I/O-Efficient Planar Range Skyline and Attrition Priority Queues

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ABSTRACT

In the planar range skyline reporting problem, the goal is to store a set \( P \) of \( n \) 2D points in a structure such that, given a query rectangle \( Q = [\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times [\beta_1, \beta_2] \), the maxima (a.k.a. skyline) of \( P \cap Q \) can be reported efficiently. The query is \( 3 \)-sided if an edge of \( Q \) is grounded, giving rise to two variants: \textit{top-open} (\( \beta_2 = \infty \)) and \textit{left-open} (\( \alpha_1 = -\infty \)) (symmetrically \textit{bottom-open} and \textit{right-open}) queries.

This paper presents comprehensive results in external memory under the \( O(n/B) \) space budget (\( B \) is the block size), covering both the static and dynamic settings:

- For static \( P \), we give structures that answer top-open queries in \( O(\log_B n + k/B) \), \( O(\log_B U + k/B) \), and \( O(1 + k/B) \) I/Os when the universe is \( \mathbb{R}^2 \), a \( U \times U \) grid, and a rank space grid [\( O(n)^2 \)], respectively (where \( k \) is the number of reported points). The query complexity is optimal in all cases.

- We show that the left-open case is harder, such that any linear-size structure must incur \( \Omega((n/B)^{\epsilon} + k/B) \) I/Os to answer a query. In fact, this case turns out to be just as difficult as the general 4-sided queries, for which we provide a static structure with the optimal query cost \( O((n/B)^{\epsilon} + k/B) \).

- We present a dynamic structure that supports top-open queries in \( O(\log_B(n/B) + k/B^{1/2}) \) I/Os, and updates in \( O(\log_B(n/B)) \) I/Os, for any \( \epsilon \) satisfying \( 0 \leq \epsilon \leq 1 \). This result also leads to a dynamic structure for 4-sided queries with optimal query cost \( O((n/B)^{\epsilon} + k/B) \), and amortized update cost \( O(\log(n/B)) \).

As a contribution of independent interest, we propose an I/O-efficient version of the fundamental structure priority queue with attrition (PQA). Our PQA supports \textsc{FindMin}, \textsc{DeleteMin}, and \textsc{InsertAndAttrite} all in \( O(1) \) worst case I/Os, and \( O(1/B) \) amortized I/Os per operation. Furthermore, it allows the additional \textsc{CatenateAndAttrite} operation that merges two PQAs in \( O(1) \) worst case and \( O(1/B) \) amortized I/Os. The last operation is a non-trivial extension to the classic PQA of Sundar, even in internal memory.

Categories and Subject Descriptors

F.2.2 [Analysis of algorithms and problem complexity]: Nonnumerical Algorithms and Problems—computations on discrete structures; H.3.1 [Information storage and retrieval]: Content analysis and indexing—indexing methods

Keywords

Skyline, range reporting, priority queues, external memory, data structures

1. INTRODUCTION

Given two different points \( p = (x_p, y_p) \) and \( q = (x_q, y_q) \) in \( \mathbb{R}^2 \), where \( \mathbb{R} \) denotes the real domain, we say that \( p \) dominates \( q \) if \( x_p \geq x_q \) and \( y_p \geq y_q \). Let \( P \) be a set of \( n \) points in \( \mathbb{R}^2 \). A point \( p \in P \) is maximal if it is not dominated by any other point in \( P \). The skyline of \( P \) consists of all maximal points of \( P \). Notice that the skyline naturally forms an orthogonal staircase where increasing \( x \)-coordinates imply decreasing \( y \)-coordinates. Figure 1 shows an example where the maximal points are in black.

Given an axis-parallel rectangle \( Q \), a range skyline query (also known as a range maxima query) reports the skyline

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{range_skyline.png}
\caption{Range skyline queries.}
\end{figure}
of $P \cap Q$. In Figure 1, for instance, $Q$ is the shaded rectangle, and the two black points constitute the query result. When $Q$ is a 3-sided rectangle, a range skyline query becomes a top-open, right-open, bottom-open or left-open query, as shown in Figures 2a-2d respectively. A dominance (resp. anti-dominance) query $Q$ is a 2-sided rectangle with both the top and right (resp. the bottom and left) edges grounded, as shown in Figure 2e (resp. 2f). Another well-studied variation is the contour query, where $Q$ is a 1-sided rectangle that is the half-plane to the left of a vertical line (Figure 2g).

This paper studies linear-size data structures that can answer range skyline queries efficiently, in both the static and dynamic settings. Our analysis focuses on the external memory (EM) model 1, which has become the dominant computation model for studying I/O-efficient algorithms. In this model, a machine has $M$ words of memory, and a disk of an unbounded size. The disk is divided into disjoint blocks, each of which is formed by $B$ consecutive words. An I/O load a block of data from the disk to memory, or conversely, writes $B$ words from memory to a disk block. The space of a structure equals the number of blocks it occupies, while the cost of an algorithm equals the number of I/Os it performs.

CPU time is for free. By default, the data universe is $\mathbb{R}^2$. Given an integer $U > 0$, $[U]$ represents the set $\{0, 1, \ldots, U - 1\}$. All the above queries remain well defined in the universe $[U]^2$. Particularly, when $U = O(n)$, the universe is called rank space. In general, for a smaller universe, it may be possible to achieve better query cost under the same space budget. We consider that $P$ is in general position, i.e., no two points in $P$ have the same $x$- or $y$-coordinate (datasets not in general position can be supported by standard tie breaking). When the universe is $[U]^2$, we make the standard assumption that a machine word has at least $\log_2 U$ bits.

1.1 Motivation of 2D Range Skyline

Skylines have drawn very significant attention (see 7, 9, 13, 15, 18, 23, 24, 26, 27, 29, 31, 33, 35, and the references therein) from the research community due to their crucial importance to multi-criteria optimization, which in turn is vital to numerous applications. In particular, the rectangle of a range skyline query represents range predicates specified by a user. An effective index is essential for maximizing the efficiency of these queries in database systems.

This paper concentrates on 2D data for several reasons. First, planar range skyline reporting (i.e., our problem) is a classic topic that has been extensively studied in theory (9, 14, 15, 18, 23, 24, 26, 30). However, nearly all the existing results apply to internal memory (as reviewed in the next subsection), while currently there is little understanding about the characteristics of the problem in I/O environments.

The second, more practical, reason is that many skyline applications are inherently 2D. In fact, the special importance of 2D arises from the fact that one often faces the situation of having to strike a balance between a pair of naturally contradicting factors. A prominent example is price vs. quality in product selection. A range skyline query can be used to find the products that are not dominated by others in both aspects, when the price and quality need to fall in specific ranges. Other pairs of naturally contradicting factors include space vs. query time (in choosing data structures), privacy protection vs. disclosed information (the perpetual dilemma in privacy preservation), and so on.

The last reason, and maybe the most important, is that clearly range skyline reporting cannot become easier as the dimensionality increases, whereas even for two dimensions, we will prove a hardness result showing that the problem (unfortunately) is already difficult enough to forbid sub-polynomial query cost under the linear space budget! In other words, the “easiest” dimensionality of 2 is not so easy after all, which also points to the absence of query-efficient structures in any higher dimension when only linear space is permitted.

1.2 Previous Results

Range Skyline in Internal Memory. We first review the existing results when the dataset $P$ fits in main memory. Early research focused on dominance and contour queries, both of which can be solved in $O(\log n + k)$ time using a structure of $O(n)$ size, where $k$ is the number of points reported (14, 18, 23, 26, 30). Brodal and Tsakalidis 9 were the first to discover an optimal dynamic structure for top-open queries, which capture both dominance and contour queries as special cases. Their structure occupies $O(n)$ space, answers queries in $O(\log n + k)$ time, and supports updates in $O(\log \log n)$ time. The above structures belong to the pointer machine model. Utilizing features of the RAM model, Brodal and Tsakalidis 9 also presented an alternative structure in universe $[U]^2$, which uses $O(n)$ space, answers queries in $O(\frac{\log n}{\log \log n} + k)$ time, and can be updated in $O(\log \log n)$ time. In RAM, the static top-open problem can be easily settled using an RMQ (range minimum queries) structure (see, e.g., 40), which occupies $O(n)$ space and answers queries in $O(1 + k)$ time.

For general range skyline queries (i.e., 4-sided), all the known structures demand super-linear space. Specifically, Brodal and Tsakalidis 9 gave a pointer-machine structure of $O(n \log n)$ size, $O(\log^2 n + k)$ query time, and $O(\log^2 n)$ update time. Kalavagattu et al. 24 designed a static RAM-structure that occupies $O(n \log n)$ space and achieves query time $O(\log n + k)$. In rank space, Das et al. 15 proposed a static RAM-structure with $O(n \log \log n)$ space and $O(\frac{\log n}{\log \log n} + k)$ query time.

The above results also hold directly in external memory, but they are far from being satisfactory. In particular, all of them incur $\Omega(k)$ I/Os to report $k$ points. An I/O-efficient structure ought to achieve $O(k/B)$ I/Os for this purpose.

Range Skyline in External Memory. In contrast to internal memory where there exist a large number of re-
results, range skyline queries have not been well studied in external memory. As a naive solution, we can first scan the entire point set $P$ to eliminate the points falling outside the query rectangle $Q$, and then find the skyline of the remaining points by the fastest skyline algorithm [35] on non-preprocessed input sets. This expensive solution can incur $O((n/B) \log_B(n/B))$ I/Os.

Papadias et al. [31] described a branch-and-bound algorithm when the dataset is indexed by an R-tree [20]. The algorithm is heuristic and cannot guarantee better worst case query I/Os than the naive solution mentioned earlier. Different approaches have been proposed for skyline maintenance in external memory under various assumptions on the updates [22,31,37,39]. The performance of those methods, however, was again evaluated only experimentally on certain “representative” datasets. No I/O-efficient structure exists for answering range skyline queries even in sublinear I/Os under arbitrary updates.

**Priority Queues with Attrition (PQAs).** Let $S$ be a set of elements drawn from an ordered domain, and let $\min(S)$ be the smallest element in $S$. A PQA on $S$ is a data structure that supports the following operations:

- **FindMin:** Return $\min(S)$.
- **DeleteMin:** Remove and return $\min(S)$.
- **InsertAndAttrite:** Add a new element $e$ to $S$ and remove from $S$ all the elements at least $e$. After the operation, the new content is $S' = \{e' \in S \mid e' < e\} \cup \{e\}$. The elements $\{e' \in S \mid e' \geq e\}$ are attrited.

In internal memory, Sundar [36] described how to implement a PQA that supports all operations in $O(1)$ worst case time, and occupies $O(n-m)$ space after $n$ InsertAndAttrite and $m$ DeleteMin operations.

### 1.3 Our Results

This paper presents external memory data structures for solving the planar range skyline reporting problem using only linear space. At the core of one of these structures is a new PQA that supports the extra functionality of catenation. This PQA is a non-trivial extension of Sundar’s version [36]. It can be implemented I/O-efficiently, and is of independent interest due to its fundamental nature. Next, we provide an overview of our results.

**Static Range Skyline.** When $P$ is static, we describe several linear-size structures with the optimal query cost. Our structures also separate the hard variants of the problem from the easy ones.

For top-open queries, we present a structure that answers queries in optimal $O(\log_B n + k/B)$ I/Os (Theorem 1) when the universe is $\mathbb{R}^2$. To obtain the result, we give an elegant reduction of the problem to *segment intersection*, which can be settled by a *partially persistent B-tree* (PPB-tree) [6]. Furthermore, we show that this PPB-tree is (what we call) sort-aware *build-efficient* (SABE), namely, it can be constructed in linear I/Os, provided that $P$ is already sorted by $x$-coordinate (Theorem 1). The construction algorithm exploits several intrinsic properties of top-open queries, whereas none of the known approaches [21,17,38] for bulkloading a PPB-tree is SABE.

The above structure is *indivisible*, namely, it treats each coordinate as an atom by always storing it using an entire word. As the second step, we improve the top-open query overhead beyond the logarithmic bound when the data universe is small. Specifically, when the universe is $[U]^2$ where $U$ is an integer, we give a *divisible* structure with optimal $O(\log \log_B U + k/B)$ query I/Os (Corollary 1). In the rank space, we further reduce the query cost again optimally to $O(1 + k/B)$ (Theorem 2).

Clearly, top-open queries are equivalent to right-open queries by symmetry, and capture dominance and contour queries as special cases, so the results aforementioned are applicable to those variants immediately.

Unfortunately, fast query cost with linear space is impossible for the remaining variants under the well-known *indexability model* of [21] (all the structures in this paper belong to this model). Specifically, for anti-dominance queries, we establish a lower bound showing that every linear-size structure must incur $\Omega((n/B)^{1+\epsilon} + k/B)$ query I/Os in the worst case (Theorem 3), where $\epsilon > 0$ can be an arbitrarily small constant. Furthermore, we prove that this is tight, by giving a structure to answer a 4-sided query in $O((n/B)^{1+\epsilon} + k/B)$ I/Os (Theorem 5). Since 4-sided is more general than anti-dominance, these matching lower and upper bounds imply that they, as well as left- and bottom-open queries, have exactly the same difficulty.

The above 4-sided results also reveal a somewhat unexpected fact: planar range skyline reporting has precisely the same hardness as *planar range reporting* (where, given an axis-parallel rectangle $Q$, we want to find all the points in $P \cap Q$, instead of just the maxima; see [3,21] for the matching lower and upper bounds on planar range reporting). In other words, the extra skyline requirement does not alter the difficulty at all.

**Dynamic Range Skyline.** The aforementioned static structures cannot be updated efficiently when insertions and deletions occur in $P$. For top-open queries, we provide an alternative structure with fast worst case update overhead, at a minor expense of query efficiency. Specifically, our structure occupies linear space, is SABE, answers queries in $O(\log_B(n/B) + k/B^{1-\epsilon})$ I/Os, and supports updates in $O(\log_B(n/B))$ I/Os, where $\epsilon$ can be any parameter satisfying $0 \leq \epsilon \leq 1$ (Theorem 4). Note that setting $\epsilon = 0$ gives a

| query | insertion | deletion | remark |
|-------|-----------|----------|-------|
| $O(n/B)$ | $O(\log_B n + k/B)$ | - | optimal |
| $O(n/B)$ | $O(\log \log_B U + k/B)$ | - | optimal |
| $O(n/B)$ | $O(1 + k/B)$ | - | optimal |
| $\Omega((n/B)^{1+\epsilon} + k/B)$ | - | - | lower bound (indexability) |
| $O((n/B)^{1+\epsilon} + k/B)$ | - | - | optimal (indexability) |

*Table 1: Summary of our range skyline results (all complexities are in the worst case by default).*

| anti-dominance in $\mathbb{R}^2$ | $O(n/B)$ | $\Omega((n/B)^{1+\epsilon} + k/B)$ | - | - | lower bound (indexability) |
|----------------------------------|---------------|---------------------------------|-----------|-------------------|-------|
| 4-sided in $\mathbb{R}^2$       | $O(n/B)$ | $O(\log_B n + k/B)$ | - | - | optimal (indexability) |
| 4-sided in $\mathbb{R}^2$       | $O(n/B)$ | $O((n/B)^{1+\epsilon} + k/B)$ | - | - | optimal (indexability) |

Furthermore, we show that this PPB-tree is (what we call) sort-aware *build-efficient* (SABE), namely, it can be constructed in linear I/Os, provided that $P$ is already sorted by $x$-coordinate (Theorem 1). The construction algorithm exploits several intrinsic properties of top-open queries, whereas none of the known approaches [21,17,38] for bulkloading a PPB-tree is SABE.

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structure with query cost $O(\log(n/B) + k/B)$ and update cost $O(\log(n/B))$.

The combination of this structure and our (static) 4-sided structure leads to a dynamic 4-sided structure that uses linear space, answers queries optimally in $O((n/B)\log + k/B)$ I/Os, and supports updates in $O(\log(n/B))$ I/Os amortized (Theorem 6). Table 1 summarizes our structures.

Catenate Priority Queues with Attraction. A central ingredient of our dynamic structures is a new PQA that is more powerful than the traditional version of SUNDAR [36]. Specifically, besides FINDMIN, DELETEMIN and INSERTANDATTRITE (already reviewed in Section 1.2), it also supports:

- **CATENATEANDATTRITE**: Given two PQAs on sets $S_1$ and $S_2$, respectively, the operation returns a single PQA on $S = \{ e \in S_1 \mid e < \min(S_2) \} \cup S_2$. In other words, the elements in $\{ e \in S_1 \mid e \geq \min(S_2) \}$ are attrited.

We are not aware of any previous work that addressed the above operation, which turns out to be rather challenging even in internal memory.

Our structure, named I/O-efficient catenable priority queue with attraction (I/O-CPQA), supports all operations in $O(1)$ worst case and $O(1/B)$ amortized I/Os (the amortized bound requires that a constant number of blocks be pinned in main memory, which is a standard and compulsory assumption requires that a constant number of blocks be pinned in main memory). The space cost is $O((n-m)/B)$ after a INSERTANDATTRITE and CATENATEANDATTRITE operations, and after $m$ DELETEMIN operations.

2. SABE TOP-OPEN STRUCTURE

In this section, we describe a structure of linear size to answer a top-open query in $O(\log_B n + k/B)$ I/Os. The structure is SABE, namely, it can be constructed in linear I/Os provided that the input set $P$ is sorted by $x$-coordinate.

2.1 Reduction to Segment Intersection

We first describe a simple structure by converting top-open range skyline reporting to the segment intersection problem: the input is a set $S$ of horizontal segments in $\mathbb{R}^2$; given a vertical segment $q$, a query reports all the segments of $S$ intersecting $q$.

Given a point $p$ in $P$, denote by $\text{leftdom}(p)$ the leftmost point among all the points in $P$ dominating $p$. If such a point does not exist, $\text{leftdom}(p) = \text{nil}$. We convert $p$ to a horizontal segment $\sigma(p)$ as follows. Let $q = \text{leftdom}(p)$. If $q = \text{nil}$, then $\sigma(p) = [x_p, \infty] \times y_p$; otherwise, $\sigma(p) = [x_p, x_q] \times y_p$. Define $\Sigma(P) = \{ \sigma(p) \mid p \in P \}$, i.e., the set of segments converted from the points of $P$. See Figure 3 for an example.

Now, consider a top-open query with rectangle $Q = [a_1, a_2] \times [\beta, \infty]$. We answer it by performing segment intersection on $\Sigma(P)$. First, obtain $\beta'$ as the highest $y$-coordinate of the points in $P \cap Q$. Then, report all segments in $\Sigma(P)$ that intersect the vertical segment $a_2 \times [\beta, \beta']$. An example is shown in Figure 3.

**Lemma 1.** The query algorithm is correct.

**Proof.** Consider any point $p \in P$ and a top-open query with $Q = [a_1, a_2] \times [\beta, \infty]$. We show that our algorithm reports $p$ if and only if $p$ satisfies the query.

If direction: As $p$ satisfies the query, we know that $p \in Q$, $y_p \leq \beta'$, and $q = \text{leftdom}(p) \notin Q$. The last fact suggests that $x_q > a_2$ (if $q = \text{nil}$, define $x_q = \infty$). Hence, $\sigma(p) = [x_p, x_q] \times y_p$ intersects the vertical segment $a_2 \times [\beta, \beta']$, and thus, will be reported by our algorithm.

Only-if direction: Let $p$ be a point found by our algorithm, i.e., $\sigma(p) = [x_p, x_q] \times y_p$ intersects $a_2 \times [\beta, \beta']$, where $q = \text{leftdom}(p)$ (if $q$ does not exist, $x_q = \infty$). It follows that $x_p \leq a_2 < x_q$ and $\beta \leq y_p \leq \beta'$.

Next, we prove $a_1 \leq x_p$. Recall that $\beta'$ is the $y$-coordinate of the highest point $p'$ among all the points in $P \cap Q$. If $p = p'$, then $a_1 \leq x_p$ clearly holds. Otherwise, we know $y_p \leq y_{p'}$, which implies that $x_p > x_{p'}$. This is because if $x_p \leq x_{p'}$, then $p'$ dominates $p$, which (because $x_{p'} \leq a_2 < x_q$) contradicts the definition of $q$. Now, $x_p \geq a_1$ follows from $x_{p'} \geq a_1$.

So far we have shown that $p$ is covered by $Q$. It remains to prove that $p$ is not dominated by any point in $P \cap Q$. This is true because $a_2 < x_q$ suggests that the leftmost point in $P$ dominating $p$ must be outside $Q$. \hfill $\Box$

We can find $\beta''$ in $O(\log_B n)$ I/Os with a range-max query on a B-tree indexing the $x$-coordinates in $P$. For retrieving the segments intersecting $a_2 \times [\beta, \beta']$, we store $\Sigma(P)$ in a partially persistent B-tree (PPB-tree) [36]. As $\Sigma(P)$ has $n$ segments, the PPB-tree occupies $O(n/B)$ space and answers a segment intersection query in $O(\log_B n + k/B)$ I/Os. We thus have obtained a linear-size top-open structure with $O(\log_B n + k/B)$ query I/Os.

More effort, however, is needed to make the structure SABE. In particular, two challenges are to be overcome. First, we must generate $\Sigma(P)$ in linear I/Os. Second, the PPB-tree on $\Sigma(P)$ must be built with asymptotically the same cost (note that the range-max B-tree is already SABE). We will tackle these challenges in the rest of this section.

2.2 Computing $\Sigma(P)$

$\Sigma(P)$ is not an arbitrary set of segments. We observe:

**Lemma 2.** $\Sigma(P)$ has the following properties:

- **(Nesting)** for any two segments $s_1$ and $s_2$ in $\Sigma(P)$, their $x$-intervals are either disjoint, or such that one $x$-interval contains the other.

- **(Monotonic)** let $\ell$ be any vertical line, and $S(\ell)$ the set of segments in $\Sigma(P)$ intersected by $\ell$. If we sort the segments of $S(\ell)$ in ascending order of their $y$-coordinates, the lengths of their $x$-intervals are non-decreasing.

**Proof.** Nesting: Let $p_1$ and $p_2$ be the points such that $s_1 = \sigma(p_1)$ and $s_2 = \sigma(p_2)$. Assume without loss of generality...
We will build the desired sorted list of left and right endpoints combined. By merging the two lists, we obtain the previous subsection generates $\Sigma^($ of the left endpoints. On the other hand, our algorithm of First, $P$ by the left and right endpoints of the segments in $\Sigma^($. Let us briefly review the algorithm proposed in [6] to build a PPB-tree. The algorithm conceptually moves a vertical line $\ell$ from $x = -\infty$ to $\infty$. At any moment, it maintains a B-tree $T(\ell)$ on the y-coordinates of the segments in $S(\ell)$. We call $T(\ell)$ a snapshot B-tree. To do so, whenever $\ell$ hits the left (resp. right) endpoint of a segment $s$, it inserts (resp. deletes) the y-coordinate of $s$ in $T(\ell)$. The PPB-tree can be regarded as a space-efficient union of all the snapshot B-trees. The algorithm incurs $O(n \log_B n)$ I/Os because (i) there are $2n$ updates, and (ii) for each update, $O(\log_B n)$ I/Os are needed to locate the leaf node affected.

When $\Sigma(P)$ is nesting and monotonic, the construction can be significantly accelerated. A crucial observation is that any update to $S(\ell)$ happens only at the bottom of $\ell$. Specifically, whenever $\ell$ hits the left/right endpoint of a segment $s \in \Sigma(P)$, $s$ must be the lowest segment in $S(\ell)$. This implies that the leaf node of $T(\ell)$ to be altered must be the leftmost one in $T(\ell)$. Hence, we can find this leaf without any I/Os by buffering it in memory, in contrast to the $O(\log_B n)$ cost originally needed.

The other details are standard, and are sketched below assuming the knowledge of the classic algorithm in [6]. Whenever the leftmost leaf $u$ of $T(\ell)$ is full, we version copy it to $u'$, and possibly perform a split or merge, if $u'$ version-overflow or underflows, respectively. A version copy, split, and merge can all be handled in $O(1)$ I/Os, and can happen only $O(n/B)$ times. Therefore, the cost of building the leaf level is $O(n/B)$.

**Internal Levels.** The level-1 nodes can be built by exactly the same algorithm, but on a different set of segments $\Sigma_1$ which are generated from the leaf nodes of the PPB-tree. To explain, let us first review an intuitive way to visualize a node in a PPB-tree. A node $u$ can be viewed as a rectangle $r(u) = [x_1, x_2] \times [y_1, y_2]$ in $\mathbb{R}^2$, where $x_1$ (resp. $x_2$) is the position of $\ell$ when $u$ is created (resp. version copied), and $[y_1, y_2]$ represents the $y$-range of $u$ in all the snapshot B-trees where $u$ belongs. See Figure 4.

**2.3 Constructing the PPB-tree**

Remember that we need a PPB-tree $T$ on $\Sigma(P)$. The known algorithms for PPB-tree construction require super-linear I/Os even after sorting. Next, we show that the two properties of $\Sigma(P)$ in Lemma 2 allow building $T$ in linear I/Os. Let us number the leaf level as level 0. In general, the parent of a level-$i$ (i $\geq 0$) node is at level $i + 1$. We will build $T$ in a bottom-up manner, i.e., starting from the leaf level, then level 1, and so on.

**Leaf Level.** To create the leaf nodes, we need to first sort the left and right endpoints of the segments in $\Sigma(P)$ together by x-coordinate. This can be done in $O(n/B)$ I/Os as follows. First, $P$, which is sorted by x-coordinates, gives a sorted list of the left endpoints. On the other hand, our algorithm of the previous subsection generates $\Sigma(P)$ in non-descending order of the right endpoints’ x-coordinates (breaking ties by favoring lower points). By merging the two lists, we obtain the desired sorted list of left and right endpoints combined.

Let us briefly review the algorithm proposed in [6] to build a PPB-tree. We adopt the convention that the leaf elements of a B-tree are ordered from left to right in ascending order.

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We now discuss the case $y_{p_1} < y_{p_2}$. Consider first the case $y_{p_1} < y_{p_2}$. In this scenario, the x-interval of $s_1$ must terminate before $x_{p_2}$ because $p_2$ dominates $p_1$. In other words, $s_1$ and $s_2$ have disjoint x-intervals.

Now consider $y_{p_1} > y_{p_2}$. If leftdom($p_1$) does not exist, the x-interval of $s_1$ is $[x_{p_1}, \infty]$, which clearly encloses that of $s_2$. Consider, instead, that leftdom($p_1$) exists. If leftdom($p_1$) has x-coordinate smaller than $x_{p_2}$, then $s_1$ and $s_2$ have disjoint x-intervals. Otherwise, leftdom($p_1$) also dominates $p_2$, implying that the x-interval of $s_1$ contains that of $s_2$.

**Monotonic:** Let $\ell$ intersect the x-axis at $\alpha$. Consider the contour query with rectangle $Q = [-\infty, \alpha] \times [-\infty, \infty]$, which is a special top-open query. By Lemma 1, the left endpoints of the segments in $S(\ell)$ constitute the skyline of $P \cap Q$. Therefore, if we enumerate the segments of $S(\ell)$ in ascending order of y-coordinates, their left endpoints’ x-coordinates decrease continuously. It thus follows from the nesting property that their x-intervals have increasing lengths. □

We are ready to present our algorithm for computing $\Sigma(P)$, after $P$ has been sorted by x-coordinates. Conceptually, we sweep a vertical line $\ell$ from $x = -\infty$ to $\infty$. At any time, the algorithm (essentially) stores the set $S(\ell)$ of segments in a stack, which are en-stacked in descending order of y-coordinates (i.e., the segment that tops the stack has the lowest y-coordinate). Whenever a segment is popped out of the stack, its right endpoint is decided, and the segment is output. In general, the segments of $\Sigma(P)$ are output in non-descending order of their right endpoints’ x-coordinates.

Specifically, the algorithm starts by pushing the leftmost point of $P$ onto the stack. Iteratively, let $p$ be the next point fetched from $P$, and $q$ the point currently at the top of the stack. If $y_q < y_p$, we know that $p = \text{leftdom}(q)$. Hence, the algorithm pops $q$ off the stack, and outputs segment $\sigma(q) = [x_q, x_p] \times y_q$. Then, letting $q$ be the point that tops the stack currently, the algorithm checks again whether $y_q < y_p$, and if so, repeats the above steps. This continues until either the stack is empty or $y_q > y_p$. In either case, the iteration finishes by pushing $p$ onto the stack. It is clear that the algorithm generates $\Sigma(P)$ in $O(n/B)$ I/Os.

**Figure 4: A node in a PPB-tree.**

For each leaf node $u$ (already created), we add the bottom edge of $r(u)$, namely $[x_1, x_2] \times [y_1, y_2]$, into $\Sigma_1$. The next lemma points out a crucial fact.

**Lemma 3.** $\Sigma_1$ is both nesting and monotonic.

**Proof.** We prove the lemma by induction on the position of $\ell$. For this purpose, care must be taken to interpret the rectangles of the nodes currently in $T(\ell)$. As these nodes are still “alive” (i.e., they have not been version copied yet), the
right edges of their rectangles rest on $\ell$, and move rightwards along with $\ell$. Let set $\Sigma_1(\ell)$ include the bottom edges of the rectangles of all level-1 nodes already spawned so far, counting also the ones in $T(\ell)$. When we finish building all the level-1 nodes, $\Sigma_1(\ell)$ becomes the final $\Sigma_1$. We will show that $\Sigma_1(\ell)$ is nesting and monotonic at all times. This is obviously true when $\ell$ is at $x = -\infty$.

Now, suppose that $\Sigma_1(\ell)$ is currently nesting and monotonic. We will prove that it remains so after the next update on $T(\ell)$. This is trivial if the update does not cause any version copy, i.e., the first leaf node $u$ of $T(\ell)$ is not full yet. Consider instead that $u$ is version copied to $u'$ when $\ell$ is at $x = \alpha$. At this point, $r(u)$ is final. Because $r(u)$ is the lowest among the rectangles of the nodes in $T(\ell)$, its finalization cannot affect the nesting and monotonicity of $\Sigma_1(\ell)$. The version copy also creates $r(u')$. Note that the $x$-intervals of $r(u)$ and $r(u')$ are disjoint, because the former does not include $\alpha$, but the latter does. Furthermore, $r(u')$ has the same $y$-interval as $r(u)$, and a zero-length $x$-interval $[\alpha, \alpha]$. Therefore, if no split/merge follows, $\Sigma_1(\ell)$ is still nesting and monotonic.

Next, consider that $u'$ is split into $u'_1$ and $u'_2$. In this case, $r(u')$ disappears from $\Sigma_1(\ell)$, and is replaced by $r(u'_1)$ and $r(u'_2)$, which are the bottom two among the rectangles of the nodes in $T(\ell)$. Furthermore, both $r(u'_1)$ and $r(u'_2)$ have zero-length $x$-intervals. So $\Sigma_1(\ell)$ remains nesting and monotonic.

It remains to discuss the case where $u'$ needs to merge with its sibling $v$ in $T(\ell)$. When this happens, the algorithm first version copies $v$ to $v'$, which finalizes $r(v)$. The $x$-interval of $r(v)$ must contain that of $r(u)$, which is consistent with nesting and monotonicity because $r(v)$ is above $r(u)$. The merge of $u'$ and $v'$ creates a node $z$, such that $r(z)$ has a zero-length $x$-interval. Note that $r(z)$ is currently the lowest of the rectangles of the nodes in $T(\ell)$. So $\Sigma_1(\ell)$ remains nesting and monotonic.

Finally, $z$ may still need to be split one more time, but this case can be analyzed in the same way as the split scenario mentioned earlier. We thus conclude the proof.

Our algorithm (for building the leaf nodes) writes the left and right endpoints of the segments in $\Sigma_1$ in non-descending order of their $x$-coordinates (breaking ties by favoring lower endpoints). This, together with Lemma 3, permits us to create the level-1 nodes using the same algorithm in $O(n/B^2)$ I/Os (as $|\Sigma_1| = O(n/B)$). We repeat the above process to construct the nodes of higher levels. The cost decreases by a factor of $B$ each level up. The overall construction cost is therefore $O(n/B)$.

Theorem 1. There is an indivisible linear-size structure on $n$ points in $\mathbb{R}^2$, such that top-open range skyline queries can be answered in $O((\log_B n + k)/B)$ I/Os, where $k$ is the number of reported points. If all points have been sorted by $x$-coordinates, the structure can be built in linear $O$s. The query cost is optimal (even without assuming indivisibility).

Proof. We focus on the query optimality because the rest of the theorem follows from our earlier discussion directly.

The term $k/B$ is clearly indispensable. The term $O((\log_B n)/B)$, on the other hand, is also compulsory due to a reduction from predecessor search. First, it is well-known (see, e.g., [8]) that predecessor search can be reduced to top-open range reporting (note: not top-open range skyline), such that if a linear-size structure can answer a top-open range query in $f(n, B) + O(k/B)$ time, the same structure also solves a predecessor query in $f(n, B)$ time. Interestingly, given a predecessor query, the converted top-open range query always returns only one point. Hence, the query can as well be interpreted as a top-open range skyline query. This indicates that the same reduction also works from predecessor search to top-open range skyline. Finally, any linear-size structure must incur $O((\log_B n)/B)$ I/Os answering a predecessor query in the worst case [32] (even without the indivisibility assumption). It thus follows that $O((\log_B n))$ also lower bounds the cost of a top-open range skyline query.

3. DIVISIBLE TOP-OPEN STRUCTURE

The structure of the previous section obeys the indivisibility assumption. This section eliminates the assumption, and unleashes the power endowed by bit manipulation. As we will see, when the universe is small, it admits linear-size structures with lower query cost.

In Section 3.1, we study a different problem called ray-dragging. Then, in Section 3.2, our ray-dragging structure is deployed to develop a “few-point structure” for answering top-open queries on a small point set. Finally, in Section 3.3, we combine our few-point structure with an existing structure [9] to obtain the final optimal top-open structure.

3.1 Ray Dragging

In the ray dragging problem, the input is a set of $m$ points in $[U]^2$ where $U \geq m$ is an integer. Given a vertical ray $\rho = \alpha \times [\beta, U]$ where $\alpha, \beta \in U$, a ray dragging query reports the first point in $S$ to be hit by $\rho$ when $\rho$ moves left. The rest of the subsection serves as the proof for:

Lemma 4. For $m = (B\log U)^{O(1)}$, we can store $S$ in a structure of size $O(1 + m/B)$ that can answer ray dragging queries in $O(1)$ I/Os.

Minute Structure. Set $b = B\log_2 U$. We first consider the scenario where $S$ has very few points: $m \leq b^{1/3}$. Let us convert $S$ to a set $S'$ of points in an $m \times m$ grid. Specifically, map a point $p \in S$ to $p' \in S'$ such that $x_p'$ (resp. $y_p'$) is the rank of $x_p$ (resp. $y_p$) among the $x$- (resp. $y$-) coordinates in $S$.

Given a ray $\rho = \alpha \times [\beta, \infty]$, we instead answer a query in $[m]^2$ using a ray $\rho' = \alpha' \times [\beta', \infty]$, where $\alpha'$ (resp. $\beta'$) is the rank of the predecessor of $\alpha$ (resp. $\beta$) among the $x$- (resp. $y$-) coordinates in $S$. Create a fusion tree [19, 23] on the $x$- (resp. $y$-) coordinates in $S$ so that the predecessor of $\alpha$ (resp. $\beta$) can be found in $O(\log_m m) = O(1)$ I/Os, which is therefore the cost of turning $\rho$ into $\rho'$. The fusion tree uses $O(1 + m/B)$ blocks.

We will ensure that the query with $\rho'$ in $[m]^2$ returns an id from 1 to $m$ that uniquely identifies a point $p$ in $S$, if the result is non-empty. To convert the id into the coordinates of $p$, we store $S$ in an array of $O(1 + m/B)$ blocks such that any point can be retrieved in one I/O by id.

The benefit of working with $S'$ is that each coordinate in $[m]^2$ requires fewer bits to represent (than in $[U]^2$), that is, $\log_m m$. In particular, we need $3\log_m m$ bits in total to represent a point’s $x$, $y$-coordinates, and id. Since $|S'| = m$, the storage of the entire $S'$ demands $3m\log m = O(b^{1/3}\log_B b)$ bits. If $B \geq \log_2 U$, then $b^{1/3}\log_B b = O(B^{1/3}\log_B (B^2)) = O(B)$. On the other hand, if $B < \log_2 U$, then $b^{1/3}\log_B b = O((\log_2 U)^{1/3}\log_2 (\log_2 U)) = O(\log_2 U)$. In other words, we
can always store the entire set \( S' \) in \( O(1) \) blocks. Given a query with \( \rho' \), we simply load this block into memory, and answer the query in memory with no more I/O.

We have completed the description of a structure that uses \( O(1 + m/B) \) blocks, and answers queries in constant I/Os when \( m \leq b^{1/3} \). We refer to it as a *minute structure.*

**Proof of Lemma 4.** We store \( S \) in a B-tree that indexes the \( x \)-coordinates of the points in \( S \). We set the B-tree’s leaf capacity to \( B \) and internal fanout to \( f = b^{1/3} \). Note that the tree has a constant height.

Given a node \( u \) in the tree, define \( Y_{\max}(u) \) as the highest-point whose \( x \)-coordinate is stored in the subtree of \( u \). Now, consider \( u \) to be an internal node with child nodes \( v_1, \ldots, v_f \). Define \( Y_{\max}(u) = \{ Y_{\max}(v_i) \mid 1 \leq i \leq f \} \). We store \( Y_{\max}(u) \) in a minute structure. Also, for each point \( p \in Y_{\max}(u) \), we store an index indicating the child node whose subtree contains the \( x \)-coordinate of \( p \). A child index requires \( \log_2 b^{1/3} \leq O(\log m) = O(\log U) \) bits, which is no more than the length of a coordinate. Hence, we can store the index along with \( p \) in the minute structure without increasing its space by more than a constant factor. For a leaf node \( z \), define \( Y_{\max}(z) \) to be the set of points whose \( x \)-coordinates are stored in \( z \).

Since there are \( O(1 + m/(b^{1/3} B)) \) internal nodes and each minute structure demands \( O(1 + b^{1/3} / B) \) space, all the minute structures occupy \( O((1 + m/(B b^{1/3} + 1)) = O(1 + m/B) \) blocks in total. Therefore, the overall structure consumes linear space.

We answer a ray-dragging query with ray \( \rho = \alpha \times [\beta, U] \) as follows. First, descend a root-to-leaf path \( \pi \) to the leaf node containing the predecessor of \( \alpha \) among the \( x \)-coordinates in \( S \). Let \( u \) be the lowest node on \( \pi \) such that \( Y_{\max}(u) \) has a point that can be hit by \( \rho \) when \( \rho \) moves left. For each node \( v \in \pi \), whether \( Y_{\max}(v) \) has such a point can be checked in \( O(1) \) I/Os by querying the minute structure over \( Y_{\max}(v) \). Hence, \( u \) can be identified in \( O(h) \) I/Os where \( h \) is the height of the B-tree. If \( h \) does not exist, we return an empty result (i.e., \( \rho \) does not hit any point no matter how far it moves).

If \( u \) exists, let \( p \) be the first point in \( Y_{\max}(u) \) hit by \( \rho \) when it moves left. Suppose that the \( x \)-coordinate of \( p \) is in the subtree of \( v \), where \( v \) is a child node of \( u \). The query result must be in the subtree of \( v \), although it may not necessarily be \( p \). To find out, we descend another path from \( v \) to a leaf. Specifically, we set \( u \) to \( v \), and find the first point \( p \) in \( Y_{\max}(u) \) that is hit by \( \rho \) when \( \rho \) moves left (notice that \( p \) has changed). Now, let \( v \) be the child node of \( u \) whose subtree \( p \) is from, we repeat the above steps. This continues until \( u \) becomes a leaf, in which case the algorithm returns \( p \) as the final answer. The query cost is \( O(h) = O(1) \). This completes the proof of Lemma 4. We will refer to the above structure as a *ray-drag tree.*

### 3.2 Top-Open Structure on Few Points

Next, we present a structure for answering top-open queries on small \( P \), called henceforth the *few-point structure*. Remember that \( P \) is a set of \( n \) points in \( [U]^2 \) for some integer \( U \geq n \), and a query is a rectangle \( Q = [\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times [\beta, U] \) where \( \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \beta \in [U] \).

**Lemma 5.** For \( n \leq (B \log U)^{O(1)} \), we can store \( P \) in a structure of \( O(1 + n/B) \) space that answers top-open range skyline queries with output size \( k \) in \( O(1 + k/B) \) I/Os.

**Proof.** Consider a query with \( Q = [\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times [\beta, U] \). Let \( p \) be the first point hit by the ray \( \rho = \alpha_2 \times [\beta, U] \) when \( \rho \) moves left. If \( p \) does not exist or is out of \( Q \) (i.e., \( x_p < \alpha_1 \)), the top-open query has an empty result. Otherwise, \( p \) must be the lowest point in the skyline of \( P \cap Q \).

The subsequent discussion focuses on the scenario where \( p \in Q \). We index \( S \) with a PPB-tree \( T \), as in Theorem 1. Recall that the top-open query can be solved by retrieving the set of segments in \( \Sigma(P) \) intersecting the vertical segment \( \psi = \alpha_2 \times [\beta, \beta'] \), where \( \beta' \) is the highest \( y \)-coordinate of the points in \( P \cap Q \). To do so in \( O(1 + k/B) \) I/Os, we utilize the next two observations:

**Observation 1.** All segments of \( S \) intersect \( \psi = x_p \times [y_p, \beta'] \).

**Proof:** \( \sigma(p) \) is the lowest among the segments of \( \Sigma(P) \) intersecting \( \psi \) (recall that \( \sigma(p) \) is the segment in \( \Sigma(P) \) converted from \( p \)). Hence, a segment of \( \Sigma(P) \) intersects \( \psi \) if and only if it intersects \( \alpha_2 \times [y_p, \beta'] \). On the other hand, a segment of \( \Sigma(P) \) intersects \( \alpha_2 \times [y_p, \beta'] \) if and only if it intersects \( \psi \). To explain, let \( s \neq \sigma(p) \) be a segment in \( \Sigma(P) \) intersecting \( \alpha_2 \times [y_p, \beta'] \). As \( s \) is higher than \( \sigma(p) \), the \( x \)-interval of \( s \) must contain that of \( \sigma(p) \) (due to the nesting and monotonicity properties of \( \Sigma(P) \)), implying that \( s \) intersects \( \psi \). Similarly, one can also show that if \( s \) intersects \( \psi \), it also intersects \( \alpha_2 \times [y_p, \beta'] \).

**Observation 2.** Let \( T(\ell) \) be the snapshot B-tree in \( T \) when \( \ell \) is at the position \( x = x_p \). Once we have obtained the leaf node in \( T(\ell) \) containing \( y_p \), we can retrieve \( S \) in \( O(1 + k/B) \) I/Os without knowing the value of \( \beta' \).

**Proof:** Each leaf node in \( T(\ell) \) has a sibling pointer to its succeeding leaf node\footnote{Due to the nesting and monotonicity properties, every leaf node \( u \) in the PPB-tree \( T \) needs only one sibling pointer during the entire period when \( u \) is alive.}. Hence, starting from the leaf node storing \( y_p \), we can visit the leaves of \( T(\ell) \) in ascending order of the \( y \)-coordinates they contain. The effect is to report in the bottom-up order the segments of \( \Sigma(P) \) that intersect \( x_p \times [y_p, U] \). By the nesting and monotonicity properties, the left endpoint of a segment reported latter has a smaller \( x \)-coordinate. We stop as soon as reaching a segment whose left endpoint falls out of \( Q \). The cost is \( O(1 + k/B) \) because \( \Omega(B) \) segments are reported in each accessed leaf, except possibly the last one.

We now elaborate on the structure of Lemma 4. Besides \( T \), also create a structure of Lemma 4 on \( P \). Moreover, for every point \( p \in P \), keep a pointer to the leaf node of \( T \) that (i) is in the snapshot B-tree \( T(\ell) \) when \( \ell \) is at \( x = x_p \), and (ii) contains \( y_p \). Call the leaf node the *host leaf* of \( p \). Store the pointers in an array of size \( n \) to permit retrieving the pointer of any point in one I/O.

The query algorithm should have become straightforward from the above two observations. We first find in \( O(1) \) I/Os the first point \( p \) hit by \( \rho \) when \( \rho \) moves left. Then, using \( p \), we jump to the host leaf of \( p \). Next, by Observation 2, we retrieve \( S \) in \( O(1 + k/B) \) I/Os. The total query cost is \( O(1 + k/B) \).

### 3.3 Final Top-Open Structure

We are ready to describe our top-open structure that achieves sub-logarithmic query I/Os for arbitrary \( n \). For
this purpose, we externalize an internal-memory structure of [9]. The structure of [9], however, has logarithmic query overhead, which we improve with new ideas based on the few-point structure in Lemma 5.

**Theorem 2.** There is a linear-size structure on \( n \) points in rank space such that top-open range skyline queries can be answered optimally in \( O(1 + k/B) \) I/Os, where \( k \) is the number of reported points.

**Structure.** Let \( U = O(n) \) be the length of each dimension. We assume, without loss of generality, that \( \lambda = B \log^2 U \) is an integer. Divide the \( x \)-dimension of \([U]^3\) into \([U/\lambda]\) consecutive intervals of length \( \lambda \) each, except possibly the last interval. Call each interval a **chunk**. Assign each point \( p \in P \) to the unique chunk covering \( p \). Note that some chunks may be empty.

Create a complete binary search tree \( T \) on the chunks. Let \( u \) be a node of \( T \). We say that a point \( p \) is in the subtree of \( u \) if it is assigned to a chunk in the subtree of \( u \). Denote by \( P(u) \) the set of points in the subtree of \( u \). Define \( \text{high}(u) \) as the set of \( B \) highest points in the skyline of \( P(u) \); if the skyline of \( P(u) \) has less than \( B \) points, \( \text{high}(u) \) includes all of them. Furthermore, if \( \text{high}(u) = B \), let \( \text{highend}(u) \) be the lowest point in \( \text{high}(u) \); otherwise, \( \text{highend}(u) = \text{nil} \). We store \( \text{high}(u) \) along with \( u \).

Let \( u \) be any internal node such that \( p = \text{highend}(u) \) is not \text{nil}. Denote by \( \pi(u) \) the path from the leaf (a.k.a. chunk) \( z \) of \( T \) covering \( x_p \) to the child of \( u \) that is an ancestor of \( z \). Define \( \Pi_i(u) \) as the set of right sibling \( i \) of the nodes in \( \pi(u) \). Let \( \text{MAX}(u) \) be the skyline of the point set \( \bigcup_{i \in \Pi_i(u)} \text{high}(v) \). We store \( \text{MAX}(u) \) along with \( u \), and order the points in \( \text{MAX}(u) \) by \( x \)-coordinate (hence, also by \( y \)-coordinate). In Figure 5 for example, \( \text{MAX}(u) \) is the skyline of \( \bigcup_{i=1}^4 \text{high}(v_i) \).

The above completes the externalization of the structure in [9]. Next, we describe new mechanisms for achieving query cost \( O(1 + k/B) \). First, we index the points in each chunk \( z \) with a few-point structure of Lemma 5. Moreover, for every \( z \) and every proper ancestor \( u \) of \( z \), we store two sets \( \text{LMAX}(z,u) \) and \( \text{RMAX}(z,u) \) defined as follows. Let \( \pi(z,u) \) be the path from \( z \) to the child of \( u \) that is an ancestor of \( z \). Define \( \Pi_i(z,u) \), as the set of left siblings of the nodes on \( \pi(z,u) \), and conversely, \( \Pi_i(z,u) \) the set of right siblings of those nodes. Then:

- \( \text{LMAX}(z,u) \) is the skyline of \( \bigcup_{i \in \Pi_i(z,u)} \text{high}(v) \).
- \( \text{RMAX}(z,u) \) is the skyline of \( \bigcup_{i \in \Pi_i(z,u)} \text{high}(v) \).

For instance, in Figure 5 \( \text{RMAX}(z,u) \) the skyline of \( \bigcup_{i=1}^4 \text{high}(v_i) \), whereas \( \text{LMAX}(z,u) \) is the skyline of \( \text{high}(v_4) \cup \text{high}(v_5) \). The points of both \( \text{LMAX}(z,u) \) and \( \text{RMAX}(z,u) \) are sorted by \( x \)-coordinate.

**Space.** Let \( h = O(\log U) \) be the height of \( T \). We analyze first the space consumed by the \( O(U/\lambda) \) internal nodes \( u \) of \( T \). Clearly, \( \text{high}(u) \) fits in \( O(1) \) blocks, whereas \( \text{MAX}(u) \) occupies \( O(h) \) blocks. All the internal nodes thus demand \( O(h \cdot (U/\lambda)) = O(U/B) = O(n/B) \) blocks in total.

Now, let us focus on the \( O(U/\lambda) \) leaf nodes \( z \) of \( T \). As each few-point structure uses linear space, all the few-point structures demand \( O(U/\lambda + n/B) = O(n/B) \) blocks altogether.

Regarding \( \text{LMAX}(z,u) \), \( z \) has at most \( h \) proper ancestors \( u \), while each \( \text{LMAX}(z,u) \) requires \( O(h) \) blocks. Hence, the \( \text{LMAX}(z,u) \) of all \( z \) and \( u \) occupy \( O(U/\lambda) \cdot h^2 = O(n/B) \) blocks in total. The case with \( \text{RMAX}(z,u) \) is symmetric. The overall space consumption is therefore linear.

**Query.** We need the following fact:

**Lemma 6.** Given a node \( u \) in \( T \) and a value \( \beta \), let \( P(u, \beta) \) be the set of points in \( P(u) \) with \( y \)-coordinates greater than \( \beta \). We can report the skyline of \( P(u, \beta) \) in \( O(1 + k/B) \) I/Os where \( k \) is the number of points reported.

**Proof.** If \( u \) is a leaf, find the skyline of \( P(u, \beta) \) by issuing a top-open query with search rectangle \([-U, U] \times [\beta, U] \) on the few-point structure of \( u \). The query time is \( O(1 + k/B) \).

The rest of the proof adapts an argument in [9] to external memory. Given an internal node \( u \), we find the skyline of \( P(u, \beta) \) as follows. Load \( \text{high}(u) \) into memory, and report the points therein with \( y \)-coordinates above \( \beta \). If there are less than \( B \) such points, we have found the entire skyline of \( P(u, \beta) \).

Suppose instead that the entire \( \text{high}(u) \) is reported. Let \( p = \text{highend}(u) \). It suffices to consider the points that

(i) are in the subtrees of the nodes in \( \Pi_i(u) \), or

(ii) share the same chunk as \( p \), but are to the right of \( p \).

Any other point of \( P(u) \) must be either in \( \text{high}(u) \) – which is already found – or dominated by \( p \).

To find the skyline points in (i), first report the set \( S \) of points in \( \text{MAX}(u) \) whose \( y \)-coordinates are above \( \beta \). Then, we explore the subtrees of certain nodes in \( \Pi_i(u) \). Specifically, let \( v_1, \ldots, v_c \) be the nodes in \( \Pi_i(u) \) for some integer \( c \). For each \( i \in [1, c] \), define \( S_i = \text{high}(v_i) \cap S \); if \( |S_i| < B \), the subtree of \( v_i \) can be pruned from further consideration.

Otherwise (i.e., \( |S_i| = B \)), we recursively report the skyline of \( P(v_i, \beta_i) \), where \( \beta_i \) is the \( y \)-coordinate of the point just to the right of \( \text{highend}(v_i) \) in the staircase of \( S \); if no such point exists, \( \beta_i = \beta \).

The skyline points in (ii) can be retrieved with a top-open query on the few-point structure of the chunk \( z \) covering \( x_p \), where \( z \) can be identified in constant I/Os by dividing \( x_p \) by \( \lambda \). Specifically, if \( S \neq \emptyset \), define \( \beta_0 \) to be the \( y \)-coordinate of the highest point in \( S \); otherwise, define \( \beta_0 = \beta \). The top-open query for \( z \) has rectangle \([x_p, U] \times [\beta_0, U] \).

Now we analyze the query cost. If less than \( B \) points of \( \text{high}(u) \) are reported, the algorithm finishes with \( O(1) \) I/Os. Otherwise, the scan of \( \text{MAX}(u) \) takes \( O(1 + |S|/B) \) I/Os. If \( |S| < B \), we charge the \( O(1 + |S|/B) = O(1) \) cost on the \( B \) points in \( \text{high}(u) \); otherwise, we charge the \( O(|S|)/B \) cost on the points of \( S \). The top-open query on the few-point structure of \( z \) requires \( O(1 + k'/B) \) I/Os if it returns \( k' \) points. If \( k' < B \), we charge the \( O(1 + k'/B) = O(1) \) cost on the points of \( \text{high}(u) \); otherwise, charge the \( O(k'/B) \) I/Os on the \( k' \) points.

It remains to discuss the I/Os spent on \( v_1, \ldots, v_c \). For each \( i \in [1, c] \), if \( |S_i| < B \), there is no cost on \( v_i \). Otherwise, we

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4This can be checked efficiently because the points of \( \text{high}(v_i) \) are consecutive in \( \text{MAX}(u) \).

5This means that either \( |\text{high}(v_i)| < B \), or \( \text{highend}(v_i) \) is dominated by a point in \( S \). In both cases, we have found all the result points from the subtree of \( v_i \).
charge on the $B$ points of $S_i$ the $O(1)$ I/Os spent on reading $\text{high}(\nu_i)$ before recursively reporting the skyline of $P(\nu_i, \beta_i)$. The rest of the I/Os performed by the recursion are charged in the same manner as explained above. In this way, every reported point is charged $O(1/B)$ I/Os overall. The total query time is therefore $O(1+k/B)$. \[ \square \]

To answer a top-open query with $Q = [\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times [\beta, U]$, where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \beta \in [U]$, we first identify the chunks $z_1$ and $z_2$ that cover $\alpha_1$ and $\alpha_2$, respectively. This takes $O(1)$ I/Os by dividing $\alpha_1$ and $\alpha_2$ by the chunk size $\lambda$, respectively.

If $z_1 = z_2$, the query can be solved by searching the few-point structure of $z_1$ in $O(1+k/B)$ I/Os (Lemma 5). The subsequent discussion considers $z_1 \neq z_2$.

Let $u$ be the lowest common ancestor of $z_1$ and $z_2$ in $T$. As $T$ is a complete binary tree, $u$ can be determined in constant I/Os. The rest of the algorithm proceeds in 4 steps:

1. Use the few-point structure of $z_2$ to report the skyline of $P(z_2) \cap Q$. Let $S(z_2)$ be the set of points retrieved, and $\beta^*$ the $y$-coordinate of the highest point in $S(z_2)$. If $S(z_2) = \emptyset$, $\beta^* = \beta$.

2. Report the set $S_2$ of points in $LMAX(z_2, u)$ whose $y$-coordinates are above $\beta^*$. Denote by $v_1, \ldots, v_i$ the nodes of $\Pi_\nu(z_2, u)$ for some integer $c$. For each $i \in [1, c]$, check whether $[\text{high}(\nu_i) \cap S_2] = B$. If not, the subtree of $v_i$ can be eliminated. Otherwise, apply Lemma 1 to retrieve the skyline of $P(v_i, \beta_i)$, where $\beta_i$ is the $y$-coordinate of the point just to the right of $\text{highend}(\nu_i)$ in the staircase of $S_2$; if no such point exists, $\beta_i = \beta^*$. If $S_2 \neq \emptyset$, update $\beta^*$ to be the $y$-coordinate of the highest point in $S_2$.

3. Find the set $S_1$ of points in $RMAX(z_1, u)$ whose $y$-coordinates are above $\beta^*$. Denote by $v'_1, \ldots, v'_c$, the nodes of $\Pi_\nu(z_1, u)$ for some integer $c'$. For each $i \in [1, c']$, if $[\text{high}(\nu'_i) \cap S_1] = B$, apply Lemma 1 to retrieve the skyline of $P(v'_i, \beta'_i)$, where $\beta'_i$ is the $y$-coordinate of the point just to the right of $\text{highend}(\nu'_i)$ in the staircase of $S_1$ (if no such point exists, $\beta'_i = \beta^*$). If $S_1 \neq \emptyset$, set $\beta^*$ to the $y$-coordinate of the highest point in $S_1$.

4. Fetch the skyline of $P(z_1) \cap [\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times [\beta^*, U]$ from the few-point structure of $z_1$.

In the example of Figure 3, $c = 4$ and $c' = 3$; the algorithm first obtains the result points from $z_2$, then from the subtrees of $v_1, \ldots, v_4$, next from the subtrees of $v'_1, \ldots, v'_3$, and finally from $z_1$. To analyze the cost, we focus on the first two steps because the other steps are symmetric. By Lemma 1, Step 1 takes $O(1+k'/B)$ I/Os, where $k'$ is the number of points reported in this step. In Step 2, by leveraging the ordering inside $LMAX(z_2, u)$, $S_2$ can be found in $O(1+|S_2|/B)$ I/Os. We charge the second term on the points of $S_2$. For each $i \in [1, c]$, if $\text{high}(\nu_i) \cap S_2$ has less than $B$ points, the subtree of $v_i$ incurs no more cost. Otherwise, applying Lemma 1 takes $O(k'_i/B)$ I/Os if the application finds $k'_i$ points.\footnote{Note that $k'_i \geq B$ since the whole $\text{high}(\nu_i)$ is definitely reported.} we charge this cost on those $k'_i$ points. Overall, every reported point is charged $O(1/B)$ I/Os. Steps 1-4 each necessitate $O(1)$ extra I/Os. The total query cost is therefore $O(1+k/B)$.

**Corollary 1.** There is a linear-size structure on a set of $n$ points in $[U]^2$ (where $U \geq n$ is an integer) such that a top-open range skyline query can be answered optimally in $O(\log \log_B U + k/B)$ I/Os, when $k$ points are reported.

**Proof.** We simply create the same structure on the input set $P$ of $n$ points in, however, rank space $[n]^2$. A query coordinate in $[U]$ can be converted into $[n]$ in $O(\log \log_B U)$ I/Os by a standard linear-size structure for predecessor search.\footnote{The optimality follows directly from the reduction explained in the proof of Theorem 2 and the $\Omega(\log \log_B U)$ lower bound of predecessor search under the linear space budget.} The overall query cost is therefore $O(\log \log_B U + k/B)$. The optimality follows directly from the reduction explained in the proof of Theorem 2 and the $\Omega(\log \log_B U)$ lower bound of predecessor search under the linear space budget. \[ \square \]

### 4. Dynamic Top-Open Structure

In this section, we present a dynamic data structure, which is SABE, that uses linear space, and supports top-open queries in $O(\log_{2B}((n/B) + k/B^{1-\epsilon}))$ I/Os and updates in $O(\log_{2B}((n/B))$ I/Os, for any parameter $0 \leq \epsilon \leq 1$. We are inspired by the approach of Overmars and van Leeuwen for maintaining the planar skyline in the pointer machine. As a brief review, a dynamic binary base tree indexes the $x$-coordinates of $P$, and every internal node stores the skyline of the points in its subtree using a secondary search tree. More specifically, the skyline of an internal node is $(L', L) \cup R$, where $L$ (resp. $R$) is the skyline of its left (resp. right) child node, and $L'$ is the set of points in $L$ dominated by the leftmost (and thus also highest) point of $R$. 

[Diagram 5: Illustration of $MAX(u)$, $LMAX(z, u)$, and $RMAX(z, u)$]

[Diagram 6: Illustration of the query algorithm]
Our approach is based on I/O-CPQAs, which are described in Section 4.1. We observe that attrition can be utilized to maintain the internal node skylines in [30], after mirroring the y-axis. To explain this, let us first map the input set P to its mirrored counterpart \( \tilde{P} = \{(x_p, -y_p) \mid (x_p, y_p) \in P\} \). In the context of PQAs, we will interpret each point \((\tilde{x}_p, \tilde{y}_p) \in \tilde{P}\) as an element with “key” value \(\tilde{y}_p\) that is inserted at “time” \(\tilde{x}_p\).

To formalize the notion of time, we define the gray elements are attrited within \(\tilde{P}\) when a constant number of blocks are already loaded \(O\) of elements from a total order and support all operations that store a set of priority queues with attrition (I/O-CPQAs).

4.1 I/O-Efficient Catenable Attrition Priority Queues

Here we present ephemeral I/O-efficient catenable priority queues with attrition (I/O-CPQAs) that store a set of elements from a total order and support all operations in \(O(1)\) I/Os. Also the operations take \(O(1/b)\) amortized I/Os, when a constant number of blocks are already loaded into main memory for every root I/O-CPQA, for any parameter \(1 \leq b \leq B\). We call these preloaded records critical records. For the sake of simplicity, we identify an element with its value. Denote by \(Q\) an I/O-CPQA and by \(\min(Q)\) the smallest element stored in \(Q\). We denote by \(Q\) also the set of elements in I/O-CPQA \(Q\). Next, we re-state the supported operations in the context of I/O-CPQAs:

- \(\text{FindMin}(Q)\) returns \(\min(Q)\).
- \(\text{DeleteMin}(Q)\) returns \(\min(Q)\) and removes it from \(Q\).
- The resulting I/O-CPQA is \(Q' = Q\setminus\{\min(Q)\}\), and \(Q\) is discarded.
- \(\text{CatenateAndAttrite}(Q_1, Q_2)\) catenates I/O-CPQA \(Q_2\) to the end of another I/O-CPQA \(Q_1\), removes all elements in \(Q_1\) that are larger than or equal to \(\min(Q_2)\) (attrition), and returns the result as a combined I/O-CPQA \(Q'_1 = \{e \in Q_1 \mid e < \min(Q_2)\} \cup Q_2\). The old I/O-CPQAs \(Q_1\) and \(Q_2\) are discarded.

An I/O-CPQA \(Q\) consists of two sorted buffers, called the first buffer \(F(Q)\) with \([b, 4b]\) elements and the last buffer \(L(Q)\) with \([0, 4b]\) elements, and \(K_Q + 2\) deques of records, called the clean deque \(C(Q)\), the buffer deque \(B(Q)\) and the dirty deques \(D_1(Q), \ldots, D_{K_Q}(Q)\), where \(K_Q \geq 0\). A record \(r = (l, p)\) consists of a buffer \(l\) of \([b, 4b]\) sorted elements and a pointer \(p\) to an I/O-CPQA. A record is simple when its pointer \(p\) is nil. The definition of I/O-CPQAs implies an underlying tree structure when pointers are considered as edges and I/O-CPQAs as subtrees. We define the ordering of the elements in a record \(r\) to be all elements of its buffer \(l\) followed by all elements in the I/O-CPQA referenced by pointer \(p\). We define the queue order of I/O-CPQA \(Q\) to be \(F(Q), C(Q), B(Q)\) and \(D_1(Q), \ldots, D_{K_Q}(Q)\) and \(L(Q)\). It corresponds to an Euler tour over the tree structure. See Figure 8 for an overview of the structure.

![Figure 7: The skyline problem (above) mirrored to the attrition problem (below). White points are reported for the gray query area \([x_1, x_2] \times [y, \infty]\), while gray elements are attrited within \([x_1, x_2]\).](image)

Given a record \(r = (l, p)\), the minimum and maximum elements in the buffers of \(r\), are denoted by \(\min(r) = \min(l)\) and \(\max(r) = \max(l)\), respectively. They appear respectively first and last in the queue order of \(l\), since the buffer of \(r\) is sorted by value. Given a deque \(q\), the first and the last records are denoted by \(\text{first}(q)\) and \(\text{last}(q)\), respectively. Also, \(\text{rest}(q)\) denotes all records of the deque \(q\) excluding the record \(\text{first}(q)\). Similarly, \(\text{front}(q)\) denotes all records of the deque \(q\) excluding the record \(\text{last}(q)\). The size \(|F(Q)| = |L(Q)|\) of the buffer \(F(Q) = L(Q)\) is defined to be the number of elements in \(F(Q) = L(Q)\). The size \(|r|\) of a record \(r\) is defined to be the number of elements in its buffer. The size \(|q|\) of a deque \(q\) is defined to be the number of records it contains. The size \(|Q|\) of the I/O-CPQA \(Q\) is defined to be the number of elements (both attritted and non-attritted) that \(Q\) contains. For an I/O-CPQA \(Q\) we denote by \(\text{first}(Q)\) and \(\text{last}(Q)\), respectively the first and last records out of all the records of all the deques \(C(Q), B(Q), D_1(Q), \ldots, D_{K_Q}(Q)\) that exist in \(Q\). For an I/O-CPQA \(Q\) we maintain the following invariants:

- \(\text{FindMin}(Q)\) returns \(\min(Q)\).
- \(\text{DeleteMin}(Q)\) returns \(\min(Q)\) and removes it from \(Q\). The resulting I/O-CPQA is \(Q' = Q\setminus\{\min(Q)\}\), and \(Q\) is discarded.
- \(\text{CatenateAndAttrite}(Q_1, Q_2)\) catenates I/O-CPQA \(Q_2\) to the end of another I/O-CPQA \(Q_1\), removes all elements in \(Q_1\) that are larger than or equal to \(\min(Q_2)\) (attrition), and returns the result as a combined I/O-CPQA \(Q'_1 = \{e \in Q_1 \mid e < \min(Q_2)\} \cup Q_2\). The old I/O-CPQAs \(Q_1\) and \(Q_2\) are discarded.

Figure 8: The records in \(C(Q)\) and \(B(Q)\) are simple, the records of \(D_1(Q), \ldots, D_{K_Q}(Q)\) may contain pointers to other I/O CPQAs. I/O-CPQAs imply a tree structure. Gray records are critical.
I.1) For every record \( r = (l, p) \) where pointer \( p \) references I/O-CPQA \( Q' \), max(l) < min(Q') holds.

I.2) In all deques of \( Q \) where record \( r_1 = (l_1, p_1) \) precedes record \( r_2 = (l_2, p_2) \), max(l_1) < min(l_2) holds.

I.3) For the buffer \( F(Q) \) and deques \( C(Q), B(Q), D_k(Q) \):
max(F(Q)) < min(first(C(Q))) < max(last(C(Q))) < min(first(B(Q))) < min(first(D_k(Q))) holds.

I.4) Element min(first(D_k(Q))) is the smallest element in the dirty deques \( D_1(Q), \ldots, D_k(Q) \).

I.5) \( \text{min}(\text{first}(D_k(Q))) \) < \( \text{min}(L(Q)) \).

I.6) All records in the deques \( C(Q) \) and \( B(Q) \) are simple.

I.7) \( |C(Q)| \geq \sum_{i=1}^{k_Q} |D_i(Q)| + k_Q \).

I.8) \( |F(Q)| < b \) holds if \( |Q| < b \) holds.

I.9) If \( Q \) is a child of another I/O-CPQA then \( F(Q) = \emptyset \) and \( L(Q) = \emptyset \) holds.

From invariants \ref{I.2} \ref{I.3} \ref{I.4} \ref{I.5} \ref{I.6} \ref{I.7} \ref{I.8} we have that \( \text{min}(Q) = \text{min}(F(Q)) \). We say that an operation improves or aggravates the inequality of Invariant \ref{I.7} by a parameter \( c \) for I/O-CPQA \( Q \), when the operation, respectively, increases or decreases by \( c \) the state of \( Q \):

\[
\Delta(Q) = |C(Q)| - \sum_{i=1}^{k_Q} |D_i(Q)| - k_Q
\]

To argue about the \( O(1/b) \) amortized I/O bounds we need more definitions. By records(Q) we denote all records in \( Q \) and the records in the I/O-CPQAs pointed to by \( Q \) and its descendants. We call an I/O-CPQA \( Q \) large if \( |Q| \geq b \) and small otherwise. We define the following potential functions for large and small I/O-CPQAs. In particular, for large I/O-CPQAs the potential \( \Phi(Q) \) is defined as

\[
\Phi(Q) = \Phi_F(\{F(Q)\}) + |\text{records}(Q)| + \Phi_L(\{L(Q)\}),
\]

where

\[
\Phi_F(x) = \begin{cases} 
5 - \frac{2x}{b}, & b \leq x < 2b \\
1, & 2b \leq x < 3b \\
\frac{2b}{x} - 5, & 3b \leq x \leq 4b 
\end{cases}
\]

and

\[
\Phi_L(x) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{x}{b}, & 0 \leq x < b \\
1, & b \leq x \leq 3b \\
\frac{2b}{x} - 5, & 3b < x \leq 4b 
\end{cases}
\]

For small I/O-CPQAs \( Q \), the potential \( \Phi(Q) \) is defined as

\[
\Phi(Q) = \frac{3|Q|}{b}
\]

The total potential \( \Phi_T \) is defined as

\[
\Phi_T = \sum_Q \Phi(Q) + \sum_{Q \leq 5Q|Q|} 1,
\]

where the first sum is the total potential of all I/O-CPQAs \( Q \) and the second sum counts the number of large I/O-CPQAs \( Q \).

Operations. In the following, we describe the algorithms that implement the operations supported by the I/O-CPQA \( Q \). Most of the operations call the auxiliary operations \( \text{Bias}(Q) \) and \( \text{Fill}(Q) \), which we describe last. \text{Bias} improves the inequality of \ref{I.7} for \( Q \) by at least 1 if \( Q \) contains any records. \( \text{Fill}(Q) \) ensures \ref{I.5}.

\text{FindMin}(Q) \text{ returns the value } \text{min}(F(Q)) \).

\text{Delete}(\text{Min}(Q)) \text{ removes element } e = \text{min}(F(Q)) \text{ from the first buffer } F(Q), \text{ calls } \text{Fill}(Q) \text{ and returns } e.

\text{CatenateAndAttrite}(Q_1, Q_2) \text{ creates a new I/O-CPQA } Q_1' \text{ by modifying } Q_1 \text{ and } Q_2, \text{ and by calling } \text{Bias}(Q_1), \text{ Bias}(Q_2), \text{ Fill}(Q_1') \text{ and Fill}(Q_2).

If \( |Q_1| < b \) holds, then \( Q_1 \) consists only of the first buffer \( F(Q_1) \). Let \( F'(Q_1) \) be the non-attrited elements of \( F(Q_1) \), under attrition by \text{min}(F(Q_2)). \text{Prepend} \( F'(Q_1) \) onto the first buffer \( F(Q_2) \) of \( Q_2 \). If this prepend causes \( F(Q_2) > 4b \), then we take the last 2b elements out of \( F(Q_2) \), make a new record out of them and we prepend it onto the deque \( C(Q_2) \).

If \( |Q_2| < b \) holds, then \( Q_2 \) only consists of \( F(Q_2) \). If \( |Q_1| < b \) then we delete attrited elements in \( F(Q_1) \) and append \( F(Q_2) \) to \( F(Q_1) \). We now assume that \( |Q_1| \geq b \).

1. \( e \leq \text{min}(r) \): Delete \( r \). We now have four cases:

1. If \( e \leq \text{min}(F(Q_1)) \) holds, we discard I/O-CPQA \( Q_1 \) and set \( Q_1' = \emptyset \).
2. Else if \( e \leq \text{min}(\text{last}(C(Q_1))) \) holds, we prepend \( F(Q_1) \) onto \( C(Q_1) \), set \( Q_1' = \emptyset \), \( C(Q_1') = C(Q_1) \), \( k_{Q_1'} = 0 \) and \( L(Q_1') = L(Q_1) \). We call \( \text{Bias}(Q_1') \) once to restore \ref{I.7} and then call \( \text{Fill}(Q_1') \) once to restore Invariant \ref{I.5}.
3. Else if \( e \leq \text{min}(\text{first}(B(Q_1))) \) or \( e \leq \text{min}(\text{first}(D_{k_Q}(Q_1))) \) holds, we set \( Q_1' = Q_1 \) and \( k_{Q_1} = 0 \) and set \( L(Q_1') = F(Q_2) \). If \( e \leq \text{min}(\text{first}(B(Q_1))) \) holds, we set \( B(Q_1') = \emptyset \), else we set \( B(Q_1') = B(Q_1) \).
4. Else, let \( L'(Q_1) \) be the non-attrited elements under attrition by \text{min}(F(Q_2)). If \( |L'(Q_1)| + |F(Q_2)| \leq 4b \) then append \( F(Q_2) \) to \( L'(Q_1) \), else \( L'(Q_1) + |F(Q_2)| > 4b \) so take the first 4b elements of \( L'(Q_1) \) and \( F(Q_2) \) and make into a new record in a new last dirty queue of \( Q_1' \), leave the rest in \( L(Q_1) \), set \( k_{Q_1} = k_{Q_1} + 1 \) and call \( \text{Bias}(Q_1') \) twice to restore \ref{I.7}.

2. Else if \( e \leq \text{min}(L(Q_1)) \), we set \( Q_1' = Q_1 \) and \( L(Q_1') = F(Q_2) \).
3. Else \text{min}(L(Q_1)) < e: \text{Let } l' \ be the non-attrited elements of \( l \), under attrition by \text{min}(L(Q_1)), and \( L'(Q_1) \) be the non-attrited elements, under attrition by \( e \). If \( |L'(Q_1)| + |F(Q_2)| > 4b \) holds, we do the following: if \( |l'| < |l| \) holds, we put the first \( 4b - |l'| \) elements of \( L'(Q_1) \) and \( F(Q_2) \) into \( l \) along with \( l' \). Moreover, if we still have more than \( 3b \) elements left in \( L'(Q_1) \) and \( F(Q_2) \), we put the first \( 3b \) elements into a new last record of \( D_{k_{Q_1}+1}(Q_1) \). Finally, we leave the remaining elements in \( L(Q_1) \). If we added a new last record to \( D_{k_{Q_1}+1}(Q_1) \), we also call \( \text{Bias}(Q_1) \) once.

We have now entirely dealt with the cases where \( |Q_1| < b \) or \( |Q_2| < b \) holds, so in the following we assume that \( |Q_1| \geq b \).
and $|Q_2| \geq b$ hold, i.e. any I/Os incurred in the cases below are already paid for, since the total number of large I/O-CPQAs decreases by one. Let $e = \min(Q_2)$.

1. If $|l| \leq \min(F(|Q_1|))$ holds, we discard I/O-CPQA $Q_1$ and set $Q'_1 = Q_2$.

2. Else if $e = \max(\text{last}(C(|Q_1|)))$ holds, we prepend $F(|Q_1|)$ onto $C(|Q_1|)$ and append them to $|Q_2|$.

3. Else if $e \leq \min(\text{first}(D(|Q_1|)))$ holds, we prepend $F(|Q_1|)$ onto $C(|Q_1|)$ and remove the simple record $(l, \cdot) = \text{first}(C(|Q_2|))$ from $C(|Q_2|)$, set $Q'_1 = Q_1$, $F(Q'_1) = \emptyset$, $C(Q'_1) = \emptyset$, $B(Q'_1) = C(|Q_1|)$, $D_1(Q'_1) = (l, p)$, $k_{Q'_1} = 1$, $L(Q'_1) = L(Q_2)$ and $L(Q'_2) = \emptyset$, where $p$ points to $Q'_1$ if it exists. This gives $\Delta(Q'_1) = -2$, thus we call $\text{Bias}(Q'_1)$ twice and $\text{Fill}(Q'_1)$ once.

4. Else let $L'(Q_1)$ be the non-attributed elements of $Q_1$, under attrition by $F(Q_1)$. If $|L'(Q_1)| \leq b$ holds, then we make $L'(Q_1)$ and $F(Q_1)$ into the first record of $C(Q_2)$. Else we make them into the first two records of $C(Q_2)$ of size $\lfloor (|L'(Q_1)| + |F(Q_2)|)/2 \rfloor$ and $\lfloor (|L(Q_2)| + |F(Q_2)|)/2 \rfloor$ each. We set $Q'_2 = Q_2$, $F(Q'_2) = \emptyset$, $L(Q'_2) = L(Q_2)$, $L(Q'_2) = \emptyset$, remove $(l, \cdot) = \text{first}(C(|Q_2|))$ from $C(|Q_2|)$. Moreover, we add $(l, p)$ as a new single record in $D_{Q_2+1}(Q_1)$, where $p$ points to the rest of $Q_2$, if it exists, and set $k_{Q'_2} = k_{Q_2} + 1$. All this aggravates the inequality of $(L.7)$ for $Q_1$ by at most $2$, so we call $\text{Bias}(Q'_1)$ twice.

$\text{Fill}(Q)$ restores Invariant $(L.8)$ if it is violated. In particular, if $|F(Q)| < b$ and $|Q| \geq b$, let $r = (l, \cdot) = \text{first}(C(Q))$. If $|l| \geq 2b$ holds, then we take the $b$ first elements of $l$ and append them to $F(Q)$. Else $|l| < 2b$ holds, so we append $l$ to $F(Q)$, discard $r$ and call $\text{Bias}(Q'_1)$ once.

$\text{Bias}(Q)$ improves the inequality of $(L.7)$ for $Q$ by at least $1$ if $Q$ contains any records. It also ensures that invariant $(L.8)$ is maintained. We distinguish two basic cases with respect to $|B(Q)|$, namely $|B(Q)| = 0$ and $|B(Q)| > 0$.

1. $|B(Q)| > 0$: We have two cases depending on if $k_{Q} \geq 1$ or $k_{Q} = 0$.

1) $k_{Q} = 0$: Let $e = \min(L(Q))$, if it exists. We remove the first record $r_1 = (l_1, \cdot) = \text{first}(B(Q))$ from $B(Q)$. Let $l_1'$ be the non-attributed elements of $l_1$, under attrition by element $e$. If $|l_1'| = |l_1|$ holds nothing is attritted, so we just add $r_1 = (l_1, \cdot)$ at the end of $C(Q)$. Else $|l_1'| < |l_1|$ holds, so we set $B(Q) = \emptyset$. If $|l_1'| \geq b$ holds, then we record record $r_1$ with buffer $l_1'$ into the new last record of $C(Q)$. Else $|l_1'| < b$ holds, so if $|l_1'| + |L(Q)| \leq 3b$ holds, we add $l_1'$ to $L(Q)$ and discard $r_1$. Else $|l_1'| + |L(Q)| > 3b$ holds, so we take the $2b$ first elements of $l_1'$ and $L(Q)$ and put them into $r_1$, making it the new last record of $C(Q)$.

2) $k_{Q} > 1$: Let $e = \min(\text{first}(D_1(Q)))$. We remove the first record $r_1 = (l_1, \cdot) = \text{first}(B(Q))$ from $B(Q)$. Let $l_1'$ be the non-attributed elements of $l_1$, under attrition by element $e$.

If $|l_1'| = |l_1|$ or $b \leq |l_1'| < |l_1|$ holds, we just add $r_1 = (l_1', \cdot)$ at the end of $C(Q)$ and if $|l_1'| \leq |l_1|$ we set $B(Q) = \emptyset$. Else $|l_1'| < b$ holds, we set $B(Q) = \emptyset$, let $r_2 = (l_2, p_2) = \text{first}(D_2(Q_1))$. If $|l_1'| + |l_2| \leq 4b$ holds, we discard $r_1$ and prepend $l_2'$ onto $l_2$ of $r_2$. Else $|l_1'| + |l_2| > 4b$ holds, so we take the first $2b$ elements of $l_1'$ and $l_2$ and put them in $r_1$, making it the new last record of $C(Q)$. If this causes $\min(L(Q)) \leq \min(\text{first}(D_1(Q)))$, we discard all dirty queues.

If $r_1$ was discarded, then we have that $|B(Q)| = 0$ and we call $\text{Bias}$ recursively, which will not invoke this case again. In all cases the inequality of $(L.7)$ for $Q$ is improved by $1$.

2. $|B(Q)| = 0$: We have three cases depending on the number of dirty queues, namely cases $k_{Q} > 1$, $k_{Q} = 1$ and $k_{Q} = 0$.

1) $k_{Q} > 1$: If $\min(L(Q)) \leq \min(\text{first}(D_{k_{Q}}(Q)))$ holds, we set $k_{Q} = k_{Q} - 1$ and discard $D_{k_{Q}}(Q)$. This improves the inequality of $(L.7)$ for $Q$ by at least $2$. Else let $e = \min(\text{first}(D_{k_{Q}}(Q)))$.

If $e \leq \min(\text{last}(D_{k_{Q} - 1}(Q)))$ holds, we remove the record last($D_{k_{Q} - 1}(Q)$) from $D_{k_{Q} - 1}(Q)$. This improves the inequality of $(L.7)$ for $Q$ by $1$.

If $\min(L(D_{k_{Q} - 1}(Q))) < e \leq \max(\text{last}(D_{k_{Q} - 1}(Q)))$ holds, we remove record $r_1 = (l_1, p_1) = \text{last}(D_{k_{Q} - 1}(Q))$ from $D_{k_{Q} - 1}(Q)$, and let $r_2 = (l_2, p_2) = \text{first}(D_{k_{Q}}(Q))$. We delete any elements in $l_1$ that are attritted by $e$, and let $l_1'$ denote the set of non-attributed elements. If $|l_1'| + |l_2| \leq 4b$ holds, we prepend $l_1'$ onto $l_2$ of $r_2$ and discard $r_1$. Else we take the first $|l_1'|/2$ elements of $l_1'$ and $l_2$ of $r_2$ of $r_1$ of $D_{k_{Q} - 1}(Q)$ with them. Finally, we concatenate $D_{k_{Q} - 1}(Q)$ and $D_{k_{Q}}(Q)$ into a single deque. This improves the inequality of $(L.7)$ for $Q$ by at least $1$. Else $\max(\text{last}(D_{k_{Q} - 1}(Q))) < e$ holds and we just concatenate the deques $D_{k_{Q} - 1}(Q)$ and $D_{k_{Q}}(Q)$, which improves the inequality of $(L.7)$ for $Q$ by $1$.

2) $k_{Q} = 1$: In this case $Q$ contains only deques $C(Q)$ and $D_1(Q)$. Let $r = (l, p) = \text{first}(D_1(Q))$. If $\min(L(Q)) \leq \min(\text{first}(\text{rest}(D_1(Q))))$ holds, we discard all dirty queues, except for record $r$ of $D_1(Q)$.

If $\min(L(Q)) \leq \max(l)$ holds, we discard all the dirty deques and let $l'$ be the non-attributed elements of $l$. If $|l'| + |L(Q)| \leq 3b$ holds, we prepend $l'$ onto $L(Q)$. Else $|l'| + |L(Q)| > 3b$ holds, so we take the first $2b$ elements of $l'$ and $L(Q)$ and make them the new last record of $C(Q)$ and leave the rest in $L(Q)$. This improves the inequality of $(L.7)$ for $Q$ by $1$.

Else $|l'| < \min(L(Q))$ holds, so we remove $r$ and insert buffer $l$ into a new record at the end of $C(Q)$. This improves the inequality of $(L.7)$ for $Q$ by at least $1$. If $r$ is not simple, let the pointer $p$
of r reference I/O-CPQA Q'. We restore \text{[1.6]} for Q by merging I/O-CPQAs Q and Q' into one I/O-CPQA; see Figure 9. In particular, let $e = \min(\min(\text{first}(D_1(Q))), \min(L(Q)))$.

We proceed as follows: If $e \leq \min(Q')$ holds, we discard $Q'$. The inequality of \text{[1.7]} for $Q$ remains unaffected. Else if $\min(\text{first}(C(Q'))) < e \leq \max(\text{last}(C(Q'))) \), then we set $B(Q) = C(Q')$ and discard the rest of $Q'$. The inequality of \text{[1.7]} for $Q$ remains unaffected.

Else if $\max(\text{last}(C(Q'))) < e \leq \min(\text{first}(D_1(Q'))) \) holds, we concatenate the deque $C(Q')$ at the end of $C(Q)$. If moreover $\min(\text{first}(B(Q'))) < e$ holds, we set $B(Q) = B(Q')$. Finally, we discard the rest of $Q'$. This improves the inequality of \text{[1.7]} for $Q$ by $|C(Q')|$.

Else $\min(\text{first}(D_1(Q'))) < e$ holds. We concatenate the deque $C(Q')$ at the end of $C(Q)$, we set $B(Q) = B(Q')$, we set $D_1(Q'), \ldots, D_{k_Q}(Q')$ as the first $k_Q$ dirty queues of $Q$ and we set $D_1(Q)$ as the last dirty queue of $Q$. This improves the inequality of \text{[1.7]} for $Q$ by $\Delta(Q) \geq 0$, since $Q'$ satisfied Invariant I.7 before the operation.

3) $k_Q = 0$: If all deques are empty, $L(Q) \neq \emptyset$ and $|F(Q)| \leq 2b$ hold, we take the first $b$ elements of $L(Q)$ and append to $F(Q)$. The inequality of \text{[1.7]} for $Q$ remains $\Delta(Q') = 0$.

$F(Q) \quad C(Q) \quad L(Q) \quad D_1(Q) \quad D_{k_Q}(Q')$

\text{[1.7]}:

\begin{align*}
\Delta \Phi_T & = \left( \frac{3|F(Q_1)|}{b} + \Phi_F(|F(Q_2)|) \right) - (1 + 1) \\
& \geq \frac{|F'(Q_1)|}{b} + 2(\frac{|F'(Q_2)| + |F(Q_2)|}{b}) - 7 > 1
\end{align*}

which pays for making the new first record of $C(Q_2)$.

If $|Q_2| < b$ holds, then we have three cases depending on how much of $Q_1$ is attrited by $Q_2$. Let $e = \min(\text{last}(D_{k_Q}(Q_1)))$ and $r = (l, \cdot) = \text{last}(Q_1)$:

1. $e \leq \min(\text{last}(D_{k_Q}(Q_1)))$: We discard $r$ which releases 1 potential and have the four cases:

   1.1) $r \leq \min(\text{first}(F(Q_1)))$: The discard decreases, because we only discard records.

   1.2) Else if $e \leq \min(\text{first}(D_1(Q_1)))$: We set $L(Q_1) = F(Q_2)$ and discard records, which only decreases the potential, since $\Phi_F(x) \geq 1$ when $e \geq b$. Our calls to $\text{BIA}$ and $\text{FILL}$ are paid for.

   1.3) Else if $e \leq \min(\text{first}(B(Q_1)))$ or $e \leq \min(\text{first}(D_1(Q_1)))$: We set $L(Q_1) = F(Q_2)$ and $\Phi_F(x)$ pays. We make a new dirty queue with one new record, which costs 1 potential and 1 potential to cover the I/Os in $\text{BIA}$. The total potential difference is

   \begin{align*}
   \Delta \Phi_T & \geq (\Phi_L(|L(Q_1)|) + \Phi_F(|F(Q_2)|)) - (1 + 1) \\
   & \geq \frac{2(|F'(Q_1)| + |F(Q_2)|)}{b} + \frac{|F(Q_2)|}{b} - 7 > 1
   \end{align*}

2. $e \leq \min(L(Q_1)))$: We set $L(Q_1') = F(Q_2)$, which again only decreases the potential.

3. $\min(\text{last}(L(Q_1))) < e$: If $|L'(Q_1')| + |F(Q_2)| > 4b$ holds, then if furthermore $|l'| < |l|$ we put the first $2b - |l'|$ elements of $L'(Q_1')$, $F(Q_2)$ and $l'$ into $L$, with no change in potential. If there are still more than $3b$ elements left in $L'(Q_1')$ and $F(Q_2)$, then we put the first $3b$ elements into a new last record of $D_{k_Q}(Q_1')$ for a cost of 1 in potential and call $\text{BIA}$ for a cost of 1 for I/Os, and leave the remaining $\leq 2b$ elements in $L(Q_1')$ for a cost of $\leq 1$. All this is paid for, as the total decrease in potential is

   \begin{align*}
   \Delta \Phi_T & \geq (\Phi_L(|L(Q_1)|) + \Phi_F(|F(Q_2)|)) - (1 + 1) \\
   & = \frac{2|L(Q_1)|}{b} + \frac{3|F(Q_2)|}{b} - 8 > 0
   \end{align*}
Both $Q_1$ and $Q_2$ are large in all the cases [14], hence when we concatenate them, we decrease the potential by at least 1, since the number of large I/O-CPQA’s decreases by one, which is enough to pay for any other I/Os incurred also in Bias and Fill. So we only need to argue that the potential does not increase in any of the cases.

1. If $e \leq \min(F(Q_1))$: the potential decreases, since we discard $Q_1$.

2. Else if $e \leq \max(\text{last}(C(Q_1)))$: we prepend $F(Q_1)$ onto $C(Q_1)$ and $F(Q_2)$ onto $C(Q_2)$, discard and move around records, which only decreases the potential, as $\Phi_F(x) \geq 1$ when $x \geq b$.

3. Else if $e \leq \min(\text{first}(B(Q_1)))$: we prepend $F(Q_2)$ onto $C(Q_2)$, discard and move around records, which only decreases the potentials, as $\Phi_F(x) \geq 1$ when $x \geq b$.

4. Else: We make $L'(Q_1)$ and $F(Q_2)$ into the first one or two records of $C(Q_2)$. Since $Q_2$ is large, $|F(Q_2)| \geq b$ holds, and hence we have that $\Phi_F(|F(Q_2)|) \geq 1$. If we only make one new record, $\Phi_F(|F(Q_2)|)$ pays for it. If we make two records, then $|L'(Q_1)| + |F(Q_2)| > 4b$ holds. So if $|L'(Q_1)| \geq b$ moreover holds, then $\Phi_L(|L'(Q_1)|) \geq 1$ pays for the other record. Else $|L'(Q_1)| < b$ holds, but then $|F(Q_2)| > 3b$ also holds, so

$$\Phi_L(|L'(Q_1)|) + \Phi_F(|F(Q_2)|)$$

$$\frac{|L'(Q_1)| + 2|F(Q_2)|}{b} - 5 \geq \frac{|L'(Q_1)| + |F(Q_2)| + |F(Q_2)|}{b} - 5 > 2$$

which pays for both new records.

**InsertAndAttrite:** The total cost is $O(1/b)$ I/Os amortized, since creating a new I/O-CPQA with only one element and calling CatenateAndAttrite only costs as much.

**Fill:** Any I/Os incurred are prepaid by a decrease in potential made in the procedure calling Fill, so we only need to argue that the potential does not increase. If $|F(Q)| < b$ and $|Q| \geq b$ then we append at most $2b$ elements to $F(Q)$, hence $\Phi_F(|F(Q)|)$ will only decrease.

**Bias:** All I/Os have been paid for by a decrease in potential caused by the caller of Bias. So we only need to argue that the potential does not increase because of Bias.

1. $|B(Q)| > 0$: We discard, move around and merge records, but we do not create new ones. Thus the potential will only decrease.

2. $|B(Q)| = 0$: We follow the cases of Bias.

   1) $k_Q > 1$: We again discard and move around records, and rearrange their elements, but we do not create new records, so the potential will only decrease.

   2) $k_Q = 1$: Let $r = (l, p) = \text{first}(D_k(Q))$. If $\min(L(Q)) \leq \max(l)$ holds, we might append $l'$ onto $L(Q)$, but only if $|l'| + |L(Q)| \leq 3b$. This will not increase the potential of $L(Q)$ by more than 1, and $r$ pays for that. For the rest of the case we discard and move around records and rearrange their elements, but we do not create new records, so the potential only decreases.

   3) $k_Q = 0$: If we append the first $b$ elements of $L(Q)$ onto $F(Q)$, then $|F(Q)| \leq 2b$ holds, so $\Phi_F(|F(Q)|)$ can only decrease. Likewise, when taking at most $b$ elements from $L(Q)$, $\Phi_L(|L(Q)|)$ will only decrease.

**Catenating a set of I/O-CPQAs.** Define the state of I/O-CPQA $Q$ to be $\Delta(Q)$ and the critical records of $Q$ to be the first three records of $C(Q)$, last($C(Q)$), first($B(Q)$), first($D_k(Q)$), last($D_k(Q)$) and last(front($D_k(Q)$)), if it exists. Otherwise last($D_{k-1}(Q)$) is critical. The following lemma is required by the dynamic structure of the next section.

**Lemma 7.** A set of I/O-CPQAs $Q$, for $i \in [1, \ell]$ can be concatenated into a single I/O-CPQA without any access to external memory, by calling only CatenateAndAttrite operations, provided that for all $i$:

1. $\Delta(Q_i) \geq 2$ holds, unless $Q_i$ contains only one record, in which case $\Delta(Q_i) = 0$ or $Q_i$ contains only two records, in which case $\Delta(Q_i) = +1$ suffices.

2. The critical records of $Q_i$, are loaded in main memory.

**Proof.** In fact, the algorithm considers the I/O-CPQAs $Q_i$ in decreasing index $i$ (from right to left). It first sets $Q_\ell = Q_i$ and constructs the temporary I/O-CPQA $Q^{\ell-1}_i$ by calling CatenateAndAttrite($Q_{i-1}, Q^{\ell-1}_i$). After the end of the sequence of operations, the resulting I/O-CPQA $Q^\ell$ is the concatenation of all I/O-CPQAs $Q_i$.

To avoid any I/Os during the sequence of CatenateAndAttrite, we ensure that Bias and Fill are not called, and that no more than the critical records need to be already loaded into memory. To avoid calling Bias we maintain the following invariant during the sequence of catenations.

I.10) Each I/O-CPQAs $Q^i, i \in [1, \ell]$ constructed during the sequence of catenations is in state at least +1 unless it consists only of the front buffer in which case it is in state 0.

We prove the invariant inductively on the sequence of operations. Let the invariant hold for $Q^{i+1}$ and let $Q^i$ be constructed by CatenateAndAttrite($Q_i, Q^{i+1}$). In the following, we parse the cases of the CatenateAndAttrite algorithm assuming that $e = \min(Q^{i+1})$.

If $|Q_i| < b$ holds, then Bias is not invoked and the state of $Q^{i+1}$ remains $\geq 1$ or is increased by 1.

If $|Q^{i+1}| < b$ and $|Q_i| \geq b$ then we have to go through the three respective cases.

1. If $e \leq \min(r)$: if record $r$ exists then the state of $Q_i$ is increased by 1 and it becomes $\geq 3$.

   1) If $e \leq \min(F(Q_i))$: Since Bias is not called holds trivially.

   2) Else if $e \leq \max(\text{last}(C(Q_i)))$: $Q^i$ is constructed as before and we then do the following. Since $k_{Q_i} = 0$, we take out the first two records of $B(Q^i)$ which are critical since they came from $F(Q_i)$ and first($Q_i$). Then, we fill $F(Q^i)$ with one of these records provided that no attrition was
enforced by $L(Q^i)$. In this case, the state of $Q^i$ is ≥ 1 and the invariant holds. If attrition took place then $B(Q^i)$ is discarded and the at most two records of $C(Q^i)$ and the record in $L(Q_i)$ are combined (notice that all of them are critical) to make $Q^i$ consisting only of records in $F(Q^i)$ and $C(Q^i)$ and thus $[1.10]$ holds.

3) Else if $e \leq \min(\text{first}(B(Q_i)))$ or $e \leq \min(\text{first}(D_i(Q_i)))$: Since Bias is not called $[1.10]$ holds trivially.

4) Else: the state at the end is ≥ 0, since the state of $Q_i$ was ≥ 2 by the induction hypothesis. To restore the invariant that the state of $Q^i$ should be ≥ 1 we check whether last($D_{k_i}$) is attritted or not by the new dirty queue. Since both are critical this can be done with no I/Os and thus the state of $Q^i$ is increased to ≥ 1.

2. Else if $e \leq \min(L(Q_1))$: since we do not call Bias $[1.10]$ holds trivially.

3. Else min($L(Q_1)$) < e: the state of $Q_1$ is only reduced by 1 which makes the state of $Q^i$ being ≥ 1 which is sufficient to maintain $[1.10]$.

Now we move to the more general case where $|Q_1| \geq 6$ and $|Q_2| \geq 6$.

1. $e \leq \max(\text{last}(C(Q_1)))$: we do not call Bias so $[1.10]$ holds trivially.

2. $e \leq \max(\text{last}(C(Q_1)))$: To increase the state of $Q^i$ from −2 to ≥ 1 we do as follows. We extract the 4 records of $B(Q^i)$, which incurs no I/Os since all four of them are critical (the first was from $F(Q_i)$ and the other three from the first 3 critical records of $C(Q_i)$). If no attrition was enforced by $e = \min(Q^i)$, then the state of $Q^i$ is ≥ 1. If attrition is enforced then there are not that many records in $B(Q^i)$, then $Q^i$ is reconstructed (just prepend $(l, \cdot)$ to $C(Q^i)$ and then prepend the non-attritted records (at most 4 records) from $Q_i$ to $C(Q^i)$ remaking $F(Q^i)$. At the end of this process, the new CPQA $Q^i$ has state at least equal to $Q^i$ which is ≥ 1 by induction and $[1.10]$ holds.

3. $e \leq \min(\text{first}(B(Q_i)))$ or $e \leq \min(\text{first}(D_i(Q_i)))$: we will only consider the case where $k_{Q_i} = 0$ before the concatenation, since otherwise the state of $Q^i$ would be equal or larger to the state of $Q_i$, which by the inductive hypothesis is ≥ 2. Since $Q_i$ must be in state ≥ 2, there are either at least three records in $C(Q_i)$, in which case $[1.10]$ holds and the case is terminated. Otherwise, exactly two records exist in $C(Q_i)$ and $B(Q_i)$ is non-empty or there are less than two records in $C(Q_i)$ (so the state of $Q_i$ is ≥ 1 or 0) and $B(Q_i)$ is empty. In the case where two records exist in $C(Q_i)$ and $B(Q_i)$ is non-empty: if first($B(Q_i)$) is not attritted by $e$ we put this record into $C(Q_i)$ and now the final I/O-CQA $Q^i$ has state ≥ 1. Otherwise, we restructure $Q^i$ (as done in the previous case) and prepend the non-attritted elements of $Q_i$ onto $Q^i$ resulting in an I/O-CQA with state at least ≥ 1 since this was the state of $Q^i$. We follow exactly the same approach in the latter case where $C(Q_i)$ contains less than two records and $B(Q_i)$ is empty.

4. Else: the algorithm works exactly as before with the following exception. At the end, $Q^i$ will be in state ≥ 0, since we added the deque $D_{k_{Q_i}+1}$ with a new record and the inequality of $[1.7]$ is aggrevated by 2. To restore the invariant we apply Case $[2.10]$ of Bias. This step requires access to records last($D_{k_{Q_i}+1}$) and first($D_{k_{Q_i}}$). These records are both critical, since the former corresponds to last($D_{k_{Q_i}+1}$) and the latter to first($C(Q^i)$). In addition, Bias($Q^i$) need not be called, since by the invariant, $Q^i$ was in state ≥ 1 before the removal of first($C(Q^i)$). In this way, we improve the inequality for $Q^i$ by 1 and $[1.10]$ holds.

4.2 Final Dynamic Top-Open Structure

The data structure consists of a base tree, implemented as a dynamic $(a, 2a)$-tree where the leaves store between $k$ and $2k$ elements. We set $a = [2B^+ \cdot k = B$, for a given $0 \leq \epsilon < 1$. The base tree indexes the $<_{\epsilon}$-ordering of $P$, and is augmented with confluently persistent I/O-CPQAs with buffer size $b = B^{1+\epsilon}$ as secondary structures. In particular, after constructing the base tree, we augment it with secondary I/O-CPQAs in a bottom-up manner, as follows. For every leaf we make one I/O-CQA over its elements, and execute an appropriate amount of Bias operations, such that the state of the I/O-CQA satisfies Lemma $[4]$. We associate the I/O-CQA with the leaf. In a second pass over the leaves, we gather its critical records into a representative block in its parent. The procedure continues one level above. For every internal node $u$, we access the representative blocks that contain the critical records of the children I/O-CPQAs of $u$, and CatenateAndAttrite them into a new I/O-CQA as implied by Lemma $[4]$. We execute Bias on the I/O-CQA enough times such that its state also satisfies Lemma $[4]$. We associate the I/O-CQA with $u$. After the level has been processed, we create the representative blocks for I/O-CPQA associated with the nodes of the level, in the same way as described above. The augmentation ends at the root node of the base tree. We will ensure that our algorithms access the I/O-CQA associated with a node through the representative block stored at the parent of the node. Thus, it will suffice to explicitly store only the representative blocks in every internal node and not its associated I/O-CQA.

Since every leaf contains $O(B)$ elements, the base tree has $O(n/B)$ leaves and thus also $O(n/B)$ internal nodes. Every internal node has $O(B^\epsilon)$ children, each associated with an I/O-CQA with $O(1)$ critical records of size $O(B^{1-\epsilon})$. Thus the representative blocks stored in the internal node occupy $O(1)$ blocks of space. Thus the structure occupies $O(n/B)$ blocks in total. Assume that $\bar{P}$ is already sorted by the $<_{\epsilon}$-ordering. The leaves’ I/O-CPQAs are created in $O(1)$ I/Os, since they contain at most $O(B)$ elements. All representative blocks are created in $O(n/B)$ I/Os. To create the internal nodes’ I/O-CPQAs, we need only $O(1)$ I/Os to access the representative blocks and to execute Bias on the resulting I/O-CQA. Its representative blocks residing in memory thus are written on disk in $O(1)$ I/Os. Thus the total preprocessing cost is $O(n/B)$ and the structure is SABE.

Updates. To insert (resp. delete) a point $p$ into (resp. from) $P$, we insert (resp. delete) $\tilde{p} = (\tilde{x}_p, \tilde{y}_p)$ in the structure.
We consider the temporary I/O-CPQA of nodes $u$ within the $x$-range $[\omega, \infty]$. Next, we will formally establish these dominance queries, let alone left-open and 4-sided queries. In fact, anti-dominance, left-open and 4-sided are just as hard as each other. Moreover, we recompute the I/O-CPQA of every accessed node on the path, as described above. The total update I/Os are $O(\log_2 B \cdot (n/B))$ in the worst case, since we spend $O(1)$ I/Os to rebalance every accessed node and to recompute its secondary structures.

** Queries. To report the skyline points of $P$ that reside within a given top-open query range $[\omega, \infty]$, we first traverse top-down the two search paths $\mathcal{P} \cap \mathcal{Q}$ and $\mathcal{Q}$ from the root of the base tree to the leaves $l_1$ and $l_2$ that contain points of $P$ whose $y$-ordering succeed and precede the query parameters $\omega_1$ and $\omega_2$, respectively. Let node $u$ be on the path $\mathcal{P} \cap \mathcal{Q}$, and let $c(u)$ be the children nodes of $u$ whose subtrees are fully contained within $[\omega_1, \omega_2]$. For every $u$, we load its representative block into memory in order to access the critical records of the I/O-CPQA associated with $c(u)$ and to CatenateAndAttrite them into a temporary I/O-CPQA, as implied by Lemma 2. We consider the temporary I/O-CPQAs of nodes $u$ and the I/O-CPQAs of the leaves $l_1$ and $l_2$ from right to left, and we CatenateAndAttrite them into one auxiliary I/O-CPQA. The I/O-CPQAs for $l_1$ and $l_2$ are created only on the points within the $x$-range $[\omega_1, \omega_2]$ in $O(1)$ I/Os.

To report the skyline points within the query range, we call DELETEMIN on the auxiliary I/O-CPQA. The procedure stops as soon as a point with $\gamma_p > -\beta$ is returned, or when the auxiliary I/O-CPQA becomes empty.

There are $O(\log_2 B \cdot (n/B))$ nodes on $\pi_1 \cup \pi_2$ and we spend $O(1)$ I/Os to access the representative block of each node. After this, the construction of the auxiliary I/O-CPQA costs $O(\log_2 B \cdot (n/B))$ I/Os. Reporting the $k$ output points costs $O(\log_2 B \cdot (n/B) + k/B^{1-\epsilon})$ I/Os. Therefore the query takes $O(\log_2 B \cdot (n/B) + \frac{k}{B^{1-\epsilon}})$ I/Os in total. We conclude that:

**Theorem 4.** There is an indivisible linear-size dynamic data structure on $n$ points in $\mathbb{R}^2$ that supports top-open range skyline queries in $O(\log_2 B \cdot (n/B) + k/B^{1-\epsilon})$ I/Os when $k$ points are reported, and updates in $O(\log_2 B \cdot (n/B))$ I/Os for any parameter $0 \leq \epsilon \leq 1$. The structure can be constructed in $O(n/B)$ I/Os, assuming an initial sorting on the input points’ $x$-coordinates.

5. **GENERAL RANGE SKYLINE QUERIES**

We now move on to discuss the other variants of range skyline reporting that are neither symmetric to nor subsumed by top-open queries. It would be nice if they could be answered in $O(\log_2 B \cdot n + k/B)$ I/Os by a linear-size structure. Unfortunately, we will prove its impossibility. In fact, even sub-polynomial query cost is already unachievable for anti-dominance queries, let alone left-open and 4-sided queries. In fact, anti-dominance, left-open and 4-sided are just as hard as each other. Next, we will formally establish these facts.

5.1 **A Query Lower Bound**

By making a crucial observation on a variant of the low-discrepancy point set proposed by Chazelle and Liu [11], we manage to prove the next geometric fact:

**Lemma 8.** For any integer $\omega \geq 1$ and $\lambda > 1$, there is a set $P$ of $\omega^\lambda$ points in $\mathbb{R}^2$ and a set $G$ of $\omega^{\lambda-1}$ anti-dominance queries such that (i) each query in $G$ retrieves $d$ points of $P$, and (ii) at most one point in $P$ is returned by two different queries in $G$ simultaneously.

**Proof.** We first give some definitions in the context of Chazelle and Liu [11]. A query set $Q$ is $(m, \omega)$-favorable for a data set $S$, if $Q_i \in S : |S \cap Q_i| \leq \omega$ and $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}_{1} \cdots < \eta_m : |S \cap Q_{i_1} \cap \cdots \cap Q_{i_m}| = O(1)$. Let $S$ be a set of $n$ points in $\mathbb{R}^2$. Let $Q = \{ Q_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2 | 1 \leq i \leq m \}$ be a set of $m$ orthogonal 2-sided query ranges $Q_i = [q_i, \infty] \times [q_i, \infty] \subseteq \mathbb{R}^2$. Query range $Q_i$ is the subspace of $\mathbb{R}^2$ that dominates a given point $q_i \in \mathbb{R}^2$ in the positive $x$- and $y$- direction (the "upper-right" quadrant defined by $q_i$). Let $S_i = S \cap Q_i$ be the set of all points in $S$ that lie in the range $Q_i$. An inverse anti-dominance reporting query $Q_i$ contains the points of $S_i$ that do not dominate any other point in $S_i$. This problem is equivalent to the anti-dominance problem by inverting the coordinates of all points and of the query.

We will now construct a $(2, \omega)$-favorable query set $Q$ and its corresponding point set $S$, where $\omega > 1$. Without loss of generality, we assume that $n = \omega^\lambda$, where $\lambda > 0$, since this restriction generates a countably infinite number of inputs and thus the lower bound is general. Let us write $0 \leq i < n$ as $i = (i_{\omega-1}) \cdots (i_0)$, where $i_j$ is the $j$-th digit of number $i$ in base $\omega$. Then define $\rho_\omega(i) = (\omega - i_{\omega-1} - 1) (\omega - i_{\omega-2} - 1) \cdots (\omega - i_0 - 1)$

So $\rho_\omega(i)$ is the integer obtained by writing $0 \leq i < n$ using $\lambda$ digits in base $\omega$, by first reversing the digits and then taking their complement with respect to $\omega$. We define the points of $S$ to be the set $\{ (i, \rho_\omega(i)) | 0 \leq i < n \}$. Figure 10 shows an example with $\omega = 4$ and $\lambda = 2$.

![Figure 10](image-url)

**Figure 10:** (Left) An example for $\omega = 4$ and $\lambda = 2$, the point set $S$ is shown with circles and the the queries $Q$ are shown with crosses. Two examples of queries are shown in red and blue. (Right) The corresponding trie that we used to generate the point set, here the red and blue queries are also shown, along with the internal node which generated the queries.
the edges of the trie, where the edges at the root have labels $\omega - i_{-1} - 1$ and the edges at the leafs of the trie have labels $\omega - i_0 - 1$. Let $v$ be an internal node at depth $d$ (namely $v$ has $d$ ancestors), whose prefix $v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_{d-1}$ corresponds to the path from the root $r$ of the trie to $v$. We take all points in its subtree and sort them by $\omega$. From this sorted list we construct groups of size $\omega$ by always picking every $\omega^{d-1}$. This element starting from the smallest non-picked element for each group. In this case, we say that the query is associated to node $v$. Each such group corresponds to the output of a query. See Figure 10 for an example.

A node at depth $d$ has $\omega^d$ points in its subtree and thus it defines at most $\frac{n}{\omega^d}$ queries. Thus, the total number of queries is:

$$|Q| = \sum_{d=0}^{\lambda-1} \omega^d \frac{n}{\omega^{d+1}} = \sum_{d=0}^{\lambda-1} \frac{n}{\omega} = \frac{\lambda n}{\omega}$$

In the following we prove that $Q$ is $(2, \omega)$-favorable. To achieve that we need to prove that $\forall Q_i \in Q: |S \cap Q_i| \geq \omega$ and $\forall i_1 < i_2: |S \cap Q_{i_1} \cap Q_{i_2}| = O(1)$.

First we prove that we can construct the queries so that they have output size $\omega$. Assume that we take one of the groups of $\omega$ points associated to node $v$ at depth $d$. Let the $y$-coordinates of these points be $\rho_v(i_1), \rho_v(i_2), \ldots, \rho_v(i_\omega)$ in increasing order. These have a common prefix of length $d$ since they all belong to the subtree of $v$. But we also choose these points so that $\rho_v(i_j) - \rho_v(i_{j-1}) = \omega^{d-1}, 1 < j \leq \omega$. This means that these numbers differ only at the $\lambda - d - 1$-th digit. By reversing the procedure to construct these $y$-coordinates, the corresponding $x$-coordinates $i_j, 1 \leq j \leq \omega$ are determined. By complementing we take the increasing sequence $\bar{\rho}_v(i_\omega), \ldots, \bar{\rho}_v(i_2), \bar{\rho}_v(i_1)$, where $\bar{\rho}_v(i_j) = \omega^d - \rho_v(i_j) - 1$ and $\bar{\rho}_v(i_{j-1}) - \bar{\rho}_v(i_j) = \omega^{d-1}, 1 < j \leq \omega$. By reversing the digits we finally get the increasing sequence of $x$-coordinates $i_\omega, \ldots, i_2, i_1$, since the numbers differ at only one digit. Thus, the $y$-coordinate of the group of $\omega$ points are decreasing as the $x$-coordinates increase, and as a result a query $q$ whose horizontal line is just below $\rho_v(i_1)$ and the vertical line just to the left of $\bar{\rho}_v(i_\omega)$ will certainly contain this set of points in the query. In addition, there cannot be any other points between this sequence and the horizontal line defining query $q$. This is because all points in the subtree of $v$ have been sorted with respect to $y$, while the horizontal line is positioned just below $\rho_v(i_1)$, so that no other element lies in between. In the same manner, no points to the left of $\bar{\rho}_v(i_\omega)$ exist, when positioning the vertical line of $q$ appropriately. Thus, for each query $q \in Q$, it holds that $|S \cap q| = \omega$.

We now want to prove that for any two query ranges $p, q \in Q$, $|S \cap q \cap p| \leq 1$ holds. Assume that $p$ and $q$ are associated to nodes $v$ and $u$, respectively, and that their subtrees are disjoint. That is, $u$ is not a proper ancestor or descendant of $v$. In this case, $p$ and $q$ share no common point, since each point is used only once in the trie. For the other case, assume without loss of generality that $u$ is a proper ancestor of $v$ ($u \neq v$). By the discussion in the previous paragraph, each query contains $\omega$ numbers that differ at one and only one digit. Since $u$ is a proper ancestor of $v$, the corresponding digits will be different for the queries defined in $u$ and for the queries defined in $v$. This implies that there can be at most one common point between these sequences, since the digit that changes for one query range is always set to a particular value for the other query range.

We use the term $(\omega, \lambda)$-input to refer to the point set $P$ obtained in Lemma 3 after $\omega$ and $\lambda$ have been fixed. We deploy such input sets to derive:

**Lemma 9.** Regarding anti-dominance queries on $n$ points in $\mathbb{R}^2$, any structure (in the indexability model) of at most $cn/B$ blocks must incur $\Omega((n/B)^{1/(25c)} + k/B)$ I/Os to answer a query in the worst case, where $c \geq 1$ is a constant and $k$ is the result size.

**Proof.** Let us first review the indexability theorem of [21]. Theorem 5.5. Let $\Lambda$ be a structure on a $(\omega, \lambda)$-input. Define the access overhead of $\Lambda$ as the smallest value $A$ that allows us to claim: $\Lambda$ answers any query with output size $\omega$ in $\Lambda \omega / B$ I/Os. In the context of Lemma 3 the indexability theorem states:

$$\frac{\omega}{B} \geq A$$

Next, we will argue that if a structure has query complexity $\mathcal{O}(n/B)^{1/(25c)} + k/B$, it must use strictly more than $cn/B$ blocks in the worst case. This implies that no structure of at most $cn/B$ blocks can guarantee the aforementioned query time, and hence, proving Lemma 9.

Consider any structure with query time $\mathcal{O}(n/B)^{1/(25c)} + k/B$. Let $\Lambda$ be the structure’s instance on an $(\omega, \lambda)$-input where $\omega = B$ and $\lambda = 12c + 1.1$. The I/O cost of $\Lambda$ answering a query with output size $k = \omega$ is at most

$$\alpha((\omega/B)^{1/(25c)} + \omega/B) = \alpha B^{25c+0.1} + \alpha = \alpha B^{25c+0.1} + \alpha \leq \alpha B^{12c+1} + \alpha$$

where $\alpha > 0$ is a certain constant. It thus follows that $A \leq \alpha B^{12c+1}$ when $B$ is sufficiently large. Therefore, by the indexability theorem, the structure must occupy at least $\lambda/12$ blocks must incur $\Omega((n/B)^{1/(25c)} + k/B)$ I/Os answering a query in the worst case, where $\epsilon > 0$ can be an arbitrarily small constant, and $k$ is the result size.

**Theorem 5.** Regarding anti-dominance queries on $n$ points, any linear-size structure under the indexability model must incur $\Omega((n/B)^{1/(25c)} + k/B)$ I/Os by a linear-size dynamic structure.

**Theorem 6.** There is an indivisible linear-size structure on $n$ points in $\mathbb{R}^2$ such that, 4-sided range skyline queries can be answered in $\mathcal{O}(n/B)^{\gamma} + k/B$ I/Os, where $\gamma$ is the number of reported points. The query cost is optimal under the indexability model. The structure can be updated in $\mathcal{O}(\log(n/B))$ amortized I/Os.

**Proof.** Create a weight-balanced B-tree [4] on the x-coordinates of the points in $P$. Each leaf node of $T$ has capacity $B$, and each internal node has $\Theta(f)$ child nodes where $f = \log(n/B)$. The height $h$ of $T$ is then $\mathcal{O}(\log_f(n/B)) = O(1)$. For a node $u$ in $T$, let $P(u)$ be the set of points whose x-coordinates are in the subtree of $u$. We manage $P(u)$ using a structure $R(u)$ of Theorem 4 for
answering right-open queries. Specifically, \( R(u) \) answers a right-open query and supports an update in \( O((\log n)|R(u)|/B) \) I/Os. The right-open structures of all nodes at the same level of \( T \) consume \( O(n/B) \) space in total. As \( T \) has only constant levels, the total space cost is \( O(n/B) \).

**Query.** Given a 4-sided query with search rectangle \( Q = [\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times [\beta_1, \beta_2] \), we find in \( O(hf/B) = O((n/B)^γ) \) I/Os the leaf nodes \( z_1, z_2 \) of \( T \) containing the successor and predecessor of \( \alpha_1 \) and \( \alpha_2 \) respectively, among the \( x \)-coordinates indexed by \( T \). If \( z_1 = z_2 \), solve the query by loading the \( B \) points in \( z_1 \) into memory with \( O(1) \) I/Os.

Consider now \( z_1 \neq z_2 \). Let \( \pi_1 \) (\( \pi_2 \)) be the path from the lowest common ancestor of \( z_1 \) and \( z_2 \) to \( z_1 \) (\( z_2 \)). Let \( S \) be the set of child nodes \( v \) of the internal nodes on \( \pi_1 \cup \pi_2 \) such that the \( x \)-interval of \( v \) is fully contained in \([\alpha_1, \alpha_2]\) (the \( x \)-interval of \( v \) tightly encloses the \( x \)-coordinates in the subtree of \( v \)).

The nodes of \( S \) have disjoint intervals, and can be listed out in descending order of their \( x \)-intervals with \( O(hf/B) = O((n/B)^γ) \) I/Os. Also, \( |S| \leq hf = O((n/B)^γ \log(n/B)) \).

Find the skyline of \( P(\pi_2) \cap Q \) in one I/O; let \( β^* \) be the \( y \)-coordinate of the highest point in this skyline. Next, we process the nodes of \( S \) in descending order of their \( y \)-intervals. For each \( v \in S \), perform a right-open query with \( ]−\infty, \infty[ \times [β^*, β_2] \) on \( R(v) \), and output all the points retrieved. If the query returns at least one point, update \( β^* \) to the \( y \)-coordinate of the highest point returned. Finally, issue a 4-sided query with \([\alpha_1, \alpha_2] \times [β^*, β_2]\) on \( z_1 \) in one I/O.

Since each right-open query costs \( O((\log(n/B)) \) I/Os (plus linear output time), all such queries on the nodes of \( S \) have total cost \( O(|S| \log(n/B) + k/B) = O((n/B)^γ + k/B) \).

**Update.** To insert a point \( p \) into \( P \), first descend a root-to-leaf path \( π \) to the leaf node \( z \) of \( T \) where \( p_x \) should be placed. For each interval node \( u \) along \( π \), insert \( p \) to \( R(u) \) in \( O((\log(n/B))/B) \) I/Os. Since \( T \) has \( h = O(1) \) levels, the cost so far is \( O((\log(n/B)) \).

Next, update the base tree \( T \) by inserting \( p_x \). If an internal node \( u \) is split, we construct \( R(u') \) for each new node \( u' \) from scratch by simply inserting into \( R(u) \) all the relevant points in \( O(P(u'))/\log(n/B) \) I/Os. The cost can be charged on the \( O(P(u)) \) updates that have occurred beneath \( u \) since its creation. Hence, each of those updates bears \( O((\log(n/B))/\log(n/B) \) I/Os. Since an update needs to bear such cost only \( h \) times, the total amortized cost is still \( O((\log(n/B)) \).

A deletion can be handled in a similar manner. Finally, reconstruct the entire structure after \( \Omega(n) \) updates to make sure that \( h \) does not change until \( T \) is rebuilt next time. Standard analysis shows that the amortized update overhead remains \( O((\log(n/B)) \).

5.3 Pointer Machine Space Lower Bound

In the pointer machine (PM) model, a data structure that stores a data set \( S \) and supports range reporting queries for a query set \( Q \), can be modelled as a directed graph \( G \) of bounded out-degree with some nodes being entry nodes. In particular, every node in \( G \) may be assigned an element of \( S \) or may contain some other useful information. For a query range \( Q_i \subseteq Q \), the algorithm navigates over the edges of \( G \) in order to locate all nodes that contain the answer to the query. The algorithm may also traverse other nodes. The time complexity of reporting the output of \( Q_i \) is at least equal to the number of nodes accessed in graph \( G \) for \( Q_i \).

Given a directed graph \( G \) modelling a data structure in the PM, Chazelle and Liu [10] define the graph \( G \) to be \((\alpha, \omega)\)-effective, if a query is supported in \( \alpha(k + \omega) \) time, where \( k \) is the output size, \( \alpha \) is a multiplicative factor for the output size (\( \alpha = O(1) \) for our purposes) and \( \omega \) is the additive factor. Moreover, a query set \( Q \) is \((m, \omega)\)-favorable for a data set \( S \), if \( \forall q_i \in Q : |S \cap Q_i| \gg \omega \) and \( v_{i_1} < v_{i_2} < \ldots < v_{i_m} : |S \cap Q_{i_1} \cap \ldots \cap Q_{i_m}| = O(1) \). Intuitively, the first part of this property requires that the size of the output is large enough (at least \( \omega \)) so that it dominates the additive factor \( \omega \) in the time complexity. The second part requires that the query outputs have minimum overlap, in order to force \( G \) to be large without many nodes containing the output of many queries. The following lemma exploits these properties to provide a lower bound on the minimum size of \( G \).

**Lemma 10** (From [11], Lemma 2.3). For an \((m, \omega)\)-effective graph \( G \) for the data set \( S \), and for an \((\alpha, \omega)\)-favorable set of queries \( Q \), the graph \( G \) contains \( \Omega(|Q|/\alpha m) \) nodes, for constant \( \alpha \) and \( \omega \) for any large enough \( \omega \).

**Theorem 7.** The anti-dominance reporting problem in the Pointer Machine requires \( \Omega(n/\log\log n) \) space, if the query is supported in \( O(\log\log n + k) \) time, where \( k \) is the size of the answer to the query and parameter \( \gamma = O(1) \).

**Proof.** Lemma 8 allows us to apply Lemma 10 when setting \( \omega = \log\gamma n + \lambda = \left\lceil \frac{\log n}{1 + \gamma \log \log n} \right\rceil \), for some constant \( \gamma > 0 \). Thus the query time of \( O(\log\log n + k) \), for output size \( k \), can only be achieved at a space cost of \( \Omega(n/\log\log n) \).

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