Wait-free Queues with Polylogarithmic Step Complexity

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Abstract

In this work, we are going to introduce a novel lock-free queue implementation. Linearizability and lock-freedom are standard requirements for designing shared data structures. All existing linearizable, lock-free queues in the literature have a common problem in their worst case called CAS Retry Problem. Our contribution is solving this problem while outperforming the previous algorithms.

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1 Introduction

Shared data structures have become an essential field in distributed algorithms research. We are reaching the physical limits of how many transistors we can place on a CPU core. The industry solution to provide more computational power is to increase the number of cores of the CPU. This is why distributed algorithms have become important. It is not hard to see why multiple processes cannot update sequential data structures designed for one process. For example, consider two processes trying to insert some values into a sequential linked list simultaneously. Processes p, q read the same tail node, p changes the next pointer of the tail node to its new node and after that q does the same. In this run, p's update is overwritten. One solution is to use locks; whenever a process wants to do an update or query on a data structure, the process locks it, and others cannot use it until the lock is released. Using locks has some disadvantages; for example, one process might be slow, and holding a lock for a long time prevents other processes from progressing. Moreover, locks do not allow complete parallelism since only the one process holding the lock can make progress.

The question that may arise is, "What properties matter for a lock-free data structure?", since executions on a shared data structure are different from sequential ones, the correctness conditions also differ. To prove a concurrent object works perfectly, we have to show it satisfies safety and progress conditions. A safety condition tells us that the data structure does not return wrong responses, and a progress property requires that operations eventually terminate.

The standard safety condition is called *linearizability*, which ensures that for any concurrent execution on a linearizable object, each operation should appear to take effect instantaneously at some moment between its invocation and response. Figure 1 is an example of an execution on a linearizable queue that is initially empty. The arrow shows time, and each rectangle shows the time between the invocation and the termination of an operation. Since Enqueue(A) and Enqueue(B) are concurrent, Enqueue(B) may or may not take effect before Enqueue(A). The execution in Figure 2 is not linearizable since A has been enqueued before B, so it has to be dequeued first.

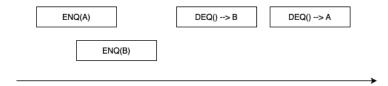


Figure 1: An example of a linearizable execution. Either Enqueue(A) or Enqueue(B) could take effect first since they are concurrent.

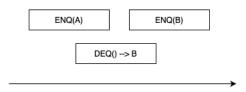


Figure 2: An example of an execution that is not linearizable. Since Enqueue(A) has completed before Enqueue(B) is invoked the Dequeue() should return A or nothing.

There are various progress properties; the strongest is wait-freedom, and the more common is lock-freedom. An algorithm is wait-free if each operation terminates after a finite number of its own steps. We call an algorithm lock-free if, after a sufficient number of steps, one operation terminates. A wait-free algorithm is also lock-free but not vice versa; in an infinite run of a lock-free algorithm there might be an operation that takes infinitely many steps but never terminates.

A queue stores a sequence of elements and supports two operations, enqueue and dequeue. Enqueue(e) appends element e to the sequence stored. Dequeue() removes and returns the first element among in the sequence. If the queue is empty it returns null. In section 2 we talk about previous queues and their common problems. We also talk about polylogarithmic construction of shared objects.

Jayanti [9] proved an $\Omega(\log p)$ lower bound on the worst-case shared-access time complexity of p-process universal constructions. He also introduced [1] a construction that achieves $O(\log^2 p)$ shared accesses. Here, we first introduce a universal construction using $O(\log p)$ CAS operations [10]. In section 3 we introduce a polylogarithmic step wait-free universal construction. Our main ideas in of the universal construction also appear in our Queue Algorithm (??). The main short come of our universal construction is using big CAS objects. We use the universal construction as a stepping stone towards our queue algorithm, so we will not explain it in too much detail.

In section 4 we introduce a concurrent wait-free datastructure, to agree on the order of the operations invoked on some processes.

In section 5 we introduce our main work, the queue; prove its linearizability and wait-freeness.

2 Related Work

2.1 List-based Queues

In the following paragraphs, we look at previous lock-free queues. Michael and Scott [13] introduced a lock-free queue which we refer to as the MS-queue. A version of it is included in the standard Java Concurrency Package. Their idea is to store the queue elements in a singly-linked list (see Figure 3). Head points to the first node in the linked list that has not been dequeued, and Tail points to the last element in the queue. To insert a node into the linked list, they use atomic primitive operations like LL/SC or CAS. If p processes try to enqueue simultaneously, only one can succeed, and the others have to retry. This makes the amortized number of steps to be $\Omega(p)$ per enqueue. Similarly, dequeue can take $\Omega(p)$ steps.

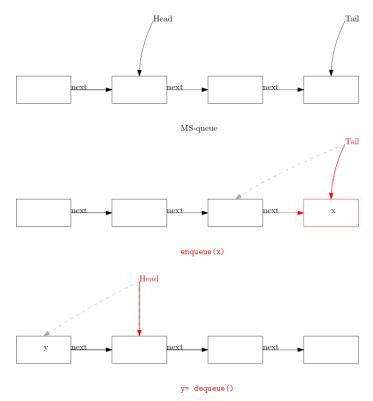


Figure 3: MS-queue structure, enqueue and dequeue operations. In the first diagram the first element has been dequeued. Red arrows show new pointers and gray dashed arrows show the old pointers.

Moir, Nussbaum, and Shalev [14] presented a more sophisticated queue by using the elimination technique. The elimination mechanism has the dual purpose of allowing operations to complete in parallel and reducing contention for the queue. An Elimination Queue consists of an MS-queue augmented with an elimination array. Elimination works by allowing opposing pairs of concurrent operations such as an enqueue and a

dequeue to exchange values when the queue is empty or when concurrent operations can be linearized to empty the queue. Their algorithm makes it possible for long-running operations to eliminate an opposing operation. The empirical evaluation showed the throughput of their work is better than the MS-queue, but the worst case is still the same; in case there are p concurrent enqueues, their algorithm is not better than MS-queue.

Hoffman, Shalev, and Shavit [8] tried to make the MS-queue more parallel by introducing the Baskets Queue. Their idea is to allow more parallelism by treating the simultaneous enqueue operations as a basket. Each basket has a time interval in which all its nodes' enqueue operations overlap. Since the operations in a basket are concurrent, we can order them in any way. Enqueues in a basket try to find their order in the basket one by one by using CAS operations. However, like the previous algorithms, if there are still p concurrent enqueue operations in a basket, the amortized step complexity remains $\Omega(p)$ per operation.

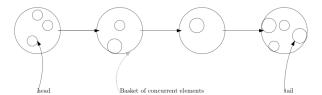


Figure 4: Baskets queue idea. There is a time that all operations in a basket were running concurrently, but only one has succeeded to do CAS. To order the operations in a basket, the mechanism in the algorithm for processes is to CAS again. The successful process will be the next one in the basket and so on.

Ladan-Mozes and Shavit [12] presented an Optimistic Approach to Lock-Free FIFO Queues. They use a doubly-linked list and do fewer CAS operations than MS-queue. But as before, the worst case is when there are p concurrent enqueues which have to be enqueued one by one. The amortized worst-case complexity is still $\Omega(p)$ CASes.

Hendler et al. [6] proposed a new paradigm called flat combining. Their queue is linearizable but not lock-free. Their main idea is that with knowledge of all the history of operations, it might be possible to answer queries faster than doing them one by one. In our work we also maintain the whole history. They present experiments that show their algorithm performs well in some situations.

Gidenstam, Sundell, and Tsigas [4] introduced a new algorithm using a linked list of arrays. Global head and tail pointers point to arrays containing the first and last elements in the queue. Global pointers are up to date, but head and tail pointers may be behind in time. An enqueue or a dequeue searches in the head array or tail array to find the first unmarked element or last written element (see Figure 5). Their data

structure is lock-free. Still, if the head array is empty and p processes try to enqueue simultaneously, the step complexity remains $\Omega(p)$.

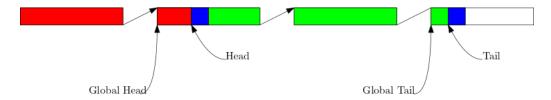


Figure 5: Global pointers point to arrays. Head and Tail elements are blue, dequeued elements are red and current elements of the queue are green.

Kogan and Petrank [11] introduced wait-free queues based on the MS-queue and use Herlihy's helping technique to achieve wait-freedom. Their step complexity is $\Omega(p)$ because of the helping mechanism.

In the worst-case step complexity of all the list-based queues discussed above, there is a p term that comes from the case all p processes try to do an enqueue simultaneously. Morrison and Afek call this the $CAS\ retry\ problem\ [15]$. It is not limited to list-based queues and array-based queues share the CAS retry problem as well $[17,\ 16,\ 2]$. We are focusing on seeing if we can implement a queue in sublinear steps in terms of p or not.

2.2 Universal Constructions

Herlihy discussed the possibility of implementing shared objects from other objects [7]. A universal construction is an algorithm that can implement a shared version of any given sequential object. We can implement a concurrent queue using a universal construction. Jayanti proved an $\Omega(\log p)$ lower bound on the worst-case shared-access time complexity of p-process universal constructions [9]. He also introduced a construction that achieves $O(\log^2 p)$ shared accesses [1]. His universal construction can be used to create any data structure, but its implementation is not practical because of using unreasonably large-sized CAS operations.

Ellen and Woelfel introduced an implementation of a Fetch&Inc object with step complexity of $O(\log p)$ using $O(\log n)$ -bit LL/SC objects, where n is the number of operations [3]. Their idea has similarities to Jayanti's construction, and they represent the value of the Fetch&Inc using the history of successful operations.

2.3 Attiya Fourier Lower Bound

3 Queue Implementation

Paragraph titles will be removed after polishing.

What is a Queue In our model there are p processes doing Enqueue and Dequeue operations on a queue concurrently. We design a queue with $O(\log^2 p + \log q)$ steps per operation, where q is the number of elements in the queue at the time of invocation. We avoid the $\Omega(p)$ worst-case step complexity of existing shared queues based on linked lists or arrays, which suffer from the CAS Retry Problem.

How we use Jayanti and why we are better Jayanti and Petrovic introduced a wait-free polylogarithmic multi-enqueuer single-dequeuer queue [10]. We use their idea of having a tournament tree among processes to agree on the linearization of operations to design a polylogarithmic multi-enqueuer multi-dequeuer queue. Unlike their work, our algorithm does not use CAS operations with big words and does not put a limit on the number of concurrent operations.

Introduce tree There is a shared tree among the processes (see Figure 6) to agree on one total ordering of the operations invoked by processes. Each process has a leaf in which the operations invoked by the process are stored in order. When a process wishes to do an operation it appends the operation to its leaf and tries to propagate its new operation up to the tree's root. Each node of the tree keeps an ordering of operations propagated up to it. All processes agree on the sequence of operations in the root and this ordering is used as linearization ordering.

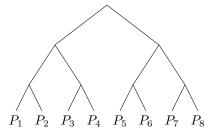


Figure 6: Each of the processes $P_1, P_2...P_p$ has a leaf and in each node there is an ordering of operations stored. Each process tries to propagate its operations up to the root, which stores a total ordering of all operations.

Introduce Double Refresh To do a propagate step on node n in the tree, a process observes the operations in both of n's children that are not already in n, merges them to create an ordering and then tries to append the ordering to the sequence stored in n. We call this procedure n.Refresh(). A process doing a Refresh on n with successful append helps other processes doing Refresh on n concurrently to propagate their operations up to the parent. The key idea is that if a process invokes Refresh on the node n two times and fails to append the new operations to n both times, the operations that were in n's children before the first Refresh are guaranteed to be in the node after the second failed Refresh. This is because if both of the Refreshes on n fail to append then there is another instance of Refresh in between which has gathered its new operations after the first failed Refresh and succeeded to do an append. This Refresh appends the operations that the first failed Refresh was trying to append.



Figure 7: Before and after of a n.Refresh with successful append. Operations propagating from the left child are numbered with l and from the right child by r.

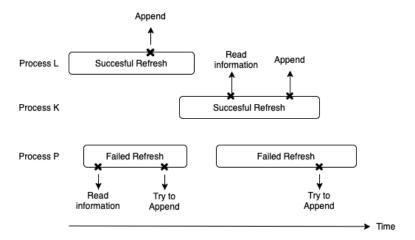


Figure 8: The second failed Refresh P is assuredly concurrent with a successful Refresh that has read its operations after the first failed Refresh.

Introduce CAS We use CAS (Compare & Swap) instructions to implement the Refresh's Try to Append mechanism in described in the previous paragraph. After a process appends its operation into its leaf it can call Refresh on the path up to root two times on each node. So with $O(\log p)$ CASes per operations we can have a tree agreeing on the linearization. This cooperative solution allows us to overcome the CAS Retry Problem.

Introduce Blocks It is not efficient to store the sequence of operations in each node explicitly because each operation would have to be copied all the way up to the root; doing this would not be poly-logarithmic time. Instead we use implicit representation of the operations propagated together. Furthermore we do not need to maintain an ordering on operations propagated together in a node until they have reached the root. We can only keep track of set of operations in each Refresh and then define the linearization only in root (see Figure 9). Achieving a constant sized implicit representation of operations in a Refresh allows us to CAS fixed-size objects in each Refresh. To do that, we introduce blocks. A block is a piece of information about the operations in a Refresh step. It contains the number of operations from the left and the right child in a Refresh procedure (see Figure 10 for an example). A node stores an array of blocks of operations propagated up to it. A propagate step aggregates the new blocks in children into a new block and puts it in the parents' blocks. In each Refresh there is at most one operation from each process trying to be propagated, because one operation cannot invoke two operations concurrently which means there are less than or equal p operations in a block. Furthermore, since the operations in a Refresh step are concurrent we can linearize them among themselves in any order we wish, because if two operations are read in one successful Refresh step in a node they are going to be propagated up to the root together. Our choice is to put the operations propagated from the left child before the operations propagated from the right child. In this way if we know the number of operations from the left child and the number of operations from the right child in a block we have a complete ordering on the operations.

Introduce Get and Index So far, we have a shared tree that processes use to agree on the implicit ordering stored in its root. With this agreement on linearization ordering we can design a universal construction; for given object O and operation op by applying all the operations till op in the root on a sequential instance of the object and then return the response. Having this agreement by itself is not enough for an efficient queue. A process may wish to know (1) the *i*th propagated operation or (2) the rank of a propagated operation in the linearization. We will explain how to use (1) and (2) to construct a fast queue in the next

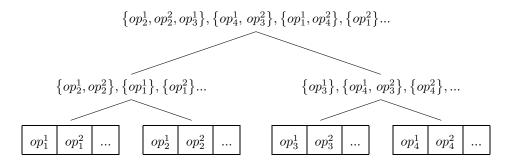


Figure 9: Leaves are for processes P_1 to P_4 from left to right. In each internal node and one can arbitrarily linearize the sets of concurrent operations propagated together in a Refresh among themselves. For example op_4^1 and op_3^2 have propagated together in one Propagate step and they will be propagated up to the root together. Since their execution time window have range in common they can be linearized in any order between themselves.

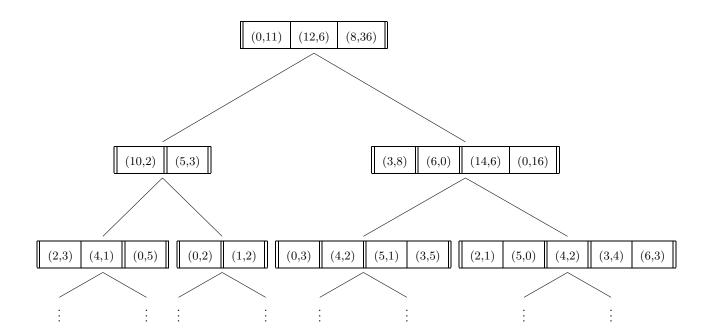


Figure 10: Showing concurrent operation sets with blocks. Blocks between two lines || are propagated together to the parent. Each block consists of a pair(left, right) indicating the number of operations from the left and the right child, respectively. For example, block (12,6) in the root contains blocks (10,2) from the left child and (6,0) from the right child. The third block in the root (8,36) is created by merging block (5,3) from the left child and (14,6) and (0,16) from the right child. Block (5,3) is superblock of blocks (0,5) and (1,2) and blocks (5,1),(3,5) and (4,2) are subblocks of (14,6).

paragraph.

Explain pieces of a block helping to do Get and Index After propagating an operation op to the root, processes can find out information about the linearization ordering using (1) and (2). To get the *i*th operation in the root, we find the block B containing *i*th operation in the root, and then recursively find the subblock of B that contains *i*th element. To make this recursive search faster, instead of iterating over all blocks in the node, we store the prefix sum of the number of elements in the blocks sequence to permit a binary search. We also store pointers to determine the range of subblocks of a block to make binary search faster. In each block, we store the prefix sum of operations from the left child and the right child. Moreover, for each block, we store two pointers to the last left and right subblock of it (see Figure 11). We know a block size is at most p, so binary search takes at most $O(\log p)$ time, since the pointers of a block and its previous block reduce the search range size to O(p). To compute the rank in the root of an operation in the leaf, we need to find the superblock of the block that operation is in. After a block is installed we set the approximate index of the superblock of the block in it.

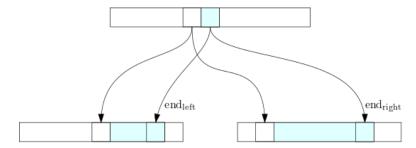


Figure 11: Each block stores the index of its last subblock in each child.

Introduce how to create Queue using Get and Index In an execution on a queue where no dequeue operation returns null, the kth dequeue returns the element of the kth enqueue. In general case a dequeue returns null if and only if the size of the queue after the previous operation is 0. Otherwise if the the dequeue is the kth non null returning dequeue it returns the element of kth enqueue. Having the size of the queue after an operation we can compute the number of non null returning dequeues from the number of enqueues up to block B and size of the queue after B. So if we store the size of the queue after each block operations in the root we can compute the index of the enqueue which is response to a dequeue in constant time.

In our case of implementing a queue, we can make an assumption that one process only wishes to know the rank of a Dequeue and one tries to get an Enqueue with an specific rank. We know we can linearize operations in a block in any order; here, we choose to decide to put Enqueue operations in a block before Dequeue operations. In the next example, operations in a cell are concurrent. Dequeue() operations return null, 5, 2, 1, 3, 4, null respectively.

DEQ	ENQ(5), ENQ(2), ENQ(1), DEQ	ENQ(3), DEQ	ENQ(4), DEQ, DEQ, DEQ, DEQ
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Table 1: An example history of operation blocks on the queue. Enqueues are shown with ENQ and Dequeues are shown with DEQ.

Now, we claimed that by knowing the size of the queue, we can compute the rank of the resulting Enqueue(). We apply this approach to blocks; if we store the size of the queue after each block of operations happens, we can compute each Dequeue's index of result in O(1) steps.

	DEQ	ENQ(5), ENQ(2), ENQ(1), DEQ	ENQ(3), DEQ	ENQ(4), DEQ, DEQ, DEQ, DEQ
#ENQs	0	3	1	1
#DEQs	1	1	1	4
size	0	2	2	0

Table 2: Augmented history of operation blocks on the queue

Do you think the remaining part is overkill? I think it is to much detail which is also repeated in the proof. Size of the queue the bth block could be computed using these equations.

Given DEQ is in block B, response of DEQ is the Enqueue with index non-null Dequeus[b-1]+ index of DEQ in the block's Dequeus in the root, if (size[b-1]- index of DEQ in the B's Dequeue >=0). Otherwise it would be null

3.1 Details of Implementation

Node (Repetitive as the fields description?) In each node we store pointers to its parent and children, an array of blocks and the index head of the first empty entry in blocks.

Block (Repetitive as the fields description?) Block b contains subblocks in the left and right children. The left subblocks of b are some consecutive blocks in the left child starting from where the block prior to b ended. In each block we store 4 essential stats that implicitly summarize which operations are in the block sum_{enq-left}, sum_{eqq-right}, sum_{deq-right}, end_{left} and end_{right} field show the last subblock of a block in left and right child. size in a block in root stores the size of the queue after the block has finished.

Enqueue(e) An Enqueue operation does not return a response, so to do an enqueue operation in our algorithm it is sufficient to just append the Enqueue operation to the root, then use its position in the linearization for future Dequeue operations. Enqueue(e) creates a LeafBlock with element = e, sets its sum_{enq} and sum_{deq} fields and then appends it to the tree.

I believe the code is readable enough and we do not need references to code.

Dequeue() Dequeue(e) creates a LeafBlock, sets its sum_{enq} and sum_{deq} fields, appends it to the tree. Then computes the position of the appended dequeue operation in the root and after that finds the response of the dequeue calling FindResponse.

FindResponse(b,i) To compute the response of the *i*th dequeue in *b*th block of the root Line 219 computes whether the queue is empty or not. If there are more dequeues than enqueues the queue would become empty before the requeusted dequeue. If the queue was not empty, Line 222 computes the position of the equeue which is response to the dequeue. Knowing the response is the *e*th enqueue in the root which is before the *b*th block we find the block and position containing the queue operation using DSearch and after that GetEnqueue finds its element.

Append(blk) head field is the index of the first empty index in blocks array in a LeafBlock. Append(B) adds B to the end of the blocks in the leaf, increments head and then calls Propagate on the leaf's parent. When Propagate terminates it is guaranteed that the appended block is subblock of a block in the root. There are no multiple write accesses on head and blocks in a leaf because only the process that the leaf belongs to appends to it.

n.Propagate() Propagate(n) uses the double refresh idea and invokes two Refreshes on n in Lines 302 and 303. Then invokes the Propagate on n.parent recursively till it reaches the root.

n.Refresh() n.Refresh goal is to create a block of n's children new blocks and append it to n.blocks. Lines 311-316 of n.Refresh help to Advance n's children. Advance increments the children's head and set the super field of the last block in n. The reason behind helping super field is explained later in IndexDequeue paragraph. After helping to Advance children, the value h from n.head is read at Line 310 and new block is created in Line 317. new is going to be inserted into n.block[h]. The reason why reading head and CreateBlock are in two lines is that maybe the head value changes from reading it till creating a block to be inserted to head. Then if new is empty Refresh returns true because there is no new operations to propagate an it is unnecessary to add an empty block to the tree. Later we will assume all blocks contain at least one operation. Line 320 tries to install new, if it was succsuful all is good, if not it means someone else has put a block earlier into head or maybe the head was not empty at first point. Anyway Refresh tries to update the head and super field of n.blocks[h] at Line 321.

CreateBlock n. CreateBlock(h) returns a block containing new operations of n's children. The new block created in Line 333's fields are filled with symmetry for both left and right directions. $index_{last}$ is the index of the last subblock in the direction and $index_{prev}$ is the index of the prvious block of the first direct subblock to be aggregated into new. With this said, $n.blocks[i'].end_{dir}$ stores the index of the rightmost direct subblock of direction dir child of n.blocks[i-1]. Then $sum_{enq-dir}$ is computed with the sum of the from computing the number of enqueue operations in the new block and the value stored in $n.blocks[i-1].sum_{enq-dir}$. $sum_{deq-dir}$ is also the same. Then if new block is going to be installed in the root, the size field is computed.

Should I get into details of computing size and sumeng?

DSearch(e,end) We can show an operation in a node in two formats, the rank of the operation among all the operations in the node or the index of the block containing the operation in the node and the rank of the operation in that block. If we know tuple of block and rank in the block of an operation (E) we can find the this tuple in the subblock containing the operation in poly log time. To find the response of a dequeue, the information we know about the response enquue is like the first way of showing the operation in the root $(E_i(\mathbf{root}))$. So we have to find the block in the root containing the eth enqueue in the root. We also know end which the eth enqueue is before or in the root.blocks[end]. DSearch uses the Doubling idea to find the range that the answer block is there (Lines 802-805) and then tries to find the response with binary search (Line 806).

GetEnqueue(b,i) n.GetEnqueue(b,i) returns the element of ith enqueue in b th block of n. The range of subblocks of a block can be determined with end_{dir} fields of the block and its previous block. Then the subblock can be found usig binary search on sum_{enq} field.

IndexDequeue(b,i) Let i be the value R_n , a successful instance of Refresh on node n reads from n.head. R_n does a successful CAS(null, b) into n.blocks[i]. Let p be n.parent. Without loss of generality for the rest of this section assume n is the left child of p. From Lemma 27 we know there could be only one p.Refresh propagating b. Let R_p be the first successful p.Refresh that reads some value greater than i for left.head and contains b in its created block in Line 317. Let the index of the block R_p put in p.blocks be j.

Since the index of the superblock of b is not known until b is propagated, R_n cannot set the super field of b while creating it. One approach is to set the super field of b by R_n after propagating b to p. This solution would not be efficient because there might be p subblocks in the block R_p propagated needing to update the super field. However intuitively, once b is installed, its superblock is going to be close to n-parent.head at the time of installation. One idea is that if we know the approximate position of the superblock of b then we can search for the real superblock when we wished to know the superblock of b i.e. b-super does not have to be the exact location of the superblock of b, but we want it to be close to j. We can set b-super to n-parent.head while creating b, but the problem is that there might be many b-Refreshes that could happen after reading b-head by b-head by b-head by b-head by b-head by b-head stereshes on b-blocks (Line 326), b-head negative b-super. In this case the next Refreshes on b-happenent help fill in the value of b-super.

Block b is appended to n.blocks[h] on Line 320. After appending b, b.super is set on Line 326 of a call to Advance from n.Refresh by the same process or another process or maybe an n.parent.Refresh. We want to bound how far b.super is from the index of b's superblock, which is created by a successful n.parent.Refresh that propagates b.

4 Pseudocode

Algorithm Tree Fields Description

♦ Shared

 A binary tree of Nodes with one leaf for each process. root is the root node.

♦ Local

• Node leaf: process's leaf in the tree.

► Node

- *Node left, right, parent : Initialized when creating the
- Block[] blocks: Initially blocks[0] contains an empty block with all fields equal to 0.
- int head= 1: #blocks in blocks. blocks[0] is a block with all integer fields equal to zero.

▶ Block

- int super: approximate index of the superblock, read from parent.head when appending the block to the node
- ightharpoonup RootBlock extends InternalBlock
 - int size : size of the queue after performing all operations
 in the prefix for this block

▶ InternalBlock extends Block

- int end_{left}, end_{right}: indices of the last subblock of the block in the left and right child
- $\bullet \ \, \textit{int} \ \, \textit{sum}_{\texttt{enq-left}} : \# \ \, \textit{enqueues in left.blocks[1..end_{\texttt{left}}]} \\$
- int sum_{deq-left}: # dequeues in left.blocks[1..end_{left}]
- int sum_{enq-right}: # enqueues in right.blocks[1..end_{right}]
- int sum_deq-right: # dequeues in right.blocks[1..end_right]

► LeafBlock extends Block

- Object element: Each block in a leaf represents a single operation. If the operation is enqueue(x) then element=x, otherwise element=null.
- int sum_{enq}, sum_{deq}: # enqueue, dequeue operations in the prefix for the block

Abbreviations used in the code and the proof of correctness.

- blocks[b].num_x=blocks[b].sum_x-blocks[b-1].sum_x (for b>0 and $x \in \{ enq, deq, enq-left, enq-right, deq-left, deq-right \})$

Algorithm Queue 201: void Enqueue(Object e) > Creates a block with element e and adds it to the tree. 202: block newBlock= new(LeafBlock) 203: newBlock.element= e 204: ${\tt newBlock.sum_{enq}=\ leaf.blocks[leaf.head].sum_{enq}+1}$ 205: newBlock.sum_deq = leaf.blocks[leaf.head].sum_deq 206: leaf.Append(newBlock) 207: end Enqueue 208: Object Dequeue() ▷ Creates a block with null value element, appends it to the tree and returns its response. 209: block newBlock= new(LeafBlock) 210: newBlock.element= null 211: ${\tt newBlock.sum_{enq} = leaf.blocks[leaf.head].sum_{enq}}$ 212: newBlock.sum_deq = leaf.blocks[leaf.head].sum_deq+1 213: leaf.Append(newBlock) 214:
<b, i>= IndexDequeue(leaf.head, 1) 215: output= FindResponse(b, i) 216: return output 217: end Dequeue \triangleright Returns the response to $D_{root,b,i}$. 218: <int, int> FindResponse(int b, int i)

if root.blocks[b-1].size + root.blocks[b].num_enq - i < 0 then

e= i - root.blocks[b-1].size + root.blocks[b-1].sum_{enq}

return root.GetEnqueue(root.DSearch(e, b))

219:

220:

221:

222:

223:

224:

return null

else

end if 225: end FindResponse \triangleright Check if the queue is empty.

 $\triangleright E_e(root)$ is the response.

Algorithm Root

```
\leadsto Precondition: root.blocks[end].sum_{enq} \geq e
801: <int, int> DSearch(int e, int end)
                                                                                                             \triangleright Returns <b,i> such that E_e(root) = E_i(root,b).
802:
          start= end-1
803:
          \mathbf{while} \; \mathtt{root.blocks[start].sum}_{\mathtt{enq}} {\geq} e \; \mathbf{do}
              start= max(start-(end-start), 0)
804:
805:
          end while
          b \hbox{= root.BinarySearch(sum}_{enq}\hbox{, e, start, end)}
806:
          i= e- root.blocks[b-1].sum<sub>enq</sub>
807:
808:
          return <b,i>
809: end DSearch
```

Algorithm Leaf

601: void Append(block blk)

602: blocks[head] = blk

603: head+=1

604: parent.Propagate()

605: end Append

Algorithm Node

```
301: void Propagate()
                                                                               → Precondition: blocks[start..end] contains a block with field f
302:
         if not Refresh() then
                                                                               greater than or equal to i
303:
            Refresh()
                                                                               Does a binary search for the value i of the given prefix sum field.
         end if
                                                                               Returns the index of the leftmost block in blocks[start..end]
304:
         if this is not root then
305:
                                                                               whose field f is \geq i.
306:
                                                                          329: int BinarySearch(field f, int i, int start, int end)
            parent.Propagate()
307:
         end if
                                                                                   return min\{j: blocks[j].f \ge i\}
308: end Propagate
                                                                          331: end BinarySearch
309: boolean Refresh()
                                                                                   Description Creates and returns the block to be installed in blocks[i].
310:
         h= head
                                                                               Created block includes left.blocks[indexprev+1..indexlast] and
311:
         for each dir in {left, right} do
                                                                               right.blocks[index_{prev}+1..index_{last}].
312:
            h<sub>dir</sub>= dir.head
                                                                          332: Block CreateBlock(int i)
313:
            if dir.blocks[h_{dir}]!=null then
                                                                          333:
                                                                                   block new= new(block)
314:
                dir.Advance(hdir)
                                                                          334:
                                                                                   for each dir in {left, right} do
            end if
315:
                                                                          335:
                                                                                       index<sub>last</sub>= dir.head-1
316:
         end for
                                                                          336:
                                                                                       indexprev= blocks[i-1].enddir
317:
         new= CreateBlock(h)
                                                                          337:
                                                                                       {\tt new.end_{\tt dir}=\ index_{\tt last}}
318:
         if new.num==0 then return true
                                                                          338:
                                                                                       block<sub>last</sub> = dir.blocks[index<sub>last</sub>]
319:
         end if
                                                                          339.
                                                                                       blockprev= dir.blocks[indexprev]
         result= blocks[h].CAS(null, new)
320:
                                                                          340:
                                                                                       new.sum_{enq-dir} = blocks[i-1].sum_{enq-dir} +
321:
         this.Advance(h)
                                                                                                        {\tt block_{last.sum_{enq}} - block_{prev.sum_{enq}}}
322:
         return result
                                                                          341:
                                                                                       new.sum_{deq-dir} = blocks[i-1].sum_{deq-dir} +
323: end Refresh
                                                                                                        blocklast.sumdeq - blockprev.sumdeq
                                                                          342:
                                                                                   end for
324: void Advance(int h)
                                                                          343:
                                                                                   if this is root then
325:
         hp= parent.head
                                                                                       new.size = max(root.blocks[i-1].size + new.numenq
                                                                          344:
326:
         blocks[h].super.CAS(null, hp
                                                                                                    - new.num<sub>deq</sub>, 0)
327:
         head.CAS(h, h+1)
                                                                                   end if
                                                                          345:
328: end Advance
                                                                          346:
                                                                                   return new
                                                                          347: end CreateBlock
```

Algorithm Node

```
\leadsto Precondition: blocks[b].num<sub>enq</sub>\geqi\geq1
                                                                                                                      \triangleright Returns the element of E_i(this, b).
401: element GetEnqueue(int b, int i)
402:
          if this is leaf then
403:
             return blocks[b].element
                                                                                                              \triangleright E_i(this, b) is in the left child of this node.
404:
          else if i \leq blocks[b].num<sub>enq-left</sub> then
405:
             \verb|subBlock= left.BinarySearch(sum_{enq}, i+blocks[b-1].sum_{enq-left}, blocks[b-1].end_{left}+1, blocks[b].end_{left})|\\
406:
             return left.GetEnqueue(subBlock, i)
407:
          else
408:
             i= i-blocks[b].numenq-left
409:
             \verb|subBlock=right.BinarySearch(sum_{enq}, i+right.blocks[b-1].sum_{enq-right}, blocks[b-1].end_{right}+1, blocks[b].end_{right})|
410:
             return right.GetEnqueue(subBlock, i)
411:
          end if
412: end GetEnqueue
     → Precondition: bth block of the node has propagated up to the root and blocks[b].num_deq≥i.
                                                                                                            \triangleright Returns \langle x, y \rangle if D_i(this, b) = D_y(root, x).
413: <int, int> IndexDequeue(int b, int i)
414:
          if this is root then
415:
             return <b, i>
          else
416:
417:
             dir= (parent.left==n ? left: right)
             \verb|sb=(parent.blocks[b].super|.sum_{\texttt{deq-dir}} > \texttt{blocks[b].sum_{\texttt{deq}}}? \quad \texttt{blocks[b].super:} \quad \texttt{blocks[b].super+1})
418:
419:
             if dir is left then
420:
                 i+= blocks[b-1].sum<sub>deq</sub>-parent.blocks[sb-1].sum<sub>deq-left</sub>
421:
             else
422:
                 i+= blocks[b-1].sum<sub>deq</sub>-parent.blocks[sb-1].sum<sub>deq-right</sub>
423:
                 i+= parent.blocks[sb].num_deq-left
             end if
424:
425:
             return this.parent.IndexDequeue(sb, i)
426:
          end if
427: end IndexDequeue
```

5 Proof of Correctness

We adopt linearizability as our definition of correctness. In our case, where we create the linearization ordering in the root, we need to prove (1) the ordering is legal, i.e, for every execution on our queue if operation op_1 terminates before operation op_2 then op_1 is linearized before operation op_2 and (2) if we do operations sequentially in their the linearization order, operations get the same results as in our queue. The proof is structured like this. First, we define and prove some facts about blocks and the node's head field. Then, we introduce the linearization ordering formally. Next, we prove double Refresh on a node is enough to propagate its children's new operations up to the node, which is used to prove (1). After this, we prove some claims about the size and operations of each block, which we use to prove the correctness of DSearch(), GetEnqueue() and IndexDequeue(). Finally, we prove the correctness of the way we compute the response of a dequeue, which establishes (2).

5.1 Basic Properties

In this subsection we talk about some properties of blocks and fields of the tree nodes.

A block is an object storing some statistics, as described in Algorithm Queue. A block in a node implicitly represents a set of operations.

Definition 1 (Ordering of a block in a node). Let b be n.blocks [i] and b' be n.blocks [j]. We call i the index of block b. Block b is before block b' in node n if and only if i < j. We define the prefix for block b in node n to be the blocks in n.blocks [0..i].

Next, we show that the value of head in a node can only be increased. By the termination of a Refresh, head has been incremented by the process doing the Refresh or by another process.

Observation 2. For each node n, n.head is non-decreasing over time.

Proof. The claim follows trivially from the code since head is only changed by incrementing in Line 327 of Advance.

Lemma 3. Let R be an instance of Refresh on a node n. After R terminates, n head is greater than the value read in line 310 of R.

Proof. If the CAS in Line 327 is successful then the claim holds. Otherwise n-head has changed from the value that was read in Line 310. By Observation 2 this means another process has incremented n-head. \square

Now we show n.blocks[n.head] is either the last block written into node n or the first empty block in n.

Invariant 4 (headPosition). If the value of n.head is h then n.blocks [i] = null for i > h and n.blocks [i] \neq null for $0 \le i < h$.

Proof. Initially the invariant is true since n.head = 1, $n.blocks[0] \neq null$ and n.blocks[x] = null for every x > 0. The truth of the invariant may be affected by writing into n.blocks or incrementing n.head. We show that if the invariant holds before such a change then it still holds after the change.

In the algorithm, n.blocks is modified only on Line 320, which updates n.blocks[h] where h is the value read from n.head in Line 310. Since the CAS in Line 320 is successful it means n.head has not changed from h before doing the CAS: if n.head had changed before the CAS then it would be greater than h by Observation 2 and hence $n.blocks[h] \neq null$ and by the induction hypothesis, so the CAS would fail. Writing into n.blocks[h] when h = n.head preserves the invariant, since the claim does not talk about the content of n.blocks[n.head].

The value of n.head is modified only in Line 327 of Advance. If n.head is incremented to h + 1 it is sufficient to show n.blocks $[h] \neq \text{null}$. Advance is called in Lines 314 and 321. For Line 314, n.blocks $[h] \neq \text{null}$ because of the if condition in Line 313. For Line 321, Line 320 was finished before doing 321. Whether Line 320 is successful or not, n.blocks $[h] \neq \text{null}$ after the n.blocks [h]. CAS.

We define the subblocks of a block recursively.

Definition 5 (Subblock). A block is a *direct subblock* of the ith block in node n if it is in

$$n.$$
left.blocks $[n.$ blocks $[i-1].$ end $_{left}$ + $1\cdots n.$ blocks $[i].$ end $_{left}$ $]$

or in

$$n.\mathtt{right.blocks}[n.\mathtt{blocks}[i-1].\mathtt{end}_{\mathtt{right}} + 1 \cdots n.\mathtt{blocks}[i].\mathtt{end}_{\mathtt{right}}].$$

Block b is a subblock of block c if b is a direct subblock of c or a subblock of a direct subblock of c. We say block b is propagated to node n if b is in n.blocks or is a subblock of a block in n.blocks.

The next lemma is used to prove the subblocks of two blocks in a node are disjoint.

Lemma 6. If n.blocks[i] \neq null and i > 0 then n.blocks[i].end_{left} $\geq n$.blocks[i - 1].end_{left} and n.blocks[i].end_{right} $\geq n$.blocks[i - 1].end_{right}.

Proof. Consider the block b written into n.blocks[i] by CAS at Line 320. Block b is created by the CreateBlock(i) called at Line 317. Prior to this call to CreateBlock(i), n.head = i at Line 310, so n.blocks[i-1] is already a non-null value b' by Invariant 4. Thus, the CreateBlock(i-1) that created b' terminated before the CreateBlock(i) that creates b is invoked. The value written into b.end_{left} at Line 337 of CreateBlock(i) was one less than the value read at Line 335 of CreateBlock(i). Similarly, the value in n.blocks[i-1].end_{left} was one less than the value read from n.left.head during the call to CreateBlock(i-1). By Observation 2, n.left.head is non-decreasing, so b'.end_{left} b.end_{left}. The proof for end_{right} is similar.

Lemma 7. Subblocks of any two blocks in node n do not overlap.

Proof. We are going to prove the lemma by contradiction. Consider the lowest node n in the tree that violates the claim. Then subblocks of n.blocks[i] and n.blocks[j] overlap for some i < j. Since n is the lowest node in the tree violating the claim, direct subblocks of blocks of n.blocks[i] and n.blocks[j] have to overlap. Without loss of generality assume left child subblocks of n.blocks[i] overlap with the left child subblocks of n.blocks[j]. By Lemma 6 we have $n.blocks[i].end_{left} \le n.blocks[j-1].end_{left}$, so the ranges $[n.blocks[i-1].end_{left}+1\cdots n.blocks[i].end_{left}]$ and $[n.blocks[j-1].end_{left}+1\cdots n.blocks[j].end_{left}]$ cannot overlap. Therefore, direct subblocks of n.blocks[i] and n.blocks[j] cannot overlap.

Definition 8 (Superblock). Block b is superblock of block c if c is a direct subblock of b.

Corollary 9. Every block has at most one superblock.

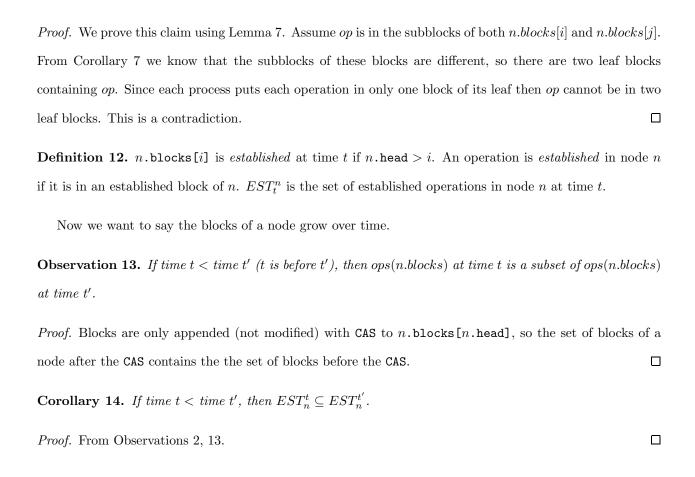
Proof. A block having more than one superblock contradicts Lemma 7. \Box

Now we can define the operations of a block using the definition of subblocks.

Definition 10 (Operations of a block). A block b in a leaf represents an Enqueue if b.element \neq null. Otherwise, if b.element = null, b represents a Dequeue. The set of operations of block b is the union of the operations in leaf subblocks of b. We denote the set of operations of block b by ops(b) and the union of operations of a set of blocks b by ops(b). We also say b contains op if $op \in ops(b)$.

Operations are distinct Enqueues and Dequeues invoked by processes. The next lemma proves that each operation appears at most once in the blocks of a node.

Lemma 11. If op is in n.blocks[i] then there is no $j \neq i$ such that op is in n.blocks[j].



5.2 Ordering Operations

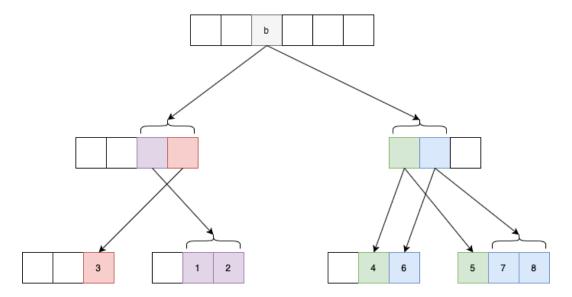


Figure 12: Order of operations in b. Operations in the leaves are ordered with numerical order shown in the drawing.

Now we define the ordering of operations stored in each node. In the non-root nodes we only need to order operations of a type among themselves. Processes are numbered from 1 to p and leaves of the tree are assigned from left to right. We will show in Lemma 28 that there is at most one operation from each process in a given block.

Definition 15 (Ordering of operations inside the nodes).

• E(n,b) is the sequence of enqueue operations in ops(n.blocks[b]) defined recursively as follows. E(leaf,b) is the single enqueue operation in ops(leaf.blocks[b]) or an empty sequence if leaf.blocks[b] represents a dequeue operation. If n is an internal node, then

$$E(n,b) = E(n.\mathsf{left}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b-1].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{left}} + 1) \cdots E(n.\mathsf{left}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{left}}) \cdot \\ E(n.\mathsf{right}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b-1].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{right}} + 1) \cdots E(n.\mathsf{right}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{right}}).$$

- $E_i(n,b)$ is the *i*th enqueue in E(n,b).
- The order of the enqueue operations in the node n is $E(n) = E(n,1) \cdot E(n,2) \cdot E(n,3) \cdots$
- $E_i(n)$ is the *i*th enqueue in E(n).

• D(n,b) is the sequence of dequeue operations in ops(n.blocks[b]) defined recursively as follows. D(leaf,b) is the single dequeue operation in ops(leaf.blocks[b]) or an empty sequence if leaf.blocks[b] represents an enqueue operation. If n is an internal node, then

$$D(n,b) = D(n.\mathsf{left}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b-1].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{left}} + 1) \cdots D(n.\mathsf{left}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{left}}) \cdot \\ D(n.\mathsf{right}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b-1].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{right}} + 1) \cdots D(n.\mathsf{right}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{right}}).$$

- $D_i(n,b)$ is the *i*th enqueue in D(n,b).
- The order of the dequeue operations in the node n is $D(n) = D(n,1) \cdot D(n,2) \cdot D(n,3)...$
- $D_i(n)$ is the *i*th dequeue in D(n).

The linearization ordering is given by the order that operations appear in the blocks in the root.

Definition 16 (Linearization).

$$L = E(root, 1) \cdot D(root, 1) \cdot E(root, 2) \cdot D(root, 2) \cdot E(root, 3) \cdot D(root, 3) \cdots$$

Observation 17. For any node n and indices i < j of blocks in in, we have

$$n.\mathtt{blocks}[j].\mathtt{sum_x} - n.\mathtt{blocks}[i].\mathtt{sum_x} = \sum_{k=i+1}^{j} n.\mathtt{blocks}[k].\mathtt{num_x}$$

where x in {enq, deq, enq-left, enq-right, deq-left, deq-right}.

Next claim is also true if we replace enq with deq and E with D.

Lemma 18. Let B, B' be n.blocks[b], n.blocks[b-1] respectively.

- $(1) \ \textit{If n is an internal node B.} \\ \text{num}_{\texttt{enq-left}} = \left| E(n.\texttt{left}, B'.\texttt{end}_{\texttt{left}} + 1) \cdots E(n.\texttt{left}, B.\texttt{end}_{\texttt{left}}) \right|.$
- $(2) \ \textit{If n is an internal node B.} \\ \text{num}_{\texttt{enq-right}} = \left| E(n.\texttt{right}, B'.\texttt{end}_{\texttt{right}} + 1) \cdots E(n.\texttt{right}, B.\texttt{end}_{\texttt{right}}) \right|.$
- (3) $B.num_{enq} = |E(n,b)|$.

Proof. We prove the claim by induction on height of node n. Base case (3) for leaves is trivial. Supposing

the claim is true for n's children, we prove the correctness of the claim for n.

$$B. \operatorname{num_{enq-left}} = B. \operatorname{sum_{enq-left}} - B'. \operatorname{sum_{enq-left}} \qquad \operatorname{Definition\ of\ num_{enq}}$$

$$= B'. \operatorname{sum_{enq-left}} + n. \operatorname{left.blocks}[B.\operatorname{end_{left}}]. \operatorname{sum_{enq}}$$

$$- n. \operatorname{left.blocks}[B'.\operatorname{end_{left}}]. \operatorname{sum_{enq}} - B'. \operatorname{sum_{enq-left}} \qquad \operatorname{CreateBlock}$$

$$= n. \operatorname{left.blocks}[B.\operatorname{end_{left}}]. \operatorname{sum_{enq}} - n. \operatorname{left.blocks}[B'.\operatorname{end_{left}}]. \operatorname{sum_{enq}}$$

$$= \sum_{i=B'.\operatorname{end_{left}}}^{B.\operatorname{end_{left}}} n. \operatorname{left.blocks}[i]. \operatorname{num_{enq}} \qquad \operatorname{Observation\ 17}$$

$$= \left| E(n. \operatorname{left}, B'.\operatorname{end_{left}} + 1) \cdots E(n. \operatorname{left}, B.\operatorname{end_{left}}) \right| \qquad \operatorname{Induction\ hypothesis\ (3)}$$

The last line holds because of the induction hypothesis (3). (2) is similar to (1). Now we prove (3) starting from the Definition of E(n,b).

$$E(n,b) = E(n.\mathsf{left}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b-1].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{left}} + 1) \cdots E(n.\mathsf{left}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{left}}) \cdot \\ E(n.\mathsf{right}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b-1].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{right}} + 1) \cdots E(n.\mathsf{right}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{right}}) \cdot \\ E(n.\mathsf{right}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b-1].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{right}} + 1) \cdots E(n.\mathsf{right}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{right}}) \cdot \\ \\ E(n.\mathsf{right}, n.\mathsf{blocks}[b].\mathsf{end}_{\mathsf{right}}) \cdot$$

By (1) and (2) we have
$$|E(n,b)| = B.\operatorname{num_{enq-left}} + B.\operatorname{num_{enq-right}} = B.\operatorname{num_{enq}}$$
.

Next claim is also true if we replace enq with deq and E with D.

Corollary 19. Let B be n.blocks [b] and enq be in $\{enq, deq\}$.

(1) If
$$n$$
 is an internal node $B.\mathtt{sum}_{\mathtt{enq-left}} = \Big| E(n.\mathtt{left},1) \cdots E(n.\mathtt{left},B.\mathtt{end}_{\mathtt{left}}) \Big|$

(2) If
$$n$$
 is an internal node $B.\mathtt{sum}_{\mathtt{enq-right}} = \Big| E(n.\mathtt{right},1) \cdots E(n.\mathtt{right},B.\mathtt{end}_{\mathtt{right}}) \Big|$

(3)
$$B.\operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}} = \left| E(n,1) \cdot E(n,2) \cdots E(n,b) \right|$$

5.3 Propagating Operations to the Root

In this section we explain why two Refreshes are enough to propagate a nodes operations to its parent.

Definition 20. Let t^{op} be the time op is invoked, op be the time op terminates, t_l^{op} be the time immediately before running Line l of operation op and op be the time immediately after running Line l of operation op. We sometimes suppress op and write t_l or p is clear in the context. In the text p is the value of variable p immediately after line p for the process we are talking about and p is the value of variable p at time p.

Definition 21 (Successful Refresh). An instance of Refresh is *successful* if its CAS in Line 320 returns true. If a successful instance of Refresh terminates, we say it is *complete*.

In the next two results we show for every successful Refresh, all the operations established in the children before the Refresh are in the parent after the Refresh's successful CAS at Line 320.

Lemma 22. If R is a successful instance of n.Refresh, then we have $EST_{n.\text{left}}^{t^R} \cup EST_{n.\text{right}}^{t^R} \subseteq ops(n.\text{blocks}_{320}).$

Proof. We show
$$EST_{n.\mathtt{left}}^{t^R} = ops(n.\mathtt{left.blocks[0..n.left.head}_{309} - 1])$$

$$\subseteq ops(n.\mathtt{blocks}_{320}) = ops(n.\mathtt{blocks[0..n.head}_{320}]).$$

Line 320 stores a block new in n that has $\mathtt{end_{left}} = n.\mathtt{left.head_{335}} - 1$. Therefore, by Definition 5, after the successful CAS in Line 320 we know all blocks in $n.\mathtt{left.blocks}[1\cdots n.\mathtt{left.head_{335}} - 1]$ are subblocks of $\mathtt{n.blocks}[1\cdots n.\mathtt{head_{310}}]$. Because of Lemma 2 we have $n.\mathtt{left.head_{309}} - 1 < n.\mathtt{left.head_{335}} - 1$ and $n.\mathtt{head_{310}} < n.\mathtt{head_{320}}$. From Observation 13 the claim follows. The proof for the right child is the same.

 $\textbf{Corollary 23.} \ \textit{If R is a complete instance n.} \\ \text{Refresh, then we have $EST^{t^R}_{n.\mathtt{right}} \subseteq EST^{k_t}_n$.}$

Proof. The left hand side is the same as Lemma 22, so it is sufficient to show when R terminates the established blocks in n are a superset of n.blocks₃₂₀. Line 320 writes the block new in n.blocks[h] where h is value of n.head read at Line 310. Because of Lemma 3 we are sure that n.head h when h terminates. So the block new appended to h at Line 320 is established at h.

In the next lemma we show that if two consecutive instances of Refresh by the same process on node n fail, then the blocks established in the children of n before the first Refresh are guaranteed to be in n after the second Refresh.

Lemma 24. Consider two consecutive terminating instances R_1 , R_2 of Refresh on internal node n by process p. If neither R_1 nor R_2 is a successful Refresh, then we have $EST_{n.left}^{tR_1} \cup EST_{n.right}^{tR_1} \subseteq EST_n^{R_2t}$.

Proof. Let R_1 read i from n.head at Line 310. By Lemma 3, R_1 and R_2 both cannot read the same value i. By Observation 2, R_2 reads a larger value of n.head than R_1 .

Consider the case where R_1 reads i and R_2 reads i+1 from Line 310. As R_2 's CAS in Line 320 returns false, there is another successful instance R_2' of n.Refresh that has done a CAS successfully into n.blocks [i+1] before R_2 tries to CAS. R_2' creates its block new after reading the value i+1 from n.head (Line 310) and R_1 reads the value i from n.head. By Observation 2 we have ${}^{R_1}t < t_{310}^{R_1} < t_{310}^{R_2'}$ (see Figure 13). By Lemma 23 we have $EST_{R_2'}^{n,\text{left}} \cup EST_{R_2'}^{n,\text{right}} \subseteq ops(n.\text{blocks}_{t_{320}'})$. Also by Lemma 3 on R_2 , the value of n.head is more than i+1 after R_2 terminates, so the block appended by R_2' to n is established by the time R_2 terminates. To summarize, R_1t is before R_2' 's read of n.head $(t_{310}^{R_2'})$ and R_2' 's successful CAS $(t_{320}^{R_2'})$ is before R_2 's termination (t^{R_2}) , so by Observation and Lemma 3 we have 13 $EST_{n.\text{left}}^{t_{11}} \cup EST_{n.\text{right}}^{t_{11}} \subseteq ops(n.\text{blocks}_{t_{320}^{R_2'}}) \subseteq EST_{n.\text{left}}^{R_{21}}$.

If R_2 reads some value greater than i+1 in Line 310 it means n head has been incremented more than two times since ${}^{R_1}_{310}t$. By Lemma 4, when n head is incremented from i+1 to i+2, n blocks [i+1] is non-null. Let R_3 be the Refresh on n that has put the block in n blocks [i+1]. R_3 read n head =i+1 at Line 310 and has put its block in n blocks [i+1] before R_2 's read of n head at Line 310. So we have $t^{R_1} <_{310}^{R_3} t <_{320}^{R_3} t <_{310}^{R_3} t <_{310}^{R_3} t$. From Observation 13 on the operations before and after R_3 's CAS and Lemmas 22, 3 on R_3 the claim holds.

Corollary 25. $EST_{n.left}^{302} \cup EST_{n.right}^{302} \subseteq EST_n^{t_{303}}$

Proof. If the first Refresh in line 302 returns true then by Lemma 23 the claim holds. If the first Refresh failed and the second Refresh succeeded the claim still holds by Lemma 23. Otherwise both failed and the claim is satisfied by Lemma 24.

Now we show that after Append(b) on a leaf finishes, the operation contained in b will be established in root.

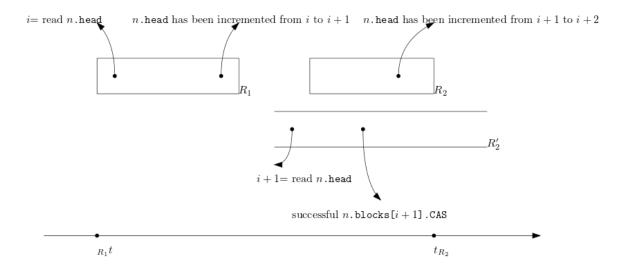


Figure 13: $_{R_1}t < t_{310}^{R_1} <$ incrementing n.head from i to $i+1 < t_{310}^{R_2'} < t_{320}^{R_2'} <$ incrementing n.head from i+1 to $i+2 < t_{R_2}$

Corollary 26. For A = l. Append(b) we have $ops(b) \subseteq EST_n^{t^A}$ for each node n in the path from l to root.

Proof. A adds b to the assigned leaf of the process, establishes it at Line 603 and then calls Propagate on the parent of the leaf where it appended b. For every node n, n.Propagate appends b to n, establishes it in n by Corollary 25 and then calls n.parent.Propagate untill n is root.

Corollary 27. After l.Append(b) finishes, b is subblock of exactly one block in each node along the path from l to the root.

Proof. By the previous corollary and Lemma 27 there is exactly one block in each node containing b.

5.4 Correctness of GetEnqueue

First we prove some claims about the size and operations of a block. These lemmas will be used later for the correctness and analysis of GetEnqueue().

Lemma 28. Each block contains at most one operation of each process, and therefore at most p operations in total.

Proof. To derive a contradiction, assume there are two operations op_1 and op_2 of process p in block b in node n. Without loss of generality op_1 is invoked earlier than op_2 . Process p cannot invoke more than one operation concurrently, so op_1 has to be finished before op_2 begins. By Corollary 27, before op_2 calls Append, op_1 exists in every node of the tree on the path from p's leaf to the root. Since b contains op_2 , it must be created after op_2 is invoked. This means there is some block b' before b in n containing op_1 . The existence of op_1 in b and b' contradicts Lemma 11.

Lemma 29. Each block has at most p direct subblocks.

Proof. The claim follows directly from Lemma 28 and the observation that each block appended to an internal node contains at least one operation, due to the test on Line 318. We can also see the blocks in the leaves have exactly one operation in the Enqueue and Dequeue routines.

DSearch(e, end) returns a pair

i> such that the ith Enqueue in the bth block of the root is the eth

Enqueue in the entire sequence stored in the root.

Lemma 30 (DSearch Correctness). If root.blocks $[end] \neq \text{null } and \ 1 \leq e \leq \text{root.blocks} [end]$. sum_{enq}, DSearch(e, end) returns $\langle b, i \rangle$ such that $E_i(root, b) = E_e(root)$.

Proof. From Lines 340 and 341 we know the $\operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq-left}}$ and $\operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq-right}}$ fields of blocks in each node are sorted in non-decreasing order. Since $\operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}} = \operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq-left}} + \operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq-right}}$, the $\operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}}$ values of $\operatorname{root.blocks}[0] \cdot \operatorname{end}$ are also non-decreasing. Furthermore, since $\operatorname{root.blocks}[0] \cdot \operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}} = 0$ and $\operatorname{root.blocks}[end] \cdot \operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}} \geq e$, there is a b such that $\operatorname{root.blocks}[b] \cdot \operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}} \geq e$ and $\operatorname{root.blocks}[b-1] \cdot \operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}} < e$ by Lemma 19. Block $\operatorname{root.blocks}[b]$ contains $E_i(\operatorname{root},b)$. Lines 802–805 doubles the search range in Line 804 and will eventually reach start such that $\operatorname{root.blocks}[\operatorname{start}] \cdot \operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}} \leq e \leq \operatorname{root.blocks}[\operatorname{end}] \cdot \operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}}$. Then, in Line 806, the binary search finds the b such that $\operatorname{root.blocks}[b-1] \cdot \operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}} < e \leq \operatorname{root.blocks}[b] \cdot \operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}}$. By Corollary 19, $\operatorname{root.blocks}[b]$ is the block that $\operatorname{contains} E_e(\operatorname{root})$. Finally i is computed using the definition of $\operatorname{sum}_{\operatorname{enq}}$ and Corollary 19.

Lemma 31 (GetEnqueue correctness). If $1 \le i \le n$.blocks[b].num_{enq} then n.GetEnqueue(b, i) returns $E_i(n,b)$.element.

Proof. We are going to prove this lemma by induction on the height of node n. For the base case, suppose n is a leaf. Leaf blocks each contain exactly one operation, $n.blocks[b].sum_{enq} \leq 1$, which means only n.GetEnqueue(b,1) can be called when n is a leaf. Line 403 of n.GetEnqueue(b,1) returns the element of the Enqueue operation stored in the bth block of leaf n, as required.

For the induction step we prove if n.child.GetEnqueue(b', i) returns $E_i(n.\text{child}, b')$ then n.GetEnqueue(b, i) returns $E_i(n,b)$. From Definition 15 of E(n,b), so operations from the left subblocks come before the operations from the right subblocks in a block (see Figure 14). By Observation 18, the $\operatorname{num_{enq-left}}$ field in n.blocks[b] is the number of Enqueue operations from the blocks's subblocks in the left child of n. So the ith Enqueue operation in n.blocks[b] is propagated from the right child if and only if i is greater than n.blocks[b]. $\operatorname{num_{enq-left}}$. Line 404 decides whether the ith enqueue in the bth block of internal node n is in the left child or right child subblocks of n.blocks[b]. By Definitions 5 and 10 to find an operation in the subblocks of n.blocks[i] we need to search in the range

```
n.\operatorname{left.blocks}[n.\operatorname{blocks}[i-1].\operatorname{end}_{\operatorname{left}}+1..n.\operatorname{blocks}[i].\operatorname{end}_{\operatorname{left}}] or n.\operatorname{right.blocks}[n.\operatorname{blocks}[i-1].\operatorname{end}_{\operatorname{right}}+1..n.\operatorname{blocks}[i].\operatorname{end}_{\operatorname{right}}].
```

First we consider the case where the Enqueue we are looking for is in the left child. There are $eb = n.blocks[b-1].sum_{enq-left}$ Enqueues in the blocks of n.left before the left subblocks of n.blocks[b], so $E_i(n,b)$ is $E_{i+eb}(n.left)$ which is $E_{i'}(n.left,b')$ for some b' and i'. We can compute b' and then search for the i+ebth enqueue in n.left, where i' is $i+eb-n.left.blocks[b'-1].sum_{enq}$. The parameters in Line 405 are for searching $E_{i+eb}(n.left)$ in n.left.blocks in the range of left subblocks of n.blocks[b], so this BinarySearch returns the index of the subblock containing $E_i(n,b)$.

Otherwise, the enqueue we are looking for is in the right child. Because Enqueues from the left subblocks are ordered before the Enqueues from the right subblocks, there are $n.blocks[b].num_{enq-left}$ enqueues ahead of $E_i(n,b)$ from the left child. So we need to search for $i-n.blocks[b].num_{enq-left} + n.blocks[b-1].sum_{enq-right}$ in the right child (Line 409). Other parameters for the right child are chosen similarly to the left child.

So, in both cases the direct subblock containing $E_i(n,b)$ is computed in Line 405 or 409. Finally, n.child.GetEnqueue(subblock, i) is invoked on the subblock containing $E_i(n,b)$ and it returns $E_i(n,b)$.element

by the hypothesis of the induction.

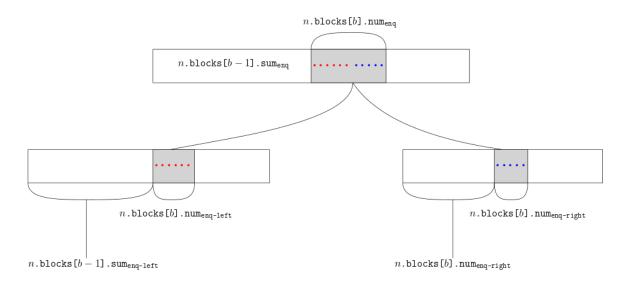


Figure 14: The number and ordering of the enqueue operations propagated from the left and the right child to n.blocks[b]. Both n.blocks[b] and its subblocks are shown in grey. Enqueue operations from the left subblocks (colored red), are ordered before the Enqueue operations from the right child (colored blue).

5.5 Correctness of IndexDequeue

The next few results show that the super field of a block is accurate within one of the actual index of the block's superblock in the parent node. Then we explain how it is used to compute the rank of a given Dequeue in the root.

Definition 32. If a Refresh instance R_1 does its CAS at Line 320 earlier than Refresh instance R_2 we say R_1 has happened before R_2 .

Observation 33. After n. blocks[i].CAS(null, B) succeeds, n. head cannot increase from i to i+1 until B. super is set.

Proof. From Observation 2 we know the n-head changes only by the increment on Line 327. Before an instance of Advance increments n.head on Line 327, Line 326 ensures that n.blocks[head].super was set at Line 326.

Corollary 34. If n.blocks[i].super is null, then n.head $\leq i$ and n.blocks[i+1] is null.

Proof. By Lemma 4 and Observation 33. □

Now let us consider how the Refreshes that took place on the parent of node n after block B was stored in n will help to set B. super and propagate B to the parent.

Observation 35. If the block created by an instance R_p of n. parent. Refresh contains block B = n. blocks [b] then R_p reads a value greater than b from n.head in Line 335.

Lemma 36. If B = n.blocks[b] is a direct subblock of n.parent.blocks[sb] then B.super $\leq sb$.

Proof. Let R_p be the instance of n.parent.Refresh that stores n.parent.blocks[sb]. By 35 if R_p propagates B it has to read a greater value than b from n.head, which means n.head was incremented from b to b+1 in Line 327. By Observation 33 B.super was already set in Line 326. The value written in B.super was read in Line 325,s before the CAS that sets B.super. From Observation 2 we know n.parent.head is non-decreasing so B.super $\leq sb$, since n.parent.head is still equal to sb when R_p executes its CAS at Line 320 by Invariant 6. The reader may wonder when the case b.super = sb happens. This can happen when n.parent.blocks[B.super] = null when B.super is written and R_p puts its created block into n.parent.blocks[B.super] afterwards.

Lemma 37. Let R_n be a Refresh that puts B in n.blocks[b] at Line 320. Then, the block created by one of the next two successful n.parent.Refreshes according to Definition 32 contains B and B.super is set when the second successful n.parent.Refresh reaches Line 317.

Proof. Let R_{p1} be the first successful n.parent.Refresh after R_n and R_{p2} be the second next successful n.parent.Refresh. To derive a contradiction assume B was not propagated to n.parent by R_{p1} nor by R_{p2} .

Since R_{p2} 's created block does not contain B, by Observation 35 the value R_{p2} reads from n.head in Line 335 is at most b. From Observation 2 the value R_{p2} reads in Line 312 is also at most b.

 R_n puts B into n. blocks [b] so R_n reads the value b from n.head. Since R_{p2} 's CAS into n.parent.blocks is successful there should be a Refresh instance R'_p on n.parent that increments n.parent (Line 327) after R_{p1} 's Line 320 and before R_{p2} 's Line 310. We assumed $t_{320}^{R_n} < t_{320}^{R_{p1}} < t_{320}^{R_{p2}}$ by Definition 32. Finally, Line 312 is after Line 310 and R_{p2} 's 310 is after R'_p 's Line 327, which is after R_n 's n.blocks.CAS.

$$\begin{vmatrix}
R_{n}t < R_{p1} & t \\
320 & t
\end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix}
R_{p1}t < R_{p'} & t < R_{p2} & t \\
320 & t < R_{p'} & t
\end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix}
R_{p2}t < R_{p} & t < R_{p} & t \\
310 & t < R_{p} & t
\end{vmatrix}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix}
R_{p2}t < R_{p} & t < R_{p} & t \\
310 & t < R_{p} & t
\end{vmatrix}$$

So R_{p2} reads a value greater than or equal to b for n.head by Lemma 2.

Therefore R_{p2} reads n.head = b. R_{p2} calls n.Advance at Line Line 314, which ensures n.head is incremented from b. So the value R_{p2} reads in Line 335 of CreateBlock is greater than b and R_{p2} 's created block contains B. This is contradiction with our hypothesis.

Furthermore, if B. super was not set earlier it is set by R_{p2} call to n. Advance invoked from Line 314.

Corollary 38. If B = n.blocks[b] is propagated to n.parent, then B.super is equal to or one less than the index of the superblock of B.

Proof. Let R_n be the n.Refresh that put B in n.blocks and let R_{p1} be the first successful n.parent.Refresh after R_n and R_{p2} be the second next successful n.parent.Refresh. Before B can be propagated to n's parent, n.head must be greater than b, so by Observation 33 B.super is set. From the previous Lemma we know that B is propagated by second next successful Refresh's CAS on n.parent.blocks. To summarize we have n.parent.head R_{p2} = n.parent.head R_{p1} + 1 and by Definition 32 and Observation 2

 $n.\mathtt{parent.head}_{320}^{R_{p_1}} t \leq n.\mathtt{parent.head}_{320}^{R_{n_n}} t.$ The value that is set in $B.\mathtt{super}$ is read from $n.\mathtt{parent.head}$ after $\frac{R_n}{320}t$. So $B.\mathtt{super}$ is equal to or one less than the index of the superblock of B.

Now using Corollary 38 on each step of the IndexDequeue we prove its correctness.

Lemma 39 (IndexDequeue correctness). If $1 \le i \le n$.blocks[b].num_{deq} then n.IndexDequeue(b,i) returns x < x, y > such that $D_i(n, b) = D_y(\text{root}, x)$.

Proof. We will prove this by induction on the distance of n from the root. The base case where n is root is trivial (see Line 415). For the non-root nodes n. IndexDequeue (b, i) computes sb, the index of the superblock of the bth block in n, in Line 418 by Corollary 38. After that, the position of $D_i(n,b)$ in D(n.parent, sb) is computed in Lines 419–424. By Definition 15, Dequeues in a block are ordered based on the order of its subblocks from left to right. If $D_i(n,b)$ was propagated from the left child, the number of dequeue in the left subblocks of n.parent.blocks[sb] before n.blocks[b] is considered in Line 420 (see Figure 15). Otherwise, if $D_i(n,b)$ was propagated from the right child, the number of dequeues in the subblocks from the left child is considered to be ahead of the computed index (Line 421) (see Figure 16). Finally IndexDequeue is called on n.parent recursively and it returns the correct response by induction hypothesis.

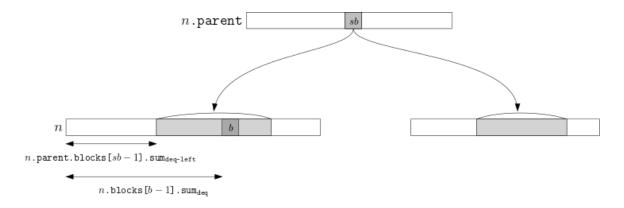


Figure 15: The number of Dequeue operations before $E_i(n,b)$ shown in the case where n is a left child.

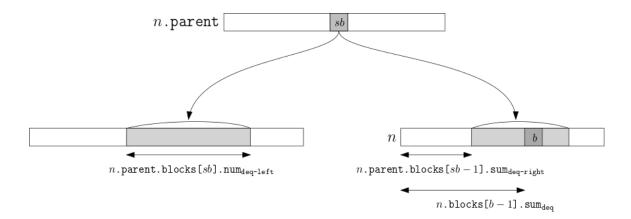


Figure 16: The number of Dequeue operations before $E_i(n,b)$ shown in the case where n is a right child.

5.6 Linearizability

We now prove the two properties needed for linearizability.

Lemma 40. L is a legal linearization ordering.

Proof. We must show that, every operation that terminates is in L exactly once and if op_1 terminates before op_2 starts in execution then op_1 is before op_2 in the linearization. The first claim is directly reasoned from Lemma 27. For the latter, if op_1 terminates before op_2 starts, op_1 . Append has terminated before op_2 . Append started. From Lemma 26, op_1 is in root.blocks before op_2 starts to propagate. By definition of L, op_1 is linearized before op_2 .

Once some operations are aggregated in one block, they will get propagated up to the root together and they can be linearized in any order among themselves. We have chosen to put Enqueues in a block before Eequeues (see Definition 15).

Definition 41. If a Dequeue operation returns null it is called a *null* Dequeue, otherwise it is called *non-null* Dequeue.

Next we define the responses that Dequeues should return, according to the linearization.

Definition 42. Assume the operations in root.blocks are applied sequentially on an empty queue in the order of L. Resp(d) = e.element if the element of Enqueue e is the response to Dequeue d. Otherwise if d is a null dequeue then Resp(d) = null.

In the next lemma we show that the size field in each root block is computed correctly.

Lemma 43. root.blocks [b] .size is the size of the queue if the operations in root.blocks $[0 \cdots b]$ are applied in the order of L.

Proof. We prove the claim by induction on b. The base case when b=0 is trivial since the queue is initially empty and root.blocks [0].size = 0. We are going to show the correctness when b = i assuming correctness when b = i - 1. By Definition 15 Enqueue operations come before Dequeue operations in a block. By Lemma 18 num_{enq} and num_{deq} fields in a block show ther number of Enqueue and Dequeue operations in it. If there are more than $root.blocks[i-1].size + root.blocks[i].num_{enq}$ dequeue operations in root.blocks[i]then the queue would become empty after root.blocks[i]. Otherwise the size of the queue after the bth $block\ in\ the\ root.\ blocks\ [b].\ num_{enq}-root.\ blocks\ [b].\ num_{deq}.\ In\ both$ cases, this is same as the assignment on Line 344.

The next lemma is useful to compute the number of non-null dequeues.

Lemma 44. If operations in the root are applied with the order of L, the number of non-null Dequeues in $\mathtt{root.blocks} \, [0 \cdots b] \, \, \mathit{is} \, \, \mathtt{root.blocks} \, [b] \, . \, \mathtt{sum}_{\mathtt{enq}} \, - \, \, \mathtt{root.blocks} \, [b] \, . \, \mathtt{size}.$

Proof. There are root.blocks[b].sum_{enq} enqueue operations in root.blocks[$0 \cdots b$]. The size of the queue after doing root.blocks $[0\cdots b]$ in order L is the number of enqueues in root.blocks $[0\cdots b]$ minus the number of non-null Dequeues in root.blocks $[0\cdots b]$. By the correctness of the size field from Lemma 43 and sumeng field from Lemma 18, the number of non-null Dequeues is root.blocks[b].sumeng root.blocks[b].size.

Corollary 45. If operations in the root are applied with the order of L, the number of non-null dequeues in $\mathtt{root.blocks}[b]$ is $\mathtt{root.blocks}[b]$. $\mathtt{num_{enq}}$ - $\mathtt{root.blocks}[b]$. \mathtt{size} + $\mathtt{root.blocks}[b-1]$. \mathtt{size} .

 $\textbf{Lemma 46.} \ Resp(D_i(\texttt{root},b)) \ is \ \texttt{null} \ iff \ \texttt{root.blocks} \ [b-1] \ . \\ \texttt{size} \ + \ \texttt{root.blocks} \ [b] \ . \\ \texttt{num}_{\texttt{enq}} - i \ < 0.$

Lemma 47. FindResponse(b, i) returns $Resp(D_i(root, b))$.

Proof. From Corollary 45 and Lemma 18.

Proof. $D_i(root, b)$ is $D_{root.blocks[b-1].sum_{deq}+i}(root)$ by Definition 15 and Lemma 19. $D_i(root, b)$ returns null at Line 220 if root.blocks [b-1].size + root.blocks [b].num_{enq} -i < 0 and $Resp(D_i(root,b)) =$ null in this case by Lemma 46. Otherwise, if $D_i(root, b)$ is the eth non-null dequeue in L it should return the eth enqueued value. By Lemma 44 there are root.blocks [b-1].sum_{enq} - root.blocks [b-1].size non-null Dequeue operations in root.blocks $[0 \cdots b-1]$. The Dequeues in root.blocks [b] before $D_i(root, b)$ are non-null dequeues. So $D_i(root, b)$ is the eth non-null Dequeue where $e = i + \text{root.blocks}[b-1].sum_{deq} - \text{root.blocks}[b-1].size$ (Line 222). See Figure 17.

After computing e at Line 222, the code finds b, i such that $E_i(root, b) = E_e(root)$ using DSearch and then finds its element using GetEnqueue (Line 223). Correctness of DSearch and GetEnqueue routines are shown in Lemmas 30 and 31.

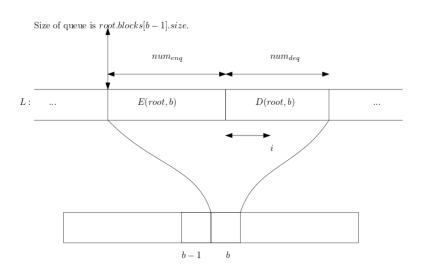


Figure 17: The position of $D_i(root, b)$.

Lemma 48. The responses to operations in our algorithm would be the same as in the sequential execution in the order given by L.

Proof. Enqueue operations do not return any value. By Lemma 47 response of a Dequeue in our algorithm is same as the response from the sequential execution of L.

Theorem 49 (Main). The queue implementation is linearizable.

Proof. The theorem follows from Lemmas 40 and 48.

Remark In fact our algorithm is strongly linearizable as defined in [5]. By Definition 15 the linearization ordering of operations will not change as blocks containing new operations are appended to the root.

6 Analysis

Lemma 50 (Amortized time analysis). Enqueue and Dequeue, each take $O(\log^2 p + \log q)$ steps in amortized analysis. Where p is the number of processes and q is the size of the queue at the time of invocation of operation.

Proof. Enqueue(x) consists of creating a block(x) and appending it to the tree. The first part takes constant time. To propagate x to the root the algorithm tries two Refreshes in each node of the path from the leaf to the root (Lines 302, 303). We can see from the code that each Refresh takes constant number of steps since creating a block is done in constant time and does O(1) CASes. Since the height of the tree is $O(\log p)$, Enqueue(x) takes $O(\log p)$ steps.

A Dequeue creates a block with null value element, appends it to the tree, computes its order among enqueue operations, and returns the response. The first two part is similar to an Enqueue operation. To compute the order of a dqueue in D(n) there are some constant steps and IndexDequeue() is called. IndexDequeue does a search with range p in each level which takes $O(\log^2 p)$ in the tree. In the FindResponse() routine DSearch() in the root takes $O(\log(\text{root.blocks[b].size +root.blocks[end].size})$ by Lemma 30, which is $O(\log \text{size of the queue when Enqueue}$ is invoked) + $\log \text{size of the queue}$ when Dequeue is invoked). Each search in GetEnqueue() takes $O(\log p)$ since there are $\leq p$ subblocks in a block (Lemma 29), so GetEnqueue() takes $O(\log^2 p)$ steps.

If we split DSearch time cost between the corresponding Enqueue, Dequeue, in amortized we have Enqueue takes $O(\log p + q)$ and Dequeue takes $O(\log^2 p + q)$ steps.

Lemma 51. An Enqueue or Dequeue operation, does at most $4 \log p$ CAS operations.

Proof. In each height of the tree at most 2 times Refresh is invoked and every Refresh invokes at most 3 CASes, one in Line 320 and two from Advance in Line 327.

Lemma 52 (DSearch Analysis). If the element enqueued by $E_i(root, b) = E_e(root)$ is the response to some Dequeue operation in root.blocks[end], then DSearch(e, end) takes $O(\log(root.blocks[b].size + root.blocks[end].size))$ steps.

Proof. First we show $end - b - 1 \le 2 \times \texttt{root.blocks}[b-1].\texttt{size} + \texttt{root.blocks}[end].\texttt{size}$. Suppose there were more than root.blocks[b].size Dequeues in $\texttt{root.blocks}[b+1\cdots end-1]$. Then the element in the queue which is the response to the Dequeue would become dequeued at some point before

root.blocks[end]'s first Dequeue. Furthermore in the execution of queue operations in the linearization ordering, the size of the queue becomes root.blocks[end].size after the operations of root.blocks[end]. There can be at most root.blocks[b].size Dequeues in root.blocks[b+1···end-1]; otherwise all elements enqueued by root.blocks[b] would be dequeued before root.blocks[end]. The final size of the queue after root.blocks[1···end] is root.blocks[end].size. After an execution on a queue the size of the queue is greater than or equal to #enqueues - #dequeues in the execution. We know the number of dequeues in root.blocks[b+1···end-1] is less than root.blocks[b].size, therefore there cannot be more than root.blocks[b].size+root.blocks[end].size Enqueues in root.blocks[b+1···end-1]. Overall there can be at most $2 \times \text{root.blocks}[b]$.size+root.blocks[end].size operations in root.blocks[b+1···end-1] and since from line 318 we know that num field of the every block in the tree is greater than 0, each block has at least one operation, there are at most $2 \times \text{root.blocks}[b]$.size+root.blocks[end].size+root.blocks[b].size+root.blocks[b].size+root.blocks[end].size+root.blocks[b].size+root.blocks[b].size+root.blocks[end].size

So the doubling search reaches start such that the root.blocks[start].sum_{enq} is less than e in $O(\log(\text{root.blocks}[b].\text{size} + \text{root.blocks}[end].\text{size}))$ steps. See Figure 18. After Line 805, the binary search that finds b also takes $O(\log(\text{root.blocks}[b].\text{size} + \text{root.blocks}[end].\text{size}))$. Next, i is computed via the definition of sum_{enq} in constant time (Line 807). So the claim is proved.

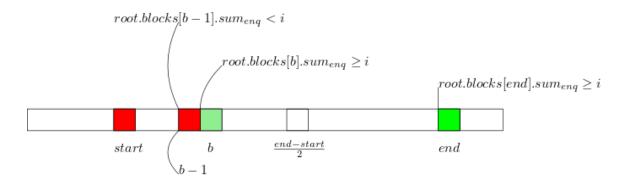


Figure 18: Distance relations between start, b, end.

7 Future directions

Infinite Sized Arrays Our queue algorithm's usage of memory has two places to improve. First, we assumed arrays in the nodes are infinite sized. Second we do not handle garbage collection, dequeued operations are still remain in the nodes. We can use list to arrays to resolve the infinite sized arrays issue. To implement an infinite shared array we can create a small array of pointers called arr. When a process wishes to write into head it checks whether arr[[log head]]] points to an array or not. If not it creates a shared array with size 2^i and tries to CAS it to the created array. After CAS terminates whether it is successful or not arr[[log head]]] points to an array. When a process wishes to access to ith element it looks upto arr[[log i]] [$i - 2^{\lfloor \log i \rfloor}$] Note that CAS Retry Problem does not happen here because if n elements are appended to the array then only $O(p \times \log n)$ times CAS has happened. And if the size of the all shared memory is k, arr can be initialized to a log k sized array.

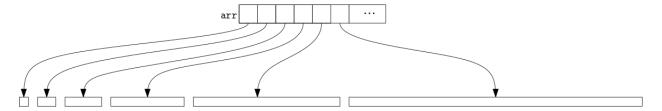


Figure 19: Infinite sized Arrays

Garbage Collection To garbage collect we can keep track of the index of the most recent block in the root that has been term and then split the blocks from that block. We can use Persistent Red Black Trees because they support split in an efficient method.

Poly-logarithmic Wait-free Vectors If we do not distinct between Enqueues and Dequeues and replace DSearch with Binary Search on all the root in our algorithm, we achieve a list with poly-logarithmic Append, Get and Index methods with respect to the number of Appends done.

Stacks or maybe other objects that store sequences The reason behind why our tree worked well to implement a queue was two things. First, we can compute the index of the Enqueue that is response of a Dequeue fast. Two, the response of the Dequeue is not very far from it (size of the queue). We think we can create wait-free poly-logarithmic version of other objects which their operations satisfy these two conditions.

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