

Random generation of combinatorial structures

Uniform random maps and graphs on
surfaces using Boltzmann sampling

Gilles Schaeffer

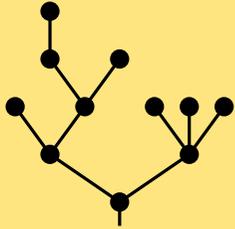
CNRS / Ecole Polytechnique,
Palaiseau, France

Uniform random generation?

Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

Ex: ordered trees (n edges)

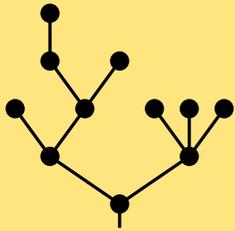


$$|\mathcal{A}_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \text{ is finite.}$$

Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

Ex: ordered trees (n edges)



$$|\mathcal{A}_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \text{ is finite.}$$

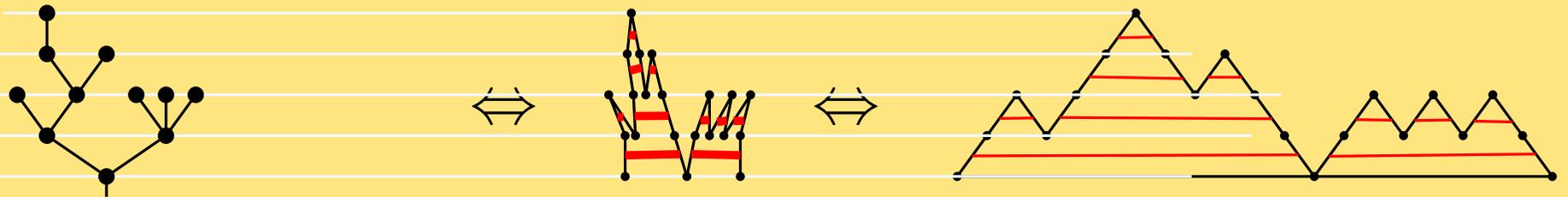
Uniform random sampler $\text{UA}(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(\text{UA}(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$

Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

Ex: ordered trees (n edges) or balanced parenthesis words (n pairs)



$$|\mathcal{A}_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \text{ is finite.}$$

$((()()())())$
 $(()()())$

Uniform random sampler $\text{UA}(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

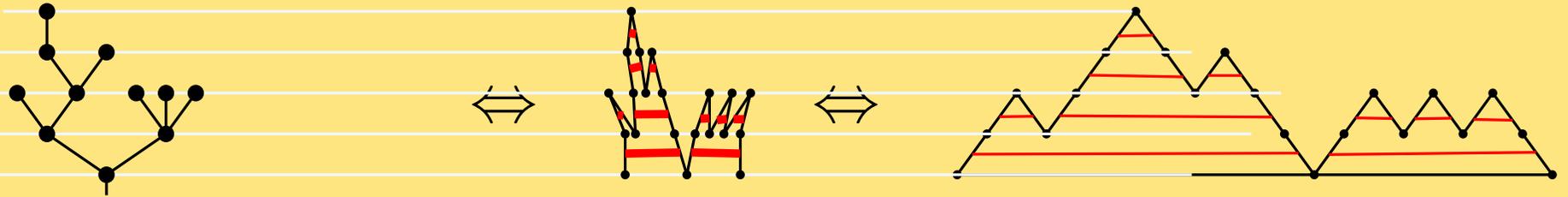
$$\Pr(\text{UA}(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$

Ex: for ordered trees:

Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

Ex: ordered trees (n edges) or balanced parenthesis words (n pairs)



$$|\mathcal{A}_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \text{ is finite.}$$

$((()())())$

Uniform random sampler $\text{UA}(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

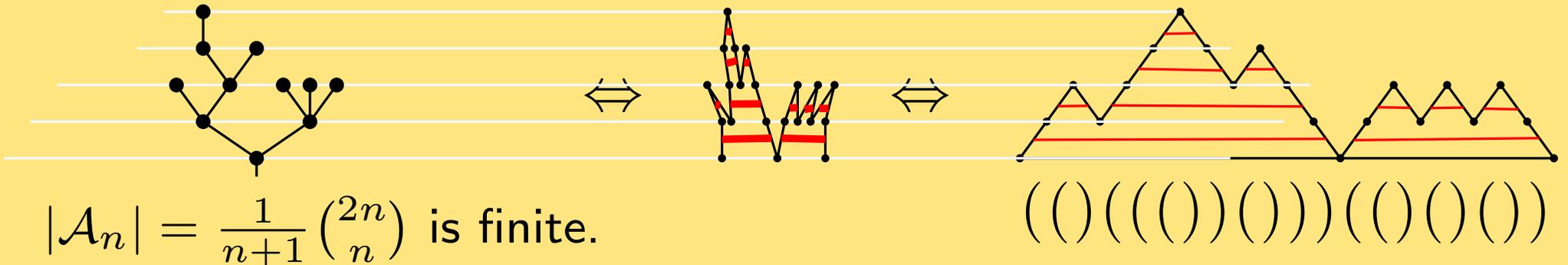
$$\Pr(\text{UA}(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$

Ex: for ordered trees: apply a uniform random permutation to $\binom{n}{n}$ to get a uniform random word among the $\binom{2n}{n}$ parenthesis words

Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

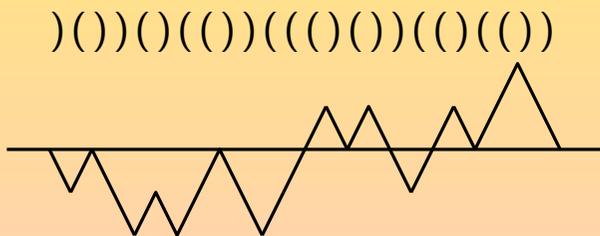
Ex: ordered trees (n edges) or balanced parenthesis words (n pairs)



Uniform random sampler $\text{UA}(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(\text{UA}(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$

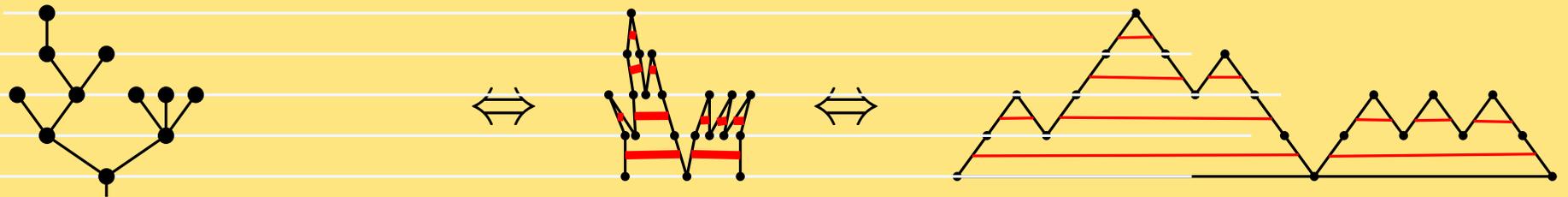
Ex: for ordered trees: apply a uniform random permutation to $\binom{n}{n}$ to get a uniform random word among the $\binom{2n}{n}$ parenthesis words



Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

Ex: ordered trees (n edges) or balanced parenthesis words (n pairs)



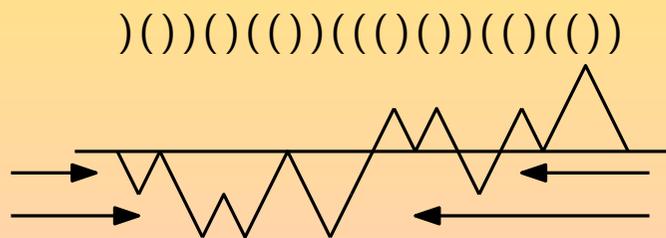
$$|\mathcal{A}_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \text{ is finite.}$$

$((()((()())())((()())()))$

Uniform random sampler $\text{UA}(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(\text{UA}(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$

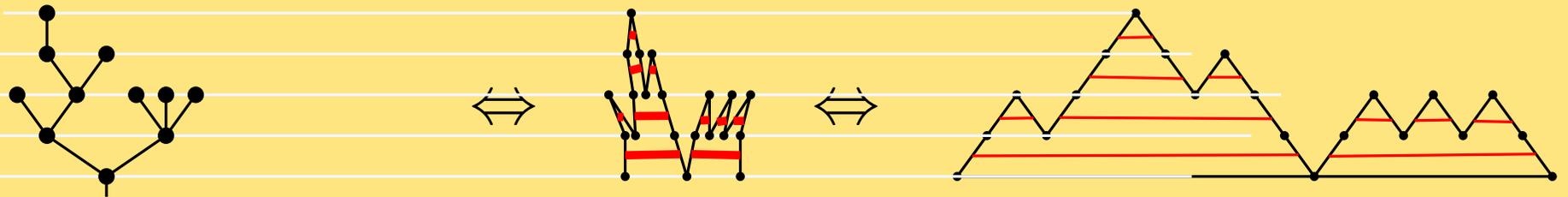
Ex: for ordered trees: apply a uniform random permutation to $\binom{n}{n}$ to get a uniform random word among the $\binom{2n}{n}$ parenthesis words



Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

Ex: ordered trees (n edges) or balanced parenthesis words (n pairs)



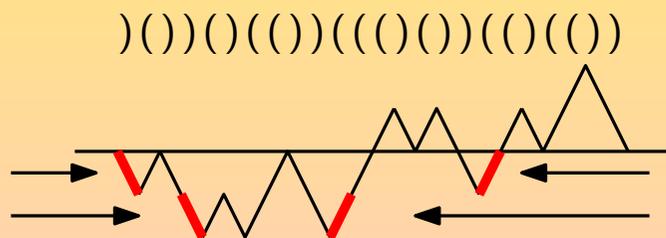
$$|\mathcal{A}_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \text{ is finite.}$$

$((()((()())()))((()())()))$

Uniform random sampler $UA(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(UA(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$

Ex: for ordered trees: apply a uniform random permutation to $\binom{n}{n}$ to get a uniform random word among the $\binom{2n}{n}$ parenthesis words

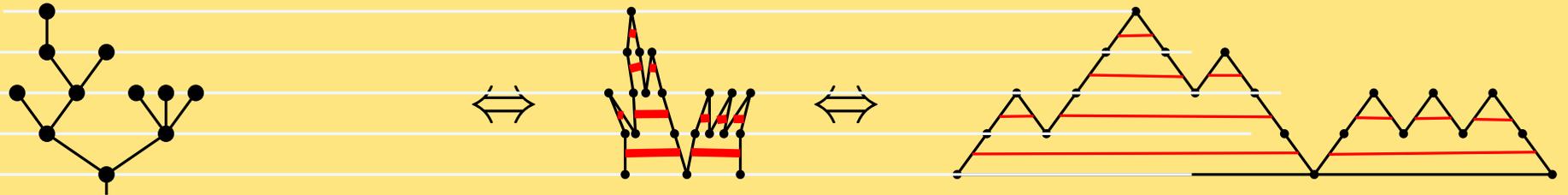


)())()((()((()())()))((()())()))

Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

Ex: ordered trees (n edges) or balanced parenthesis words (n pairs)



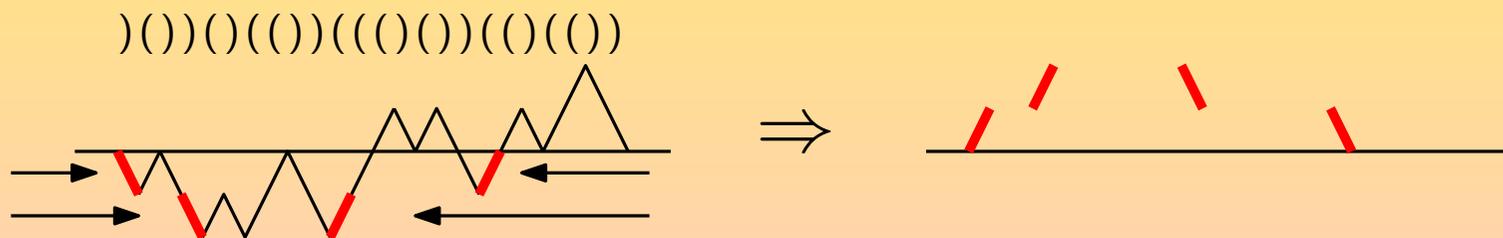
$$|\mathcal{A}_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \text{ is finite.}$$

$((()((()())()()))((()())())$

Uniform random sampler $\text{UA}(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(\text{UA}(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$

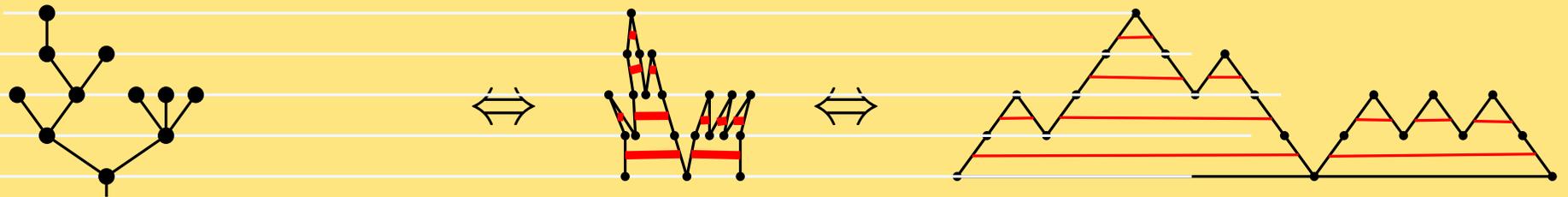
Ex: for ordered trees: apply a uniform random permutation to $\binom{n}{n}$ to get a uniform random word among the $\binom{2n}{n}$ parenthesis words



Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

Ex: ordered trees (n edges) or balanced parenthesis words (n pairs)



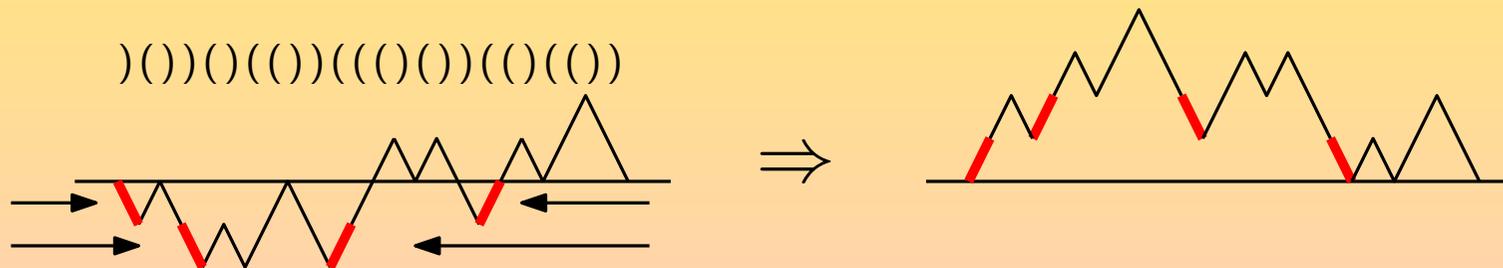
$$|\mathcal{A}_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \text{ is finite.}$$

$((()((()())()))((()())()))$

Uniform random sampler $\text{UA}(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(\text{UA}(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$

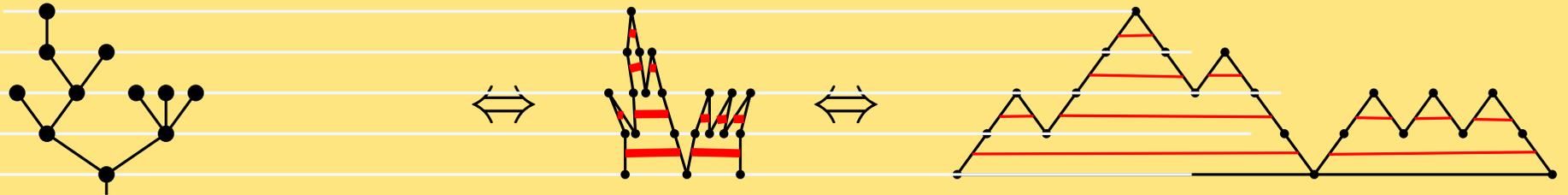
Ex: for ordered trees: apply a uniform random permutation to $\binom{n}{n}$ to get a uniform random word among the $\binom{2n}{n}$ parenthesis words



Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

Ex: ordered trees (n edges) or balanced parenthesis words (n pairs)



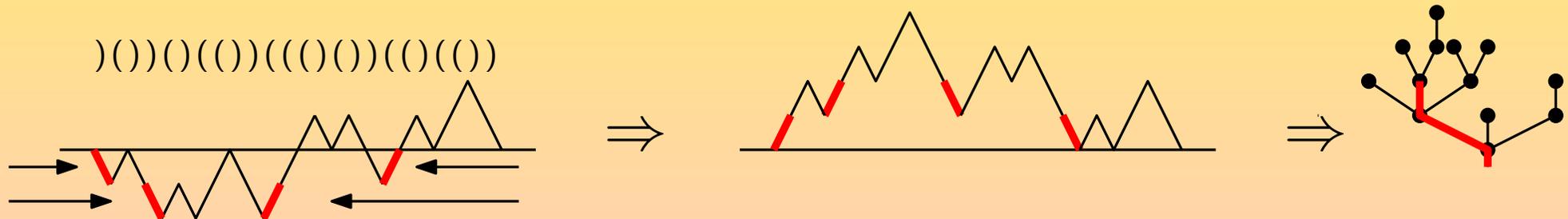
$$|\mathcal{A}_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \text{ is finite.}$$

$((()((()())()))((()())()))$

Uniform random sampler $UA(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(UA(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$

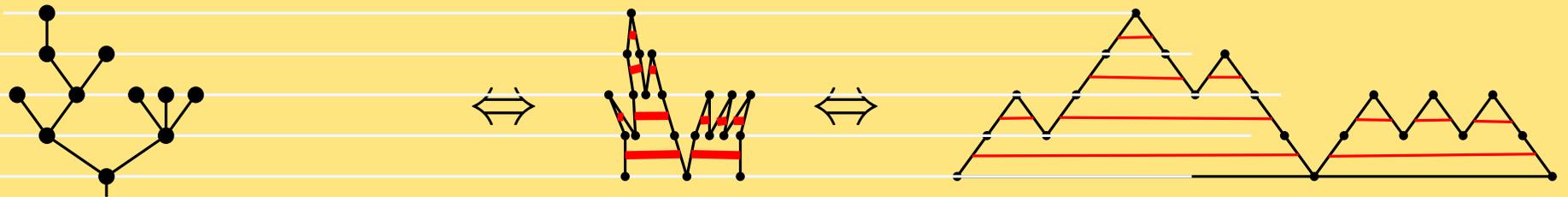
Ex: for ordered trees: apply a uniform random permutation to $\binom{n}{n}$ to get a uniform random word among the $\binom{2n}{n}$ parenthesis words



Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

Ex: ordered trees (n edges) or balanced parenthesis words (n pairs)



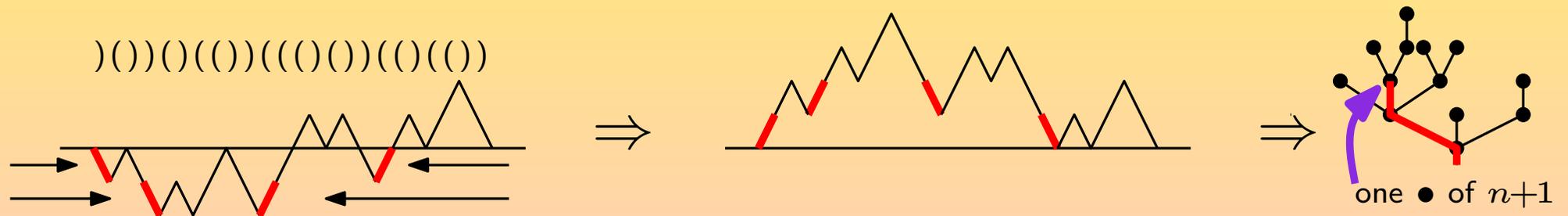
$$|\mathcal{A}_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \text{ is finite.}$$

$((()((()())()))((()())()))$

Uniform random sampler $\text{UA}(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(\text{UA}(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$

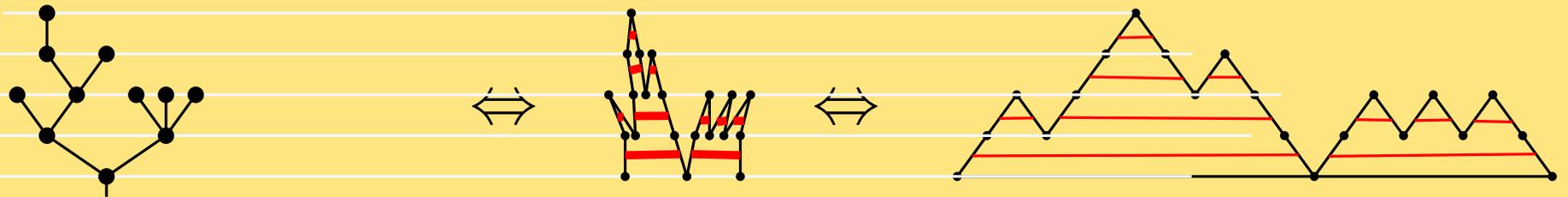
Ex: for ordered trees: apply a uniform random permutation to $\binom{n}{n}$ to get a uniform random word among the $\binom{2n}{n}$ parenthesis words



Uniform random generation?

A combinatorial class \mathcal{A} , ranked by a size: $\mathcal{A}_n = \{a \in \mathcal{A}, |a| = n\}$ finite.

Ex: ordered trees (n edges) or balanced parenthesis words (n pairs)



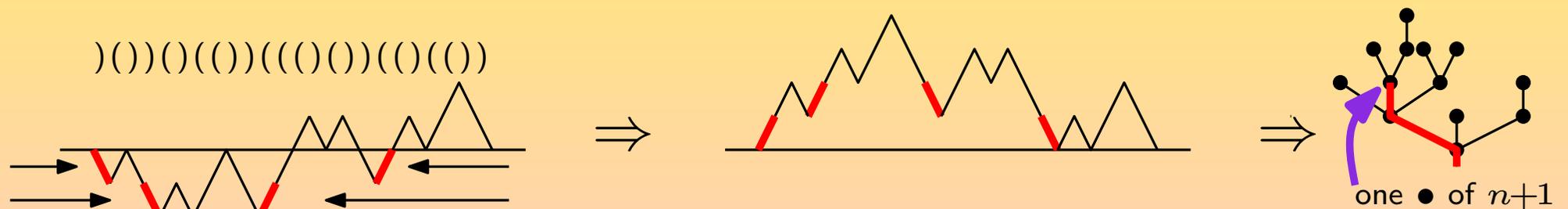
$$|\mathcal{A}_n| = \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n} \text{ is finite.}$$

$((()((()())()))((()())()))$

Uniform random sampler $UA(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(UA(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$

Ex: for ordered trees: apply a uniform random permutation to $\binom{n}{n}$ to get a uniform random word among the $\binom{2n}{n}$ parenthesis words

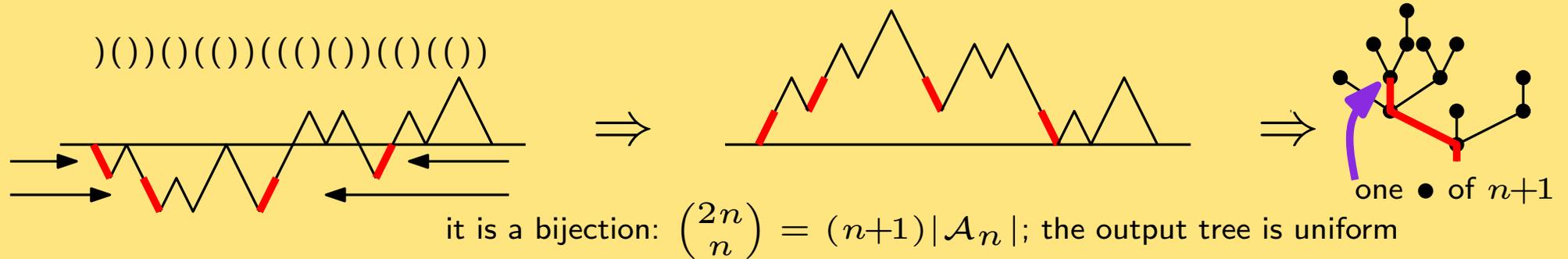


it is a bijection: $\binom{2n}{n} = (n+1)|\mathcal{A}_n|$; the output tree is uniform

Uniform random generation?

Uniform random sampler $UA(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

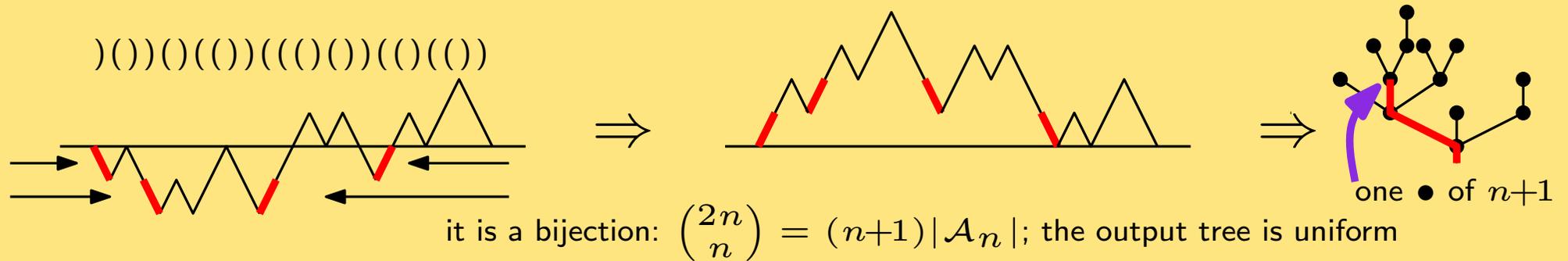
$$\Pr(UA(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$



Uniform random generation?

Uniform random sampler $UA(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(UA(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$



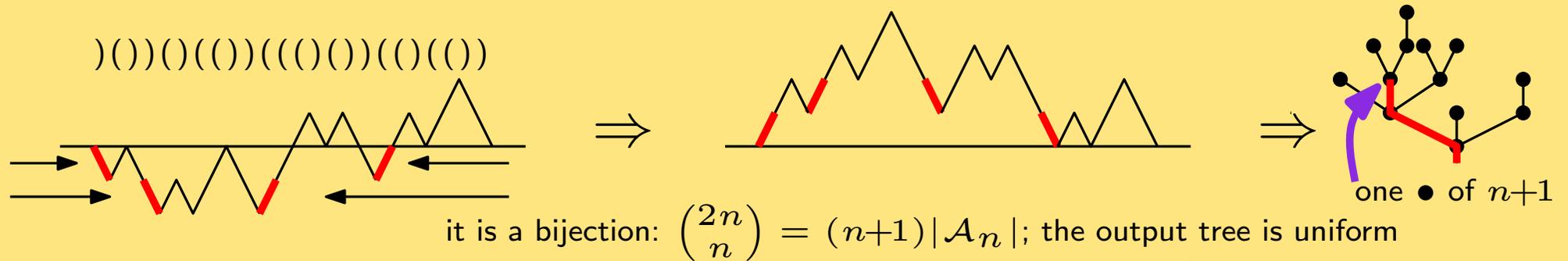
Complexity: $O(n \log n)$ random bits (initial permutation)

Can be improved to $O(n)$ random bits on average

Uniform random generation?

Uniform random sampler $UA(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

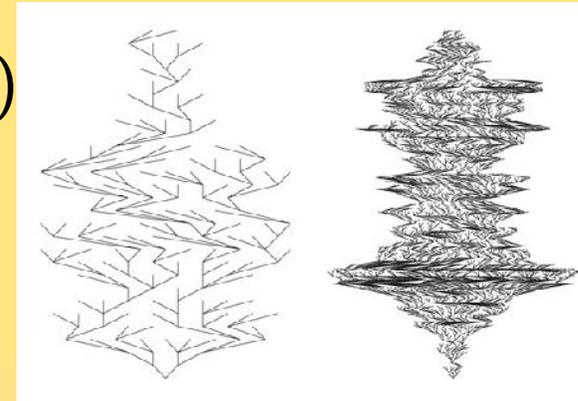
$$\Pr(UA(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$



Complexity: $O(n \log n)$ random bits (initial permutation)

Can be improved to $O(n)$ random bits on average

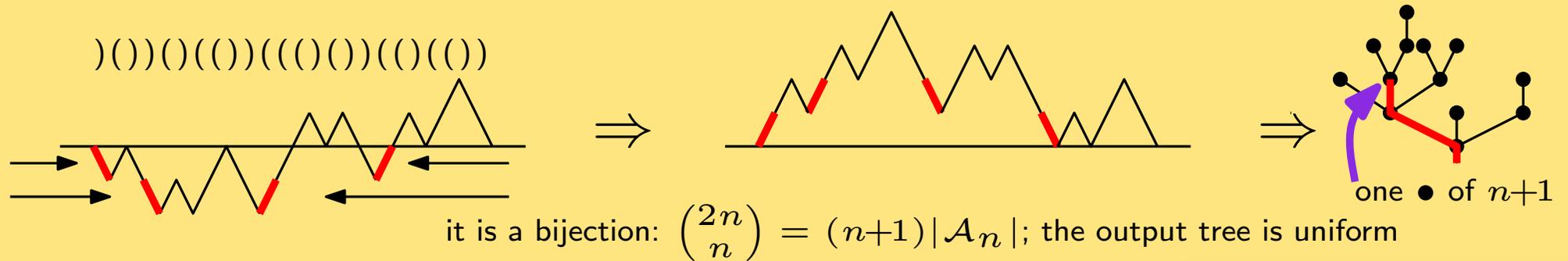
Allows to produce huge random trees: limit is storage.



Uniform random generation?

Uniform random sampler $UA(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(UA(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$



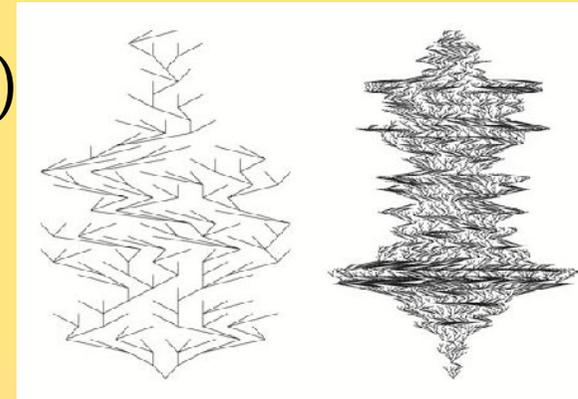
Complexity: $O(n \log n)$ random bits (initial permutation)

Can be improved to $O(n)$ random bits on average

Allows to produce huge random trees: limit is storage.

In general sampling aims at "in silico" experiments:

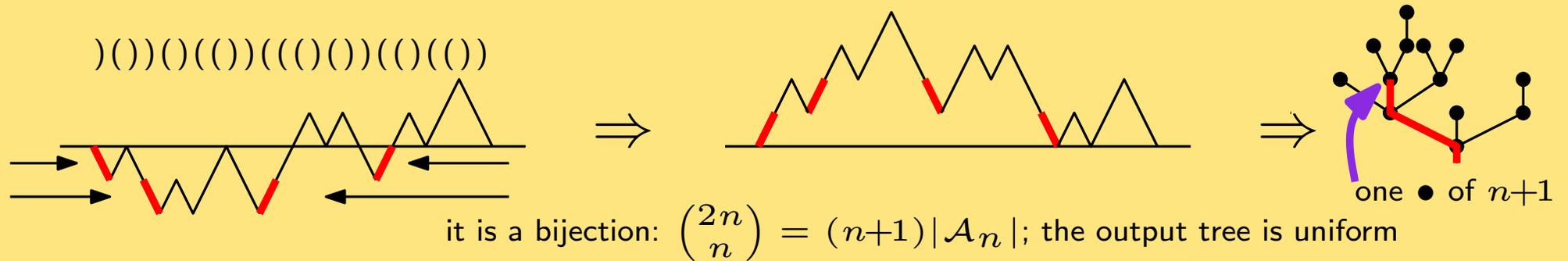
- Average case complexity of algorithms



Uniform random generation?

Uniform random sampler $UA(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(UA(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$



Complexity: $O(n \log n)$ random bits (initial permutation)

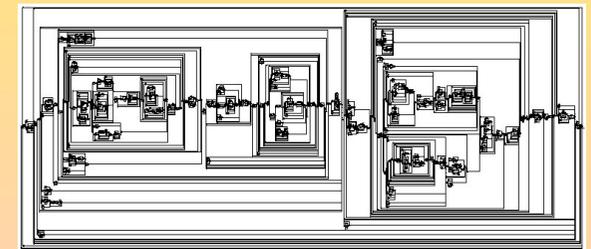
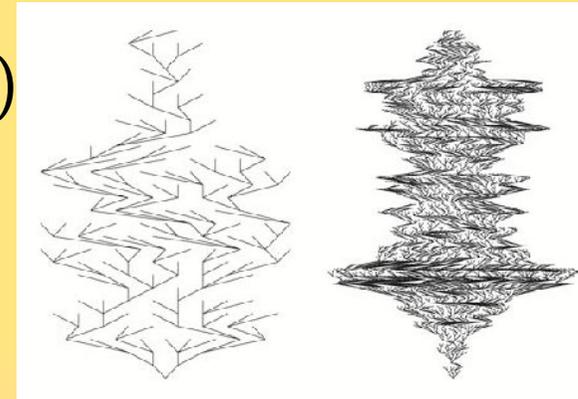
Can be improved to $O(n)$ random bits on average

Allows to produce huge random trees: limit is storage.

In general sampling aims at "in silico" experiments:

– Average case complexity of algorithms

" " **quality** " "



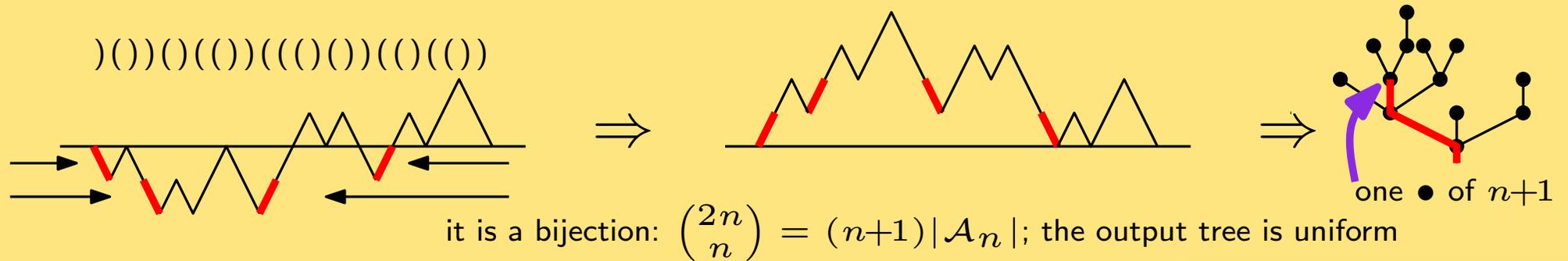
series parallel graph drawing

Pictures are courtesy of Philippe Flajolet and Carine Pivoteau

Uniform random generation?

Uniform random sampler $UA(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(UA(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$



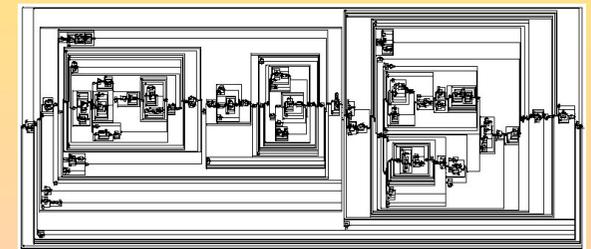
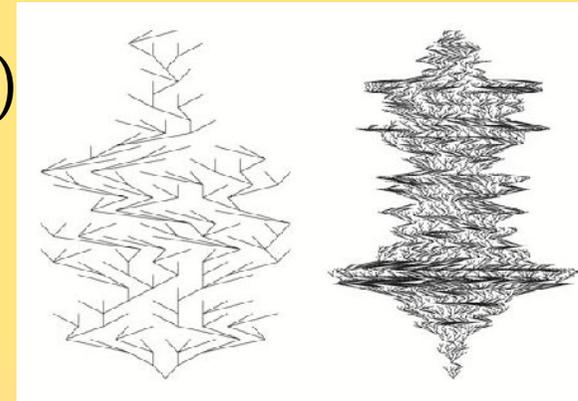
Complexity: $O(n \log n)$ random bits (initial permutation)

Can be improved to $O(n)$ random bits on average

Allows to produce huge random trees: limit is storage.

In general sampling aims at "in silico" experiments:

- Average case complexity of algorithms
- " " **quality** " "
- *In silico* statistical physics, bioinformatics
- *In silico* combinatorics and discrete probability



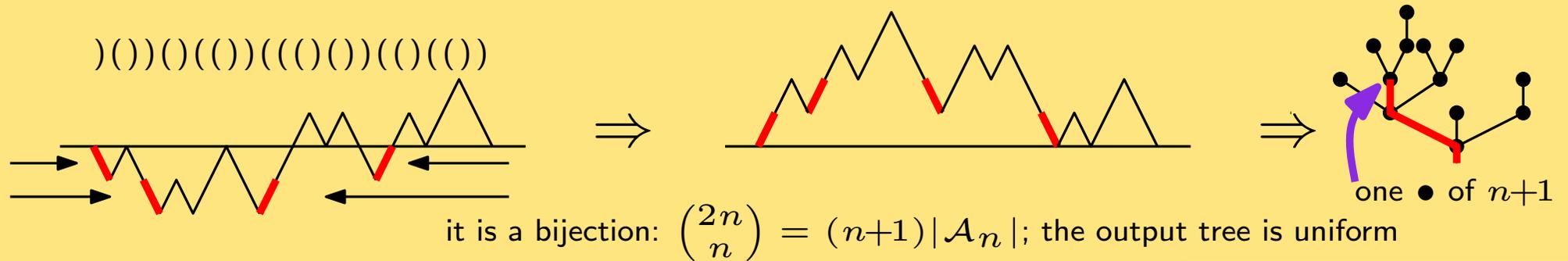
series parallel graph drawing

Pictures are courtesy of Philippe Flajolet and Carine Pivoteau

Uniform random generation?

Uniform random sampler $UA(n)$: output random elements of \mathcal{A}_n s.t.

$$\Pr(UA(n) = a) = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{A}_n|}, \text{ for any } a \in \mathcal{A}_n.$$



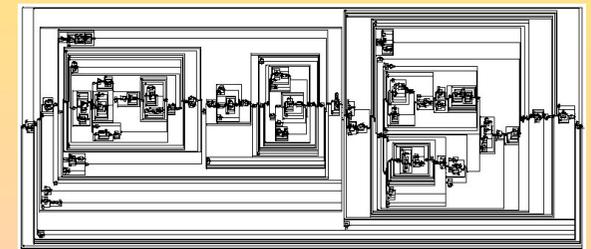
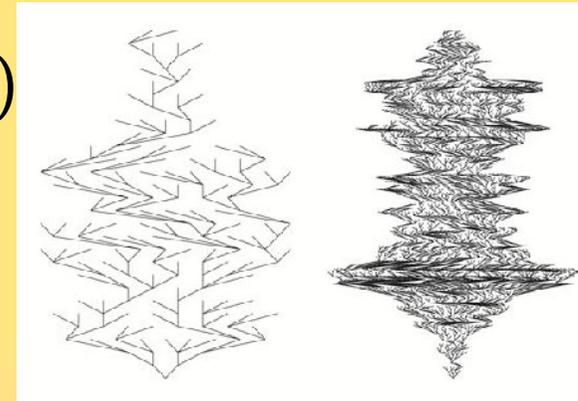
Complexity: $O(n \log n)$ random bits (initial permutation)

Can be improved to $O(n)$ random bits on average

Allows to produce huge random trees: limit is storage.

In general sampling aims at "in silico" experiments:

- Average case complexity of algorithms
- " " **quality** " "
- *In silico* statistical physics, bioinformatics
- *In silico* combinatorics and discrete probability



series parallel graph drawing

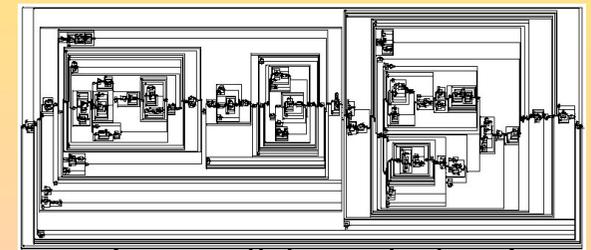
Pictures are courtesy of Philippe Flajolet and Carine Pivoteau

Uniform random generation?

Issues: complexity, genericity

In general sampling aims at "in silico" experiments:

- Average case complexity of algorithms
- " " quality " "
- *In silico* biology or statistical physics
- *In silico* combinatorics and discrete probability



series parallel graph drawing

Pictures are courtesy of Carine Pivoteau and Philippe Flajolet

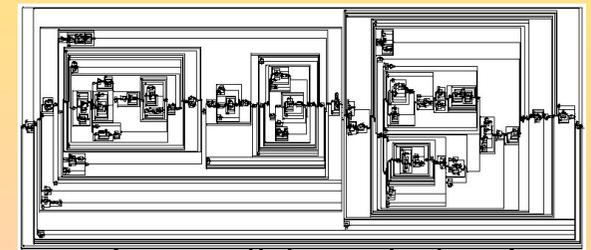
Uniform random generation?

Issues: complexity, genericity

- Bijective sampling requires efforts and luck... such results are rare

In general sampling aims at "in silico" experiments:

- Average case complexity of algorithms
- " " quality " "
- *In silico* biology or statistical physics
- *In silico* combinatorics and discrete probability



series parallel graph drawing

Pictures are courtesy of Carine Pivoteau and Philippe Flajolet

Uniform random generation?

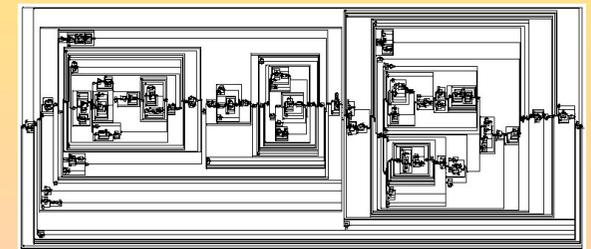
Issues: complexity, genericity

- Bijective sampling requires efforts and luck... such results are rare
- but almost anything you can count by recurrence you can generate by recursive sampling: automatic for decomposable/constructive structures

systematized in *Flajolet, Zimmermann, Van Cutsem, (1994)*; limited to sizes of order 10^4

In general sampling aims at "in silico" experiments:

- Average case complexity of algorithms
- " " quality " "
- *In silico* biology or statistical physics
- *In silico* combinatorics and discrete probability



series parallel graph drawing

Pictures are courtesy of Carine Pivoteau and Philippe Flajolet

Uniform random generation?

Issues: complexity, genericity

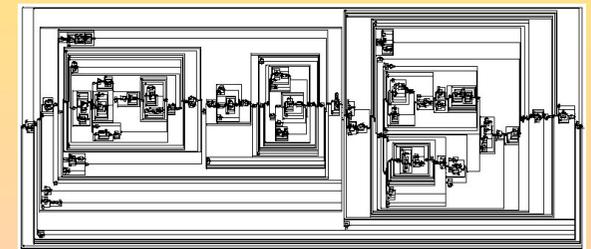
- Bijective sampling requires efforts and luck... such results are rare
- but almost anything you can count by recurrence you can generate by recursive sampling: automatic for decomposable/constructive structures

systematized in *Flajolet, Zimmermann, Van Cutsem, (1994)*; limited to sizes of order 10^4

Some possible tradeoffs: **Imperfect sampling** (distribution \rightarrow uniform)

In general sampling aims at "in silico" experiments:

- Average case complexity of algorithms
- " " quality " "
- *In silico* biology or statistical physics
- *In silico* combinatorics and discrete probability



series parallel graph drawing

Pictures are courtesy of Carine Pivoteau and Philippe Flajolet

Uniform random generation?

Issues: complexity, genericity

- Bijective sampling requires efforts and luck... such results are rare
- but almost anything you can count by recurrence you can generate by recursive sampling: automatic for decomposable/constructive structures

systematized in *Flajolet, Zimmermann, Van Cutsem, (1994)*; limited to sizes of order 10^4

Some possible tradeoffs: **Imperfect sampling** (distribution \rightarrow uniform)

- floating points in recursive sampling

analyzed by *Denise, Zimmermann (1997)*

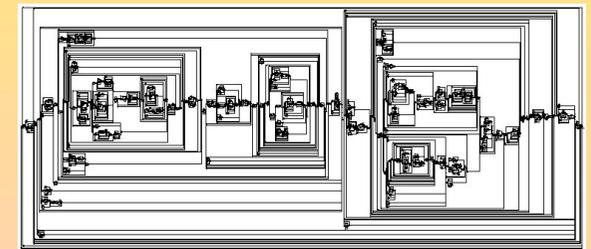
In general sampling aims at "in silico" experiments:

- Average case complexity of algorithms

" " quality " "

- *In silico* biology or statistical physics

- *In silico* combinatorics and discrete probability



series parallel graph drawing

Pictures are courtesy of Carine Pivoteau and Philippe Flajolet

Uniform random generation?

Issues: complexity, genericity

- Bijective sampling requires efforts and luck... such results are rare
- but almost anything you can count by recurrence you can generate by recursive sampling: automatic for decomposable/constructive structures

systematized in *Flajolet, Zimmermann, Van Cutsem, (1994)*; limited to sizes of order 10^4

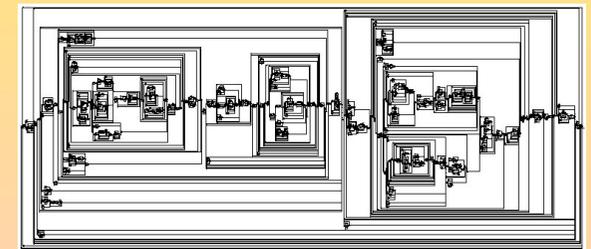
Some possible tradeoffs: **Imperfect sampling** (distribution \rightarrow uniform)

- floating points in recursive sampling analyzed by *Denise, Zimmermann (1997)*
- simulation of Markov chains is a versatile tool but probabilists are happy when they can prove it leads to polynomial algorithms.

huge literature, see *D.B. Wilson* for perfect sampling

In general sampling aims at "in silico" experiments:

- Average case complexity of algorithms
- " " quality " "
- *In silico* biology or statistical physics
- *In silico* combinatorics and discrete probability



series parallel graph drawing

Pictures are courtesy of Carine Pivoteau and Philippe Flajolet

Uniform random generation?

Issues: complexity, genericity

- Bijective sampling requires efforts and luck... such results are rare
- but almost anything you can count by recurrence you can generate by recursive sampling: automatic for decomposable/constructive structures

systematized in *Flajolet, Zimmermann, Van Cutsem, (1994)*; limited to sizes of order 10^4

Some possible tradeoffs: **Imperfect sampling** (distribution \rightarrow uniform)

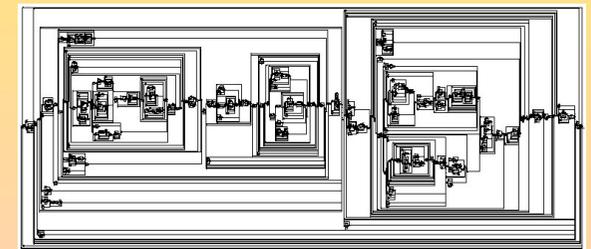
- floating points in recursive sampling analyzed by *Denise, Zimmermann (1997)*
- simulation of Markov chains is a versatile tool but probabilists are happy when they can prove it leads to polynomial algorithms.

huge literature, see *D.B. Wilson* for perfect sampling

Relax the exact size requirement: Boltzmann sampling (see later)

In general sampling aims at "in silico" experiments:

- Average case complexity of algorithms
- " " quality " "
- *In silico* biology or statistical physics
- *In silico* combinatorics and discrete probability



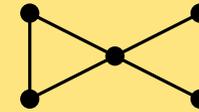
series parallel graph drawing

Pictures are courtesy of Carine Pivoteau and Philippe Flajolet

My favorite random guys: maps and graphs

A **planar graph** G : there exists an embedding of G in the plane

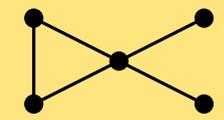
$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



vertex labels: $\{1, \dots, n\}$

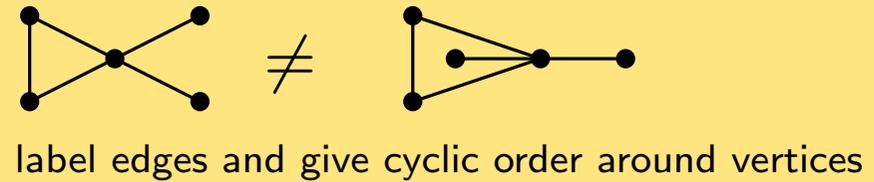
My favorite random guys: maps and graphs

A **planar graph** G : there exists an embedding of G in the plane

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$


vertex labels: $\{1, \dots, n\}$

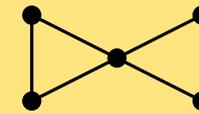
A **planar map** M : combinatorial description of an embedding of a connected graph in the plane



My favorite random guys: maps and graphs

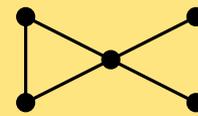
A **planar graph** G : there exists an embedding of G in the plane

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

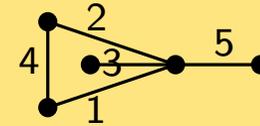


vertex labels: $\{1, \dots, n\}$

A **planar map** M : combinatorial description of an embedding of a connected graph in the plane



\neq



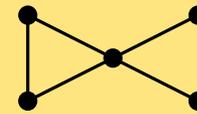
$(1,5,2,3)(\bar{1},4)(\bar{2},\bar{4})(\bar{3})(\bar{5})$

label edges and give cyclic order around vertices

My favorite random guys: maps and graphs

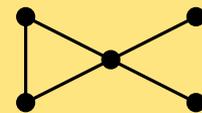
A **planar graph** G : there exists an embedding of G in the plane

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

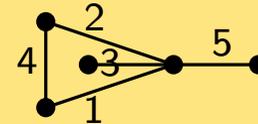


vertex labels: $\{1, \dots, n\}$

A **planar map** M : combinatorial description of an embedding of a connected graph in the plane



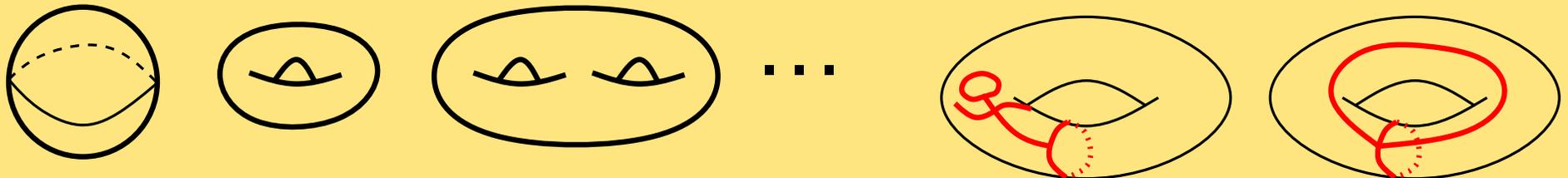
\neq



$(1,5,2,3)(\bar{1},4)(\bar{2},\bar{4})(\bar{3})(\bar{5})$

label edges and give cyclic order around vertices

Surfaces: let \mathcal{S}_g be the compact orientable surface of genus g . \mathcal{S}_0 is the sphere, \mathcal{S}_1 the torus; in general \mathcal{S}_g is a "sphere" with g handles.



A **graph** G of **genus** $\leq g$: there exists a **proper** embedding of G in \mathcal{S}_g .

A **map** of **genus** g : combinatorial description of a **proper** embedding in \mathcal{S}_g .

Proper = Faces must be topological disks: no handle inside a face.

Euler's formula reads $v + f = e + 2 - 2g$.

Uniform random planar maps

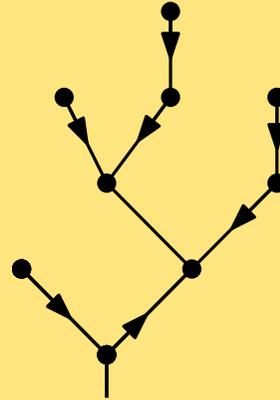
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

Uniform random planar maps

My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$



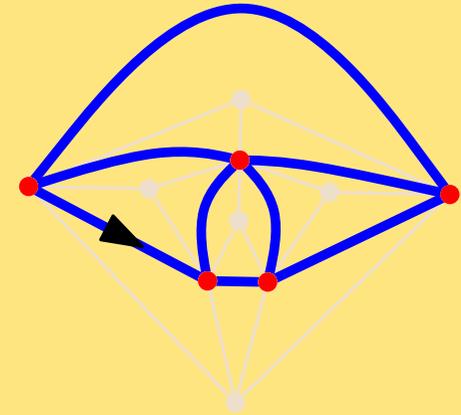
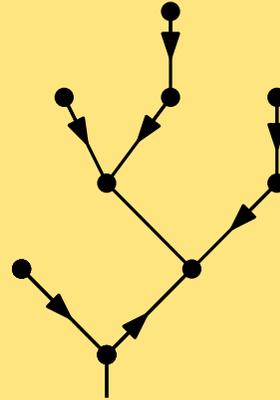
Uniform random planar maps

My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$



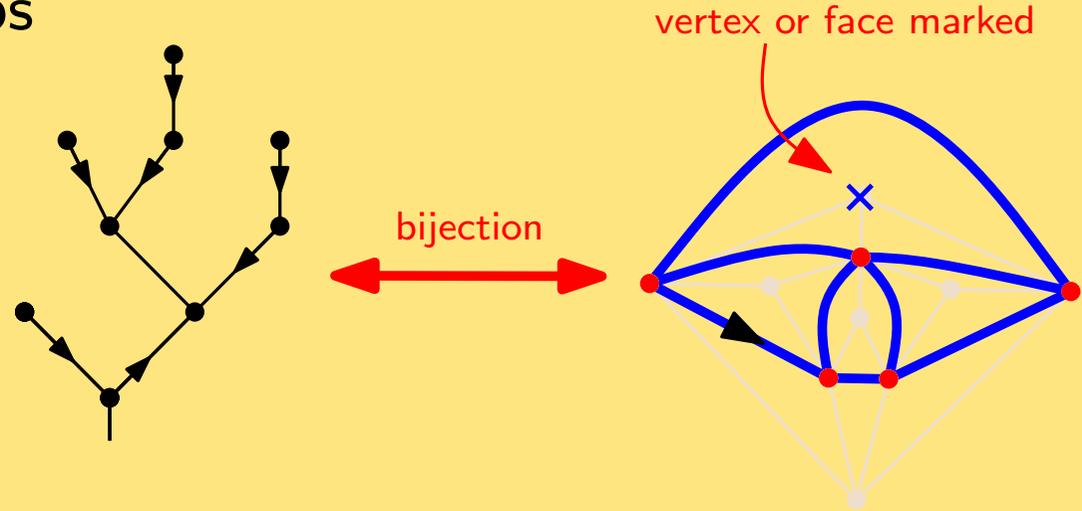
Uniform random planar maps

My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$



Uniform random planar maps

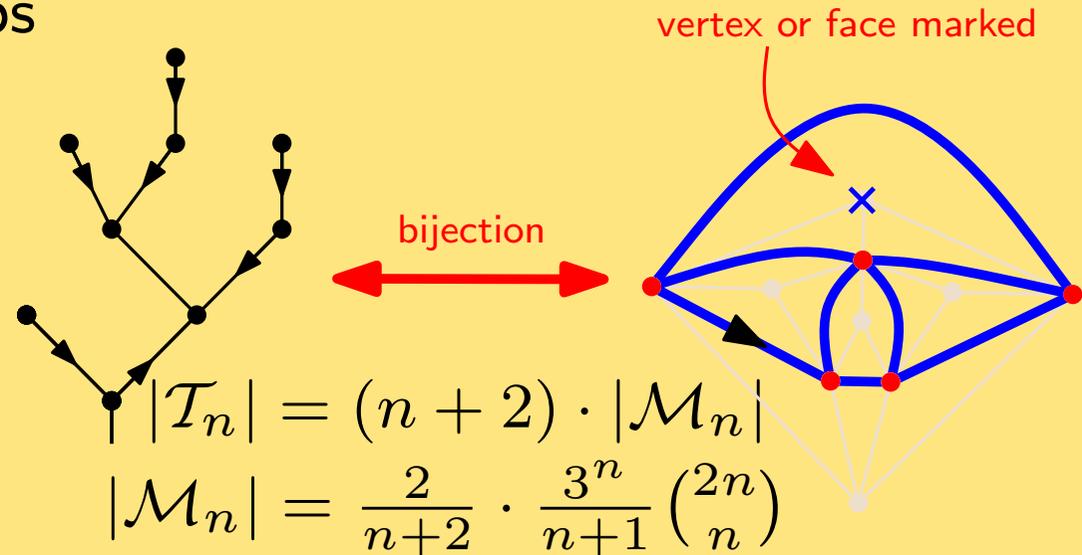
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

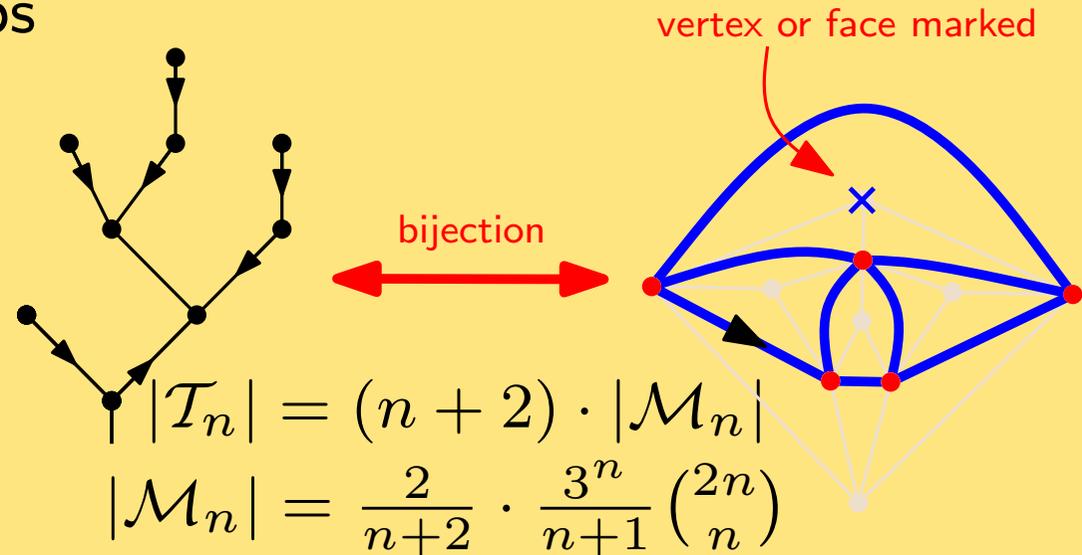
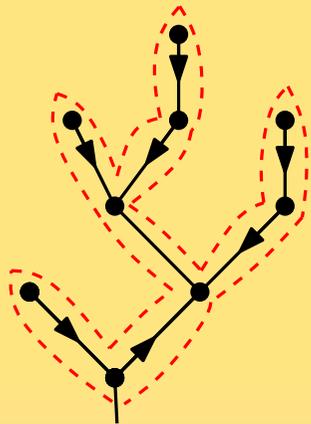
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

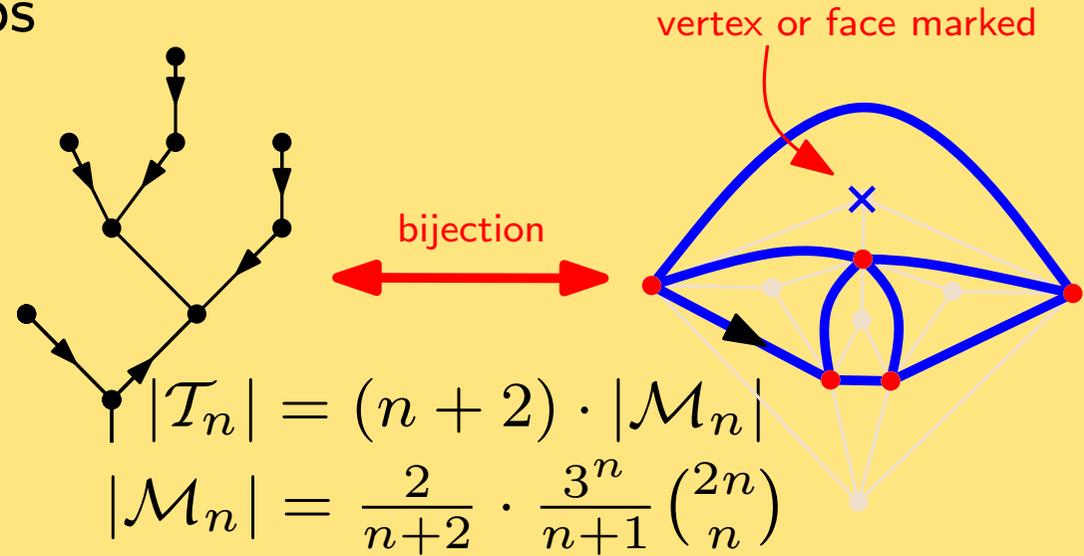
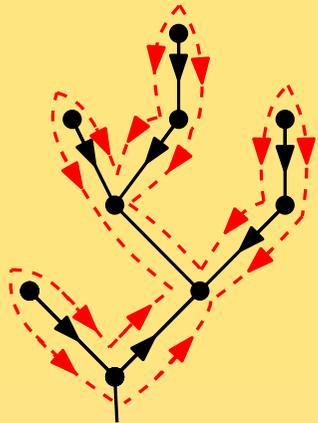
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{ \text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges} \}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{ \text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges} \}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

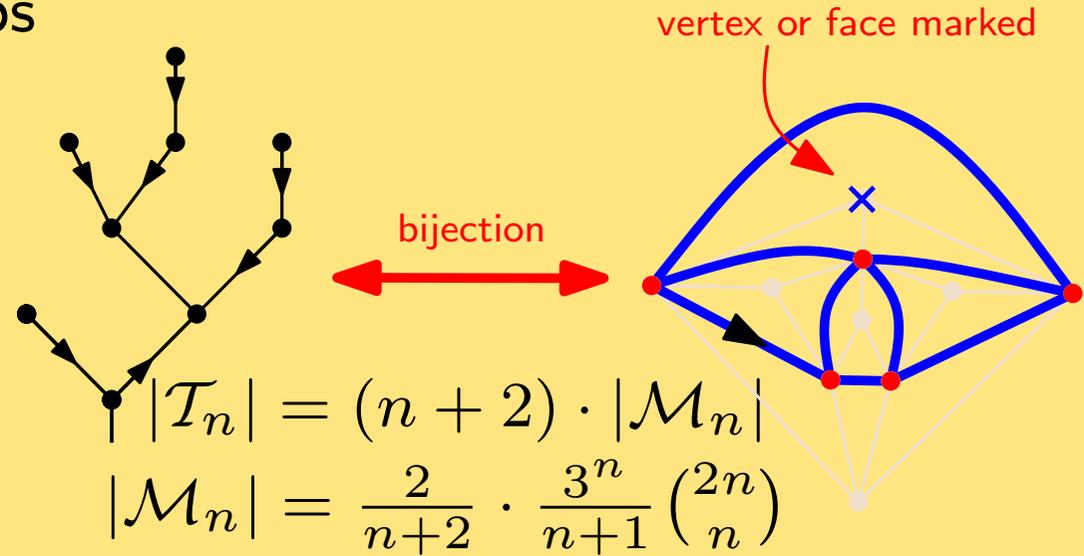
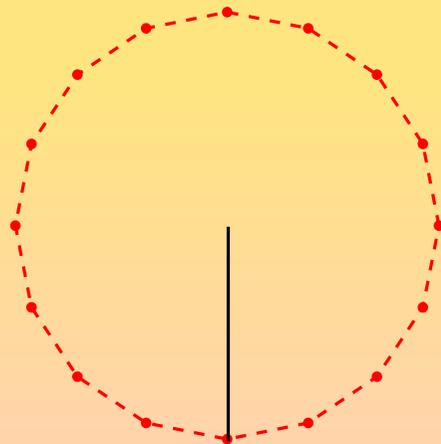
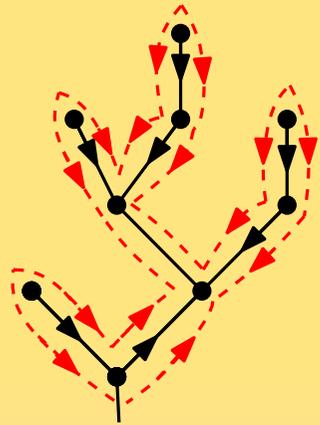
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

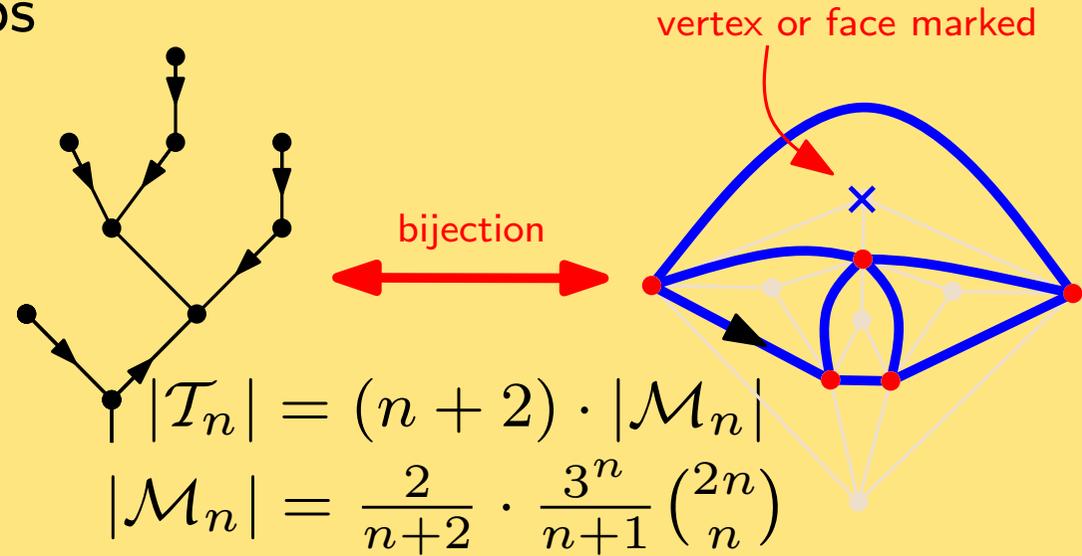
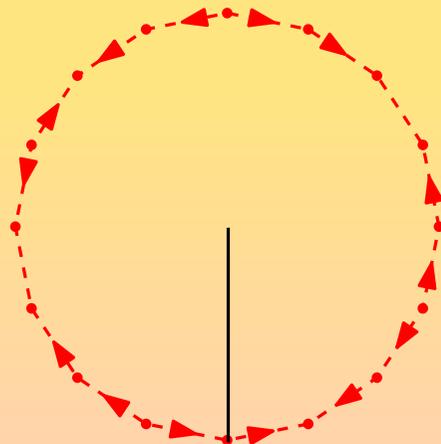
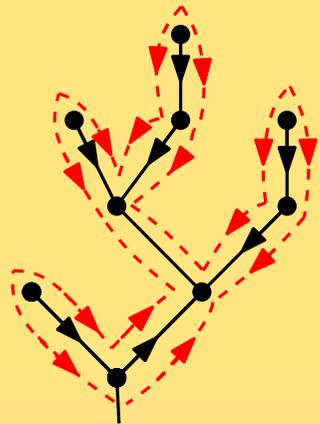
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

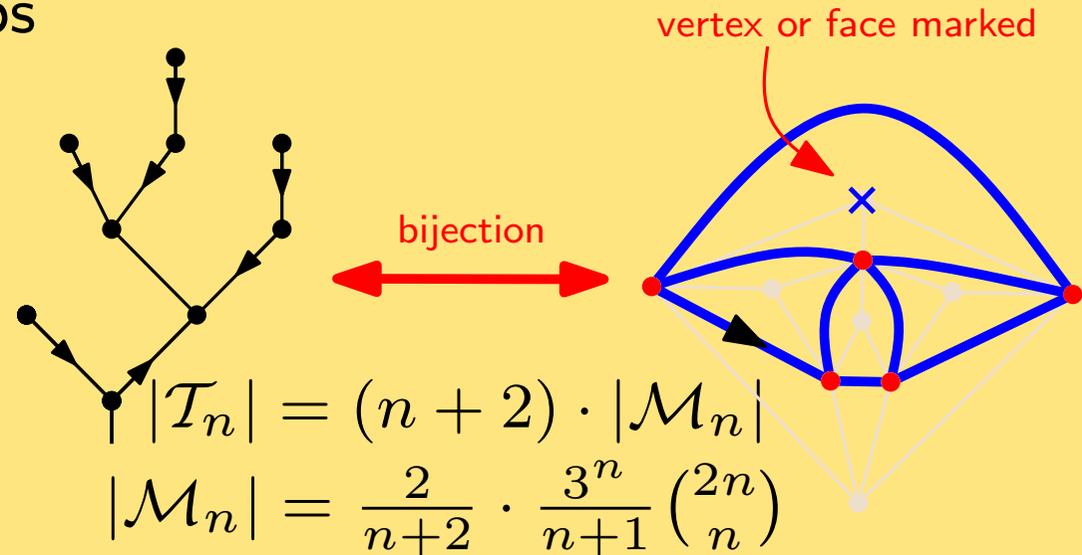
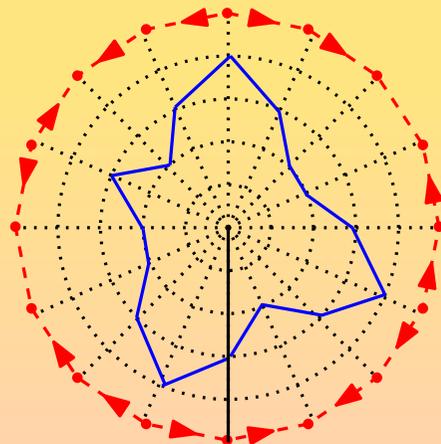
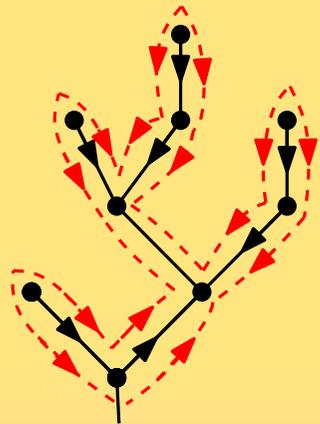
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

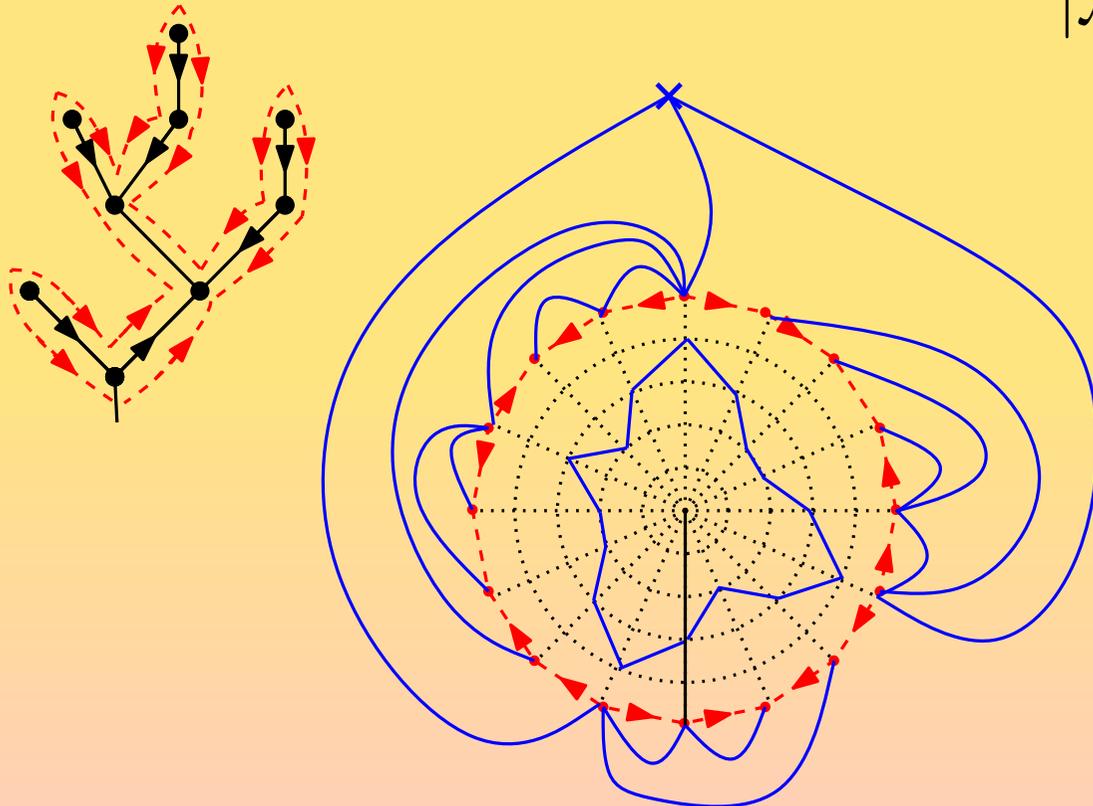
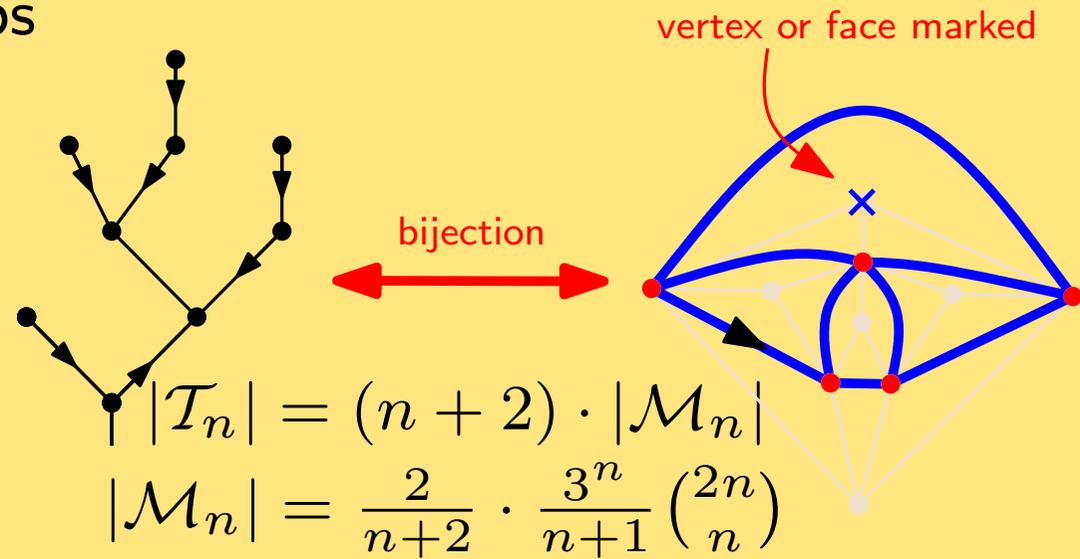
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

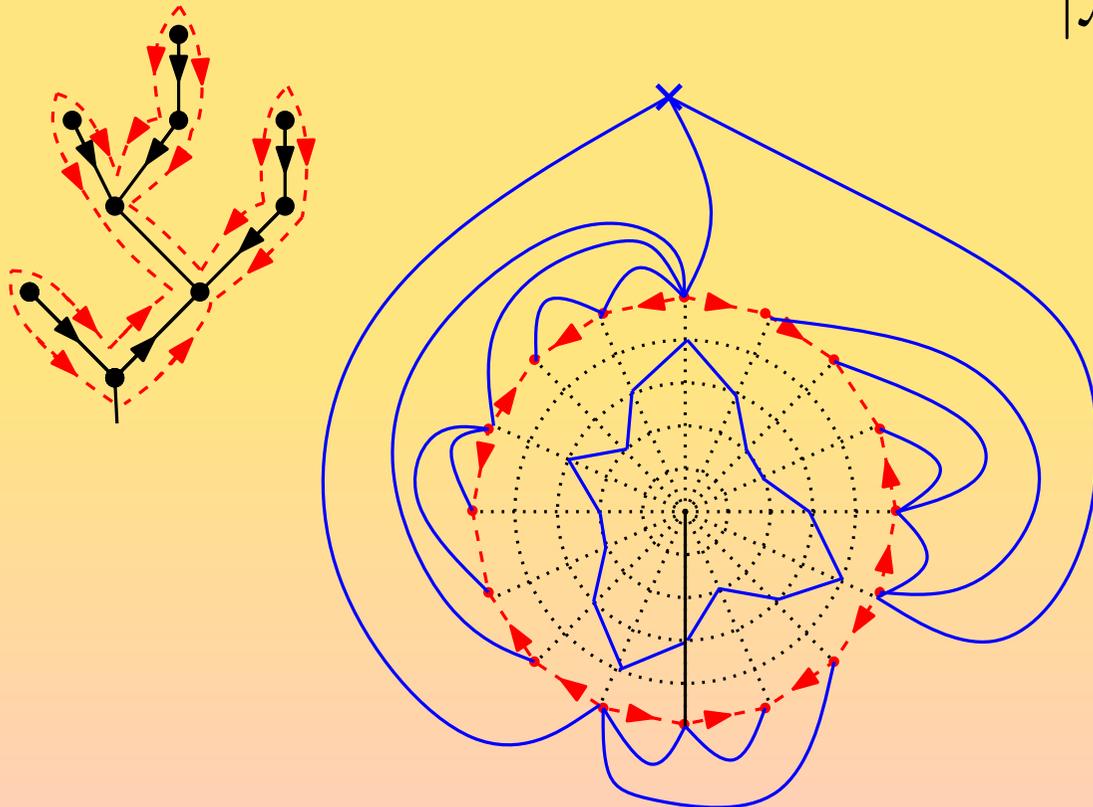
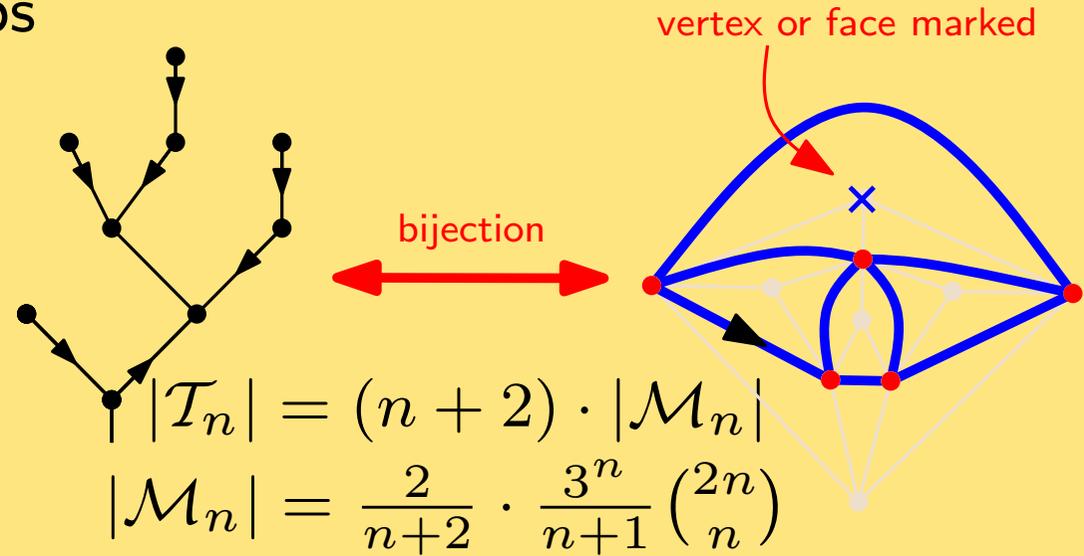
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

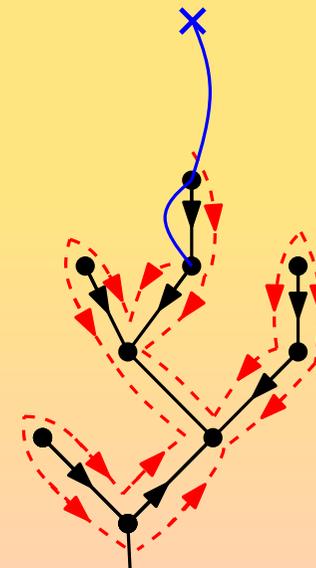
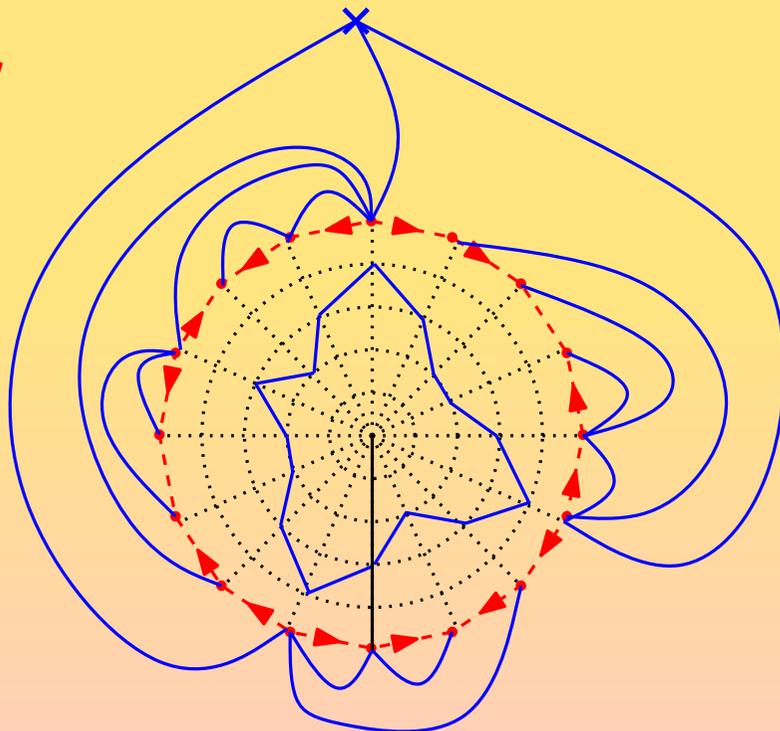
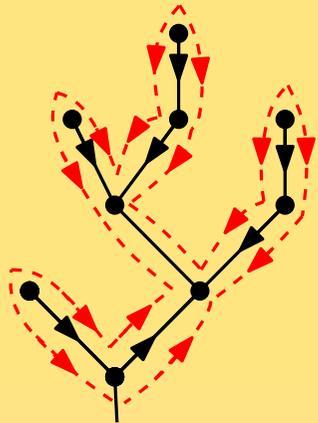
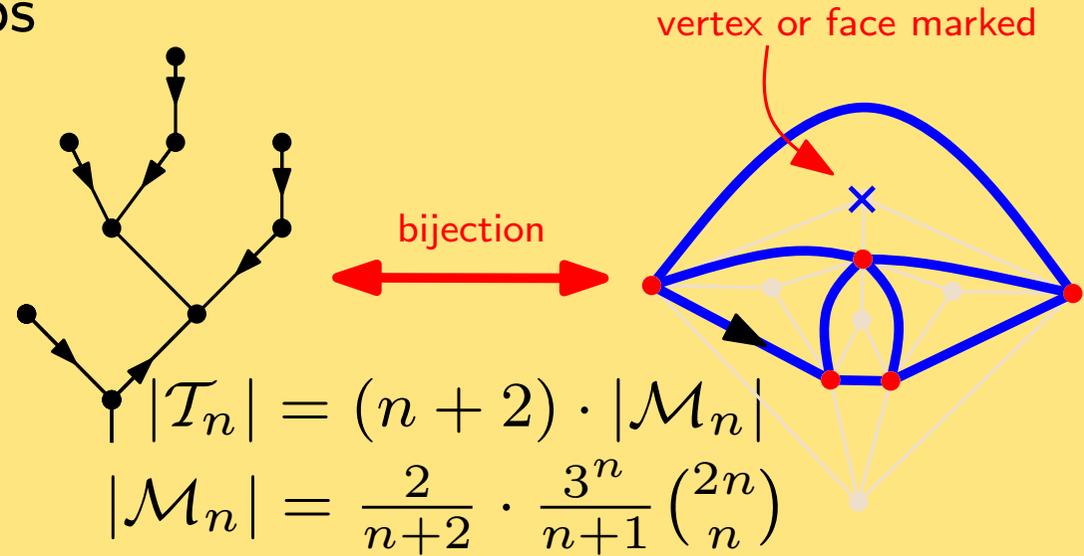
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

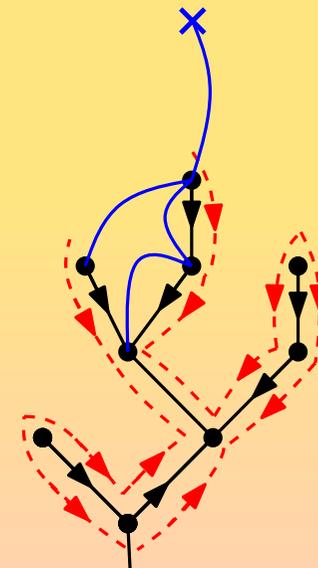
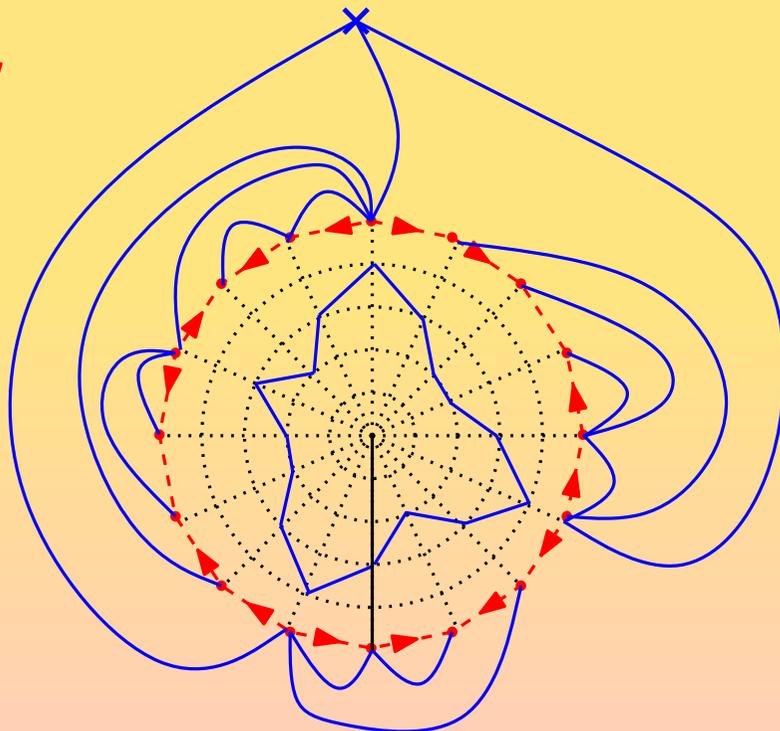
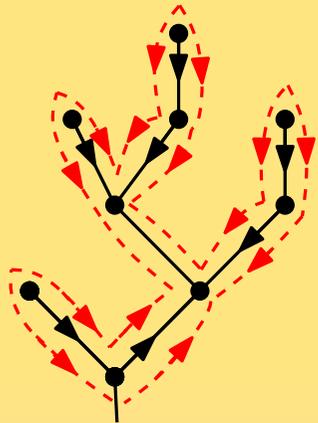
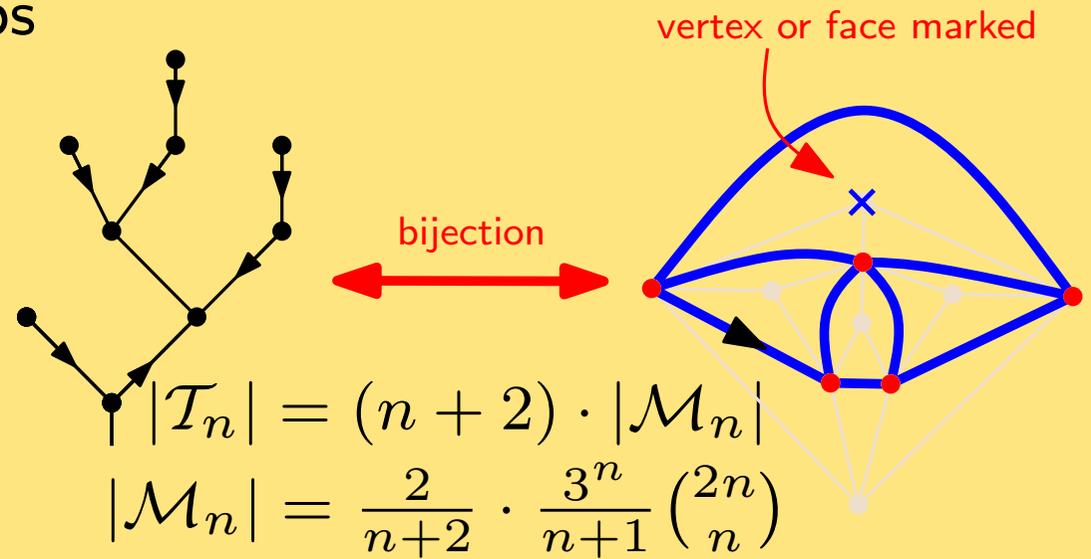
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

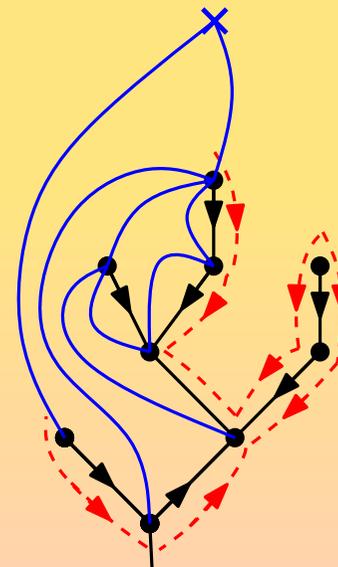
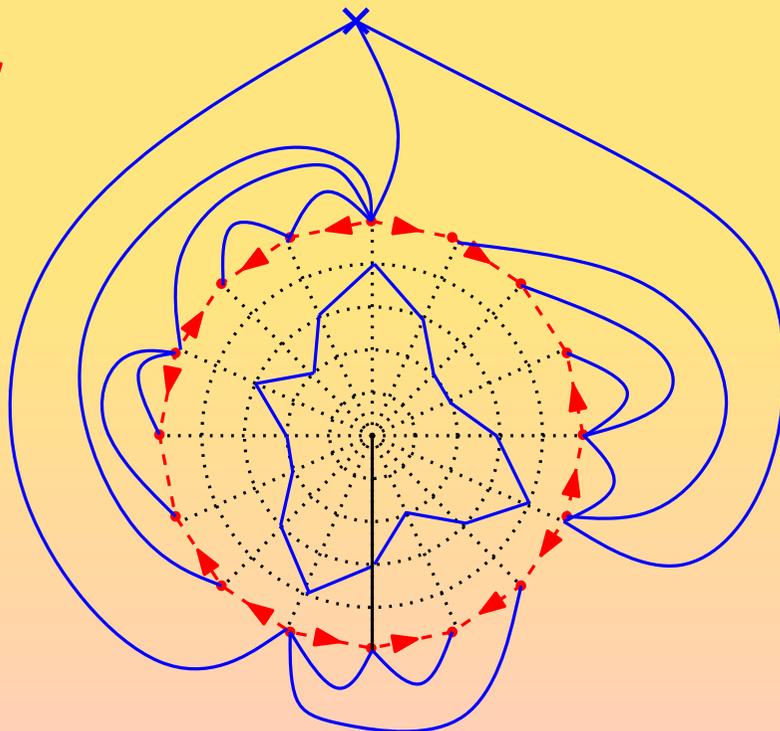
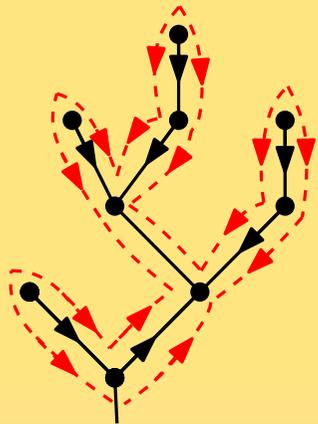
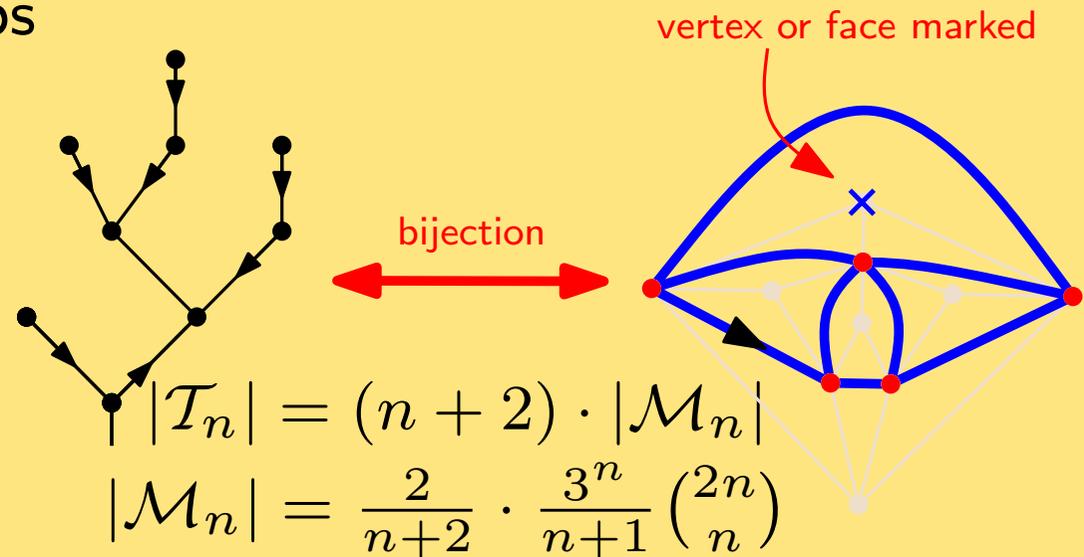
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

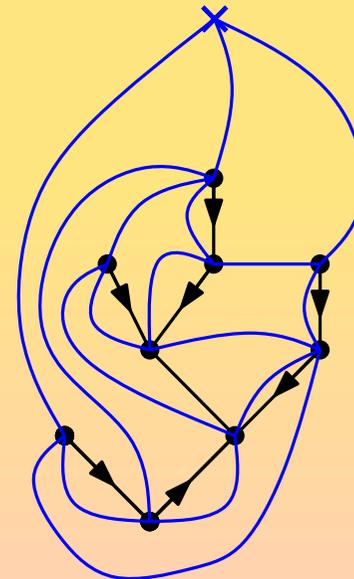
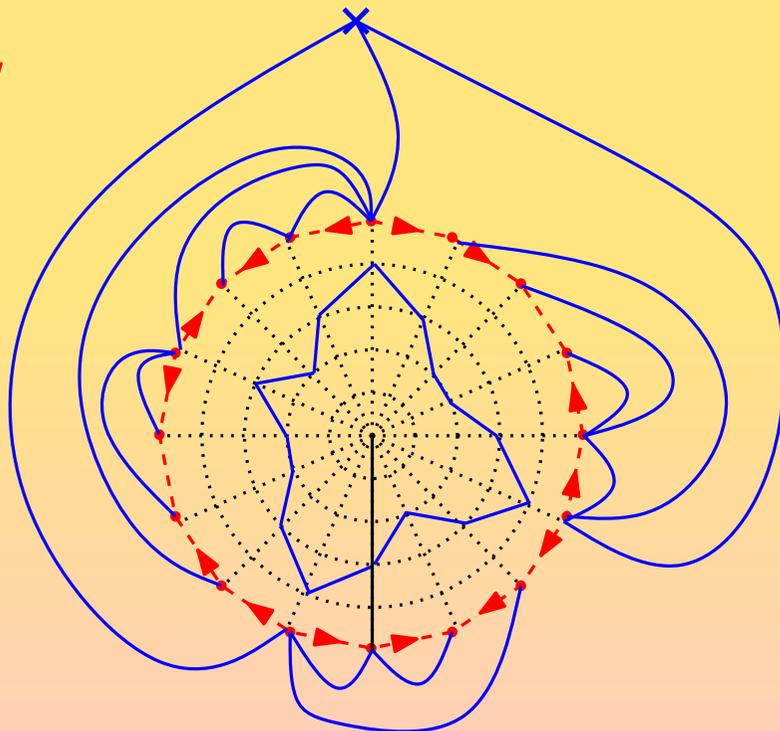
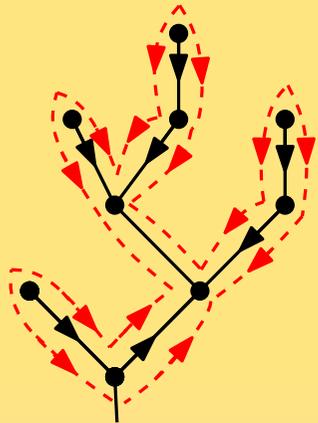
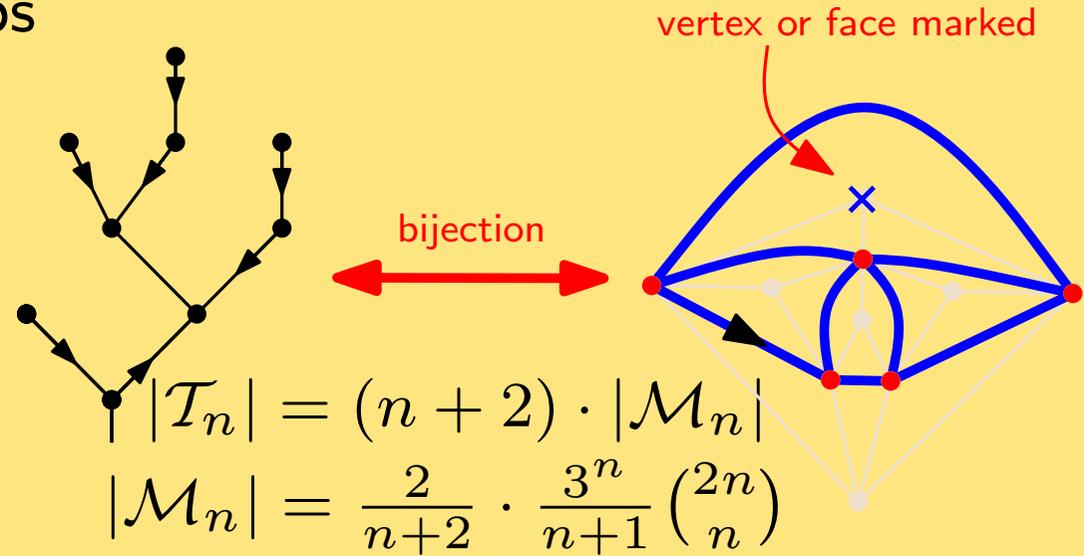
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{ \text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges} \}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{ \text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges} \}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

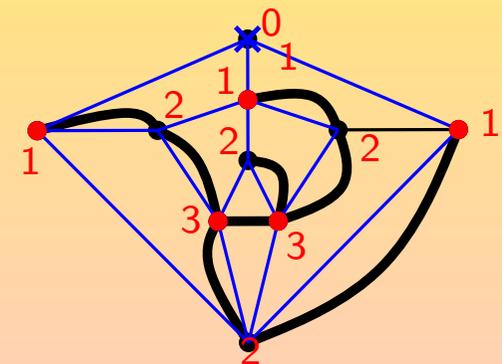
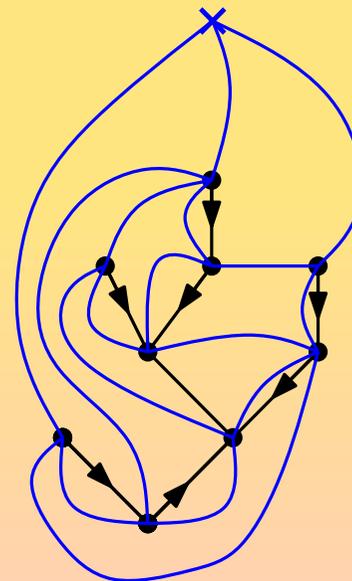
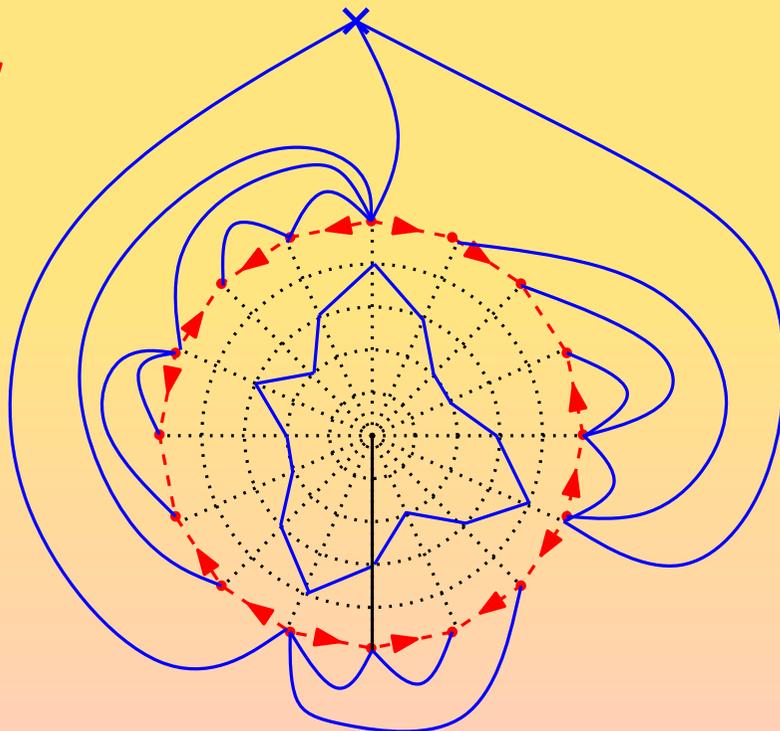
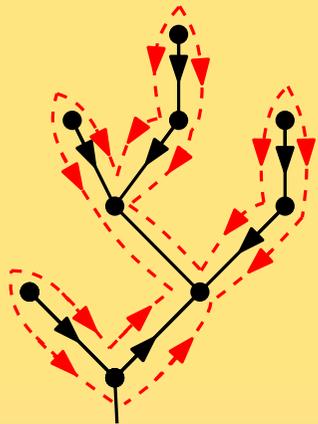
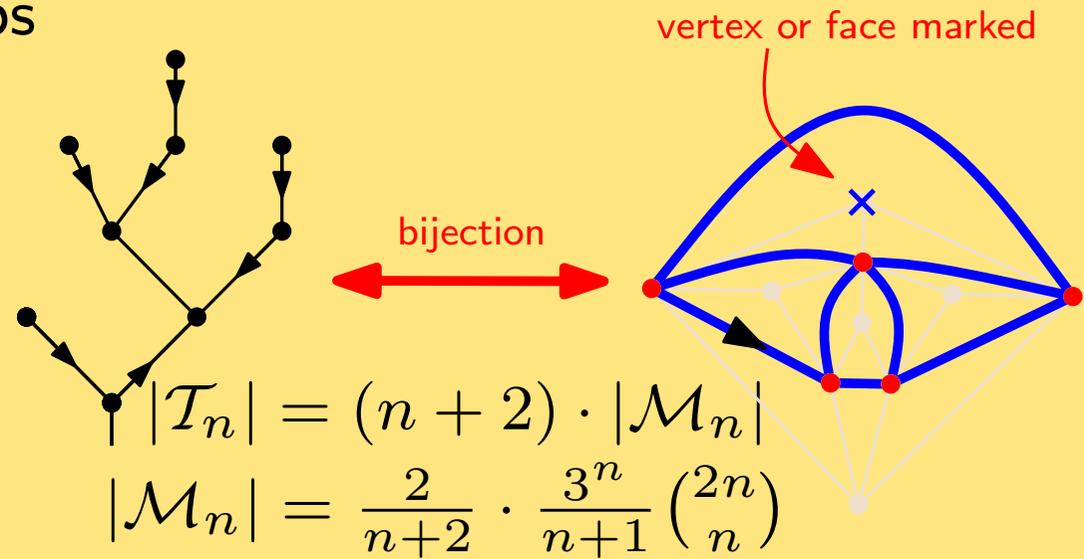
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{ \text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges} \}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{ \text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges} \}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Uniform random planar maps

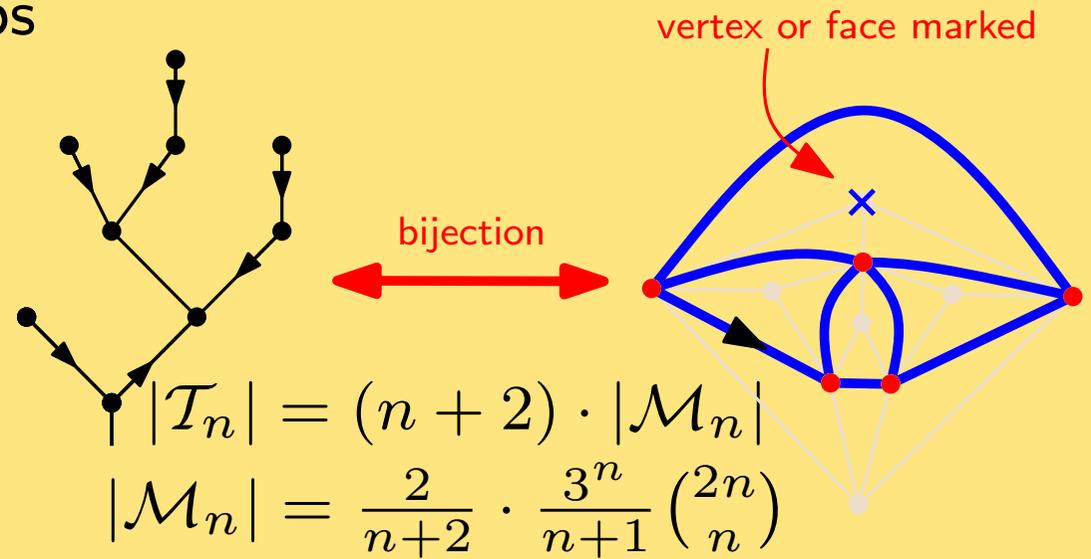
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{ \text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges} \}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

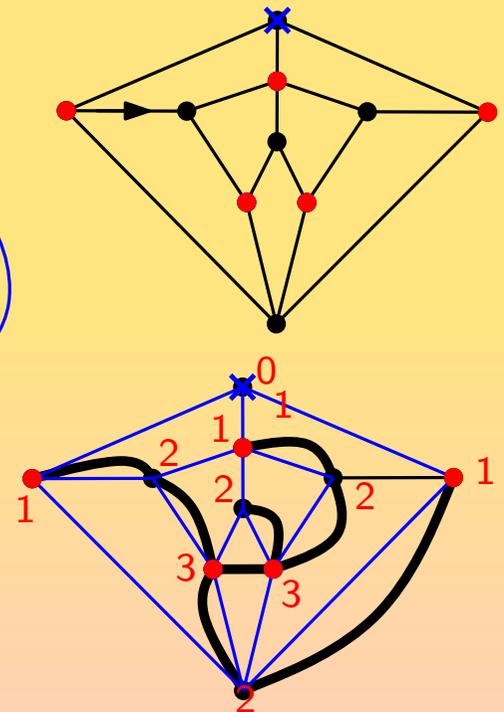
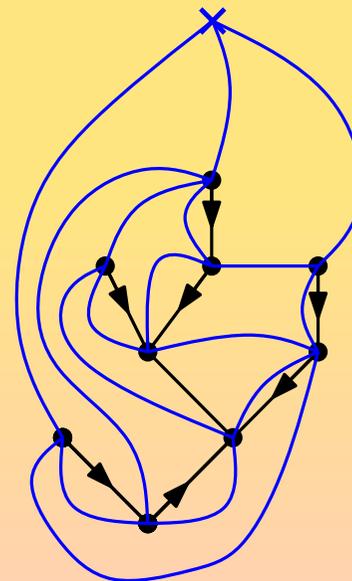
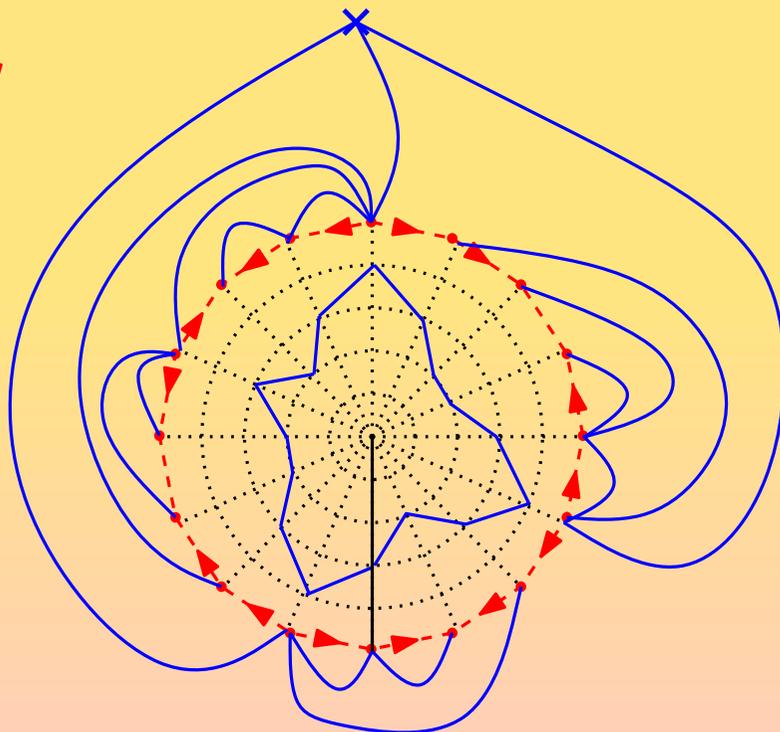
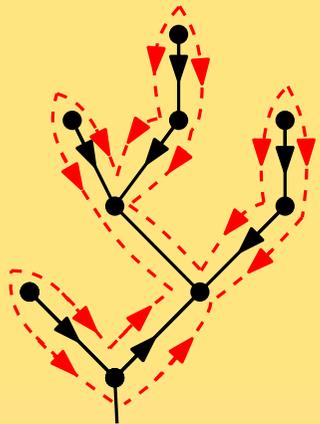
$\mathcal{M}_n = \{ \text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges} \}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = (n + 2) \cdot |\mathcal{M}_n|$$

$$|\mathcal{M}_n| = \frac{2}{n+2} \cdot \frac{3^n}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$



Uniform random planar maps

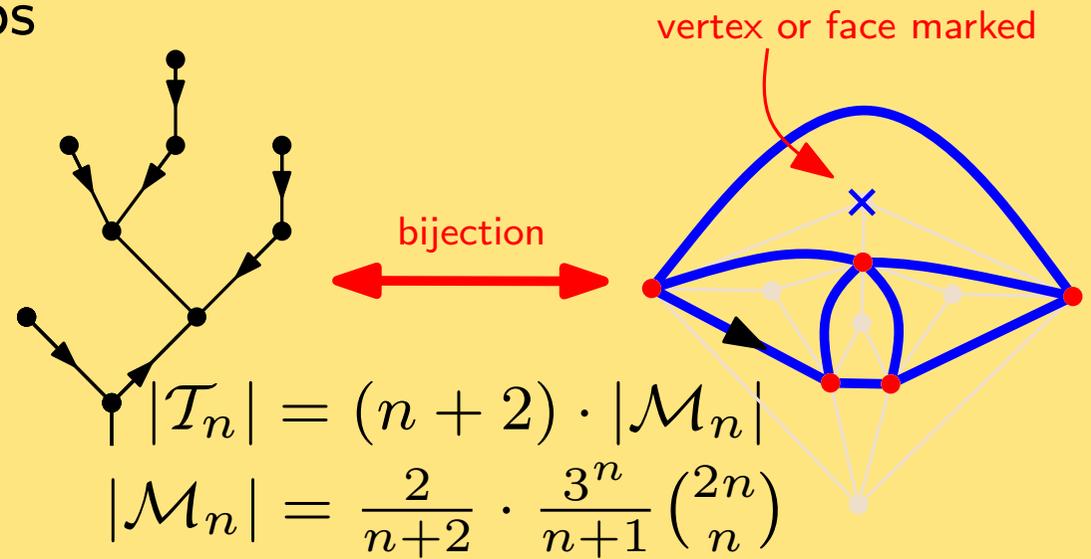
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{ \text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges} \}$

$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

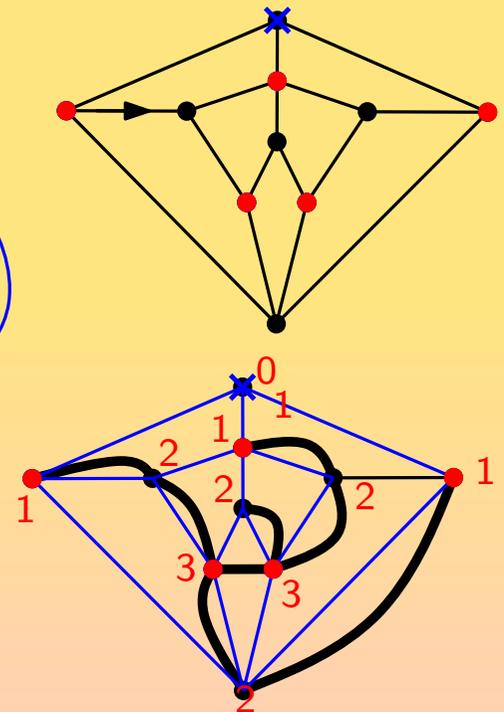
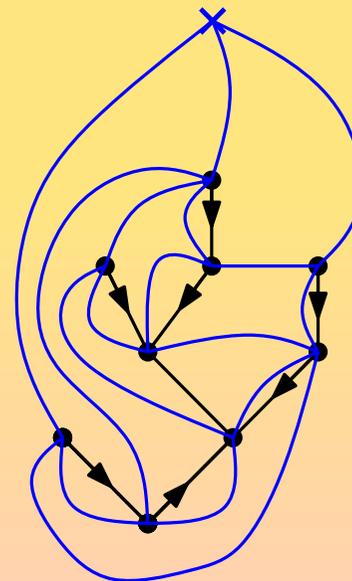
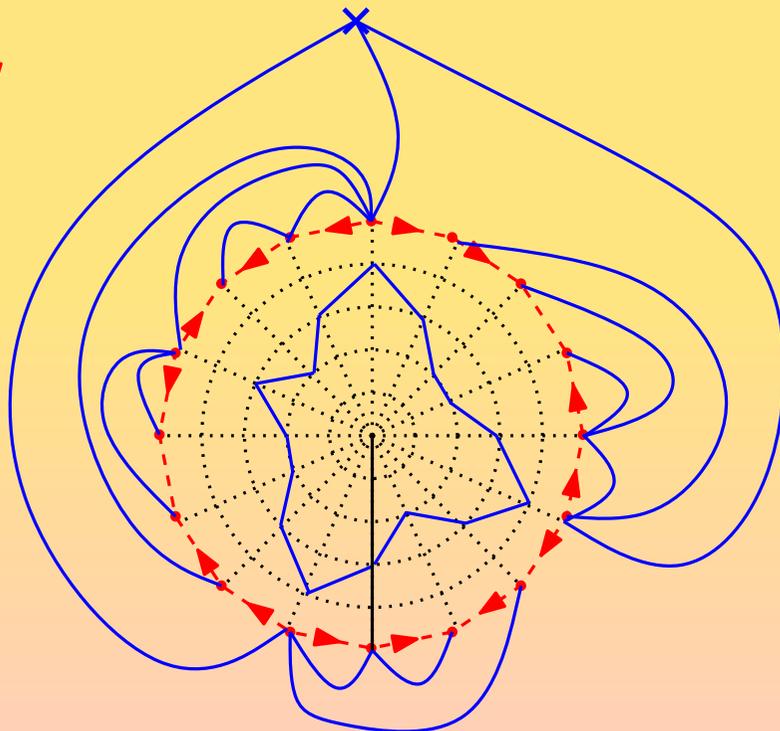
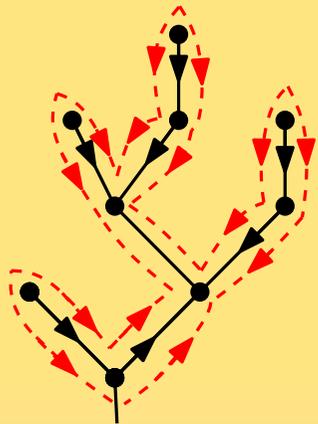
$\mathcal{M}_n = \{ \text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges} \}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = (n + 2) \cdot |\mathcal{M}_n|$$

$$|\mathcal{M}_n| = \frac{2}{n+2} \cdot \frac{3^n}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$



Uniform random planar maps

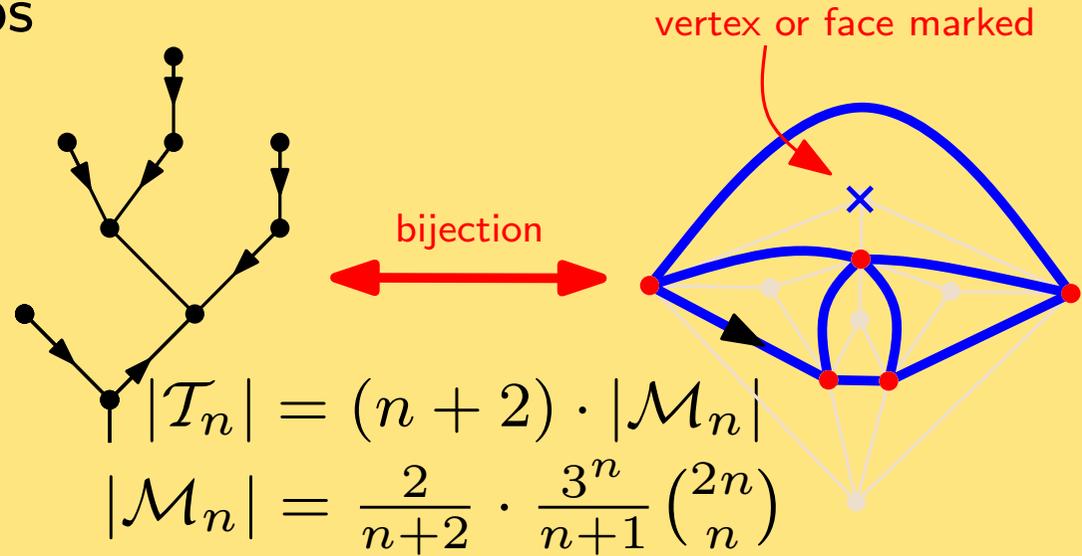
My recurrent claim: Trees are to maps
what words (codes) are to trees.

$\mathcal{T}_n = \{\text{ordered trees with } n \text{ vertices; root label } 0 ;$
 $\text{integer labels that differ at most by } 1 \text{ along edges}\}$

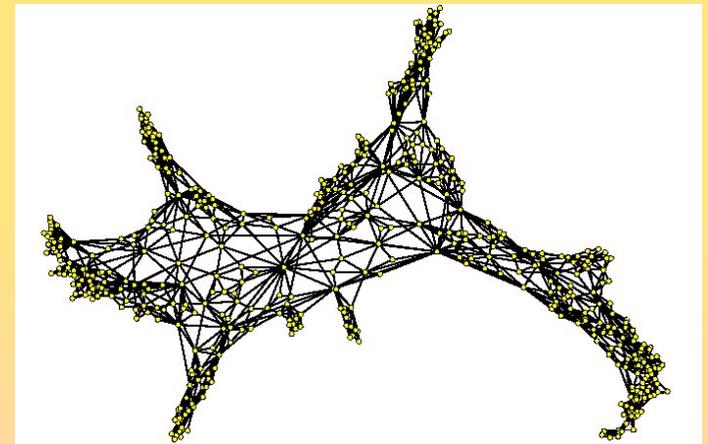
$$|\mathcal{T}_n| = 3^n \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}$$

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{\text{edge rooted planar maps with } n \text{ edges}\}$

Euler's formula: $v + f = n + 2$



Theorem: Uniform random planar maps with n edges can be generated in linear time from the *closure* of uniform random ordered trees.



Decomposing planar graphs

A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

Decomposing planar graphs

A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

1) planar graph = set (planar connected graphs)

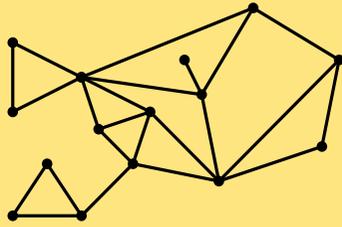
Decomposing planar graphs

A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

1) planar graph = set (planar connected graphs)

2)



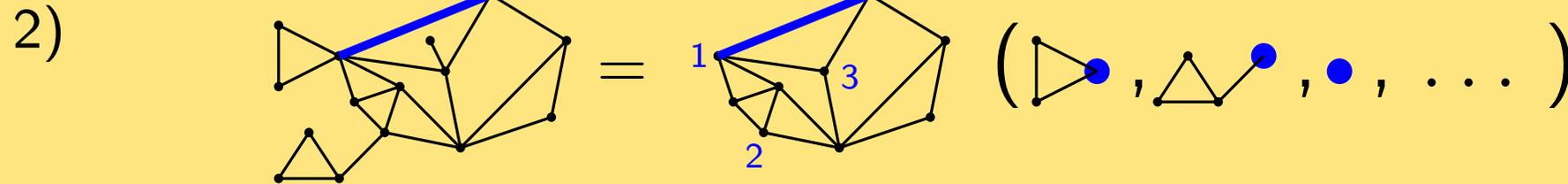
connected planar graph

Decomposing planar graphs

A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

1) planar graph = set (planar connected graphs) **Recall: labeled graphs**



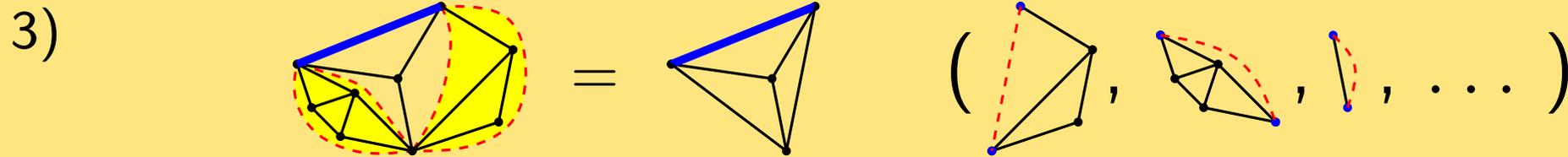
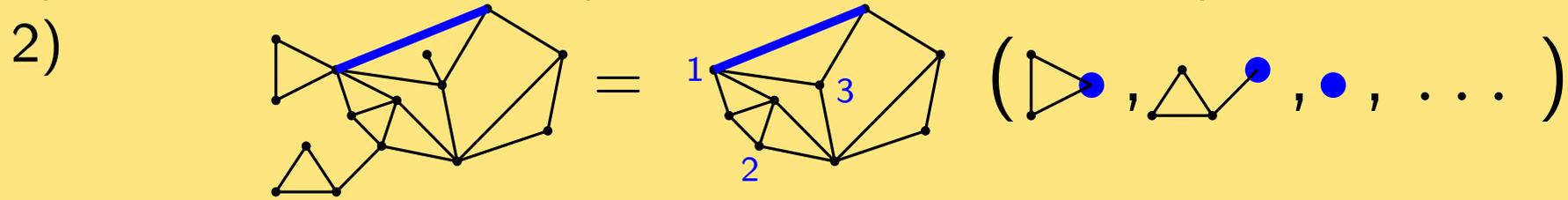
connected planar graph = edge rooted 2-connected \circ_v vertex rooted connected planar graphs

Decomposing planar graphs

A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

1) planar graph = set (planar connected graphs) **Recall: labeled graphs**

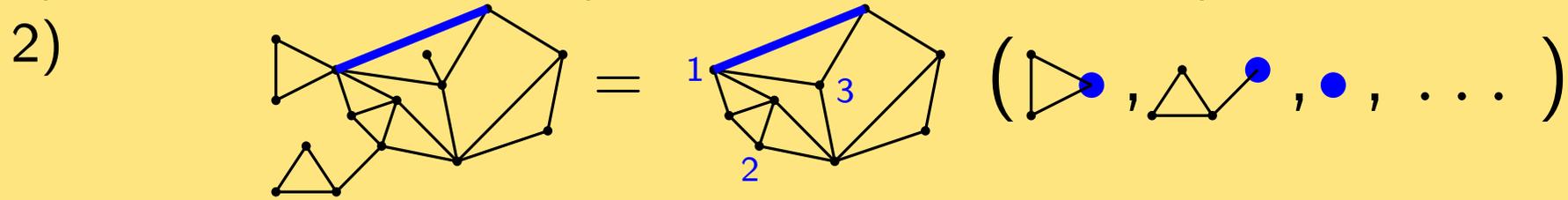


Decomposing planar graphs

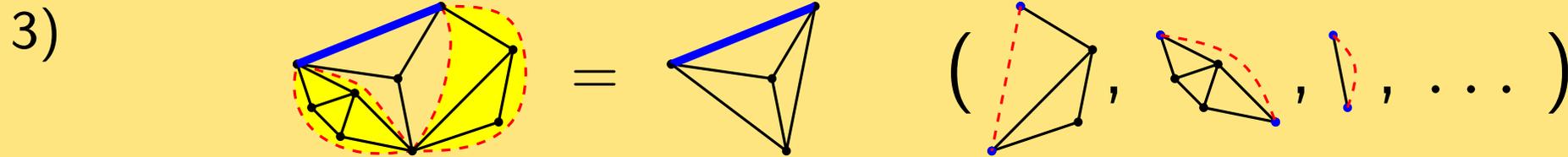
A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

1) planar graph = set (planar connected graphs) **Recall: labeled graphs**



connected planar graph = edge rooted 2-connected \circ_v vertex rooted connected planar graphs



edge rooted 2-connected graphs = 3-connected \circ_e virtual edge rooted 2-connected planar graphs

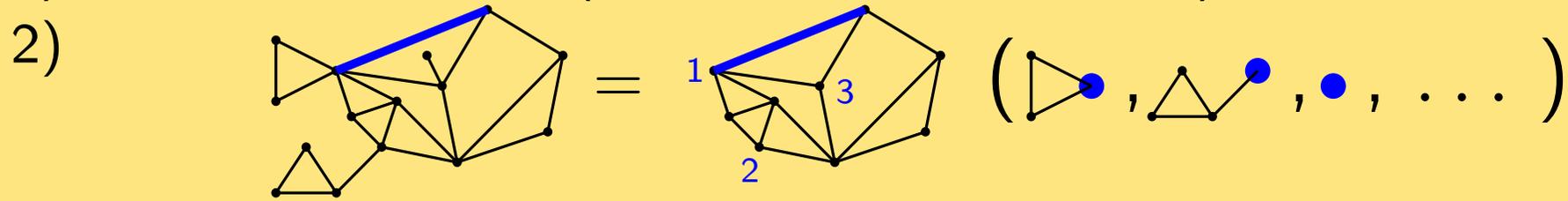
Theorem (Whitney). A 3-c planar graph has a unique embedding

Decomposing planar graphs

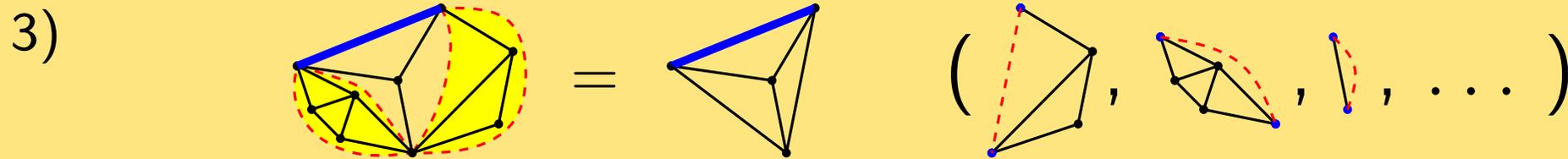
A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

1) planar graph = set (planar connected graphs) **Recall: labeled graphs**



connected planar graph = edge rooted 2-connected \circ_v vertex rooted connected planar graphs



edge rooted 2-connected graphs = 3-connected \circ_e virtual edge rooted 2-connected planar graphs

Theorem (Whitney). A 3-c planar graph has a unique embedding

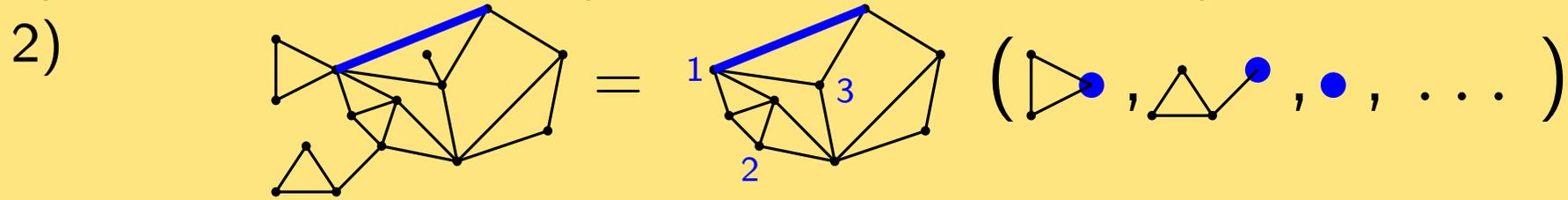
In other terms: 4) 3-c planar graphs and in bijection with 3-c planar maps

Decomposing planar graphs

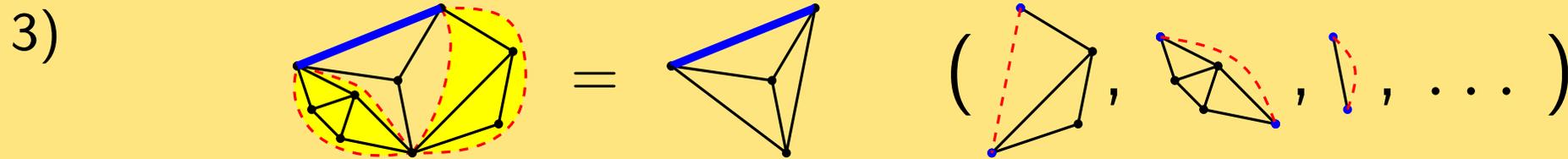
A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

1) planar graph = set (planar connected graphs) **Recall: labeled graphs**



connected planar graph = edge rooted 2-connected \circ_v vertex rooted connected planar graphs



edge rooted 2-connected graphs = 3-connected \circ_e virtual edge rooted 2-connected planar graphs

Theorem (Whitney). A 3-c planar graph has a unique embedding

In other terms: 4) 3-c planar graphs and in bijection with 3-c planar maps

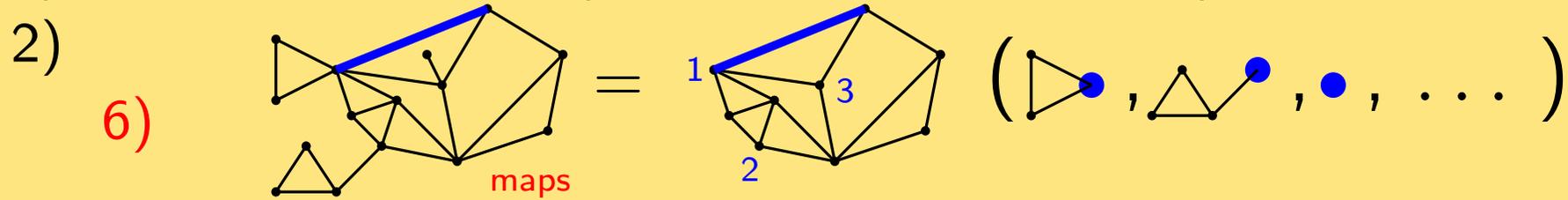
Then, essentially the same decomposition allows to relate planar 3-c maps to 2-c and connected planar maps the other way round.

Decomposing planar graphs

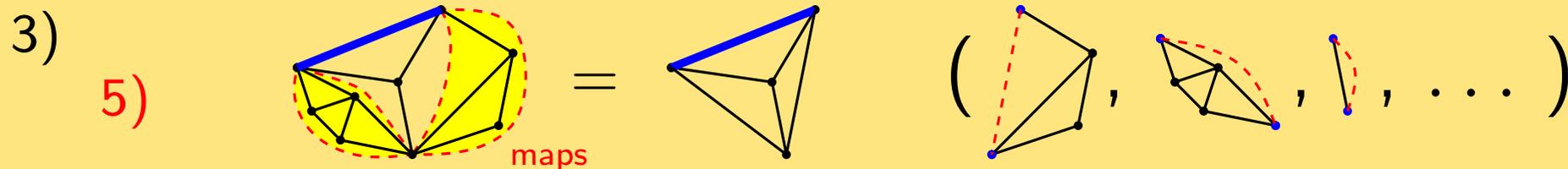
A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

1) planar graph = set (planar connected graphs) **Recall: labeled graphs**



connected planar graph = edge rooted 2-connected \circ_v vertex rooted connected planar graphs



edge rooted 2-connected graphs = 3-connected \circ_e virtual edge rooted 2-connected planar graphs

Theorem (Whitney). A 3-c planar graph has a unique embedding

In other terms: 4) 3-c planar graphs and in bijection with 3-c planar maps

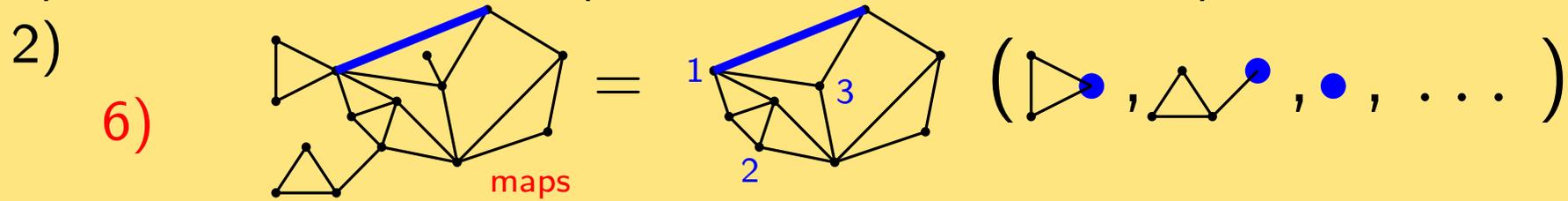
Then, essentially the same decomposition allows to relate planar 3-c maps to 2-c and connected planar maps the other way round.

Decomposing planar graphs

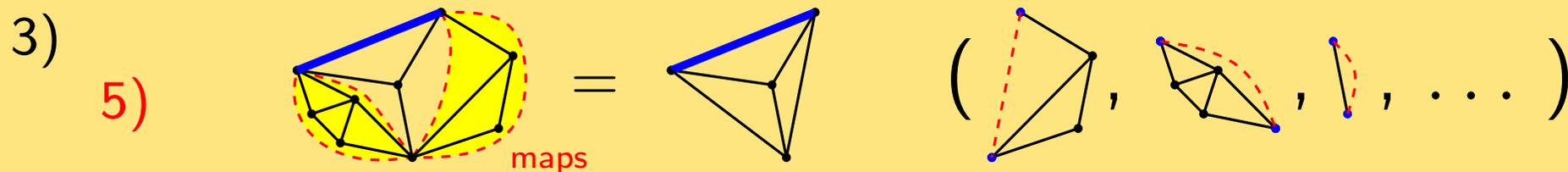
A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

1) planar graph = set (planar connected graphs) **Recall: labeled graphs**



connected planar graph = edge rooted 2-connected \circ_v vertex rooted connected planar graphs



edge rooted 2-connected graphs = 3-connected \circ_e virtual edge rooted 2-connected planar graphs

Theorem (Whitney). A 3-c planar graph has a unique embedding

In other terms: 4) 3-c planar graphs and in bijection with 3-c planar maps

Then, essentially the same decomposition allows to relate planar 3-c maps to 2-c and connected planar maps the other way round.

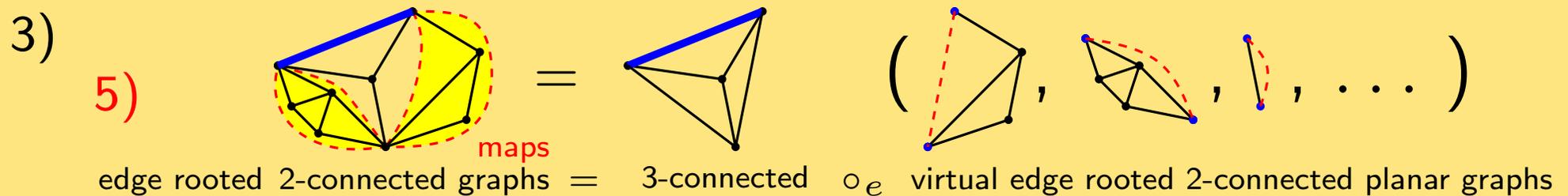
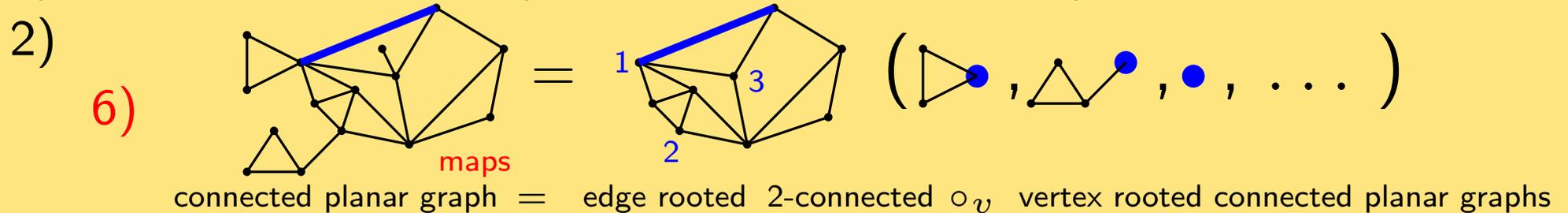
Recall Recurrent Claim: planar maps can be generated from trees.

Decomposing planar graphs

A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

1) planar graph = set (planar connected graphs) **Recall: labeled graphs**



Theorem (Whitney). A 3-c planar graph has a unique embedding

In other terms: 4) 3-c planar graphs and in bijection with 3-c planar maps

Then, essentially the same decomposition allows to relate planar 3-c maps to 2-c and connected planar maps the other way round.

Recall Recurrent Claim: planar maps can be generated from trees.

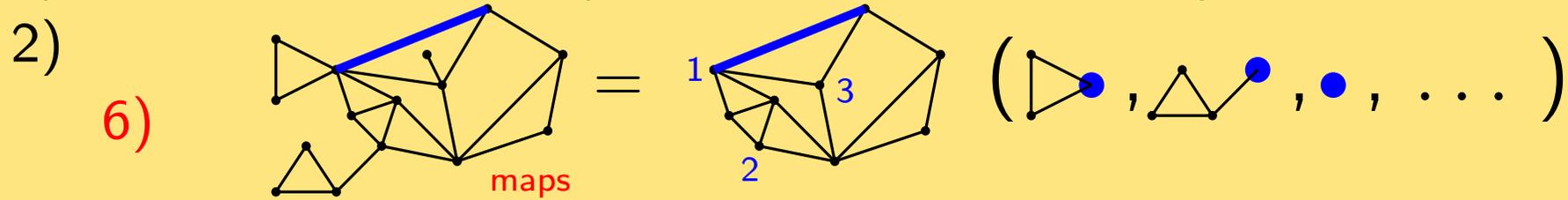
One needs an easy way to perform sampling for the **composition** of two combinatorial structures

Decomposing planar graphs

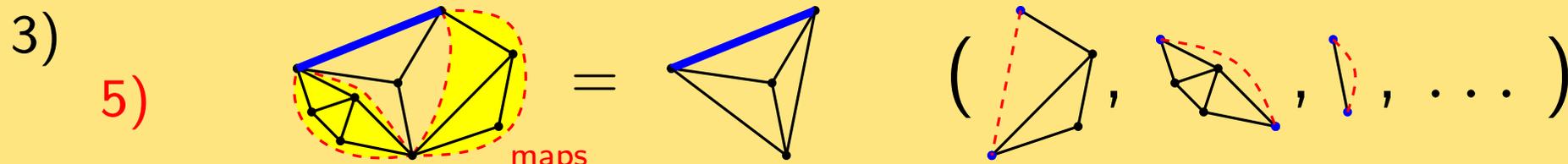
A decomposition for planar graphs was essentially given by Tutte.

cf Marc Noy's talk for its application to asymptotics.

1) planar graph = set (planar connected graphs) **Recall: labeled graphs**



connected planar graph = edge rooted 2-connected \circ_v vertex rooted connected planar graphs



edge rooted 2-connected graphs = 3-connected \circ_e virtual edge rooted 2-connected planar graphs

Theorem (Whitney). A 3-c planar graph has a unique embedding

In other terms: 4) 3-c planar graphs and in bijection with 3-c planar maps

Then, essentially the same decomposition allows to relate planar 3-c maps to 2-c and connected planar maps the other way round.

Recall Recurrent Claim: planar maps can be generated from trees.

One needs an easy way to perform sampling for the **composition** of two combinatorial structures **Boltzmann sampling does this!**

Boltzmann models, Boltzmann sampling

A combinatorial class $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_n)_{n \geq 0}$

Its generating function $A(x) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} x^{|a|} = \sum_n |\mathcal{A}_n| x^n$.

Boltzmann models, Boltzmann sampling

A combinatorial class $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_n)_{n \geq 0}$

Its generating function $A(x) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} x^{|a|} = \sum_n |\mathcal{A}_n| x^n$.

Let $x_0 > 0$ be such that $A(x_0)$ is finite (e.g. $x_0 < \rho_A$)

$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_0)$ is a Boltzmann generator of parameter x_0 for \mathcal{A} if

$$\Pr(\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_0) = a) = \frac{x_0^{|a|}}{A(x_0)} \text{ for all } a \in \mathcal{A}.$$

Boltzmann models, Boltzmann sampling

A combinatorial class $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_n)_{n \geq 0}$

Its generating function $A(x) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} x^{|a|} = \sum_n |\mathcal{A}_n| x^n$.

Let $x_0 > 0$ be such that $A(x_0)$ is finite (e.g. $x_0 < \rho_A$)

$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_0)$ is a Boltzmann generator of parameter x_0 for \mathcal{A} if

$$\Pr(\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_0) = a) = \frac{x_0^{|a|}}{A(x_0)} \text{ for all } a \in \mathcal{A}.$$

- Composite Boltzmann generators can be *assembled* for the sum, product and **composition** of combinatorial classes.

Suppose we have Boltzmann generators $\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x)$ and $\Gamma[\mathcal{B}](x)$. Then

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A} + \mathcal{B}](x) := \text{if } \text{Bern}\left(\frac{A(x)}{A(x) + B(x)}\right) \text{ then } \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) \text{ else } \Gamma[\mathcal{B}](x)$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{B}](x) := (\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x), \Gamma[\mathcal{B}](x))$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}](x) := \text{let } a = \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](B(x)) \text{ in } (a; (\Gamma[\mathcal{B}](x))^{|a|})$$

Composition in Boltzmann sampling

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}](x) := \text{let } a = \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](B(x)) \text{ in } (a; (\Gamma[\mathcal{B}](x))^{|a|})$$

Theorem: if $\Gamma[\mathcal{A}]$ and $\Gamma[\mathcal{B}]$ are Boltzmann so is $\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}]$.

Composition in Boltzmann sampling

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}](x) := \text{let } a = \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](B(x)) \text{ in } (a; (\Gamma[\mathcal{B}](x))^{|a|})$$

Theorem: if $\Gamma[\mathcal{A}]$ and $\Gamma[\mathcal{B}]$ are Boltzmann so is $\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}]$.

Proof: Let $\gamma \in A \circ B$ with $\gamma = (a; b_1, \dots, b_k)$ where $a \in \mathcal{A}$, $k = |a|$, $b_i \in \mathcal{B}$ for $i = 1, \dots, k$, and $|\gamma| = |b_1| + \dots + |b_k|$.

Then $\Pr \left(\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}](x) = \gamma \right)$

$$= \Pr \left(\Gamma[\mathcal{A}] = a \right) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{|a|} \Pr \left(\Gamma[\mathcal{B}](x) = b_i \right)$$

$$= \frac{B(x)^{|a|}}{A(B(x))} \cdot \frac{\prod_i x^{|b_i|}}{B(x)^{|a|}} = \frac{x^{|b_1| + \dots + |b_k|}}{A(B(x))} = \frac{x^{|\gamma|}}{(A \circ B)(x)}.$$

□

Composition in Boltzmann sampling

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}](x) := \text{let } a = \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](B(x)) \text{ in } (a; (\Gamma[\mathcal{B}](x))^{|a|})$$

Theorem: if $\Gamma[\mathcal{A}]$ and $\Gamma[\mathcal{B}]$ are Boltzmann so is $\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}]$.

Proof: Let $\gamma \in A \circ B$ with $\gamma = (a; b_1, \dots, b_k)$ where $a \in \mathcal{A}$, $k = |a|$, $b_i \in \mathcal{B}$ for $i = 1, \dots, k$, and $|\gamma| = |b_1| + \dots + |b_k|$.

Then $\Pr \left(\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}](x) = \gamma \right)$

$$= \Pr \left(\Gamma[\mathcal{A}] = a \right) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{|a|} \Pr \left(\Gamma[\mathcal{B}](x) = b_i \right)$$

$$= \frac{B(x)^{|a|}}{A(B(x))} \cdot \frac{\prod_i x^{|b_i|}}{B(x)^{|a|}} = \frac{x^{|b_1| + \dots + |b_k|}}{A(B(x))} = \frac{x^{|\gamma|}}{(A \circ B)(x)}. \quad \square$$

Theorem: if $\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}]$ is Boltzmann then so are $\text{Core}(\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}])$ and $\text{First}(\Gamma[\mathcal{A} \circ \mathcal{B}])$, where $\text{Core}(\gamma) = a$ and $\text{First}(\gamma) = b_1$.

Uniform sampling from Boltzmann sampling

- Rejection yields uniform sampling (elements of same size have same proba)

$U[\mathcal{A}](n) := \text{do let } a = \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) \text{ until } |a| = n; \text{ return } a;$

Complexity depends on $|\mathcal{A}_n| \frac{x^n}{A(x)}$: good choice of $x = x_n$ and pointing.

Exact size uniform sampling can be often done in **quadratic** expected time and **approximate size** uniform sampling can be done in **linear** time.

Uniform sampling from Boltzmann sampling

- Rejection yields uniform sampling (elements of same size have same proba)

$U[\mathcal{A}](n) := \text{do let } a = \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) \text{ until } |a| = n; \text{ return } a;$

Complexity depends on $|\mathcal{A}_n| \frac{x^n}{A(x)}$: good choice of $x = x_n$ and pointing.

Exact size uniform sampling can be often done in **quadratic** expected time and **approximate size** uniform sampling can be done in **linear** time.

- Boltzmann in progress...

Initial model: Labelled and rigid unlabelled structures

Duchon, Flajolet, Louchard, Schaeffer (2002)

Composition, Bivariate, Unlabelled structures and Polya theory

Fusy (2006) and Flajolet, Fusy, Pivoteau (2007) and Bodirsky, Fusy, Kang and Vigerske (2007)

Efficient oracles for the evaluation of generating series

Pivoteau, Salvy, Soria (2008)

Uniform sampling from Boltzmann sampling

- Rejection yields uniform sampling (elements of same size have same proba)

$U[\mathcal{A}](n) := \text{do let } a = \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) \text{ until } |a| = n; \text{ return } a;$

Complexity depends on $|\mathcal{A}_n| \frac{x^n}{A(x)}$: good choice of $x = x_n$ and pointing.

Exact size uniform sampling can be often done in **quadratic** expected time and **approximate size** uniform sampling can be done in **linear** time.

- Boltzmann in progress...

Initial model: Labelled and rigid unlabelled structures

Duchon, Flajolet, Louchard, Schaeffer (2002)

Composition, Bivariate, Unlabelled structures and Polya theory

Fusy (2006) and Flajolet, Fusy, Pivoteau (2007) and Bodirsky, Fusy, Kang and Vigerske (2007)

Efficient oracles for the evaluation of generating series

Pivoteau, Salvy, Soria (2008)

Applications: plane partitions, colored structures, deterministic automata, XML documents, Apollonian structures...

Bodini, Fusy, Pivoteau (2006), Bodini, Jacquot (2008), Bassino, Nicaud (2006), Bassino, David, Nicaud (2008), Darasse, Soria (2007), Darasse (2008), Bernasconi, Panagiotou, Steger, Weißt (2006)

Application to graphs: Fusy's generator

A (very rough) idea of Eric Fusy's generator for random planar graphs:

Application to graphs: Fusy's generator

A (very rough) idea of Eric Fusy's generator for random planar graphs:

- 3-connected graphs: $\Gamma[3-c] := \text{Core}_3(\text{Core}_2(\Gamma[\text{Planar maps}]))$

Application to graphs: Fusy's generator

A (very rough) idea of Eric Fusy's generator for random planar graphs:

- 3-connected graphs: $\Gamma[3-c] := \text{Core}_3(\text{Core}_2(\Gamma[\text{Planar maps}])))$

- 2-connected graphs:

$$\Gamma[2-c] := \text{let } G_3 = \Gamma[3c] \text{ in } G_3 \circ \left(\underbrace{\Gamma[2c], \dots, \Gamma[2c]}_{\#\{\text{edges of } G_3\} \text{ times}} \right)$$

- 1-connected graphs:

$$\Gamma[1-c] := \text{let } G_2 = \Gamma[2c] \text{ in } G_2 \circ_v \left(\underbrace{\Gamma[1c], \dots, \Gamma[1c]}_{\#\{\text{vertices of } G_2\}} \right)$$

Application to graphs: Fusy's generator

A (very rough) idea of Eric Fusy's generator for random planar graphs:

- 3-connected graphs: $\Gamma[3-c] := \text{Core}_3(\text{Core}_2(\Gamma[\text{Planar maps}])))$

- 2-connected graphs:

$$\Gamma[2-c] := \text{let } G_3 = \Gamma[3c] \text{ in } G_3 \circ \left(\underbrace{\Gamma[2c], \dots, \Gamma[2c]}_{\#\{\text{edges of } G_3\} \text{ times}} \right)$$

- 1-connected graphs:

$$\Gamma[1-c] := \text{let } G_2 = \Gamma[2c] \text{ in } G_2 \circ_v \left(\underbrace{\Gamma[1c], \dots, \Gamma[1c]}_{\#\{\text{vertices of } G_2\}} \right)$$

Application to graphs: Fusy's generator

A (very rough) idea of Eric Fusy's generator for random planar graphs:

- 3-connected graphs: $\Gamma[3-c] := \text{Core}_3(\text{Core}_2(\Gamma[\text{Planar maps}])))$

- 2-connected graphs:

$$\Gamma[2-c] := \text{let } G_3 = \Gamma[3c] \text{ in } G_3 \circ \left(\underbrace{\Gamma[2c], \dots, \Gamma[2c]}_{\#\{\text{edges of } G_3\} \text{ times}} \right)$$

- 1-connected graphs:

$$\Gamma[1-c] := \text{let } G_2 = \Gamma[2c] \text{ in } G_2 \circ_v \left(\underbrace{\Gamma[1c], \dots, \Gamma[1c]}_{\#\{\text{vertices of } G_2\}} \right)$$

The result is a Boltzmann generator for planar graphs. Uniform sampling is obtained by rejection.

Application to graphs: Fusy's generator

A (very rough) idea of Eric Fusy's generator for random planar graphs:

- 3-connected graphs: $\Gamma[3-c] := \text{Core}_3(\text{Core}_2(\Gamma[\text{Planar maps}])))$

- 2-connected graphs:

$$\Gamma[2-c] := \text{let } G_3 = \Gamma[3c] \text{ in } G_3 \circ \left(\underbrace{\Gamma[2c], \dots, \Gamma[2c]}_{\#\{\text{edges of } G_3\} \text{ times}} \right)$$

- 1-connected graphs:

$$\Gamma[1-c] := \text{let } G_2 = \Gamma[2c] \text{ in } G_2 \circ_v \left(\underbrace{\Gamma[1c], \dots, \Gamma[1c]}_{\#\{\text{vertices of } G_2\}} \right)$$

The result is a Boltzmann generator for planar graphs. Uniform sampling is obtained by rejection.

Warning: I skipt a "lot" of details (rerootings, bivariate compositions...)

Higher genus maps can be dealt with...

Higher genus maps can be dealt with...

But you'd better ask Guillaume Chapuy about that...

Higher genus maps can be dealt with...

But you'd better ask Guillaume Chapuy about that...

`\begin{advertising}`

Higher genus maps can be dealt with...

But you'd better ask Guillaume Chapuy about that...

`\begin{advertizing}`

→ Hear about the **almost sure giant 3-c component** of genus g in maps!

Higher genus maps can be dealt with...

But you'd better ask Guillaume Chapuy about that...

`\begin{advertizing}`

→ Hear about the **almost sure giant 3-c component** of genus g in maps!

→ Learn how to **increase the genus bijectively** by marking k -uples of vertices in trees

Higher genus maps can be dealt with...

But you'd better ask Guillaume Chapuy about that...

`\begin{advertizing}`

- Hear about the **almost sure giant 3-c component** of genus g in maps!
- Learn how to **increase the genus bijectively** by marking k -uples of vertices in trees
- Sample your **very own** random genus g maps

Higher genus maps can be dealt with...

But you'd better ask Guillaume Chapuy about that...

`\begin{advertizing}`

- Hear about the **almost sure giant 3-c component** of genus g in maps!
- Learn how to **increase the genus bijectively** by marking k -uples of vertices in trees
- Sample your **very own** random genus g maps
- Take a try on proving our **random genus g graph conjecture**

Higher genus maps can be dealt with...

Boltzmann graphs wait around the corner

But you'd better ask Guillaume Chapuy about that...

`\begin{advertizing}`

→ Hear about the **almost sure giant 3-c component** of genus g in maps!

→ Learn how to **increase the genus bijectively** by marking k -uples of vertices in trees

→ Sample your **very own** random genus g maps

→ Take a try on proving our **random genus g graph conjecture**

`\end{advertizing}`

Higher genus maps can be dealt with...

Boltzmann graphs wait around the corner

But you'd better ask Guillaume Chapuy about that...

`\begin{advertizing}`

→ Hear about the **almost sure giant 3-c component** of genus g in maps!

→ Learn how to **increase the genus bijectively** by marking k -uples of vertices in trees

→ Sample your **very own** random genus g maps

→ Take a try on proving our **random genus g graph conjecture**

`\end{advertizing}`

Many thanks again to Philippe, and to the audience

Random graphs on surfaces: a conjecture (S. 2007)

Take a uniform random labelled graph X_n in the set of graphs of genus $\leq g$ with n vertices.

Then X_n a.s. has a unique 3-connected component of linear size $C(X_n)$, and:

- $C(X_n)$ is a.s. a random 3-connected graphs with minimum genus g ,
- $C(X_n)$ a.s. has a unique embedding on \mathcal{S}_g ,
- all other components are planar and of size $O(n^{2/3})$,

and X_n converges when n goes to infinity to "the" genus g brownian map.

and X_n converges when n goes to infinity to "the" genus g brownian map.

An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.

An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.

†

An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.

$$\Gamma[\text{Seq}] = 3 \uparrow$$

An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.

$$\Gamma[\text{Seq}] = 3 \quad \begin{array}{c} \diagup \quad | \quad \diagdown \\ \bullet \\ | \end{array}$$

An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.

$$\Gamma[\text{Seq}] = 2$$


An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.

$$\Gamma[\text{Seq}] = 2 \begin{array}{c} \diagup \\ \bullet \\ \diagdown \end{array} \begin{array}{c} | \\ \bullet \\ | \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \diagup \\ \diagdown \end{array}$$

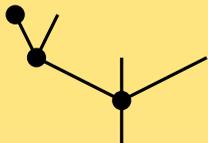
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



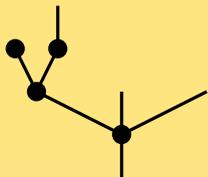
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



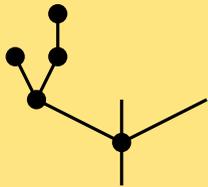
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



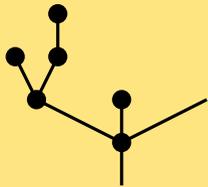
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



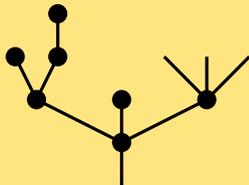
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



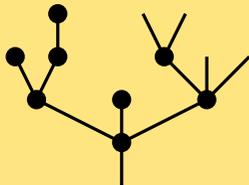
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



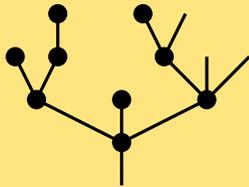
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



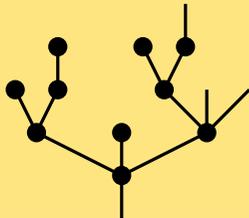
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



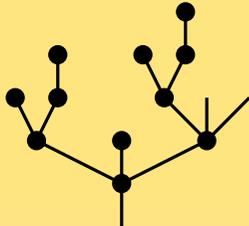
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



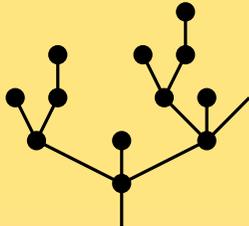
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



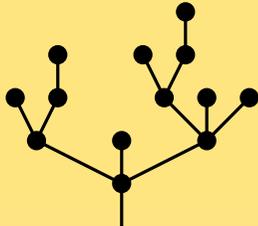
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



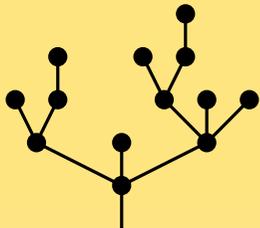
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



The generation finishes with proba 1.

The probability to get size n depends on the choice of x , increasing near the singularity: if $x_n = \frac{1}{4}(1 - \frac{1}{n})$

$$\Pr(|\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_n)| = n) = \frac{|\mathcal{A}_n| \cdot x_n^n}{A(x)} \approx 4^n n^{-3/2} \left(\frac{1}{4}\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)\right)^n \approx n^{-3/2}$$

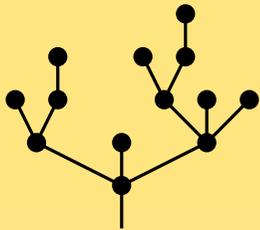
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



The generation finishes with proba 1.

The probability to get size n depends on the choice of x , increasing near the singularity: if $x_n = \frac{1}{4}(1 - \frac{1}{n})$

$$\Pr(|\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_n)| = n) = \frac{|\mathcal{A}_n| \cdot x_n^n}{A(x)} \approx 4^n n^{-3/2} \left(\frac{1}{4}\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)\right)^n \approx n^{-3/2}$$

The expected size of a Boltzmann tree of parameter $x_n = \frac{1}{4}(1 - \frac{1}{n})$ is

$$\mathbb{E}(|\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_n)|) = \frac{A(x_n)'}{A(x_n)} \approx n^{1/2}$$

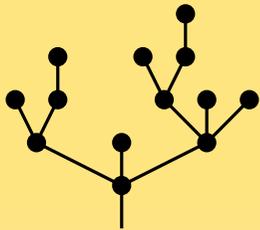
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



The generation finishes with proba 1.

The probability to get size n depends on the choice of x , increasing near the singularity: if $x_n = \frac{1}{4}(1 - \frac{1}{n})$

$$\Pr(|\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_n)| = n) = \frac{|\mathcal{A}_n| \cdot x_n^n}{A(x)} \approx 4^n n^{-3/2} \left(\frac{1}{4}\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)\right)^n \approx n^{-3/2}$$

The expected size of a Boltzmann tree of parameter $x_n = \frac{1}{4}(1 - \frac{1}{n})$ is

$$\mathbb{E}(|\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_n)|) = \frac{A(x_n)'}{A(x_n)} \approx n^{1/2} \quad \text{improve complexity via pointing}$$

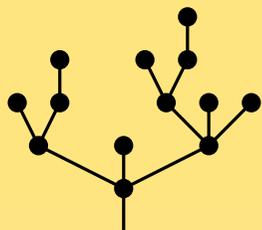
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



The generation finishes with proba 1.

The probability to get size n depends on the choice of x , increasing near the singularity: if $x_n = \frac{1}{4}(1 - \frac{1}{n})$

$$\Pr(|\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_n)| = n) = \frac{|\mathcal{A}_n| \cdot x_n^n}{A(x_n)} \approx 4^n n^{-3/2} \left(\frac{1}{4}\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)\right)^n \approx n^{-3/2}$$

The expected size of a Boltzmann tree of parameter $x_n = \frac{1}{4}(1 - \frac{1}{n})$ is

$$\mathbb{E}(|\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_n)|) = \frac{A(x_n)''}{A(x_n)'} \approx n^{1/2} \quad \text{improve complexity via pointing}$$

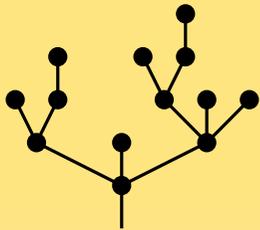
An example: Boltzmann for planar maps, via trees

Let \mathcal{A} is the family of ordered trees: a tree decomposes into a root and a sequence of subtrees attached by edges:

$$\mathcal{A} = \{r\} \times \text{Seq}(\{e\} \times \mathcal{A})$$

$$\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x) := \text{let } k = |\Gamma[\text{Seq}](xA(x))| \text{ in } (r; (\{e\} \times \Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x))^k)$$

where the size of a random sequence under the Boltzmann model simply follows a geometric law: $\Pr(|\Gamma[\text{Seq}](p)| = k) = p^k(1 - p)$.



The generation finishes with proba 1.

The probability to get size n depends on the choice of x , increasing near the singularity: if $x_n = \frac{1}{4}(1 - \frac{1}{n})$

$$\Pr(|\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_n)| = n) = \frac{|\mathcal{A}_n| \cdot x_n^n}{A(x)} \approx 4^n n^{-3/2} \left(\frac{1}{4}\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)\right)^n \approx n^{-3/2}$$

The expected size of a Boltzmann tree of parameter $x_n = \frac{1}{4}(1 - \frac{1}{n})$ is

$$\mathbb{E}(|\Gamma[\mathcal{A}](x_n)|) = \frac{A(x_n)''}{A(x_n)'} \approx n^{1/2} \quad \text{improve complexity via pointing}$$

Some properties of random discrete surfaces

This approach was pursued by Chassaing-Durhuus (2005), Marckert-Mokkadem (2004), Miermond (2005), Weill (2006)... culminating with

Some properties of random discrete surfaces

This approach was pursued by Chassaing-Durhuus (2005), Marckert-Mokkadem (2004), Miermond (2005), Weill (2006)... culminating with

Theorem (Le Gall, 2006). Rescaled planar quadrangulations converge in the large size limit to a *random continuum planar map* that has spherical topology.

Some properties of random discrete surfaces

This approach was pursued by Chassaing-Durhuus (2005), Marckert-Mokkadem (2004), Miermond (2005), Weill (2006)... culminating with

Theorem (Le Gall, 2006). Rescaled planar quadrangulations converge in the large size limit to a *random continuum planar map* that has spherical topology.

In particular there exists no separating cycle of size $\ll n^{1/4}$.

Sphere!



Some properties of random discrete surfaces

This approach was pursued by Chassaing-Durhuus (2005), Marckert-Mokkadem (2004), Miermond (2005), Weill (2006)... culminating with

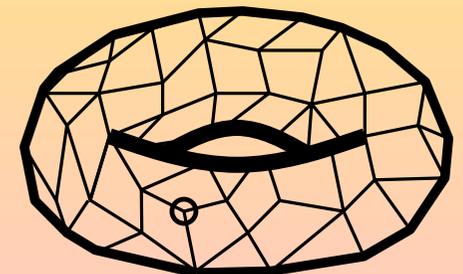
Theorem (Le Gall, 2006). Rescaled planar quadrangulations converge in the large size limit to a *random continuum planar map* that has spherical topology.

In particular there exists no separating cycle of size $\ll n^{1/4}$.

The bfs exploration works also for higher genus surfaces:

Theorem (Chapuy-Marcus-S. 2006) The distance between 2 random vertices of a random quad X_n^g of genus g is of order $n^{1/4}$.

Sphere!



Some properties of random discrete surfaces

This approach was pursued by Chassaing-Durhuus (2005), Marckert-Mokkadem (2004), Miermond (2005), Weill (2006)... culminating with

Theorem (Le Gall, 2006). Rescaled planar quadrangulations converge in the large size limit to a *random continuum planar map* that has spherical topology.

Sphere!



In particular there exists no separating cycle of size $\ll n^{1/4}$.

The bfs exploration works also for higher genus surfaces:

Theorem (Chapuy-Marcus-S. 2006) The distance between 2 random vertices of a random quad X_n^g of genus g is of order $n^{1/4}$.

Conjectures.

There is no non-contractible cycles with size $\ll n^{1/4}$.

The rescaled continuum limit exists and has genus g .

