# Linear Probing and Graphs 

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## Dedicated to Philippe Patrick Michel Flajolet


#### Abstract

Mallows and Riordan showed in 1968 that labeled trees with a small number of inversions are related to labeled graphs that are connected and sparse. Wright enumerated sparse connected graphs in 1977, and Kreweras related the inversions of trees to the so-called "parking problem" in 1980. A combination of these three results leads to a surprisingly simple analysis of the behavior of hashing by linear probing, including higher moments of the cost of successful search.


The well-known algorithm of linear probing for $n$ items in $m>n$ cells can be described as follows: Begin with all cells $(0,1, \ldots, m-1)$ empty; then for $1 \leq k \leq n$, insert the $k$ th item into the first nonempty cell in the sequence $h_{k},\left(h_{k}+1\right) \bmod m,\left(h_{k}+2\right) \bmod m, \ldots$, where $h_{k}$ is a random integer in the range $0 \leq h_{k}<m$. (See, for example, [4, Algorithm 6.4L].)

The purpose of this note is to exhibit a surprisingly simple solution to a problem that appears in a recent book by Sedgewick and Flajolet [9]:

Exercise 8.39 Use the symbolic method to derive the EGF of the number of probes required by linear probing in a successful search, for fixed $M$.

The authors admitted that they did not know how to solve the problem, in spite of the fact that a "symbolic method" was the key to the analysis of all the other algorithms in their book. Indeed, the second moment of the distribution of successful search by linear probing was unknown when [9] was published in 1996.

If the $k$ th item is inserted into position $q_{k}$, the quantity $d=\sum_{k=1}^{n}\left(q_{k}-h_{k}\right) \bmod m$ is the total displacement of the items from their hash addresses. The average number of probes needed in a successful search is then $1+d / n$. Our goal in the following is to study the probability distribution of $d$ as a function of the table size $m$ and the number of items $n$.

1. Generating functions. Let $D_{m n}(x)=\sum x^{d}$, summed over all $m^{n}$ possible hash sequences $h_{1} \ldots h_{n}$, and let $F_{m n}(x)$ be the same sum restricted to hash functions that are confined, in the sense that linear probing with $h_{1} \ldots h_{n}$ will leave cell 0 unoccupied.

Given $h_{1} \ldots h_{n}$, the $m$ hash sequences $\left(\left(h_{1}+j\right) \bmod m \ldots\left(h_{n}+j\right) \bmod m\right)$ for $0 \leq j<m$ all lead to the same total displacement $d$. And exactly $(m-n) / m$ of them will be confined, in the sense above. Therefore $D_{m n}(x)=\frac{m}{m-n} F_{m n}(x)$, and the probability generating function for $d$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{D_{m n}(x)}{D_{m n}(1)}=\frac{F_{m n}(x)}{F_{m n}(1)} . \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The quantity $F_{m n}(x)$ is easier to deal with than $D_{m n}(x)$, since linear probing does not "wrap around" when the hash sequence is confined. We obviously have $0<h_{k} \leq q_{k}<m$ in a confined sequence; therefore remainders $\bmod m$ are not actually taken and the behavior is simpler.

The special case of confined linear probing in which $m=n+1$ has been called the parking problem [5], because we can think of $n$ cars that try to park in $n$ consecutive spaces, where the $k$ th car starts its search in position $h_{k}$. The number of sequences $h_{1} \ldots h_{n}$ such that all cars are successfully parked is the number of confined hash sequences, namely $\frac{m-n}{m} m^{n}=(n+1)^{n-1}$, when $m=n+1$. We will write

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{n}(x)=F_{n+1, n}(x) \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for the generating function of total displacement in the parking problem.
The general case is clearly related to the special case $m=n+1$ by

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{n+r, n}(x)=\sum_{n_{1}+n_{2}+\cdots+n_{r}=n} \frac{n!}{n_{1}!n_{2}!\ldots n_{r}!} F_{n_{1}}(x) F_{n_{2}}(x) \ldots F_{n_{r}}(x), \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

because every confined hash sequence leaves $r$ cells

$$
\left\{0, n_{1}+1, n_{1}+n_{2}+2, \ldots, n_{1}+\cdots+n_{r-1}+r-1\right\}
$$

empty, and defines parking sequences on blocks of sizes $n_{1}+1, n_{2}+1, \ldots, n_{r}+1$ for some nonnegative integers $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}$. The number of ways to fit such subsequences into $h_{1} \ldots h_{n}$ is the multinomial coefficient $n!/ n_{1}!n_{2}!\ldots n_{r}!$.

Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(x, z)=\sum_{n \geq 0} F_{n}(x) \frac{z^{n}}{n!} \tag{1.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

generate the displacements of successfully parked cars. Equation (1.3) tells us that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{F_{m n}(x)}{n!}=\left[z^{n}\right] F(x, z)^{m-n} ; \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

hence the bivariate generating function $F(x, z)$ is the key to the distribution of total displacement.
2. Solution to the parking problem. Suppose $h_{1} \ldots h_{n}$ is a confined hash sequence for the special case $m=n+1$, with $n \geq 1$. This holds if and only if $h_{n} \geq 1$ and $h_{1} \ldots h_{n-1}$ leaves cells 0 and $k$ empty for some $k$ in the range $h_{n} \leq k \leq n$. The sequence $h_{1} \ldots h_{n-1}$ then decomposes into parking subsequences for $k-1$ and $n-k$ cars.

Therefore, by arguing as in (1.3) above, we see that the polynomials $F_{n}(x)$ satisfy the recurrence

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{n}(x)=\sum_{k=1}^{n}\binom{n-1}{k-1}\left(1+x+\cdots+x^{k-1}\right) F_{k-1}(x) F_{n-k}(x) . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(The factor $1+x+\cdots+x^{k-1}$ corresponds to the displacement of the $n$th car, while $\binom{n-1}{k-1}$ is the number of ways to mix the two subsequences.) The first few values are

$$
\begin{align*}
& F_{0}(x)=1 \\
& F_{1}(x)=1 \\
& F_{2}(x)=2+x \\
& F_{3}(x)=6+6 x+3 x^{2}+x^{3} . \tag{2.2}
\end{align*}
$$

Recurrence (2.1) can be put into a more user-friendly form if we write

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{n}(x)=(x-1)^{n} F_{n}(x) \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $A_{0}(x)=1$, and for $n>0$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
A_{n}(x)=\sum_{k=1}^{n}\binom{n-1}{k-1}\left(x^{k}-1\right) A_{k-1}(x) A_{n-k}(x) \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

For fixed $x$, this recurrence can be analyzed by using the exponential generating functions

$$
\begin{align*}
& A(z)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A_{n}(x) \frac{z^{n}}{n!}  \tag{2.5}\\
& B(z)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_{n}(x) \frac{z^{n}}{n!} \tag{2.6}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{n}(x)=\left(x^{n}-1\right) A_{n-1}(x) \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

because (2.4) is then equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
A(z)=e^{B(z)} \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

by Euler's well-known formula for power series exponentiation (see, for example, exercise 4.7-4 in [3]).

Now (2.6) and (2.7) tell us that

$$
\begin{equation*}
B(z)=C(x z)-C(z) \tag{2.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
C(z) & =\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_{n}(x) \frac{z^{n}}{n!}  \tag{2.10}\\
C_{n}(x) & =A_{n-1}(x) \tag{2.11}
\end{align*}
$$

and we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
C^{\prime}(z)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_{n}(x) \frac{z^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A_{n}(x) \frac{z^{n}}{n!}=A(z) \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

In other words $C^{\prime}(z)=e^{C(x z)-C(z)}$; and if we set

$$
\begin{equation*}
G(z)=e^{C(z)} \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

we find

$$
\begin{equation*}
G^{\prime}(z)=C^{\prime}(z) G(z)=e^{C(x z)}=G(x z) \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

But this functional relation is easy to solve, for if we set

$$
\begin{equation*}
G(z)=\sum G_{n}(x) \frac{z^{n}}{n!} \tag{2.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

the relation $G(x z)=G^{\prime}(z)$ says simply that $x^{n} G_{n}(x)=G_{n+1}(x)$. Therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
G(z)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n(n-1) / 2} \frac{z^{n}}{n!}, \tag{2.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

and we have deduced that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(x-1)^{n-1} F_{n-1}(x) \frac{z^{n}}{n!}=C(z)=\ln \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n(n-1) / 2} \frac{z^{n}}{n!} \tag{2.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

3. Connected graphs. We are interested in the behavior of $F_{n}(x)$ near $x=1$, so it is convenient to write $x=1+w$. Then (2.17) becomes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} w^{n-1} F_{n-1}(1+w) \frac{z^{n}}{n!}=\ln \sum_{n=0}^{\infty}(1+w)^{n(n-1) / 2} \frac{z^{n}}{n!} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Aha-the right side of this equation is well known as the exponential generating function for labeled connected graphs [8]. Thus we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
w^{n-1} F_{n-1}(1+w)=C_{n}(1+w)=\sum w^{\operatorname{edges}(G)} \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the sum is over all connected graphs on $n$ labeled vertices.
From this interpretation of $C_{n}(w)$, we see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{n}(1+w)=C_{n, n+1}+w C_{n+1, n+1}+w^{2} C_{n+2, n+1}+\cdots, \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $C_{m, n}$ is the number of connected labeled graphs on $n$ vertices and $m$ edges. In particular, $C_{n, n+1}$ is $(n+1)^{n-1}$, the number of labeled trees on $n+1$ vertices; this checks with the value of $F_{n}(1)$ that we already knew.

## 4. Sparse connected graphs. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{k}(z)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_{n-1+k, n} \frac{z^{n}}{n!} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

be the generating function for $k$-cyclic components of a labeled graph; thus $W_{0}(z)$ generates unrooted trees, $W_{1}(z)$ generates connected components that have exactly one cycle, $W_{2}(z)$ generates bicyclic components, and in general $W_{k}(z)$ generates connected graphs that have $k-1$ more edges than vertices. From (3.3) and (1.4) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(1+w, z)=W_{0}^{\prime}(z)+w W_{1}^{\prime}(z)+w^{2} W_{2}^{\prime}(z)+\cdots . \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

E. M. Wright [11] showed how to compute the $W$ 's systematically, and proved that they are all expressible in terms of the tree function

$$
\begin{equation*}
T(z)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{n-1} \frac{z^{n}}{n!}, \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

which generates rooted trees. (See [2] for simplifications and extensions of Wright's results. In that paper, $W_{0}(z), W_{1}(z)$, and $W_{2}(z)$ are called respectively $\hat{U}(z), \hat{V}(z)$, and $\left.\hat{W}(z).\right)$.

The known results about $W_{k}(z)$ for small $k$ show that we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(1+w, z)=\frac{T(z)}{z} f(w, T(z)) \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $f(w, t)$ has the following leading terms:

$$
\begin{align*}
f(w, t)=1 & +w \frac{t^{2}}{2(1-t)^{2}} \\
& +w^{2}\left(\frac{5}{24} \frac{t^{4}}{(1-t)^{5}}(5-2 t)+\frac{1}{4} \frac{t^{3}}{(1-t)^{4}}(4-2 t)\right) \\
& +w^{3}\left(\frac{5}{16} \frac{t^{7}}{(1-t)^{8}}(8-2 t)+\frac{55}{48} \frac{t^{6}}{(1-t)^{7}}(7-2 t)\right. \\
& +\frac{73}{48} \frac{t^{5}}{(1-t)^{6}}(6-2 t)+\frac{3}{4} \frac{t^{4}}{(1-t)^{5}}(5-2 t) \\
& \left.+\frac{1}{24} \frac{t^{3}}{(1-t)^{4}}(4-2 t)\right) \\
& +w^{4}\left(\frac{1105}{1152} \frac{t^{10}}{(1-t)^{11}}(11-2 t)+\cdots\right) \\
& +\cdots \tag{4.5}
\end{align*}
$$

(See formula (8.13) in [2], and use the fact that $z T^{\prime}(z)=T(z) /(1-T(z))$.)
5. Application to linear probing. We can now put everything together and calculate factorial moments of the distribution of total displacement when $n$ items are inserted into $m$ cells by linear probing. The tree function has a wonderful property that leads to considerable simplification, thanks to Lagrange's inversion formula and the identity $T(z)=z e^{T(z)}$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
{\left[z^{n}\right] F(1} & +w, z)^{m-n} \\
& =\left[z^{n}\right] \frac{T(z)^{m-n} f(w, T(z))^{m-n}}{z^{m-n}} \\
& =\left[z^{m}\right] T(z)^{m-n} f(w, T(z))^{m-n} \\
& =\left[t^{n}\right] e^{m t}(1-t) f(w, t)^{m-n} . \tag{5.1}
\end{align*}
$$

(See [3], third edition, exercise 4.7-16, for a simple algorithmic proof of Lagrange's formula.)

We will need to use the functions

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{r}(m, n)=\binom{r}{0}+\binom{r+1}{1} \frac{n}{m}+\binom{r+2}{2} \frac{n(n-1)}{m^{2}}+\cdots={ }_{2} F_{0}(r+1,-n ; ;-1 / m), \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

which are known to appear in the analysis of linear probing (see [4], Theorem K); they have the simple generating function

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Q_{r}(m, n) \frac{t^{n}}{n!}=\frac{e^{t}}{(1-t / m)^{r+1}} . \tag{5.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The formulas above now allow us to compute the expected total displacement as follows, using (5.3) and (4.5):

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\left[w z^{n}\right] F(1+w, z)^{m-n}}{\left[z^{n}\right] F(1, z)^{m-n}} \\
& \quad=\frac{\left[t^{n}\right] e^{m t}(1-t)(m-n) t^{2} /\left(2(1-t)^{2}\right)}{\left[t^{n}\right] e^{m t}(1-t)} \\
& \quad=\frac{\frac{1}{2}(m-n)\left[t^{n}\right] e^{m t} t(1 /(1-t)-1)}{m^{n} / n!-m^{n-1} /(n-1)!} \\
& \quad=\frac{\frac{1}{2}(m-n) m^{n-1}\left(Q_{0}(m, n-1)-1\right) /(n-1)!}{(m-n) m^{n-1} / n!} \\
& \quad=\frac{n}{2}\left(Q_{0}(m, n-1)-1\right) . \tag{5.4}
\end{align*}
$$

This agrees with the known result that a successful search requires $\frac{1}{2}\left(Q_{0}(m, n-1)+1\right)$ probes, on the average [4, Theorem K].

Moreover, a similar calculation gives

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\left[w^{2} z^{n}\right] F(1+w, z)^{m-n}}{\left[z^{n}\right] F(1, z)^{m-n}} \\
& \quad=\frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{24 m^{2}}\left(15 Q_{3}(m, n-3)+(4+3 m-3 n) Q_{2}(m, n-3)\right. \\
& \left.\quad+(5-3 m+3 n) Q_{1}(m, n-3)\right) . \tag{5.5}
\end{align*}
$$

This is the expected value of $\binom{d}{2}$, from which of course we obtain the expected value of $d^{2}$ by doubling and adding (5.4). All moments can in principle be obtained in this way, although the expressions get more and more complicated.

Formulas such as (5.5) can be rewritten in many ways using the identities

$$
\begin{align*}
r Q_{r}(m, n) & =m Q_{r-2}(m, n)-(m-n-r) Q_{r-1}(m, n) ;  \tag{5.6}\\
r Q_{r}(m, n) & =m Q_{r-1}(m, n+1)-m Q_{r-1}(m, n) ;  \tag{5.7}\\
n Q_{r}(m, n-1) & =m Q_{r}(m, n)-m Q_{r-1}(m, n) . \tag{5.8}
\end{align*}
$$

However, none of these transformations seems to convert (5.5) into a substantially simpler formula.
6. Related work. Germain Kreweras [6] discussed the polynomials $F_{n}(x)$ at length, showing that they are the generating functions for "suites majeures," which are equivalent to parking sequences with displacements enumerated. He also showed that $F_{n}(-1)$ is the number of "up-down" permutations, and that $F_{n}(x)$ is the generating function for inversions in a labeled tree of $n+1$ nodes. The concept of inversions in trees was first defined by Colin Mallows and John Riordan [7], who established their relation to connected graphs. Thus, all of the main ideas of sections $2,3,4$ were already in the literature, waiting to be applied to the analysis of linear probing.

A one-to-one correspondence that maps labeled trees on $\{0,1, \ldots, n\}$ with $k$ inversions bijectively into parking sequences on $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ with $k$ displacements appears in [4, second edition, answer to exercise 6.4-31]. A beautiful construction that uses depth-first search to establish (3.2), by relating each $n$-node tree with $k$ inversions to $2^{k}$ connected graphs having $w^{n}(1+w)^{k}$ edges, was found by Ira Gessel and Da-Lun Wang [1]. Therefore the relation between linear probing and graphs can be made quite explicit, although there is apparently no really simple connection.

The expected value of $d^{2}$ was first obtained by Alfredo Viola and Patricio Poblete [10], who discovered a formula equivalent to (5.5) about one week before the author had independently carried out the calculations above. Their starting point was equivalent to the symmetry-breaking strategy of section 1 ; their other methods provide an interesting alternative to those of the present note.
7. Personal remarks. The problem of linear probing is near and dear to my heart, because I found it immensely satisfying to deduce (5.4) when I first studied the problem in 1962. Linear probing was the first algorithm that I was able to analyze successfully, and the experience had a significant effect on my future career as a computer scientist. None of the methods available in 1962 were powerful enough to deduce the expected square displacement, much less the higher moments, so it is an even greater pleasure to be able to derive such results today from other work that has enriched the field of combinatorial mathematics during a period of 35 years.

It is also gratifying to know that the field of algorithmic analysis has matured to the point where researchers in different parts of the world are now able to resolve such difficult problems working independently.

The reader will note that Sedgewick and Flajolet's exercise 8.39 has not truly been solved, strictly speaking, because we have not found the EGF $\sum_{n=0}^{m-1} F_{m n}(x) z^{n} / n$ ! as requested. However, Sedgewick and Flajolet should be happy with any analysis of linear probing that uses symbolic methods associated with generating functions in an informative way.

I thank the referees for their perceptive remarks and valuable suggestions.
Finally, I wish to pay tribute to my secretary of more than twenty-five years, Phyllis Astrid Benson Winkler, who is retiring this year. The present paper is the last of more than one hundred that she has typed and typeset beautifully for me at Stanford.

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