# Towards Tight Lower Bounds for Range Reporting on the RAM

Allan Grønlund<sup>\*</sup> Kaspe

Kasper Green Larsen<sup>†</sup>

November 3, 2014

#### Abstract

In the orthogonal range reporting problem, we are to preprocess a set of n points with integer coordinates on a  $U \times U$  grid. The goal is to support reporting all k points inside an axis-aligned query rectangle. This is one of the most fundamental data structure problems in databases and computational geometry. Despite the importance of the problem its complexity remains unresolved in the word-RAM. On the upper bound side, three best tradeoffs exists:

- 1. Query time  $O(\lg \lg n + k)$  with  $O(n \lg^{\varepsilon} n)$  words of space for any constant  $\varepsilon > 0$ .
- 2. Query time  $O((1+k)\lg\lg n)$  with  $O(n\lg\lg n)$  words of space.
- 3. Query time  $O((1+k)\lg^{\varepsilon} n)$  with optimal O(n) words of space.

However, the only known query time lower bound is  $\Omega(\lg \lg n + k)$ , even for linear space data structures.

All three current best upper bound tradeoffs are derived by reducing range reporting to a *ball-inheritance* problem. Ball-inheritance is a problem that essentially encapsulates all previous attempts at solving range reporting in the word-RAM. In this paper we make progress towards closing the gap between the upper and lower bounds for range reporting by proving cell probe lower bounds for ball-inheritance. Our lower bounds are tight for a large range of parameters, excluding any further progress for range reporting using the ball-inheritance reduction.

<sup>\*</sup>Aarhus University. jallan@cs.au.dk. Supported by Center for Massive Data Algorithmics, a Center of the Danish National Research Foundation, grant DNRF84.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup>Aarhus University. larsen@cs.au.dk. Supported by Center for Massive Data Algorithmics, a Center of the Danish National Research Foundation, grant DNRF84.

## 1 Introduction

In the orthogonal range reporting problem, we are to preprocess a set of n points with integer coordinates on a  $U \times U$  grid. The goal is to support reporting all k points inside an axis-aligned query rectangle. This is one of the most fundamental data structure problems in databases and computational geometry. Given the importance of the problem, it has been extensively studied in all the relevant models of computation including e.g. the word-RAM, pointer machine and external memory model. In the latter two models, we typically work under an assumption of *indivisibility*, meaning that input points have to be stored as they are, i.e. compression techniques such as rank-space reduction and word-packing cannot be used to reduce the space consumption of data structures. The indivisibility assumption greatly alleviates the task of proving lower bounds, which has resulted in a completely tight characterisation of the complexity of orthogonal range reporting in these two models. More specifically, Chazelle [7] presented a pointer machine data structure answering queries in optimal  $O(\lg n + k)$  time using  $O(n \lg n / \lg \lg n)$  space and later proved that this space bound is optimal for any query time of the form  $O(\lg^c n + k)$ , where  $c \ge 1$  is an arbitrary constant [8]. In the external memory model, Arge et al. [2] presented a data structure answering queries in optimal  $O(\lg_B n + k/B)$  I/Os with  $O(n \lg n / \lg \lg_B n)$  space and also proved the space bound to be optimal for any query time of the form  $O(\lg_B^c n + k/B)$ , where  $c \ge 1$  is a constant. Here B is the disk block size. Thus the orthogonal range reporting problem has been completely closed for at least 15 years in both these models of computation. If we instead abandon the indivisibility assumption and consider orthogonal range reporting in the arguably more realistic model of computation, the word-RAM, our understanding of the problem is much more disappointing. Assuming the coordinates are polynomial in n ( $U = n^{O(1)}$ ), the current best word-RAM data structures, by Chan et al. [5], achieve the following tradeoffs:

- 1. Optimal query time  $O(\lg \lg n + k)$  with  $O(n \lg^{\varepsilon} n)$  words of space for any constant  $\varepsilon > 0$ .
- 2. Query time  $O((1+k) \lg \lg n)$  with  $O(n \lg \lg n)$  words of space.
- 3. Query time  $O((1+k)\lg^{\varepsilon} n)$  with optimal O(n) words of space.

Thus we can achieve linear space by paying a  $\lg^{\varepsilon} n$  penalty per point reported. And even if we insist on an optimal  $O(\lg \lg n + k)$  query time, it is possible to improve over the optimal space bound in the pointer machine and external memory model by almost a  $\lg n$  factor. Naturally the improvements rely heavily on points not being indivisible.

On the lower bounds side, Pătrașcu and Thorup [12, 13] proved that the query time must be  $\Omega(\lg \lg n + k)$  for space  $n \lg^{O(1)} n$ . This lower bound was obtained by reduction from the predecessor search problem. For predecessor search, the query time of  $\lg \lg n$  is known to be achievable with linear space. Thus the reduction is incapable of distinguishing the three space regimes of the current best data structures for range reporting. Perhaps it might just be possible to construct a linear space data structure with  $O(\lg \lg n + k)$  query time. This would have a huge impact in practice, since the non-linear space solutions are most often abandoned for the kd-trees [3], using linear space and answering queries in  $O(\sqrt{n} + k)$  time. This is simply because more than a constant factor above linear space is prohibitive for most applications. Thus ruling out the existence of fast linear space data structures would be a major contribution. The focus of this paper is on understanding this gap and the complexity of orthogonal range reporting in the word-RAM. This boils down to understanding how much compression and word-packing techniques can help us in the regime between linear space and  $O(n \lg^{\varepsilon} n)$  space. Since our results concern definitions made by Chan et al. [5], we first give a more formal definition of the word-RAM and briefly review the technique of rank space reduction and the main ideas in [5].

#### 1.1 Range Reporting in the word-RAM

The word-RAM model was designed to mimic what is possible in modern imperative programming languages such as C. In the word-RAM, the memory is divided into words of  $\Theta(\lg n)$  bits. The words have integer addresses and we allow random access to any word in constant time. We also assume all standard word operations from modern programming languages takes constant time. This includes e.g. integer addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, bit-wise AND, OR, XOR, SHIFT etc. Having  $\Theta(\lg n)$  bit words is a reasonable assumption since machine words on standard computers have enough bits to address the input and to store pointers into a data structure.

**Rank Space Reduction.** Most of the previous range reporting data structures for the word-RAM have used rank space reduction (or variants thereof) to save space, see e.g. [1, 11]. Rank space reduction is the following: Given a set P of n points on a  $U \times U$  grid, compute for each point  $(x, y) \in P$  the rank  $r_x(x)$  of xamongst the x-coordinates of points in P. Similarly compute the rank  $r_y(x)$  of y amongst the y-coordinates of points in P. Construct a new point set  $P^*$  with each point  $(x, y) \in P$  replaced by  $(r_x(x), r_y(y))$ . The point set  $P^*$  is said to be in rank space. A point  $(x, y) \in P$  lies inside a query range  $q = [x_0; x_1] \times [y_0; y_1]$ precisely if  $(r_x(x), r_y(y))$  lies inside the range  $q^* = [r_x(x_0); r_x(x_1)] \times [r_y(y_0); r_y(y_1)]$ . Thus if we store a data structure for mapping q to  $q^*$  and a table mapping points in  $P^*$  back to points in P, the output of a query q can be computed from the output of the query  $q^*$  on  $P^*$ . Since the coordinates of a point in  $P^*$  can be represented using  $\lg n$  bits, this gives a saving in space if  $\lg n \ll \lg U$ .

In previous range reporting data structures, rank space reductions are often used recursively on smaller and smaller point sets  $P_t \subset P_{t-1} \subset \cdots \subset P_1 \subset P$ . Applying t rounds of rank space reduction however results in a query time of O(f(n) + tk) since each reported point has to be *decompressed* through t rank space reduction tables.

**The Ball-Inheritance Problem.** In the following, we present the main ideas of the current best data structures, due to Chan et al. [5]. Their solution is based on an elegant way of combining rank space reductions over all levels of a range tree:

Construct a complete binary tree with the points of P stored in the leaves ordered from left to right by their x-coordinate. Every internal node v is associated with the subset of points  $P_v$  stored in the leaves of the subtree rooted at v. For every internal node v, map the points  $P_v$  to rank space and denote the resulting set of points  $P_v^*$ . Store in v a data structure for answering 3-sided range queries on  $P_v^*$ . Here a 3-sided query is either of the form  $[x_0; \infty) \times [y_0; y_1]$  or  $(-\infty, x_1] \times [y_0; y_1]$ . If we require that only the rank space y-coordinate of a point is reported (and not the rank space x-coordinate), these 3-sided data structures can be implemented in O(n) bits and with O(k) query time using succinct data structures for range minimum queries, see e.g. [9]. For each leaf, we simply store the associated point. The total space usage is  $O(n \lg n + n \lg U)$  bits, which is O(n) words.

To answer a query  $q = [x_0; x_1] \times [y_0; y_1]$ , find the lowest common ancestor, w, of the leaves storing the successor of  $x_0$  and the predecessor of  $x_1$  respectively. Let  $w_\ell$  be the left child of w and  $w_r$  the right child. The points inside q are precisely the points  $P_{w_\ell} \cap [x_0; \infty) \times [y_0; y_1]$  plus  $P_{w_r} \cap (-\infty, x_1] \times [y_0; y_1]$ . The data structures of Chan et al. now proceeds by mapping these two 3-sided queries to rank space amongst points in  $P_{w_\ell}^*$  and  $P_{w_r}^*$  respectively and answering the two queries using the 3-sided data structures stored at  $w_\ell$  and  $w_r$ . This reports, for every point  $(x, y) \in P_{w_\ell} \cap q$  (and  $(x, y) \in P_{w_r} \cap q$ ), the rank of y amongst the y-coordinates of all points in  $P_{w_\ell}(P_{w_r})$ . Assuming one can build an S word auxiliary data structure that supports mapping these rank space y-coordinates back to the original points in t time per point (i.e. through t rank space decompressions), this gives a data structure for orthogonal range reporting that answers queries in  $O(\lg \lg n + t(1 + k))$  time using S + O(n) space, see [5] for full details. Chan et al. named this abstract decompression problem the ball-inheritance problem and defined it as follows:

**Definition 1** (Chan et al. [5]). In the ball-inheritance problem, the input is a complete binary tree with n leaves. In the root node, there is an ordered list of n balls. Each ball is associated with a unique leaf of the tree and we say the ball reaches that leaf. Every internal node v also has an associated list of balls, containing those balls reaching a leaf in the subtree rooted at v. The ordering of the balls in v's list is the same as their ordering in the root's list. We think of each ball in v's list as being inherited from v's parent.

A query is specified by a pair (v, i) where v is a node in the tree and i is an index into v's list of balls. The goal is to return the index of the leaf reached by the i'th ball in v's list of balls.

It is not hard to see that a solution to the ball-inheritance problem is precisely what is needed in Chan et al.'s data structures: We have one ball per point. The ball corresponding to a point (x, y) reaches the  $r_x(x)$ 'th leaf, where  $r_x(x)$  is the rank of x amongst all x-coordinates. The ordering of the balls inside the lists is just the ordering on the y-coordinates of the corresponding points. Thus answering a ball-inheritance query (v, i) corresponds exactly to determining the leaf storing the point from  $P_v$  having a rank space y-coordinate of i. Since Chan et al. stored the points in the leaves, this also recovers the original point.

All three tradeoffs by Chan et al. come from solving the ball-inheritance problem with the following bounds:

**Theorem 1** (Chan et al. [5]). For any  $2 \le B \le \lg^{\varepsilon} n$ , we can solve the ball-inheritance problem with: (1) space  $O(nB \lg \lg n)$  and query time  $O(\lg_B \lg n)$ ; or (2) space  $O(n \lg_B \lg n)$  and query time  $O(B \lg \lg n)$ .

While not all previous range reporting data structures directly solve the ball-inheritance problem, they are all based on rank space reductions and decompression of one point at a time, just in less efficient ways. Thus the ball-inheritance problem in some sense captures the essence of all previous approaches to solving range reporting and the bounds obtained for the ball-inheritance problem also sets the current limits for orthogonal range reporting.

We remark that the ball-inheritance problem also has been used to improve the upper bounds for various other problems with a range reporting flavour to them, see e.g. [6, 4]. Thus in light of the lack of progress in proving tight lower bounds for range reporting, it seems like a natural goal to understand the complexity of the ball-inheritance problem.

#### 1.2 Our Results

In this paper, we prove a lower bound for the ball-inheritance problem. Our lower bound is tight for a large range of parameters and is as follows:

**Theorem 2.** Any word-RAM data structure for the ball-inheritance problem which uses S words of space, must have query time t satisfying:

$$t = \Omega\left(\frac{\lg \lg n}{\lg(S/n) + \lg \lg \lg n}\right)$$

Comparing to the ball-inheritance upper bounds of Chan et al. (Theorem 1), we see that this essentially matches their first tradeoff and is tight for any  $S = \Omega(n \lg^{1+\varepsilon} \lg n)$  where  $\varepsilon > 0$  is an arbitrarily small constant. Most importantly, it implies that for constant query time, one needs space  $n \lg^{\varepsilon} n$  words. Thus any range reporting data structure based on the ball-inheritance problem cannot improve over the bounds of Chan et al. in the regime of space  $S = \Omega(n \lg^{1+\varepsilon} \lg n)$  words. We believe this holds true for any data structure that is based on decompressing one point at a time from some subproblem in rank space. Since decompressing from a subproblem in rank space is hard to formalize exactly, we leave it at this.

One can view our lower bound in two ways: Either as a strong indicator that the data structure of Chan et al. is optimal, or as a suggestion for how to find better upper bounds. The lower bound above shows that if we want to develop faster data structures, we have to find a technique that in some sense allows us to decompress  $\omega(1)$  points in one batch, faster than decompressing each point in turn. This is not necessarily impossible given the large success of batched evaluations in other problems such as matrix multiplication and multipoint evaluation of polynomials.

We also want to make a remark regarding the gap between the second tradeoff of Chan et al. and our lower bound. We conjecture that the upper bound of Chan et al. is tight, but note that current lower bound techniques (in the cell probe model) are incapable of proving any lower bounds exceeding the one we obtain in Theorem 2: The ball-inheritance problem has only  $n \lg n$  queries and the strongest lower bound for any data structure problem with m queries (for any m) is  $t = \Omega(\lg(m/n)/\lg(S/n))$  [10], thus apart from our  $\lg \lg \lg n$  "dirt factor", our lower bound is as strong as it possibly can be with current techniques.

**Technical Contributions.** As a side remark, we believe our lower bound proof has interest from a purely technical point of view. In the lower bound proof, we carefully exploit that a data structure is *not* non-deterministic. While this might sound odd at first, Wang and Yin [14] recently showed that, with only few exceptions (e.g. the predecessor lower bounds), all previous lower bound techniques yield lower bounds that hold non-deterministically. Thus having a new proof outside this category is an important contribution and may hopefully help in closing fundamental problems where avoiding non-determinism in proofs is crucial. This is e.g. the case for the deterministic dictionaries problem, which is amongst the most fundamental

open problems in the field of data structures. This problem is trivially solved with constant update time and query time non-deterministically (just maintain a sorted linked list) and hence lower bound proofs must use ideas similar to those we present in this paper to prove super constant lower bounds for this important problem.

# 2 Lower Bound Proof

We prove our lower bound in the cell probe model [15], where the complexity of a data structure is the number of cells it reads/probes. More specifically, a data structure with query time t and space S consists of memory of S cells with consecutive integer addresses  $0, \ldots, S-1$ . Each cell stores w bits and we assume  $w = \Omega(\lg n)$ . When answering a query, the data structure may probe up to t cells and must announce the answer to the query solely based on the contents of the probed cells. The cell to probe in each step may depend arbitrarily on the query and the contents of previously probed cells. Thus computation is free of charge in the cell probe model and lower bounds proved in this model clearly applies to word-RAM data structures.

#### 2.1 Main Ideas

In the following, we sketch the overall approach in our proof. Assume we have a data structure for the ball-inheritance problem, having space S cells of w bits and with query time t. Assume furthermore that the data structure performs very poorly in the following sense: For every input I to the ball-inheritance problem and every leaf index  $b \in [n] = \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ , let Q(b, I) be the set of queries that have b as its answer. Each such query probes at most t cells of the data structure on input I. Assume these sets of cells are *disjoint*, i.e. information about the leaf b is stored in  $|Q(b, I)| = \lg n$  disjoint t-sized locations in the memory.

Now pick a uniform random set C of  $\lg(n!)/(4w)$  memory cells. For a query q, we say that q survives if all its t probes lie in C. Then by the disjointness of the probed cells, there will be a surviving query in Q(b, I) with probability roughly  $1 - (1 - (|C|/S)^t)^{\lg n}$ . If  $t = o(\lg \lg n/\lg(S/|C|))$ , this is about  $1 - \exp(\lg n \cdot (|C|/S)^t) = 1 - \exp(\lg^{1-o(1)} n)$ , i.e. each leaf index is almost certainly the answer to a surviving query. Thus C must basically store the entire input. But |C| is too small for this and we get a contradiction, i.e.  $t = \Omega(\lg \lg n/\lg(Sw/(n \lg n)))$ , which roughly equals the lower bound we claim. There are obviously a few more details to it, but this is the main idea.

Of course any realistic attempt at designing a data structure for the ball-inheritance problem would try to make the queries in Q(b, I) probe the same cells (which is exactly what Chan et al.'s solution does [5]). In our actual proof, we get around this using the following observation: Consider two queries  $q_1, q_2$  to the ball-inheritance problem, where  $q_2$  is asked in a node d levels below the node of  $q_1$ . The probability  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  return the same leaf index is exponentially decreasing in d. In particular this means that for the very first probe, the queries in Q(b, I) will almost certainly read different cells, which is precisely the property we exploited above. If we pick a random sample of cells, there will be many queries in Q(b, I) that have their first probe in the sample. To handle the remaining t - 1 probes, we follow [12] and extend the cell probe model with the concepts *published bits* and *accepted queries*. A data structure is allowed to publish bits at preprocessing time that the query algorithm may read free of charge. After inspecting a given query and the published bits, a data structure can choose to reject the query and not return an answer. Otherwise, the query is accepted and the algorithm must output the correct answer. Note that it is only allowed to reject queries before performing any probes.

The crucial idea is now the following: If the data structure has few published bits, then for most leaves  $b \in [n]$ , the published bits simply contains too little information to make the queries in Q(b, I) probe the same cells. Thus for t rounds, we can pick a random sample of cells and *publish* their contents. For every accepted query, we check if its first probe is amongst the published cells. If so, we continue to accept it and may skip the first probe since we know the contents of the requested cell. Otherwise we simply reject it. If the published cell sets are small enough, there continues to be too little information in the published bits to make the queries in Q(b, I) meet. Since this holds for all t probes, the argument above for the poorly performing data structures carry through and we get our lower bound.

#### 2.2 Deriving the Lower Bound

With the ideas from Section 2.1 in mind, we present our technical lemma that allows us to publish bits for t rounds to eliminate probes while ensuring that most leaves are still the answer to many accepted queries. Before we present the lemma, consider partitioning the ball-inheritance tree into into  $\lg n/Y$  disjoint layers of Y consecutive tree levels and group the accepted queries by these layers. Think of Y as looking at the queries at a given zoom level. To measure how much information we have left about the different leaves, we count for each leaf  $b \in [n]$  how many layers that have at least one accepted query with b as its answer. If this count is large, then intuitively the answers to all accepted queries carry much information.

Formally, given a data structure for the ball-inheritance problem, define for every  $1 \leq Y \leq \lg n$  and index  $i \in [\lg n/Y]$  the query-support set of a leaf  $b \in [n]$  on an input I as the set  $Q_i^Y(b, I)$  of accepted queries in the tree levels  $\{iY, \ldots, (i+1)Y - 1\}$  that has b as its answer. Observe that  $|Q_i^Y(b, I)| \in \{0, \ldots, Y\}$  since there is precisely one query in each tree level that has b as its answer (it may be less than Y since some queries might be rejected). Define also the Y-level-support of an input I, denoted  $L^Y(I)$ , as the the number of pairs (b, i) such that  $Q_i^Y(b, I)$  is non-empty.

With this notation in hand we are ready to state our main Probe Elimination Lemma.

**Lemma 1.** Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be a set of inputs to the ball-inheritance problem where  $|\mathcal{I}| \geq n!/2^n$ . Assume a ballinheritance data structure uses S cells of w bits, answers queries in t probes, has  $p < n \lg n/\lg^9 \lg n$  published bits and satisfies  $L^Y(I) \geq (1 - 1/Z)n \lg n/Y$  for all  $I \in \mathcal{I}$  for some parameters  $Z \geq 2$  and  $64 \lg w \leq Y \leq$  $\lg n/\alpha$ , where  $\alpha = (Sw \lg^{18} \lg n)/(n \lg n)$ . Then there exists a subset of inputs  $\mathcal{I}^* \subseteq \mathcal{I}$ , with  $|\mathcal{I}^*| \geq |\mathcal{I}|/2$ , and another ball-inheritance data structure using S cells of w bits, answering queries in t - 1 probes with  $p + O(n \lg n/ \lg^{10} \lg n)$  published bits, and satisfying  $L^{\alpha Y}(I) \geq (1 - 1/Z - 1/ \lg \lg^3 n)n \lg n/(\alpha Y)$  for all  $I \in \mathcal{I}^*$ .

In laymans terms, the lemma states that we can decrease the number of probes of a data structure by one, while only increasing the published bits with a lower order term. When we do this, we maintain the essential property that the leaves still have high support, just on a coarser zoom level. The Z factor is basically just a *dirt* factor. We defer the proof of Lemma 1 to Section 2.3. In the following we instead use Lemma 1 to prove our main result, Theorem 2.

Assume for contradiction that a ball-inheritance data structure exists satisfying  $t = o(\lg \lg_w n/\lg \alpha)$ , where  $\alpha = (Sw \lg^{18} \lg n)/(n \lg n)$ . We proceed by repeatedly applying Lemma 1 to eliminate all t probes of the data structure. In order to guarantee we can apply Lemma 1 t times, we check the conditions for applying it. The conditions involve the number of published bits p, the parameters Z and Y and  $|\mathcal{I}|$ . The values of these parameters will change for each application, thus we use  $p^{(i)}, Z^{(i)}, Y^{(i)}$  and  $|\mathcal{I}^{(i)}|$  to denote these parameters just before the *i*'th invocation of the lemma. For the first round, we have  $p^{(1)} = 0$  and  $|\mathcal{I}^{(1)}| = n!$ . Note also that  $L^Y(I) = n \lg n/Y$  for any Y before the first round. Thus we choose  $Y^{(1)} = 64 \lg w$ to satisfy the conditions 64 lg  $w \leq Y^{(1)} \leq \lg n/\alpha$ . This also means that we are free to choose  $Z^{(1)} \geq 2$  as we wish. We simply let  $Z^{(1)} = \lg^3 \lg n$ . Examining the lemma, we conclude that our parameters evolve in the following way (assuming we do not violate any of the conditions):

$$p^{(1+i)} = O(i(n \lg n / \lg^{10} \lg n)), \quad |\mathcal{I}^{(1+i)}| \ge n!/2^i, \quad Y^{(1+i)} = 64 \lg w \cdot \alpha^i, \quad Z^{(i)} \ge \lg^3 \lg n/i.$$

Since we assumed  $t = o(\lg \lg_w n / \lg \alpha)$ , this means that

$$p^{(1+t)} = o(n \lg n / \lg^9 \lg n), \quad |\mathcal{I}^{(1+t)}| \ge n! / \lg n, \quad Y^{(1+t)} = o(\lg n), \quad Z^{(1+t)} \ge \lg^2 \lg n.$$

We conclude that we can apply our lemma for t rounds under the contradictory assumption. Furthermore, the data structure we are left with answers queries in 0 probes on a subset  $\mathcal{I}^* = \mathcal{I}^{(1+t)}$  of inputs, where  $|\mathcal{I}^*| \geq n!/\lg n$ . It has  $o(n \lg n/\lg^9 \lg n)$  published bits and there is some  $Y^* = o(\lg n)$  such that  $L^{Y^*}(I) \geq (1 - 1/\lg^2 \lg n)n \lg n/Y^*$  for all  $I \in \mathcal{I}^*$ . That this is contradictory should not come as a surprise: our 0-probe data structure is capable of answering queries about almost all leaves using only the  $o(n \lg n/\lg^9 \lg n) \ll \lg |\mathcal{I}^*|$  published bits. The formal argument we use to reach the contradiction is as follows: we show that the 0-probe data structure can be used to uniquely encode every input  $I \in \mathcal{I}^*$  into a bit string of length less than  $\lg(|\mathcal{I}^*|) = \lg(n!) - \lg \lg n$  bits. This gives the contradiction since there are fewer such bit strings than inputs. We present the encoding and decoding algorithms in the following:

**Encoding.** Let  $I \in \mathcal{I}^*$  be an input to encode. Observe that if we manage to encode the leaf index reached by each ball in the root node's list of balls, then that information completely specifies I. With this in mind, we implement the 0-probe data structure above on I and proceed as follows:

- 1. First we write down the published bits on input I. This cost  $o(n \lg n / \lg^9 \lg n)$  bits.
- 2. For i = 1, ..., n consider the *i*'th ball in the root node's list of balls. Let  $b_i$  denote the index of the leaf reached by that ball. We write down  $\lg n/2$  bits for each such ball in turn, specifying the subtree at depth  $\lg n/2$  that contains the leaf  $b_i$ . This costs  $n \lg n/2$  bits.
- 3. Finally, we go through all leaf nodes from left to right. For a leaf b, we check if there is an accepted query returning b as its answer amongst all queries in all nodes of depth at most  $\lg n/2$ . If so, we continue to the next leaf. Otherwise we write  $\lg n$  bits denoting the rank of the ball reaching b amongst balls the root node's list of balls. If X is the number of leaves with no accepted query reporting it in tree levels  $\{0, \ldots, \lg n/2\}$ , this step costs  $X \lg n$  bits.

**Decoding.** To recover *I* from the above encoding, we do as follows.

- 1. We first go through all nodes v of depth d for  $d = 0, ..., \lg n/2$ . For each such node, let  $q_1^v, ..., q_{n/2^d}^v$  denote the queries we can ask at node v, i.e.  $q_i^v$  asks for the leaf reached by the *i*'th ball in v's list of balls. We run the query algorithm for each such query in turn using the published bits written in step 1. of the encoding procedure. Since our data structure makes 0 probes, this returns the answer to each such accepted query, i.e. we have collected a set Q of pairs  $(q_i^v, b)$  such that b is the index of the leaf reached by the *i*'th ball in v's list of balls.
- 2. We now partition  $\mathcal{Q}$  into one set  $\mathcal{Q}_b$  for each leaf index b. The set  $\mathcal{Q}_b$  contains all pairs  $(q_i^v, b') \in \mathcal{Q}$  such that b' = b. There are precisely X empty such sets.
- 3. For each empty set  $Q_b$  in turn (ordered based on b), we use the bits written in step 3. of the encoding procedure to recover the rank of the ball reaching b amongst all balls in the root node's list of balls.
- 4. For every non-empty set  $\mathcal{Q}_b$ , pick an arbitrary pair  $(q_i^v, b) \in \mathcal{Q}_b$ . From this pair alone, we know that the ball reaching b has rank i amongst all balls ending in a leaf of the subtree rooted at v. Now initialize a counter  $\Delta$  to 0. Using the bits written in step 2. of the encoding procedure, we now go through all balls in the root node's list of balls in turn. For the r'th ball,  $r = 1, \ldots, n$ , we check the  $\lg n/2$  bits written for it and from this we determine if the ball reaches a leaf in v's subtree (possible since v can only be in the first  $\lg n/2$  levels by construction). If so, we increment  $\Delta$  by 1. If this causes  $\Delta$  to reach i, we conclude that the ball ending in b has rank r in the root node's list of balls.
- 5. From the above steps, we have for every leaf b determined the rank of the ball reaching it amongst all balls in the root node's list of balls. This information completely specifies I.

Analysis. The encoding above costs

$$p(n \lg n / \lg^9 \lg n) + n \lg n/2 + X \lg n$$

bits. Now observe that if  $Q_b$  is empty for a leaf index b, this means  $Q_i^{Y^*}(b, I)$  is empty for every  $i \in \{0, \ldots, \lg n/(2Y^*) - 1\}$ . This gives  $L^{Y^*}(I) \leq n \lg n/Y^* - X(\lg n/(2Y^*))$ . But we know  $L^{Y^*}(I) \geq (1 - 1/\lg^2 \lg n)n \lg n/Y^*$  and we conclude

$$X \le 2n/\lg^2 \lg n$$

The encoding thus costs

$$n \lg n/2 + O(n \lg n/\lg^2 \lg n)$$

Since  $\lg(n!) = n \lg n - O(n)$ , we conclude that our encoding uses no more than

$$\lg(|\mathcal{I}^*|) - n \lg n/2 + O(n \lg n/ \lg^2 \lg n) = \lg(|\mathcal{I}^*|) - \Omega(n \lg n)$$

bits, which completes the proof.

We have thus shown  $t = \Omega(\lg \lg_w n / \lg \alpha)$  where  $\alpha = (Sw \lg^{18} \lg n) / (n \lg n)$ . In the word-RAM, we assume  $w = \Theta(\lg n)$  and the lower bound becomes the claimed  $t = \Omega(\lg \lg n / (\lg (S/n) + \lg \lg \lg n))$ .

#### 2.3 Eliminating Probes

In this section we prove Lemma 1. Recalling the intuition presented in Section 2.1, we want to show that for a data structure with few published bits, the different accepted queries reporting a fixed leaf index  $b \in [n]$ have to probe distinct cells in their first probe. If we can establish this, we can pick a small random sample of memory cells and there are many of the accepted queries that make their first probe in the sample.

To formalize the above, we define a memory cell c to be k-popular on input I, if at least k accepted queries make their first probe in c on I. Define for every query-support set  $Q_i^Y(b, I)$  the cell-support set  $C_i^Y(b, I)$  as the set of memory cells that are read in the first probe of a query in  $Q_i^Y(b, I)$  on input I. We measure to what extend the queries in  $Q_i^Y(b, I)$  probe distinct cells using the following definitions.

**Definition 2.** For an input I and value  $Y \in \{1, ..., \lg n\}$ , we say that a pair (b, i), where  $b \in [n]$  and  $i \in \{0, ..., \lg n/Y - 1\}$ , is Y-scattered on input I if one of the following three holds:

- 1.  $Q_i^Y(b, I)$  contains a query making 0 probes.
- 2.  $C_i^Y(b, I)$  contains a  $w^3$ -popular cell.
- 3.  $|C_i^Y(b, I)| \ge \alpha / \lg^6 \lg n$ .

We define the Y-scatter-number of I, denoted  $\Gamma^{Y}(I)$ , as the number of pairs (b,i) that are Y-scattered on I.

If a query makes zero probes, all the information needed to answer it is contained in the already published bits. There are very few  $w^3$ -popular cells, so publishing all of them costs few bits. Most interestingly, if the queries in each support  $Q_i^Y(b, I)$  set probe many distinct cells in their first probe (case 3.), then a random sample of cells will contain at least one of these cells with good probability.

We need the following lemma that captures the correspondence between large support on zoom level Y, the properties maintained by our Probe Elimination Lemma, and large scattering on a higher zoom level  $\alpha Y$ .

**Lemma 2.** Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be a set of inputs to the ball-inheritance problem where  $|\mathcal{I}| \geq n!/2^n$ . Assume a ball-inheritance data structure uses S cells of w bits, has  $p < n \lg n / \lg^9 \lg n$  published bits and satisfies  $L^Y(I) \geq (1 - 1/Z)n \lg n/Y$  for all  $I \in \mathcal{I}$  for some parameters  $Z \geq 2$  and  $64 \lg w \leq Y \leq \lg n/\alpha$ , where  $\alpha = (Sw \lg^{18} \lg n)/(n \lg n)$ . Then there exists a subset  $\mathcal{I}^* \subseteq \mathcal{I}$  of inputs such that  $|\mathcal{I}^*| \geq |\mathcal{I}|/2$  and

$$\Gamma^{\alpha Y}(I) \ge \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{Z}\right) \cdot \frac{n \lg n}{\alpha Y}.$$

for all  $I \in \mathcal{I}^*$ .

We defer the proof of Lemma 2 to Section 2.4, and use it to prove Lemma 1 instead. Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be a set of at least  $n!/2^n$  inputs to the ball inheritance problem. Assume furthermore we are given a ball inheritance data structure that uses S cells of w bits, answers queries in t probes, has  $p < n \lg n/\lg^9 \lg n$  published bits, and satisfies  $L^Y(I) \ge (1-1/Z)n \lg n/Y$  for all  $I \in \mathcal{I}$  for some parameters  $Z \ge 2$  and  $64 \lg w \le Y \le \lg n/\alpha$  where  $\alpha = (Sw \lg^{18} \lg n)/(n \lg n)$  (as in the assumptions of Lemma 1 and Lemma 2). Let  $\mathcal{I}^* \subseteq \mathcal{I}$  be the subset of  $\mathcal{I}$  promised by Lemma 2. Our goal is to construct a new ball inheritance data structure answering queries in t-1 probes for the inputs  $\mathcal{I}^*$  while publishing few bits and keeping  $L^{\alpha Y}(I)$  fairly large for all  $I \in \mathcal{I}^*$ . Given an input  $I \in \mathcal{I}^*$ , we keep the (old) p published bits and publish some additional bits from our data structure as follows:

- 1. First we publish all memory cells that are  $w^3$ -popular on input *I*. Since there are no more than  $n \lg n$  accepted queries, there are no more than  $n \lg n/w^3$  popular cells. The addresses and contents of all such cells can be described using  $O(n \lg n/w^2) = O(n/\lg n)$  bits.
- 2. Next we collect all  $\alpha Y$ -scattered pairs (b, i) for input I. We remove those pairs for which  $Q_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  contains a query making 0 probes, or  $C_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  contains a  $w^3$ -popular cell. By definition, the remaining  $\alpha Y$ -scattered pairs (b, i) must satisfy  $|C_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)| \geq \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n$ . We now consider all subsets of  $n \lg n/(w \lg^{10} \lg n)$  memory cells and publish the subset  $P^* \subseteq [S]$  for which most remaining pairs (b, i) satisfies  $C_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I) \cap P^* \neq \emptyset$ . Specifying the addresses and contents of cells in  $P^* \operatorname{costs} O(n \lg n/\lg^{10} \lg n)$  bits.

The query algorithm of our modified data structure is simple: We start running the old query algorithm with the p "old" published bits and stop once one of the following happens:

- 1. If the old query algorithm rejects the query, we also reject it.
- 2. If the old query algorithm answers the query without any probes, we know the answer to the query and return it.
- 3. Otherwise the old query algorithm makes at least one memory probe. The (address of the) first cell probed, denoted c, can be determined solely from the old published bits. Before making the actual probe, we check the newly published cells to see if c is amongst them. If so, we have the contents of c in the published bits and therefore skip the probe. We then continue executing the old query algorithm and have successfully reduced the number of probes by one. If c was not published, we simply reject the query.

Clearly our new data structure answers queries in t-1 probes and has  $p + O(n \lg n/\lg^{10} \lg n)$  published bits. What remains is to argue that  $L^{\alpha Y}(I)$  is high for all  $I \in \mathcal{I}^*$  for this new data structure. To distinguish the new data structure and the old, we use  $\overline{L}, \overline{Q}$  and  $\overline{\Gamma}$  in place of L, Q and  $\Gamma$  when referring to the new data structure. L, Q and  $\Gamma$  refers to the old data structure.

So fix an  $I \in \mathcal{I}^*$ . By our choice of  $\mathcal{I}^*$ , we have

$$\Gamma^{\alpha Y}(I) \ge \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{Z}\right) \cdot \frac{n \lg n}{\alpha Y}$$

i.e. the old data structure has many pairs (b, i) that are  $\alpha Y$ -scattered on input I. By definition of  $\bar{L}^{\alpha Y}(I)$ , we need to lower bound the number of such pairs (b, i) that have  $\bar{Q}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  non-empty, i.e. at least one query reporting b in tree-levels  $\{i\alpha Y, \ldots, (i+1)\alpha Y-1\}$  is accepted by our new query algorithm. For this, let (b, i) be a pair that was  $\alpha Y$ -scattered for I in the old data structure. By definition of  $\alpha Y$ -scattered we know that  $Q_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  is non-empty. Now observe that if  $Q_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  contains a query that made 0 probes, then that query is also in  $\bar{Q}^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$ . Similarly if  $Q_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  contains a query making its first probe in a  $w^3$ -popular cell, then that query is also in  $\bar{Q}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  since we publish all  $w^3$ -popular cells. Hence  $\bar{Q}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  can be empty only if  $Q_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  contains no queries making 0 probes and no queries probing a  $w^3$ -popular cell. Since (b, i) was  $\alpha Y$ -scattered, this implies  $|C_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)| \ge \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n$ . Furthermore, we get that  $\bar{Q}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  becomes empty only if none of these cells are in  $P^*$ .

Letting  $\mu = n \lg n/(w \lg^{10} \lg n)$ , we get that  $C_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  has a non-zero intersection with the following fraction of  $\mu$ -sized cell sets:

$$1 - \frac{\binom{S - |C_i^{\alpha Y}(b,I)|}{\mu}}{\binom{S}{\mu}} \ge 1 - \frac{(S - \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n)!(S - \mu)!\mu!}{S!(S - \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n - \mu)!\mu!} \ge 1 - \frac{(S - \mu)^{\alpha/\lg^6} \lg n}{(S - \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n)^{\alpha/\lg^6} \lg n} = 1 - \left(\frac{S - \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n + \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n - \mu}{S - \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n}\right)^{\alpha/\lg^6 \lg n} = 1 - \left(1 - \frac{\mu - \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n}{S - \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n}\right)^{\alpha/\lg^6 \lg n}.$$

Since  $\alpha = (Sw\lg^{18}\lg n)/(n\lg n) = S\lg^8\lg n/\mu \ll \mu/2,$  this is at least a

$$1 - \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{2S}\right)^{\alpha/\lg^6 \lg n} \ge 1 - \exp\left(-\alpha\mu/(2S\lg^6 \lg n)\right) \ge 1 - 1/\lg n$$

fraction. Since we chose  $P^*$  to maximize the number sets  $C_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  having a non-empty intersection, we conclude that at least

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{\lg n}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{Z}\right) \cdot \frac{n \lg n}{\alpha Y} \ge \left(1 - \frac{1}{Z} - \frac{2}{Z \lg^3 \lg n}\right) \frac{n \lg n}{\alpha Y}$$

sets  $\bar{Q}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  must be non-empty. Since  $Z \geq 2$ , we finally conclude

$$\bar{L}^{\alpha Y}(I) \geq \left(1 - \frac{1}{Z} - \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n}\right) \frac{n \lg n}{\alpha Y}$$

#### 2.4 High Scattering

In the following, we prove Lemma 2, i.e. that many queries have to be scattered. The proof is based on an encoding argument. Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be a set of inputs to the ball-inheritance problem such that  $|\mathcal{I}| \ge n!/2^n$  and consider a data structure with S cells of w bits,  $p < n \lg n/\lg^9 \lg n$  published bits and  $L^Y(I) \ge (1-1/Z)n \lg n/Y$  for all  $I \in \mathcal{I}$ , for some parameters  $Z \ge 2$  and  $64 \lg w \le Y \le \lg n/\alpha$  where  $\alpha = (Sw \lg^{18} \lg n)/(n \lg n)$ . Assume for contradiction that the data structure also satisfies:

$$\Gamma^{\alpha Y}(I) < \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{Z}\right) \cdot \frac{n \lg n}{\alpha Y} \tag{1}$$

for more than  $|\mathcal{I}|/2$  of the inputs  $I \in \mathcal{I}$ . We call such inputs *interesting*. We show that all interesting inputs can be uniquely encoded (and decoded) into a string of less than  $\lg(n!) - n - 1 \leq \lg(|\mathcal{I}|) - 1$  bits. This is clearly a contradiction since there are more than  $|\mathcal{I}|/2$  interesting inputs. For the remainder of the section, we implicitly work with this contradictory data structure, e.g. whenever we say an interesting input, we mean an interesting input for the contradictory data structure satisfying all of the above.

The encoding we present below exploits that an interesting input must have many leaf indices  $b \in [n]$  that are not  $\alpha Y$ -scattered and at the same time, the Y-level-support of b is high. These two properties combined implies that such a leaf b is reported by many queries that read within a small set of non-popular cells. Thus the data structure has in some sense managed to *route* queries reporting the same leaf to the same memory cell. This should not be possible if the queries are sufficiently far apart in the ball-inheritance tree, at least not without a large number of published bits, see the intuition in Section 2.1. Turning this into a concrete property we can use in an encoding argument requires a few definitions.

**Definition 3.** Let I be an interesting input and let  $(q_1, q_2)$  be a pair of queries. We say that  $(q_1, q_2)$  is a ball-edge if  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  report the same leaf index on input I, and furthermore,  $q_1$  is at a higher level in the ball-inheritance tree than  $q_2$ . The length of a ball-edge  $(q_1, q_2)$  is the number of levels between  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  in the ball-inheritance tree. Ball-edges of length 1 are called regular edges and ball-edges longer than 1 are called shortcut edges.

**Observation 1.** Let I be an interesting input. Then I is uniquely determined from the set of all the  $n \lg n$  regular ball-edges.

Proof. From the set of all regular edges  $(q_{1,1}, q_{1,2}), \ldots, (q_{n \lg n,1}, q_{n \lg n,2})$  we find all pairs  $(q_{i,1}, q_{i,2}), (q_{j,1}, q_{j,2})$ such that  $q_{i,2} = q_{j,1}$ . Collectively, all these pairs form n paths  $P_0, \ldots, P_{n-1}$ , each of length  $\lg n$ . All the queries in a path  $P_i$  must necessarily report the same leaf index, and no query in a path  $P_j$ , where  $j \neq i$ , reports the same leaf index. Each path  $P_i$  has the form  $(q_0, q_1), (q_1, q_2), \ldots, (q_{\lg n-1}, q_{\lg n})$ , where  $q_i$  is a query at the *i*'th level of the ball-inheritance tree. Now recall that a query q is specified by a node in the ball-inheritance tree and an index (rank) into that node's list of balls. Thus the query  $q_{\lg n}$  tells us the leaf index b returned by all queries in  $P_i$  on input I. The query  $q_0$  tells us the rank of the ball reaching b in the root's ball list (the rank amongst all balls). This information for every b specifies I completely.

With Observation 1 in mind, we set out to give a succinct encoding of all regular ball-edges. The trick is to encode a set of shortcut edges cheaply and use the information they provide to avoid explicitly encoding the regular edges spanning the same subset of tree levels. For the shortcut edges to collectively save many bits, we need them to be non-overlapping in the following sense:

**Definition 4.** Let  $(q_1, q_2)$  and  $(q_3, q_4)$  be two ball-edges and let  $\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3$  and  $\ell_4$  denote the tree levels where queries  $q_1, q_2, q_3$  and  $q_4$  are asked respectively. Then the two edges are non-overlapping if either the queries return different leaf indices, or if the two sets of level indices  $\{\ell_1, \ell_1 + 1, \ldots, \ell_2\}$  and  $\{\ell_3, \ell_3 + 1, \ldots, \ell_4\}$  spanned by the edges have an intersection of size at most 1. Otherwise, they are overlapping.

We are finally ready to state the main lemma allowing us to compress interesting inputs during our encoding steps:

Lemma 3. Let I be an interesting input. Then there exists a set of shortcut edges

$$P = \{(q_{1,1}, q_{1,2}), \dots, (q_{m,1}, q_{m,2})\}$$

of lengths  $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_m$  satisfying the following:

- 1. All edges in P are non-overlapping.
- 2.  $\ell_i \geq 64 \lg w$  for all i.
- 3.  $\sum_{i} \ell_i = \Omega(n \lg n / \lg^8 \lg n).$
- 4. For all i, the queries  $q_{i,1}$  and  $q_{i,2}$  make their first probe in the same cell on input I, and that cell is not  $w^3$ -popular.

Note that this in particular implies that all the queries promised by 3 are accepted for input I since they all make at least 1 probe. We defer the proof of Lemma 3 to Section 2.5 and instead move on to show how we use it in our encoding and decoding procedures to obtain an encoding of each interesting input in less than  $\lg(n!) - n - 1$  bits. As remarked earlier, we encode the set of all regular edges, which by Observation 1 allows us to recover the interesting input. There are two main ideas to have in mind: First, we will use a shortcut edge of length  $\ell_i$  to avoid explicitly encoding the  $\ell_i$  overlapping regular edges. Assuming a saving of one bit per regular edge, we save a total of  $\sum_i \ell_i$  bits. Secondly, each edge  $(q_{i,1}, q_{i,2}) \in P$  consists of two queries probing the same cell, and that cell is not  $w^3$ -popular. Since less than  $w^3$  queries probe that cell, the edge can be encoded in  $6 \lg w$  bits by specifying it as a pair amongst the queries probing the cell. Thus encoding a shortcut edge saves us  $\ell_i - 6 \lg w = \Omega(\ell_i)$  bits. Summed over all shortcut edges gives us a saving of  $\Omega(\sum_i \ell_i)$  bits in total. This saving happens precisely because the data structure was able to route distant queries reporting the same leaf index to the same memory cells, and that memory cell is read by only few queries.

**Encoding.** In this paragraph, we show how we encode the regular edges for a given interesting input I. The encoding uses the set of shortcut edges P promised by Lemma 3.

From I, define for every memory cell c (which is also an index in [S]), the set  $V_c$  consisting of all (accepted) queries making their first probe in c on input I. Also let  $W_c \subset V_c \times V_c$  denote the set of shortcut edges  $(q_1, q_2) \in P$  such that  $q_1, q_2 \in V_c$ . Note that  $W_c$  is non-empty only for cells c that are not  $w^3$ -popular and every shortcut edge  $(q_1, q_2) \in P$  is contained in precisely one set  $W_c$ .

With these definitions, our encoding procedure is as follows:

- 1. First we write down the published bits on input *I*. This costs no more than  $n \lg n / \lg^9 \lg n + O(\lg n)$  bits (the  $O(\lg n)$  bits specify the number of published bits).
- 2. Next we write down a bit vector v with S bits, one for each memory cell. The c'th bit is 1 iff  $W_c$  is non-empty (which also implies that c is not  $w^3$ -popular).
- 3. Now for  $c = 0, \ldots, S-1$  in turn, we check whether the *c*'th bit of *v* is 1. If so, we first write down  $|W_c|$ . Note that if the *c*'th bit is 1, then *c* is not  $w^3$ -popular. Therefore  $|W_c| \le |V_c|^2 \le w^6$  and the counter takes only  $6 \lg w$  bits. After having written down the count, we write down each of the shortcut edges  $W_c$ . Each such shortcut edge is specified using  $2 \lg |V_c| \le 6 \lg w$  bits by writing down the corresponding pair of queries in  $V_c$ .
- 4. The final step encodes a subset of the regular edges. This is done by recursively visiting the nodes of the ball-inheritance tree, starting at the root. For a node v at depth d, the encoding procedure does as follows: Let  $q_1, \ldots, q_{n/2^d}$  denote the sorted list of queries at v, i.e.  $q_i$  asks for the leaf index reached by the *i*'th ball in v's ball list. Go through the queries in turn from  $i = 1, \ldots, n/2^d$ . For each  $q_i$ , let  $(q_i, \text{dest}(q_i))$  denote the regular edge having  $q_i$  as origin, i.e.  $\text{dest}(q_i)$  gives the query at depth d + 1 returning the same leaf index as  $q_i$  on input I. We now check whether there are any shortcut edges in P that overlap with  $(q_i, \text{dest}(q_i))$ . If not, we append one bit to the encoding, specifying whether  $\text{dest}(q_i)$  is a query in the left child or the right child of v. Otherwise (there is an overlapping shortcut edge), we do not write any bits for  $q_i$ . We then recurse on the two children of v (first the left, then the right), using their respective sorted lists of queries. The recursion ends when reaching the leaves.

**Decoding.** In the following, we show how we recover all the regular edges from the encoding above. By Observation 1 this also recovers I. The decoding procedure is as follows:

- 1. First we read the published bits from the encoding. From the published bits alone, we determine for every query whether it is accepted or not, and which cell it probes first in case it is accepted. From this information, we can reconstruct the sets  $V_c$  for all c.
- 2. Next we read the bit vector v specified in step 2. of the encoding procedure. This tells us which cells c that are not  $w^3$ -popular and where  $W_c$  is non-empty. For each such cell c in turn, we recover  $W_c$  from the bits written in step 3. of the encoding procedure. Since  $\bigcup_c W_c = P$ , we have also recovered P.
- 3. Our last decoding step recovers the regular edges. We do this recursively, starting at the root node:
  - For a node v at depth d in the ball-inheritance tree (starting at the root), let  $q_1, \ldots, q_{n/2^d}$  denote the sorted list of queries at v, i.e.  $q_i$  asks for the leaf reached by the *i*'th ball in v's list of balls. Now for  $i = 1, \ldots, n/2^d$  in turn, consider the query  $q_i$  and assume we have already recovered all regular edges having an origin in an ancestor of v and all regular edges having a query  $q_{i'}$  as origin, where i' < i.

From the already recovered regular edges, we determine the sequence of regular edges

$$A(q_i) = (p_0, p_1), (p_1, p_2), \dots, (p_{d-1}, q_i)$$

corresponding to the same ball as  $q_i$  on input I ( $p_{d'}$  is the query at level d' < d returning the same leaf index as  $q_i$  on input I). Observe that we can determine this sequence since the origin of each edge is the destination of the preceding edge.

We also count the number of indices i' < i such that  $q_{i'}$  returns a leaf in the left subtree of v (this can be seen directly from the regular edges already recovered for all  $q_{i'}$  with i' < i). Denote this number of indices by R.

Next we determine whether  $q_i$  returns a leaf index in the left or right subtree. This is done as follows: First we check if there is a shortcut edge  $(p, r) \in P$  that overlaps with the edge  $(q_i, \operatorname{dest}(q_i))$  (we still do not know  $\operatorname{dest}(q_i)$ ). This is done by examining each query p in the edges of  $A(q_i)$  (including  $q_i$ itself) and checking if there is shortcut edge  $(p, r) \in P$  having p as origin. If so, we check the depth of r (since r is a query, and queries are specified by a node in the ball-inheritance tree, this information is available). If the depth is greater than d, we conclude that (p, r) overlaps with  $(q_i, \operatorname{dest}(q_i))$ . Otherwise it does not. If there was an overlapping shortcut edge  $(p, r) \in P$ , r tells us the subtree containing the leaf returned by  $q_i$ . Otherwise, we read off the next bit of the part of the encoding written in step 4. of the encoding procedure. This bit tells us the subtree containing the leaf index returned by  $q_i$ . Let w denote the child of v whose subtree contains the leaf returned by  $q_i$ . If w is a left child, let  $\Delta = R$ denote the number of indices i' < i such that  $q_{i'}$  also returns a leaf index in w's subtree. If w is a right child, we have  $\Delta = i - 1 - R$ .

Now observe that since the ordering of balls remains the same in each sublist,  $q'_{\Delta} = \text{dest}(q_i)$ , where  $q'_{\Delta}$  is the  $\Delta$ 'th query in w's list of queries. Hence we have recovered the regular edge  $(q_i, \text{dest}(q_i)) = (q_i, q'_{\Delta})$ . After processing all  $i = 1, \ldots, n/2^d$ , we recurse to the two children of v (first the left and then the right). When the entire process terminates, we have recovered all the regular edges and hence I.

Analysis. What remains is to analyze the size of the encoding and derive a contradiction. Step 1. of the encoding procedure costs at most  $n \lg n/\lg^9 \lg n + O(\lg n)$  bits. Step 2. costs S bits. For step 3., observe that the 6 lg w bit counter for  $|W_c|$  can be charged to at least one shortcut edge in P. Similarly, each shortcut edge specified in step 3. also costs at most 6 lg w bits. But each shortcut edge has length at least 64 lg w and hence the total number of bits written down in step 3. is bounded by  $\sum_i \ell_i \cdot (12/64) = (3/16) \cdot \sum_i \ell_i$ . For step 4., note that a regular edge only adds a bit to the encoding size if it is not overlapping with any of the shortcut edges in P. But the shortcut edges in P are non-overlapping themselves and the *i*'th such edge overlaps with  $\ell_i$  regular edges. Thus step 4. costs at most  $n \lg n - \sum_i \ell_i$  bits. Summarizing, the encoding uses:  $n \lg n + n \lg n/\lg^9 \lg n + S - \Omega(\sum_i \ell_i)$  bits. Since  $w = \Omega(\lg n)$ , and  $\alpha = (Sw \lg^{18} \lg n)/(n \lg n) \le \lg n$  implies  $S = O(n \lg n/\lg^{18} \lg n)$ , we conclude that our encoding uses  $n \lg n - \Omega(n \lg n/\lg^8 \lg n)$  bits. But  $n \lg n \le \lg(n!) + \Theta(n)$  and thus we have arrived at a contradiction since our encoding uses  $\lg(n!) - \omega(n)$  bits.

#### 2.5 Finding Shortcut Edges

This section is devoted to the proof of Lemma 3. Recall that an interesting input I satisfies:

1.  $L^{Y}(I) \ge (1 - 1/Z)n \lg n/Y.$ 2.  $\Gamma^{\alpha Y}(I) < \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lg^{3} \lg n}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{Z}\right) \cdot \frac{n \lg n}{\alpha Y}.$ 

for some  $64 \lg w \leq Y \leq \lg n/\alpha$ , where  $\alpha = (Sw \lg^{18} \lg n)/(n \lg n)$ . The first step in finding the set of regular edges P claimed by Lemma 3 is to show that there must be many leaf indices b that are not  $\alpha Y$ -scattered, and at the same time has high Y-level support (there is a query reporting it in many levels of the tree). Formally, we show:

**Lemma 4.** Let I be an interesting input. Then there is at least  $\frac{n \lg n}{\alpha Y \lg^4 \lg n}$  pairs  $(b,i) \in [n] \times [\lg n/(\alpha Y)]$ , such that:

- 1. (b, i) is not  $\alpha Y$ -scattered.
- 2. There are at least  $\alpha/\lg^4 \lg n$  indices  $j \in [\alpha]$  such that  $Q_{i\alpha+j}^Y(b,I)$  is non-empty.

*Proof.* Let  $(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{i})$  be uniform random in  $[n] \times [\lg n/(\alpha Y)]$  and let  $\mathbf{X}$  be the random variable giving the number of indices  $j \in [\alpha]$  such that  $Q_{\mathbf{i}\alpha+j}^Y(\mathbf{b}, I)$  is *empty*. By linearity of expectation, we have  $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}] \leq \alpha/Z$ . Furthermore,  $\mathbf{X}$  is non-negative, thus we may use Markov's inequality to conclude:

$$\Pr\left[\mathbf{X} > \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lg^4 \lg n}\right) \cdot \alpha\right] < \frac{1}{(1 - 1/\lg^4 \lg n)Z}$$

At the same time, we have

$$\Pr[(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{i}) \text{ is not } \alpha Y \text{-scattered}] > 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{Z}\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{Z} + \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n} - \frac{1}{Z \lg^3 \lg n}.$$

From a union bound, it follows that

$$\Pr\left[\mathbf{X} \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lg^4 \lg n}\right) \cdot \alpha \bigwedge(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{i}) \text{ is not } \alpha Y \text{-scattered}\right] \geq 1 - \frac{1}{(1 - 1/\lg^4 \lg n)Z} - \left(1 - \frac{1}{Z} - \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n} + \frac{1}{Z \lg^3 \lg n}\right) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{1 - 1/\lg^4 \lg n} - \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{Z} + \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n} = \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n} - \left(\frac{1}{\lg^4 \lg n(1 - 1/\lg^4 \lg n)} + \frac{1}{\lg^3 \lg n}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{Z} = \frac{1}{\lg^4 \lg n}$$

Here the last inequality follows from  $Z \ge 2$ . Since  $(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{i})$  is uniform random, the lemma follows.

We call the pairs  $(b,i) \in [n] \times [\lg n/(\alpha Y)]$  that satisfy the properties in Lemma 4 compressable pairs. For each compressable pair we define the *representative query set*, denoted  $\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$ , as the set consisting of one query from each non-empty set  $Q_{i\alpha+j}^Y(b, I)$  where  $j \in [\alpha]$  (the choice of query from  $Q_{i\alpha+j}^Y(b, I)$  is irrelevant). Define also the set of cells  $\mathcal{M}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  consisting of the first cell probed by each query in  $\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  on input I. The representative query sets have the following properties:

**Lemma 5.** Let  $(b,i) \in [n] \times [\lg n/(\alpha Y)]$  be a compressable pair for an interesting input I. Then

- 1.  $|\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)| \ge \alpha / \lg^4 \lg n.$
- 2.  $|\mathcal{M}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)| \le \alpha / \lg^6 \lg n.$
- 3. There are no queries in  $\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  that makes 0 probes on input I.
- 4.  $\mathcal{M}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  does not contain a  $w^3$ -popular cell.

*Proof.* Property 1. follows from property 2. in Lemma 4. Since  $\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I) \subseteq Q_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  it follows that  $\mathcal{M}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I) \subseteq C_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  and thus from property 1. in Lemma 4 and property 3. in Definition 2 we conclude  $|\mathcal{M}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)| \leq \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n$ . Property 3. and 4. follows from the same argument.

Lemma 5 sets the stage for finding the shortcut edges P. Examining the lemma, we see that properties 1. and 2. together imply that there must be many queries in levels  $[i\alpha Y : (i+1)\alpha Y - 1]$  that report b and at the same time probe a small set of cells (several of them must probe the same cell). In addition, the probed memory cells are not  $w^3$ -popular as required by Lemma 3.

Now consider a compressable pair  $(b,i) \in [n] \times [\lg n/(\alpha Y)]$  for an interesting input I. Assume

$$(q_{1,1}, q_{1,2}), \ldots, (q_{m,1}, q_{m,2})$$

is a set of shortcut edges where each  $(q_{j,1}, q_{j,2})$  consists of a pair of queries in  $\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$ . Then that shortcut edge is non-overlapping with any shortcut edge defined from queries in another set  $\mathcal{R}_{i'}^{\alpha Y}(b', I)$  where at least one of i' and b' is different from i and b respectively. To see this, observe that if  $b' \neq b$ , then the edges are non-overlapping since the corresponding queries report different leaf indices. If  $i' \neq i$ , then the set of levels spanned by the edges are disjoint since any query in  $\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  must be in levels  $[i\alpha Y : (i+1)\alpha Y-1]$ . With this insight, we set out to construct non-overlapping edges for each  $\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  where (b, i) is a compressable pair. Taking the union of the constructed sets leaves us with a set of shortcut edges that is still non-overlapping.

Finding Shortcut Edges for a Compressable Pair. Let  $(b,i) \in [n] \times [\lg n/(\alpha Y)]$  be a compressable pair. We collect shortcut edges  $(q_1, q_2)$  such that both  $q_1, q_2 \in \mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  and  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  make their first probe in the same cell in  $\mathcal{M}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  on input *I*. While finding these shortcut edges, we ensure they are non-overlapping and that the sum of their lengths is large.

Our procedure for constructing a set of shortcut edges E is as follows: Let  $m = |\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)|$  and order the queries in  $\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  by depth in the ball-inheritance tree. Let  $q_1, \ldots, q_m$  denote the resulting sequence of queries where  $q_1$  is at the lowest depth (closest to the root). Now initialize  $j \leftarrow 1$  and iteratively consider query  $q_j$ : When examining query  $q_j$ , let  $c \in \mathcal{M}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  be the first cell probed by  $q_j$  and let  $V_c \subseteq \mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$ be the subset of queries in  $\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  that also make their first probe in c. If  $q_j$  is amongst the deepest 2 queries in  $V_c$ , we simply continue by setting  $j \leftarrow j + 1$ . Otherwise, let  $q_h$  be the deepest query in  $V_c$ . We add the shortcut edge  $(q_j, q_h)$  to E and update  $j \leftarrow h$ . This procedure terminates when j = m.

Lemma 6. The above procedure outputs a set of shortcut edges E such that:

- 1. The edges in E are non-overlapping.
- 2. The sum of their lengths is  $\Omega(\alpha Y/\lg^4 \lg n)$ .
- 3. Each edge has length at least  $Y \ge 64 \lg w$ .
- 4. For each edge  $(q_1, q_2) \in E$ , the queries  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  make their first probe in the same cell, and that cell is not  $w^3$ -popular.

*Proof.* Property 1. and 4. follows trivially from the construction algorithm. Property 3. follows since each added edge is amongst a pair of queries with at least one query from  $\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  in between. But the queries in  $\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  all appear in distinct  $Q_{i'}^Y(b, I)$  and hence each edge in E must have length at least  $Y \ge 64 \lg w$ .

For property 2., define for each edge  $e = (q_{j_1}, q_{j_2}) \in E$  the set of queries  $Q_e \subseteq \mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$  for which each  $q \in Q_e$  appears in a tree level in between the levels of  $q_{j_1}$  and  $q_{j_2}$ . By the arguments above, the length of e must be at least  $Y|Q_e|$ . Thus we bound  $\sum_{e \in E} |Q_e|$ . For this, let  $j_1, j_2, \ldots, j_k$  be the distinct values taken

by the variable j in the construction algorithm above. We have  $\sum_{e \in E} |Q_e| = \sum_{h=2}^k (j_h - j_{j-1} - 1)$ . This is bounded by  $\left(\sum_{h=2}^k (j_h - j_{h-1})\right) - (k-1) \ge j_k - j_1 - k + 1 = m - k$ . What remains is to bound k. Observe that for each cell  $c \in \mathcal{M}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)$ , there are only two of the queries in  $V_c$  that can cause j to be incremented by less than 2. Therefore we must have  $k \le 2|\mathcal{M}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)| + m/2$ . But  $m = |\mathcal{R}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)| \ge \alpha/\lg^4 \lg n$  and  $|\mathcal{M}_i^{\alpha Y}(b, I)| \le \alpha/\lg^6 \lg n$  by Lemma 5. Hence we conclude that the sum of the lengths of edges in E is lower bounded by  $\Omega(\alpha Y/\lg^4 \lg n)$ .

By Lemma 4, we have at least  $n \lg n/(\alpha Y \lg^4 \lg n)$  compressable pairs. Taking the union of the edge sets constructed for each such pair completes the proof of Lemma 3.

### References

- S. Alstrup, G. S. Brodal, and T. Rauhe. New data structures for orthogonal range searching. In Proc. 41st IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science, pages 198–207, 2000.
- [2] L. Arge, V. Samoladas, and J. S. Vitter. On two-dimensional indexability and optimal range search indexing. In Proc. 18th ACM Symposium on Principles of Database Systems, pages 346–357, New York, NY, USA, 1999. ACM.
- [3] J. L. Bentley. Multidimensional binary search trees used for associative searching. Communications of the ACM, 18(9):509-517, 1975.
- [4] G. S. Brodal and K. G. Larsen. Optimal planar orthogonal skyline counting queries. In Proc. 14th Scandinavian Workshop on Algorithms Theory, pages 110–121, 2014.
- [5] T. M. Chan, K. Larsen, and M. Pătraşcu. Orthogonal range searching on the ram, revisited. In Proc. 27th ACM Symposium on Computational Geometry, pages 354–363, 2011. See also arXiv:1011.5200.
- [6] T. M. Chan and B. T. Wilkinson. Adaptive and approximate orthogonal range counting. In Proc. 24th ACM/SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms, pages 241–251, 2013.
- [7] B. Chazelle. Filtering search: a new approach to query answering. SIAM Journal on Computing, 15(3):703-724, 1986.
- [8] B. Chazelle. Lower bounds for orthogonal range searching: I. the reporting case. Journal of the ACM, 37(2):200-212, 1990.
- [9] J. Fischer. Optimal succinctness for range minimum queries. In Proc. 9th Latin American Theoretical Informatics Symposium, pages 158–169, 2010.
- [10] K. G. Larsen. Higher cell probe lower bounds for evaluating polynomials. In Proc. 53rd IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science, pages 293–301, 2012.
- [11] Y. Nekrich. Orthogonal range searching in linear and almost-linear space. Computational Geometry: Theory and Applications, 42:342–351, 2009.
- [12] M. Pătraşcu and M. Thorup. Time-space trade-offs for predecessor search. In Proc. 38th ACM Symposium on Theory of Computation, pages 232–240, 2006.
- [13] M. Pătraşcu and M. Thorup. Randomization does not help searching predecessors. In Proc. 18th ACM/SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms, pages 555–564, 2007.
- [14] Y. Wang and Y. Yin. Certificates in data structures. In Proc. 41st International Colloquium on Automata, Languages, and Programming, pages 1039–1050, 2014.
- [15] A. C. C. Yao. Should tables be sorted? Journal of the ACM, 28(3):615–628, 1981.