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Abstract

In this paper we consider solutions to the static dictionary problem on AC^0 RAMs, i.e. random access machines where the only restriction on the finite instruction set is that all computational instructions are in AC^0 . Our main result is a tight upper and lower bound of $\Theta(\sqrt{\log n/\log\log n})$ on the time for answering membership queries in a set of size n when reasonable space is used for the data structure storing the set; the upper bound can be obtained using O(n) space, and the lower bound holds even if we allow space $2^{\operatorname{polylog} n}$.

Several variations of this bound is also obtained, including tight upper and lower bounds on the storage space if the query time must be constant and bounds valid for non- AC^0 RAMs if the execution time of an instruction computing a function is measured as the minimal depth of a polynomially sized unbounded fan-in circuit computing the function. We refer to this model as the Circuit RAM. As an example of the latter, we show that any RAM instruction set which permits a linear space, constant query time solution to the static dictionary problem must have an instruction of depth $\Omega(\log w/\log\log w)$, where w is the word size of the machine (and log the size of the universe). This matches the depth of multiplication and integer division, used in the two level perfect hashing scheme by Fredman, Komlós and Szemerédi.

One of the non-dictionary related consequences of our techniques is a randomized AC^0 sorting algorithm using $O(n(\log \log n)^2)$ time and linear space.

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1 Introduction

The most fundamental data structure problem is the static dictionary problem: Given a set A containing n keys, each being a bit vector of length w, store it as a data structure in the memory of a random access machine, using few memory registers, each containing w bits (a word), so that membership queries "Is $x \in A$?" can be answered efficiently for any value of x. In addition, if $x \in A$, we might want to retrieve some information associated with x. We are interested in tradeoffs between the storage space (measured by the number of registers used) and the query time.

The set A can be stored as a sorted table using n memory registers allowing queries to be answered using binary search in $O(\log n)$ time. Yao [Yao81] first considered the possibility of improving this solution and provided an improvement for certain cases. Fredman, Komlós and Szemerédi [FKS84] showed that for all values of w and n, there is a storage scheme using O(n) memory registers, so that queries can be answered in constant time. Their technique is two level hashing based on the family of hash functions $h_k(x) = (kx \mod p) \mod s$. Thus, multiplication and integer division are used by the query program. Since these instructions are usually considered expensive, it is natural to ask whether their use can be avoided. The family may be replaced by a family due to Knuth [Knu73, p.509] using only multiplication, bitwise Boolean operations, and shifts (see [DHKP93] for details), so integer division is not essential. But so far, the existence of optimal schemes for static dictionaries with multiplication replaced by cheaper instructions has remained an open problem.

One natural, robust, and generally accepted formalization of what it means for a function to be "cheap" is membership in AC^0 , i.e. the function should be implementable by a constant depth, unbounded fan-in (AND,OR,NOT)-circuit of size $w^{O(1)}$. This is the approach taken in this paper; we consider solving the static dictionary problem on AC^0 RAMs. This model of computation has not been studied in depth previously. Informally, an AC^0 RAM is a RAM with an instruction set consisting of direct and indirect addressing, conditional jump, and a finite number of computational instructions each mapping a constant number of words to one word. All computational instructions belong to AC^0 . All instructions are charged unit cost.

Our main results are the following.

Theorem A There is a solution to the static dictionary problem on an AC^0 RAM using O(n) space and with a worst case query time of $O(\sqrt{\log n/\log\log n})$. On the other hand, query time $o(\sqrt{\log n/\log\log n})$ is not possible on any AC^0 RAM even if space $2^{\text{polylog }n}$ is allowed.

Theorem B For any $\epsilon > 0$, there is a solution to the static dictionary problem on an AC^0 RAM with constant query time using space $O(2^{w^{\epsilon}})$ for storing sets of size $n = 2^{w^{o(1)}}$. On the other hand, on no AC^0 RAM there is a constant query time solution using space $2^{w^{o(1)}}$ for

storing sets of size $n = 2^{(\log w)^2}$.

The lower bounds above actually holds in a more general model than the AC^0 RAM, the Circuit RAM. By a Circuit RAM with word size w we mean a RAM with direct and indirect addressing, conditional jump, and a number of computational instructions each mapping a constant number of words to one word. The computational instructions can be chosen arbitrarily, i.e. they do not have to be in AC^0 . However, each instruction has an associated cost. The cost of direct and indirect addressing and conditional jump is 1. The cost of a computational instruction is d, where d is minimum depth of a circuit of size $w^{O(1)}$ implementing the instruction. The time of an execution is the sum of the costs of all the instructions executed. Note the similarity between this definition and the log cost RAM, the difference being that the log cost RAM captures hardware operating sequentially on the bits in the words, while the Circuit RAM captures hardware exploiting unbounded fan-in parallelism (but only inside the CPU). We immediately see that if a problem can be solved by an AC^0 RAM using time t, it can also be solved by a Circuit RAM using time O(t). We believe the Circuit RAM is quite a natural model of computation, deserving further study. From a lower bound point of view it is worthwhile noticing that we do not disallow expensive instructions such as multiplication. Disallowing them would make our lower bounds less interesting, since such instructions are present on real computers. Instead we do allow them, but charge them more, using the well-studied depth measure from circuit complexity. Note that in the Circuit RAM model, the two level hashing scheme of [FKS84] has query time $O(\log w/\log\log w)$, since multiplication and integer division [BCH86] are in NC^1 and any function in NC^1 has polynomial size circuits of depth $O(\log w/\log\log w)$ [CSV84]. We provide a matching lower bound that also generalizes the lower bound of Theorem A.

Theorem C There is no Circuit RAM solution to the static dictionary problem using space $2^{\operatorname{polylog} n}$ and with query time $o(\log w/\log\log w)$. In fact, for any word length w, there is a fixed set $X \subseteq \{0,1\}^w$ of size $n = 2^{\Theta(\log^2 w/\log\log w)}$ so that any Circuit RAM dictionary for X using space $2^{\operatorname{polylog} n}$ has worst case query time $\Omega(\sqrt{\log n/\log\log n}) = \Omega(\log w/\log\log w)$. The result holds even for Monte Carlo schemes and with worst case time replaced with average case time (where the average is over the set X)

Techniques used

Our upper bounds are shown using a novel data structure, the clustering structure. The clustering structure is based on two kinds of "hash-like" functions, clustering functions clustering the input into Hamming balls of small radius and cluster busters hashing each individual Hamming ball. The AC^0 instruction set required to implement this data structure is non-standard, but not unrealistic. We hope that the clustering structure (and structures like it) might inspire future hardware design by pointing out potentially useful instructions. The data structure can be dynamized. One of the non-dictionary related applications of the

clustering technique is a randomized, linear space AC^0 RAM sorting algorithm using time $O(n(\log \log n)^2)$.

Our lower bound relies on a recursive construction of a difficult set. At each level of the recursion we use probabilistic methods including Håstad's switching lemma [Hås87].

Related research

Apart from the sorted table/binary search solution, previous linear space solutions to the static dictionary problem implementable on AC^0 RAMs were constructed by Tarjan and Yao [TY79], achieving constant query time if $w = c \log n$ for some constant c, and by Willard [Wil84] and Karlsson [Kar84], achieving query time $O(\sqrt{w})$.

Previous lower bounds for the static dictionary problem have been obtained by Fich and Miltersen [FM95,Mil96]. The former paper gives lower bounds for the case where the computational instructions allowed are addition, subtraction and multiplication (the Classical RAM), the latter for the case where the instructions allowed are addition, subtraction, bitwise Boolean operations and arbitrary shifts (the Practical RAM). It is interesting to compare the previous bounds with the new ones. If constant query time is desired, the following space bounds are necessary and sufficient (for sets of size $w \ll n \ll 2^w$): On the Classical RAM $\epsilon 2^w$, on the Practical RAM $\epsilon 2^w$, and on the $\epsilon 4^v$ 0 RAM $\epsilon 4^v$ 1. If linear space is desired, logarithmic query time is optimal for the Classical RAM, but not for the $\epsilon 4^v$ 1. It is open if logarithmic query time is optimal for the Practical RAM, the best current lower bound being the $\epsilon 4^v$ 2 log log $\epsilon 4^v$ 3 one implied by this paper, improving the $\epsilon 4^v$ 3 log log $\epsilon 4^v$ 4 one of [Mil96].

From circuit complexity there is a result of Mansour, Nisan, and Tiwari [MNT93] (building on [LMN93]) that no AC^0 circuit implements a family of universal hash functions $\{H_k\}$, where "implements" means that the circuit on input (k, x) computes $H_k(x)$. This result is an immediate corollary of our lower bounds as the following argument shows: Suppose, to the contrary, that an AC^0 circuit computing a universal family exists. This family could replace the family of hash functions used by Fredman, Komlós and Szemerédi, and thus yielding an O(n) space, O(1) query time AC^0 RAM solution to the static dictionary problem, contradicting Theorem A, B and C. However, our result is more general: In the context of static dictionaries, their result shows that we cannot find a single AC^0 instruction to replace multiplication in universal hashing schemes, such as the FKS-technique, but it does not tell us anything about what can be achieved by programs which are not based on universal hashing. As our upper bound shows, there are alternatives to universal hashing for solving the static dictionary problem, and our lower bounds cover all possible programs.

Notation

In the rest of the paper, the symbol n will always denote the size of the set we want to store in a dictionary. The symbol w is the length of the keys to be stored and the word size

of the machine. In our recursive constructions, we might want to store sets smaller than n containing keys shorter than w. Usually, the size of such a set will be denoted m and the length of the keys b.

In several places in the paper, we shall assume that various fractions and logarithms are integers to avoid looking at tedious special cases.

We let \oplus denote exclusive-or. Letters x,y,z,z_i etc normally represents bit vectors. The jth bit of vector x is denoted x[j]. Often an l-bit vector x is identified with the set $\{i|x[i]=1\}$. If a boolean operation is applied to two bit-vectors of the same length, the application is understood to be bit-wise. For example, given two l-bit vectors x,y, we have $x\vee y=x\cup y$ and $x\wedge y=x\cap y$. The symbol \setminus denotes set difference (of sets or words). By |x| we mean the Hamming weight of x, i.e. the number of 1-bits in x. Note that $|x\oplus y|$ is thus the Hamming distance between x and y. The Hamming ball with center c and radius r is the set of bit vectors $\{x\in\{0,1\}^w:|x\oplus c|\leq r\}$. The Hamming ball with center 0^w and radius r is denoted H_r . In some cases, we use H_r^b to mark that the keys are of length b.

Let $K \subseteq \{1, 2, ..., w\}$. The projection function $\pi_K : \{0, 1\}^w \to \{0, 1\}^{|K|}$ selects the bits marked by K from its input.

2 Upper bounds

Lemma 1 Let $A \subseteq \{0,1\}^w$ be a set of at most n elements, and let r < w/20. Let K be a random subset of of $\{1,\ldots,w\}$ of size $10(\log n)w/r$. with probability at least $1-1/n^3$, for all $x,y \in A$, $|x \oplus y| > r$ implies $\pi_K(x) \neq \pi_K(y)$.

Proof: Let x, y be a particular pair in A with $|x \oplus y| > r$. Let i be a random index in $\{1, \ldots, w\}$. The probability that x[i] = y[i] is at most 1 - r/w. Thus, if K is a randomly chosen set of size $10(\log n)w/r$, the probability that $\pi_K(x) = \pi_K(y)$ is at most $(1 - r/w)^{10(\log n)w/r}$. The probability that $\pi_K(x) = \pi_K(y)$ for any such pair x, y is therefore at most $\binom{n}{2}(1 - r/w)^{10(\log n)w/r} < 1/n^3$.

We use π_K as a clustering function. For the cluster buster we need:

Lemma 2 Let $A \subseteq H_r$ with |A| = m. Let I_1, I_2, \ldots, I_w be randomly chosen subsets of $\{1, \ldots, 10r \log m\}$, each of size $5 \log m$. Let $\mu : \{0, 1\}^w \to \{0, 1\}^{10r \log m}$ be the map defined by $\mu(x) = \bigcup_{\{i \mid x[i]=1\}} I_i$. Then μ is 1-1 on A with probability $> 1 - 1/m^3$.

Proof: Consider any pair x, y in A with $x \neq y$. There is an index i, so that $x[i] \neq y[i]$. Assume without loss of generality that x[i] = 1 and y[i] = 0. We see that $\mu(x) = \mu(y)$ implies $I_i \subseteq \mu(y)$ but $|\mu(y)| \leq 5r \log m$, so $\Pr(I_i \subseteq \mu(\vec{x})) \leq 2^{-5 \log m} = \frac{1}{m^5}$. The number of pairs in A is $\leq m^2$, so μ is 1-1 on A with probability $1 - 1/m^3$.

Lemma 3 There is an AC^0 function $h_r: \{0,1\}^w \to \{0,1\}^{10r^2 \log w}$ which is 1-1 on H_r .

Proof: Apply Lemma 2 with $A = H_r$.

We now show how to use Lemmas 1 and 3 for constructing AC^0 RAM solutions to the static dictionary problem. The basic idea for storing a set A is this. First, A is hashed using the function π_K with K chosen as in Lemma 1. This partitions (clusters) the set into a number of buckets, each being a subset of some Hamming ball of radius r. Each such subset A' can be stored by storing the center c of the Hamming ball in a single word, and then using the injective function of Lemma 3 to store the set $\{x \oplus c | x \in A'\} \subseteq H_r$ in a collision free hash table using space $2^{10r^2 \log w}$. Each bucket is indexed by a signature of $10(\log n)w/r$ bits (i.e. the value of π_K for the elements in the bucket), so if we store pointers to the buckets naively using an array, indexed by the possible values of π_K , we would use space $2^{10(\log n)w/r}$ which is too much for our purpose. In order to avoid this, we recursively store the signatures using our scheme, with pointers to the buckets as associated information. We call the resulting data structure a clustering structure.

A query program for the clustering structure needs some non standard instructions in addition to the usual bit manipulation instruction: We need an instruction Select(K, x) which computes the function π_K on input x. Here the word K is interpreted as the concatenation of a list of $\log w$ -bit segments, i.e. numbers between 1 and w. Let these numbers be $k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_{w/\log w}$, The output is $x[k_1]x[k_2]\ldots x[k_{w/\log w}]$. This function can be seen to be in AC^0 . Note that in order to store the index K of the clustering function in constant space and compute the hash function in constant time using this instruction, we must have $K \leq w/\log w$ or equivalently, $r > 10(\log n)(\log w)$.

We also need an instruction BustHammingBall(r, x), where r is a number between 1 and w. The instruction applies the function h_r of Lemma 3 to x, and is easily seen to be in AC^0 , given this lemma.

We will now be a bit more specific about the above construction. We represent a set of m b-bit keys in a data structure T and the function $\mathrm{Find}(T,x,b)$ returns a reference to x, this reference is simply a number in the interval [0..m-1]. Let K and r be as in Lemma 1. Let $Y = \{\pi_K(x) | x \in X\}$. The set Y is represented recursively in the data structure T.Y. T also contains an array $T.C : [0..m-1] \to \{0,1\}^b$ such that if $i = \mathrm{Find}(T.Y, \pi_K(x), b)$ for some x, then there is such an x for which T.C[i] = x. Thus, according to Lemma 1, for any $x \in X$, $|x \oplus T.C[\pi_K(x)]| \le r$.

As the recursion proceeds, the key length b will decrease. When $b \leq b_0$, for some specified value b_0 we switch to some other data structure. In the recursive implementation below, we mark this switch by the function Find'(T, x). Our implementation of Find is of the following recursive form:

```
Algorithm A: Find(T, x, b)
A.1. if b \leq b_0, return Find'(T, x).
A.2. i \leftarrow \text{Find}(T, Y, \text{Select}(K, x), |K|).
```

A.3. return $T.B[i, \texttt{BustHammingBall}(r, x \oplus T.C[i])]$.

Above, T.B is a 2-dimensional array with entries from $[0..m-1] \times \{0,1\}^{10r^2 \log w}$. Since all elements from X are mapped to different entries in B, we just need to fill these entries with different values in order to make our function Find 1-1 on X. The space of the data structure T is the space of the recursive data structure T.Y for the at most m $(10(\log n)w/r)$ -bit keys in Y plus $1+m+m\cdot 2^{10r^2\log w}=O(m\cdot 2^{10r^2\log w})$ words for storing K and the arrays T.C and T.B.

The data structure described above immediately implies the following upper bounds, the first of which gives the upper bound of Theorem B of the introduction.

Corollary 4 For any $\epsilon > 0$, there is an AC^0 RAM solution to the static dictionary problem for sets of size $n < 2^{w^{\epsilon}/4}$ with query time O(1) using space $2^{w^{\epsilon}}$.

Proof: Let $r=10(\log n)w^{\epsilon/100}$. Apply the construction above. After one iteration, we reduce the size of the keys to be stored to $10(\log n)w/r=w^{1-\epsilon/100}$. By iterating $100/\epsilon$ times we thus have reduced the domain of the keys to be stored to constant size, i.e. a trivial problem. At each recursive level we use $O(n \cdot 2^{10r^2 \log w})$ space. There are $100/\epsilon$ recursive levels, so the total space used is $(100/\epsilon)n2^{10r^2 \log w} < 2^{w^{\epsilon}}$.

Corollary 5 There is an AC^0 RAM solution to the static dictionary problems for sets of size n with query time $O(\log w/\log\log w)$ using space $2^{\operatorname{polylog} n}$.

Proof: Let $r = 10(\log n)(\log w)^2$. After one iteration of the general construction the size of the keys is reduced by a factor $\Theta(\log w)$, so after $O(\log w/\log\log w)$ iterations, the problem is trivial. The space used is $O((\log w/\log\log w)n2^{10r^2(\log w)})$. This is $2^{\operatorname{polylog} n}$, if $\log n \geq \log w/\log\log w$. But if $\log n < \log w/\log\log w$, the sorted table/binary search solution yields the desired bound.

Finally, we show how to get a query time which is a function of n, rather than w.

Lemma 6 A set of n keys, each containing k bits, can be stored using linear space and with query time $O\left(\frac{\log n}{\log \frac{w}{k}}\right)$.

Proof: We store the set as a $Packed\ B$ -tree [And95], i.e. a B-tree of degree w/k, where each B-tree node is represented inside a word. In order to search the packed B-tree, we need an instruction Rank(P, X, k) that views the words P and X as divided in k-bit fields. If the fields in P are left-right sorted, the instruction returns the rank of the leftmost field in X among the fields in P. This instruction is clearly in AC^0 .

Corollary 7 There is an AC^0 RAM solution to the static dictionary problems for sets of size n with query time $O(\sqrt{\log n/\log\log n})$ and space $2^{(\operatorname{polylog} n)(\operatorname{polylog} w)}$.

Proof: Let $r = 10(\log n)^2(\log w)$. Each iteration of the general construction reduces the number of bits in the keys by at least a factor $\log n$, so after $\sqrt{\log n/\log\log n}$ iterations, the number of bits in the keys is reduced by at least a factor $2^{\sqrt{\log n\log\log n}}$. Thus, we can apply lemma 6 with $k = w/2^{\sqrt{\log n\log\log n}}$ and search in the set of signatures using time $O(\sqrt{\log n/\log\log n})$. The space used is $O((\sqrt{\log n/\log\log n})n2^{10r^2(\log w)}) = 2^{(\operatorname{polylog} n)(\operatorname{polylog} w)}$

3 Improved upper bounds

In this section we refine our data structure, so that the space used becomes linear in n and independent of w, rather than $2^{\operatorname{polylog} n}$ or $2^{(\operatorname{polylog} n)(\operatorname{polylog} w)}$ as in Section 2.

Clustering structures

Our clustering functions are used to generate a *clustering structure*. The general idea is to use a cluster function to split the search problem into two simpler problems, defined recursively. After a number of recursive steps, the search problems will be simple enough to be handled directly in linear space. The next subsection on look-up tables handles this base-case of the recursion. The aim of this subsection is to describe how to implement a recursive step so as to preserve linear space.

Generally, a clustering structure is used to store pairs (x, p) where x is a key and p is a pointer. When searching for a pair, we use x as a parameter to find p. At the topmost recursive level, p will be a pointer to a record containing x. At a lower recursive level, x may be a signature associated with some cluster. Then, p will be the pointer to the data structure storing that cluster.

Definition 8 Let X be a set of pairs represented in a data structure T. The function Find(x,T) returns p for each $(x,p) \in X$.

Definition 9 Let H(b,r) be the maximum cost of evaluating the function Find on a data structure storing at most n pairs in linear space, where $x \in H_r^b$ for each pair (x,p). Also, let T(b) = H(b,b).

Note that we do not include the size of the stored (sub-)set in this notation. This turns out to be convenient, for in most of our calculations we only need the fact that the *total* number of keys is n. The total search cost in our global data structure is T(w) (= H(w, w)).

Lemma 10 Assume that for each set $A \subseteq H_r^b$, of at most n keys, there is a function f which, when applied on A, produces values in $H_{r'}^{b'}$ such that for any $x_i, x_j \in A$, $|x_i \oplus x_j| > r''$ implies $f(x_i) \neq f(x_j)$. Then

$$H(b,r) = O(1) + H(b',r') + H(b,r'')$$

In the remainder of this subsection, we give a constructive proof of Lemma 10. First note that if we did not need to worry about space, we could just use the clustering function f as follows. Let X be the set of pairs to be stored, and let $A \subseteq H_r^b$ be the set of keys X. Let $B = \{f(x) | x \in A\} \subseteq H_{r'}^{b'}$. We could then store:

- For each $y \in B$, a pair $(x_y, p_y) \in X$ with $f(x_y) = y$.
- For each $y \in B$, the set $X_y = \{(x \oplus x_y, p) | (x, p) \in X, f(x) = y, x \neq x_y\}$.
- The set $Y = \{(y, pos(X_y))|y \in Y\}.$

The set B of keys in Y is then contained in $H_{r'}^{b'}$, and for each $y \in B$, the set X_y is contained in $H_b^{r''}$. Space-wise the above recursion gives rise to problems. Suppose, for example, that we wanted to store a single element. The above would then lead to a recursion within Y taking space $\omega(1)$. More generally, we have problems bounding the space in cases were $X_y = \emptyset$.

We will now describe a space-efficient recursion avoiding the above redundancies. First, we give its basic components. Next, we describe how keys are searched for. Then, we describe how to insert a new key into a clustering structure. Finally, we analyze the time and space costs. The purpose for describing an insertion procedure here is that it helps us in showing the space bounds.

Since our clustering structure is recursive, a substructure relies on the fact that the clustering function applied on higher recursive levels are correct. If they are not, the Hamming distance between the stored keys may be too large. In this section, we ignore this problem; to construct a static data structure we can just try several times until all clustering functions work as desired. In the dynamic case some more care has to be taken, this is done in Section 4

We now give a recursive implementation of a claustering structure T based on the function f in Lemma 10. T stores a set X of pairs.

Description B: Recursive clustering structure T for X based on clustering function f

- B.1. T contains an identifier T.id.
- B.2. T contains a description T.f of its clustering function f.
- B.3. A pair $(T.x, T.p) \in X$ is stored directly. Let $X' = X \setminus \{(T.x, T.p)\}$.
- B.4. Let $B = \{f(x) | (x, p) \in X'\}.$
- B.5. For each $y \in B$, choose a pair $(x_y, p_y) \in X'$ with $f(x_y) = y$.
- B.6. Let $X'' = X' \setminus \{(x_y, p_y) | y \in B\}.$
- B.7. For each $y \in B$, let $X_y = \{(x \oplus x_y, p) | (x, p) \in X'', f(x) = y\}.$
- B.8. For each $y \in B$ with $X_y \neq \emptyset$,
- B.8.1. T contains a cluster structure $T.X_y$ for X_y .
- B.8.2. T contains a quadrouple $T.N_y = (x_y, p_y, pos(T.X_y), T.id)$.

B.9. T contains a cluster structure T.Y for the set

$$\{(y,p_y)|y\in Y, X_y=\emptyset\}\cup\{(y,\operatorname{pos}(T.q_y))|y\in Y, X_y\neq\emptyset\}.$$

Note that if $X_y = \emptyset$, then y corresponds to a single pair (x_y, p_y) , $T.f(x_y) = y$. Assume that we replaced the key x_y by a "twin" key x_y' such that $T.f(x_y') = y$. Then, the clustering structure would look exactly the same! Hence, we cannot tell the difference between a clustering structure storing (x_y, p_y) and one storing (x_y', p_y) . After searching for a key, we have to make an additional test to verify the correctness of the search,

We can now derive a function Find. The function is recursive and after a recursive call has been made, a correctness test mentioned above is made on line C.2.2.1. However, at the topmost recursive level, no such test can be made inside the function. This can be resolved by an additional test afterwards.

Algorithm C: Find(x,T) where T is a recursive cluster structure. If a pair (x,p) is stored in T, p is returned. Otherwise, there are three cases: Let y = T.f(x) and take B, X_y , and p_y as in Description B.

- (a) $y \notin B$: failure is returned.
- (b) $y \in B, X_y = \emptyset$: p_y is returned.
- (c) $y \in B, X_y \neq \emptyset$: failure is returned.

If T.f is 1–1, case (b) or (c) will not occur.

- C.1. If x = T.x return T.p.
- C.2. Set $y \leftarrow T.f(x)$, $p \leftarrow \text{Find}(y, T.Y)$, and let $(x_0, p_0, q, id) = \text{points-to}(p')$. We have two cases:
- C.2.1. $id \neq T.id$: Return p.
- C.2.2. id = T.id:
- C.2.2.1. If $T.f(x_0) \neq T.f(x)$, return failure.
- C.2.2.2. If $x = x_0$, return p_0 .
- C.2.2.3. If $x \neq x_0$, return Find $(x \oplus x_0, points-to(q))$.

In order to argue about space, we derive an insertion procedure.

Algorithm D: Insert(T, x, p) where T is a recursive cluster structure. If a pair (x, q) is stored in T, q is returned. Otherwise, there are three cases: Let y = T.f(x) and take B, X_y , and p_y as in Description B.

- (a) $y \notin B$: (x, p) is added in T and done is returned.
- (b) $y \in B, X_y = \emptyset$: p_y is returned.
- (c) $y \in B, X_y \neq \emptyset$: we store (x, p) in T and done is returned.

If T.f is 1–1, case (b) or (c) will not occur.

D.1. If T.x = x, return (T.x, T.p).

- D.2. Let $y \leftarrow T.f(x)$ and $p' \leftarrow Insert(T.Y, y, p)$.
- D.3. If p' = done, Return p'.
- D.4. Let $(x_0, p_0, q, id) = points-to(p')$.
- D.5. If $id \neq T.id$, return p'.
- D.6. If id = T.id,
- D.6.1. If $x = x_0$, return p_0 .
- D.6.2. If $T.f(x) = T.f(x_0)$ and $x \neq x_0$, return Insert $(x \oplus x_0, points-to(q))$.
- D.6.3. If $T.f(x) \neq T.f(x_0)$,
- D.6.3.1. Set $x' \leftarrow x$, $x'_0 \leftarrow x_0$, and $T' \leftarrow T$.
- D.6.3.2. While $T'.f(x') \neq T'.f(x'_0)$, set $x' \leftarrow T'.f(x')$, $x'_0 \leftarrow T'.f(x'_0)$, $T' \leftarrow T'.Y$.
- D.6.3.3. Set y = T'.f(x').
- D.6.3.4. Create a new cluster structure $T'.X_y$ with $T'.X_y.x = x'$ and $T'.X_y.p = p$.
- D.6.3.5. Create a new quadrouple $T'.N_y = (x'_0, p', pos(T'.X_y), T'.id)$.
- D.6.3.6. In T'.Y, replace the pair (y, p') by $(y, pos(T'.N_y))$. Assuming that we have a pointer to p', we can replace p' with $pos(T'.N_y)$ directly.
- D.6.3.7. Return done.

Note that, unless T.f is 1–1, an insertion will not always be made even if the key x was not present. At lower recursive levels, this will be taken care of by the test on line D.6.3. However, at the topmost recursive level, no such test is made. Instead, we add the following requirenment:

On the topmost recursive level, the clustering function T.f is the identity function.

Then, Insert (and Find) always work as desired.

It should be clear from the description above that the time bound H(b,r) = O(1) + H(b',r') + H(b,r'') holds for both Find and Insert. Regarding the space bounds, it follows from the description of Insert that each insertion only generates O(1) new space: either we successfully store a new key x, or we only add constant new space.

Lookup tables

We need some simple data structures as lookup tables. First, we note that H(b,0) = O(1) since a Hamming ball of radius 0 only contains one key. Next, Lemma 6 gives

Corollary 11
$$T(b) = O\left(\frac{\log n}{\log \frac{w}{b}}\right)$$
.

Finally, we show how to simulate traditional hash coding by a multiplication table.

Lemma 12 $T(c \log n) = O(c)$.

Proof: We store the keys in a hash-coded path-compressed trie. We use $\log n$ bits for branching, hence the height of the trie is c. At each node, the outgoing edges are stored in a hash table. For this purpose, we simulate the classical two level hashing of [FKS84]. As observed by [DHKP93], the only non- AC^0 instruction needed for implementing this scheme is multiplication. We therefore only have to observe that we can perform a multiplication of two $(\log n)$ -bit keys in constant time, using O(n) extra space, namely a precomputed multiplication table for $(\log n)/2$ -bit keys. Note that this extra table is independent of the set to be stored, so we can apply the lemma several times using the same O(n) extra space. Since our final space bound (i.e. the bound in Theorem 24) is linear in n, we can ignore this extra space.

Clustering the input into Hamming balls

We first describe a clustering function that improves over Lemma 1. We simply replace the selected bits by the parity of a small (polylog w) number of bits. This makes it possible to reduce the number of bits of the output by a further factor of polylog w. Since the parity of polylog w bits is in AC^0 , the hash function can be implemented in AC^0 .

We first need a technical lemma.

Lemma 13 Suppose that x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_k are 0-1 variables which take value 1 with probabilities p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_k . Then $\Pr(\bigoplus_{i=1}^k x_i = 0) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + (1 - 2p_1)(1 - 2p_2) \ldots (1 - 2p_k))$. In particular $\Pr(\bigoplus_{i=1}^k x_i = 0) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + (1 - 2p)^k) \le \max\{1 - pk/2, 1/2\}$ if the probabilities are identical and k is odd.

Proof: Induction in k. If k=1, $Pr(x_1=0)=(1-p_1)=\frac{1}{2}(1+(1-2p_1))$. Suppose the lemma have been shown for k-1. Consider $\Pr(\bigoplus_{1=1}^k x_i=0)$. $\Pr(\bigoplus_{1=1}^k x_i=0) = \Pr(x_k=0) + \Pr(x_k=1) + \Pr(x_k=1) = (1-p_k)(\frac{1}{2}(1+(1-2p_1)(1-2p_2)\dots(1-2p_{k-1}))) + p_k(1-(1-2p_1)(1-2p_2)\dots(1-2p_{k-1})) = \frac{1}{2}(1+(1-2p_1)(1-2p_2)\dots(1-2p_k))$. For $2pk \le 1$, $(1-2p)^k \le 1-2pk+\binom{k}{2}(2p)^2 \le 1-pk$, so $\frac{1}{2}(1+(1-2p)^k) \le 1-pk/2$. Note that k odd implies that $\frac{1}{2}(1+(1-2p)^k)$ is monotonely decreasing in p. Thus for 2pk > 1, $\frac{1}{2}(1+(1-2p)^k) < \frac{1}{2}(1+(1-1/k)^k) \le 1/2$.

Lemma 14 Let I be a random $k \times l$ (k odd) matrix of independently chosen bit-positions in $\{1,2,\ldots,w\}$. Define the function $C:\{0,1\}^w \to \{0,1\}^l$ by $C(x)[j] = \bigoplus_{i=1}^k x[I[i,j]]$. Then, for any w-bit strings x,y with $|x \oplus y| = r$, $\Pr(C(x) = C(y)) \le \max(e^{-lrk/(2w)}, e^{-l/4})$.

Proof: Observe that $C(x) = C(y) \Leftrightarrow C(x) \oplus C(y) = 0^w \Leftrightarrow \forall j = 1, \ldots, l : \bigoplus_{i=1}^k (x[I[i,j]] \oplus y[I[i,j]]) = 0)$, Moreover, for any i, j, x, y, with $|x \oplus y| = r$, $\Pr(x[I[i,j]] \neq y[I[i,j]]) = r/w$. Hence, by Lemma 13,

$$\Pr(C(x) = C(y)) = \Pr(\bigoplus_{i=1}^{k} (x[I[i,j]] \oplus y[I[i,j]]) = 0)^{l}$$

$$\leq \max(1 - kr/2w, 1/2)^{l}$$

$$\leq \max(e^{-lrk/(2w)}, e^{-l/4}),$$

as desired.

Lemma 15 Let $A \subseteq \{0,1\}^b$ be a set of at most n elements, and let r < b. Let $k = (\log b)^d$ and let $l = 100b \log n/(r \log^d b)$. Let C be the random function defined in Lemma 14. Then, with probability at least $1 - 1/n^3$, for any pair x, y in A with $|x \oplus y| = r$, $C(x) \neq C(y)$.

Proof: There are n^2 pairs $x, y \in A$ so the bound in Lemma 14 is sufficient to prove the lemma.

We can use the function of lemma 15 as a clustering function. For this, in addition to the Select instruction we need an instruction BlockParity(x,k) that views the word x as divided in k-bit fields, computes the parity of each field, and concatenates the results. If we restrict the parameter k to be less than polylog w, the instruction is in AC^0 . Note that we need to select $k \times l$ bits where $k = (\log b)^d$ and $l = 100b \log n/(r \log^d b)$. To do this using the Select instruction, we must have $r \ge 100b \log n \log w/w$.

Corollary 16 If $r \ge 100b \log n \log w/w$ then

$$T(b) = 1 + T\left(\frac{b\log n}{r\log^d b}\right) + H(b, r).$$

Cluster Busters

In Lemma 2 and 3, we hashed the Hamming ball or Hamming ball subset using a single hash function. In this section, we present an alternative technique, reducing the radius of the Hamming ball in a number of iterations.

Lemma 17 For any a, there is an AC^0 circuit $C: \{0,1\}^w \to \{0,1\}^{8 \log n}$ such that for any $x, y \in H_{\log n/(a \log w)}$, $|x \oplus y| > \log n/(a^2 \log w)$ implies $C(x) \neq C(y)$.

Proof: For i = 1, ..., w, choose randomly $I_i \subseteq W$, $|B_i| = 4a \log w$, and define $C(x) = \bigcup_{i \in x} I_i$.

Consider $x, y \in H_{\log n/(a \log w)}$ with $|x| \ge |y|$. Set $d = |x \oplus y|$. Then $|x \setminus y| \ge d/2$. Also $|C(y)| \le 4a \log w \log n/(a \log w) = 4 \log n$, so

$$\Pr(C(x) = C(y)) \le \Pr(C(x \setminus y) \subseteq C(y)) \le 2^{-d/2 \cdot 4a \log w}.$$

Note that the number of pairs in A is dominated by $|H_{\log n/a \log w}|^2 < w^{2\log n/a \log w} = n^{2/a}$. Hence the probability C(x) = C(y) for some $x, y \in H_{\log n/a \log w}$ with $|x \oplus y| \ge \log n/a^2 \log w$ is $< n^{2/a} 2^{-d/2 \cdot 4a \log w}$, which is < 1 iff $2/a \cdot \log n < d/2 \cdot 4a \log w$ iff $d > \log n/a^2 \log w$. Hence there exists a circuit separating all the pairs.

The circuit in lemma 17 can be implemented by a single instruction ReduceHammingBall(a, n, x) with parameters a and n. Hence, we have

Corollary 18

$$H((b, \log n/(a \log w)) = O(1) + T(8 \log n) + H(b, \log n/(a^2 \log w)) + O(1).$$

Lemma 19 $H(w, \log n/(\log w)^2 = O(\log \log \log n - \log \log \log w)$.

Proof: Combining Corrolary 18 and Lemma 12 gives

$$H((b, \log n/(a \log w)) = H(b, |\log n/(a^2 \log w)|) + O(1).$$

Applying reqursively t times gives

$$H(b, \log n/(\log w \log w)) = H\left(b, \left|\log n/(\log^{2^t} w \log w)\right|\right) + O(t).$$

Since H(w,0) = O(1), we are done when $\log n/(\log w)^{2^t+1} \le 1$ i.e. when $\log \log n \le (2^t+1)\log \log w$. This holds when $\log \log \log n \le t + \log \log \log w$ i.e when $\log \log \log n - \log \log \log w \le t$.

Clustering with range reduction

In order to use Lemma 15 effectively, we need the following Lemma, which is proven in this subsection.

Lemma 20 There is a clustering function for the reduction

$$T(w) = O\left(T(w/\log^3 w) + (\log\log m)^{8/9}\right).$$

The function requires O(n) additional space.

Lemma 21 Let $A \subseteq \{0,1\}^w$ be a set of at most w elements. There is a random AC^0 clustering function $f: \{0,1\}^w \to \{0,1\}^{w/\log^3 w}$ which is 1-1 on A ith probability at least $1-1/w^3$.

Proof: We start by proving two facts.

Fact 1: Assume that there is a AC^0 circuit $C: \{0,1\}^{\sqrt{w}} \to \{0,1\}^{\sqrt{w}/u}$, u > 1, which, for some parameter of a, is 1–1 on a set Y of \sqrt{w} -bit keys. Then, there is a AC^0 circuit $C: \{0,1\}^w \to \{0,1\}^{w/u}$ which, for the same parameter a, is 1–1 for any set of w-bit keys formed by concatenating keys from Y.

Proof: Duplicate the circuit \sqrt{w} times.

Fact 2: Let $A \subseteq \{0,1\}^{\sqrt{w}}$ be a set of at most w^2 keys. There is a random AC^0 function $C: \{0,1\}^{\sqrt{w}} \to \{0,1\}^{O(\sqrt{w}/\log^3 w)}$ which is 1-1 on A ith probability at least $1-1/w^3$.

Proof: Let $b = \sqrt{w}$. We just alter the proof of Lemma 15 slightly. We use b instead of w (at proper places), $n = w^2$, r = 1, and d = 4. This gives $C(a) : \{0,1\}^b \to 0$

 $\{0,1\}^{O(b \log w/(r \log^d b))} = \{0,1\}^{O(\sqrt{w}/\log^3 w)}$. In order to use a fixed AC^0 instruction, the parameter a should represent a $k \times l$ matrix inside a constant number of words, where $k = (\log b)^d$ and $l = O(b \log w/(r \log^d b))$. Such a representation requires (at most) $kl \log w$ bits. With our parameters, this number of bits is O(w), and the proof for Fact 2 is completed.

Now, perceive each word in A as divided into \sqrt{w} -bit pieces. This gives us a set Y of $w\sqrt{w}$ keys. Hence, Fact 2 gives us a circuit $C(a):\{0,1\}^{\sqrt{w}}\to\{0,1\}^{O(\sqrt{w}/\log^3 w)}$ which is 1–1 on Y. Since A can be constructed by concatenating keys in Y, we can apply Fact 1 with $u=\Theta(\log^3 w)$, which gives us the desired function.

Lemma 22 $T(b) \le 2H(b, \sqrt{b \log n}) + O(1)$.

Proof: If we apply Lemma 1 with $r = \sqrt{b \log n}$, it follows that we can pick a b-bit word with r 1s such that for any $x, y \in X$, if $|x \oplus y| \ge r$, then $x \wedge a \ne y \wedge a$. Hence, if we use $x \wedge a$ as a clustering function, the set of signatures is contained in $H_{\sqrt{b \log n}}$ and each cluster have Hamming radius $\sqrt{b \log n}$.

Lemma 23 There is a clustering function performing the following reduction:

$$H(b,r) = O\left(H\left(\sqrt{br},r\right) + T\left(\frac{w}{\log^3 w}\right) + \frac{\log w}{\sqrt{b/r}}\right).$$

When applied on a set of size m the function requires O(m) extra space.

Proof: Let X be the set to be stored and let $q = \sqrt{b/r}$. Perceive each word x as divided into q-bit pieces. Let $x\langle i \rangle = x[(i-1)q+1..iq]$ denote the ith piece. Now define a clustering function $f_1^q: \{0,1\}^w \to \{0,1\}^{w/q}$ so that $f_1^q(x)[i] = 1$ iff there is a 1 in $x\langle i \rangle$. Clearly all f_1^q is implementable by one AC^0 circuit with a log w input parameter q. When using f_1^q as a clustering function, the signatures are (b/q)-bit keys containing at most r 1s; they can be stored with query time H(b/q, r).

Next, we address the problem of storing the clusters. Consider a cluster of size m and let y be the signature corresponding to this cluster. Each bit in y corresponds to a q-bit field. The cluster have one important property: For each bit which is 0 in y the corresponding field in all keys in the cluster contains only 0s. The main idea is to shorten the keys by removing these "empty" fields.

Case 1: $m \le w$. Applying Lemma 21 gives query cost $T(w/\log^3 w)$.

Case 2: m > w. Associated with X(y), we store $F(y) = \alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_{b/q}$ where α_i is a $(\log w)$ -bit integer telling the position of the ith 1 in y. The maximum number of 1s in y is b/q; if there are less than b/q 1s, then the last α_i s are set to 0. F(y) contains b/q ($\log w$)-bit integers. Hence, F(y) occupies o(m) space. (Furthermore, each α_i can be generated in constant time, and hence F(y) can be constructed in O(b/q) = o(m) time.) We can easily build an AC^0 circuit $C_2^q: \{0,1\}^w \to \{0,1\}^{w/\log w}$ so that

$$C_2^q(x, \alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_{w/\log w}) = x \langle \alpha_1 \rangle \cdots x \langle \alpha_{w/\log w} \rangle$$

Hence, the function

$$f^q(x, \alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_{b/q}) = x \langle \alpha_1 \rangle \cdots x \langle \alpha_{b/q} \rangle$$

can be computed by applying $C_2^q 1 + b \log w/(qw)$ times $< 1 + \log w/q$ times.

Now given $x_1, x_2 \in X(y)$, if $x_1 \neq x_2$, then $f^q(x_1, F(y)) \neq f^q(x_2, F(y))$. Since each key contains at most r 1s, the keys produced by f^q are of length qr. They can be stored at a cost of $H(qr, r) + O(1 + \log w/q)$.

In order to get an upper bound on the total query time, we can add the costs of the two cases.

$$H(b,r) \leq H(b/q,r) + H(qr,r) + O(1 + \log w/q) + T(w/\log^{3} w) \leq 2H(\sqrt{br},r) + T(w/\log^{3} w) + O\left(1 + \log w/\sqrt{b/r}\right)$$

Proof: (of Lemma 20) Two cases.

Case 1: $b \le \log n(\log \log n)^{4/9}$. Applying Lemma 12 with $c = b/\log n$ gives

$$T(b) \le O\left((\log\log n)^{4/9}\right).$$

Case 2: $\log n(\log \log n)^{4/9} < b < n$. Lemma 22 gives

$$T(b) \le 2H(b, \sqrt{b \log n}) + O(1)$$

Apply Lemma 23 with $r = \sqrt{b \log n}$:

$$T(b) \le 2H(b^{3/4}\log^{1/4}n, \sqrt{b\log n}) + T(w/\log^3 w) + O\left(1 + \log b/(b/\log n)^{1/4}\right)$$

The fact that $\log n(\log \log n)^{4/9} < b$ implies that $\log n = O(b/\log^{4/9} b)$ and $\log b/(b/\log n)^{1/4} \le (\log \log n)^{8/9}$. This, in turn, gives

$$T(b) \leq 2H(b/\log^{1/9}b, \sqrt{b\log n}) + T(w/\log^3 w) + O(\log\log n)^{8/9}$$

$$\leq 2T(b/\log^{1/9}b) + T(w/\log^3 w) + O(\log\log n)^{8/9}$$

Now, we get an upper bound on the cost by just taking the maximum of the costs in the two cases. This gives

$$T(b) \le 2T(b/\log^{1/9} b) + T(w/\log^3 w) + O(\log\log n)^{8/9}$$

The proof is completed by applying this inequality 18 times. Each time, we get O(n) additive space. Hence, the total space overhead is O(n).

Final upper bound

Theorem 24 There is an AC^0 RAM solution to the static dictionary problem with query time

$$O\left(\min\left(\log w(\log\log\log n - \log\log\log w)/\log\log w, \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{\log\log n}}\right)\right)$$

$$= O\left(\min\left(\log w, \sqrt{\log n/\log\log n}\right)\right)$$

and space O(n).

Proof: Starting with n w-bit keys, we use Lemma 20:

$$T(w) = O\left(T(w/\log^3 w) + (\log\log n)^{8/9}\right)$$
 (1)

We noe study the problem of storing keys of length $b = w/\log^3 w$. We use Lemma 15 with d = 3 and $r = \log n/(\log w)^2$. Since $b \le w/\log^3 w$, we have that $r \ge b \log n \log w/w$ and we can use a uniform instruction set. This gives us signatures of length $b/\log b$, each signature represents a Hamming ball of diameter $\log n/(\log w)^2$.

$$T(b) = T(b/\log b) + H(b, \log n/(\log b)^2)$$

Applying Lemma 19 gives

$$T(b) = T(b/\log b) + (\log \log \log n - \log \log \log b). \tag{2}$$

We now distinguish two cases. First, if $\log b(\log \log \log n - \log \log \log b)/\log \log b \le \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{\log \log n}}$, we just apply Equation 2 recursively $O(\log b/\log \log b)$ times. Since b < w and since the additional cost of $O((\log \log n)^{8/9})$ in Equation 1 is neglible, the proof follows for this case.

In the second case $\log b(\log \log \log n - \log \log \log b)/\log \log b > \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{\log \log n}}$. In this case, $\log b = \Omega(\operatorname{polylog} n)$ which implies that $\log \log \log n - \log \log \log b = O(1)$. Thus, Equation 2 gives

$$T(b) = T(n, b/\log b) + O(1) = T(n, b/\operatorname{polylog} n) + O(1)$$

$$\Rightarrow T(b) = T(n, k) + O\left(\frac{\log \frac{b}{k}}{\log \log n}\right)$$

Lemma 6 gives

$$T(b) = O\left(\frac{\log n}{\log \frac{b}{k}} + \frac{\log \frac{b}{k}}{\log \log n}\right)$$

We now set $\log \frac{b}{k} = \sqrt{\log n \log \log n}$. Again, the proof follows since b < w and since the additional csot of $O8(\log \log n)^{8/9}$) in Equation 1 is neglible.

4 Dynamization

The main idea to maintain a clustering structure is to reconstruct an appropriate part of it a soon as there is a failing clustering function.

Theorem 25 On an AC^0 RAM with randomization, we can maintain a dynamic clustering structure supporting insertion, deletion, and search. The space is O(n). The worst case query time and the expected amortized insertion and deletion times are

$$O\left(\min\left(\log w(\log\log\log n - \log\log\log w)/\log\log w, \sqrt{\frac{\log n}{\log\log n}}\right)\right)$$

Proof: We only need to consider insertions. During deletion, we do not remove keys, we just mark them as deleted. After $\Theta(n)$ deletions, we reconstruct the entire data structure. (A reconstruction is done incrementally, by inserting the present keys one by one.)

As long as the clustering function works as desired, our functions Find and Insert will work smoothly. But, what happens when an insertion fails? We recall that the clustering structure relies on the fact that each function f has the desired property: only keys within a small hamming radius get the same signature. If, however, f fails in this aspect, keys with large Hamming distance will be clustered together. This, in turn, will imply that at the bottom of the recursion, when we expected to have a Hamming ball of radius 0, we will end up having more than one key. When this occurs, we can conclude that some clustering function on the way down the recursion has failed. There is no direct way to check which function failed. Instead, we have the following facts:

- For all clustering functions, except the one used in Lemma 21, the probability of a failure is less than $1/n^3$.
- The clustering function of Lemma 21 is assumed to be 1-1 on a small set of $m \le w$ keys; the probability of a failure is $O(1/w^3)$. This property can easily be verified in $O(m^2)$ time by examining all m keys and their signatures.

Whenever an insertion fails, we traverse the clustering structure bottom-up. If there is any clustering function based on Lemma 21, we check if it is 1–1; if needed, we choose a new function until it is 1–1. If this did not help, the failing clustering function is somewhere else. Then, we rebuild the entire global clustering structure from scratch. In both cases, the probability of failure is small enough to guarantee a low expected insertion cost.

Some care has to be taken when storing the clusters in Lemma 23, namely when we an insertion causes a switch between Cases 1 and 2. Consider one such structure. During the first w insertions, the clustering function of Lemma 21 guarantees a low expected insertion cost. At the w+1st insertion, we change from Case 1 to Case 2 and the entire structure must be reconstructed as the data structure is changed. Fortunately, this reconstruction occurs only once so the amortized cost can be neglected.

When the value of n has changed dramatically, after $\Omega(n)$ updates, we throw away our global data structure and construct a new one, the (expected) amortized cost of doing this is also low.

Corollary 26 On an AC^0 RAM with randomization we can maintain a structure supporting insertion, deletion, and predecessor queries. The space is O(n). The worst case query time and the expected amortized insertion and deletion times are

$$O(\min((\log w)^2, (\log n)^{3/4}/(\log\log n)^{1/4})).$$

Proof: (sketch) If we make range reduction a la van Emde Boas $\log d$ times, we can pack d keys in a word and use a packed B-tree, cf. Lemma 6. The packed B-tree requires only linear space. If each node in the van Emde Boas tree is stored in a cluistering structure with search cost H the cost of searching in the van Emde Boas tree is $H \log d$. So we get a total search cost of $H \log d + \log n/\log d$

Now, we just have to balance things. Choose d as $(\log n \log \log n)^{1/4}$ and we get a search cost of $(\log n)^{3/4}/(\log \log n)^{1/4}$. If we set d=1 and use the fact the $H=O(\log w)$ we get a cost of $O(\log^2 w)$.

Previous sub-log n solutions to the dynamic predecessor problem have used either multiplication or super-linear space (see [And95] for a discussion).

Grouping and sorting

In this section, we address the problem of sorting n words on an AC^0 RAM using O(n) space and $o(n \log n)$ time. Previous sub- $n \log n$ solutions either used multiplication [FW93] or super-linear space [AHNR95]. As a subroutine in our solution, we consider the problem of grouping duplicates in a sequence of n words, i.e. producing a permutation of the sequence where identical words are consecutive. Note that a sorting algorithm is also a grouping algorithm, but that the converse does not necessarily hold. However, from [AHNR95], we do have:

Lemma 27 On an AC^0 RAM, if we can identify duplicates among n keys in time D(n) and space S(n), we can sort n keys in time $O(D(n) \log \log n)$ and space S(n).

The simplest way of grouping duplicates is to insert the keys one by one using a dynamic dictionary. Thus Theorem 25 implies that on an AC^0 RAM, we can group duplicates in time $O(n \min\{\log w, \sqrt{\log n/\log\log n}\})$. However, below we present an alternative method, grouping duplicates in time $O(n \log\log n)$ and linear space. As a consequence, we will get linear space AC^0 sorting in expected time $O(n(\log\log n)^2)$.

As pointed out in [AHNR95], the results from [AH92] imply

Lemma 28 On an AC^0 RAM, we can sort n keys of length $w/(\log n \log \log n)$ in time O(n) and space O(n).

Theorem 29 We can find and group duplicates in a set of size n in $O(n \log \log n)$ expected time by a randomized AC^0 RAM algorithm using linear space.

Proof: If $n \geq 2^{\sqrt[6]{w}}$, we just use the above mentioned dynamic dictionary based solution working in time $O(n \log w) = O(n \log \log n)$. Thus, we may assume that $n < 2^{\sqrt[6]{w}}$

We wish to reduce our grouping problem into two simpler grouping problems. First we apply Lemma 1 with a random K, mapping our keys into signatures of length $10(\log n)w/r$, where $r > 10(\log n)(\log w)$. Our first grouping problem is that of grouping the signatures. Thereby the original keys get grouped into Hamming balls of radius r. To each such Hamming ball, we apply Lemma 3, mapping the keys into keys of size $10r^2(\log w)$. Grouping these keys finalize the grouping of the original keys. Trivially, the grouping problem from each Hamming ball can be reduced to one grouping problem of n keys. Thus, the above construction shows that the grouping problem of n w-bit keys can be reduced one grouping problem of n ($10(\log n)w/r$)-bit keys, and one grouping problem of n ($4r^2 \log w$)-bit keys.

Setting $r = \sqrt[3]{w(\log n)/(2\log w)}$, we get two grouping problems for keys of the same length. Note that $r > 10(\log n)(\log w)$ since we have assumed $n < 2^{\sqrt[6]{w}}$.

The key length of our two grouping problems is $\Theta(w^{2/3}(\log n)^{2/3}(\log w)^{1/3})$. Since $n < 2^{\frac{6}{\sqrt{w}}}$, $(\log n)^{2/3}(\log n \log \log n) = o(w^{1/3}/(\log w)^{1/3})$, so

$$\Theta(w^{2/3}(\log n)^{2/3}(\log w)^{1/3}) = O(w/(\log n \log \log n)).$$

Hence each can be solved in linear time by Lemma 28. That is, for $n < 2^{\sqrt[6]{w}}$, the duplicate grouping problem of n w-bit keys, is solved in linear time and linear space.

Combining with Lemma 27, we get

Corollary 30 We can sort in linear space and expected time $O(n(\log \log n)^2)$ on an AC^0 RAM with randomization.

A monotone priority queue is a priority queue with non-decreasing minimum, as is the case for applications within greedy algorithms. Modifying a reduction from [Tho96], we derive

Corollary 31 There is a monotone AC^0 priority queue supporting find-min in constant time and insert and delete in expected amortized time $O((\log \log n)^2)$.

On a Circuit RAM we can actually do slightly better. Universal hashing [CW79] has expected query time $O(\log w/\log\log w)$ on a Circuit RAM, as opposed to the $O(\log w)$ expected AC^0 query time from Theorem 25. This improves the $n \geq 2^{\sqrt[6]{w}}$ case in the proof of Theorem 29 by a factor $\log \log \log n$. Hence on a Circuit RAM, we save a factor $O(\log \log \log n)$ in the bounds of Theorem 29 and Corollaries 30 and 31.

5 Lower bounds

In this section, we present our lower bounds. In order to present our lower bounds more smoothly, we introduce a new model of computation, the *circuit computation tree*. What makes this model especially convenient is that it does not have a notion of a random access memory - the static data structure is built into the tree.

A circuit computation tree \mathcal{T} is a rooted tree, taking as input a word x of length w. Each internal node v contains exactly B gates, $B \geq w$ being a parameter called the *breadth* of the tree. Each gate v is a \wedge - or \vee -gate taking as input an arbitrary subset of the gates in the parent node, the input variables x[i], and their negations $\neg x[i]$. A given subset of the gates in v of size s are called *selection* gates. Here $s \leq s$ is another parameter, we call s the *selection length* of s. All internal nodes have exactly s children corresponding to each of the possible instantiations of the selection gates. Thus any instantiation s of the input word defines a unique path from the root to some leaf, called *the leaf of* s. Each leaf is labeled either s or s. The label on the leaf of s is the value s of the computation by s on s.

Proposition 32 Let ϕ be a data structure of size s and P be a circuit RAM program P with worst case running time t, returning 0 or 1 on each input $x \in \{0,1\}^w$. There is a circuit computation tree \mathcal{T} of breadth $w^{O(1)}$, depth O(t) and selection length $\log s$ so that $\mathcal{T}(x) = P(x,\phi)$ for all $x \in \{0,1\}^w$.

Proof: (sketch) Straightforward simulation, we simply "fold out" all possible computations of the program. The branching is used to simulate conditional jumps and indirect addressing. An interesting point is that the simulation holds even if the query program is allowed to use any amount of space additional to the data structure. In that case, we simulate indirect read in a constant number of steps, first checking (with an AC^0 circuit) if we read a memory location where we already wrote something, and if not, then simulating reading in the data structure.

Proposition 32 shows that in order to show the deterministic version of the desired lower bounds for the Circuit RAM, it is sufficient to construct a set which cannot be decided by any circuit computation tree with certain parameters. In order to get the randomized lower bound, we shall do something stronger. We shall construct a set consisting of pairs, such that no circuit computation tree with certain parameters can separate more than a small fraction of the pairs. By a simple averaging argument, this will give the desired randomized lower bounds for the problem of storing the set consisting of first components of the pairs.

Our lower bound proof uses Håstad's switching Lemma [Hås87]. Rather than the original version, we use the following slight variation, which appears as Lemma 1 in [Bea94]. This version has the advantages of leaving a predetermined number of variables unset and yielding a decision tree rather than a DNF formula. Recall that a restriction on m variables is a map $\rho: \{1, \ldots, m\} \to \{0, 1, *\}$. If $\rho(i) = *$, we say that the i'th variable is unset. We can apply the restriction to a function f with domain $\{0, 1\}^m$. This yields a function f^ρ on a smaller

domain, namely the subdomain of $\{0,1\}^m$ matching the restriction. Two restrictions are said to be disjoint if they set some bit differently, implying that the restricted domains they specify are disjoint. We call a function semi-k-simple if it is expressible as a DNF or a CNF with term size k. A function is said to be k-simple if it is decidable by a decision tree of depth k. Note that if f is a conjunction or disjunction of k-simple functions, then f is semi-k-simple. The other direction does not hold but the switching lemma gives us something almost as good:

Lemma 33 (Håstad's Switching Lemma) Let $f: \{0,1\}^m \to \{0,1\}$ be semi-k-simple. For $s \ge 0$, $p \le 1/7$, we have that with probability at least $1 - (7pk)^s$, for a random restriction ρ leaving exactly pm variables unset, f^{ρ} is s-simple.

We shall also need the following lemma.

Lemma 34 Let $f_1, \ldots, f_s : \{0,1\}^m \to \{0,1\}$ be k-simple. Let ρ be a random restriction which leaves r free variables. Then,

$$\Pr[\exists i: f_i^{\rho} \ is \ not \ constant] \leq rks/m$$

Proof: First, randomly fix all the w input bits, thereby fixing fixing all the f_i . Since each f_i is k-simple, there is a set X_i of the input bits of size $\leq k$, whose current instantiation fixes f_i . As a result, all f_i are determined by the current instantiation of the input bits in $X = \bigcup_i X_i$ where $|X| \leq sk$.

Now, randomly unfix a set Y of r variables. If Y does not intersect X, the output is still determined by the instantiation of the bits in X. Since Y is random the probability that Y intersects X is bounded by rks/w.

In the following discussion we fix $B \ge w \ge S \ge 10$ and let $K = \log B$.

Lemma 35 Let each of $f_1, \ldots, f_B : \{0,1\}^w \to \{0,1\}$ be expressed as an \land -gate or an \lor -gate taking a number of K-simple functions as input. Let ρ be a random restriction leaving $w/(120 \text{SK}^4)$ input bits free. Then with probability $\geq 1 - 1/\text{K}^2$, $f_1^{\rho}, \ldots, f_S^{\rho}$ are constant and $f_{S+1}^{\rho}, \ldots, f_B^{\rho}$ are K-simple.

Proof: First, we apply a random restriction ρ' from Lemma 33 with s=k=K and p=1/(30K). This leaves w/(30K) input variables free. For any specific $j, f_j^{\rho'}$ is K-simple with probability at least 1-1/B. Thus with probability at least $1-1/B \ge 1-1/2K^2$, all the f_j^{ρ} 's are K-simple. Now, apply Lemma 34 with m=w/(30K) and $r=w/(120SK^4)$ to get a random restriction on the remaining free variables. With probability at least $1-rks/m=1-1/4K^2$, the composition ρ of the two restrictions has $f_1^{\rho}, \ldots, f_S^{\rho}$ constant.

At first sight, knowing that a random restriction simplifies a node in a computation tree does not seem particularly helpful. In order to get the lower bounds we want, we have to consider computation trees deciding quite a small set, and a random restriction is likely to wipe out such a set completely. We now show how we can use the probabilistic method to replace the random restriction by one from a small, fixed, family, and thereby circumvent this problem.

We shall use a Chernoff bound argument. The following version of the Chernoff bound can be found in [Pap94].

Lemma 36 Let X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_m be independent Bernoulli trials with $\Pr[X_i = 1] = p$. Let $X = \sum X_i$ and let $\mu = E[X] = mp$. Then $\Pr(X > 2\mu) < e^{-\mu/3}$.

Lemma 37 There is a fixed family of pairwise disjoint restrictions $\rho_1, \ldots, \rho_{B^4}$ on w variables leaving free $w/(120 \text{SK}^4)$ bits such that for any choice of functions f_1, \ldots, f_B , each being expressed as an \land -gate or an \lor -gate with at most 2B inputs, each input being some K-simple function, there is at least a fraction $1-2/\text{K}^2$ of the possible values of $i \in \{1, \ldots, B^4\}$ such that $f_1^{\rho_i}, \ldots, f_S^{\rho_i}$ are constant and $f_{S+1}^{\rho_i}, \ldots, f_B^{\rho_i}$ are K-simple.

Proof: The restrictions $\rho_1, \ldots, \rho_{B^4}$ will be chosen randomly and independently, and then we will show that they have the desired properties with non-zero probability.

By Lemma 35, for a fixed choice of the f_i 's each ρ_i does not work with probability at most $1/K^2$. Assume without loss of generality (a smaller probability is clearly in our favor) that the probability is exactly $1/K^2$. The expected number of ρ_i that do not works is thus B^4/K^2 . By Lemma 36 the probability that more than a $2B^4/K^2 = 2\mu$ do not work is less than $e^{-\mu/3} = e^{-B^4/(3\log^2 B)}$. However, there are at most $w^B \leq 2^{B\log B}$ different choices for each input to each f (each choice corresponds to a decision tree of depth $K = \log B$), so there are at most $2^{B\log B(2B)B} = 2^{2B^3\log B} = o(e^{-B^4/(3K^2)})$ different possible families of f_i 's. Hence, with probability 1 - o(1), $\rho_1, \ldots, \rho_{B^4}$ have the desired property, that for every family there is a sufficient number of the ρ_i 's that work.

Next, note that for two random restrictions leaving less than a fraction 1/120 of the variables free, at least a fraction 118/120 of the variables are fixed on both of them. On each such variable, they disagree with probability 1/2. Thus, two restrictions are not disjoint with probability at most $2^{-(118/120)w}$. Therefore, all the restrictions fail to be pairwise disjoint with probability at most $(B^4)^2 2^{-(118/120)w}$ but since we can assume $w \ge 1208(\log B)^2$ (otherwise the statement of the lemma is vacuous), the latter value is negligible. We conclude than the random family of restrictions has the right properties with positive probability, and that a good family of restrictions therefore exists.

We say that a tree \mathcal{T} separates $(x,y) \in \{0,1\}^w \times \{0,1\}^w$ if x and y do not have the same leaf in \mathcal{T} .

Theorem 38 For values w, B, d, S with $B \ge w \ge S \ge 100$, $w \ge (120SK^4)^d$, and d < K/2, there is a set $P(w, B, d, S) \subseteq \{0, 1\}^w \times \{0, 1\}^w$ of size $n = B^{4d}$ with the following property. No circuit computation tree \mathcal{T} of breadth B and degree 2^S separates more than a fraction $2d/K^2$ of the pairs in P(w, B, d, S).

Proof: The set P(w, B, d, s) is defined recursively in d:

- $P(w, B, 0, S) = \{(0^w, 1^w)\}.$
- P(w, B, d, S) for d > 0 is defined as follows. Pick the sequence of B^4 restrictions as in Lemma 37. For each restriction ρ_i , there are $w/(120 \text{sK}^2)$ unset variables. Choose fixings for these variables by going through all the elements of $P(w/(120 \text{sK}^4), B, d-1, S)$ (which by induction is already defined). This yields a set P_i . Let P(w, B, d, S) be the union of all the P_i 's.

We now show, by induction in d, that P(w, B, d, S) has the right property. To make the induction roll, we show the statement for a slightly larger class of objects than circuit computation trees, namely *augmented* circuit computation trees. An augmented circuit computation tree of breadth B, height d, and degree 2^S is defined as a circuit computation tree, except that each gate in the root may get inputs from at most B precomputed K-simple values ($K = \log B$) in addition to input variables and their negations.

For d = 0, the theorem clearly holds. A circuit computation tree of depth 0 (a leaf) separate no pairs.

Now assume d>0, and assume the theorem holds for smaller d. Let \mathcal{T} be a circuit computation tree of depth d. By Lemma 37, at least a $1-2/\mathrm{K}^2$ fraction of the ρ_i restrictions make the selection gates in the root constant and all other gates in the root K-simple. Take one of those restrictions, ρ_i . Apply it to \mathcal{T} . The selection gates of the root now defines a constant vector, say c. Follow the c-branch out of the root and consider the subtree found there. It is an augmented circuit computation tree of breadth B, depth d-1, and selection length S, so it separates at most a $2(d-1)/\mathrm{K}^2$ fraction of the pairs of $P_i = \rho_i(P(w,\mathrm{B},d,\mathrm{S}))$. But if the restricted subtree does not separate the restriction of a particular pair, the original subtree does not separate the original pair. Thus, for each of the sets P_i for which ρ_i has the desired property, \mathcal{T} separates at most a $(d-1)/\mathrm{K}^2$ fraction of P_i . Thus, the total fraction of pairs in $P(w,\mathrm{B},d,\mathrm{S})$ separated by \mathcal{T} is at most $2/\mathrm{K}^2+2(d-1)/\mathrm{K}^2=2d/\mathrm{K}^2$.

Theorem 38 and Proposition 32 now gives us all the lower bounds we want. For instance, to show a lower bound on deterministic worst case time, we consider storing the set P_1 of first components of P = P(w, B, d, S) for appropriately chosen values of the parameters. If a tree does not separate the first and second components, it cannot decide P_1 , since the first and second components should give different outputs. If we want to show a lower bound on the average query time, we again consider storing the set P_1 . Assume that the average query time (over P_1) is t and chop off the computation after 2t steps. At least half the inputs in P_1 must have produced an output by then. But this means that the tree has separated the corresponding pairs, if it is correct. This gives a circuit computation tree separating half the pairs in P, a contradiction. If we want to show a lower bound on the query time of Monte Carlo schemes, we again consider storing the set P_1 itself. In a solution, freeze the random choices made, so that we get a deterministic solution, giving the correct answer on 2/3 of the pairs of P. Such a solution must separate at least 1/3 of the pairs of P, a contradiction.

To get the lower bounds in the Introduction, we only have to set the parameters right. To get Theorem B, we fix some $\epsilon > 0, c > 1$ and let $n = w^{4c/\epsilon}$, $B = w^c$, $d = 1/2\epsilon$, and $S = w^{\epsilon}$. The set P_1 of first components of P(w, B, d, S) has size $n = w^{4c/\epsilon}$, and Theorem 38 and Proposition 32 now gives Theorem B.

To get the lower bound parts of Theorem A and C, let $B = w^c$, $S = (\log w)^c$, and $d = \frac{\log w}{4c \log \log w}$. The set P_1 of first components of P(w, B, d, S) has size $n = w^{\log w/\log \log w}$, and Theorem 38 and Proposition 32 now gives us the lower bound parts of Theorem A and C.

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