Validating XML Documents in the Streaming Model with External Memory *

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Abstract

We study the problem of validating XML documents of size \( N \) against general DTDs in the context of streaming algorithms. The starting point of this work is a well-known space lower bound. There are XML documents and DTDs for which \( p \)-pass streaming algorithms require \( \Omega(N/p) \) space.

We show that when allowing access to external memory, there is a deterministic streaming algorithm that solves this problem with memory space \( O(\log^2 N) \), a constant number of auxiliary read/write streams, and \( O(\log N) \) total number of passes on the XML document and auxiliary streams.

An important intermediate step of this algorithm is the computation of the First-Child-Next-Sibling (FCNS) encoding of the initial XML document in a streaming fashion. We study this problem independently, and we also provide memory efficient streaming algorithms for decoding an XML document given in its FCNS encoding.

Furthermore, validating XML documents encoding binary trees against any DTD in the usual streaming model without external memory can be done with sublinear memory. There is a one-pass algorithm using \( O(\sqrt{N \log N}) \) space, and a bidirectional two-pass algorithm using \( O(\log^2 N) \) space which perform this task.

1 Introduction

The area of streaming algorithms has experienced tremendous growth over the last decade in many applications. Streaming algorithms sequentially scan the whole input piece by piece in one pass, or in a small number of passes (i.e., they do not have random access to the input), while using sublinear memory space, ideally polylogarithmic in the size of the input. The design of streaming algorithms is motivated by the explosion in the size of the data that algorithms are called upon to process in everyday real-time applications. Examples of such applications occur in bioinformatics for genome decoding, in Web databases for the search of documents, or in network monitoring. The analysis of Internet traffic [1], in which traffic logs are queried, was one of the first applications of this kind of algorithm.

There are various extensions of this basic streaming model. One of them gives the streaming algorithm access to an external memory consisting of several read/write streams [8, 9, 6]. Then the streaming algorithm is also relaxed and allowed to perform multiple passes in any direction over the input stream and the auxiliary streams. In most of the applications, the number of auxiliary streams is constant and the total number of passes is logarithmic in the input size.

Verifying properties or evaluating queries of massive databases is an active and challenging topic. For relational algebra queries against relational databases, the situation is quite clear. There are bidirectional

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O(log N)-pass deterministic streaming algorithms with constant memory space and a constant number of auxiliary streams [7]. Moreover, the logarithmic number of passes is a necessary condition in order to keep the memory space sublinear, even if randomization is allowed. The latter was initially stated for one-sided error [7] and then extended to two-sided error [4, 3].

In the context of data exchange, especially on the Web, Extended Markup Language (XML) is emerging as the standard, and is currently drawing much attention in data management research. Only little is known about XML query processing when only streaming access is allowed to the XML document. For evaluating XQuery and XPath queries against XML documents of size N, only the lower bound has been extended [7, 4, 3], meaning that Ω(log N) passes are necessary. For the upper bound, only simple refinements of the direct algorithm are known: no auxiliary stream, one pass and linear memory in the depth of the XML document, which in the worst case is as large as N.

This paper considers the problem of validating XML documents against a given Document Type Definition (DTD) in a streaming fashion without restrictions on the DTD. An XML document is valid against a DTD if for each node, the sequence of the labels of their children fulfills a regular expression defined in the DTD. Prior works on this topic [17, 16] essentially try to characterize those DTDs for which validity can be checked by a finite-state automaton, which is a one-pass deterministic streaming algorithm with constant memory. Concerning arbitrary DTDs, two approaches have been considered in [17]. The first one leads to an algorithm with memory space which is linear in the height of the XML document [17]. The second one consists of constructing a refined DTD of at most quadratic size, which defines a similar family of tree documents as the original one, and against which validation can be done with constant space. Nonetheless, for an existing document and DTD, the latter requires that both, documents and DTD, are converted before validation.

One of the obstacles that prior works had to cope with was the verification of well-formedness of XML documents, meaning that every opening tag matches its same-level closing tag. Due to the past work of [12], we can now perform such a verification with a constant-pass randomized streaming algorithm with sublinear memory space and no auxiliary streams. In one pass the memory space is O(√N log N), and collapses to O(log^2 N) with an additional pass in reverse direction.

The starting point of this work is the fact that checking DTD-validity is hard without auxiliary streams. There are DTDs that admit ternary XML documents, and any p-pass bidirectional randomized streaming algorithm which validates those documents against those DTDs requires Ω(N/p) space. This lower bound comes from encoding a well-known communication complexity problem, Set-Disjointness, as an XML validity problem. This lower bound should be well-known, however we are not aware of a complete proof in the literature. In [10], a similar approach using ternary trees with a reduction from Set-Disjointness is used for proving lower bounds for queries. For the sake of completeness we provide a proof in Section 3.1 (Theorem 1). We then discuss validity notions, such as extended DTDs (EDTD), which allow the specification of the validity of a node as a function of the grandchildren of that node. Using a further reduction from Set-Disjointness we show that validating XML documents encoding binary trees against those validity schemas requires linear space (Theorem 2).

For the case of XML documents encoding binary trees, we present in Section 4 three deterministic streaming algorithms for checking validity with sublinear space. As a consequence, the presence of nodes of degree at least 3 is indeed a necessary condition for the linear space lower bound for general documents. We first present two one-pass algorithms with space O(√N log N) (Theorem 3 and Theorem 4). The first algorithm, Algorithm 1, processes the input XML document in blocks and is easy to analyze, however, it is not optimal in terms of processing time per letter. The second algorithm, Algorithm 2, uses a stack and has constant processing time per letter. We conjecture that there is a Ω(N^{1/2}) lower bound for one-pass algorithms. With a second pass in reverse direction the memory collapses to O(log^2 N) (Theorem 5). These three algorithms make use of the simple but fundamental fact that in one pass over an XML document each node is seen twice by means of its opening and closing tag. Hence, it is not necessary to remember all opening tags in the stream since there is a second chance to get the same information from their closing tags. Our algorithms exploit this observation.

Then, in Section 5 we present our main result. Corollary 2 states that the validation of any XML document against any DTD can be checked in the streaming model with external memory with poly-logarithmic
space, with a constant number of auxiliary streams, and with $O(\log N)$ passes over these streams. Validity of a node depends on its children, hence it is crucial to have easy access to the sequence of children of any node. We establish this, firstly, by computing the First-Child-Next-Sibling (FCNS) encoding, which is an encoding of the XML document as a 2-ranked tree. In this encoding, the sequence of closing tags of the children of a node are consecutive. The computation of this encoding is the hard part of the validation process, and the resource requirements of our validation algorithm stem from this operation (Theorem 6). Since the FCNS encoding can be seen as a reordering of the tags of the original document, our strategy is to regard this problem as a sorting problem with a particular comparison function. Merge sort can be implemented as a streaming algorithm with auxiliary streams. We use a version that is customized with an adapted merge function. The same idea can be used for FCNS decoding with similar complexity (Theorem 10).

Then, based on the FCNS encoding, verification can be completed either in one pass and $O(\sqrt{N}\log N)$ space (Theorem 8), or in two bidirectional passes and $O(\log^2 N)$ space (Theorem 7). With regards to FCNS encoding and decoding, we show a linear space lower bound for one-pass algorithms. For decoding, we present an $O(\sqrt{N}\log N)$ algorithm (Theorem 9) that performs one pass over the input, but two passes over the output. For encoding, we conjecture that the memory space remains $\Omega(N)$ after any constant number of passes. This would show that decoding is easier than encoding. This suggests a systematic use of the FCNS encoding for large documents, since validity can be checked easily without auxiliary streams and with sublinear space. The applicability of this idea is left as an open question.

2 Preliminaries
Let $\Sigma$ be a finite alphabet. The $k$-th letter of $X \in \Sigma^N$ is denoted by $X[k]$, for $1 \leq k \leq N$, and the consecutive letters of $X$ between positions $i$ and $j$ by $X[i,j]$. A subsequence of $X$ is any string $X[i_1]X[i_2]…X[i_k]$, where $1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < ... < i_k \leq N$.

2.1 Streaming model
In streaming algorithms, a pass over input $X \in \Sigma^N$ means that $X$ is given as input stream $X[1], X[2], \ldots, X[N]$, which arrives sequentially, i.e., letter by letter in this order. Streaming algorithms have access to random access memory space, and possibly also to read-write external memory as in [7, 5]. See also the review in [8]. We assume that any letter of $\Sigma$ fits into one cell of internal/external memory. The external memory is a collection of auxiliary streams, which are read/write streams with sequential access. When needed, we augment the alphabet of auxiliary streams from $\Sigma$ by $k$-tuples of elements in $\Sigma \cup [0, 2N]$, for a fixed constant $k$, which therefore fit into one cell of auxiliary streams.

At the beginning of each pass on a read/write stream, the algorithm decides whether it will perform a read or write pass. The input stream is read-only. On a writing pass, the algorithm can either write a letter, and then move to the next cell, or move directly to the next cell. For the case of bidirectional streaming algorithms, as opposed to unidirectional streaming algorithms where each pass is in the same order, the algorithm can decide the direction of the sequential pass.

For the sake of simplicity, we assume throughout this article that the length of the input is known in advance by the algorithm. Nonetheless, all our algorithms can be adapted to the case in which the length is unknown until the end of a pass. See [13] for an introduction to streaming algorithms.

Definition 1 (Streaming algorithm). A $p(N)$-pass streaming algorithm $A$ with $s(N)$ space, $k(N)$ auxiliary streams, $t(N)$ processing time per letter is an algorithm such that for every input stream $X \in \Sigma^N$:

1. $A$ has access to $k(N)$ auxiliary read/write streams,
2. $A$ performs in total at most $p(N)$ passes on $X$ and auxiliary streams,
3. $A$ maintains a memory space of size $s(N)$ letters of $\Sigma$ and bits while reading $X$ and auxiliary streams,
4. $A$ does not exceed a running time of $t(N)$ between two write or read operations.
We say that \( A \) is bidirectional if it performs at least one pass in each direction. Otherwise \( A \) is implicitly unidirectional.

We do not mention the number of auxiliary streams when there are none, i.e. \( k(N) = 0 \). Furthermore, we assume that operations on numbers \( N \in [0,2N] \) can be done in constant time.

### 2.2 XML documents

We consider finite unranked ordered labeled trees \( t \), where each tree node has a label in \( \Sigma \). From now on, we omit the terms ordered, labeled, and finite. Moreover, the children of every non-leaf node are ordered. \( k \)-ranked trees are a special case where each node has at most \( k \) children. Binary trees are a special type of 2-ranked tree, where each node is either a leaf or has exactly 2 children. We use the following notations to access the nodes of a tree:

- \( \text{root}(t) \) : root node of tree \( t \),
- \( \text{children}(x) \) : (ordered) sequence of children nodes of node \( x \), if \( x \) is a leaf then this sequence is empty,
- \( \text{fc}(x) \) : first child of node \( x \), if \( x \) is a leaf then \( \text{fc}(x) = \perp \),
- \( \text{ns}(x) \) : next sibling of node \( x \), if \( x \) is a right most (last) child then \( \text{ns}(x) = \perp \).

For each label \( a \in \Sigma \), we associate its corresponding opening tag \( a \) and closing tag \( \langle a \rangle \) in the usual XML notations. An XML sequence is a sequence over the alphabet \( \Sigma' = \{a, \overline{a} : a \in \Sigma\} \). The XML sequence of a tree \( t \) is the sequence of opening tags and closing tags in the order of a depth first traversal of \( t \) (Figure 1): when at step \( i \) we visit a node with label \( a \) top-down (respectively bottom-up), we let \( X[i] = a \) (respectively \( X[i] = \overline{a} \)). Hence \( X \) is a word over \( \Sigma' = \{a, \overline{a} : a \in \Sigma\} \) of size twice the number of nodes of \( t \). The XML file describing \( t \) is unique, and we denote it as \( \text{XML}(t) \). We define \( \text{XML}(t) \) as a recursive function in Definition 2. For a node \( x \in t \), we write (ambiguously) \( x \) and \( \overline{x} \) to denote its opening and closing tag. \( x \) is also used to denote its label.

![Figure 1](image-url)  

**Figure 1**: Let \( \Sigma = \{a,b,c\} \), and let \( t \) be the tree as above. Then \( \text{XML}(t) = rba\overline{a}a\overline{a}c\overline{b}b\overline{b}aa\overline{a}a\overline{b}c\overline{c}r \).

**Definition 2.** Let \( t \) be an unranked tree, let \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \in t \) be nodes. Then:

\[
\text{XML}(x) = x \text{XML}(\text{children}(x)) \overline{x},
\]
\[
\text{XML}(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \text{XML}(x_1) \ldots \text{XML}(x_n),
\]
\[
\text{XML}(\perp) = \epsilon,
\]

and we write \( \text{XML}(t) \) for \( \text{XML}(\text{root}(t)) \).

We assume that the input XML sequences \( X \) are well-formed, namely \( X = \text{XML}(t) \), for some tree \( t \). The work [12] legitimates this assumption, since checking well-formedness is at least as easy as any of our algorithms for checking validity. Hence, we could run an algorithm for well-formedness in parallel without increasing the resource requirements. Note that randomness is necessary for checking well-formedness with sublinear space, whereas we will show that randomness is not needed for validation.
Since the length of a well-formed XML sequence is known in advance, we will denote it by $2N$ instead of $N$. Each opening tag $X[i]$ and matching closing tag $X[j]$ in $X = \text{XML}(t)$ corresponds to a unique tree node $v$ of $t$. We sometimes denote $v$ either by $X[i]$ or $X[j]$. Then, the position of $v$ in $X$ is $\text{pos}(v) = i$. Similarly, $\text{pos}(\pi) = j$.

### 2.3 FCNS encoding and decoding

The FCNS encoding (see for instance [14]) is an encoding of unranked trees as extended 2-ranked trees, where we distinguish left child from right child. This is an extension of ordered 2-ranked trees, since a node may have a left child but no right child, and vice versa. We therefore duplicate the labels $a \in \Sigma$ to $a_L$ and $a_R$, in order to denote the left and right opening/closing tags of $a$. The FCNS tree is obtained by keeping the same set of tree nodes. The root node of the unranked tree remains the root in the FCNS tree, and we annotate it by default left. The left child of any internal node in the FCNS tree is the first child of this node in the unranked tree if it exists, otherwise it does not have a left child. The right child of a node in the FCNS tree is the next sibling of this node in the unranked tree if it exists, otherwise it does not have a right child. For a tree $t$, we denote $\text{FCNS}(t)$ the FCNS tree, and $\text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t))$ the XML sequence of the FCNS encoding of $t$. Figure 2 illustrates the construction of the FCNS encoding, and we define $\text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t))$ by means of a recursive function $\text{XML}^F$ in Definition 3.

![Figure 2](image)

**Definition 3.** Let $t$ be an unranked tree, and let $x \in t$ be some node. Let $D \in \{L, R\}$. Then $\text{XML}^F$ is defined as follows:

$$
\text{XML}^F(x, D) = x_D \text{XML}^F(\text{fc}(x), L) \text{XML}^F(\text{ns}(x), R) \text{L}_D,
$$

$$
\text{XML}^F(\bot, D) = \epsilon,
$$

and we write $\text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t))$ for $\text{XML}^F(\text{root}(t), L)$. 
Instead of annotating by left/right, another way to uniquely identify a node as left or right is to insert dummy leaves with a new label $\perp$, and we assume that $\perp \notin \Sigma$. For a tree $t$, we denote the binary version without annotations and insertion of $\perp$ leaves by $\text{FCNS}^\perp(t)$, and the XML sequence of $\text{FCNS}^\perp(t)$ by $\text{XML}(\text{FCNS}^\perp(t))$. This is illustrated in Figure 3. The two representations can be easily transformed into each other. Depending on the application, we will use the more convenient version.

![Figure 3: FCNS$^\perp$ encoding of the example tree. XML$^\perp(t) = rba\perp\perp a\perp c c a b a \perp a a c c c \perp c \perp a. $](image)

We call the transformation of $\text{XML}(t)$ into $\text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t))$ FCNS encoding, and the transformation of $\text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t))$ into $\text{XML}(t)$ FCNS decoding.

### 2.4 Validity and DTDs

We consider XML validity against some DTD.

**Definition 4 (DTD).** A DTD is a triple $(\Sigma, d, s_d)$ where $\Sigma$ is a finite alphabet, $d$ is a function that maps $\Sigma$-symbols to regular expressions over $\Sigma$ and $s_d \in \Sigma$ is the start symbol. A tree $t$ satisfies $d$ if its root is labeled by $s_d$, and for every node with label $a$, the sequence $a_1 \ldots a_n$ of labels of its children is in the language defined by $d(a)$.

Throughout the document we assume that DTDs are considerably small and our algorithms have full access to them without accounting this to their space requirements.

**Definition 5 (Validity).** Let $D$ be a DTD. The problem Validity consists of deciding whether an input tree $t$ given by its XML sequence $\text{XML}(t)$ on an input stream is valid against $D$.

We denote by Validity(2) the problem Validity restricted to input XML sequences describing binary trees.

### 3 Hardness of some notions of Validity

In this section, we discuss some lower bounds for checking different notions of validity of XML files. In section 3.1, we show that there are DTDs that admit ternary trees and checking those requires linear space. In section 4 we show that checking DTD validity of XML documents encoding binary trees can be done with sublinear space. We conclude that ternary trees are necessary for obtaining a linear space lower bound.

In section 3.2, we consider validity notions that allow to express a node’s validity as a function of its children and its grandchildren. These validity notions are harder to check than DTD validity in the sense that even checking XML documents encoding binary trees requires linear space.

#### 3.1 A linear space lower bound for Validity using ternary trees

We provide now a proof showing that $p$-pass algorithms require $\Omega(N/p)$ space for checking validity of arbitrary XML files against arbitrary DTDs. Many space lower bound proofs for streaming algorithms are reductions
to problems in communication complexity [1, 2, 12]. For an introduction to communication complexity we refer the reader to [11].

Consider a player Alice holding an $N$ bit string $x = x_1 \ldots x_N$, and a player Bob holding an $N$ bit string $y = y_1 \ldots y_N$ both taken from the uniform distribution over \{0,1\}$^N$. Their common goal is to compute the function $f(x,y) = \bigvee \{ x[i] \land y[i] \}$ by exchanging messages. This communication problem is the widely studied problem Set-Disjointness (DISJ).

It is well known that the randomized communication complexity with bounded two-sided error of the Set Disjointness function $R(DISJ) = \Theta(N)$. In this model, the players Alice and Bob have access to a common string of independent, unbiased coin tosses. The answer is required to be correct with probability at least $2/3$.

We make use of this fact by encoding this problem into an XML validity problem. Consider $\Sigma^{DISJ} = \{r,0,1\}$, the DTD $D^{DISJ} = (\Sigma^{DISJ},d^{DISJ},r)$ such that $d^{DISJ}(r) = 0r0|0r1|1r0|\epsilon$, $d^{DISJ}(0) = \epsilon$, and $d^{DISJ}(1) = \epsilon$. Given an input $x,y$ as above, we construct an input tree $t(x,y)$ as in Figure 4.

![Figure 4: $t(x,y)$ is a hard instance for VALIDITY.](image)

Clearly, DISJ$(x,y) = 0$ if and only if XML$(t(x,y))$ is valid with respect to $D^{DISJ}$.

**Theorem 1.** Every $p$-pass randomized streaming algorithm for VALIDITY with bounded error uses $\Omega(N/p)$ space, where $N$ is the input length.

**Proof.** Given an instance $x \in \{0,1\}^N$, $y \in \{0,1\}^N$ of DISJ, we construct an instance for VALIDITY. Then, we show that if there is a $p$-pass randomized algorithm for VALIDITY using space $s$ with bounded error, then there is a communication protocol for DISJ with the same error and communication $O(s \cdot p)$. This implies that any $p$-pass algorithm for VALIDITY requires space $\Omega(N/p)$ since $R(DISJ) = \Theta(N)$.

Assume that $A$ is a randomized streaming algorithm deciding validity with space $s$ and $p$ passes. Alice generates the first half of XML$(t(x,y))$, that is $rx_1r_1rx_2r_2 \ldots rx_nr_n$ of length $2N+2$ and executes algorithm $A$ on this sequence using a memory of size $O(s)$. Alice sends the content of the memory to Bob via message $M_A^1$. Bob initializes his memory with $M_A^1$, and continues algorithm $A$ on the second half of XML$(t(x,y))$, that is $ry_nry_n \ldots ry_1ry_1$ of length $2N+2$. After execution, Bob sends the content of the memory back to Alice via $M_B^p$. This procedure is repeated at most $p$ times.

This protocol has a total length of $O(s \cdot p)$ since the size of each message is at most $s$. Since $R(DISJ) \in \Theta(N)$, we obtain that $s \cdot p \in \Omega(N)$. The claim follows.

### 3.2 Validity notions that allow to relate nodes to their grandchildren

Suppose that a validity schema allows to express a node’s validity not only through the labels of its children but also of its grandchildren. Note that this is not the case for DTDs since DTD validity only considers the direct descendants of a node for checking its validity. We show that checking validity against such schemas requires linear space even if the XML document encodes a binary tree, see Theorem 2 below.

As in the prior subsection, we encode the communication problem Set-Disjointness into an XML document. Let $x = x_1 \ldots x_n \in \{0,1\}^n$ denote the input of Alice, and let $y = y_1 \ldots y_n \in \{0,1\}^n$ denote the input of Bob. They construct a binary tree $t(x,y)$ as on the left side of Figure 5.
Figure 5: Left: hard instance \( t'(x, y) \) for validity schemas that allow to relate nodes to its grandchildren. Right: the validity constraints for nodes labeled \( r \).

\( t'(x, y) \) is valid if the subtrees below a node with label \( r \) are as in the right side of Figure 5. Only if this is true then \( \text{DISJ}(x, y) = 0 \). Extended Document Type Definition (EDTD) as well as XML schema allow to express validity constraints of that kind. EDTDs were introduced in [15] under the name specialized DTDs. They are defined as follows.

**Definition 6.** An extended DTD (EDTD) is a tuple \( D = (\Sigma, \Delta, d, s, \mu) \), where \( \Delta \) is a finite set of types, \( \mu \) is a mapping from \( \Delta \) to \( \Sigma \), and \( (\Delta, d, s) \) is a DTD. A tree \( t \) satisfies \( D \) if \( t = \mu(t') \) for some \( t \) satisfying the DTD \( (\Delta, d, s) \).

EDTD validity of the trees \( t'(x, y) \) of Figure 5 can be checked by the EDTD \( D = (\Sigma, \Delta, d, s, \mu) \) where

\[
\begin{align*}
\Sigma &= \{r, s, 0, 1\}, \Delta = \{r, 0, 1, s_0, s_1\}, s_d = r, \\
\mu(r) &= r, \mu(0) = 0, \mu(1) = 1, \mu(s_0) = s, \mu(s_1) = s, \text{ and} \\
d(0) &= \epsilon, d(1) = \epsilon, d(s_0) = r 0, d(s_1) = r 1, d(r) = 0s_0|0s_1|1s_0|\epsilon.
\end{align*}
\]

**Theorem 2.** Every \( p \)-pass randomized streaming algorithm validating XML documents encoding binary trees against a validity schema that allows to express a node’s validity as a function of its children and its grandchildren with bounded error uses \( \Omega(N/p) \) space, where \( N \) is the input length.

**Proof.** The proof is identical to the proof of Theorem 1, except that the encoding is slightly different. Let \( x \in \{0, 1\}^N \), \( y \in \{0, 1\}^N \) be an instance of DISJ. Alice generates the left half of the tree \( t'(x, y) \) as follows: \( rx_1\bar{x}_1srx_2\bar{x}_2s\ldots rx_n\bar{x}_nsr\tau \). Bob generates the right half of the tree \( t'(x, y) \) as follows: \( y_n\bar{y}_nsry_{n-1}\bar{y}_{n-1}s\ldots y_1\bar{y}_1s\tau \). A \( p \)-pass streaming algorithm with space \( s \) checking the two-level validity constraints as on the right side of Figure 5 of \( t'(x, y) \) solves hence DISJ with a protocol of length \( \mathcal{O}(s \cdot p) \). Since \( R(\text{DISJ}) = \Theta(N) \), the result follows.

4 Validity of binary trees

For simplicity, we only consider binary trees in this section. A left opening/closing tag (respectively right opening/closing tag) of an XML sequence \( X \) is a tag whose corresponding node is the first child of its parent (respectively second child).

Our algorithms for binary trees can be extended to 2-ranked trees. This requires few changes in the one-pass Algorithms 1 and 2, and the two-pass Algorithm 3 (indeed in the subroutine Algorithm 4) that we do not describe here since they only complicate the presentation and do not affect the essence of the algorithms.
We fix now a DTD $D = (\Sigma, d, s_d)$, and assume that in our algorithms we have access to a procedure check$(v, v_1, v_2)$ that signalizes invalidity and aborts if $v_1 v_2$ is not valid against the regular expression $d(v)$. Otherwise it returns without any action.

In order to validate an XML document, we ensure validity of all tree nodes. For checking validity of a node $v$ with two children $v_1, v_2$, we have to relate the labels $v_1, v_2$ to $v$. In a top-down verification we use the opening tag $v$ of the parent node $v$ for verification, in a bottom-up verification we use the closing tag $\bar{v}$ of the parent node $v$.

### 4.1 One-pass block algorithm

Algorithms 1 reads the XML document in blocks of size $K$ (we optimize by setting $K = \sqrt{N \log N}$) into memory. Such a block corresponds to a subtree, and the algorithm performs all verifications that are possible within this block. We guarantee that all nodes are verified by ensuring that all substrings $\bar{v} v_2$ that correspond to the children of a node $v$ are used for verification. We show in Lemma 1 that within a block of any size there is at most one node $v$ with children $v_1, v_2$ such that $\bar{v}$ is in that block but neither the opening tag $v$ nor the closing tag $\bar{v}$ is in that block. Hence, per block all necessary verifications but at most one can be performed. If a pair of tags $\bar{v} v_2$ cannot be related to their parent node within a block, we store $\bar{v} v_2$ and we perform a bottom-up verification upon arrival of the parent node’s closing tag $\bar{v}$, see Algorithm 1.

**Algorithm 1** Validity of binary trees in 1-pass, block algorithm

**Require:** input stream is a well-formed XML document

1: $K \leftarrow \sqrt{N \log N}$
2: $X \leftarrow$ array of size $K + 1$, $S \leftarrow$ empty stack
3: while stream not empty do
4:   $X \leftarrow$ next $K$ tags on stream
5:   if $X[K]$ is a closing tag and next tag on stream is an opening tag then
6:     $X[K+1] \leftarrow$ next tag on stream
7:   end if
8:   for all leaves $v$ in $X$ do check$(v, \epsilon, \epsilon)$ end for
9:   for all substrings $\bar{v} v_2$ of $X$ do {denote the parent node of $v_1, v_2$ by $v$}
10:  if $v \in X$ or $\bar{v} \in X$ then
11:     check$(v, v_1, v_2)$
12:  else
13:     push$((v_1, v_2, \text{depth}(v_1)), S)$
14:  end if
15: end for
16: if stack $S$ not empty then
17:   repeat
18:     $(v_1, v_2, d)$ $\leftarrow$ topmost item on stack $S$ {denote the parent node of $v_1, v_2$ by $v$}
19:     if $v \in X$ or $\bar{v} \in X$ then
20:       check$(v, v_1, v_2)$
21:     pop $S$
22:   end if
23: until $v \notin X$ and $\bar{v} \notin X$ or $S$ empty
24: end if
25: end while

The condition in line 10 can be checked as follows. Starting from index $i$ such that $X[i] = \bar{v}$, we firstly traverse $X$ to the left. The first encountered opening tag that has a depth $\text{depth}(v_1) - 1$ (if any) is the opening tag of the parent node $v$. If the parent node’s opening tag is not in $X$, we traverse then $X$ to the right starting at index $i$. The first encountered closing tag at level depth$(v_1) - 1$ (if any) is the closing tag of the parent node $v$. If $X$ does not comprise any tags at depth depth$(v_1) - 1$ then the condition evaluates to false. Similarly, the condition in line 19 can be checked. For implementing the condition in line 8 a lookahead of one on the stream might be required if the last tag of $X$ is an opening tag.
Lemma 1. Let $X[i,j]$ be a block. Then there is at most one left closing tag $\pi$ with parent node $p$ such that:

$$pos(p) < i \leq pos(\pi) \leq j < pos(\pi).$$  \hspace{1cm} \hspace{1cm} (1)

Proof: For the sake of a contradiction, assume that there are 2 left closing tags $\pi, \bar{\pi}$ with $p$ being the parent node of $a$, and $q$ being the parent node of $b$, for which Inequality 1 holds. Wlog. we assume that $pos(p) < pos(q)$. Since $pos(p) < pos(q) < pos(\pi)$, $q$ is contained in the subtree of $a$ or $q = a$. This, however, implies that $pos(q) \leq pos(\pi) < j$ contradicting $pos(q) > j$. $\square$

Theorem 3. Algorithm 1 is a one-pass streaming algorithm for Validity with space $O(\sqrt{N \log N})$.

Proof. To prove correctness, we have to ensure validity of all nodes. Leaves are validated in line 8. Concerning non-leaf nodes, note that all substrings $v_1v_2$ are used for validation. Either a node $v$ is validated in line 11 if its opening tag $v$ or its closing tag $\pi$ is in the same block as $v_1v_2$, or the node is validated in line 20 if $v$, $\pi v_2$ and $\pi$ are all in different blocks. In this case, the children are pushed on the stack $S$ and the verification is done upon arrival of $\pi$.

Concerning the space, $X$ is of size at most $K + 1$. By Lemma 1, the stack $S$ grows at most by one element per iteration of the while loop. A stack element requires $O(\log N)$ storage space since we require to store the depth of the tags which is a number in $[N]$. Since there are $O(N/K)$ iterations, the total memory requirements are $O(K + N/K \log(N))$ which is minimized for $K = \sqrt{N \log N}$. $\square$

4.2 One-pass algorithm using a stack

Algorithms 2 performs top-down and bottom-up verifications. It uses a stack onto which it pushes all opening tags in order to perform top-down verifications once the information of the children nodes arrives on the stack. $\pi v_2$ forms a substring of the input, hence top-down verification requires only the storage of the opening tag $v$ since the labels of the children arrive in a block. The algorithm’s space requirement depends on a parameter $K$ (we optimize by setting $K = \sqrt{N \log N}$). Once the number of opening tags on the stack is about to exceed $K$, we remove the bottom-most opening tag. The corresponding node will then be verified bottom-up. Note that $\pi v$ forms a substring of the input. Hence, for bottom-up verifications it is enough to store the label of the left child $v_1$ on the stack since the label of the right child arrives in form of a closing tag right before the closing tag of the parent node. See Algorithm 2 for details.

For the unique identification of closing tags on the stack, we have to store them with their depth in the tree. A stack item corresponding to a closing tag requires hence $O(\log N)$ space. Opening tags don’t require the storage of their depth (we store the default depth $-1$).

![Figure 6: Visualization of the different conditions in Algorithm 2 with the applied stack modifications. X represents the bottom part of the stack. Note that Algorithm 2 pushes the currently treated tag c or \( \bar{\pi} \) on the stack in Line 14 or Line 24. c or \( \bar{\pi} \) corresponds to the highlighted node.]

The query in line 6 can be implemented by a lookahead of 1 on the stream. The opening tag $x$ corresponds to a leaf only if the subsequent tag in the stream is the corresponding closing tag $\pi$.

Figure 6 visualizes the different cases with their stack modifications appearing in Algorithm 2.
Algorithm 2 Validity of binary trees in 1-pass, stack algorithm

Require: input stream is a well-formed XML document
1: $d \leftarrow 0, S \leftarrow$ empty stack
2: $K \leftarrow \sqrt{N \log N}$
3: while stream not empty do
4:   $x \leftarrow$ next tag on stream
5:   if $x$ is an opening tag $c$ then
6:     if $x$ is a leaf then check$(c, e, e)$ end if
7:     if $S$ has on top $(a, -1), (b, d)$ then
8:       check$(a, b, c)$; pop $S$ \{Top-down verification\}
9:     end if
10:    if $|\{a, -1\} \in S | a$ opening $\}| \geq K$ then
11:       remove bottom-most $(a, -1)$ in $S$, where $a$ is an opening tag
12:    end if
13:    $d \leftarrow d + 1$
14:    push $((x, -1), S)$
15:  else if $x$ is a closing tag $\bar{c}$ then
16:    $d \leftarrow d - 1$
17:    if $S$ has on top $(\bar{\pi}, d + 1), (\bar{b}, d + 1)$ then
18:      check $(c, a, b)$ \{Bottom-up verification\}
19:      pop $S$, pop $S$
20:    else if $S$ has on top $(\bar{b}, d + 1)$ then
21:      pop $S$
22:    end if
23:    if $S$ has on top $(c, -1)$ then pop $S$ end if
24:    push $((x, d), S)$
25:  end if
26: end while

Fact 1 (which can be easily proved by induction) and Lemma 2 concern the structure of the stack $S$ used in Algorithm 2.

Fact 1. Let $S = (x_1, d_1), \ldots (x_k, d_k)$ be the stack at the beginning of the while loop in line 3. Then:

1. $\text{pos}(x_1) < \text{pos}(x_2) \cdots < \text{pos}(x_k)$,
2. $\text{depth}(x_1) \leq \text{depth}(x_2) \cdots \leq \text{depth}(x_k) \leq d$. Moreover, if $\text{depth}(x_i) = \text{depth}(x_{i+1})$ then $x_i$ is the left sibling of $x_{i+1}$,
3. The sequence $x_1 \ldots x_k$ satisfies the regular expression $\bar{\pi}^* b^* (\epsilon | \bar{c} | d \bar{c})$, where $\bar{\pi}^*$ are left closing tags, $b^*$ are opening tags, $\bar{c}$ is a closing tag, $d \bar{c}$ is a right closing tag.
4. A left closing tag $\bar{\pi}$ is only removed from $S$ upon verification of its parent node.

Lemma 2. Let $S = (x_1, d_1), \ldots (x_k, d_k)$ be the stack at the beginning of the while loop in line 3. Let $(\bar{c}_i, d_i), (\bar{c}_{i+1}, d_{i+1})$ be two consecutive left closing tags in $S$ such that $(\bar{c}_{i+1}, d_{i+1})$ is not the topmost one. Then $\text{pos}(\bar{c}_{i+1}) \geq \text{pos}(\bar{c}_i) + 2K$.

Proof. Denote by $X = X[1], X[2], \ldots, X[2N]$ the input stream. Since $\bar{c}_{i+1}$ is not the topmost left closing tag in $S$, the algorithm has already processed the right sibling opening tag $X[\text{pos}(\bar{c}_{i+1}) + 1]$ of $\bar{c}_{i+1}$. By Item 4 of Fact 1, no verification has been done of the parent of $\bar{c}_{i+1}$, since $\bar{c}_{i+1}$ is still in $S$. Therefore, the parent’s opening tag $X[k]$ of $\bar{c}_{i+1}$ has been deleted from $S$, where $\text{pos}(\bar{c}_i) < k < \text{pos}(\bar{c}_{i+1})$. This can only happen if at least $K$ opening tags have been pushed on $S$ between $X[k]$ and $\bar{c}_{i+1}$. Since these $K$ opening tags must have been closed between $X[k]$ and $\bar{c}_{i+1}$ we obtain $\text{pos}(\bar{c}_{i+1}) \geq \text{pos}(\bar{c}_i) + 2K$. \hfill \square

Fact 1 and Lemma 2 provide more insight in the stack structure and are used in the proof of Theorem 4. Item 3 of Fact 1 states that the stack basically consists of a sequence of left closing tags which are the left
Theorem 4. Algorithm 2 is a one-pass streaming algorithm for \( \text{VALIDITY}(2) \) with space \( O(\sqrt{N \log N}) \) and \( O(1) \) processing time per letter.

Proof. To prove correctness, we have to ensure validity of all nodes. Leaves are correctly validated upon arrival of its opening tag in line 6. Concerning non-leaf nodes, firstly, note that all closing tags are pushed on \( S \) in line 24, in particular all closing tags of left children appear on the stack. The algorithm removes left closing tags only after validation of its parent node, no matter whether the verification was done top-down or bottom-up, compare Item 4 of Fact 1. Emptiness of the stack after the execution of the algorithm follows from Item 2 of Fact 1 and implies hence the validation of all non-leaf nodes.

For the space bound, Line 10 guarantees that the number of opening tags in \( S \) is always at most \( K \). We bound the number of closing tags on the stack by \( N K + 2 \). Item 3 of Fact 2 states that the stack contains at most one right closing tag. From Item 4 of Fact 2 we deduce that \( S \) comprises at most \( N \frac{K}{K} + 1 \) left closing tags, since the stream is of length \( 2N \), and the distance in the stream of two consecutive left closing tags that reside on \( S \) except the top-most one is at least \( 2K \). A closing tag with depth \( (a, d) \in \Sigma' \times \{N\} \) requires \( O(\log N) \) space, an opening tag requires only constant space. Hence the total space requirements are \( O((\frac{N}{K} + 2) \log N + K) \) which is minimized for \( K = \sqrt{N \log N} \).

Concerning the processing time per letter, the algorithm only performs a constant number of local stack operations in one iteration of the while loop.

Remark Algorithm 2 can be turned into an algorithm with space complexity \( O(D' \log D) \), where \( D \) is the depth of the XML document. If \( D \) is known beforehand, it is enough to set \( K = \sqrt{D' \log D} \) in line 2. If \( D \) is not known in advance, we make use of an auxiliary variable \( D' \) storing a guess for the document depth. Initially we set \( D' = C, C > 0 \) some constant, we set \( K = \sqrt{D' \log D'} \), and we run Algorithm 2. Each time \( d \) exceeds \( D' \), we double \( D' \), and we update \( K \) accordingly.

This guarantees that the number of opening tags on the stack is limited by \( O(\sqrt{D' \log D}) \). Since we started with a too small guess for the document depth, we may have removed opening tags that would have
remained on the stack if we had chosen the depth correctly. This leads to further bottom-up verifications, but no more than \( O(\sqrt{D/\log D}) \) guaranteeing \( O(\sqrt{D}\log D) \) space.

### 4.3 Two-pass algorithm

**Algorithm 3** Two-pass algorithm validating binary trees

run **Algorithm 4** reading the stream from left to right

run **Algorithm 4** reading the stream from right to left, where opening tags are interpreted as closing tags, and vice versa.

**Algorithm 4** Validating nodes with size(left subtree) \( \geq \) size(right subtree)

1: \( l \leftarrow 0; n \leftarrow 0; S \leftarrow \text{empty stack} \)
2: \textbf{while} stream not empty \textbf{do}
3: \( x \leftarrow \text{next tag on stream (and move stream to next tag)} \)
4: \( y \leftarrow \text{next tag on stream, without consuming it yet} \)
5: \( n \leftarrow n + 1 \)
6: \textbf{if} \( x \) is an opening tag \( c \) \textbf{then}
7: \( l \leftarrow l + 1 \)
8: \textbf{if} \( y = \overline{c} \) \textbf{then} \( \text{check}(c, \epsilon, \epsilon) \) \textbf{end if}
9: \textbf{else} \\( \{ x \) is a closing tag \( \overline{c} \}\}
10: \( l \leftarrow l - 1 \)
11: \textbf{if} \( S \) has on top \( (\cdot, \cdot, l+1, \cdot) \) \textbf{then}
12: \( (\overline{c}, b, \cdot, \cdot) \leftarrow \text{pop from } S; \text{check}(c, a, b) \)
13: \textbf{end if}
14: \textbf{if} \( y \) is an opening tag \( d \) \textbf{then}
15: \( \text{push } (\overline{c}, d, l, n) \) to \( S \)
16: \textbf{end if}
17: \textbf{end if}
18: \textbf{while} there is \( s_1 = (\cdot, \cdot, n_1) \) just below \( s_2 = (\cdot, \cdot, n_2) \) in \( S \) with \( n - n_2 > n_2 - n_1 \) \textbf{do}
19: \( \text{delete } s_2 \) from \( S \)
20: \textbf{end while}
21: \textbf{end while}

The bidirectional two-pass algorithm, Algorithm 3, uses a subroutine that checks in one-pass validity of all nodes whose left subtree is at least as large as its right subtree. Feeding into this subroutine the XML document read in reverse direction and interpreting opening tags as closing tags and vice versa, it checks validity of all nodes whose right subtree is at least as large as its left subtree. In this way all tree nodes get verified.

The subroutine performs only checks in a bottom-up fashion, that is, the verification of a node \( v \) with children \( c_1, c_2 \) makes use of the tags \( \overline{c_1} \) and \( c_2 \) (which are adjacent in the XML document and hence easy to recognize) and the closing tag of \( \overline{v} \). When \( \overline{c_1}, c_2 \) appears in the stream, a 4-tuple consisting of \( \overline{c_1}, c_2, \text{depth}(c_1) \) and \( \text{pos}(\overline{c_1}) \) is pushed on the stack. Upon arrival of \( \overline{v} \), \( \text{depth}(c_1) \) is needed to identify \( c_1, c_2 \) as the children of \( v \). \( \text{pos}(\overline{c_1}) \) is needed for cleaning the stack: with the help of the pos values of the stack items, we identify stack items whose parents’ nodes have larger right subtrees than left subtrees, and these stack items get removed from the stack. In so doing, we guarantee that the stack size does not exceed \( \log(N) \) elements which is an exponential improvement over the one-pass algorithm.

Note that the reverse pass can be done independently of the first one, for instance in parallel to the first pass.

Figure 8 visualizes the different cases in Algorithm 4.

We highlight some properties concerning the stack used in Algorithm 4.

**Fact 2.** \( S \) in Algorithm 4 satisfies the following:
Figure 8: Visualization of the different conditions in Algorithm 4. The incoming tag $x$ corresponds to the highlighted node.

1. If $(\overline{a_2}, b_2, \text{depth}(\overline{a_2}), \text{pos}(a_2))$ is below $(\overline{a_1}, b_1, \text{depth}(\overline{a_1}), \text{pos}(a_1))$ in $S$, then $\text{pos}(\overline{a_2}) < \text{pos}(\overline{a_1})$, $\text{depth}(\overline{a_2}) < \text{depth}(\overline{a_1})$, and $a_1, b_1$ are in the subtree of $b_2$.

2. Consider $l$ at the end of the while loop in line 20. Then there are no stack elements $(\cdot, \cdot, l', \cdot)$ with $l' > l$.

Figure 9 illustrates the relationship between two consecutive stack elements as discussed in Item 1 of Fact 2.

Figure 9: $c$ is the current element under consideration in Algorithm 4. $a_1, b_1$ is in the subtree of $b_2$, compare Item 1 of Fact 2.

**Lemma 3.** Algorithm 4 verifies all nodes $v$ whose left subtree is at least as large as its right subtree.

**Proof.** Let $q$ be such a node. Let $a_1, b_1$ be the children of $q$. Then it holds that

$$\text{pos}(\overline{a_1}) - \text{pos}(a_1) \geq \text{pos}(b_1) - \text{pos}(b_1),$$

since the size of the left subtree of $q$ is at least as large as the size of the right subtree.

Upon arrival of $\overline{a_1}$, Algorithm 4 pushes the 4-tuple $t = (\overline{a_1}, b_1, \text{pos}(\overline{a_1}), \text{depth}(a_1))$ onto the stack $S$. We have to show that $t$ remains on the stack until the arrival of $\overline{q}$. More precisely, we have to show that the condition in line 18 is never satisfied for $s_2 = t$. Since the algorithm never deletes the bottom-most stack item, we consider the case where there is a stack item $(\overline{a_2}, b_2, \text{pos}(\overline{a_2}), \text{depth}(a_2))$ just below $t$. Item 1 of Fact 2 tells us that $a_1, b_1$ are in the subtree of $b_2$. Let $c$ be the current tag under consideration such that $\text{pos}(b_1) < \text{pos}(c) < \text{pos}(\overline{q})$. The situation is visualized in Figure 9.

According to the condition of line 18, $t$ gets removed from the stack if

$$\text{pos}(c) - \text{pos}(\overline{a_1}) > \text{pos}(a_1) - \text{pos}(\overline{a_2}).$$

(3)

Note that the left side of Inequality 3 is a lower bound on the size of the right subtree of $q$. Furthermore, the right side of Inequality 3 upper bounds the size of the left subtree of $q$.

Using $\text{pos}(c) - \text{pos}(\overline{a_1}) \leq \text{pos}(b_1) - \text{pos}(b_1) + 1$ and $\text{pos}(\overline{a_1}) - \text{pos}(\overline{a_2}) > \text{pos}(\overline{a_1}) - \text{pos}(a_1)$, Inequality 3 contradicts Inequality 2 which shows that $t$ remains on the stack until the arrival of $\overline{q}$. Item 2 of Fact 2 guarantees that there is no other stack element on top of $t$ upon arrival of $\overline{q}$. This guarantees the verification of node $q$ and proves the lemma. \qed
Theorem 5. Algorithm 3 is a bidirectional two-pass streaming algorithm for VALIDITY(2) with space O(log^2 N) and O(log N) processing time per letter.

Proof. To prove correctness of Algorithm 3, we ensure that all nodes get verified. By Lemma 3, in the first pass, all nodes with a left subtree being at least as large as its right subtree get verified. The second pass ensures then verification of nodes with a right subtree that is at least as large as its left subtree.

Next, we prove by contradiction that for any current value of variable n in Algorithm 4, the stack contains at most log(n) elements. Assume that there is a stack configuration of size \( t \geq \log(n) + 1 \). Let \( (n_1, n_2, \ldots, n_t) \) be the sequence of the fourth parameters of the stack elements. Since these elements are not yet removed, due to line 18 of Algorithm 4, it holds that \( n - n_i \leq n_i - n_{i-1} \), or equivalently \( n_i \geq 1/2(n + n_{i-1}) \), for all \( 1 \leq i \leq t \). Since \( n_1 \geq 1 \), we obtain that \( n_i \geq 2^{i-1}n + \frac{1}{2} \), and, in particular, \( n_{t-1} \geq (n-1) + \frac{1}{n} \). Since all \( n_i \) are integers, it holds that \( n_{t-1} \geq n \). Furthermore, since \( n_t > n_{t-1} \), we obtain \( n_{\log n+1} \geq n + 1 \) which is a contradiction, since the element at position \( n + 1 \) has not yet been seen.

Since \( n \leq 2N \) and the size of a stack element is in \( O(\log n) \), Algorithm 4 uses space \( O(\log^2 N) \). This also implies that the while-loop at line 18 of Algorithm 4 can only be iterated \( O(\log n) \) times during the processing of a tag on the stream. The processing time per letter is then \( O(\log N) \), since we assume that operations on the stack run in constant time.

5 Validity of general trees

In the following subsections we provide streaming algorithms for FCNS encoding which is the transformation of XML(\( t \)) to XML(FCNS(\( t \))), and FCNS decoding which is the transformation of XML(FCNS(\( t \))) to XML(\( t \)), see the definition in Section 2.3.

The FCNS encoding can be seen as a reordering of the tags of XML(\( t \)) and an annotation of the tags with left/right. We state several properties about the relationship of the ordering of the tags in XML(FCNS(\( t \))), Lemma 4 concerns the structure of the subsequence of opening tags in XML(FCNS(\( t \))), Lemma 5 concerns the structure of the subsequence of closing tags in XML(FCNS(\( t \))), and Lemma 6 concerns the interplay of the subsequences of opening and closing tags in XML(FCNS(\( t \))).

Lemma 4. The opening tags in XML(\( t \)) are in the same order as the opening tags in XML(FCNS(\( t \))).

Proof. Recall Definition 2 of XML and Definition 3 of XML\(^F\). We will show that the following two functions XML\(^F\) and XML\(^F\)' which, applied to the root of a tree \( t \), generate the sequences of opening tags of XML(\( t \)) and XML(FCNS(\( t \))) (without left/right annotations) are equivalent. For a tree \( t \) and nodes \( x, x_1, \ldots, x_n \) we define

\[
\text{XML}'(x) = x \text{XML}'(\text{children}(x)), \\
\text{XML}'(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \text{XML}'(x_1) \ldots \text{XML}'(x_n), \\
\text{XML}'(\bot) = \epsilon,
\]

and

\[
\text{XML}^F'(x) = x \text{XML}^F'(\text{fc}(x)) \text{XML}^F'(\text{ns}(x)), \\
\text{XML}^F'(\bot) = \epsilon.
\]

Clearly, XML'(root(\( t \))) and XML\(^F\)'(root(\( t \))) construct the sequences of opening tags of XML(\( t \)) and XML(FCNS(\( t \))). Let \( x \in t \) be any node. We prove the following statement by induction on the size of the subtree below \( x \):

\[
\text{XML}'(x) = x \text{XML}^F'(\text{fc}(x)). \tag{4}
\]
The statement is trivially true if \( x \) is a leaf, that is a tree of size 1. Let \( x \) be a non-leaf node with children \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \). Then

\[
x \text{XML}^{F'}(\text{fc}(x)) = x x_1 \text{XML}^{F'}(\text{fc}(x_1)) \text{XML}^{F'}(\text{ns}(x_1)) \tag{5}
\]
\[
= x \text{XML}'(x_1) \text{XML}^{F'}(x_2) \tag{6}
\]
\[
= x \text{XML}'(x_1) x_2 \text{XML}^{F'}(\text{fc}(x_2)) \text{XML}^{F'}(\text{ns}(x_2)) \tag{7}
\]
\[
= x \text{XML}'(x_1) \text{XML}'(x_2) \text{XML}^{F'}(x_3) \tag{8}
\]
\[
\ldots
\]
\[
= x \text{XML}'(x_1) \ldots \text{XML}'(x_n) = x \text{XML}'(\text{children}(x)) = \text{XML}'(x).
\]

We used the induction hypothesis in Equation 5 to obtain Equation 6 and in Equation 7 to Equation 8. Let \( r \) denote the root of \( t \). Then using Equation 4 the result follows

\[
\text{XML}^{F'}(r) = r \text{XML}^{F'}(\text{fc}(r)) \text{XML}^{F'}(\text{ns}(r))
= \text{XML}'(r) \text{XML}^{F'}(\bot) = \text{XML}'(r).
\]

For a node \( v \) of some tree \( t \), let \( \text{pos}'(v) \) and \( \text{pos}'(\bar{v}) \) be the respective positions of the opening and closing tags of \( v \) in XML(FCNS(\( t \))).

**Lemma 5.** Nodes \( v_1, v_2 \) of \( t \) satisfy \( \text{pos}'(\bar{v}_1) < \text{pos}'(\bar{v}_2) \) if and only if one of the following conditions holds:

1. \( v_1 \) is in the subtree of \( v_2 \) in \( t \);
2. or \( v_1 \) is a right sibling of \( v_2 \) in \( t \);
3. or there is a node \( u \) with \( \text{depth}(u) \leq \text{depth}(v_1) - 1 \) such that \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(u) \leq \text{pos}(v_2) \).

**Proof.** Concerning Item 1 and Item 2, note that for a node \( x \), XML\( F(x) \) generates opening and closing tags for the entire subtree of \( x \), and for all right siblings of \( x \).

Disregarding the annotations, we have XML\( F(v_2) = v_2 XML^{F}(\text{fc}(v_2)) XML^{F}(\text{ns}(v_2)) \text{nl} \), and hence \( \text{nl} \) is preceded by all closing tags that are in the subtree of \( v_2 \) (Item 1) and all closing tags that are right siblings of \( v_2 \) (Item 2).

Concerning Item 3, let \( p \) be the closest common ancestor of \( v_1 \) and \( v_2 \). Consider XML\( F(p) = p XML^{F}(\text{fc}(u)) XML^{F}(\text{ns}(u)) \text{p} \). Since \( p \) is the closest common ancestor, \( v_1 \) is a descendant of \( \text{fc}(p) \) and hence the tags of \( v_1 \) are generated by a call to XML\( F(\text{fc}(p)) \). \( v_2 \) is in a subtree of a right sibling of \( \text{fc}(p) \) and hence the tags for \( v_2 \) are generated by the call to XML\( F(\text{ns}(u)) \). This proves that \( \text{pos}'(v_1) < \text{pos}'(v_2) \). \( \square \)

**Lemma 6.** Nodes \( v_1, v_2 \) of \( t \) satisfy \( \text{pos}'(\bar{v}_1) < \text{pos}'(\bar{v}_2) \) if and only if there is a node \( u \) with \( \text{depth}(u) \leq \text{depth}(v_1) - 1 \) such that \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(u) \leq \text{pos}(v_2) \).

**Proof.** The proof is identical to the proof of Item 3 of Lemma 5. \( \square \)

### 5.1 FCNS encoding

In this section, we are interested in computing the transformation XML(\( t \)) → XML(FCNS(\( t \))). Our strategy is to compute the subsequence of opening tags of XML(FCNS(\( t \))) (using Lemma 4 and discussed in subsection 5.1.1) and the subsequence of closing tags (using Lemma 5 and discussed in 5.1.2) of XML(FCNS(\( t \))) independently, and merge them afterwards (using Lemma 6 and discussed in subsection 5.1.3).
5.1.1 Computing the sequence of opening tags

Concerning the opening tags, since due to Lemma 4 the subsequences of opening tags in XML(t) and XML(FCNS(t)) coincide, we extract the subsequence of opening tag of XML(t), and we annotate them with left or right as they should be in XML(FCNS(t)). Remind that an opening tag is left if it is the opening tag of a first child, otherwise it is right. Furthermore, for later use we annotate each opening tag c with depth(c) in t and the position in the stream pos(c), see Algorithm 5.

**Algorithm 5 Extracting the opening tags of XML(t)**

Require: input stream is a well-formed XML document

1: \( d \leftarrow 0, p \leftarrow 0 \)
2: \( D \leftarrow L \)
3: while stream not empty do
4: \( x \leftarrow \) next tag on stream
5: \( p \leftarrow p + 1 \)
6: if \( x \) is an opening tag \( c \) then
7: \( d \leftarrow d + 1 \)
8: write on output stream \((c_D, d, p)\)
9: \( D \leftarrow L \)
10: else \{ \( x \) is a closing tag \( c \} \)
11: \( d \leftarrow d - 1 \)
12: \( D \leftarrow R \)
13: end if
14: end while

**Fact 3.** Algorithm 5 is a streaming algorithm with space \( O(\log N) \) that, given XML(t) as input, outputs on an auxiliary stream the sequence of opening tags of XML\(^F\)(t) with left/right annotations, and furthermore, annotates each tag \( c \) with depth(c) and pos(c). It performs one read pass on the input stream and one write pass on the auxiliary stream.

5.1.2 Computing the sequence of closing tags

For computing the sequence of closing tags, we start with the sequence of opening tags of XML(FCNS(t)) as produced by the output of the Algorithm 5, that is, correctly annotated with left/right and with depth and position annotations. To obtain the correct subsequence of closing tags as in XML(FCNS(t)), we interpret the opening tags as closing tags and we sort them with a merge sort algorithm. Merge sort can be implemented as a streaming algorithm with \( O(\log(N)) \) passes and 3 auxiliary streams [7]. For the sake of simplicity, Algorithm 6 assumes an input of length \( 2^l \) for some \( l > 0 \).

**Algorithm 6 Merge sort**

Require: unsorted data of length \( 2^l \) on stream 1

1: for \( i = 0 \ldots l - 1 \) do
2: copy data in blocks of length \( 2^i \) from stream 1 alternately onto stream 2 and stream 3
3: for \( j = 1 \ldots 2^l - 2^{l-1} \) do
4: merge(\( 2^i \))
5: end for
6: end for

merge(\( b \)) reads simultaneously the next \( b \) values from stream 2 and stream 3, and merges them onto stream 1. The for loop in Line 3 of Algorithm 6 requires one read pass on stream 2, one read pass on stream 3, and one write pass on stream 1. See Figure 10 for an illustration.

In order to use merge sort, we have to define a comparator function that, given two closing tags \( \overline{c_1}, \overline{c_2} \), decides whether \( \text{pos}'(\overline{c_1}) < \text{pos}'(\overline{c_2}) \). Firstly, consider nodes \( v_1, v_2 \) with \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(v_2) \) to be as in Item 1
or Item 2 of Lemma 5, that is, either \(v_1, v_2\) are siblings or one node is contained in the subtree of the other one. Obviously, their ordering with respect to \(\text{pos}'\) can easily be decided by their depth: \(\text{pos}'(\overline{v_1}) < \text{pos}'(\overline{v_2})\) iff \(\text{depth}(v_1) > \text{depth}(v_2)\).

If neither \(v_1, v_2\) are siblings, nor \(v_2\) is in the subtree of \(v_1\) (Point 3 of Lemma 5), then \(\text{pos}'(\overline{v_1}) < \text{pos}'(\overline{v_2})\), independently of their depths. A comparison function hence should be able to infer the relationship of the two nodes, however, this seems to be difficult in the streaming model.

To overcome this problem, instead of only defining a comparison function, we design a complete merge function in Lemma 7 that, by construction, only compares two nodes of the first kind. The key idea is to introduce separator tags which we denote by new tags outside of \(\Sigma\). They are initially inserted right after each closing tag of a last child \(u\), that is exactly before the depth decreases. We denote by \(\overline{u}\) the separator we introduce when seeing the last child \(u\), and we define \(\text{depth}(\overline{u}) = \text{depth}(u)\).

Algorithm 7 Unsorted sequence of closing tags of XML(FCNS(\(t\))) with separators

**Require:** input stream is a well-formed XML document

1. \(d \leftarrow 0, p \leftarrow 0\)
2. \(D \leftarrow L\)
3. **while** stream not empty **do**
4. \(x \leftarrow\) next tag on stream
5. \(p \leftarrow p + 1\)
6. **if** \(x\) is an opening tag \(c\) **then**
7. \(d \leftarrow d + 1\)
8. write on output stream \((\overline{c}, d, p)\)
9. \(D \leftarrow L\)
10. **else** {\(x\) is a closing tag \(\overline{c}\)}
11. \(d \leftarrow d - 1\)
12. **if** next item on stream is a closing tag **then**
13. write on output stream \((\overline{c}, d, p)\)
14. **end if**
15. \(D \leftarrow R\)
16. **end if**
17. **end while**

**Fact 4.** Algorithm 7 is a streaming algorithm with space \(O(\log N)\) that, given a sequence XML(\(t\)) on a stream, computes on an auxiliary stream the sequence of opening tags XML(FCNS(\(t\))) together with their separators and annotates the tags with depth, pos, and left/right. It performs one read pass on the input stream and one write pass on the auxiliary stream.

We have to define the way we integrate the separators into our sorting. Let \(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\) be the ordered sequence of the children of some node. For the separator \(\overline{v_k}\) we ask their position among the closing tags to satisfy for each node \(v\):

\[
\text{pos}'(\overline{v}) < \text{pos}'(\overline{v_k}) \quad \text{iff} \quad \text{pos}'(\overline{v}) \leq \text{pos}'(\overline{v_k});
\]
Furthermore, this observation implies that depth(v) < depth(v′) implies pos(v) < pos(v′).

Blocks appearing in merge sort fulfill a property that we call well-sorted. A block B of closing tags is well-sorted if the corresponding tags in XML(FCNS(t)) appear in the same order, and for all \( \overline{v_1}, \overline{v_2} \in B \) with \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(v_2) \), all closing tags \( \overline{v} \) of nodes \( v \) with \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(v) < \text{pos}(v_2) \) are in \( B \) as well.

In addition, for two blocks \( B_1, B_2 \) of closing tags, we say that \( (B_1, B_2) \) is a well-sorted adjacent pair, if \( B_1 \) and \( B_2 \) are well-sorted, for each closing tag \( \overline{v_1} \in B_1 \) and each closing tag \( \overline{v_2} \in B_2 \) \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(v_2) \) is satisfied, and furthermore, all closing tags \( \overline{v} \) of nodes \( v \) with \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(v) < \text{pos}(v_2) \) are either in \( B_1 \) or \( B_2 \).

The only function to design is a comparator deciding for two closing tags \( \overline{v_1}, \overline{v_2} \) from a well-sorted adjacent pair \( (B_1, B_2) \) whether \( \text{pos}(\overline{v_1}) < \text{pos}(\overline{v_2}) \).

The following lemma shows that we can merge a well-sorted adjacent pair correctly.

**Lemma 7.** Let \((B_1, B_2)\) be a well-sorted adjacent pair, and let \( v_1 = B_1[p_1] \) and \( v_2 = B_2[p_2] \) for some \( p_1, p_2 \). Assume that \( \text{pos}(v') < \text{pos}(v_1) \) and \( \text{pos}(v) < \text{pos}(v_2) \), for all \( v \in B_1[1, p_1 - 1] \cup B_2[1, p_2 - 1] \). Then:

1. If \( v_1 \) is a separator, or there is a separator in \( B_1 \) after \( v_1 \), then \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(v_2) \);
2. Else if \( v_2 \) is a separator then:
   
   (a) if \( \text{depth}(v_1) < \text{depth}(v_2) \) then \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(v_2) \),
   
   (b) else \( \text{pos}(v_1) > \text{pos}(v_2) \);
3. Else (neither \( v_1 \) nor \( v_2 \) is a separator):
   
   (a) if \( \text{depth}(v_1) \leq \text{depth}(v_2) \) then \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(v_2) \),
   
   (b) else \( \text{pos}(v_1) > \text{pos}(v_2) \).

**Proof.** Let \((B_1, B_2)\) be a well-sorted adjacent pair. Let \( l = \max\{i : B_1[i] \) is a separator\}. If there are no separators in \( B_1 \), let \( l = 0 \). First, we prove Point 1. Since \( B_1 \) is well-ordered, we only need to check that \( \text{pos}(B_1[l]) < \text{pos}(B_2[1]) \). Denote by \( u \) the last child that was responsible for the insertion of the separator tag \( B_1[l] \). Let \( u' \) be the left-most sibling of \( u \). Due to Equation (9) it suffices to show that \( \text{pos}(\overline{u'}) < \text{pos}(B_2[1]) \). Clearly, the shortest path from \( u' \) to \( B_2[1] \) passes by a common ancestor \( p \) of \( u' \) and \( B_2[1] \) which is not the parent of \( u' \) since the separator \( B_1[l] \) indicates that the last child \( u \) has been seen. Then, by Point 3 of Lemma 5, we get \( \text{pos}(\overline{u'}) < \text{pos}(B_2[1]) \).

For proving Points 2 and 3 we use the observation that if the premises to Point 1 are not fulfilled, \( v_1, v_2 \) do not have a common ancestor \( p \) s.t. \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(p) < \text{pos}(v_2) \) and \( p \) is not the parent node of \( v_1 \). Furthermore, this observation implies that \( \text{depth}(v_2) \geq \text{depth}(v_1) - 1 \) and hence, if \( \text{depth}(v_2) > \text{depth}(v_1) \), then \( v_2 \) is in the subtree of \( v_1 \). This and Lemma 5 prove Points 2a, 2b, 3a and 3b.

We prove the observation by contradiction. Assume that there is such a node \( p \). Since \((B_1, B_2)\) is a well-sorted adjacent pair and \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(p) < \text{pos}(v_2) \), node \( p \) would be in \( B_1 \cup B_2 \). Therefore, the separator \( \overline{p} \) inserted after the rightmost sibling of \( v_1 \) would be also in \( B_1 \cup B_2 \) as well. More precisely, this separator would be in \( B_2[1 \ldots p_2 - 1] \) since otherwise Point 1 would have been applied. This, however, is a contradiction to the assumption that \( \text{pos}(v') < \text{pos}(v_1) \forall v \in B_1[1 \ldots p_1 - 1] \cup B_2[1 \ldots p_2 - 1] \) since it holds that \( \text{pos}(v_1) < \text{pos}(\overline{p}) \). Hence such a node does not exist.

**Lemma 8.** There is a \( O(\log N) \)-pass streaming algorithm with space \( O(\log N) \) and 3 auxiliary streams that computes the subsequence of closing tags of the FCNS encoding of any XML document given in the input stream.

**Proof.** Using Algorithm 7, we compute on the first auxiliary stream the sequence of opening tags interpreted as closing tags with corresponding annotations, together with separators.
We show that we can do a merge sort algorithm with a merge function inspired by Lemma 7 on the first three auxiliary streams with $O(\log N)$ space and passes. For that assume that the first stream contains a sequence $(B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_M)$ of blocks of size $2^i$. For simplicity we assume that $M$ is even, otherwise we add an empty block. We alternately copy odd blocks on the second stream, and even blocks on the third stream. For a block $B_{2i}$ that we write on the third stream, we write before each of them, the number of separators that occur in the block $B_{2i-1}$ that was copied on the second stream.

Then we merge sequentially all pairs of blocks $(B_{2k-1}, B_{2k})$ for $1 \leq k \leq M/2$ using Lemma 7. Note that $(B_{2k-1}, B_{2k})$ are all well-formed pairs. Let $l = \max\{i : B_{2k-1}[i] \text{ is a separator}\}$. Firstly, we copy elements $B_{2k-1}[1, l]$ onto auxiliary stream 1. Knowing the number of separators in $B_{2k-1}$ allows us to perform this operation. The correctness of this step follows from Item 1 of Lemma 7. Then, we merge blocks $B_{2k-1}[l+1, 2^i]$ and $B_{2k}$ by using the comparison function defined in Items 2 and 3 of Lemma 7.

5.1.3 Merging opening and closing tags

Merging the subsequence of opening tags of XML(FCNS($t$)) and the subsequence of closing tags of XML(FCNS($t$)) can be done by simultaneously reading the two subsequences and performing one write pass over an auxiliary stream.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm 8 Merging the sequence of opening and closing tags</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Require:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• stream 1: annotated opening tags as output by Algorithm 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• stream 2: annotated closing tags as output the algorithm of Lemma 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1: $(c_1, p_1, d_1) \leftarrow \text{next tag on stream 1}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2: $(c_2, p_2, d_2) \leftarrow \text{next tag on stream 2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3: $D \leftarrow 0$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>repeat</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5: <strong>if</strong> $d_1 \geq D$ then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6: write $c_1$ on output stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7: $D \leftarrow d_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8: <strong>if</strong> stream 1 not empty then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9: $(c_1, p_1, d_1) \leftarrow \text{next tag on stream 1}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10: <strong>else</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11: $(c_1, p_1, d_1) \leftarrow (\bot, -1, -1)$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12: <strong>end if</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13: <strong>else</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14: write $c_2$ on output stream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15: $D \leftarrow d_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16: <strong>if</strong> stream 2 not empty then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17: $(c_2, p_2, d_2) \leftarrow \text{next tag on stream 2 different from a separator}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18: <strong>end if</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19: <strong>end if</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>until</strong> $D = 0$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Lemma 9.** Algorithm 8 merges correctly the sequence of opening tags and closing tags using space $O(\log N)$.

**Proof.** Lemma 6 shows that it is correct to switch from the sequence of opening tags to the sequence of closing tags as soon as the depth of the opening tags decreases. Let $v_1, v_2$ be two consecutive opening tags with depth($v_2$) < depth($v_1$) (note that pos($v_1$) < pos($v_2$) since $v_1, v_2$ are consecutive tags). Then for all closing tags $\tau$ of the nodes that are either in the subtree induced by $v_1$ or that are on the shortest path from $v_1$ to $v_2$ with a depth strictly larger that depth($v_2$), it holds by Lemma 6 that pos($\tau$) < pos($v_2$). This also justifies that when writing the sequence of closing tags we correctly switch back to the sequence of opening tags as soon as the depth of the closing tags decreases as low as the next opening tag. 

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Firstly, we use the algorithm described in Theorem 6 to compute the transformation \( \text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t)) \) into \( \text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t)) \). We state this fact in the following.

**Theorem 6.** There is a \( O(\log N) \)-pass streaming algorithm with space \( O(\log N) \) and 3 auxiliary streams and \( O(1) \) processing time per letter that computes on the third auxiliary stream the \( \text{FCNS}^\perp \) transformation of any XML document given in the input stream.

**Proof.** Firstly, we compute according to Lemma 8 the sequence of closing tags and we store them on auxiliary stream 1. Then, by Lemma 3 we extract the sequence of opening tags, and we store them on auxiliary stream 2. By Lemma 9 we can merge the tags of auxiliary stream 1 and auxiliary stream 2 correctly onto stream 3.

The space requirements of these operations do not exceed \( O(\log N) \). The processing time per letter of these operations is constant.

The algorithm described in the proof of Theorem 6 can be easily modified such that it outputs \( \text{XML}(\text{FCNS}^\perp(t)) \) instead of \( \text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t)) \). We state this fact in the following.

**Corollary 1.** There is a \( O(\log N) \)-pass streaming algorithm with space \( O(\log N) \) and 3 auxiliary streams and \( O(1) \) processing time per letter that computes on the third auxiliary stream the \( \text{FCNS}^\perp \) encoding of any XML document given in the input stream.

**Proof.** Firstly, we use the algorithm described in Theorem 6 to compute the transformation \( \text{XML}(t) \) into \( \text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t)) \). Then, with an additional read pass and an additional write pass we transform \( \text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t)) \) into \( \text{XML}(\text{FCNS}^\perp(t)) \). To perform this transformation, we read the tags of \( \text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t)) \) and output them on another stream without left/right annotations, and at the same time we insert leaves labeled with \( \perp \). Such a leaf has to be inserted below internal nodes that have only a single child. The left/right annotations of the input stream allow us to recognize those nodes. Note that the transformation \( \text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t)) \) into \( \text{XML}(\text{FCNS}^\perp(t)) \) requires only constant space.

### 5.2 Checking Validity on the encoding form

The problem of validating trees given in their encoded form and the problem of validating binary trees are similar. We will provide intuition that basically any streaming algorithm that decides validity of binary trees by calling a check function upon all triplets \((v, v_1, v_2)\) of internal nodes \(v\) with children \(v_1, v_2\) \((v, \epsilon, \epsilon)\) for leaves) can be transformed into an algorithm that decides validity of trees given in their encoded form. We will explicitly show how to use the bidirectional 2-pass algorithm, Algorithm 3, and the one-pass algorithm, Algorithm 2, to perform this task.

To validate a node \(v\) with children \(v_1, \ldots, v_k\), an algorithm has to ensure that \(v_1 \ldots v_k\) is valid with respect to the regular expression \(d(v)\). To perform such a check, an algorithm has to gather the relevant information, which is the label of \(v\) and the label of its children \(v_1, \ldots, v_k\), from the stream. Figure 11 illustrates the fact that \(\pi_k \ldots \pi_1\) forms a substring in \(\text{XML}(\text{FCNS}^\perp(t))\). Suppose that the information about the labels of the children \(v_1, \ldots, v_k\) was available at node \(v_1\) in \(\text{FCNS}^\perp(t)\) (in a compressed form since the number of children of a node can be large). Then we could use any algorithm validating binary trees which uses a check function as described above for our purpose: since such an algorithm relates a node to its two children, we can use this algorithm on \(\text{FCNS}^\perp(t)\) to relate a node to its left child.

Granting access to all children labels when it is required is established by the help of a finite automaton that we discuss later. Consider a left-to-right pass over \(\text{FCNS}^\perp(t)\). When seeing the sequence \(\pi_k \ldots \pi_1\), we feed it into a finite automaton. The resulting state is a compressed version of this sequence. A binary tree validity algorithm will then relate this state to the parent node. The details follow.

For a non-leaf node \(v\), we gather the information of the children nodes \(v_1, \ldots, v_k\) by the help of finite automata \(A_1\) (for left-to-right passes) and \(A_2\) (for right-to-left passes).

We denote by \((\Sigma, Q, q_0, \delta, F)\) a deterministic finite automaton where \(\Sigma\) is its input alphabet, \(Q\) is the state set, \(q_0\) is its initial state, \(\delta : Q \times \Sigma \rightarrow Q\) is the transition function, and \(F\) is a set of final states. Furthermore, for a word \(\omega = \omega_1 \ldots \omega_n\) of length \(n\), we define \(\omega^{-rev}\) to be \(\omega\) read from right to left, that is \(\omega^{-rev} = \omega_n \ldots \omega_1\).
Figure 11: A tree $t$ and its FCNS$^\perp$ encoding. While the opening and closing tags of the children of a node $v$ are separated by the subtrees $t_1, \ldots, t_k$ in XML$(t)$, the closing tags of the children of $v$ are consecutive in XML$^{\perp}$$(t)$ in reverse order, that is $v_k v_{k-1} \ldots v_2 v_1$ is a substring of XML$^{\perp}$$(t)$.

**Lemma 10.** Let $D = (\Sigma, d, s_d)$ denote a DTD. Then there is a deterministic finite automaton $A_1 = (\Sigma, Q_1, q_0^1, \delta_1, F_1)$ that for any $v \in \Sigma$ and any $v_1 \ldots v_k$ in $\Sigma^k$ accepts the word $v_k \ldots v_1 v$ only if $v_1 \ldots v_k$ fulfills the regular expression $d(v)$.

**Proof.** For $a \in \Sigma$, denote by $A_a$ a deterministic finite automaton that accepts the regular expression $d(a)$. We compose the $A_a$ as in the left illustration of Figure 12 to an automaton $A$ that accepts words $\omega'$ such that $\omega' = a\omega$, $a \in \Sigma$, $\omega \in \Sigma^*$ if $\omega \in d(a)$. $A_1$ is a deterministic finite automaton that accepts a word $\omega$, iff $\omega^{rev}$ is accepted by $A$.

**Lemma 11.** Let $D = (\Sigma, d, s_d)$ denote a DTD. Then there is a deterministic finite automaton $A_2 = (\Sigma, Q_2, q_0^2, \delta_2, F_2)$ that for any $v \in \Sigma$ and any $v_1 \ldots v_k$ in $\Sigma^k$ accepts the word $v_1 \ldots v_k v$ only if $v_1 \ldots v_k$ fulfills the regular expression $d(v)$.

**Proof.** For $a \in \Sigma$, denote by $A_a$ a deterministic finite automaton that accepts the regular expression $d(a)$. We compose the $A_a$ as in the right illustration of Figure 12 to an automaton $A$ that accepts words $\omega'$ such that $\omega' = a\omega$, $a \in \Sigma$, $\omega \in \Sigma^*$ if $\omega \in d(a)$. Then $A_2$ is a deterministic version of $A$ without $\epsilon$ transitions.

Figure 12: Left: Automaton $A$. $A_1$ accepts words $\omega$ if $A$ accepts $\omega^{rev}$. Right: Automaton $A_2$ is a version of the illustrated automaton without $\epsilon$ transitions.

We show now that by the help of automata $A_1$ and $A_2$, Algorithm 3 can be reused for the validation of trees given in their encoded form.

**Theorem 7.** There is a bidirectional two-pass deterministic algorithm for Validity with space $O(\log^2 N)$ and $O(\log N)$ processing time per letter when the input is given in its FCNS encoding.

**Proof.** We run a modified version of Algorithm 3 on XML(FCNS$^\perp$$(t)$). The modifications concern the subroutine described in Algorithm 4. The modifications are different for the left-to-right pass and the right-to-left pass.

Firstly, we consider the left-to-right pass. We will annotate the closing tags of left children on the fly by states of the automaton $A_1$ as described in Lemma 10. Let $v_1, \ldots, v_k$ denote the children of a node $v$. Then
the annotation of $\tau_1$ is a state that we denote by $q_1(v)$. $q_1(v)$ is the resulting state of $A_1$ when feeding the sequence $v_1, \ldots, v_k$ into it. We describe later how to compute it on the fly. Given this annotation, we use a different implementation of the check function. For internal nodes $v$ with first child $v_1$ and annotation $q_1(v)$, check simply computes the state $\delta_1(q_1(v), v)$ and stops if the prior state is not an accepting state. Note that by the definition of $A_1$, $v$ is valid if $\delta_1(q_1(v), v)$ is an accepting state.

We discuss now how to compute this annotation. As discussed before and illustrated in Figure 11, the closing tags $\tau_k \ldots \tau_1$ of children $v_1, \ldots, v_k$ of a node $v$ form a substring. Hence, as soon as we see $\tau_k$ which we can easily identify since it is a right leaf, we run the automaton $A_1$ on the labels of the upcoming closing tags. We stop this procedure after $\tau_1$ is read which we can identify since $\tau_1$ is followed by an opening tag. Hence, when $\tau_1$ is pushed on the stack (in Algorithm 4 it is actually pushed on the stack together with the opening tag of the right child of $v$), we can annotate it with $q_1(\tau_1)$.

Consider now a right-to-left pass. Note that in a right-to-left pass, closing tags are interpreted as opening tags and vice versa. This implies that a left child becomes a right child and a right child becomes a left child. Let $v_1, \ldots, v_k$ denote the children of a node $v$. Then in a right-to-left pass, we see the sequence of opening tags $v_1, \ldots, v_k$ as a substring, where $v_1$ is a right opening tag and $v_2, \ldots, v_k$ are left opening tags. We will annotate the closing tag of the left child of $v$. Note that due to the exchange of the role of left and right, the left closing tag is the next sibling of $v$ and not the first child. Since our input tree FCNS$^\perp(t)$ is a binary tree, it is guaranteed that this node exists. The annotation is the state $q_2(v_k). q_2(v_k)$ is obtained by feeding the sequence $v_1, \ldots, v_k$ into the automaton $A_2$, which is described in Lemma 11. The check function then computes $\delta_2(q_2(v_k), v)$ and stops if the resulting state is not an accepting state.

We discuss now that this annotation can be computed on the fly and it can be added correctly to the closing tag of the left child of $v$. The main difference to the left-to-right pass is that we compute the annotation after having pushed the children of $v$ onto the stack and we add the annotation afterwards. Denote by $v_1$ the left child of $v$ in FCNS$^\perp(t)$. Then in the right-to-left pass we see the substring $\tau_k v_1 v_2 \ldots v_k$. Algorithm 4 pushes $\tau_k, v_1$ on the stack as soon as $v_1$ is seen. We feed then the sequence $v_1 v_2 \ldots v_k$ into $A_2$. As soon as $v_k$ is read which can be easily identified since $v_k$ is either a leaf of followed by a right opening tag, we annotate the left closing tag of the topmost stack item by the state $q_2(v_k)$.

Correctness, that is the validation of all nodes, follows then from the correctness of Algorithm 3. The automata $A_1, A_2$ are of constant size since we assumed that the input DTD is of constant size. Hence, the described algorithm has the same space complexity as Algorithm 3.

By modifying the one-pass algorithm Algorithm 2 in a similar way, the following theorem can be obtained.

**Theorem 8.** There is a one-pass deterministic algorithm for VALIDITY with space $O(\sqrt{N \log N})$ and $O(1)$ processing time per letter when the input is given in its FCNS$^\perp$ encoding.

**Proof.** We reuse Algorithm 2. Concerning the modifications, the idea is the same as for the left-to-right pass of the algorithm described in the proof of Theorem 7. For all internal nodes $v$ with children $v_1, \ldots, v_k$, we compress the sequence $v_1, \ldots, v_k$ into a state $q(v)$ of the finite automaton $A_1$ who is described in Lemma 10. $q_1(v)$ is obtained by feeding $v_k \ldots v_1$ into $A_1$ which can be done since $\tau_k \ldots \tau_1$ forms a substring of the input XML sequence. We annotate the closing tag of $v_1$ with this state. The check routine is modified in the same way as in the proof of Theorem 7: only if $\delta_1(q_1(v), v)$ is an accepting state then $v$ is valid, otherwise the check routine aborts and the algorithm reports an invalid node. The correctness of Algorithm 2 ensures the validation of all nodes.

Applying the bidirectional algorithm of Theorem 7 on the encoded form XML(FCNS$^\perp(t)$), we obtain that validity of general trees can be decided memory efficiently in the streaming model with auxiliary streams.

**Corollary 2.** There is a bidirectional $O(\log N)$-pass deterministic streaming algorithm for VALIDITY with space $O(\log^2 N)$, $O(\log N)$ processing time per letter, and 3 auxiliary streams.

**Proof.** We perform the transformation XML$(t)$ into XML(FCNS$^\perp(t)$) with the algorithm stated in Corollary 1. Then, we run the two-pass bidirectional algorithm of Theorem 7 on XML(FCNS$^\perp(t)$) and the result follows.
Note that this result only holds for the validation of DTDs. Nothing is known about the validation of more powerful validity schemas such as extended DTDs or XML Schema if access to auxiliary streams is granted.

5.3 Decoding

In the following, we present a streaming algorithm for FCNS decoding, that is, given XML(FCNS(t)) of some tree t, output XML(t). We start with a non-streaming algorithm, Algorithm 9 performing this task.

Algorithm 9 offline algorithm for FCNS decoding

1: for i = 1 → 2N do
2:   if X[i] is an opening tag then
3:     write X[i]
4:   if X[i] does not have a left subtree then {X[i] is a leaf}
5:     write X[i]
6:   end if
7:   else if X[i] is a left closing tag then {See Figure 13}
8:     let p be the parent node of X[i]
9:     write p
10: end if
11: end for

Figure 13: The main difficulty of the FCNS decoding is to write the closing tag of a node p when the closing tag of its left child is seen. This is difficult when the subtrees of v1 and v2 are large.

We firstly discuss the correctness of Algorithm 9. We show that the algorithm run on XML(FCNS(t)) computes the function dec(root t) which we define in the following. Let t be a tree and let x ∈ t be a node, then

\[
\text{dec}(x) = x \text{dec(fc}(x)) \overline{\sigma} \text{dec(ns}(x)),
\]

\[
\text{dec}(\bot) = \epsilon.
\]

The only difference between dec and XMLF is that for some non-leaf node x, dec(x) outputs \overline{\sigma} between the recursive calls to dec(fc(x)) and dec(ns(x)) while XMLF outputs \overline{\sigma} at the very end. Algorithm 9 computes dec since it ignores the closing tags of the FCNS encoding and it inserts closing tags when we do a transition from the left child to a right child, that is between the recursive calls to dec(fc(x)) and dec(ns(x)). We show now that dec(root(t)) produces the same output as XML(root(t)).

Lemma 12. dec(root(t)) = XML(root(t)).

Proof. We will prove that for a node x ∈ t the following is true

\[
\text{XML}(x) = x \text{dec(fc}(x)) \overline{\sigma}.
\]  

(11)

The proof is by induction on the height of the subtree below x and is similar to the proof of Lemma 4. The claim is obvious for leaves. Let x be a node and let v1, . . . , vn denote the children of x. Then
\[
x \, \text{dec}(v_1) \, \overline{\mathcal{P}} = x \, v_1 \, \text{dec}(\text{fc}(v_1)) \, \overline{\mathcal{P}} \, \text{dec}(v_2) \, \overline{\mathcal{P}} \tag{12}
\]
\[
= x \, \text{XML}(v_1) \, v_2 \, \text{dec}(\text{fc}(v_2)) \, \overline{\mathcal{P}} \, \text{dec}(v_3) \, \overline{\mathcal{P}} \tag{13}
\]
\[
= x \, \text{XML}(v_1) \, \text{XML}(v_2) \, v_3 \, \text{dec}(\text{fc}(v_3)) \, \overline{\mathcal{P}} \, \text{dec}(v_4) \, \overline{\mathcal{P}} \tag{14}
\]
\[\ldots\]
\[= x \, \text{XML}((\text{children}(x)) \, \overline{\mathcal{P}} = \text{XML}(x),\]
where we used the induction hypothesis in Equation 12 to obtain Equation 13, and in Equation 13 to obtain Equation 14. Since the root node \(r\) of the tree \(t\) does not have a next sibling, the result follows using Equation 11
\[
\text{dec}(r) = r \, \text{dec}(\text{fc}(r)) \, \overline{\mathcal{P}} \, \text{dec}(\text{ns}(r)) = \text{XML}(r). \]

\[\square\]

**Corollary 3.** Algorithm 9 is an offline algorithm that computes \(\text{XML}(t)\) given \(\text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t))\).

We describe how this algorithm can be converted into a streaming algorithm. For an opening tag \(X[i]\), checking the condition in Line 4 can easily be done by investigating \(X[i+1]\). If \(X[i+1]\) is a right opening tag or equals \(X[i]\), \(X[i]\) does not have a left subtree. The difficulty in converting this algorithm into a streaming algorithm is in Line 8, it is difficult to keep track of opening tags until the respective closing tags of their left children are seen, and indeed, this can not be done with sublinear space in one pass, see Fact 7.

In the following, we present a streaming algorithm that performs one pass over the input, but two passes over the output, and uses \(O(\sqrt{N \log N})\) space, and a streaming algorithm that performs \(O(\log N)\) passes over the input and 3 auxiliary streams using \(O(\log^2 N)\) space.

### 5.3.1 One read-pass and two write-passes

We read blocks of size \(\sqrt{N \log N}\) and execute Algorithm 9 on that block. In Lemma 1 we showed that in any block there is at most one left closing tag for which the parent’s opening and closing tag are not in that block. Hence per block there is at most one left closing tag for which we can not obtain the label of the parent node. We call this closing tag **critical**. In this case we write a **dummy symbol** on the output stream that will be overwritten by the parent’s closing tag in the second pass. The closing tag of the parent node will arrive in a subsequent block, and it can easily be identified as this since it is the next closing tag arriving at a depth \(-1\) of the critical closing tag. We store it upon its arrival in our random access memory. Since there is at most one critical closing tag per block and we have a block size of \(\sqrt{N \log N}\), we have to recover at most \(O(\sqrt{N \log N})\) parent nodes. At the end of the pass over the input stream we have recovered all closing tags of parent nodes for which we wrote dummy symbols on the output stream. In a second pass over the output stream we overwrite the dummy symbols by the correct closing tags.

The space complexity uses Lemma 1 that was already applied in Section 4.1.

**Theorem 9.** There is a streaming algorithm using \(O(\sqrt{N \log N})\) space and \(O(1)\) processing time per letter which performs one pass over the input stream containing \(\text{XML}(t)\) and two passes over the output stream onto which it outputs \(\text{XML}(\text{FCNS}(t))\).

### 5.3.2 Logarithmic number of passes

Again, we use the offline Algorithm 9 as a starting point for the algorithm we design now. For coping with the problem that it is hard to remember all opening parent tags when their corresponding closing tag ought to be written on the output, we write categorically **dummy symbols** on the output stream for all parent closing tags. The crux then is the following observation:
Fact 5. Let $c_1 \ldots c_N$ be the subsequence of closing tags of left children of XML(FCNS($t$)). Then the sequence $p_1 \ldots p_N$ is a subsequence of XML($t$) where $p_i$ is the parent node of $c_i$ in FCNS($t$).

We apply a modified version of our bidirectional two-pass Algorithm 3 to recover the missing tags. Instead of checking validity, once the check function is called in Algorithm 4 with variables $(a, b, c)$, we output the parent label $a$ onto an auxiliary stream, annotated with pos($b$). We do the same in a reverse pass over the input stream counting positions from $2N$ downwards to 1. In so doing, the auxiliary stream contains all parent labels for which dummy symbols are written on the output stream.

Fact 5 shows that it is enough to sort by means of two further auxiliary streams the auxiliary stream with respect to the annotated position of the closing tags of the left children of these nodes. In a last pass we insert the parent closing tags into the output stream.

Theorem 10. There is a $O(\log N)$-pass streaming algorithm with space $O(\log^2 N)$ and $O(\log N)$ processing time per letter and 3 auxiliary streams that computes on the third auxiliary stream the FCNS decoding of any FCNS encoded document given in the input stream.

6 Lower bounds for FCNS encoding and decoding

6.1 Lower bound for FCNS encoding

Let $x \in \Sigma^n$. We define a family of hard instances $t(x)$ of length $N = \Theta(n)$ for the computation of XML(FCNS($t(x)$)) given XML($t(x)$) as in Figure 14.

![Figure 14: Left: hard instance. Right: its FCNS encoded form.](image)

It is easy to see that computing the sequence of closing tags in the FCNS encoding requires to invert a stream. Let $t$ be a hard instance. Then XML($t$) = $rx_1x_1x_2x_2\ldots x_nx_n$, and XML(FCNS($t$)) = $rLx_1Lx_2R\ldots x_nRx_nLx_nL\ldots x_2Rx_1LrL$. Since writing the closing tags on the output stream can only start after reading $x_n$, we deduce that memory space $\Omega(n)$ is required in order to store all previous tags $x_1, \ldots, x_{n-1}$.

Fact 6. Every randomized streaming algorithm for FCNS encoding that performs one pass on the input stream and one pass on the output stream with bounded error requires $\Omega(N)$ space.

We conjecture that this argument can be extended as follows:

Conjecture 1. Any $p$-passes randomized streaming algorithm for FCNS encoding that performs one pass on the input stream and one pass on the output stream with bounded error requires space $\Omega(N/p)$.

6.2 Lower bound for FCNS decoding

We now define another family of hard instances of length $N = \Theta(n)$ for decoding a FCNS encoded tree as in Figure 15.

![Figure 15](image)

Intuitively, decoding the tree of any hard instance requires to put the full tree $y$ into memory. Let XML(FCNS($t$)) denote a hard instance which we aim to decode into XML($t$). Then XML(FCNS($t$)) = $rx_1L\ldots x_nLx_nLx_nL\ldots x_{k+1L}x_{k+1L}\ldots x_{1L}x_1L$ and the decoded form is XML($t$) = $rx_1\ldots x_nx_nLx_nL\ldots x_{k+1L}x_{k+1L}\ldots x_{1L}$.
Figure 15: Left: hard instance in FCNS form, where \( y \) is any tree of size \( \Theta(n) \). Right: its decoded form.

where \( Z \) is the decoded form of \( Y \). Since \( Z \) can only be written after \( x_k \), and since \( x_k \) cannot be memorized because \( k \) was unknown until we reach \( Y \), memory space \( \Omega(n) \) is required. This argument can easily be formalized using standard information theory arguments.

**Fact 7.** Every one-pass randomized streaming algorithm for FCNS decoding that performs one pass on the input stream and one pass on the output stream with bounded error requires space \( \Omega(N) \).

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References


