A CLASSIFICATION OF DATA TYPES

Nell B. Dale and Henry M. Walker*

Department of Computer Sciences The University of Texas at Austin Austin, Texas 78712-1188

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^{*} Department of Mathematics, Grinnell College.

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by Nell Dale Department of Computer Sciences The University of Texas at Austin

and Henry M. Walker¹ Department of Mathematics Grinnell College

Abstract

There is considerable variation in the terminology that is used in discussing the subject of (abstract) data types. Further, discussions of individual data types often combine several types into unnecessarily complex or interlinked structures and sometimes refer to a single data type in inconsistent ways. This paper resolves many of these problems by proposing a unified classification of a wide range of data types.

Introduction: The authors taught parallel sections of a junior level course entitled Data Structures (CS7 in Curriculum '78) last year. After discussing the topic for hours on end, and, yes, even arguing for hours, we came to two conclusions: Data Structures is an inadequate and misleading title and the traditional paradigm used to present the material needs reorganizing.

Data structures refers to the study of data and how to represent data objects within a program; that is, the <u>implementation</u> of structured relationships. Over the last ten years the focus has broadened considerably. We are now interested in the study of the abstract properties of classes of objects in addition to how these objects might be represented in a program. Johannes J. Martin puts in very succinctly: "... depending on the point of view, a data object is characterized by its type (for the user) or by its structure (for the implementer)."²

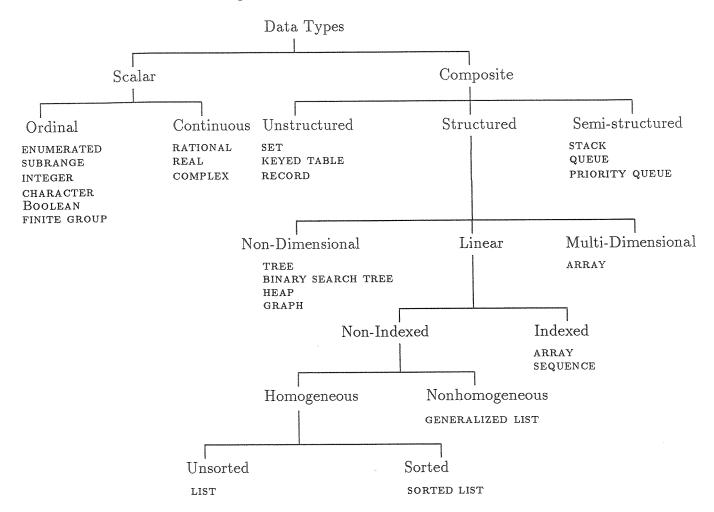
The topic of Data Structures has now been subsumed under the broader topic of Abstract Data Types (ADTs): the study of classes of objects whose logical behavior is defined by a set of values and a set of operations.

The traditional paradigm for studying Data Structures is based on characteristics of the implementation of the structures. For example, a stack and a queue are classified as restrictive versions of a list where access is limited to one or both ends of the list. The properties of a stack and a queue can certainly be represented this way. However, the <u>user</u> does not care about ends and restricted access. In fact the user does not care what happens when an item is stored in a stack or a queue; the user is only interested in what is returned on a pop or a dequeue: the item that is returned is the last one inserted in the case of a stack or the first one inserted in the case of a queue.

Johannes J. Martin, Data Types and Data Structures, Prentice-Hall International Series in Computer Science, C. A. R. Hoare, Series Editor.

During much of the discussion that led to this paper, the author was on sabbatical leave from Grinnell College and was working as a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Computer Sciences, The University of Texas at Austin.

Figure 1: Classification Tree



The study of ADTs requires that we step back and view data types from the functional view of the user.³ The classification proposed in this paper is based on such a view. Section 1 describes this classification in words, following a top-down organization. Then, within this hierarchy, Section 2 uses axiomatic specifications to define each data type. This specification clarifies individual operations for each data type and formalizes the similarities and differences between data types. Overall, this hierarchical, axiomatic specification of data types provides a framework to review various traditional classifications of data structures.

While it is common to include the word abstract in the phrase "abstract data type", the perception of abstraction is often in the eye of the beholder. For example, an integer data type often is based on the mathematical notion of these numbers, using operations such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. However, even for integers, choices may be made for implementation. Integers may be limited to a specific range, or storage may be allocated dynamically to accommodate integers of any size. In this paper, therefore, we frequently drop the term "abstract", but bear in mind that we are always referring to the logical properties of a data type.

Table 1: Summary of Data Type Specifications

Data Types: Data objects together with specified operations.

Scalar: Base type involves a single, elementary data object.

Ordinal: Data values are ordered and discrete.

Operations: Pred, Succ, Relational Operators $(<, \le, >, \ge, =, \ne)$,

Arithmetic

Continuous: Data values are not discrete.

Operations: Relational Operators $(<, \leq, >, \geq, =, \neq)$,

Arithmetic

Composite: Data type combines one or more elementary data objects.

Unstructured: No relationship or ordering is specified or implied among objects.

Operations: Store, IsThere, Delete, Find

Structured: An explicit relationship is specified among objects.

Non-Dimensional: No linear order or indexing is specified or implied; the data may or may not be partially ordered.

Linear: A linear or total ordering is specified or implied.

Non-Indexed: No index variable or value is available.

Operations: Store, Delete, GetFirst, GetNext

Homogeneous: All data objects held within the structure have the same type.

Unsorted: The linear ordering specification is external

to the data; the ordering may be supplied

by the user or programmer.

Sorted: The linear ordering may be inferred by the data itself.

Nonhomogeneous: Individual data objects that make the structure may have different types.

Indexed: A single index variable or value is given or implied.

Array: A linear stream of data of bounded length.

Operations: Store, Retrieve

Sequence: A linear data stream whose length is not bounded.

Operations: Store, Insert, Delete

Multi-Dimensional: Indexing requires multiple variables or values.

Operations: Store, Retrieve

Semi-Structured: A relationship is implied, but not stated among objects.

Operations: Store, Look, GetAnother (destructive)

Section 1: A Description of Data Types

This section organizes many standard data types by identifying several properties that distinguish these data types from each other. These properties then are used to develop a unified, hierarchical classification for a wide range of data types. The results of this classification are shown graphically in Figure 1. Table 1 presents a parallel summary of the classification scheme using tabular form.

Data Types ⇒ Scalar + Composite

At a top level, data types may be divided into two major categories, those involving individual data values and those which combine several values within a single object. The first of these is called the scalar data type, and normally the operations on this type allow the combining of two values into a third or the modifying of one value to yield another. In contrast, data types which combine several values are called composite data types, and the operations on such composite types normally may be defined in terms of primitive store, retrieve and/or delete operations.

$Scalar \implies Ordinal + Continuous$

Scalar data type in turn may be subdivided into two types, ordinal data types and continuous data types. In ordinal data types, data models view the data values as being separate, discrete objects. Data values within continuous data types, on the other hand, are viewed as being part of a continuous, connected region of a line, plane, or n-dimensional space.

Ordinal Data Type involves discrete values, which often come with a total ordering. Such types are built into many standard programming languages and include enumerated types, integers, characters, Boolean type and subranges of these types. While all of these traditional types are ordered in a natural way, this scalar type could also include finite groups which do not have such a natural ordering. (For finite groups, however, an ordering can be imposed on the finite values, merely by chosing one value to be smallest, another value next smallest, etc.) For each of these cases, typical operations take advantage of this ordering and include predecessor and successor operations and the relational operations $(<, \leq, >, \geq, =, \neq)$. Since many ordinal data types involve numbers, it is common for these types also to include various arithmetic operations, such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division.

Continuous Data Type includes values such as the rational numbers, the real numbers, and the complex numbers. In each case, the values are not discrete, and it is inappropriate to ask what value immediately precedes another. (For example, it is hard to say what real or rational number immediately precedes 1/2.) Continuous data types normally involve numbers, and operations customarily include the arithmetic functions addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Some of these types also are ordered, in which case relational operations may be defined.

Composite ⇒ Unstructured + Structured + Semi-Structured

Composite data types involve the combining of several individual objects into a larger whole. Further, each of these composite types depends upon the fundamental notions of storing, retrieving, and deleting objects from the composite structures.

In some cases, the combining of objects imposes additional structure on the objects. For example, the objects may be placed in an order, the objects may be indexed, or various relationships among data objects may be specified. Such types may be called *structured data types*.

At the other extreme, no relationships may be stated or implied among the various objects, and such data types are called *unstructured*.

At an intermediate level, some data types place some restrictions on the order in which data may be stored or retrieved. Such data types may be called *semi-structured*.

Unstructured Data Types place no constraints on the data objects being stored or retrieved, except that these objects may be required to all be from the same underlying type. Further, no relationship among objects is stated or implied. Such data types includes sets, keyed tables (sometimes called symbol tables), and records. Operations for these unstructured data types often are limited to simple statements to store data, to retrieve an object (without removing it from the structure), to delete an object, and to determine if an object is present (the Boolean IsThere operation.)

A Semi-Structured Data Type implicitly specifies which data object is accessed whenever a retrieve or delete operation is executed. For example, this implicit specification may involve the time when objects were stored, or it may depend upon the order of store operations, although factors other than time or order may be used. These data types include stacks, (FIFO) queues, and priority queues. Operations for semi-structured data types always involve store and delete capabilities, although these operations often are given different names. These data types also provide a Empty operation to test if any data are presently stored. In some cases, provision also is made to examine some or all of the data objects being stored.

$Structured \implies Non-Dimensional + Linear + Multi-Dimensional$

Structured data types all impose some additional connections or structure upon individual data objects. In a non-dimensional data type, the connections between objects are given explicitly for various ordered pairs of objects.

In other cases, the structure is imposed by considering one or more variables or by utilizing a natural ordering of data values. A structure based upon one variable or upon a total ordering of the objects in the structure is called a *linear data type*, while a structure based on two or more variables or values is said to be *multi-dimensional*.

A Non-Dimensional, Structured Data Type organizes data types by requiring each application to specify relations between objects, either explicitly or implicitly. In a tree data type, this relationship follows a strict hierarchy. In a search tree, the order of individual data objects implies a further structure. In a heap, additional structure is given both by the order of individual data objects and by the overall shape of the tree structure (although there can be some debate about whether shape should be an axiomatic issue or a matter of implementation.) In a graph data type, all relationships between pairs of data objects must be stated explicitly. In any of these objects, a total ordering of the data objects in the structure is neither stated nor implied. Operations for nondimensional data types include means to store, retrieve, and delete individual data objects and to specify appropriate connections among objects. Additional operations are present to move from one object to another within the structure.

A Multi-Dimensional Data Type uses two or more specified variables to index individual objects. *Multi-dimensional arrays* fall into this category. Operations for this data type often are limited to a simple *store* and *retrieve* capability.

Linear ⇒ Non-Indexed + Indexed

The data objects in a linear data type come with a total ordering which may be either specified explicitly or implied. In an indexed data type, this ordering is specified explicitly by a given variable, and the value of this variable serves as the mechanism to refer to each object. For example, data objects may be referenced by a subscript in the notation $A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, \ldots$. In a non-indexed data type, the ordering of data objects may be inferred from the data themselves, but storage and retrieval need not depend upon a separate index variable.

An Indexed Data Type uses a single, specified variable to index all data objects in the structure. If a fixed amount of space for this structure is declared initially and a store to one position has no effect on the data elsewhere in the structure, then the structure is called an array. Otherwise, the amount of space may be considered as being unlimited or a store in one position position i may change indexing of later items (data item a_{i+1} is relabeled a_{i+2} , for example). In such case, the structure is called a sequence.

Non-Indexed ⇒ Nonhomogeneous + Homogeneous

A non-indexed, linear data type contains data that have been ordered. However, the ordering may be imposed separately by a user or programmer or it may be due to a known ordering of the data objects themselves. At one extreme, the data type may be used to store objects of differing individual types, and the resulting composite type is called *nonhomogeneous*. In these instances, individual data objects cannot be compared with each other, and any sequencing of these objects must be done by a user or programmer. In contrast, in a *homogeneous* data type, all individual objects that make up the structure have the same type.

With either type of structure, it should be noted that the ordering may be used to index various objects, giving index 1 (or 0) to the first item, index 2 (or 1) to the next, and so forth. However, a user or programmer cannot necessarily refer to the n^{th} item unless it is already known that at least that many objects have been stored. A non-indexed data type does not have pre-defined storage areas for various objects. Thus, it is inappropriate to consider an operation such as Store(Object, Position) as being a primitive operation, since the given position may not be defined at any given time. Indexing may be inferred as a side effect of the linear ordering of data, but the indexing is not a fundamental part of the data type.

A Nonhomogeneous Data Type consists of a linear sequence of data objects, and these individual objects may come from several different data types. In this situation, any store operation must specify where a new object is to be placed. Other operations may include a means to delete an object, to find the first object GetFirst, to move from one object to the next GetNext, and to determine the type of a specified object GetType. This data type includes the generalized list data type, when data objects may be drawn from either a single underlying type or from generalized lists of such objects.

$Homogeneous \implies Unsorted + Sorted$

A homogeneous data type involves a linear ordering of data. In this situation, it is possible that the ordering may be inferred by the data objects themselves, the structure is said to be sorted. If instead the sequencing of data objects is imposed only by the creation of the data structure (by a user or a programmer), then the data type is said to be unsorted.

An Unsorted Data Type requires the user or programmer to specify where each subsequent data object will be placed within the structure. For example, it might be specified that a new data object be placed first or last in the structure or the object might be placed before or after a specified object. Thus, for these structures, a simple store operation places a object at the beginning of the list. Other operations may include a means to delete an object, to find the length of the list, to obtain the first (or head) of the list, or to return the tail of the list (the list with the head deleted). This unordered data type category includes the list data type, when all data objects are drawn from a single underlying type.

An Sorted Data Type depends upon an ordering inherent in the data objects themselves. In such instances, it is customary to refer to the data in the structure as being sorted. Here, the first object in the structure is the one that happens to be the minimum (or maximum) of the objects stored. The second object is the second smallest (or second largest) object being stored. Such an object is often called a sorted list. Operations for such structures involve store or insert, delete, find the first object on the list (head), and obtain the list with the first object deleted Tail).

Section 2: The Axiomatic Specification of Data Types

This section presents a formal definition of each composite data type presented in Section 1, expanding the general description given in the previous section. This axiomatic specification of data types complements and clarifies the hierarchical, verbal description given earlier.

Notes on Axiomatic Specifications

In an axiomatic specification, the abstract data type being defined is called the designated domain or the carrier domain. The other data types involved in the operations on the carrier domain are called auxiliary domains. There are four types of operations that can be defined on an abstract data type: primitive constructors, constructors, observers, and iterators.

Primitive constructors return an instance of the carrier domain without taking one as input. That is, a primitive constructor creates a new instance of the abstract data type. This new instances is either empty or has no defined values stored within it. For obvious reasons, these operations are often called *Create*. *Create* may be parameterless or it make take types as parameters that set certain bounds on instances of the type.

Constructors take objects of the carrier domain as input and return objects of the carrier domain. Observers are operators that take an instance of the carrier domain and return results of a different type. That is, they observe the instance without changing it.

Iterators are operations that allow the user to view the items stored in an instance of the carrier domain. In some data types, separate iterators are not necessary; in some data types, iterators have no meaning; in some data types iterators must be explicitly defined using an additional auxiliary data type to hold the items to be viewed.

Exceptions

We need a way to express two situations that produce exceptions which come up in our specifications of data types. The first situation is where the application of an operation causes an error. Trying to pop a stack when the stack is empty is such a situation. The second situation occurs in cases where the *Create* operation takes a parameter that represents size. Here, we view the operation as creating the shell or structure where places for all future values exist from the beginning rather than creating an empty structure which grows and shrinks as values are stored into it. When a retrieval operation is applied to a place where no value has been stored, an exception has occurred.

To handle these two situations, we introduce two constants, *Error* and *Undefined*, which are a part of every data type. *Error* is returned when the application of the operation causes an error. *Undefined* is returned when the slot in a structure exists, but the contents of a slot have not been given a value.

UNSTRUCTURED DATA TYPES

From a user's view point, an unstructured data type is a composite data type where items are put into a collection of items and retrieved from that collection of items. There is no relationship among the items in the composite structure other than that they reside in the same structure. The set is the classic unstructured data type. There are, however, three other common data types that also belong in this category: the bag, the keyed table (sometimes called a symbol table), and the record.

Set

The user of the abstract data type set expects it to model the mathematical data type set. An empty set is created and items of the component type are inserted into the set and deleted from the set. The only parameters needed for either operation are the set and the item. Because the binary operations Difference, Union, and Intersection are so commonly used, they have been included in the set of functions.

The names that we choose for the operations are, for the most part, obvious. Store is the exception: We usually think of inserting an item into a set. We choose to use the verb Store here to be consistent with its use in later data types. (Insert is reserved for a second operator that adds an item to an abstract data but has a side effect of altering the position of other items within the structure.)

```
structure Set (of Item)
interface Create \longrightarrow Set
             Store(Set, Item) → Set
             \begin{array}{ccc} {\tt IsEmpty(Set)} & \longrightarrow & {\tt Boolean} \\ {\tt Card(Set)} & \longrightarrow & {\tt Integer} \end{array}
             IsIn(Set, Item) → Boolean
             Delete(Set, Item) → Set
             {\tt Union}({\tt Set},\ {\tt Set})\ \longrightarrow\ {\tt Set}
             Intersection(Set, Set) → Set
      end
  axioms
             for i1, i2 in Item, S, T in Set, let
             Store(S, i1) =
                    IF IsIn(S, i1)
                        THEN S
             IsEmpty(Create) = True
             IsEmpty(Store(S, i1)) = False
             Card(Create) = 0
             Card(Store(S, i1)) = 1 + Card(S)
             IsIn(Create, i1) = False
             IsIn(Store(S, i2), i1) =
                      IF i1 = i2
                         THEN
                                True
                         ELSE IsIn(S, i1)
             Delete(Create, i1) = Create
             Delete(Store(S, i2), i1) =
                      IF i1 = i2
                         THEN
                         ELSE Store(Delete(S, i1), i2)
```

A set does not have duplicates. This is represented in the constraint on the *Store* operation. The *Store* does nothing if the item is already in the set. This property could have been expressed in another way: We could have put no constraints on *Store* and let *Delete* take care of removing all the extra duplicates. *Union* and *Card* would have to be altered accordingly.

Since there is no structure in a set that we can use to allow us to move from one element to another in order to view each one, we must define an iterator which takes each of the items in the collection and puts them in an unsorted, non-indexed, linear list. Once in the list, we can view each item in turn. The operations on unsorted, non-indexed, linear lists will be defined in a later section. The constructor operation which takes a list and an item and returns a list is the *Make* operation.

Iterator for ADT Set: Augment Domain with ADT UnsortedList

```
Members(Set) \( \to \) List
Members(Create) = Create
Members(Store(S, i1)) = Make(Members(S), i1)
```

Notice that Create is used twice in the same axiom. There is no ambiguity, however, because the context determines which empty structure is being defined. The Members operation takes a parameter of type Set, so the Create on the left of the equal sign refers to an empty set. Members returns a parameter of type UnsortedList, so the Create on the right of the equal sign refers to the empty unsorted list.

If we use the second set of axioms where there is no constraint on Store, the general axiom for Members would be

```
Members(Store(S, i1)) = Make(Members(Delete(S,i1)), i1)
```

Bag

A Bag is a counted set. That is, duplicate items are allowed in the set. The axioms for a Bag are identical to the first axioms defined on the set data type with the constraint on the Store removed. We will not repeat the axioms.

Record

The Record Data Type is a non-homogeneous data type where < field, value > pairs are stored. The Create operation takes a set of fields and returns the structure with the fields defined but the associated values undefined.

Since the constants in the fields are known in advanced, there is no need to define an iterator. The same is true for a set if the component type is limited in size. However, because this is not the general case we included an iterator.

Keyed Tables

In the abstract data type keyed table, the items in the unstructured composite are < name, value > pairs. The pairs are inserted into the collection, removed by specifying the name, and the collection is searched for the value associated with a name. There are no common binary operations applied to keyed tables.

In one sense the keyed table is like the record: The items contained in the collection are made up of pairs where the first one of the pair is used to identify and retrieve the second. The difference between a record and a keyed table is that the fields in a record come from a closed, predefined type. The Create operation creates a structure where the fields exist waiting for the associated values to be stored. The names in a < name, value > pair may or may not be known in advanced. The Create operation is not parameterized; it returns an empty collection.

Keyed Table

```
structure KeyedTable (of <Name, Value>)
interface Create --- KeyedTable
           Store(KeyedTable, Name, Value) → KeyedTable
           Delete(KeyedTable, Name) --- KeyedTable
           Find(KeyedTable, Name) → Value
           IsIn(KeyedTable, Name) \longrightarrow Boolean
           IsEmpty(KeyedTable) --- Boolean
     end
  axioms for n1, n2 in Name, v in Value, KT in KeyedTable, let
           Delete(Create, n1) = Create
           Delete(Store(KT, n2, v), n1) =
                  IF n1 = n2
                     THEN Delete(KT, n1)
                     ELSE Store(Delete(KT, n1), n2, v)
           Find(Create, n1) = Error
           Find(Store(KT, n2, v), n1) =
                  IF n1 = n2
                     THEN
                     ELSE Find(KT, n1)
           IsIn(Create, n1) = False
           IsIn(Store(KT, n2, v), n1) =
                  IF n1 = n2
                     THEN True
                     ELSE IsIn(KT, n1)
           IsEmpty(Create) = True
           IsEmpty(Store(KT, n1, v)) = False
     end
```

The axioms state that trying to find a < name, value > pair when no pair has been stored with that name is an error condition.

In the following iterator definition we use the data type *SortedList* to hold the names to impose an order on the way in which the names will be viewed.

Iterator for ADT KeyedTable: Augment Domains with ADT SortedList

```
ListOfNames(KeyedTable) — SortedList
ListOfNames(Create) = Create
ListOfNames(Store(KT, n1, v))
= Insert(ListOfNames(KT), n1)
```

Summary of Unstructured Types

The unstructured composite data types can be characterized by patterns in their axioms: there is only one constructor operation that increases the number of elements in the collection and one operation that reduces the number of elements in the collection. The operation that deletes an item from the collection takes two parameters: the name of the structure and a parameter that specifies which item to remove, the item, a field, or a name.

One of the types, the record, is a fixed size. The Create operation takes a parameter that determines the size. In such a case, the IsEmpty operation has no meaning. The equivalent operation would be IsUndefined which would return true if all of the fields were undefined. However, this does not seem to be a particularly useful operation.

SEMI-STRUCTURED DATA TYPES

From the user's view point, a semi-structured data type is a collection of items which has a special or designated item but no logical relationship exists among the rest of the items in the collection. The operation that deletes an item or views an item knows that it is this designated item that is to be deleted or returned. The stack, the FIFO queue, and priority queue fall into this category.

Stack

In the stack, the designated item is the last item that was put into the collection. The axioms for the stack are used frequently to describe the axiomatic approach to specifying the behavior of an abstract data type. The operations even have their very own names.

FIFO Queue

In the FIFO queue, the designated item is the first item put into the collection. The operation that puts an item into the FIFO queue is usually called Enq; the operation that removes an item is usually called Deq; and the operation that views the designated item is usually called First.

```
structure Queue (of Item)
interface Create → Queue
Enq(Queue, Item) → Queue
Deq(Queue) → Queue
First(Queue) → Item
IsEmpty(Queue) → Boolean
end
```

```
axioms for Q in Queue, i in Item, let

Deq(Create) = Error

Deq(Enq(Q, i)) =

IF IsEmpty(Q)

THEN Create

ELSE Enq(Deq(Q), i)

First(Create) = Error

First(Enq(Q, i)) =

IF IsEmpty(Q)

THEN i

ELSE First(Q)

IsEmpty(Create) = True

IsEmpty(Enq(Q, i)) = False

end
```

Priority Queue

In the priority queue, the items are made up of < item, priority > pairs. The designated item is the item with the highest priority. The operation that deletes the designated item is usually called Serve in a priority queue, and the operation that views the designated item is usually called Next. In the following axioms we use the relational operator greater than (>) to compare priorities. Note that highest priority may or may not mean greatest value.

```
structure PQueue (of <Item, Priority>)
interface Create --- PQueue
           Enq(PQueue, Item, Priority) → PQueue
          Serve(PQueue) → PQueue
          Next(PQueue) → Item
           IsEmpty(PQueue) --- Boolean
     end
          for PQ in PQueue, i1, i2 in Item, p1, p2 in Priority, let
  axioms
           Serve(Create) = Error
           Serve(Enq(Create, i1, p1)) = Create
           Serve(Enq(Enq(PQ, i1, p1), i2, p2))
                 IF p1 > p2
                    THEN Enq(Serve(Enq(PQ, i1, p1)), i2, p2)
                    ELSE Enq(Serve(Enq(PQ, i2, p2)), i1, p1)
           Next(Create) = Error
           Next(Enq(Create, i1, p1)) = i1
           Next(Enq(Enq(PQ, i1, p1), i2, p2))
                 IF p1 > p2
  THEN Next(Enq(PQ, i1, p1))
                    ELSE Next(Enq(PQ, i2, p2))
           IsEmpty(Create) = True
           IsEmpty(Enq(PQ, i1, p1) = False
```

Summary of Semi-Structured Data Types

The semi-structured data types can be characterized by the fact that the operation that deletes an item takes no item as a parameter. The item to be removed (or viewed) is the designated item. It is the definition of the designated item that distinguishes among these data types. Since the names of the operations are different across the data types in this category, they are summarized below.

		FIFO	Priority
Operation	Stack	Queue	Queue
Insert Item	Push	Enq	Enq
Delete Designated Item	Pop	Deq	Serve
Observe Designated Item	Тор	First	Next

It is interesting to note that the *priority queue* can be used to simulate both the *stack* and the *FIFO queue*. If a time stamp is attached to each item to use as the priority, the designated item in the *stack* is the one with the most recent time stamp and the designated item in the *FIFO queue* is the one with the oldest time stamp.

STRUCTURED DATA TYPES

Linear Data Types

Linear data types are those that the user views as having a first, a next, and a last. If it is a property of the type that the user access the items by position, then the linear data type is called an indexed linear list. If the items are only accessed by moving from one to the next, the data type is called a non-indexed linear list. Often the term linear list is used to refer to all linear data types, leading to confusion about such operations as "storing an item" and "inserting an item". We think that there are two distinct categories of data types.

Indexed

There are two types of indexed linear structures: the array where an index is permanently bound to an item and the sequence where an index reflects the item's current position in the list.

Array

The array data type is a collection of < index, value > pairs where the bounds on the index set are known at the time an instance of an array data type is created. Like the record data type, a newly created instance of an array data type is not empty; the structure exists, but the value for each < index, value > pair is undefined. An attempt to store an < index, value > pair where the index is not within the bounds of the array causes an error.

```
for all A in Array, i1, i2, i3, i4 in Index, and
     v in Value, let
     LoBound(Create(i3, i4)) --- i3
     LoBound(Store(A, i1, v)) \longrightarrow LoBound(A)
     HiBound(Create(i3, i4)) → i4
     HiBound(Store(A, i1, v)) → HiBound(A)
     Store(A, i1, v) =
           IF (i1 < LoBound(A)) or (i1 > HiBound(A))
              THEN Error
     Retrieve(Create(i3, i4), i1) =
           IF (i1 < LoBound(A)) or (i1 > HiBound(A))
              THEN Error
              ELSE Undefined
     Retrieve(Store(A, i2, v), i1) =
           IF (i1 < LoBound(A)) or (i1 > HiBound(A))
              THEN Error
              ELSE IF (i1 = i2)
                  THEN v
                  ELSE Retrieve(A, i1)
end
```

CIIC

Sequences

The items in a sequence are also < index, value > pairs. However, the index represents the value's current position in the sequence and may change as other items are inserted into the sequence. The Create operation has no parameters; it returns an empty sequence. There are two operations that add items to the collection of items: the Store operation which puts an item into a specified place in the sequence and the Insert operation which inserts an item into a specified position and shifts all those items in that position and subsequent positions down one.

An error condition occurs if an attempt is made to store or insert an item into a position in the list that does not already exist or is greater than the length of the list plus 1. Therefore we will need an operation that will return the length of the sequence.

```
structure Sequence (of <Index, Value>)
interface Create — Sequence
Store(Sequence, Index, Value) — Sequence
Length(Sequence) — Integer
Insert(Sequence, Index, Value) — Sequence
Delete(Sequence, Index) — Sequence
Retrieve(Sequence, Index) — Value
Find(Sequence, Value) — Index
Replace(Sequence, Index, Value) — Sequence
end
```

```
axioms for all S in Sequence, i1, i2 in Index,
       and v1, v2 in Value, let
       Length(Create) = 0
       Length(Store(S, i1, v1)) = 1 + Length(S)
       Store(S, i1, v1) =
               IF i1 > Length(S) + 1
                  THEN Error
                  ELSE IF i1 <= Length(S)</pre>
                        THEN Replace(S, i1, v1)
        Insert(Create, i2, v2) = Store(Create, i2, v2)
        Insert(Store(S, Length(S) + 1, v1), i2, v2) =
               IF i2 > 1 + Length(S)
                  THEN Error
                  ELSE IF i2 = Length(S) + 1
                     THEN Store(Store(S, i2, v2), i2+1, v1)
                     ELSE Store(Insert(S, i2, v2), Length(S)+2,v1)
        Retrieve(Create, i2) = Error
        Retrieve(Store(S, i1, v1), i2) =
               IF i2 = i1
                  THEN v1
                  ELSE Retrieve(S, i2)
        Find(Create, v1) = Error
        Find(Store(S, i1, v2), v1) =
               IF v2 = v1
                  THEN i1
                  ELSE Find(S, v1)
        Delete(Store(S, Length(S) + 1, v1), i2) =
               IF i2 > Length(S) + 1
                   THEN Error
                   ELSE IF i2 = Length(S) + 1
                       THEN S
                       ELSE Store(Delete(S, i2), Length(S), v1)
        Replace(Create, i2, v2) = Error
        Replace(Store(S, Length(S) + 1, v1), i2, v2) =
               IF i2 = Length(S) + 1
                  THEN Store(S, Length(S) + 1, v2)
                  ELSE Store(Replace(S, i2, v2), Length(S)+1, v1)
```

Summary of Indexed Linear Structures

Arrays are used so often to represent sequences in a program that they are frequently thought to be the same thing. There are, however, two distinctions between arrays and sequences. Arrays are fixed size; the Create operation returns the structure with the index part of the $\langle index, value \rangle$ pairs already defined. Once a value is stored with an index, the value stays bound to the index until another value is stored with that same index.

In a sequence, the Create operation returns an empty sequence. The binding of the index and the value is only temporary. It represents the current position of the value within the sequence.

Arrays and records are similar. Both have their structure built by the create operation. The array, however, is linear because the index type is ordered, and the record is unstructured because the set of fields is not ordered.

We have not included the *string* as a separate abstract data type. It is our feeling that the string is a special case of the *sequence*. The additional operations normally associated with strings such as concatenate, substring, and pattern match can be specified using the sequence axioms.

Non-Indexed

Homogeneous

The non-indexed homogeneous linear structured data type is what most users mean when they say "linear list." The property of position that is used in the indexed linear structured data type is implicitly there, but is immaterial to the user. The operations do not use position as a parameter. All of the items in the list are of the same type.

The two data types in this category differ in the same way that the two data types in the indexed category do: one has only one operation that increases the size of the structure, and the other has two. The result is that the items in the first data type are unordered. The items in the second data type are inserted into their sorted position in the list.

Unsorted

```
structure UnsortedList (of Item)
interface Create \longrightarrow UnsortedList
            Make(UnsortedList, Item) → UnsortedList
            Delete(UnsortedList, Item) → UnsortedList
            \texttt{Head}(\texttt{UnsortedList}) \ \longrightarrow \ \texttt{Item}
            Tail(UnsortedList) --- UnsortedList
            IsEmpty(UnsortedList) --- Boolean
            {\tt IsThere}({\tt UnsortedList}, \ {\tt Item}) \ {\longrightarrow} \ {\tt Boolean}
            Length(UnsortedList) → Integer
      end
            for i1, i2 in Item, L in UnsortedList, let
  axioms
            Head(Create) = Error
            Head(Make(L, i1)) = i1
            Tail(Create) = Error
            Tail(Make(L, i1)) = L
            Delete(Create, i1) = Create
            Delete(Make(L, i2), i1) =
                   IF i1 = i2
                      THEN L
                      ELSE Make(Delete(L, i1), i2)
            IsEmpty(Create) = True
            IsEmpty(Make(L, i1)) = False
            IsThere(Create, i1) = False
            IsThere(Make(L, i2), i1) =
                    IF i1 = i2
                       THEN True
                       ELSE IsThere(L, i1)
            Length(Create) = 0
            Length(Make(L, i1)) = 1 + Length(L)
      end
```

Sorted

```
structure SortedList (of Item)
interface Create --- SortedList
             Make(SortedList, Item) → SortedList
             \begin{array}{ll} \texttt{Head}(\texttt{SortedList}) & \longrightarrow & \texttt{Item} \\ \texttt{Tail}(\texttt{SortedList}) & \longrightarrow & \texttt{SortedList} \end{array}
              \begin{array}{ll} {\tt IsEmpty(SortedList)} & \longrightarrow & {\tt Boolean} \\ {\tt IsThere(SortedList)} & \longrightarrow & {\tt Boolean} \end{array}
              Length(SortedList) → Integer
       end
   axioms
             for i1, i2 in Item, L in SortedList, let
              Head(Create) = Error
              Head(Make(L, i1)) = i1
              Tail(Create) = Error
              Tail(Make(L, i1)) = L
              Insert(Create, i1) = Make(Create, i1)
              Insert(Make(L, i2), i1) =
                      IF i1 < i2
                           THEN Make(Insert(L, i1), i2)
                           ELSE Make(Make(L, i2), i1)
              Delete(Create, i1) = Error or Create
              Delete((Make(L, i2), i1) =
                      IF i1 = i2
                          THEN L
                          ELSE Make(Delete(L, i1), i2)
              IsEmpty(Create) = True
              IsEmpty(Make(L, i1)) = False
              IsThere(Create, i1) = False
              IsThere(Make(L, i2), i1) =
                       IF i1 = i2
                           THEN True
                           ELSE IF i1 < i2
                               THEN IsThere(L, i1)
                               ELSE False
              Length(Create) = 0
              Length(Make(L, i1)) = 1 + Length(L)
         end
```

Summary of Non-Indexed Linear Structure

The only difference in the sorted and unsorted specifications is the additional operator *Insert* in the sorted version.

Non-Homogeneous

The only traditional data type in this category is the abstract data type usually referred to as a generalized list. A generalized list is a linear structured data type where the items in the structure can either be data items (often called atoms) or other generalized lists.

```
type ComponentType = (Atom, GenList)
structure GenList (of ComponentType)
interface Create \longrightarrow GenList
             IsEmpty(GenList) --- Boolean
             WhichType(Component) → ComponentType
             Make(GenList, Component) → GenList
             Concat(GenList, GenList) → GenList
             \begin{array}{ccc} \texttt{Head}(\texttt{GenList}) & \longrightarrow & \texttt{Component} \\ \texttt{Tail}(\texttt{GenList}) & \longrightarrow & \texttt{GenList} \end{array}
      end
             for c in Component, GL1, GL2 in GenList,
  axioms
             IsEmpty(Create) → True
             IsEmpty(Make(c, GL1)) = False
             Head(Create) = Error
             Head(Make(GL1, c)) = c
             Tail(Create) = Error
             Tail(Make(GL1, c)) = GL1
             Concat(Create, GL1) = GL1
             Concat(Make(GL2, c), GL1) =
                      Make(Concat(GL2, GL1), c)
       end
Augment Domains with ADT List
            List(GenList) \longrightarrow UnsortedList
            List(Create) → Create
            List(Make(Gl1, c)) =
                     IF WhichType(c)) = Atom
                        THEN Make(List(Gl1), c))
                        ELSE Concat(List(Gl1), List(c))
```

Multi-Dimensional

The specifications for multi-dimensional arrays are a direct extension of the specifications for arrays. We will give only the specification for two-dimensional arrays here.

```
structure TwoDArray (of <Index, Index, Value>)
interface Create(Index, Index, Index, Index) — Array
LoBound1(Array) — Index
HiBound1(Array) — Index
LoBound2(Array) — Index
HiBound2(Array) — Index
Store(Array, Index, Index, Value) — Array
Retrieve(Array, Index, Index) — Value
end
```

```
for all A in TwoDArray, i1, i2, i3, i4, i5, i6 in Index,
axioms
               and v in Value, let
         LoBound1(Create(i3, i4, i5, i6)) --- i3
          LoBound1(Store(A, i1, i2, v)) \longrightarrow LoBound1(A)
          HiBound1(Create(i3, i4, i5, i6)) \longrightarrow i4
          HiBound1(Store(A, i1, i2, v)) → HiBound1(A)
          LoBound2(Create(i3, i4, i5, i6)) \longrightarrow i5
          \texttt{LoBound2}(\texttt{Store}(\texttt{A, i1, i2, v})) \,\longrightarrow\, \texttt{LoBound2}(\texttt{A})
          HiBound2(Create(i3, i4, i5, i6)) \longrightarrow i6
         {\tt HiBound2(Store(A, i1, i2, v)) \longrightarrow HiBound2(A)}
          Store(A, i1, i2, v) =
                 IF (i1 < LoBound1(A)) or (i1 > HiBound1(A))
                    or (i2 < LoBound2(A)) or (i2 > HiBound2(A))
                    THEN Error
          Retrieve(Create(i3, i4, i5, i6), i1, i2) =
                 IF (i1 < LoBound1(A)) or (i1 > HiBound1(A))
                     or (i2 < LoBound2(A)) or (i2 > HiBound2(A))
                    THEN Error
                    ELSE Undefined
          Retrieve(Store(A, i1, i2, v), i3, i4) =
                 IF (i3 < LoBound1(A)) or (i3 > HiBound1(A))
                     or (i4 < LoBound2(A)) or (i4 > HiBound2(A))
                     THEN Error
                     ELSE IF (i1 = i3) and (i2 = i4)
                         THEN v
                         ELSE Retrieve(A, i3, i4)
    end
```

Non-Dimensional

This category contains two basic data types, the tree and the graph. In fact, a tree is technically a restricted type of graph, although the user of the abstract data type tree will probably not view it that way. Similarly, a search tree and a heap can be considered as restricted type of tree, but users often consider these special trees as separate abstract data types in their own right. In the next two sets of axioms, we focus on binary trees and binary search trees. A natural extension of these axioms would produce k-way trees and k-way search trees.

Binary Tree

As in the case of sorted and unsorted lists and sequences and arrays, there are different types of binary trees. Here, a simple binary tree has only a store operation, while both binary search trees and heaps have insert operations.

```
Binary Tree
```

```
structure BinTree (of Item)
interface Create — BinTree

Make(BinTree, Item, BinTree) — BinTree

LeftTree(BinTree) — BinTree

RightTree(BinTree) — BinTree

Data(BinTree) — Item

IsEmpty(BinTree) — Boolean

end
```

```
axioms for all BT1, BT2 in BinTree, i1 in Item, let
LeftTree(Create) = Error
LeftTree(Make(BT1, i1, BT2)) = BT1
RightTree(Create) = Error
RightTree(Make(BT1, i1, BT2)) = BT2
Data(Create) = Error
Data(Make(BT1, i1, BT2)) = i1
IsEmpty(Create) = True
IsEmpty(Make(BT1, i1, BT2)) = False
end
```

Iterator for Binary Tree: Augment the Domains with ADT Queue (of Data)

Binary Search Trees

When the operations for a BinTree are augmented with an Insert operation that inserts the item into is proper place in the tree, the result is a binary search tree. Because of the length of these axioms, we will only show the Insert and the corresponding Delete. We also need an operation that returns the maximum element in a binary search tree in order to specify the Delete operation correctly. This operation can be made part of the interface or can be kept hidden from the user. Here, we will add it to the interface.

```
for all i1, i2 in Item, BST1, BST2 in BSTree, let
Insert(Create, i1) = Make(Create, i1, Create)
Insert(Make(BST1, i2, BST2), i1) =
       IF i1 < i2
          THEN Make(Insert(BST1, i1), i2, BST2)
          ELSE Make(BST1, i2, Insert(BST2, i1))
MaxEl(Create) = Error
MaxEl(Make(BST1, i1, BST2))
          IF IsEmpty(BST2)
             THEN i1
             ELSE MaxEl(BST2)
Delete(Create, i1) = Create
Delete(Make(BST1, i2, BST2), i1) =
        IF i1 = i2
          THEN IF IsEmpty(BST1)
                   THEN BST2
                ELSE IF IsEmpty(BST2)
                          THEN BST1
                 ELSE Make(Delete(BST1, MaxEl(BST1)),
                            MaxEl(BST1), BST2)
                IF i1 < i2
           ELSE
                 THEN Make(Delete(BST1, i1), i2, BST2)
                 ELSE Make(BST1, i2, Delete(BST2, i1))
```

Heaps

Just as one ordering of data within a tree yields a binary search tree, another ordering produces a partially-ordered tree. In most cases, users want partially-ordered trees to have a special, balanced shape, and the resulting structure is called a heap. It should be noted, however, that there is some debate about whether shape is an abstract property (to be given in axioms) or whether shape is an implementation issue. In the context of binary search trees, shape gives rise to the notion of AVL trees, but many consider these height-balanced trees to vary only in implementation from other binary search trees; there may not be any change in axioms from one to the other. Similarly, partially-ordered trees and heaps can be viewed as having similar properties. When users often rely upon shape in their thinking and analysis, however, it may be helpful to incorporate this notion of shape in the axioms themselves. The following axioms for heaps illustrate how shape can be built into an axiomatic specification of a data type.

```
structure Heap (Of Item)
interface Create — Heap

Make(Heap, Item, Heap) — Heap

Left(Heap) — Heap

Right(Heap) — Heap

Data(Heap) — Item

Insert(Heap, Item) — Heap

Delete(Heap) — Heap

TopHeap(Heap) — Item

IsEmpty(Heap) — Boolean

end
```

```
axioms for all H1, H2 in Heap, i2 in Item, let
Left(Create) = Error
Left(Make(H1, i1, H2)) = H1
Right(Create) = Error
Right(Make(H1, i1, H2)) = H2
Data(Create) = Error
Data(Make(H1, i1, H2)) = i1
IsEmpty(Create) = True
IsEmpty(Make(H1, i1, H2)) = False
TopHeap(Create) = Error
TopHeap(Make(H1, i1, H2)) = i1
```

The axioms for *Delete* and *Insert* require several auxiliary operations which are included in what follows.

```
Height(Heap) → Integer
Full(Heap) \longrightarrow Heap
Last(Heap) --- Item
DelLast(Heap) → Heap
ReHeap(Heap) --- Heap
Height(Create) = 0
Height(Make(H1, d1, H2)) = Max(Height(H1), Height(H2)) + 1
Full(Create) = True
Full(Make(H1, i1, H2)) =
      IF Height(H1) <> Height(H2)
         THEN False
         ELSE Full(H1) AND Full(H2)
Insert(Create, i1) = Make(Create, i1, Create)
Insert(Make(H1, i2, H2), i1) =
      IF NOT Full(H1) OR Full(Make(H1, i2, H2))
         THEN
           IF i1 < i2
              THEN Make(Insert(H1, i1), i2, H2)
              ELSE Make(Insert(H1, i2), i1, H2)
         ELSE
           IF i1 < i2
              THEN Make(H1, i2, Insert(H2, i1))
              ELSE Make(H1, i1, Insert(H2, i2))
Last(Create, i1, Create) = i1
Last(Make(H1, i1, H2))
      IF Full(Make(H1, i1, H2)) OR NOT Full(H2)
         THEN Last(H2)
         ELSE Last(H1)
DelLast(Create, i1, Create) = Create
DelLast(Make(H1, i1, H2))
       IF Full(Make(H1, i1, H2)) OR NOT Full(H2)
         THEN Make(H1, i1, DelLast(H2))
         ELSE Make(DelLast(H1), i1, H2)
Delete(Create) = Error
Delete(Make(Create, i1, Create)) = Create
Delete(Make(H1, i1, H2)) =
        ReHeap(DelLast(Make(H1, Last(Make(H1, i1, H2)), H2)
```

Graphs

Mathematically, a Graph is a nonempty set of Vertices and a set of Edges. In the axiomatic specification, it is more convenient to allow the vertex set to be empty and to view the edge set as a collection of < Vertex, Vertex, Weight > triples. Most axioms for graphs then are completely analogous to those for sets, with one set of axioms for the vertex set and one for the edge set. The relationship among these operations is given in the following table.

Operation	Set	Vertex Set	Edge Set
Insert Item	Store	StoreVertex	StoreEdge
Determine if Set Empty	IsEmpty	VerticesEmpty	EdgesEmpty
Count Items	Card	VertCard	$\operatorname{EdgeCard}$
Delete Item	Delete	DelVertex	DelEdge
Find Item in Set	IsIn	IsVertex	IsEdge

The axioms for a graph distinguish between the vertex set and the edge set using both operations StoreVertex and StoreEdge as primitives, subject to the constraint that an edge may be stored only if both of its vertices are present. Individual axioms for graphs now generally follow the same form as for sets, except that the deletion of a vertex from a graph also deletes all the edges associated with the deleted vertex.

```
structure
interface
Graph (of <vertex> and <Vertex, Vertex, Weight>)
Create — Graph
StoreVertex(Graph, Vertex) — Graph
VerticesEmpty(Graph) — Boolean
VertCard (Graph) — Integer
DelVertex(Graph, Vertex) — Graph
IsVertex(Graph, Vertex) — Boolean
StoreEdge(Graph, Vertex, Vertex, Weight) — Graph
EdgesEmpty(Graph) — Boolean
EdgeCard (Graph) — Integer
DelEdge(Graph, Vertex, Vertex) — Graph
IsEdge(Graph, Vertex, Vertex) — Graph
GetWeight(Graph, Vertex, Vertex) — Boolean
GetWeight(Graph, Vertex, Vertex) — Weight
end
```

```
for all v, v1, v2, v3, v4 in Vertex, w in Weight,
axioms
                 G in Graph, let
         StoreVertex(G, v) =
                  IF IsVertex(G, v)
                     THEN G
        VerticesEmtpy(Create) = True
         VerticesEmpty(StoreVertex(G, v)) = False
         VerticesEmpty(StoreEdge(G, v1, v2, w)) = VerticesEmpty(G)
         VertCard(Create) = 0
         VertCard(StoreVertex(G, v1)) = 1 + VertCard(G)
         VertCard(StoreEdge(G, v1, v2, w)) = VertCard(G)
         DelVertex(Create, v) = Create
         DelVertex(StoreVertex(G, v1), v) =
                 IF (v1 = v)
                    THEN G
                    ELSE StoreVertex(DelVertex(G, v), v1)
         DelVertex(StoreEdge(G, v1, v2, w), v) =
                 IF (v1 = v) OR (v2 = v)
                    THEN DelVertex(G, v)
                    ELSE StoreEdge(DelVertex(G, v), v1, v2, w)
         IsVertex(Create, v) = False
         IsVertex(StoreVertex(G, v1), v) =
                 IF v1 = v
                    THEN True
                    ELSE IsVertex(G, v)
         IsVertex(StoreEdge(G, v1, v2, w) = IsVertex(G, w)
         StoreEdge(G, v1, v2, w) =
                  IF IsVertex(G, v1) AND IsVertex(G, v2)
                     THEN IF IsEdge(G, v1, v2)
                          THEN G
                          ELSE <null>
                     ELSE G
         EdgesEmtpy(Create) = True
         EdgesEmpty(StoreVertex(G, v)) = EdgesEmpty(G)
         EdgesEmpty(StoreEdge(G, v1, v2, w)) = False
         EdgeCard(Create) = 0
         EdgeCard(StoreVertex(G, v1)) = EdgeCard(G)
         EdgeCard(StoreEdge(G, v1, v2, w)) = 1 + EdgeCard(G)
         DelEdge(Create, v) = Create
         DelEdge(StoreVertex(G, v1), v2, v3) =
                 StoreVertex(DelEdge(G, v2, v3), v1)
         DelEdge(StoreEdge(G, v1, v2, w), v3, v4) =
                 IF (v1 = v3) AND (v2 = v4)
                    THEN G
                    ELSE StoreEdge(DelEdge(G, v3, v4), v1, v2, w)
         IsEdge(Create, v1, v2) = False
         IsEdge(StoreVertex(G, v), v1, v2) = IsEdge(G, v1, v2)
         IsEdge(StoreEdge(G, v3, v4, w), v1, v2) =
                 IF (v1 = v3) AND (v2 = v4)
                    THEN True
                    ELSE IsEdge(G, v1, v2)
```

end

Graph algorithms often depend upon a list of vertices that are adjacent to a given one. The appropriate axioms use the data type *list* to hold vertex names.

Augment the Domains with the ADT List (of Edges)

```
FromEdges(Graph, Vertex) → List
ToEdges(Graph, Vertex) → List

FromEdges(Create, v1) = Create
FromEdges(StoreVertex(G, v), v1) = FromEdges(G, v1)
FromEdges(StoreEdge(G, v3, v4, w), v1) =
    IF v1 = v3
        THEN Store(FromEdges(G, v1), v4)
        ELSE FromEdges(G, v1)
ToEdges(G, v1) = Create
ToEdges(StoreVertex(G, v), v1) = ToEdges(G, v1)
ToEdges(StoreEdge(G, v3, v4, w), v1) =
    IF v1 = v4
        THEN Store(ToEdges(G, v1), v3)
        ELSE ToEdges(G, v1)
```

Conclusions: This paper has presented a coherent classification of data types, based upon a hierarchical tree organization. Throughout the tree, properties or constraints are added in moving from each node to its children, and each node inherits all properties of its ancestors. The result is a unified classification of a wide variety of data types. Within this framework, this paper presented a careful, axiomatic specification of each data type. This specification clarified the individual operations for each data type and allowed similarities and differences of operations on various data types to be highlighted.