

Enumeration of planar maps -

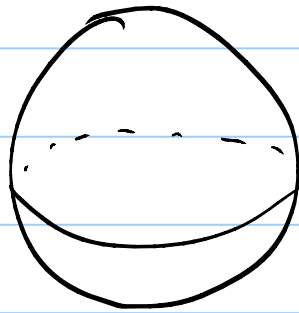
Titre de la note

12/03/2015

Introduction

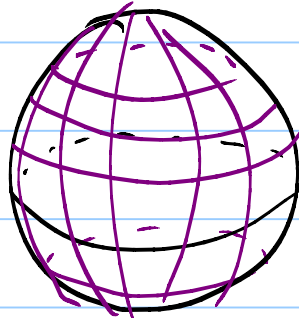
Imagine a network of particles that spans a surface, like the sphere.

What is a good model for this?



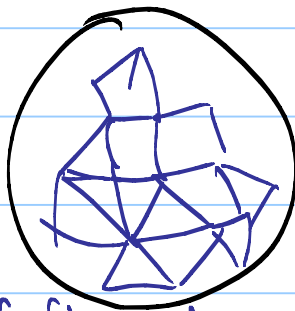
Regular mesh?

not realistic



(but regular lattices are widely studied in stat. physics)

- We would like a structure with more irregularities...



→ maps form a good discrete model for surfaces

① Definitions

1 - Embeddings

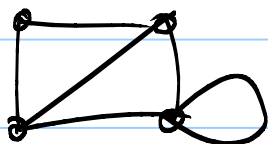
Drawing a graph onto a surface in such a way that two edges never cross each other (except potentially at their endpoints) defines an embedding of the graph.

Only some graphs can be embedded in the sphere: these graphs are said to be planar

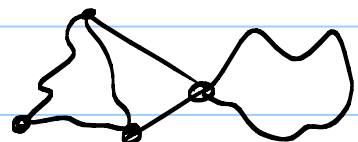
(R.K.: A graph can be embedded in the sphere iff it is planar.
Reason: Stereographic projection)

Def A planar map is an embedding of a connected and planar graph onto the sphere, considered up to continuous deformation.

Ex

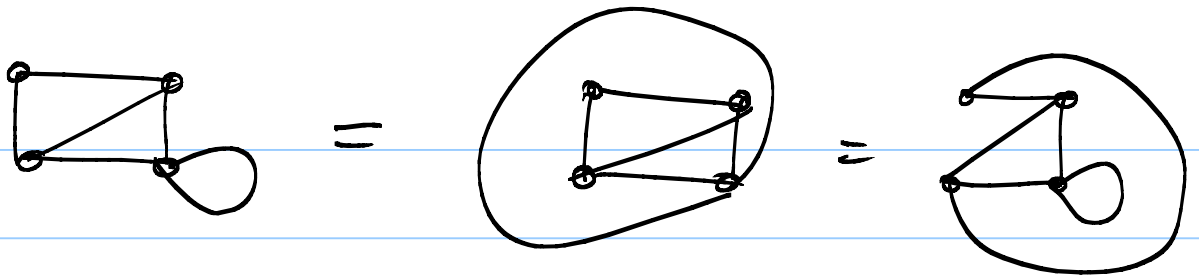


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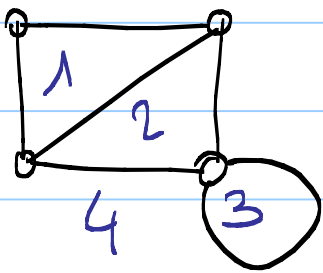




Maps contain more information than graphs, e.g. the notion of faces -

A face is a connected component of the sphere minus the embedding.
ASK

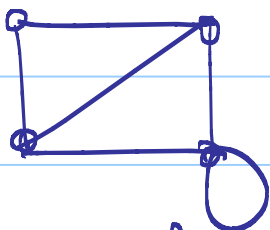
Ex



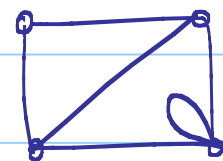
→ 4 faces

4 is the exterior face

A face has a degree: it is the number of incident edges corners (of later definition)



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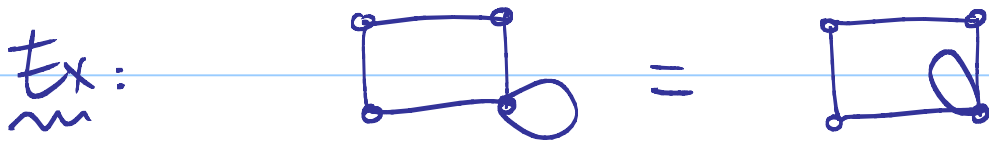


the degree of exterior face is 5

no face of degree 5

2. Rootings

These objects have a lot of underlying symmetries



In order to kill these symmetries, we root the maps.

Def When we cut an edge in its middle, we get two half-edges.

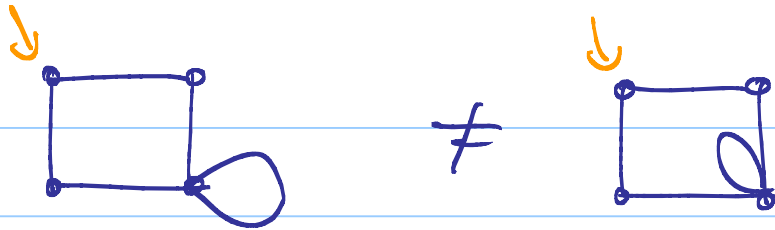
A corner is a pair of two consecutive half-edges



A map is rooted if a corner of the map is marked.

This corner is called the root of the map.

Ex:

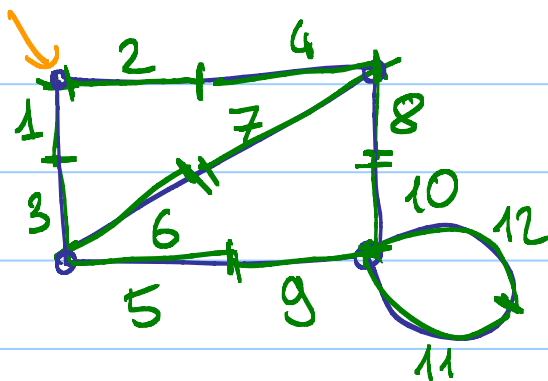


Why rooting kills symmetry?

i.e. under a certain convention

When we root a map, we can canonically order the half-edges.

For instance, we can order them via a Breadth First Search, starting with the half-edge that follows the root in a counterclockwise order.



Prop

let M and M' be two rooted planar maps with m edges -

For $i \in \{1, \dots, 2m\}$, we denote by $h_M(i)$ the half-edge labeled by i via the previous BFS.

M and M' are equal iff for $(i, j) \in \{1, \dots, 2m\}^2$ the equivalences

1 - $(h_M(i), h_M(j))$ is an edge in M

\iff

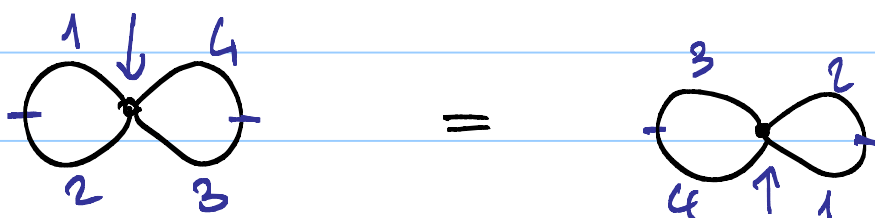
$(h_{M'}(i), h_{M'}(j))$ is an edge in M'

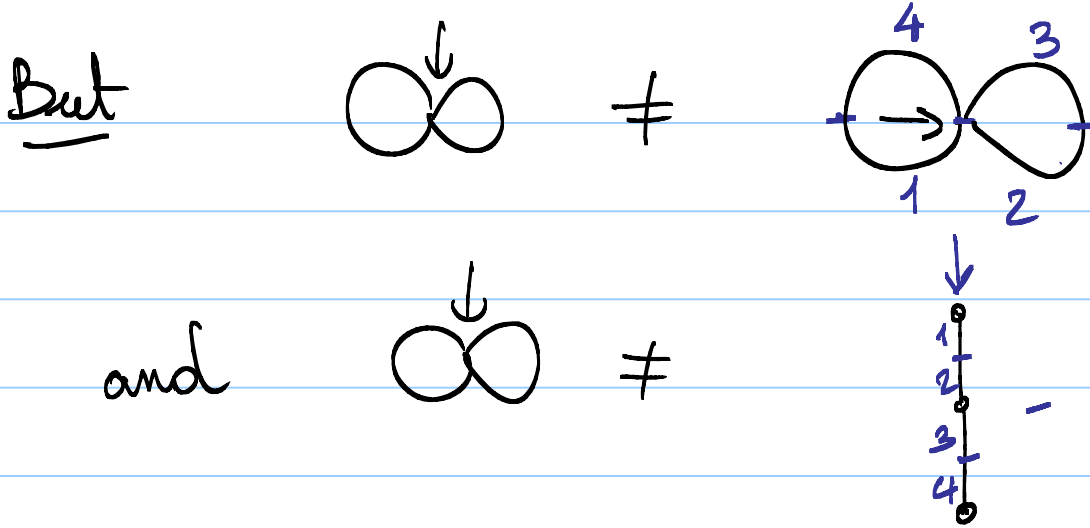
2 - $h_M(i)$ and $h_M(j)$ are incident to a same vertex in M

\iff

$h_{M'}(i)$ and $h_{M'}(j)$ are incident to a same vertex in M' .

Ex





From now on, every map is rooted.

Is rooting too abusive / too artificial?
No and No.

→ Natural problems with maps have an anchor point (as an origin, a position in space).

→ The enumeration of unrooted maps lies on the enumeration of rooted maps (of Polya enumeration)

3 - Counting planar maps

a. Small values

There are 2 planar maps with one edge:



Exercise ① How many planar maps with two edges?

② How many planar maps with one vertex?
two vertices?

③ How many 4-valent planar maps with one vertex?
two vertices?

A graph is 4-valent if the degree of every vertex is 4.

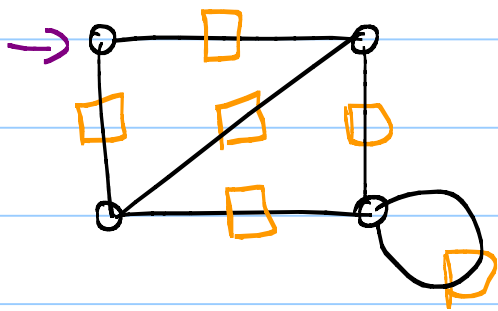
It looks like the numbers between 1- and 3- are the same.

6 - A bijection between maps with n edges and 4-valent maps with n vertices -

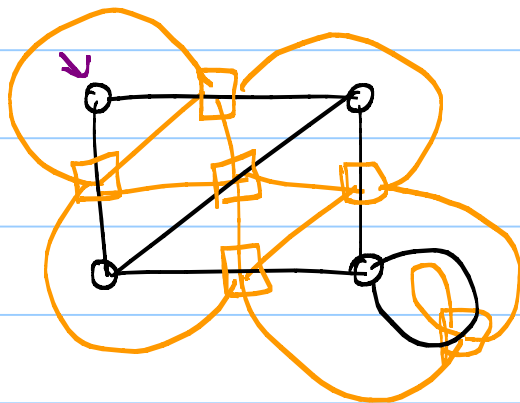
Recipe:

0. Take a map with n edges -

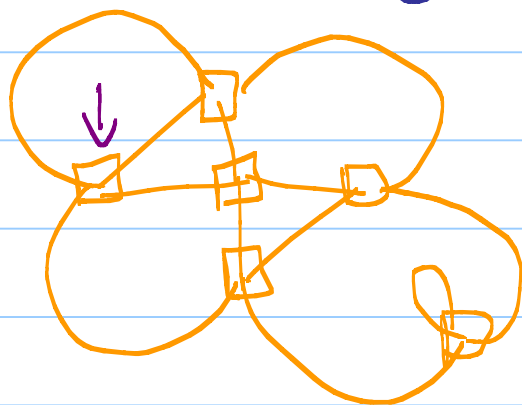
1. Put a square vertex on each edge -



2. Each edge is incident to 2 faces
link every edge to the 4 adjacent
edges in the two faces -

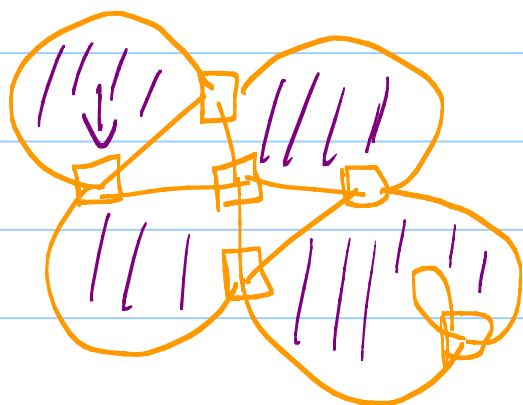


3 - Forget the original map -

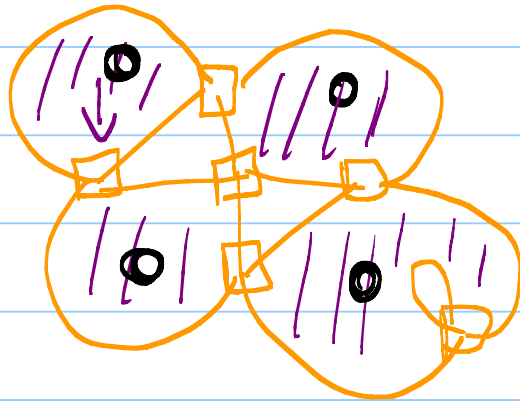


Is it bijective? Here is the converse transformation.

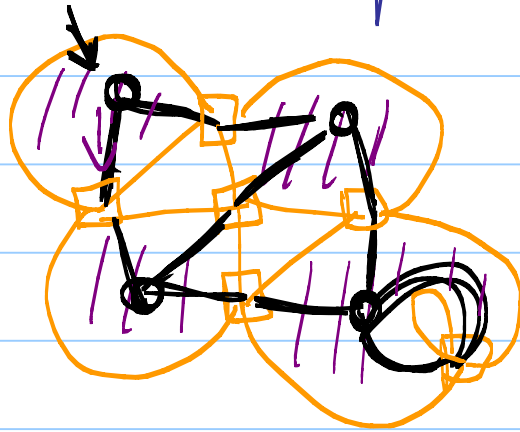
1 - The faces of a 4-valent map form a bipartite graph, i.e., we can colour the faces with 2 colours in such a way that 2 adjacent faces never have the same colour.



2 - Put a vertex in each face with the same colour as the face containing the root -



3 - Link each new vertex to the corners incident to the corresponding face -



c. Motivations

→ Tutte was the forerunner of maps enumeration. It wanted to prove the four colours theorem.

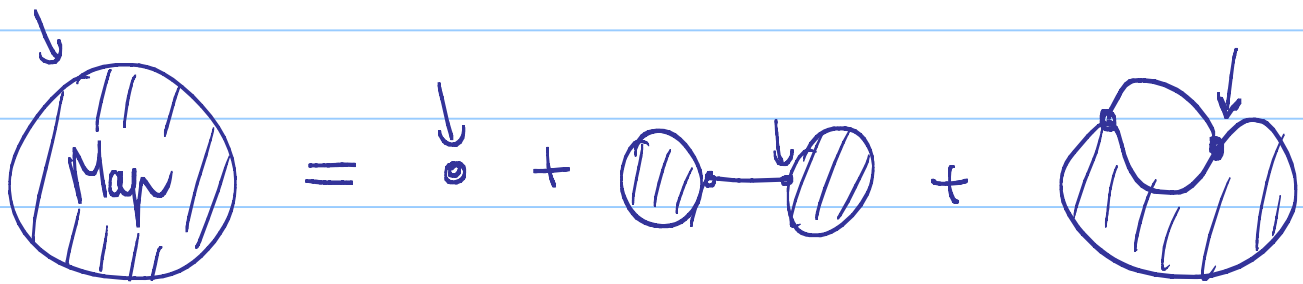
→ Nowadays this domain contributes to numerous models of statistical physics -
("quantum gravitation", ...)

→ The asymptotic enumeration of planar graphs lies on enumeration of planar maps (Gimenez, Noy, 2005).

② Tutte's recursive approach

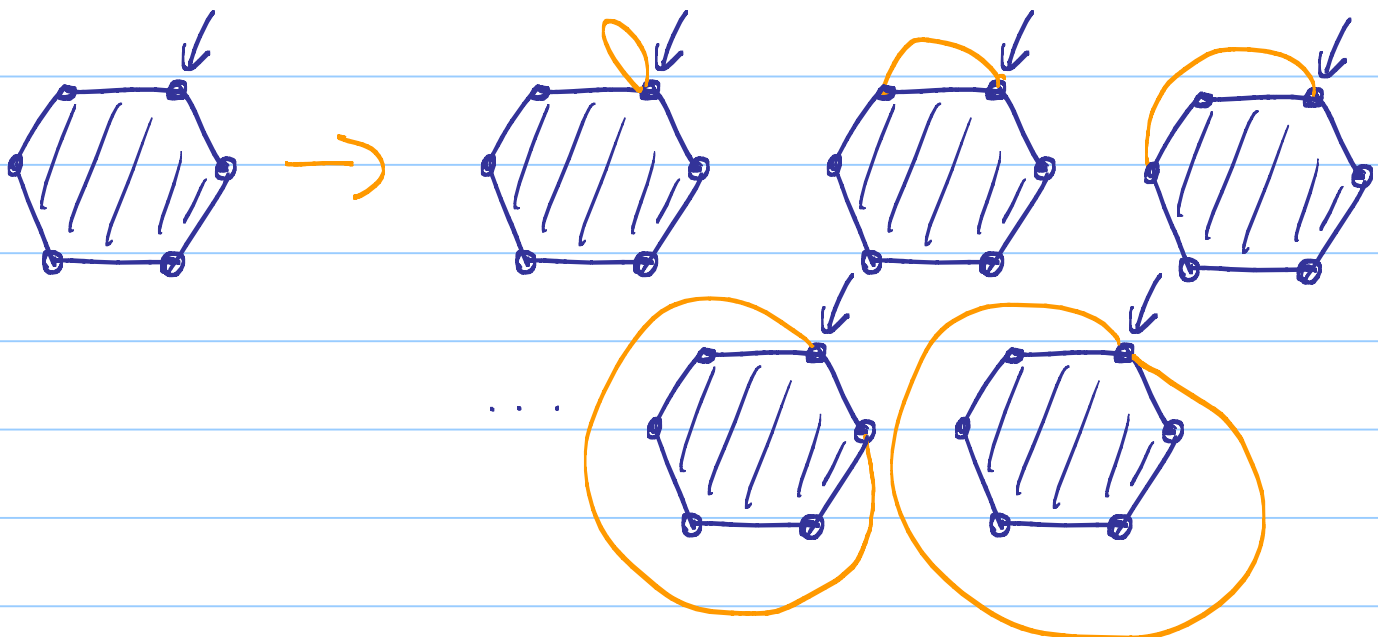
1 - Equations for the GF of planar maps

Natural decomposition of a map:



However this decomposition is not injective:

from a planar map, there are several ways to add an edge at the root



How many exactly? $d+1$, if d denotes the degree of the root face, i.e. the face that contains the root.

To derive a functional equation for their generating function, we need to take into account the degree of the root face, by an additional variable.

Let M be the GF of planar maps

$$M(t, y) = \sum_{M \text{ planar map}} t^{\# \text{ edges}(M)} y^{\text{root degree}(M)}$$

$$= \sum_{d \geq 0} M_d(t) y^d$$

Then

$$M(t, y) = 1 + y^2 t M(t, y)^2 + t \sum_{d \geq 0} M_d(t) \times (y + \dots + y^{d+1})$$

$$M(t, y) = 1 + y^2 t M(t, y) + t \frac{y y M(t, y) - M(t, 1)}{y - 1}$$

We want to get $M(t, 1)$ but we cannot set $y = 1$ because of $\frac{yM(t, y) - M(t, 1)}{y - 1}$.

The variable y is said to be catalytic.

Equations with catalytic variables also arise in the enumeration of

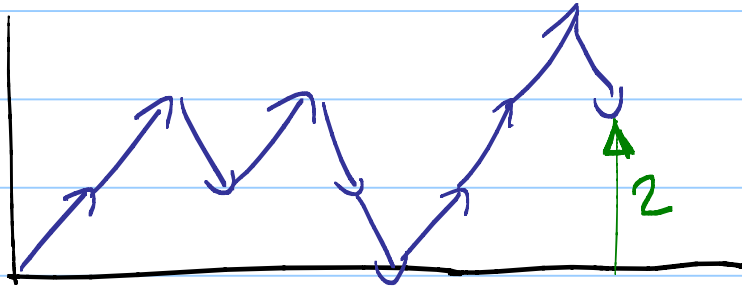
- polyominoes
- lattice walks
- permutations ...

2. How to study functional equations with a catalytic variable?

Consider the example of Dyck paths.

Let $D(t, y)$ the GF of Dyck prefixes counted by the size and the height of the endpoint.

Contribution
of



$$= t^{10} y^2$$

$$f = \bullet + f_1 + f_2$$

$D(t, y) = 1 + ty D(t, y) + ty^{-1} (D(t, y) - D(t, 0))$
 We want $D(t, 0)$ but y is a catalytic variable.
Kernel method:

$$(ty^2 - y + t) D(t, y) = tD(t, 0) - y$$

kernel

let us rewrite this as

$$K(t, y) \times D(t, y) = tD(t, 0) - y$$

with $K(t, y) = ty^2 - y + t$.

There exists a unique series $\alpha(t)$ such that $K(t, \alpha(t)) = 0$

then we have

$$\begin{cases} \alpha(t) = t\alpha(t)^2 + t \\ tD(t, 0) = \alpha(t) \end{cases}$$

$$\alpha(t) = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4t^2}}{2t}$$

Hence $D(t, 0) = t^2 D(t, 0)^2 + 1$

→ We recover the usual functional equation for Dyck paths -

(thereafter we only need Lagrange's inversion)

→ This method cannot be used for planar maps since there is a square (M^2)

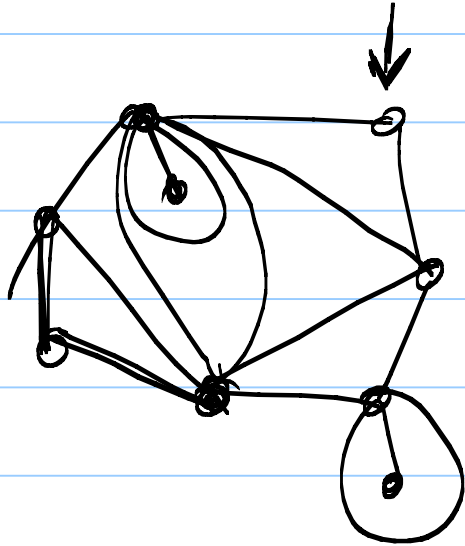
We use in this case the quadratic method (invented by Brown), which induces more equations -

→ The general case has been solved by Bousquet-Mélou and Jehanne -

Exercises

- ① A quasi-triangulation is a planar map where each face not containing the root has degree 3.

Ex:



Write an equation with a catalytic variable for the GF of quasi-triangulations.

Answer:

$$T = 1 + ty^2T^2 + t \frac{T - t_0 - yT_1}{y}$$

- ② Write an equation for walks in a half-line with steps $+1, -1, -2$ with a catalytic variable.

Give an exact formula for the number of such paths thanks to Lagrange inversion.

③ Guess and try -

The method used in the 60's is actually based on a "guess and try" method.

1 - You compute the first terms of the GF thanks to the equation with a catalytic variable -

1, 2, 9, 54, 378, 2916, 24057, 208494...

2 - We try to guess :- OEIS
- look for factorization

3 - And we inject this in the equation -

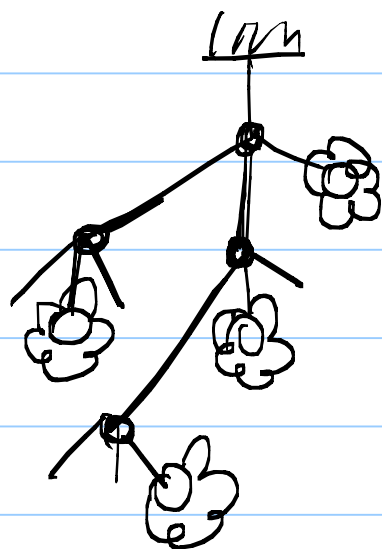
In the case of planar maps, we find

$$2 \cdot 3^n \frac{(2n)!}{n!(n+2)!}$$

Can we find a simple explanation for this formula?

③ Schaffer's bijection between 4-valent maps and blossoming trees.

A blossoming tree is a plane binary tree, rooted at a leaf, such that every inner node carries a flower (+ its 2 children of course)



1 ← leaf

🌸 ← flower

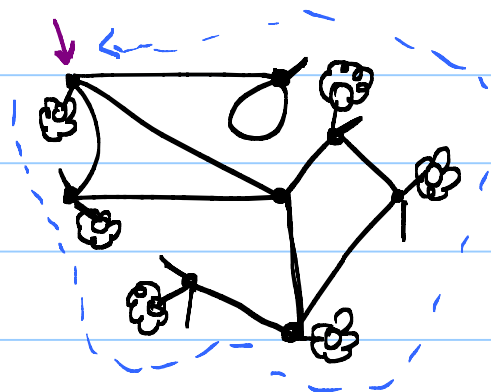
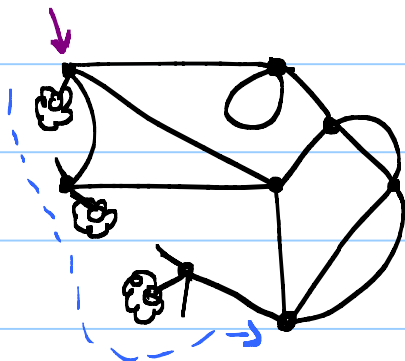
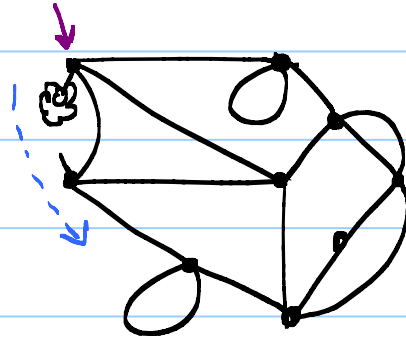
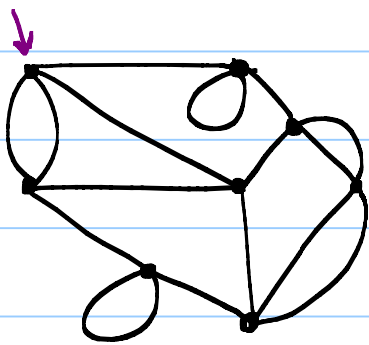
Prop: There are $\frac{(2n)!}{n!(n+1)!} \times 3^n$ blossoming trees with n inner nodes

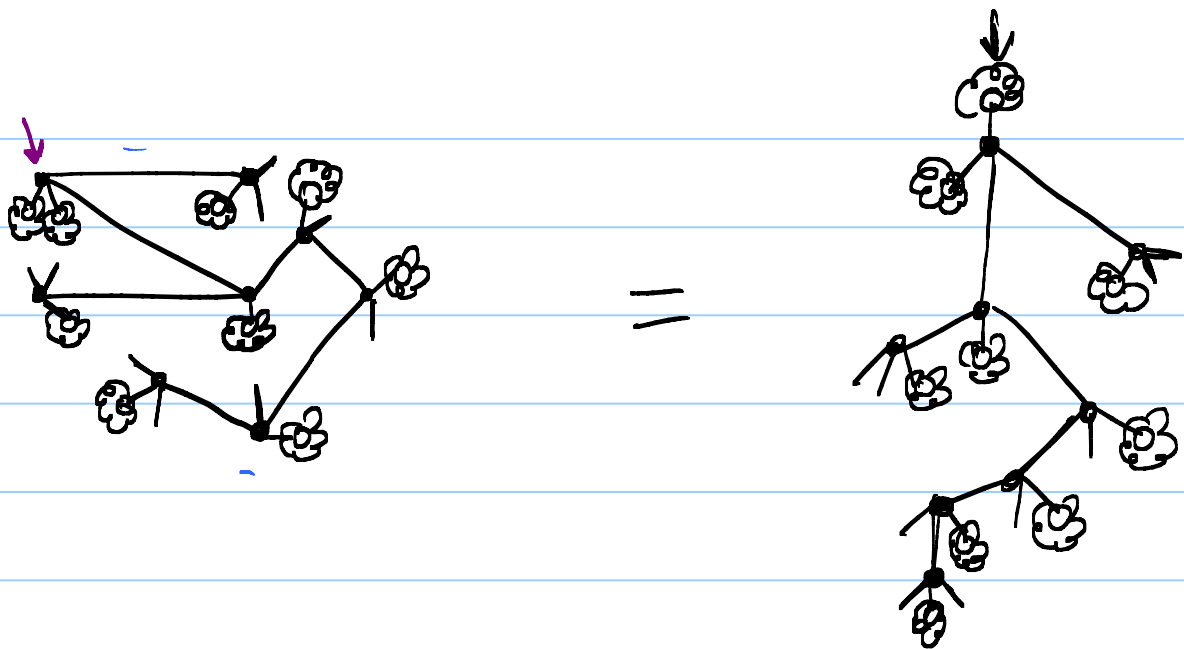
(there are 3 possible positions for a flower)

Given a 4-valent map, we want to cut some edges into leaves and flowers in order to obtain a blossoming tree

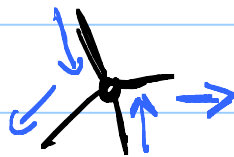
Draw the map on the plane so that the root is in the exterior face -
 Walk around the map in counterclockwise order starting from the root.
 Every time you walk along a non-isthmus* edge, we cut this edge in two half-edges: the first one is a flower, the second one is a leaf-

* An edge is an isthmus if its deletion disconnects the map -





Cut the flower after the root and root the tree on the obtained leaf: we obtain a blossoming tree.

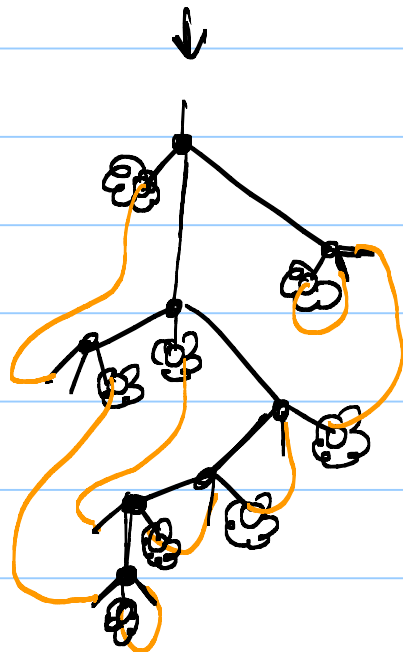


Let $\psi(M)$ be the image of a 4-valent map under this transform.

We can recover the original map M by matching leaves and flowers as follows:

Consider the root as a leaf.

Whenever a leaf immediately follows a flower in the cyclic leaves-flowers sequence, merge them into an edge.



Stop when all flowers have been matched -
Then match the two remaining leaves.

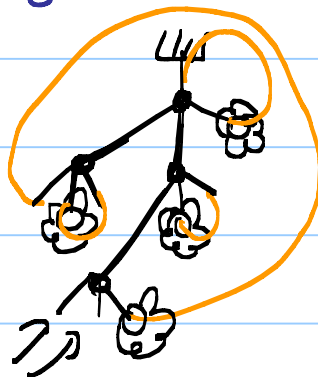
We can prove that we always recover the original map M , the order of the mergings does not matter.

In other terms, ψ is injective?

Is ψ surjective? No, of course, look at the numbers.

Moreover, observe that when we match leaves and flowers, there always remain two ^{unmatched} leaves - the root is unmatched if the blossoming tree is some $\psi(M)$, where M is a 4-valent map.

map -
But it is not always the case.



the 2 unmatched leaves

A blossoming tree is said to be balanced if the root is an unmatched leaves.

Prop: Ψ is a bijection between 4-valent maps and balanced blossoming trees.

How many balanced blossoming trees are there?

We can get this number via a "double rooting".

What is the number of blossoming trees with two marked leaves, the first one being unmatched, the other one having no restriction -

On one hand, it is $\underbrace{(n+2)}_{\# \text{ leaves}} \times b_n$

where b_n be the number of balanced blossoming trees.

On the other hand, it is

$$\underbrace{\frac{(2n)!}{n!(n+1)!}}_{\# \text{ blossoming trees}} \times 3^n \times \underbrace{2}_{\# \text{ unmatched leaves}}$$

Cor: The number of maps with n edges is $b_n = 2 \cdot 3^n \frac{(2n)!}{(n+2)! n!}$ -