Analysis of Concurrent Lock-Free Hash Tries with Constant-Time Operations

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A complete description of the new data structure is given in the corresponding PPoPP 2018 paper [2].

Abstract
Ctrie is a scalable concurrent non-blocking dictionary data structure, with good cache locality, and non-blocking linearizable iterators [4]. However, operations on most existing concurrent hashtries run in $O(\log n)$ time.

In this technical report, we extend the standard concurrent hash-tries [3] with an auxiliary data structure called a cache\(^1\). The cache is essentially an array that stores pointers to a specific level of the hashtrie. We analyze the performance implications of adding a cache, and prove that the running time of the basic operations becomes $O(1)$.

Keywords concurrent data structures, lock-free hashtries, constant-time hashtries, expected running time analysis

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A Complexity Analysis
In this section, we show that the expected execution time of the cache-trie operations is $O(1)$. The proof consists of establishing the key depth distribution, and bounding the expected key and cache depths. From these bounds, we then conclude that the expected distance from the cache to the key is constant.

Definition A.1. Depth $d$ of a key is the number of pointer indirections required to reach an S-node by following pointers in the A-nodes minus 1, starting from the root. Level $\ell$ in a 16-way cache-trie is the number of hash code bits used to find the corresponding S-node, and is defined as $\ell = d \cdot 4$.

Definition A.2. We say that a key with a specific hash code $h$ occupies level $\ell$ or a depth $d = \ell/4$ in a cache-trie if it has a unique hash code $\ell$-prefix in the cache-trie, but it does not have a unique $(\ell + 4)$-prefix.

Theorem A.3. Given a universal hash function, and a cache-trie that contains $n + 1$ keys, the probability that an arbitrary key occupies a position at depth $d$ is:

$$p(d, n) = (1 - 16^{-d})^n - (1 - 16^{-d})^n$$

Proof. Consider an arbitrary key $x$ in the cache-trie. There are $n$ other keys in the cache-trie, so the key $x$ will occupy the level $\ell$ if some non-empty subset of $k$ other keys has the same $\ell$-prefix of the hash code, but not the same $(\ell + 4)$-prefix, and the other $n-k$ keys have a different $\ell$-prefix.

Next, note that, for any given set of keys $S$, the cache-trie has the same structure regardless of the order of insertion. Thus, we can behave as if the key $x$ was the first key inserted into the cache-trie. The rest of the $n$ keys are then inserted as

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure1.png}
\caption{Basic Cache-Trie Data Types}
\end{figure}

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{figure2.png}
\caption{Lookup Operation}
\end{figure}

\(^1\) A complete description of the new data structure is given in the corresponding PPoPP 2018 paper [2].
We are interested in those events in which there was at least \( n / \ell \) two keys colliding at level \( 16 \), where \( n \geq 1 \).

Two keys colliding at level \( 16 \) cause a collision (have the same hash code, and can either cause a collision (have a different \(-prefix) compared to \( x \), or not cause a collision (have a different \(-prefix) compared to \( x \). Two keys colliding at level \( 16 \) have \( 16 / 4 \) identical consecutive hash code substrings of length 4, followed by a different substring of length 4, so the corresponding probability is \( 16^{-16/4} \cdot 15/16 \). The probability of a non-collision is \( 1 - 16^{-16/4} \). We are interested in those events in which there was at least one collision, so we count all combinations of \( k \) colliding keys, where \( k \geq 1 \).

\[
p(\ell, n) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \binom{n}{k} \left( \frac{1}{16^{16/4}} \cdot \frac{15}{16} \right)^{k} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{16^{16/4}} \right)^{n-k} \quad (2)
\]

From the identity:

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{n} \binom{n}{k} p^k(1-P)^{n-k}Q^k = (1-P+PQ)^n - (1-P)^n \quad (3)
\]

we get:

\[
p(\ell, n) = (1 - 16^{-\ell/4})^n - (1 - 16^{-\ell/4})^n \quad (4)
\]

By Definition A.1, \( d = \ell/4 \), and the claim follows. \( \square \)

The probability function \( p(d, n) \) is a probability distribution over the depth \( d \), as shown by the following corollary.

---

### Figure 4. Freezing and Expansion

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{n} \binom{n}{k} p^k(1-P)^{n-k}Q^k = (1-P+PQ)^n - (1-P)^n \quad (3)
\]

1 def insert(k: KeyType, v: ValueType, h: Int, lev: Int, cur: ANode, prev: ANode): Boolean =
2 val pos = (h >>> lev) & (cur.length - 1)
3 val old = READ(cur[pos])
4 if (old == null)
5 val sn = new SNode(h, k, v, NoTxn)
6 if (CAS(cur[pos], old, sn)) return true
7 else return insert(k, v, h, lev, cur, prev)
8 else if (old == SNode)
9 val txn = READ(oldtxn)
10 if (txn == NoTxn)
11 val sn = new SNode(h, k, v, NoTxn)
12 if (CAS(oldtxn, NoTxn, sn))
13 CAS(cur[pos], old, sn)
14 return true
15 else return insert(k, v, h, lev, cur, prev)
16 else if (cur.length == 4)
17 val ppos = (h >>> (lev - 4)) & (prev.length - 1)
18 val en = new ENode(prev, ppos, cur, h, lev)
19 if (CAS(prev[pos], en))
20 completeExpansion(en)
21 val wide = READ(en.wide)
22 return insert(k, v, h, lev, wide, prev)
23 else return insert(k, v, h, lev, cur, prev)
24 val sn = new SNode(h, k, v, NoTxn)
25 val an = createANode(old, sn, lev + 4)
26 if (CAS(oldtxn, NoTxn, an))
27 CAS(cur[pos], old, an)
28 return true
29 else return insert(k, v, h, lev, cur, prev)
30 else if (txn == FSNode) return false
31 else
32 CAS(cur[pos], old, txn)
33 return insert(k, v, h, lev, cur, prev)
34 else return insert(k, v, h, lev, cur, prev)
35 else if (old == ENode) completeExpansion(old)
36 return false
37
def insert(k: KeyType, v: ValueType) =
38 if (!insert(k, v, hash(k), 0, root, null))
39 insert(k, v)
40
def completeExpansion(en: ENode) =
41 freeze(en.narrow)
42 var wide = new Array<Any>(16)
43 copy(en.narrow, wide, en.level)
44 if (!CAS(en.wide, null, wide))
45 wide = READ(en.wide)
46CAS(en.parent[en.parentpos], en, wide)
47
def freeze(cur: ANode) =
48 var i = 0
49 while (i < cur.length)
50 if (CAS(cur[i], node, FVNode)) i += 1
51 else if (node != SNode)
52 val txn = READ(node.txn)
53 if (txn == NoTxn)
54 if (!CAS(node.txn, NoTxn, SNode)) i += 1
55 else if (txn != SNode)
56 CAS(cur[i], node,txn)
57 i -= 1
58 else if (node != ENode)
59 freeze(node.frozen)
60 else if (node != ENode)
61 completeExpansion(node)
62 i = 1
63 i += 1
64
def freeze(en: ENode) =
65 freeze(curenparent)
66 completeExpansion(en)
67 freeze(cur)
68 return true
69

### Figure 5. Cache Data Types and Helper Functions

1 type Cache = Array<Any>
2
class CacheNode
3 val parent: Array<Any>
4 val misses: Array<Int>
5
class CacheTree
6 val root = new ANode(16)
7 var cacheHead: Cache = null
8
def createCache(level: Int, parent: Cache): Cache =
9 val cache = new Array(16)
10 val misses = new Array(THROUGHPUT_FACTOR * CPU)
11 cache[0] = new CacheNode(null, 8, misses)
12 return cache
13

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{n} \binom{n}{k} p^k(1-P)^{n-k}Q^k = (1-P+PQ)^n - (1-P)^n \quad (3)
\]
Let a cache-trie contain a fixed number of keys \( n \). Then \( p(d, n) \) is a discrete probability distribution over the depths \( d \).

**Proof:** From the definition of a discrete probability distribution – the sum of probabilities across all depths is 1:

\[
\sum_{d=0}^{\infty} p(d, n) = 1
\]

Furthermore, \( p(d, n) \) is positive for a non-negative \( d \). □

The following plot illustrates the probability \( p(d, n) \) for different cache-trie sizes \( n \), shown on the horizontal axis. Four different probability curves are shown for depths \( d = 0 \), \( d = 1 \), \( d = 2 \) and \( d = 3 \). The probability curve for \( d = 0 \) is initially close to 1, but then quickly drops to 0 before reaching 100 keys. The probability curves for larger depths start at 0, reach their maximum, and then descend back to 0. Note that the horizontal axis is logarithmic – the peaks are roughly exponentially distanced.

The previous plot suggests that for a given number of keys \( n \) contained in the cache-trie, most keys likely occupy a few adjacent depths. We will construct a function \( n(d, n) \) that...
Theorem A.6. When the number of keys $n$ tends to infinity, values of $\mu$ are inside the interval $(0.8745, 0.9746)$.

Proof. We first prove the upper bound of the interval. The upper bound must be greater than or equal to all the maxima of $\eta(n,d)$.

\[
0 = \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial n} = \frac{\partial \eta(n,d)}{\partial n} = \frac{\partial}{\partial n} \left[ (1 - \frac{1}{16^{d+2}})^n - (1 - \frac{1}{16^d})^n \right]
\]
\[
= (1 - \frac{1}{16^{d+2}})^n \ln(1 - \frac{1}{16^{d+2}}) - (1 - \frac{1}{16^d})^n \ln(1 - \frac{1}{16^d})
\]

We get the following set of maxima, parametrized by $d$:

\[
n_{\text{max}}(d) = \left( \ln \frac{1 - 16^{-d}}{\ln(1 - 16^{-d-2})} \right) \cdot \left( \ln \frac{1 - 16^{-d-2}}{1 - 16^{-d}} \right)^{-1}
\]  

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We can now compute the value of the maximum when $n$ tends to infinity. Note that, for a specific $d$, $\eta(n,d)$ has a single maximum. Furthermore, $n_{\text{max}}(d)$ grows monotonically with $d$. Consequently, when $n$ tends to infinity, $d$ also tends to infinity. By putting $n_{\text{max}}(d)$ back into the expression for $\eta(n,d)$, and substituting $16^{-d} = t$, we get:

\[
\mu_{\text{upper}} = \lim_{t \to 0} \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{256} t^{n_{\text{max}}(t)} \right]^{n_{\text{max}}(t)} = 1 - t^{n_{\text{max}}(t)}
\]

This limit can be easily simplified (we do not show the steps for brevity), and we get the following upper bound:

\[
\mu_{\text{upper}} = 2^{-8/255} - 2^{-2048/255} \approx 0.9746
\]

The upper bound is in itself not extremely useful, since we know that $\mu \leq 1$. The lower bound is more important, since it mandates the minimum proportion of keys that are close to the cache. As seen in the earlier plot for $\mu(n)$, the minimums occur when two $\eta(n,d)$ curves meet for two adjacent depths $d$. The number of keys $n$ for which this happens is the solution to the following equation:

\[
\eta(n,d + 1) = \eta(n,d) \quad (1 - 16^{-d-3})^n - (1 - 16^{-d-1})^n = (1 - 16^{-d-2})^n - (1 - 16^{-d})^n
\]

This equation does not have an algebraic solution. Fortunately, we are only interested in how $\eta$ behaves asymptotically for large $d$. Substituting $x = n \cdot 16^{-d}$, we get:

\[
\lim_{d \to \infty} \eta(n,d + 1) = \lim_{d \to \infty} \eta(n,d) \quad \left[ \frac{1}{1 - 16^d} \right]^x - \left[ \frac{1}{1 - 16^d} \right]^x = \left[ \frac{1}{1 - 16^d} \right]^x - \left[ \frac{1}{1 - 16^d} \right]^x
\]

This equation also does not have an algebraic solution, but we got rid of $d$, so we can solve it numerically. The solution $x_0 \approx 34.315$ gives us the following lower bound:

\[
\mu_{\text{lower}} = \lim_{d \to \infty} \eta(x_0 \cdot 16^d, d) \approx 0.874553
\]

The solution given above is approximate, but it can be made arbitrarily precise, and is greater than 0.8745.

Theorem A.6 implies that there always exists a depth $d$ such that a large percentage of the keys occupies the depth $d$ or $d + 1$. If the cache data structure targets this depth, then lookups and updates for those keys take $O(1)$ time. However, this does not yet prove the $O(1)$ bound on the expected running time – it is possible that some small percentage of keys are a non-costant number of levels deeper than the cache. In what follows, we prove that this is not the case – all the remaining keys are expected to occupy depths that are at most a constant number of levels away from the cache, regardless of the total number of keys $n$.  

\footnote{Unfortunately, the arXiv server insists on rendering the Tex files on its own, and does not accept a PDF. At the same time, it is unaware of GNUPlot, and does a poor job rendering some of the images. For a better version of the images below, see the version of this document at my homepage.}
Lemma A.7. The following sum:

\[ S_1(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{t} (1 - 16^{-j})^{16^t} \]  

converges and is less than \( \frac{1}{e^t} \) when \( t \) tends to infinity.

**Proof.** To show this, we inspect the final term of the sum, and conclude that it converges to \( \frac{1}{e^t} \) for large \( t \). We then bound the sum with a geometric series.

\[
\lim_{t \to \infty} S_1(t) = \lim_{t \to \infty} \sum_{j=1}^{t} (1 - 16^{-j})^{16^t} \\
= \lim_{t \to \infty} \ldots + (1 - 16^{-r+1})^{16^t} + (1 - 16^{-t})^{16^t} \\
= \lim_{t \to \infty} \ldots + (1 - 16^{-t+1})^{16^{t-1}+16^t} + (1 - 16^{-t})^{16^t} \\
= \ldots + \left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{256} + \left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{16} + \frac{1}{e} \\
< \ldots + \left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{4} + \left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{3} + \left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{2} + \frac{1}{e} \\
= \frac{1}{e-1}. \tag{11}
\]

Lemma A.8. The following sum:

\[ S_2(t) = \sum_{j=\log_{16} n}^{\infty} (1 - (1 - 16^{-j})^n) \]  

converges and is less than \( \frac{1}{e^t} \) when \( n \) tends to infinity.

**Proof.** We rely on the limit when \( n \) tends to infinity to simplify the sum:

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} S_2(t) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[ 1 - (1 - 16^{-k-\log_{16} n})^n \right] \\
= \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left[ 1 - (1 - 16^{-k} \cdot 16^{-\log_{16} n} n^{16^{-k-1}}) \right] \\
= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1 - \left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{16^k}.
\]

We note that \( e^{-k} \geq 1 - e^{-16^k} \) when \( k > 0 \):

\[
e^{-k} \geq 1 - e^{-16^k} \\
e^{\log_{16} x} x \geq 1 - e^{-x} \quad k = -\log_{16} x \\
x^{(\ln 16)^{-1}} \geq 1 - e^{-x} \\
x \geq (1 - e^{-x})^{\ln 16}
\]

The upper bound for \( S_2 \) follows:

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} S_2(t) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{-k} = \frac{1}{e-1}. \tag{13}
\]

Theorem A.9. In a cache-trie that contains \( n \) keys, the expected depth of a key is bound by \( \Theta(\log n) \). Moreover, the expected depth is exactly \( E[d](n) = \log_{16} n + O(1) \).

**Proof.** From the definition of the expected value of a random variable, for a specific choice of \( n \):

\[
E[d](n) = \sum_{d=0}^{\infty} d \cdot p(d, n) \\
= \sum_{d=0}^{\infty} d \cdot \left[ (1 - 16^{-d-1})^n - (1 - 16^{-d})^n \right] \\
= 0 \cdot p(0, n) + (1 - 16^{-2})^n - (1 - 16^{-1})^n \\
+ 2 \cdot (1 - 16^{-3})^n - 2 \cdot (1 - 16^{-2})^n \\
+ 3 \cdot (1 - 16^{-4})^n - 3 \cdot (1 - 16^{-3})^n + \ldots \\
= \sum_{d=0}^{\infty} \left[ d \cdot (1 - 16^{-d-1})^n + \sum_{j=1}^{d} (1 - 16^{-j})^n \right] \\
= \sum_{d=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{d} (1 - 16^{-d-1})^n - (1 - 16^{-j})^n \\
= \sum_{j=1}^{\log_{16} n} 1 - (1 - 16^{-j})^n \tag{14}
\]

We separate the last sum into two parts at \( j = [\log_{16} n] \):

\[
E[d](n) = \sum_{j=1}^{[\log_{16} n]} 1 - (1 - 16^{-j})^n + \sum_{j=[\log_{16} n]+1}^{\infty} 1 - (1 - 16^{-j})^n
\]

Consider the first sum, which consists of \([\log_{16} n]\) terms. We use Lemma A.7 to compute the following lower bound for the expected depth, noting that the second sum in (14) is always positive and cannot affect the lower bound:

\[
E[d](n) \geq \sum_{j=1}^{[\log_{16} n]} 1 - (1 - 16^{-j})^n \geq \log_{16} n - \frac{1}{e-1} \tag{15}
\]

Coming back to (14), the first sum is upper bound by \([\log_{16} n]\). The second sum is less than \((e-1)^{-1}\) by Lemma A.8, resulting in the following upper bound:

\[
E[d](n) \leq [\log_{16} n] + \frac{1}{e-1} \tag{16}
\]

From (15) and (16), \( E[d](n) = \log_{16} n + O(1) \) follows. \( \square \)

Theorem A.10. For any cache-trie, the expected distance between the cache depth and the key depth is \( O(1) \).

**Proof.** To emphasize the fact that we analyze the depths for a fixed number of keys \( n \), we introduce a helper function \( \eta_n(d) \), defined as follows:
\[ \eta_n(d) = \eta(n, d) \]

We assume that the cache depth \( E[d_{cache}] \) is chosen through an unbiased sampling process [1]. By definition, this implies that the expected sampled value \( E[d_{sample}] \) of the most inhabited depth pair \( d \) corresponds to the true value of the most inhabited pair. The sampling strategy and the sample size influence the variance of the sample, but not its expected value.

\[ E[d_{cache}](n) = E[d_{sample}](n) = \arg \max_{d \in \mathbb{N}_0} \eta_n(d) \quad (18) \]

Therefore, the expected cache depth is equal to the true value of the most inhabited depth. It remains to show that the expected key depth \( E[d(n)] \) is \( O(1) \) levels away from \( \arg \max_n \eta_n(d) \), i.e. the most inhabited depth pair. We will show that the expected cache depth is at most a small number of steps away from \( \log_{16} n \). To do this, we consider how the function \( \eta_n(d) \) behaves around the value \( d = \log_{16}(n) - 2 \) when \( n \) is large.

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \eta_n(\log_{16}(n) - 2) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( (1 - \frac{1}{n})^n - (1 - \frac{256}{n})^{256^{-1} n^{256}} \right) = \frac{1}{e} - \left( \frac{1}{e} \right)^{256} \pm \frac{1}{e}
\]

Now, consider the expression for the first derivative of \( \eta_n \):

\[
\frac{\partial \eta_n(n)}{\partial d} = n \cdot (1 - 16^{-d-2})^{n-1} \cdot 16^{-d-2} \cdot \ln 16
\]

The first derivative of \( \eta_n(d) \) is positive at \( d = \log_{16}(n) - 2 \):

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \left. \frac{\partial \eta_n(n)}{\partial d} \right|_{\log_{16}(n) - 2} = \left[ \frac{1}{e} - 256 \cdot \left( \frac{1}{e} \right)^{256} \right] \cdot \ln 16 > 0
\]

Similarly, we inspect \( \eta_n(d) \) at \( d = \log_{16} n \):

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \eta_n(\log_{16} n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( (1 - \frac{1}{256n})^{256n^{256^{-1}}} - (1 - \frac{1}{n})^n \right) = \left( \frac{1}{e} \right)^{256} \pm \frac{1}{e} - 1 \cdot \frac{1}{e}
\]

The first derivative is negative at \( d = \log_{16} n \):

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \left. \frac{\partial \eta_n(n)}{\partial d} \right|_{\log_{16} n} = \left[ \frac{1}{256} \cdot \left( \frac{1}{e} \right)^{256^{-1}} - \frac{1}{e} \right] \cdot \ln 16 < 0
\]

We conclude that the value \( d \) for which \( \eta_n(d) \) achieves its maximum value must be within \( (\log_{16}(n) - 2, \log_{16} n) \), as illustrated by the following plot (for the purposes of illustration, we picked \( n = 1000 \), but the plot is similar for any choice of \( n \)).

By Theorem A.6, \( \mu(n) = \max_{d} \eta_n(d) \) must be within the interval \((0.8745, 0.9746)\), which is above the values \( \frac{1}{e} \) and \( 1 - \frac{1}{e} \).

The most inhabited depth pair must therefore also be within the same interval \((\log_{16}(n) - 2, \log_{16} n)\). Consequently:

\[
\arg \max_{d \in \mathbb{N}_0} \eta_n(d) = \log_{16}(n) + O(1) \quad (19)
\]

By Theorem A.9, the key depth \( E[d(n)] \) is \( \log_{16}(n) + O(1) \). Therefore, \( E[d_{cache}](n) = E[d(n)] + O(1) \).

**Corollary A.11.** Expected execution time of cache-trie lookup, insert and remove operations is \( O(1) \).

**Proof.** Direct consequence of the Theorem A.10, and the fact that the cache-trie operations use the cache to find keys.

**Corollary A.12 (Memory Footprint).** The expected memory footprint of a cache-augmented cache-trie is \( O(n) \).

**Proof.** Theorem A.9 implies that the expected path from the root the key is \( O(\log n) \). Therefore, the expected memory footprint must be less than some complete 16-way tree of depth \( O(\log n) \), which is \( O(n) \). Furthermore, by Theorem A.10, the cache-level is expected to be a constant number of levels away, so its expected memory footprint is \( O(n) \) by the same argument.

**B Correctness Proofs**

We start by defining some preliminary notions, and then showing that cache-trie operations are safe. While proving safety, we develop sufficient foundation to easily show linearizability as well. After that, we show lock-freedom. The proofs assume the absence of the cache extension. We then prove that, by extending the cache-trie with the cache data structure, none of the previously proven properties change.

We start with some basic definitions.

**Definition B.1 (Data Types).** A single node \( \text{(SNode)} \) is a node that holds a single key and a transactional marker \( \text{txn} \). For a node \( \text{sn} \) that holds the key \( k \), the relation \( \text{key(sn, k)} \) holds.
An array node (ANode) is a node that contains a sequence of pointers to other nodes or null entries. A narrow array node contains 4 pointers or nulls. A wide array node contains 16 pointers or nulls. For an array node an, length(an) is the number of pointers or nulls that it contains, and array(an, i) is the entry at the index i. A frozen node (FNode) is a node that wraps an array node. For a frozen node fn, unwrap(fn) is the node that it wraps. A frozen single node (FSNode) is a marker that denotes that a single node should not be modified. A frozen vacant node (FVNode) is a marker that denotes that an array node pointer is empty, and should no longer be modified. An expansion node (ENode) is a node that denotes that a narrow array node must be replaced with a wide one, and it holds a narrow array node, and a corresponding wide array node. For an expansion node en, unwrap(en) is the narrow array node that it points to. Every node n can be assigned to a level ℓ, and this is denoted as nℓ. Every node n can be additionally assigned to a sequence of bits p, and this is denoted as nℓp.

**Definition B.2** (Child Node). For an array node anℓ at level ℓ and an index i, the pointer child(an, i) is defined as follows:

\[
\text{child}(an, i) = \begin{cases} 
\text{null} & \text{array}(an, i) \in \{\text{null}\} \\
\text{cn} & \text{cn} = \text{array}(an, i) \in \text{ANode} \\
\text{unwrap}(fn) & f_n = \text{array}(an, i) \in \text{FNode} \\
\text{unwrap(en)} & en = \text{array}(an, i) \in \text{ENode} \\
\text{null} & \text{array}(an, i) \in \text{FVNode} 
\end{cases}
\]

For convenience, we overload the child relation for keys k. For an array node anℓ at level ℓ and a key k, the pointer forKey(anℓ, k) is defined as:

\[
\text{forKey}(\text{an}_\ell, k) = \text{array}(\text{an}_\ell, (h >> \ell) \mod \text{length}(\text{an}_\ell))
\]

where \( h = \text{hash}(k) \).

For an array node an and a key k, the pointer child(an, k) is defined as:

\[
\text{child}(an, k) = \begin{cases} 
\text{null} & \text{forKey}(an, k) \in \{\text{null}\} \\
\text{cn} & \text{cn} = \text{forKey}(an, k) \in \text{ANode} \\
\text{unwrap}(fn) & f_n = \text{forKey}(an, k) \in \text{FNode} \\
\text{unwrap(en)} & en = \text{forKey}(an, k) \in \text{ENode} \\
\text{null} & \text{forKey}(an, k) \in \text{FVNode} 
\end{cases}
\]

**Definition B.3** (Cache-Trie). A cache-trie is a pointer root to a wide array node. A cache-trie state \( S \) is the configuration of nodes reachable from the root by following the pointers of the nodes. A key \( k \) is contained in the state \( S \) if and only if a single node \( sn \) with the key \( k \) is reachable in the corresponding configuration. We define the relation hasKey(an, k) for a node \( n \) and the key \( k \) as follows:

\[\text{hasKey}(an, k) \iff \begin{cases} 
\text{sn} = \text{child}(an, k) \in \text{SNode} \land \text{key}(sn) = k \\
\text{cn} = \text{child}(an, k) \in \text{ANode} \land \text{hasKey}(cn, k)
\end{cases}\]

**Definition B.4** (Validity). Let \( \epsilon \) denote an empty sequence of bits, and \( an_{x,y} \) denote an ANode. A cache-trie that respects the following invariants is called valid:

\begin{align*}
\text{INV1 root} &= an_{0,\epsilon} \in \text{ANode} \land \text{length}(\text{root}) = 16 \\
\text{INV2 child} & \in \{an_{\ell+\epsilon, i} \in \text{null} \} \cup \text{SNode} \\
\text{INV3 child} & \in \{sn \in \text{SNode} \Rightarrow \text{hash(key(sn)) = p \cdot i \cdot s}\}
\end{align*}

**Definition B.5** (Abstract Set). An abstract set \( A \) is a mapping \( A : K \rightarrow \{\top, \bot\} \), where \( K \) is the set of all keys, and which is true for the keys that are present in the abstract set. Abstract set operations are:

- lookup\((A, k)\) = \( \top \iff k \in A \)
- insert\((A, k)\) = \( A' : k \in A' \land \forall k', k' \in A \Rightarrow k' \in A' \)
- remove\((A, k)\) = \( A' : k \notin A' \land \forall k' \neq k', k' \in A \Rightarrow k' \in A' \)

**Definition B.6** (Consistency). A cache-trie state \( S \) is consistent with an abstract set \( A \) if and only if \( \forall k, k \in A \iff \text{hasKey}(\text{root}, k) \). The cache-trie lookup on the state \( S \) is consistent with an abstract set lookup if and only if for all keys \( k \) it returns the value lookup\((A, k)\), where \( A \) is consistent with \( S \). The cache-trie insert and remove on the state \( S \) are consistent with an abstract set insert and remove, respectively, if an only if for all keys \( k \) they change the cache-trie to a new state \( S' \), such that \( S \) is consistent with an abstract set \( A \), and \( S' \) is consistent with an abstract set \( A' \), and insert\((A, k) = A' \), and remove\((A, k) = A' \), respectively.

Now that we have the basic definitions in place, we can state and prove the safety property.

**Theorem B.7** (Safety). At all times \( t \), a cache-trie is valid and consistent with some abstract set \( A \). Cache-trie operations are always consistent with abstract set operations.

Before proving this theorem, we state and prove several lemmas.

**Definition B.8** (Frozen Nodes). A single node \( sn \) is frozen if itstxn field is set to FSNode. The FVNode is always frozen. An array node \( an \) is frozen if all entries point to frozen nodes.

**Lemma B.9** (Single Transaction Change). A single node’s txn field is initially set to NoTtxn, and changes its value at most once.

**Proof.** By inspecting the source code, we see that every SNode is created with txn set to NoTtxn, and every CAS on txn has NoTtxn as the expected value. The claim follows.

**Lemma B.10** (End of Life). If an array node an is frozen at some time \( t_0 \), then \( \forall t > t_0 \) none of the entries of an change their value. If a single node \( sn \) gets removed from its parent at some time \( t_0 \), then its txn field was not set to NoTtxn at time \( t_0 \).
Proof. From the definition of a frozen array node, at $t_0$ all of its entries must be either a FNodeln, FNode or an SNode with the txn field set to FSNodeln. Next, note that assignments to array node entries occur in CAS instructions. By inspecting these CAS instructions in the pseudocode, we can see that the expected value is never FNodeln or FNode. Finally, note that when the expected value is an SNode sn (lines 17, 32 and 37 in Figure 3), the new value for the respective CAS is equal to sn’s txn field. Assume that such a CAS succeeds. By Lemma B.9, txn must be FSNodeln, since it can change at most once. That is a contradiction, since none of those CAS instructions has FSNodeln as the expected value. The argument applies inductively if an points to nested ANodeln.

For the claim about the single node sn, note that only the CAS instructions in lines 17, 32, and 37 of Figure 3, and the CAS in line 20 of Figure 4, remove a single node from its parent. All of those instructions first check, that txn is not set to NoTxn. From Lemma B.9, txn could not have changed back to NoTxn after the check, so the claim follows.

Lemma B.11 (Freezing). Let a call to the freeze subroutine return at some time $t_0$. Then, the array node passed to freeze is frozen at time $t_0$.

Proof. Assume that the claim holds inductively for every nested ANodeln, and observe an entry at a particular index i. By analyzing the different cases, we can see that the index i gets changed at the end of the loop iteration in freeze only if the respective entry is frozen. Hence, by the time that the loop in freeze completes, the respective array node is frozen.

Lemma B.12 (Unreachable Frozen Nodes). Let some CAS instruction make an array node an unreachable at time $t_0$. Then, that an was frozen at time $t_0$.

Proof. The CAS instruction that makes an array node unreachable is in line 7 of the completeExpansion subroutine in Figure 4. From Lemma B.11, we know that the expected value of the CAS instruction in line 7 is a frozen node.

Lemma B.13 (Reachable Nodes). If at some time $t_0$ a thread reads a node child from an array node an in line 4 of Figure 2 or in line 4 of Figure 3, then child is reachable at $t_0$.

Proof. Assume the opposite – that the node child is not reachable at $t_0$. Then, by Lemma B.12, an was frozen at $t_0$. But that is a contradiction, since at $t_0$ the thread read an array node, not an FNode.

Lemma B.14 (Presence). If a thread reads a single node sn at some time $t_0$ from an array node an, in line 4 of Figure 2 or in line 4 of Figure 3, then the relation hasKey(root, key(sn)) holds at the time $t_0$.

Proof. From Lemma B.13, we know that the single node sn was reachable at time $t_0$. The claim follows from the definition of the hasKey relation.

Definition B.15 (Path). A path $\pi(h)$ for some hash-code $h$ is a sequence of nodes from the root to a leaf, such that:

- The first node in the path is $an_{0,e} = root$.
- $\forall an_{\ell,p} \in \pi(h)$, if $h = p \cdot i \cdot s$ and child(an, i) = cn, then the next element of the path is cn.
- $\forall an_{\ell,p} \in \pi(h)$, if $h = p \cdot i \cdot s$ and child(an, i) = null, then an is the last element of the path.

Lemma B.16 (Path Form). Let the cache-trie be in a valid state $\mathcal{S}$. The path $\pi(h)$ for some hash-code $h = i_0 \cdot i_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot i_n \cdot s$ is finite and has the form $an_{0,e} an_{4,h_1} \ldots an_{n,i_n} \ldots i_n x$, where x is either empty or sn $\in$ SNode.

Proof. Directly from the definition and the invariants of the valid cache-trie state.

Lemma B.17 (Absence I). Let hash(k) = $p \cdot i \cdot s$ for some key k. Assume that at some time $t_0$ a thread is searching for a key k and it reads null from an array node $an_{\ell,p}$ in line 4 of Figure 2 or in line 4 of Figure 3. Then hasKey(root, k) does not hold at time $t_0$.

Proof. By the inductive hypothesis, cache-trie was valid and consistent at the time $t_0$. By Lemma B.13, $an_{\ell,p}$ is reachable at time $t_0$. Now, consider the path $an_{0,e} \rightarrow an_{4,h_0} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow an_{\ell,p}$ consisting of nodes that the thread traversed while searching for k, where hash(k) = $i_0 \cdot i_1 \cdot \ldots \cdot i_{\ell} \cdot s = p \cdot s$. By Lemma B.13, none of those nodes could have been removed from the cache-trie between the time they were read and the time $t_0$. Therefore, by Lemma B.16, if the cache-trie state contains the key k, then the path to the respective single node sn should have the prefix $an_{0,e} \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow an_{\ell,p}$. To show this, assume by contradiction that there is a key sn that does not have this path prefix. This assumption violates the inductive hypothesis that the cache-trie is valid and consistent.

Lemma B.18 (Absence II). Assume that at some time $t_0$ a thread is searching for a key k and it reads single node sn such that $k \neq key(sn)$. Then, the relation hasKey(root, k) does not hold at $t_0$.

Proof. Similar to Lemma B.17.

Lemma B.19 (Fastening). Assume that the cache-trie is valid and consistent with some abstract set.

1. Assume that the CAS instruction in line 32 (Figure 3) succeeds with the expected value old at some time $t_1$ after old was read from the entry pos of the array node cur in line 4 at time $t_0 < t_1$. Then, $\forall t \in (t_0, t_1)$, the relation hasKey(root, k) does not hold.

2. Assume that the CAS instruction in line 17 (Figure 3) succeeds with the expected value old at some time $t_1$.
Lemma B.20 (Consistency Changes). Assume that the cache-trie is valid and consistent with some abstract set \( A \). Then, CAS instructions from Lemma B.19 induce a change into a valid state that is consistent with the abstract set semantics.

Proof. Follows directly from Lemma B.19 and the definition of consistency. □

Lemma B.21 (Housekeeping). Let the cache-trie be valid and consistent with some abstract set \( A \). Assume that one of the CAS instructions in lines 16, 23, and 31 of Figure 3, or in lines 5, 7, 14, 18, and 19 of Figure 4, succeed. Then, the cache-trie remains valid and consistent with \( A \) after those instructions succeed.

Proof. From the definition of the hasKey relation, it is straightforward to see that node of these CAS instructions are state-changing.

□

Corollary B.22 (Invariant Preservation). Cache-trie invariants are always preserved.

Proof. From Lemmas B.20 and B.21. □

Proof of Theorem B.7. From Lemmas B.14, B.17, B.18, B.20 and B.21, and Corollary B.22.

□

Theorem B.23 (Linearizability). The operations lookup and insert are linearizable.

Proof. An operation is linearizable if, from the perspective of all the threads in the system, there is a single point in time during the execution of that operation at which the cache-trie changes consistency.

We already identified the CAS instructions that change the consistency in Lemma B.20. We also identified the CAS instructions that do not change the consistency in Lemma B.21. It remains to show that during an execution of any operation, there is at most one successful state-changing CAS instruction that is consistent with the abstract set semantics of that operation. We consider all successful state-changing CAS instructions in insert, and show that they either induce a state-change of a concurrent operation, or they are the last successful state-changing CAS instructions in the current operation.

- It is easy to see that following a successful CAS in lines 7, 17, and 32 (Figure 3), the respective insert invocation ends in a finite number of steps without running any other CAS instruction.
- Successful CAS instructions in lines in line 37 (Figure 3) and 20 (Figure 4) induce a state-change in a concurrent insert operation, since they must occur after the successful CAS in lines 16 or 31, and before the failed CAS in lines 17 or 32, respectively.

Finally, note that no code path in insert ends the operation without at least one such successful CAS operation. □

Theorem B.24 (Lock-Freedom). The operations lookup and insert are lock-free.

Lemma B.25. In each operation, there is a finite number of steps between two CAS instructions, a CAS instruction and the entry point or a return point.
Proof. The only while loop in the pseudocode is in the freeze subroutine, which has a finite upper bound, and executes a CAS whenever it decr eases its counter.

Assume, therefore, that there exists an infinite number of execution steps caused by recursion in $\text{inser } \ell$. The recursion never decreases the cache-trie level, and retains the same level if and only if a CAS fails. We know from Lemma B.16 that each path in the cache-trie is finite, so the level cannot grow indefinitely. Thus, there cannot be an infinite number of execution steps without a CAS.

Lemma B.26. If any CAS instruction $C_0$ fails, then there was a concurrent successful CAS instruction $C_1$ on the same memory location that executed between the time $t$, when the expected value for $C_0$ was read, and the time $t_0 > t$, when $C_0$ failed.

Proof. This can be easily proven by examining all the CAS instructions and their expected values.

Corollary B.27. From Lemmas B.25 and B.26, it follows that there is a finite number of execution steps between any two state changes.

A change in the cache-trie state does not imply a consistency change. For example, when some operation expands a narrow node into a wide node, the same set of keys remain in the cache-trie. We therefore need to bound the number of subsequent state changes that do not cause a consistency change – we will show that, eventually, a state change must also change the abstract set that the cache-trie is consistent with.

Definition B.28 (Transaction Potential). Given a cache-trie in some state $\mathcal{S}$, the transaction potential $P(\mathcal{S})$ is the number of single nodes whose $\text{txn}$ field is set to $\text{Notxn}$.

Definition B.29 (Expansion Potential). Given a cache-trie in some state $\mathcal{S}$, the expansion potential $E(\mathcal{S})$ is the number of narrow array nodes.

Lemma B.30. Non-consistency-changing CAS instructions always either decrease the expansion potential or decrease the transaction potential.

Proof. Straightforward, by enumerating the CASes.

Lemma B.31. Consider the consistency-changing CAS instructions, and all CAS instructions that cause a decrease in $P(\mathcal{S}) + E(\mathcal{S})$. There is a finite number of steps between two such instructions.

Proof. Assume that consistency-changing CAS instructions never occur. By inspecting the remaining state-changing CAS instructions, we see that each of them either expands a node (i.e. decreases $E(\mathcal{S})$) or it announces a transaction (i.e. decreases $P(\mathcal{S})$). Therefore, after a finite number of steps, $P(\mathcal{S}) + E(\mathcal{S}) = 0$. This is a contradiction, since now a consistency-changing CAS must occur.

Proof of Theorem B.24. From Corollary B.27 and Lemmas B.30 and B.31 – since in any cache-trie state, there is a finite number of unfinished transactions and narrow nodes, there is a finite number of steps between consistency changes. By Theorem B.23, each consistency change corresponds to a completed operation.

Definition B.32 (Cache). A cache node is a node that holds a pointer to a parent cache, and an integer array for tracking cache misses. A cache array is an array of length $2^\ell + 1$, that contains a cache node at the index 0, and the remaining entries are either $\text{SNodes}$ or $\text{ANodes}$. We say that such a cache array is at level $\ell$. A cache is a pointer that is either null or points to a cache array.

Lemma B.33 (Cache Level). A cache array at level $\ell$ contains pointers to nodes that are either frozen or have $\text{txn}$ different than $\text{Notxn}$, or are reachable and at level $\ell$ of the cache-trie (except at the index 0).

Proof. Consider the only write to the cache in line 13 of Figure 7. The write is preceded by a check that the cache level corresponds the cache level. Any $\text{SNode}$ or $\text{ANode}$ in the cache-trie that is made unreachable must be frozen by Lemma B.12, and frozen nodes are never made reachable once they become unreachable. Therefore, a reachable node remains at level $\ell$ of the cache.

Theorem B.34 (Cache Safety). Both fast insert and fast lookup are consistent with the abstract set semantics. Moreover, fast insert and fast lookup are linearizable and lock-free.

Proof. We start by considering consistency. From Lemma B.33, we know that a non-frozen node or a single node whose $\text{txn}$ is different than $\text{Notxn}$ is reachable in the cache-trie.

Assume that the fast lookup or fast insert calls the normal lookup or insert, e.g. in line 39. Since the respective array node is reachable, safety and linearizability follow immediately by the same reasoning as Theorems B.7 and B.23. Since the total number of execution steps is smaller compared to an execution in which the search started at the root, lock-freedom follows as well, by Theorem B.24.

Assume that the fast lookup returns a value in line 31, or null in line 32 of Figure 6. This is preceded by the read of the $\text{txn}$ field at some time $t_0$, in line 29. Since $\text{txn}$ is $\text{Notxn}$ at $t_0$, the corresponding node is reachable, and by Lemma B.16, the relation $\text{hasKey}$ must hold. Therefore, fast lookup is safe. The read of the $\text{txn}$ field is the linearization point, so fast lookup is linearizable. Since it takes a finite number of steps to reach that point, fast lookup is also lock-free.

Finally, consider the case in which the node read from the cache is frozen or has $\text{txn}$ different than $\text{Notxn}$. In this case, a fast lookup or a fast insert both fall back to a normal, so all three properties hold, by Theorems B.7, B.23 and B.24.

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