :: \tau \Rightarrow num$ .

(Typically  $a_f$  is constant or logarithmic)

# Potential method

Find a *potential function*  $\Phi :: \tau \Rightarrow \text{num}$  and prove

- $\Phi \text{ init} = 0$
- $\Phi s \geq 0$
- for each operation  $f$ :  
 $t_f s + \Phi(f s) - \Phi s \leq a_f s$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}$   
amortized cost

What does this imply?

# Amortized and real cost

A sequence of operations  $f_1, \dots, f_n$   
induces a sequence of states:

$$s_0 = \text{init}, \quad s_1 = f_1 s_0, \quad \dots, \quad s_n = f_n s_{n-1}$$

The real cost of performing  $f_1, \dots, f_n$   
is upper-bounded by amortized costs:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n t_{f_i} s_{i-1} \leq \sum_{i=1}^n a_{f_i} s_{i-1}$$



# Warning

Amortized analysis is only correct for **single threaded** uses of a data structure.

Single threaded = no value is used more than once

Otherwise:

```
let counter = 0;  
bad = increment counter  $2^n - 1$  times;  
_ = incr bad;  
_ = incr bad;  
_ = incr bad;  
⋮
```

# Okasaki's insight

Lazy evaluation can help to design  
*persistent* data structures  
with amortized complexity bounds

Not covered in this course

① Motivation

② Time

③ Binary Trees

# Binary trees

**datatype** *'a tree = Leaf | Node ('a tree) 'a ('a tree)*

Abbreviations:  $\langle \rangle \equiv \textit{Leaf}$   
 $\langle l, a, r \rangle \equiv \textit{Node } l \ a \ r$

Most of the time: **tree = binary tree**

# Tree traversal

*inorder* :: 'a tree  $\Rightarrow$  'a list

*inorder*  $\langle \rangle$  = []

*inorder*  $\langle l, x, r \rangle$  = *inorder* l @ [x] @ *inorder* r

# Size

Number of nodes:

$size :: 'a\ tree \Rightarrow nat$

$$|\langle \rangle| = 0$$

$$|\langle l, -, r \rangle| = |l| + |r| + 1$$

Number of leaves:

$size1 :: 'a\ tree \Rightarrow nat$

$$|t|_1 = |t| + 1$$

# Height

$height :: 'a\ tree \Rightarrow nat$

$$h(\langle \rangle) = 0$$

$$h(\langle l, \_, r \rangle) = \max (h(l)) (h(r)) + 1$$

**Lemma**  $|t|_1 \leq 2^{h(t)}$

# Lecture 2

## Search Trees



④ Correctness

⑤ 2-3 Trees

⑥ Red-Black Trees

We assume that the elements in the search trees  
are linearly ordered

Mechanism: **type classes**

Implicit constraint: type  $'a$  is in class *linorder*

Instead of using  $<$  and  $\leq$  directly:

**datatype** *cmp\_val* = *LT* | *EQ* | *GT*

*cmp* ::  $'a \Rightarrow 'a \Rightarrow \text{cmp\_val}$

*cmp*  $x$   $y$  =

(if  $x < y$  then *LT* else if  $x = y$  then *EQ* else *GT*)

4 Correctness

5 2-3 Trees

6 Red-Black Trees

Search trees represent sets  
Specification for sets?

# Set interface

An implementation of sets of elements of type  $'a$  must provide

- An implementation type  $'t$
- $empty :: 't$
- $insert :: 'a \Rightarrow 't \Rightarrow 't$
- $delete :: 'a \Rightarrow 't \Rightarrow 't$
- $isin :: 't \Rightarrow 'a \Rightarrow bool$

## 4 Correctness

The Standard Specification

Correctness via Sorted Lists

# Set specification

A correct implementation must also provide

- an *abstraction function*  $set :: 't \Rightarrow 'a\ set$
- and an *invariant*  $invar :: 't \Rightarrow bool$

such that

$$\begin{aligned}set\ empty &= \{\} \\set\ (insert\ x\ t) &= set\ t \cup \{x\} \\set\ (delete\ x\ t) &= set\ t - \{x\} \\isin\ t\ x &= (x \in set\ t)\end{aligned}$$

under the assumption  $invar\ t$

Also: *invar* must be invariant

*invar empty*

*invar t*  $\implies$  *invar (insert x t)*

*invar t*  $\implies$  *invar (delete x t)*



## Example: type *'a tree*

Abstraction function:  $set\_tree :: 'a\ tree \Rightarrow 'a\ set$

$$set\_tree \langle \rangle = \{\}$$

$$set\_tree \langle l, x, r \rangle = set\_tree\ l \cup \{x\} \cup set\_tree\ r$$

Invariant:  $bst :: 'a\ tree \Rightarrow bool$

$$bst \langle \rangle = True$$

$$bst \langle l, a, r \rangle =$$

$$(bst\ l \wedge$$

$$bst\ r \wedge$$

$$(\forall x \in set\_tree\ l. x < a) \wedge$$

$$(\forall x \in set\_tree\ r. a < x))$$

This is the *standard approach*.

Empirical evidence: **proofs are hard(er) to automate**

## ④ Correctness

The Standard Specification

Correctness via Sorted Lists

*sorted* :: 'a list  $\Rightarrow$  bool

*sorted* [] = True

*sorted* [x] = True

*sorted* (x # y # zs) = (x < y  $\wedge$  *sorted* (y # zs))

No duplicates!

# Structural invariant

We assume that there is some structural invariant on the search tree:

*inv* : 't  $\Rightarrow$  bool

e.g. some balance criterion.

## Correctness of *insert*

$$\text{inv } t \wedge \text{sorted } (\text{inorder } t) \implies \\ \text{inorder } (\text{insert } x \ t) = \text{ins\_list } x \ (\text{inorder } t)$$

where

$$\text{ins\_list} :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \text{ list} \Rightarrow 'a \text{ list}$$

inserts an element into a sorted list.

Also covers preservation of *bst*

## Correctness of *delete*

$$\text{inv } t \wedge \text{sorted } (\text{inorder } t) \implies \\ \text{inorder } (\text{delete } x \ t) = \text{del\_list } x \ (\text{inorder } t)$$

where

$$\text{del\_list} :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \text{ list} \Rightarrow 'a \text{ list}$$

deletes an element from a sorted list.

Also covers preservation of *bst*

## Correctness of *isin*

$$\text{inv } t \wedge \text{sorted } (\text{inorder } t) \implies \\ \text{isin } t \ x = (x \in \text{elems } (\text{inorder } t))$$

where

$\text{elems} :: 'a \text{ list} \Rightarrow 'a \text{ set}$

converts a list into a set.



Correctness w.r.t. sorted lists  
implies the standard set specification  
and can be automated for all search trees in this course.

Except for the structural invariants.

Therefore we concentrate on the latter.

For details of the automation see

T. Nipkow. *Automatic Functional Correctness Proofs for Functional Search Trees*. ITP 2016

4 Correctness

5 2-3 Trees

6 Red-Black Trees

## 2-3 Trees

```
datatype 'a tree23 = ⟨  
  | Node2 ('a tree23) 'a ('a tree23)  
  | Node3 ('a tree23) 'a ('a tree23) 'a ('a tree23)
```

Abbreviations:

$$\langle l, a, r \rangle \equiv \text{Node2 } l \ a \ r$$
$$\langle l, a, m, b, r \rangle \equiv \text{Node3 } l \ a \ m \ b \ r$$

# Invariant *bal*

All leaves are at the same level:

$$\text{bal } \langle \rangle = \text{True}$$

$$\text{bal } \langle l, \_, r \rangle = (\text{bal } l \wedge \text{bal } r \wedge h(l) = h(r))$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{bal } \langle l, \_, m, \_, r \rangle = \\ (\text{bal } l \wedge \text{bal } m \wedge \text{bal } r \wedge h(l) = h(m) \wedge h(m) = h(r)) \end{aligned}$$

## Lemma

$$\text{bal } t \implies 2^{h(t)} \leq |t| + 1$$

# Insertion

The idea:

*Leaf*  $\rightsquigarrow$  *Node2*  
*Node2*  $\rightsquigarrow$  *Node3*  
*Node3*  $\rightsquigarrow$  **overflow**, pass 1 element back up

# Insertion

Two possible return values:

- tree accommodates new element without increasing height:  $T_i t$
- tree overflows:  $Up_i l x r$

**datatype** 'a up<sub>i</sub> =  $T_i$  ('a tree23)  
|  $Up_i$  ('a tree23) 'a ('a tree23)

$tree_i :: 'a up_i \Rightarrow 'a tree23$

$tree_i (T_i t) = t$

$tree_i (Up_i l a r) = \langle l, a, r \rangle$

# Insertion

$insert :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \text{ tree23} \Rightarrow 'a \text{ tree23}$

$insert\ x\ t = tree_i\ (ins\ x\ t)$

$ins :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a \text{ tree23} \Rightarrow 'a\ up_i$

# Insertion

$ins\ x\ \langle l, a, m, b, r \rangle =$

case  $cmp\ x\ a$  of

$LT \Rightarrow$  case  $ins\ x\ l$  of

$T_i\ l' \Rightarrow T_i\ \langle l', a, m, b, r \rangle$

|  $Up_i\ l_1\ c\ l_2 \Rightarrow Up_i\ \langle l_1, c, l_2 \rangle\ a\ \langle m, b, r \rangle$

|  $EQ \Rightarrow T_i\ \langle l, a, m, b, r \rangle$

|  $GT \Rightarrow$

case  $cmp\ x\ b$  of

$LT \Rightarrow$

case  $ins\ x\ m$  of

$T_i\ m' \Rightarrow T_i\ \langle l, a, m', b, r \rangle$

|  $Up_i\ m_1\ c\ m_2 \Rightarrow Up_i\ \langle l, a, m_1 \rangle\ c\ \langle m_2, b, r \rangle$

|  $EQ \Rightarrow T_i\ \langle l, a, m, b, r \rangle$

|  $GT \Rightarrow$



# Insertion preserves *bal*

## Lemma

$$bal\ t \implies bal\ (tree_i\ (ins\ a\ t)) \wedge h(ins\ a\ t) = h(t)$$

where  $h :: 'a\ up_i \Rightarrow nat$

$$h(T_i\ t) = h(t)$$

$$h(Up_i\ l\ a\ r) = h(l)$$

**Proof** by induction on  $t$ . Step automatic.

## Corollary

$$bal\ t \implies bal\ (insert\ a\ t)$$

# Deletion

The idea:

*Node3*  $\rightsquigarrow$  *Node2*

*Node2*  $\rightsquigarrow$  **underflow**, height -1

Underflow: merge with siblings on the way up

# Deletion

Two possible return values:

- height unchanged:  $T_d t$
- height decreased by 1:  $Up_d t$

**datatype**  $'a\ up_d = T_d ('a\ tree23) \mid Up_d ('a\ tree23)$

$$tree_d (T_d t) = t$$

$$tree_d (Up_d t) = t$$

# Deletion

*delete* :: 'a ⇒ 'a tree23 ⇒ 'a tree23

*delete* x t = tree<sub>d</sub> (del x t)

*del* :: 'a ⇒ 'a tree23 ⇒ 'a up<sub>d</sub>

$del\ x\ \langle l, a, r \rangle =$   
 (case  $cmp\ x\ a$  of  
    $LT \Rightarrow node21\ (del\ x\ l)\ a\ r$   
    $| EQ \Rightarrow let\ (a', t) = del\_min\ r\ in\ node22\ l\ a'\ t$   
    $| GT \Rightarrow node22\ l\ a\ (del\ x\ r)$ )

$node21\ (T_d\ t_1)\ a\ t_2 = T_d\ \langle t_1, a, t_2 \rangle$   
 $node21\ (Up_d\ t_1)\ a\ \langle t_2, b, t_3 \rangle = Up_d\ \langle t_1, a, t_2, b, t_3 \rangle$   
 $node21\ (Up_d\ t_1)\ a\ \langle t_2, b, t_3, c, t_4 \rangle =$   
 $T_d\ \langle \langle t_1, a, t_2 \rangle, b, \langle t_3, c, t_4 \rangle \rangle$

# Deletion preserves *bal*

After 13 simple lemmas:

Lemma

$$bal\ t \implies bal\ (tree_d\ (del\ x\ t))$$

Corollary

$$bal\ t \implies bal\ (delete\ x\ t)$$

## Beyond 2-3 trees

**datatype** *'a tree*<sub>234</sub> =

*Leaf* | *Node2* ... | *Node3* ... | *Node4* ...

Like 2-3 trees, but with many more cases

The general case:

B-trees and  $(a, b)$ -trees

4 Correctness

5 2-3 Trees

6 Red-Black Trees



## Relationship to 2-3-4 trees

Idea: encode 2-3-4 trees as binary trees;  
use color to express grouping

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \rangle &\approx \langle \rangle \\ \langle t_1, a, t_2 \rangle &\approx \langle t_1, a, t_2 \rangle \\ \langle t_1, a, t_2, b, t_3 \rangle &\approx \langle \langle t_1, a, t_2 \rangle, b, t_3 \rangle \langle t_1, a, \langle t_2, b, t_3 \rangle \rangle \\ \langle t_1, a, t_2, b, t_3, c, t_4 \rangle &\approx \langle \langle t_1, a, t_2 \rangle, b, \langle t_3, c, t_4 \rangle \rangle \end{aligned}$$

**Red** means “I am part of a bigger node”

# Red-black trees

**datatype** *color* = *Red* | *Black*

**datatype**

*'a rbt* = *Leaf* | *Node color ('a tree) 'a ('a tree)*

Abbreviations:

$\langle \rangle \equiv \textit{Leaf}$   
 $\langle c, l, a, r \rangle \equiv \textit{Node } c \textit{ l a r}$   
 $R \textit{ l a r} \equiv \textit{Node Red l a r}$   
 $B \textit{ l a r} \equiv \textit{Node Black l a r}$

# Color

$color :: 'a\ rbt \Rightarrow color$

$color \langle \rangle = Black$

$color \langle c, -, -, - \rangle = c$

$paint :: color \Rightarrow 'a\ rbt \Rightarrow 'a\ rbt$

$paint\ c \langle \rangle = \langle \rangle$

$paint\ c \langle -, l, a, r \rangle = \langle c, l, a, r \rangle$

# Invariants

$rbt :: 'a\ rbt \Rightarrow bool$

$rbt\ t = (invc\ t \wedge invh\ t \wedge color\ t = Black)$

$invc :: 'a\ rbt \Rightarrow bool$

$invc\ \langle \rangle = True$

$invc\ \langle c, l, -, r \rangle =$

$(invc\ l \wedge$

$invc\ r \wedge$

$(c = Red \longrightarrow color\ l = Black \wedge color\ r = Black))$

# Invariants

$invh :: 'a\ rbt \Rightarrow bool$

$invh \langle \rangle = True$

$invh \langle -, l, -, r \rangle = (invh\ l \wedge invh\ r \wedge bh(l) = bh(r))$

$bheight :: 'a\ rbt \Rightarrow nat$

$bh(\langle \rangle) = 0$

$bh(\langle c, l, -, - \rangle) =$

$(\text{if } c = Black \text{ then } bh(l) + 1 \text{ else } bh(l))$

# Logarithmic height

## Lemma

$$rbt\ t \implies h(t) \leq 2 * \log_2 |t|_1$$

# Insertion

$insert :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a\ rbt \Rightarrow 'a\ rbt$

$insert\ x\ t = paint\ Black\ (ins\ x\ t)$

$ins :: 'a \Rightarrow 'a\ rbt \Rightarrow 'a\ rbt$

$ins\ x\ \langle \rangle = R\ \langle \rangle\ x\ \langle \rangle$

$ins\ x\ (B\ l\ a\ r) = (\text{case } cmp\ x\ a\ \text{of}$   
     $LT \Rightarrow baliL\ (ins\ x\ l)\ a\ r$   
     $| EQ \Rightarrow B\ l\ a\ r$   
     $| GT \Rightarrow baliR\ l\ a\ (ins\ x\ r))$

$ins\ x\ (R\ l\ a\ r) = (\text{case } cmp\ x\ a\ \text{of}$   
     $LT \Rightarrow R\ (ins\ x\ l)\ a\ r$   
     $| EQ \Rightarrow R\ l\ a\ r$   
     $| GT \Rightarrow R\ l\ a\ (ins\ x\ r))$

## Adjusting colors

$balil, balir :: 'a\ rbt \Rightarrow 'a \Rightarrow 'a\ rbt \Rightarrow 'a\ rbt$

- Combine arguments  $l\ a\ r$  into tree, ideally  $\langle l, a, r \rangle$
- Treat invariant violation **Red-Red** in  $l/r$

$$\begin{aligned} balil\ (R\ (R\ t_1\ a_1\ t_2)\ a_2\ t_3)\ a_3\ t_4 \\ = R\ (B\ t_1\ a_1\ t_2)\ a_2\ (B\ t_3\ a_3\ t_4) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} balil\ (R\ t_1\ a_1\ (R\ t_2\ a_2\ t_3))\ a_3\ t_4 \\ = R\ (B\ t_1\ a_1\ t_2)\ a_2\ (B\ t_3\ a_3\ t_4) \end{aligned}$$

- Principle: replace **Red-Red** by **Red-Black**
- Final equation:

$$balil\ l\ a\ r = B\ l\ a\ r$$

- Symmetric:  $balir$



# Preservation of invariant

After 14 simple lemmas:

Theorem

$$rbt\ t \implies rbt\ (insert\ x\ t)$$

# Proof in CLRS

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Chapter 11 Red-Black Trees

The **while** loop in lines 1–15 maintains the following three-part invariant at the start of each iteration of the loop:

- Node  $z$  is red.
- If  $z$ 's parent is red, then  $z$ 's parent is black.
- If the tree violates any of the red-black properties, then  $z$  is a victim at most one of them, and the violation is of other property 2 or property 4. If the tree violates property 2, it is because  $z$  is the grandchild of  $z$ 's parent. If the tree violates property 4, it is because both  $z$ 's red and  $z$ 's parent are red.

Part (iii), which deals with violations of red-black properties, is most crucial in showing that **RE-BLACK-FIXUP** restores the red-black properties (that parts (ii) and (i)), which we use along the way to understand situations in the code. Because we'll be focusing on node  $z$  and nodes near to the root, it helps to know from part (ii) that  $z$  is red. We shall use part (ii) to show that the node  $z$ 's  $p$ -parent exists when we reference it in lines 2, 7, 8, 13, and 14.

Recall that we need to show that a loop iteration is a true prefix to the first iteration of the loop, that each iteration maintains the loop invariant, and that the loop invariant gives us a useful property at loop termination.

We start with the initialization and termination arguments. Thus, as we examine how the body of the loop works in more detail, we shall argue that the loop maintains the invariant upon each iteration. Along the way, we shall also demonstrate that each iteration of the loop has two possible outcomes: either the pointer  $z$  moves up the tree, or we perform some rotations and then the loop terminates.

**Initialization:** Prior to the first iteration of the loop, we started with a red-black tree with no violations, and we added a red node  $z$ . We show that each part of the invariant holds at the time **RE-BLACK-FIXUP** is called:

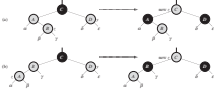
- When **RE-BLACK-FIXUP** is called,  $z$  is the node that was added.
- If  $z$ 's parent is red, then  $z$ 's parent started out black and did not change prior to the call of **RE-BLACK-FIXUP**.
- We have already seen that properties 1, 3, and 5 hold when **RE-BLACK-FIXUP** is called.

If the tree violates property 2, then the red node must be the newly added node  $z$ , which is the only internal node in the tree. Because the parent and both children of  $z$  are the sentinel, which is black, the tree does not also violate property 4. Thus, this violation of property 2 is the only violation of red-black properties in the entire tree.

If the tree violates property 4, then because the children of node  $z$  are black sentinels and the tree had no other violations prior to  $z$  being added, the

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Chapter 11 Red-Black Trees



**Figure 13.6** Cases 1 and 2 of the previous **RE-BLACK-FIXUP**. Property 4 is violated, since (a) its parent  $z$ 's parent is red. We take the same color rotation as in a right-child or left-child case. For (b), the color of  $z$ 's parent  $z$ 's parent is red, and  $z$  is a left child of  $z$ 's parent. The color of  $z$ 's parent  $z$ 's parent is red, and  $z$  is a right child of  $z$ 's parent. The color of  $z$ 's parent  $z$ 's parent is red, and  $z$  is a left child of  $z$ 's parent. The color of  $z$ 's parent  $z$ 's parent is red, and  $z$  is a right child of  $z$ 's parent.

If node  $z$ 's parent is red, then  $z$  is a left child of  $z$ 's parent. In this case,  $z$ 's parent is red, and  $z$  is a left child of  $z$ 's parent. In this case,  $z$ 's parent is red, and  $z$  is a left child of  $z$ 's parent.

If node  $z$ 's parent is red, then  $z$  is a right child of  $z$ 's parent. In this case,  $z$ 's parent is red, and  $z$  is a right child of  $z$ 's parent. In this case,  $z$ 's parent is red, and  $z$  is a right child of  $z$ 's parent.

**Case 2:**  $z$ 's parent is black and  $z$  is a right child of  $z$ 's parent.

**Case 3:**  $z$ 's parent is black and  $z$  is a left child of  $z$ 's parent.

In case 2 and 3, the color of  $z$ 's parent is black. We distinguish the two cases according to whether  $z$  is a right or left child of  $z$ 's parent. Lines 10–11 constitute case 2, which is shown in Figure 13.6 together with case 3. In case 2, node  $z$  is a right child of its parent. We immediately use a left rotation to transform the situation into case 3 (lines 12–14), in which node  $z$  is a left child. Because

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violation may be because both  $z$  and  $z$ 's parent are red. Moreover, the tree violates no other red-black properties.

**Termination:** When the loop terminates, it does so because  $z$ 's parent is black. If  $z$  is the root, then  $z$ 's parent is the sentinel  $T$ , which is black. Thus, the tree does not violate property 4 at loop termination. By the loop invariant, the only property that might fail is property 2. Line 16 restores this property, too, so that when **RE-BLACK-FIXUP** terminates, all the red-black properties hold.

**Misstatement:** We actually need to consider six cases in the while loop, four of them are symmetric to the other three, depending on whether line 2 descends  $z$ 's parent  $z$  to a left child or a right child of  $z$ 's grandparent  $z$ 's grandparent.  $z$ 's grandparent  $z$ 's grandparent is a black node, and  $z$ 's parent is a red node. The node  $z$ 's parent is red, since by part (ii) of the loop invariant, if  $z$ 's parent is red, then  $z$ 's parent is black. Since we enter a loop iteration only if  $z$ 's parent is red, we know that  $z$ 's parent is the root, black,  $z$ 's parent is red.

We distinguish case 1 from cases 2 and 3 by the color of  $z$ 's parent's sibling, or "uncle." Line 3 makes  $z$ 's parent  $z$ 's uncle  $z$ 's uncle, and line 4 sets  $z$ 's color. If  $z$ 's parent is red, then we execute case 1. Otherwise, control passes to cases 2 and 3. In all three cases,  $z$ 's grandparent  $z$ 's grandparent is black, since  $z$ 's parent is red, and property 4 is violated only because  $z$  and  $z$ 's parent are red.

**Case 1:**  $z$ 's uncle is black.

Figure 13.5 shows the situation for case 1 (lines 5–8), which occurs when both  $z$ 's parent and  $z$ 's uncle are red. Because  $z$ 's parent is black, we can color both  $z$ 's parent and  $z$ 's uncle black, thereby fixing the problem of  $z$  and  $z$ 's parent both being red, and we can color  $z$ 's parent black, thereby maintaining property 5. We then repeat the while loop with  $z$ 's parent as the new node  $z$ . The pointer  $z$  moves up two levels in the tree. Now, we show that case 1 maintains the loop invariant at the start of the next iteration. We use  $z$ 's parent as the new node  $z$ , and  $z$ 's parent is black, so that  $z$ 's parent is black, and  $z$ 's parent is black.

Because this iteration colors  $z$ 's parent, node  $z$ 's parent is red at the start of the next iteration.

The node  $z$ 's parent is black at this iteration, and the color of this node does not change. If this node is the root, it was black prior to this iteration, and it remains black at the start of the next iteration.

We have already argued that case 1 maintains property 4, and it does not introduce a violation of property 1 or 3.

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**Figure 13.7** Cases 3 and 4 of the previous **RE-BLACK-FIXUP**. As in case 1, property 4 is violated because  $z$ 's parent is red and  $z$  is a right child of  $z$ 's parent. In (a),  $z$  is a left child of  $z$ 's parent, and  $z$ 's parent is red. In (b),  $z$  is a right child of  $z$ 's parent, and  $z$ 's parent is red. In (a),  $z$  is a left child of  $z$ 's parent, and  $z$ 's parent is red. In (b),  $z$  is a right child of  $z$ 's parent, and  $z$ 's parent is red.

both  $z$  and  $z$ 's parent are red, the rotation affects neither the black-height of nodes nor property 5. Whether the tree starts 2-level or through case 3,  $z$ 's uncle  $z$ 's uncle is black, since otherwise we would have executed case 1. Additionally, the node  $z$ 's parent exists, since we have argued that this node existed at the time that lines 2 and 3 were executed, and after rotating  $z$ 's parent level at line 10 and then down one level in line 11, the identity of  $z$ 's parent is unchanged. In case 3, we execute some color changes and a right rotation, using property 5, and then, since we no longer have two red nodes in a row, we are done. The while loop does not iterate another time, since  $z$ 's parent is black.

We now show that cases 2 and 3 maintain the loop invariant. (As we have just argued,  $z$ 's parent will be black upon the next time in line 1, and the loop body will not execute again.)

**Case 2:** node  $z$ 's parent is black, which red. No further change to  $z$  or its color occurs in cases 2 and 3.

**Case 3:** node  $z$ 's parent is black, so that if  $z$ 's parent is the root at the start of the next iteration, it is black.

As in case 1, properties 1, 3, and 5 are maintained in case 2 and 3. Since node  $z$  is a right child of its parent in case 2 and 3, we know that there is no violation of property 2. Cases 2 and 3 do not introduce a violation of property 2, since the only node that is made red becomes a child of a black node by the rotation in case 3. Cases 2 and 3 correct the lone violation of property 4, and they do not introduce another violation.

# Deletion

*delete x t = paint Black (del x t)*

*del \_ ⟨⟩ = ⟨⟩*

*del x ⟨\_, l, a, r⟩ =*

*(case cmp x a of*

*LT ⇒*

*if l ≠ ⟨⟩ ∧ color l = Black*

*then baldL (del x l) a r else R (del x l) a r*

*| EQ ⇒ combine l r*

*| GT ⇒*

*if r ≠ ⟨⟩ ∧ color r = Black*

*then baldR l a (del x r) else R l a (del x r))*

# Deletion

Tricky functions: *baldL*, *baldR*, *combine*

12 short but tricky to find invariant lemmas with short proofs. The worst:

$$\begin{aligned} & \llbracket \text{invh } t; \text{ invc } t \rrbracket \\ \implies & \text{invh } (\text{del } x \ t) \wedge \\ & (\text{color } t = \text{Red} \wedge \\ & \text{bh}(\text{del } x \ t) = \text{bh}(t) \wedge \text{invc } (\text{del } x \ t) \vee \\ & \text{color } t = \text{Black} \wedge \\ & \text{bh}(\text{del } x \ t) = \text{bh}(t) - 1 \wedge \text{invc2 } (\text{del } x \ t)) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem

$$\text{rbt } t \implies \text{rbt } (\text{delete } k \ t)$$

# Code and proof in CoS

## 11.4 Deletion

Like the other basic operations on an  $n$ -node red-black tree, deletion of a node takes time  $O(\log n)$ . Deleting a node from a red-black tree is a bit more complicated than inserting a node.

The procedure for deleting a node from a red-black tree is based on the TRANS-DELETE procedure (Section 12.3). First, we need to understand the TRANSPLANT subtree that TRANS-DELETE calls so that it applies to a red-black tree.

RB-TRANSPLANT( $w, x$ )

```
1 if  $w.p \neq \text{nil}$ 
2    $T \leftarrow w.p$ 
3   shift  $w$  to  $w.p$  left
4    $w.p \leftarrow w$ 
5   else  $w.p \leftarrow x$ 
6    $w.p \leftarrow w$ 
```

The procedure RB-TRANSPLANT differs from TRANSPLANT in two ways. First, line 1 references the parent  $T$  of  $w$  instead of  $\text{nil}$ . Second, the assignment to  $w$  in line 6 occurs unconditionally; we can assign to  $w$  even if  $w$  points to the root. In fact, we shall explain the ability to assign to  $w$  when  $w = T$ .<sup>1</sup>

The procedure RB-DELETE is like the TRANS-DELETE procedure, but with additional lines of pseudocode. Some of the additional lines keep track of a node  $y$  that might cause violations of the red-black properties. When we want to delete node  $x$  and  $x$  has fewer than two children, then  $x$  is removed from the tree, and we want  $y$  to be  $x$ . When  $x$  has two children, then  $y$  should be  $x$ 's ancestor, and  $y$  moves into  $x$ 's position in the tree. We also remember  $y$ 's color before it is removed from or moved within the tree, and we keep track of the node  $x$  that moves into  $y$ 's original position in the tree, because node  $x$  might also cause violation of the red-black properties. After deleting node  $x$ , RB-DELETE calls an auxiliary procedure RB-DELETE-FIX, which changes colors and performs rotations to restore the red-black properties.

RB-DELETE( $T, z$ )

```
1  $y \leftarrow z$ 
2  $\text{original\_color} \leftarrow y.\text{color}$ 
3 if left  $\neq \text{nil}$  and right  $\neq \text{nil}$ 
4    $x \leftarrow z.\text{right}$ 
5   RB-TRANSPLANT( $T, z, \text{right}$ )
6   shift  $x$  right to  $T$  left
7    $w \leftarrow x$ 
8   RB-TRANSPLANT( $T, w, \text{left}$ )
9    $\text{new\_y} \leftarrow \text{TRIM-MINIMUM}(w, \text{left})$ 
10   $\text{original\_color} \leftarrow y.\text{color}$ 
11   $y \leftarrow \text{new\_y}$ 
12  if  $w.p \neq \text{nil}$ 
13    if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's left child
14      else RB-TRANSPLANT( $T, y, w.\text{right}$ )
15       $y \leftarrow w$ 
16    if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's right child
17      RB-TRANSPLANT( $T, y$ )
18       $y \leftarrow w.p$ 
19  if  $w.p \neq \text{nil}$ 
20    if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's left child
21      if  $\text{original\_color} \neq \text{BLACK}$ 
22        RB-DELETE-FIX( $w, y$ )
```

Although RB-DELETE contains about twice as many lines of pseudocode as TRANS-DELETE, the two procedures have the same basic structure. The only extra lines of code in RB-DELETE within RB-DELETE calls the changes of replacing line 7 of TRANS-DELETE with TRANSPLANT by calls to RB-TRANSPLANT, executed under the same conditions.

Here are the other differences between the two procedures:

We minimize node  $y$  to the node either removed from the tree or moved within the tree. Line 1 sets  $y$  to point to node  $z$ ; when  $z$  has fewer than two children and is therefore removed, when  $z$  has two children, line 9 sets  $y$  to point to  $z$ 's successor, just as in TRANS-DELETE, and  $y$  will move into  $x$ 's position in the tree.

Because node  $y$ 's color might change, the variable  $\text{original\_color}$  stores  $y$ 's color before any changes occur. Lines 2 and 30 use this variable immediately after assignments to  $y$ . When  $x$  has two children, then  $y$  is  $x$ 's ancestor, so  $y$  moves into  $x$ 's original position in the red-black tree; line 20 gives  $y$  the same color as  $x$ . We need to save  $y$ 's original color in order to test it at the

end of RB-DELETE; if  $w$  is black, then removing or moving  $y$  could cause violations of the red-black properties.

<sup>1</sup> As discussed, we keep track of the node  $x$  that moves into node  $y$ 's original position. The assignment to  $w$  in line 7 and line 11 is used to replace  $x$ 's only child or, if  $x$  has no children, the parent  $T$  (Recall from Section 12.3 that  $x$  has no left child).

<sup>2</sup> Since node  $x$  moves into node  $y$ 's original position, the attribute  $x.p$  is always set to point to the original position in the tree of  $x$ 's parent, even if  $x$  is, in fact, the parent  $T$  of  $x$ . Children whose  $y$ 's original position (which occurs only if  $x$  has two children) do not succeed  $y$ 's  $\text{right}$  child; the assignment to  $x$  takes place as line 6 of RB-TRANSPLANT. (Observe that when RB-TRANSPLANT is called in lines 5, 8, or 14, the second parameter passed is the same as  $x$ .)

<sup>3</sup> When  $y$ 's original parent is  $w$ , however, we do not want  $w$  to point to  $y$ 's original parent, since we are removing that node from the tree. Because node  $w$ 's  $\text{right}$  pointer is  $w$ 's position in the tree, setting  $w$  to  $w$  in line 13 causes  $w.p$  to point to the original position of  $y$ 's parent, even if  $w = T$ .

<sup>4</sup> Finally, if node  $y$  was black, we might have introduced one or more violations of the red-black properties, and we call RB-DELETE-FIX in line 22 to restore the red-black properties. If  $w$  is not  $w$ , then the red-black properties still hold when  $y$  is removed or moved; for the following reasons:

- No black-heights in the tree have changed.
- No red nodes have been made adjacent. Because  $y$  takes  $x$ 's place in the tree, along with  $x$ 's color, we cannot have two adjacent red nodes at  $y$ 's new position in the tree. In addition, if  $w$  was not  $w$ 's right child, then  $w$ 's original right child  $x$  replaces  $y$  in the tree. If  $y$  is not  $w$ 's  $\text{right}$  child, and so replacing  $y$  by  $x$  cannot cause two red nodes to become adjacent.

Since  $w$ 's color could have been changed if  $w$  was not  $w$ , the next reason holds:

- If node  $y$  was black, then problems may arise, which the call of RB-DELETE-FIX will remedy. First, if  $w$  had been not  $w$  and a child of  $w$  became the new root, we have violated property 2. Second, if both  $w$  and  $w.p$  are red, then we have violated property 4. Third, moving  $y$  within the tree causes any simple path that previously contained  $y$  to have one more black node. Thus, property 5 is now violated by any ancestor of  $y$  in the tree. We can correct these violations by saying that node  $x$ , now occupying  $y$ 's original position, has an "extra" black. That is, in fact, we add 1 to the count of black nodes on any simple path that once contained  $y$ , then under the assumption property 5 holds. When we remove or move the black node  $x$ , we "use" that blackness onto node  $x$ . The problem is that node  $x$  is neither red nor black, thereby violating property 1. Instead,

node  $x$  is either "doubly black" or "red-and-black," and it contributes either 2 or 1, respectively, to the count of black nodes on simple paths containing  $x$ . The color attributes of  $w$  will still be the same (red-and-black) or not (red-and-black or doubly black). In other words, the extra black at node  $x$  is reflected in  $x$ 's pointing to the node either to its left or right.

We can now use the procedure RB-DELETE-FIX and examine how it restores the red-black properties to the search tree.

RB-DELETE-FIX( $w, y$ )

```
1 while  $w.p \neq \text{nil}$  and  $w$  is BLACK
2   if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's left
3     if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's right
4       if  $w$  is BLACK # case 1
5         if  $w$  is BLACK # case 1
6         if  $w$  is BLACK # case 1
7         if  $w$  is BLACK # case 1
8         if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's right
9         if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's right
10        if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's right and  $w$ 's right color is BLACK # case 2
11        if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's right # case 2
12        if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's right # case 2
13    else if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's left and  $w$  is BLACK # case 3
14      if  $w$  is  $w.p$ 's left # case 3
15      if  $w$  is  $w.p$  # case 3
16      if  $w$  is  $w.p$  # case 3
17      if  $w$  is  $w.p$  # case 3
18      if  $w$  is  $w.p$  # case 3
19      if  $w$  is  $w.p$  # case 4
20      if  $w$  is  $w.p$  # case 4
21      if  $w$  is  $w.p$  # case 4
22      if  $w$  is  $w.p$  # case 4
23    else (same as above, with "right" and "left" exchanged)
24  if  $w$  is BLACK
```

The procedure RB-DELETE-FIX restores properties 1, 2, and 4. Exercise 13.4-1 and 13.4-2 ask you to show that the procedure restores properties 2 and 4, and so is the remainder of this section, we shall focus on property 1. The goal of the while loop in lines 1–22 is to move the extra black up the tree until 1.  $w$  points to a red-and-black node, in which case we color  $w$  (simply) black in line 23.

Within the while loop,  $w$  always points to a node whose doubly black node. We determine in line 2 whether  $w$  is a left child or a right child of its parent  $w.p$ . (We have given this call  $w$  the situation in which  $w$  is a left child; the situation in which  $w$  is a right child—line 22—is symmetric.) We maintain a pointer  $w$  to the sibling of  $w$ . Since node  $w$  is doubly black, node  $w$  cannot be  $T$ , because otherwise, the number of black nodes on the simple path from  $T$  to the (single) black leaf  $w$  would be smaller than the number on the simple path from  $T$  to  $w.p$ .

The first case in the code applies to Figure 13.7. Before examining each case in detail, let's look more generally at how we can verify that the transformation in each of these cases preserves the root. The key idea is that in each case, the transformation applied preserves the number of black nodes (including  $x$ 's extra black) from (and including) the root of the subtree down to each of the subtrees  $w$  and  $w.p$ . Thus, if property 1 holds prior to the transformation, it continues to hold afterward. For example, in Figure 13.7(a), which illustrates case 1, the number of black nodes from the root to either subtree  $w$  or  $w.p$  is 5, both before and after transformation. (Again, remember that node  $x$  adds an extra black.) Similarly, the number of black nodes from the root to any of  $w$ 's left and right subtrees before and after the transformation. In Figure 13.7(b), the counting starts inside the subtree of the color attribute of the root of the subtree down, which can be either RED or BLACK. (If we define  $\text{countRED}(w)$  and  $\text{countBLACK}(w)$  to be the number of black nodes from the root to  $w$  if  $w$  is RED or BLACK, both before and after the transformation. In this case, after the transformation, the new node  $w$  has color attribute  $w$ 's color, so this node is really either red-and-black (if  $w$  is RED) or doubly black (if  $w$  is BLACK.) You can verify the other cases similarly (see Exercise 13.4-5).

Case 1:  $w$ 's sibling is red

Case 1 (lines 5–8) RB-DELETE-FIX (Figure 13.7(a)) occurs when node  $w$ , the sibling of node  $x$ , is red. Since  $w$  must have black children, we can switch the colors of  $w$  and  $w.p$  and then perform a left-rotation on  $w.p$  without violating any of the red-black properties. The new sibling of  $w$ , which is one of  $w$ 's children prior to the rotation, is now black, and thus we have converted case 1 into case 2, 5, or 4.

Case 2, 5, and 4 occur when node  $w$  is black; they are distinguished by the color of  $w$ 's sibling.

Case 2:  $w$ 's sibling is black, and both of  $w$ 's children are black

In case 2 (lines 10–11 of RB-DELETE-FIX and Figure 13.7(b)), both of  $w$ 's children are black. Since  $w$  is left child of  $w.p$ , we can rotate  $w$  and  $w.p$ , leaving  $w$  with only one black and leaving  $w.p$  to compensate for removing one black from  $w$  and so we would like to add an extra black to  $w.p$ , which was originally either red or black, by replacing the white line with  $w.p$  as the new node. Observe that if we enter case 2, the new node  $x$  is red-and-black, since the original  $w$  was black. The color attribute of the new node  $x$  is RED, and the loop terminates when it sets the loop condition. We then color the new node (simply) black in line 23.

Case 3:  $w$ 's sibling is black,  $w$ 's left child is red, and  $w$ 's right child is black

Case 3 (lines 13–16 and Figure 13.7(c)) occurs when  $w$  is black, its left child is red, and its right child is black. We can rotate the subtree with  $w.p$  as its root child and  $w.p$  thus perform a right-rotation on  $w$  without violating any of the red-black properties. The new node  $w$  is now red and right child, and thus we have transformed case 3 into case 4.

Case 4:  $w$ 's sibling is black, and  $w$ 's right child is red

Case 4 (lines 17–21 and Figure 13.7(d)) occurs when node  $w$ 's sibling is black and  $w$ 's right child is red. Rotating node  $w$  around its parent and performing a left-rotation on  $w.p$  can we remove the extra black on  $w$ , making it simply black, without violating any of the red-black properties. Setting  $w$  to be the root causes the while loop to terminate when it sets the loop condition.

Analysis

What is the running time of RB-DELETE? Since the height of a red-black tree of  $n$  nodes is  $O(\log n)$ , the total cost of a procedure without the call to RB-DELETE-FIX takes  $O(\log n)$  time. Within RB-DELETE-FIX, each of cases 1, 3, and 4 lead to termination after performing a constant number of color changes and at most three rotations. Case 2 is the only case in which the while loop can be required, and thus the pointer  $w$  moves up the tree at most  $O(\log n)$  times, performing no rotations. Thus, the procedure RB-DELETE-FIX takes  $O(\log n)$  time and performs at most three rotations, and the overall time for RB-DELETE is therefore also  $O(\log n)$ .

<sup>1</sup>As we shall explain, this is the case for RB-DELETE-FIX and not necessarily otherwise.

# Source of code

Insertion:

Okasaki's *Purely Functional Data Structures*

Deletion:

Stefan Kahrs. *Red Black Trees with Types*.  
J. Functional Programming. 1996.

# Lecture 3

## Priority Queues

- ⑦ Priority Queues
- ⑧ Leftist Heap
- ⑨ Priority Queue via Braun Tree
- ⑩ Binomial Heap



⑦ Priority Queues

⑧ Leftist Heap

⑨ Priority Queue via Braun Tree

⑩ Binomial Heap

# Priority queue informally

Collection of elements with priorities

We focus on the priorities:

element = priority

The same element can be contained **multiple times**  
in a priority queue



The abstract view of a priority queue is a **multiset**

# Interface of implementation

The type of elements (= priorities)  $'a$  is a linear order

An implementation of a priority queue of elements of type  $'a$  must provide

- An implementation type  $'q$
- $empty :: 'q$
- $is\_empty :: 'q \Rightarrow bool$
- $insert :: 'a \Rightarrow 'q \Rightarrow 'q$
- $get\_min :: 'q \Rightarrow 'a$
- $del\_min :: 'q \Rightarrow 'q$

# More operations

- *merge* :: 'q ⇒ 'q ⇒ 'q  
Often provided
- decrease key/priority  
Not easy in functional setting

# Correctness of implementation

A priority queue represents a **multiset** of priorities.  
Correctness proof requires:

Abstraction function:  $mset :: 'q \Rightarrow 'a \text{ multiset}$

Invariant:  $invar :: 'q \Rightarrow bool$

# Correctness of implementation

Must prove  $\text{invar } q \implies$

$$\text{mset } (\text{insert } x \ q) = \text{mset } q + \{\#x\# \}$$

$$\text{mset } q \neq \{\#\} \implies$$

$$\text{mset } (\text{del\_min } q) = \text{mset } q - \{\# \text{Min\_mset } (\text{mset } q) \#\}$$

$$\text{invar } (\text{insert } x \ q)$$

$$\text{invar } (\text{del\_min } q)$$

# Terminology

A tree is a *heap* if for every subtree the root is  $\leq$  all elements in that subtree.

The term “heap” is frequently used synonymously with “priority queue”.

# Priority queue via heap

- $get\_min \langle -, a, - \rangle = a$
- Assume we have  $merge$
- $insert\ a\ t = merge \langle \langle \rangle, a, \langle \rangle \rangle t$
- $del\_min \langle l, a, r \rangle = merge\ l\ r$



7 Priority Queues

8 Leftist Heap

9 Priority Queue via Braun Tree

10 Binomial Heap

## Leftist tree informally

The *rank* of a tree is the depth of the rightmost leaf.

In a *leftist tree*, the rank of every left child is  $\geq$  the rank of its right sibling.

Merge descends along the right spine.  
Thus rank bounds number of steps.

If rank of right child gets too large: swap with left child.

# Implementation type

## datatype

$'a \text{ heap} = \text{Leaf} \mid \text{Node } \text{nat } ('a \text{ tree}) 'a ('a \text{ tree})$

Abbreviations  $\langle \rangle$  and  $\langle h, l, a, r \rangle$  as usual

Abstraction function:

$\text{mset\_tree} :: 'a \text{ heap} \Rightarrow 'a \text{ multiset}$

$\text{mset\_tree } \langle \rangle = \{\#\}$

$\text{mset\_tree } \langle -, l, a, r \rangle =$

$\{\#a\# \} + \text{mset\_tree } l + \text{mset\_tree } r$

# Leftist tree

$rank :: 'a\ lheap \Rightarrow nat$

$rank \langle \rangle = 0$

$rank \langle -, -, -, r \rangle = rank\ r + 1$

Node  $\langle n, l, a, r \rangle$ :  $n = rank$  of node

$ltree :: 'a\ lheap \Rightarrow bool$

$ltree \langle \rangle = True$

$ltree \langle n, l, -, r \rangle =$

$(n = rank\ r + 1 \wedge rank\ r \leq rank\ l \wedge ltree\ l \wedge ltree\ r)$

# Leftist heap invariant

$$\textit{invar } h = (\textit{heap } h \wedge \textit{ltree } h)$$

## *merge*

Principle: descend on the right

*merge*  $\langle \rangle t_2 = t_2$

*merge*  $t_1 \langle \rangle = t_1$

*merge*  $\langle n_1, l_1, a_1, r_1 \rangle \langle n_2, l_2, a_2, r_2 \rangle =$

(if  $a_1 \leq a_2$  then *node*  $l_1 a_1$  (*merge*  $r_1 \langle n_2, l_2, a_2, r_2 \rangle$ ))  
else *node*  $l_2 a_2$  (*merge*  $r_2 \langle n_1, l_1, a_1, r_1 \rangle$ ))

*node*  $:: 'a \text{ lheap} \Rightarrow 'a \Rightarrow 'a \text{ lheap} \Rightarrow 'a \text{ lheap}$

*node*  $l a r =$

(let  $rl = rk\ l; rr = rk\ r$

in if  $rr \leq rl$  then  $\langle rr + 1, l, a, r \rangle$  else  $\langle rl + 1, r, a, l \rangle$ )

where  $rk\ \langle n, -, -, - \rangle = n$

# Functional correctness proofs

including preservation of *invar*

Straightforward

# Logarithmic complexity

## Lemma

$$\textit{ltree } t \implies 2^{\textit{rank } t} \leq |t|_1$$

## Corollary

$$\llbracket \textit{ltree } l; \textit{ltree } r \rrbracket$$

$$\implies \textit{t\_merge } l r \leq \log_2 |l|_1 + \log_2 |r|_1 + 1$$



Can we avoid the rank info in each node?

- 7 Priority Queues
- 8 Leftist Heap
- 9 Priority Queue via Braun Tree**
- 10 Binomial Heap

# Archive of Formal Proofs

[https://www.isa-afp.org/entries/Priority\\_Queue\\_Braun.shtml](https://www.isa-afp.org/entries/Priority_Queue_Braun.shtml)

# What is a Braun tree?

$braun :: 'a \text{ tree} \Rightarrow bool$

$braun \langle \rangle = True$

$braun \langle l, x, r \rangle =$

$(|r| \leq |l| \wedge |l| \leq |r| + 1 \wedge braun\ l \wedge braun\ r)$

1

**Lemma**  $braun\ t \implies 2^{h(t)} \leq 2 * |t| + 1$

## Idea of invariant maintenance

$braun \langle \rangle = True$

$braun \langle l, x, r \rangle =$

$(|r| \leq |l| \wedge |l| \leq |r| + 1 \wedge braun\ l \wedge braun\ r)$

Add element: to right subtree, then swap subtrees

Remove element: from left subtree, then swap subtrees

# Priority queue implementation

Implementation type: *'a tree*

Invariants: *heap* and *braun*

**No *merge*** — *insert* and *del\_min* defined explicitly

# *insert*

*insert* :: 'a ⇒ 'a tree ⇒ 'a tree

*insert* a ⟨⟩ = ⟨⟨⟩, a, ⟨⟩⟩

*insert* a ⟨l, x, r⟩ =

(if  $a < x$  then ⟨*insert* x r, a, l⟩ else ⟨*insert* a r, x, l⟩)

Correctness and preservation of invariant straightforward.

## *del\_min*

*del\_min* :: 'a tree  $\Rightarrow$  'a tree

*del\_min*  $\langle \rangle = \langle \rangle$

*del\_min*  $\langle \langle \rangle, x, r \rangle = \langle \rangle$

*del\_min*  $\langle l, x, r \rangle =$

(let  $(y, l') = \text{del\_left } l$  in *sift\_down*  $r y l'$ )

- 1 Delete leftmost element  $y$
- 2 Sift  $y$  from the root down



# *del\_left*

*del\_left* :: 'a tree  $\Rightarrow$  'a  $\times$  'a tree

*del\_left*  $\langle \langle \rangle, x, \langle \rangle \rangle = (x, \langle \rangle)$

*del\_left*  $\langle l, x, r \rangle =$

(let  $(y, l')$  = *del\_left*  $l$  in  $(y, \langle r, x, l' \rangle)$ )

## *sift\_down*

*sift\_down* :: 'a tree  $\Rightarrow$  'a  $\Rightarrow$  'a tree  $\Rightarrow$  'a tree

*sift\_down* ( $t_1 = (\text{Node } l_1 \ x_1 \ r_1)$ )  $a$  ( $t_2 = (\text{Node } l_2 \ x_2 \ r_2)$ )

=

if  $a \leq x_1 \wedge a \leq x_2$  then  $\langle t_1, a, t_2 \rangle$

else if  $x_1 \leq x_2$  then  $\langle \text{sift\_down } l_1 \ a \ r_1, x_1, t_2 \rangle$

    else  $\langle t_1, x_2, \text{sift\_down } l_2 \ a \ r_2 \rangle$

# Functional correctness proofs for *del\_min*

Many lemmas, mostly straightforward

## Logarithmic complexity

Running time of *insert*, *del\_left* and *sift\_down* (and therefore *del\_min*) bounded by height

Remember: *braun*  $t \implies 2^{h(t)} \leq 2 * |t| + 1$

$\implies$

Above running times logarithmic in size

## Source of code

Based on code from

L.C. Paulson. *ML for the Working Programmer*. 1996

based on code from Chris Okasaki.

- ⑦ Priority Queues
- ⑧ Leftist Heap
- ⑨ Priority Queue via Braun Tree
- ⑩ Binomial Heap

# Numerical method

Idea: only use trees  $t_i$  of size  $2^i$

## Example

To store (in binary) 11001 elements:  $[t_0, 0, 0, t_3, t_4]$

Merge  $\approx$  addition with carry

Needs function to combine two trees of size  $2^i$   
into one tree of size  $2^{i+1}$

# Binomial tree

**datatype** 'a tree =  
Node (rank: nat) (root: 'a) ('a tree list)

Invariant: Node of rank  $i$  has children  $[t_{i-1}, \dots, t_0]$  of ranks  $[i-1, \dots, 0]$ :

$invar\_btree$  (Node  $r$   $x$   $ts$ ) =  
 $((\forall t \in set\ ts.\ invar\_btree\ t) \wedge map\ rank\ ts = rev\ [0..<r])$

Lemma

$invar\_btree\ t \implies |t| = 2^{rank\ t}$



# Combining two trees

How to combine two trees of rank  $i$   
into one tree of rank  $i+1$

*link*  $t_1 t_2 =$

(case  $(t_1, t_2)$  of

$(Node\ r\ x_1\ c_1, Node\ x\ x_2\ c_2) \Rightarrow$

if  $x_1 \leq x_2$  then  $Node\ (r + 1)\ x_1\ (t_2 \# c_1)$

else  $Node\ (r + 1)\ x_2\ (t_1 \# c_2)$ )

# Binomial heap

Use sparse representation for binary numbers:

$[t_0, 0, 0, t_3, t_4]$  represented as  $[(0, t_0), (3, t_3), (4, t_4)]$

**type\_synonym** *'a heap = 'a tree list*

Remember: *tree* contains rank

Invariant:

*invar\_bheap ts =*  
*(( $\forall t \in \text{set } ts. \text{invar_btree } t$ )  $\wedge$*   
*strictly\_ascending (map rank ts))*

## Inserting a tree

$ins\_tree\ t\ [] = [t]$   
 $ins\_tree\ t_1\ (t_2 \# ts) =$   
 $(if\ rank\ t_1 < rank\ t_2\ then\ t_1 \# t_2 \# ts$   
 $\quad else\ ins\_tree\ (link\ t_1\ t_2)\ ts)$

Intuition: Handle a carry

Precondition:

Rank of inserted tree  $\leq$  ranks of trees in heap

## *merge*

*merge*  $ts_1$  [] =  $ts_1$

*merge* []  $ts_2$  =  $ts_2$

*merge* ( $t_1 \# ts_1$ ) ( $t_2 \# ts_2$ ) =

(if *rank*  $t_1 <$  *rank*  $t_2$  then  $t_1 \#$  *merge*  $ts_1$  ( $t_2 \# ts_2$ )

  else if *rank*  $t_2 <$  *rank*  $t_1$  then  $t_2 \#$  *merge* ( $t_1 \# ts_1$ )  $ts_2$

  else *ins\_tree* (*link*  $t_1$   $t_2$ ) (*merge*  $ts_1$   $ts_2$ ))

Intuition: Addition of binary numbers

Note: Handling of carry after recursive call

## Find/delete minimum element

All trees are min-heaps.

Smallest element may be any root node:

$$ts \neq [] \implies \text{find\_min } ts = \text{Min } (\text{set } (\text{map } \text{root } ts))$$

Similar:  $\text{get\_min} :: 'a \text{ tree list} \Rightarrow 'a \text{ tree} \times 'a \text{ tree list}$

Returns tree with minimal root, and remaining trees

$$\begin{aligned} \text{delete\_min } ts = \\ (\text{case } \text{get\_min } ts \text{ of} \\ \quad (\text{Node } r \ x \ ts_1, \ ts_2) \Rightarrow \text{merge } (\text{rev } ts_1) \ ts_2) \end{aligned}$$

# Complexity

Recall:  $|t| = 2^{\text{rank } t}$

Similarly for heap:  $2^{\text{length } ts} \leq |ts| + 1$

Complexity of operations: linear in length of heap  
i.e., logarithmic in number of elements

Proofs: straightforward?

## Complexity of *merge*

$merge(t_1 \# ts_1) (t_2 \# ts_2) =$   
(if  $rank\ t_1 < rank\ t_2$  then  $t_1 \# merge\ ts_1\ (t_2 \# ts_2)$   
else if  $rank\ t_2 < rank\ t_1$  then  $t_2 \# merge\ (t_1 \# ts_1)\ ts_2$   
else  $ins\_tree\ (link\ t_1\ t_2)\ (merge\ ts_1\ ts_2)$ )

Complexity of *ins\_tree*:  $t\_ins\_tree\ t\ ts \leq length\ ts + 1$

A call  $merge\ t_1\ t_2$  (where  $length\ t_1 = length\ t_2 = n$ ) can lead to calls of *ins\_tree* on lists of length  $1, \dots, n$ .

$\sum \in O(n^2)$

## Complexity of *merge*

$merge (t_1 \# ts_1) (t_2 \# ts_2) =$   
(if rank  $t_1 < rank t_2$  then  $t_1 \# merge ts_1 (t_2 \# ts_2)$   
else if rank  $t_2 < rank t_1$  then  $t_2 \# merge (t_1 \# ts_1) ts_2$   
else  $ins\_tree (link t_1 t_2) (merge ts_1 ts_2)$ )

Relate time and length of input/output:

$$t_{ins\_tree} t ts + length (ins\_tree t ts) = 2 + length ts$$
$$length (merge ts_1 ts_2) + t_{merge} ts_1 ts_2$$
$$\leq 2 * (length ts_1 + length ts_2) + 1$$

Yields desired linear bound!



# Lecture 4

## Amortized Complexity

11 Skew Heap

12 Splay Tree

13 Pairing Heap

# Archive of Formal Proofs

[https://www.isa-afp.org/entries/Amortized\\_Analysis.shtml](https://www.isa-afp.org/entries/Amortized_Analysis.shtml)

11 Skew Heap

12 Splay Tree

13 Pairing Heap

A *skew heap* is a self-adjusting heap (priority queue)

Almost like leftist heap, but **no size info needed**

# merge

*merge*  $\langle \rangle$   $h = h$

*merge*  $h$   $\langle \rangle = h$

Swap subtrees when descending:

*merge* ( $h_1 = \langle l_1, a, r_1 \rangle$ ) ( $h_2 = \langle l_2, b, r_2 \rangle$ ) =  
(if  $a \leq b$  then  $\langle$  *merge*  $h_2$   $r_1$ ,  $a$ ,  $l_1$  $\rangle$   
else  $\langle$  *merge*  $h_1$   $r_2$ ,  $b$ ,  $l_2$  $\rangle$ )

# Functional correctness proofs

Straightforward

# Logarithmic amortized complexity

## Theorem

$$t_{\text{merge } t_1 \ t_2} + \Phi(\text{merge } t_1 \ t_2) - \Phi t_1 - \Phi t_2 \leq 3 * \log_2 (|t_1|_1 + |t_2|_1) + 1$$



## Towards the proof

$$\text{rheavy } \langle l, -, r \rangle = (|l| < |r|)$$

$$\text{lpath } \langle \rangle = []$$

$$\text{lpath } \langle l, a, r \rangle = \langle l, a, r \rangle \# \text{lpath } l$$

$$G h = \text{length } (\text{filter } \text{rheavy } (\text{lpath } h))$$

### Lemma

$$2^{G h} \leq |h| + 1$$

### Corollary

$$G h \leq \log_2 |h|_1$$

## Towards the proof

$$\mathit{rheavy} \langle l, -, r \rangle = (|l| < |r|)$$

$$\mathit{rpath} \langle \rangle = []$$

$$\mathit{rpath} \langle l, a, r \rangle = \langle l, a, r \rangle \# \mathit{rpath} r$$

$$D h = \mathit{length}(\mathit{filter} (\lambda p. \neg \mathit{rheavy} p) (\mathit{rpath} h))$$

### Lemma

$$2^{D h} \leq |h| + 1$$

### Corollary

$$D h \leq \log_2 |h|_1$$

# Potential

The potential is the number of *heavy* nodes:

$$\Phi \langle \rangle = 0$$

$$\Phi \langle l, -, r \rangle = \Phi l + \Phi r + (\text{if } |l| < |r| \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0)$$

## Lemma

$$\begin{aligned} t\_merge\ t_1\ t_2 + \Phi (merge\ t_1\ t_2) - \Phi t_1 - \Phi t_2 \\ \leq G (merge\ t_1\ t_2) + D t_1 + D t_2 + 1 \end{aligned}$$

`by(induction t1 t2 rule: merge.induct)(auto)`

## Main proof

$$\begin{aligned} & t\_merge\ t_1\ t_2 + \Phi\ (merge\ t_1\ t_2) - \Phi\ t_1 - \Phi\ t_2 \\ & \leq G\ (merge\ t_1\ t_2) + D\ t_1 + D\ t_2 + 1 \\ & \leq \log_2\ |merge\ t_1\ t_2|_1 + \log_2\ |t_1|_1 + \log_2\ |t_2|_1 + 1 \\ & = \log_2\ (|t_1|_1 + |t_2|_1 - 1) + \log_2\ |t_1|_1 + \log_2\ |t_2|_1 + 1 \\ & \leq \log_2\ (|t_1|_1 + |t_2|_1) + \log_2\ |t_1|_1 + \log_2\ |t_2|_1 + 1 \\ & \leq \log_2\ (|t_1|_1 + |t_2|_1) + 2 * \log_2\ (|t_1|_1 + |t_2|_1) + 1 \\ & \quad \text{because } \log_2\ x + \log_2\ y \leq 2 * \log_2\ (x + y) \text{ if } x, y > 0 \\ & = 3 * \log_2\ (|t_1|_1 + |t_2|_1) + 1 \end{aligned}$$

## Sources

The inventors of skew heaps:

Daniel Sleator and Robert Tarjan.

Self-adjusting Heaps.

*SIAM J. Computing*, 1986.

The formalization is based on

Anne Kaldewaij and Berry Schoenmakers.

The Derivation of a Tighter Bound for Top-down Skew Heaps. *Information Processing Letters*, 1991.

11 Skew Heap

12 Splay Tree

13 Pairing Heap

A *splay tree* is a self-adjusting binary search tree.

Functions *isin*, *insert* and *delete*  
have amortized logarithmic complexity.

## 12 Splay Tree

Algorithm

Amortized Analysis



# Splay tree

Implementation type = binary tree

Key operation *splay a*:

- ① Search for  $a$  ending up at  $x$   
where  $x = a$  or  $x$  is a leaf node.
- ② Move  $x$  to the root of the tree by rotations.

Derived operations *isin/insert/delete a* :

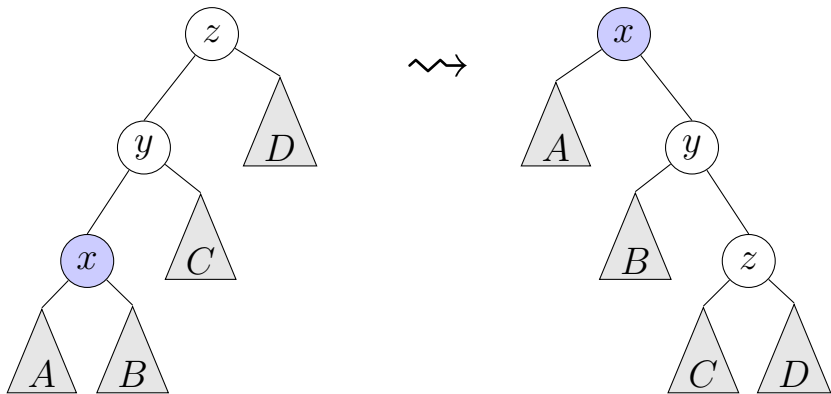
- ① *splay a*
- ② Perform *isin/insert/delete* action

# Key ideas

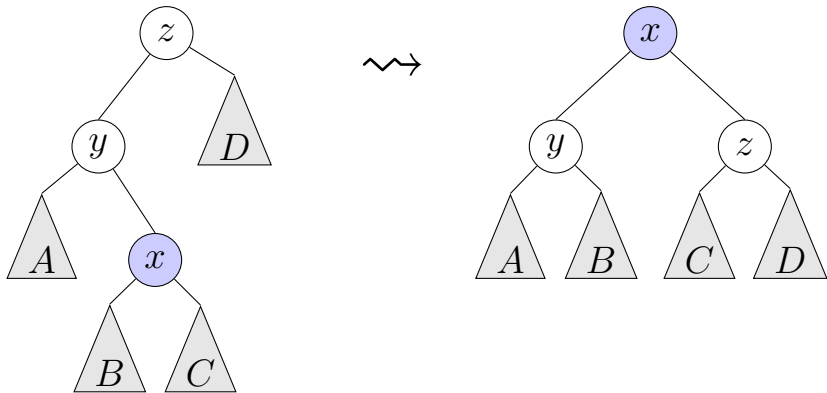
Move to root

Double rotations

# Zig-zig



# Zig-zag



# Zig-zig and zig-zag

Zig-zig  $\neq$  two single rotations

Zig-zag = two single rotations

# Functional definition

*splay* :: 'a ⇒ 'a tree ⇒ 'a tree

## Zig-zig and zig-zag

$$\begin{aligned} & \llbracket a < y; a < z; T \neq \langle \rangle \rrbracket \\ \implies & \text{splay } a \langle \langle T, y, C \rangle, z, D \rangle = \\ & \text{(case splay } a \text{ } T \text{ of} \\ & \quad \langle A, x, B \rangle \Rightarrow \langle A, x, \langle B, y, \langle C, z, D \rangle \rangle \rangle) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \llbracket a < z; y < a; T \neq \langle \rangle \rrbracket \\ \implies & \text{splay } a \langle \langle A, y, T \rangle, z, D \rangle = \\ & \text{(case splay } a \text{ } T \text{ of} \\ & \quad \langle B, x, C \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \langle A, y, B \rangle, x, \langle C, z, D \rangle \rangle) \end{aligned}$$

# Functional correctness proofs

Automatic



## 12 Splay Tree

Algorithm

Amortized Analysis

# Potential

Sum of logarithms of the size of all nodes:

$$\Phi \langle \rangle = 0$$

$$\Phi \langle l, a, r \rangle = \Phi l + \Phi r + \varphi \langle l, a, r \rangle$$

where  $\varphi t = \log_2 (|t| + 1)$

Amortized complexity of *splay*:

$$a\_splay\ a\ t = t\_splay\ a\ t + \Phi (splay\ a\ t) - \Phi t$$

# Analysis of *splay*

## Theorem

$$\begin{aligned} & \llbracket \text{bst } t; \langle l, x, r \rangle \in \text{subtrees } t \rrbracket \\ & \implies a\_splay\ x\ t \leq 3 * (\varphi\ t - \varphi\ \langle l, x, r \rangle) + 1 \end{aligned}$$

## Corollary

$$\begin{aligned} & \llbracket \text{bst } t; a \in \text{set\_tree } t \rrbracket \\ & \implies a\_splay\ a\ t \leq 3 * (\varphi\ t - 1) + 1 \end{aligned}$$

## Corollary

$$\text{bst } t \implies a\_splay\ a\ t \leq 3 * \varphi\ t + 1$$

## Lemma

$$\begin{aligned} & \llbracket t \neq \langle \rangle; \text{bst } t \rrbracket \\ & \implies \exists a' \in \text{set\_tree } t. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{splay } a'\ t = \text{splay } a\ t \wedge t\_splay\ a'\ t = t\_splay\ a\ t_{147}$$

## *insert*

### Definition

*insert*  $x$   $t =$

(if  $t = \langle \rangle$  then  $\langle \langle \rangle, x, \langle \rangle \rangle$

else case *splay*  $x$   $t$  of

$\langle l, a, r \rangle \Rightarrow$

if  $x = a$  then  $\langle l, a, r \rangle$

else if  $x < a$  then  $\langle l, x, \langle \langle \rangle, a, r \rangle \rangle$

else  $\langle \langle l, a, \langle \rangle \rangle, x, r \rangle$

Counting only the cost of *splay*:

### Lemma

*bst*  $t \implies$

$$t\_splay\ a\ t + \Phi(\text{insert}\ a\ t) - \Phi\ t \leq 4 * \varphi\ t + 2$$

# *delete*

## Definition

*delete*  $x$   $t =$

(if  $t = \langle \rangle$  then  $\langle \rangle$

else case *splay*  $x$   $t$  of

$\langle l, a, r \rangle \Rightarrow$

if  $x = a$

then if  $l = \langle \rangle$  then  $r$

else case *splay\_max*  $l$  of

$\langle l', m, r' \rangle \Rightarrow \langle l', m, r \rangle$

else  $\langle l, a, r \rangle$ )

## Lemma

*bst*  $t \implies$

$t\_delete$   $a$   $t + \Phi (delete$   $a$   $t) - \Phi t \leq 6 * \varphi t + 2$

*isin* :: 'a tree  $\Rightarrow$  'a  $\Rightarrow$  bool

Single threaded  $\implies$  *isin* t a eats up t

Otherwise:

```
let bad = build unbalanced splay tree;  
  _ = isin bad a;  
  _ = isin bad a;  
  _ = isin bad a;  
  ⋮
```

## Solution 1:

$isin :: 'a \text{ tree} \Rightarrow 'a \Rightarrow \text{bool} \times 'a \text{ tree}$

Observer function returns new data structure:

### Definition

$isin \ t \ a =$

(let  $t' = \text{splay } a \ t$  in (case  $t'$  of  
     $\langle \rangle \Rightarrow \text{False}$   
    |  $\langle l, x, r \rangle \Rightarrow a = x,$   
     $t')$ )

## Solution 2:

*isin = splay; is\_root*

Client uses *splay* before calling *is\_root*:

### Definition

*is\_root* :: 'a  $\Rightarrow$  'a tree  $\Rightarrow$  bool

*is\_root* a t = (case t of  
     $\langle \rangle \Rightarrow$  False  
    |  $\langle l, x, r \rangle \Rightarrow x = a$ )

May call *is\_root* \_ t multiple times (with the same t!)  
because *is\_root* takes constant time

$\implies$  *is\_root* \_ t does not eat up t



*isin*

Splay trees have an imperative flavour and are a bit awkward to use in a purely functional language

## Sources

The inventors of splay trees:

Daniel Sleator and Robert Tarjan.

Self-adjusting Binary Search Trees. *J. ACM*, 1985.

The formalization is based on

Berry Schoenmakers. A Systematic Analysis of Splaying.  
*Information Processing Letters*, 1993.

11 Skew Heap

12 Splay Tree

13 Pairing Heap

# Implementation type

**datatype** 'a heap = Empty | Hp 'a ('a heap list)

Heap invariant:

$pheap\ Empty = True$

$pheap\ (Hp\ x\ hs) =$

$(\forall h \in set\ hs. (\forall y \in set\_heap\ h. x \leq y) \wedge pheap\ h)$

Also: *Empty* must only occur at the root

## *insert*

$insert\ x\ h = merge\ (Hp\ x\ [])\ h$

$merge\ h\ Empty = h$

$merge\ Empty\ h = h$

$merge\ (xh = Hp\ x\ xhs)\ (yh = Hp\ y\ yhs) =$   
 $(if\ x < y\ then\ Hp\ x\ (yh\ \# \ xhs)\ else\ Hp\ y\ (xh\ \# \ yhs))$

Like function *link* for binomial heaps

## *del\_min*

*del\_min Empty = Empty*

*del\_min (Hp x hs) = merge\_pairs hs*

*merge\_pairs [] = Empty*

*merge\_pairs [h] = h*

*merge\_pairs (h<sub>1</sub> # h<sub>2</sub> # hs) =*

*merge (merge h<sub>1</sub> h<sub>2</sub>) (merge\_pairs hs)*

## *merge\_pairs*

*merge\_pairs* [] = *Empty*

*merge\_pairs* [h] = h

*merge\_pairs* (h<sub>1</sub> # h<sub>2</sub> # hs) =  
*merge* (*merge* h<sub>1</sub> h<sub>2</sub>) (*merge\_pairs* hs)

*merge\_pairs* hs = *pass*<sub>2</sub> (*pass*<sub>1</sub> hs)

*pass*<sub>1</sub> [] = []

*pass*<sub>1</sub> [h] = [h]

*pass*<sub>1</sub> (h<sub>1</sub> # h<sub>2</sub> # hs) = *merge* h<sub>1</sub> h<sub>2</sub> # *pass*<sub>1</sub> hs

*pass*<sub>2</sub> [] = *Empty*

*pass*<sub>2</sub> (h # hs) = *merge* h (*pass*<sub>2</sub> hs)

# Functional correctness proofs

Straightforward



## 13 Pairing Heap

### Amortized Analysis

# Analysis

Analysis easier (more uniform) if a pairing heap is viewed as a binary tree:

$homs :: 'a \text{ heap list} \Rightarrow 'a \text{ tree}$

$homs [] = \langle \rangle$

$homs (Hp\ x\ hs_1\ \# \ hs_2) = \langle homs\ hs_1, x, homs\ hs_2 \rangle$

$hom :: 'a \text{ heap} \Rightarrow 'a \text{ tree}$

$hom\ Empty = \langle \rangle$

$hom (Hp\ x\ hs) = \langle homs\ hs, x, \langle \rangle \rangle$

Potential function same as for splay trees

Verified:

The functions *insert*, *del\_min* and *merge* all have  $O(\log_2 n)$  amortized complexity.

These bounds are not tight.

Better amortized bounds in the literature:

$insert \in O(1)$ ,  $del\_min \in O(\log_2 n)$ ,  $merge \in O(1)$

The exact complexity is still open.

## Sources

The inventors of the pairing heap:

M. Fredman, R. Sedgwick, D. Sleator and R. Tarjan.  
The Pairing Heap: A New Form of Self-Adjusting Heap.  
*Algorithmica*, 1986.

The functional version:

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Cambridge University Press, 1998.