
Asymptotic enumeration of labelled planar graphs

.

Omer Giménez, Marc Noy

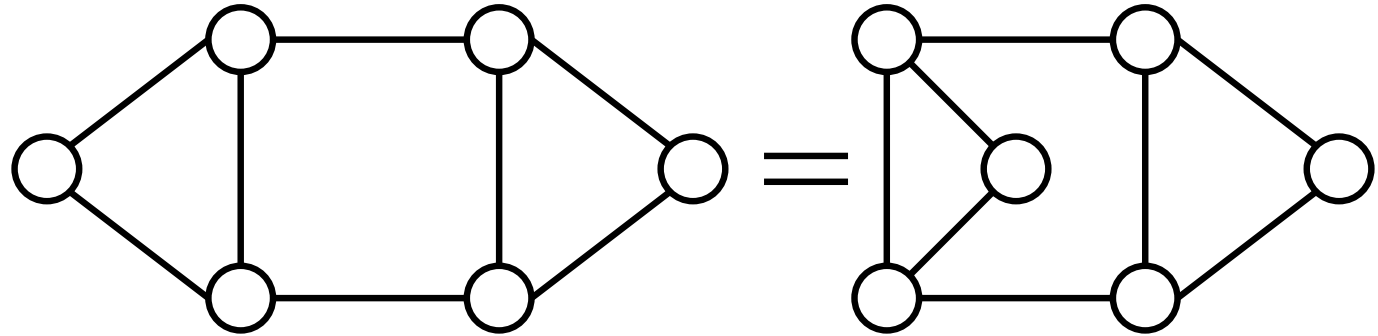
omer.gimenez@upc.edu, marc.noy@upc.edu

Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya

Departament de Matemàtica Aplicada II

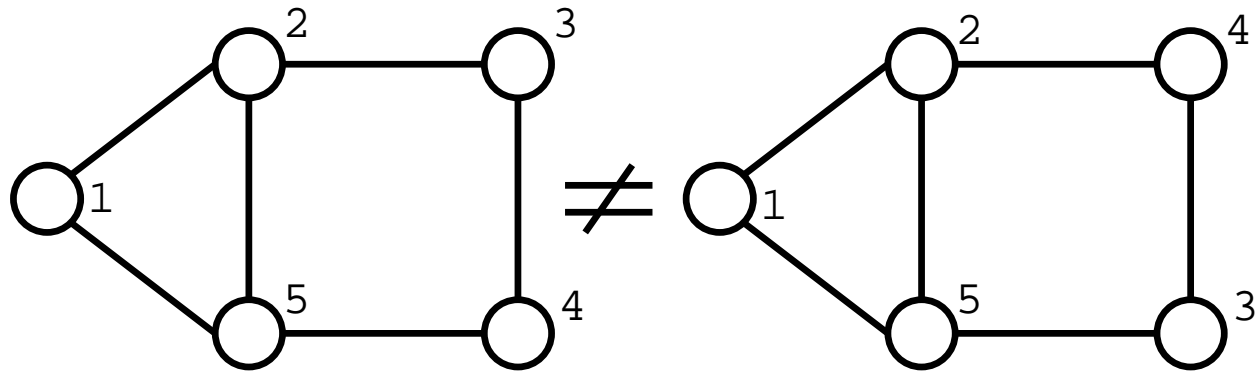
Definitions (I)

$G = (V, E)$ is *planar* if we can embed it in the plane.



Labelled graphs:

- $V = \{1, \dots, n\}$
- G, G' isomorphic iff $E = E'$



Definitions (II)

All the graphs in this talk will be *planar* and *labelled*.

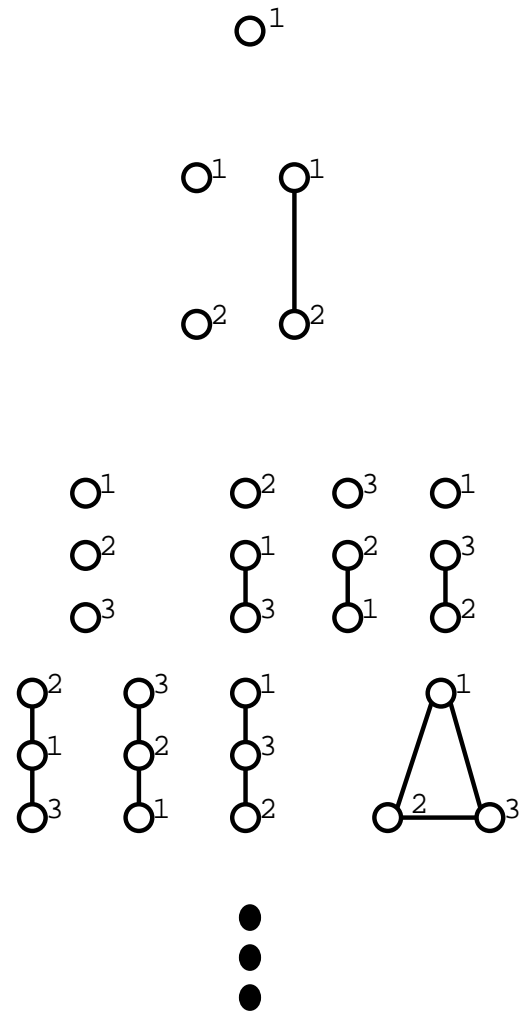
A graph is *connected* if every two vertices are joined by a path.

A graph is *2-connected* if it is connected and by removing any vertex the graph is still connected.

$$a_n \sim r(n) \text{ means that } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{r(n)} = 1$$

Labelled planar graphs

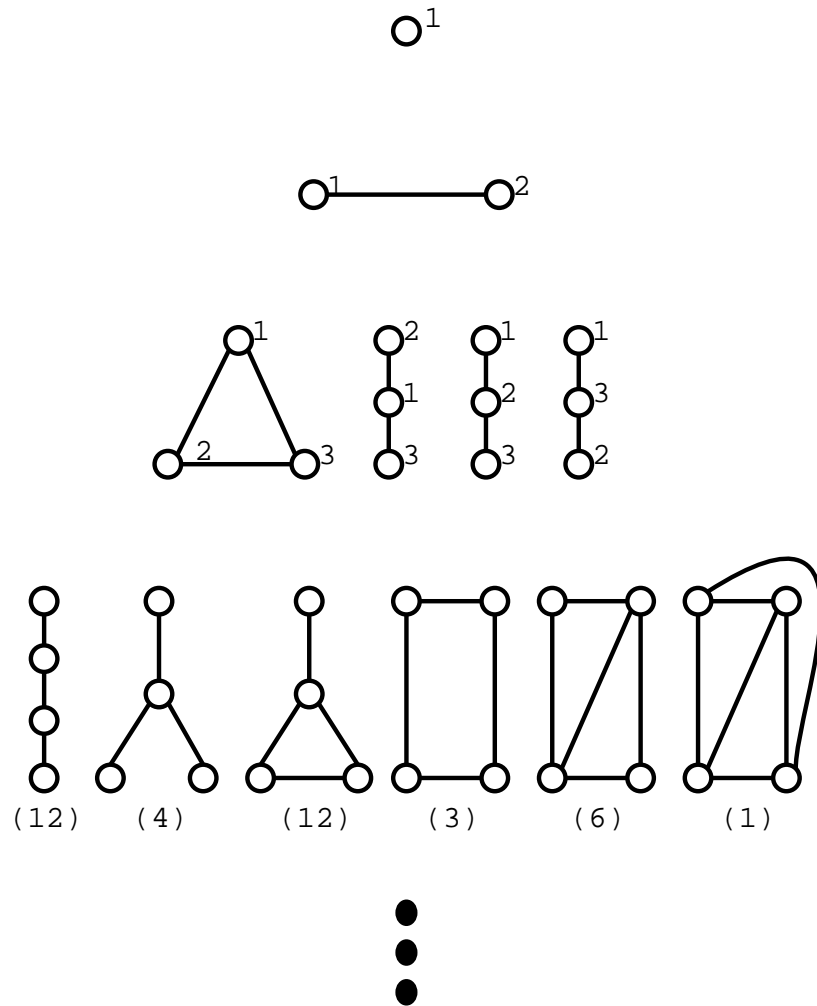
Let g_n be the number of LPG on n vertices.



n	g_n
1	1
2	2
3	8
4	64
5	1023
6	32071
7	1823707
8	163947848
\vdots	\vdots

Labelled connected planar graphs

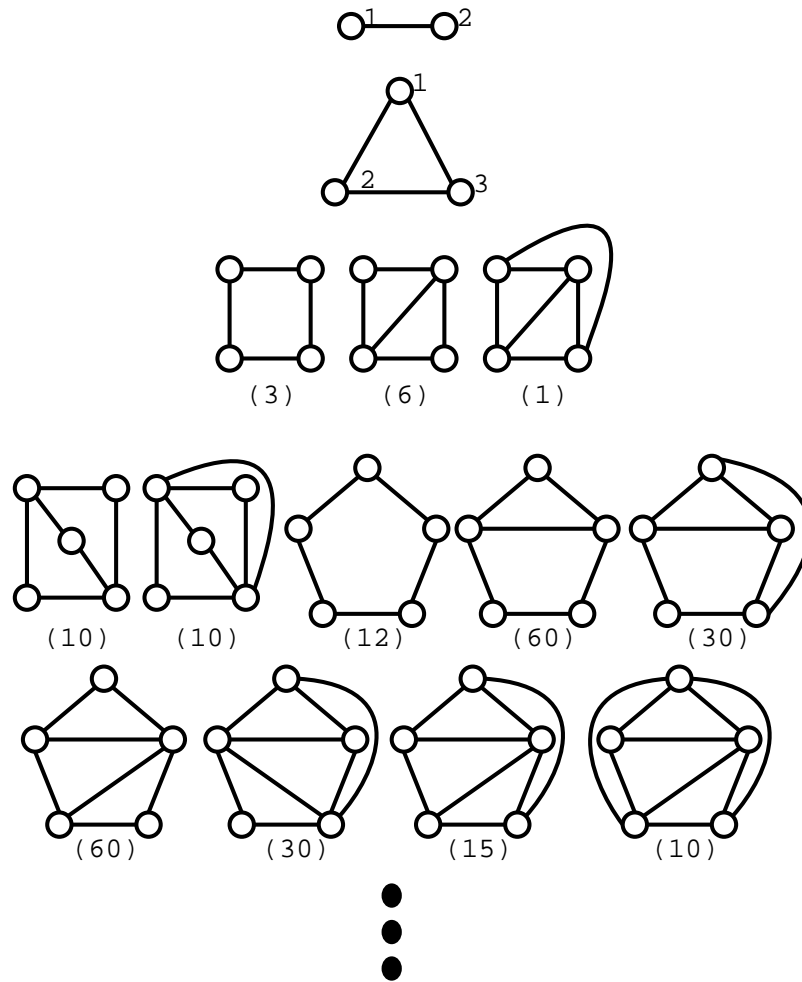
Let c_n be the number of LCPG on n vertices.



n	c_n
1	1
2	1
3	4
4	38
5	727
6	26013
7	1597690
8	149248656
\vdots	\vdots

Labelled 2-connected planar graphs

Let b_n be the number of L2CPG on n vertices.



n	b_n
1	0
2	1
3	1
4	10
5	237
6	10707
7	774924
8	78702536
\vdots	\vdots

Asymptotic enumeration

It is known that

$$c_n \sim \rho(n) \gamma^n n!$$

where

- $\rho(n)$ is a subexponential function,
- γ is the *growth constant*:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{c_n}{n!} \frac{(n-1)!}{c_{n-1}} = \gamma$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{c_n}{n!} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} = \gamma$$

Questions:

What is the growth constant γ ?
What is the function $\rho(n)$?

We will later show that

$$g_n \sim k c_n, \quad \text{where } 0 < k < 1$$

The asymptotics of LCPG and LPG are almost the same.

Previous results

Bounds for γ

$$6 \leq \gamma \leq 75.8 \quad (\text{Demise, Vasconcellos, Welsh; 1996})$$

$$\gamma \leq 37.3 \quad (\text{Osthus, Prömel, Taraz; 2002})$$

$$\gamma \leq 32.2 \quad (\text{Bonichon, Gavoille, Hanusse; 2002})$$

$$26.1 \leq \gamma \quad (\text{Bender, Gao, Wormald; 2002})$$

$$\gamma \leq 30.1 \quad (\text{B., G., H., Poulalhon, Schaeffer; 2004})$$

$$27.2 \leq \gamma \quad (\text{Prömel; 2003) [conference]}$$

Asymptotic enumeration of labelled *2-connected* planar graphs
(Bender, Gao, Wormald; 2002)

$$b_n \sim \rho_b n^{-7/2} \gamma_b^n n!$$

with explicit expressions for $\rho_b \simeq 0.37 \cdot 10^{-5}$ and $\gamma_b \simeq 26.184$.

Our results

We take the Work of [BGW] as a starting point.

We show that

$$c_n \sim \rho_c n^{-7/2} \gamma^n n!$$

$$g_n \sim k\rho_c n^{-7/2} \gamma^n n!$$

with explicit expressions for ρ_c , $k \simeq 0.96$ and $\gamma \simeq 27.22687$.

Other consequences of our work

We can give a *precise* asymptotic answer to:

- How many edges a random planar graph has?
- How many isolated vertices?
- How many connected components?

Structure of this talk

- **Generating functions and equations of LPG**

We introduce the generating functions for our families of graphs and the equations relating them.

- **Brief description of the work of BGW**

Solving the asymptotic enumeration of 2-connected labelled planar graphs.

- **How to obtain *a good estimation* for γ**

Easy way to improve the best known bounds for γ .

- **How to obtain *an exact expression* for γ**

Solving the problem.

- **Applications**

Distributions for the number of edges, components and isolated vertices.

Generating Functions

- Bivariate generating functions.
- The variable x counts the vertices, y counts the edges.
- The GFs are exponential on x and ordinary on y .

$$G(x, y) = \sum_{n, m} g_{n, m} \frac{x^n}{n!} y^m \quad (\text{LPG})$$

$$C(x, y) = \sum_{n, m} c_{n, m} \frac{x^n}{n!} y^m \quad (\text{LCPG})$$

$$B(x, y) = \sum_{n, m} b_{n, m} \frac{x^n}{n!} y^m \quad (\text{L2CPG})$$

- Univariate GFs are the corresponding bivariate GFs at $y = 1$.
- If not specified, derivatives are taken on the variable x .

$$C(x) := C(x, 1) \quad C'(x, y) := \frac{\partial C}{\partial x}(x, y)$$

Three Steps

(Flajolet, Sedgewick; *Analytic Combinatorics*)

Combinatorial
Description

```
graph TD; A[Combinatorial Description] --> B[Generating Functions]; B --> C[Singularity Analysis];
```

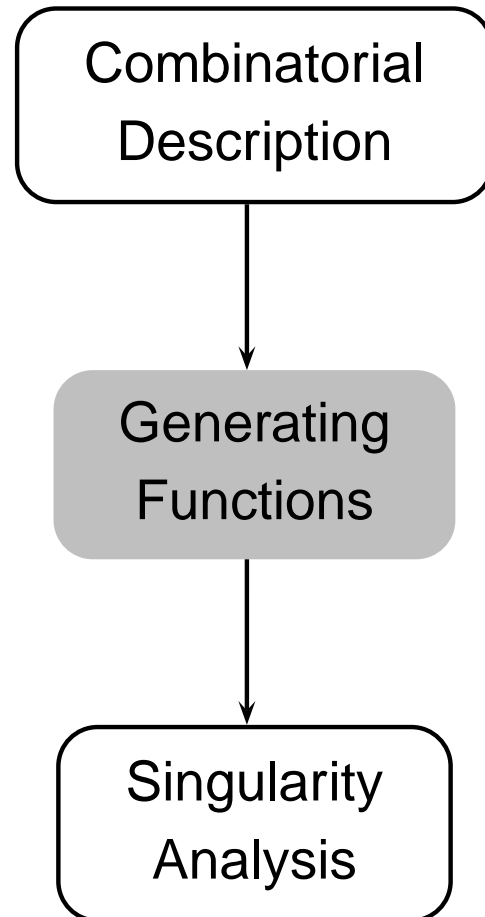
Generating
Functions

Singularity
Analysis

Constructive, unambiguous
description of the objects
we are counting.

Three Steps

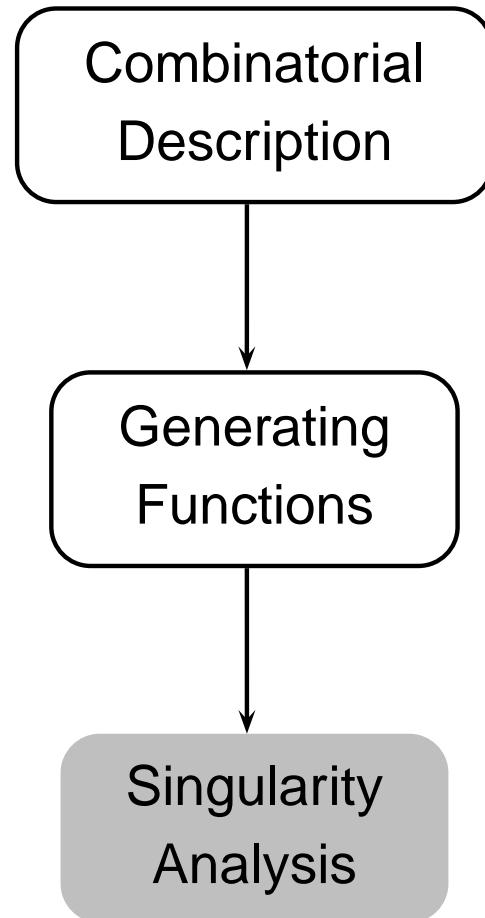
(Flajolet, Sedgewick; *Analytic Combinatorics*)



Translate the previous description into equations of generating functions.

Three Steps

(Flajolet, Sedgewick; *Analytic Combinatorics*)



Study the singularities of the generating functions.

Generating Functions

- LPG, LCPG and L2CPG are related by several graph decomposition theorems.
- Combinatorial operations on graphs translate into operations on the GFs.

$$\mathcal{A} \cup \mathcal{B} \quad a_n + b_n \quad A(z) + B(z)$$

$$\mathcal{A} * \mathcal{B} \quad \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} a_i b_{n-i} \quad A(z)B(z)$$

$$\mathcal{A}^* \quad n a_n \quad zA'(z)$$

$$\mathcal{A}^\circ \quad (n+1) a_{n+1} \quad A'(z)$$

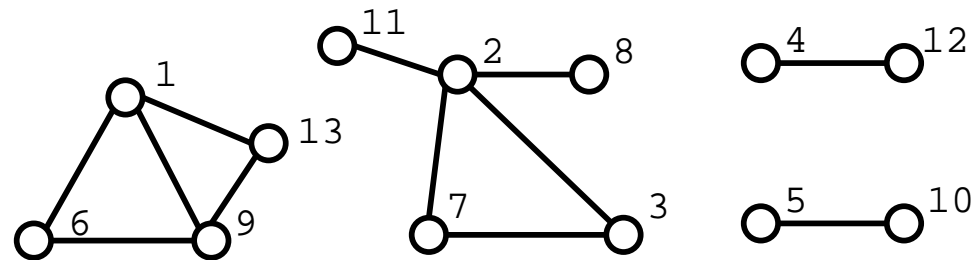
$$\text{powerset}(\mathcal{A}) \quad \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} A(z)^i / i! = \exp(A(z))$$

$$A(\mathcal{B}) \quad \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} a_i B(z)^i = A(B(z))$$

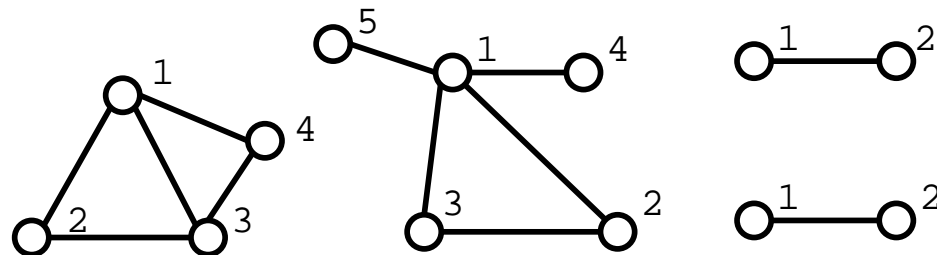
- We proceed to show the decompositions.

Equations relating the GFs

Labelled Planar Graphs



A LPG is a *powerset* of LCPG (conveniently relabelled).



That is,

$$\mathcal{G} = \text{powerset}(\mathcal{C}),$$

$$G(x, y) = \exp(C(x, y))$$

Equations relating the GFs

Planar graphs

$C(x, y)$

connected

$G(x, y)$

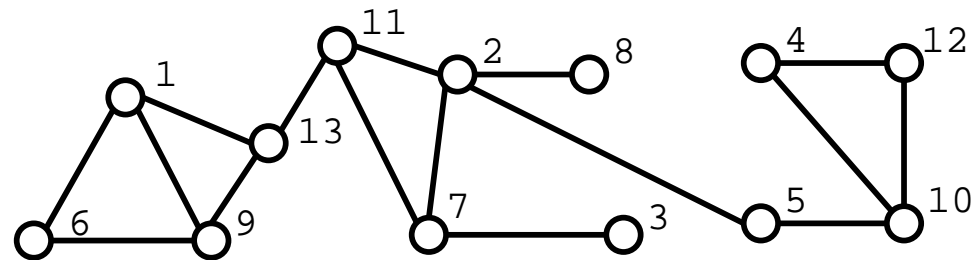
all

The arrow \longleftrightarrow means that the generating functions are related by an easy (explicit) equation.

Equations relating the GFs

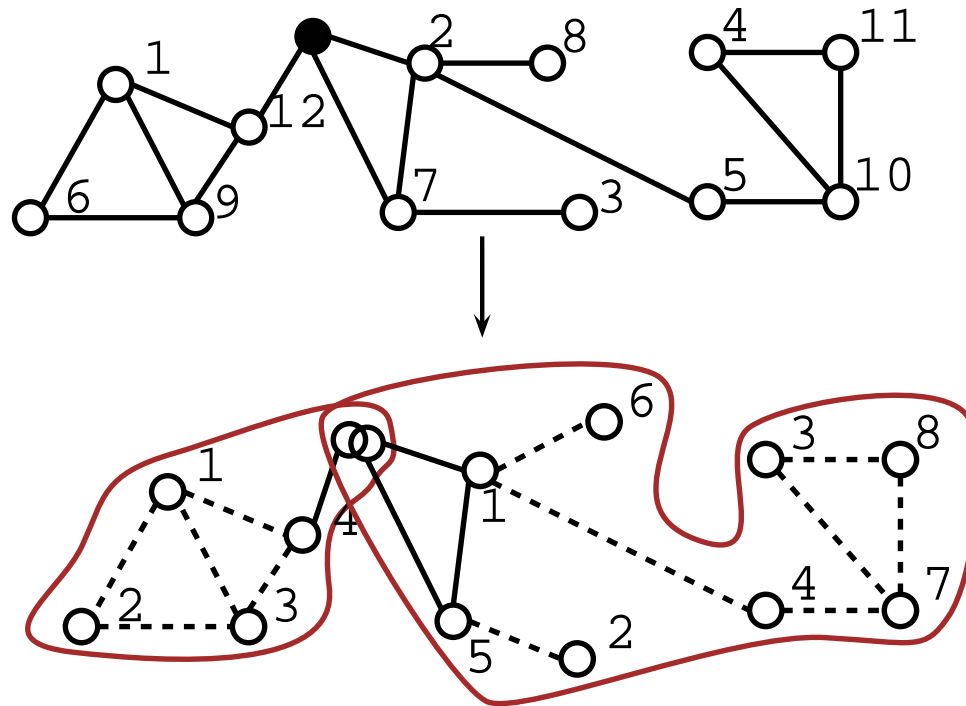
Labelled Connected Planar Graphs.

Non-obvious example. How can we describe a LCPG in terms of L2CPGs?



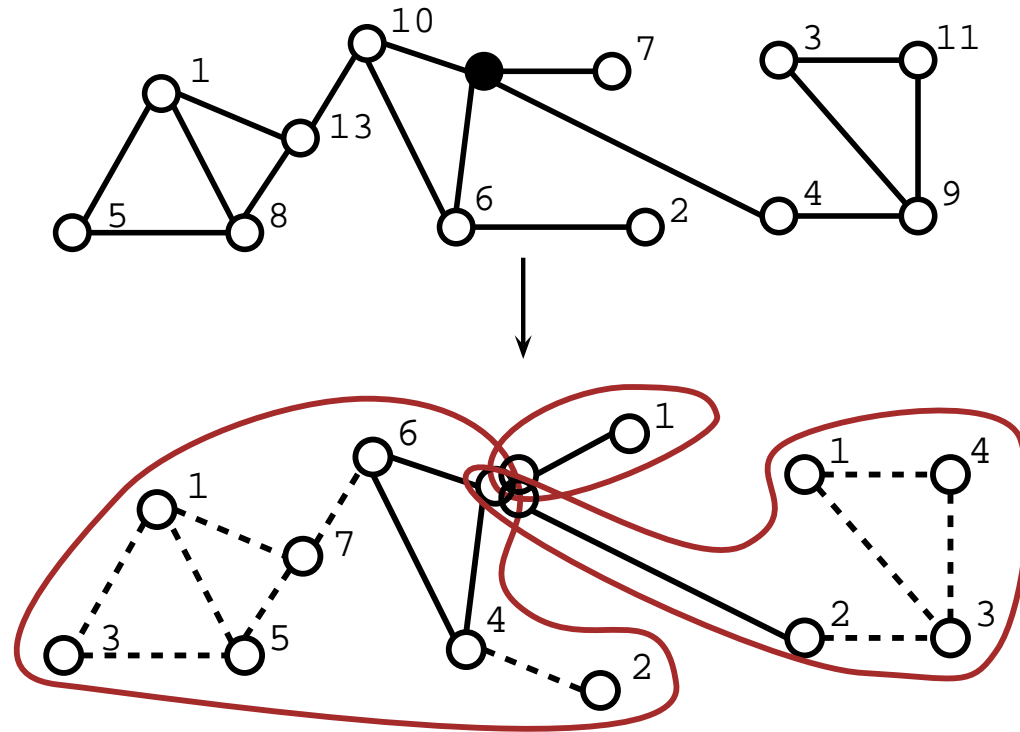
Equations relating the GFs

- Point one vertex.
- Look at the 2-connected components it belongs.
- Replace vertices of these components by connected graphs.



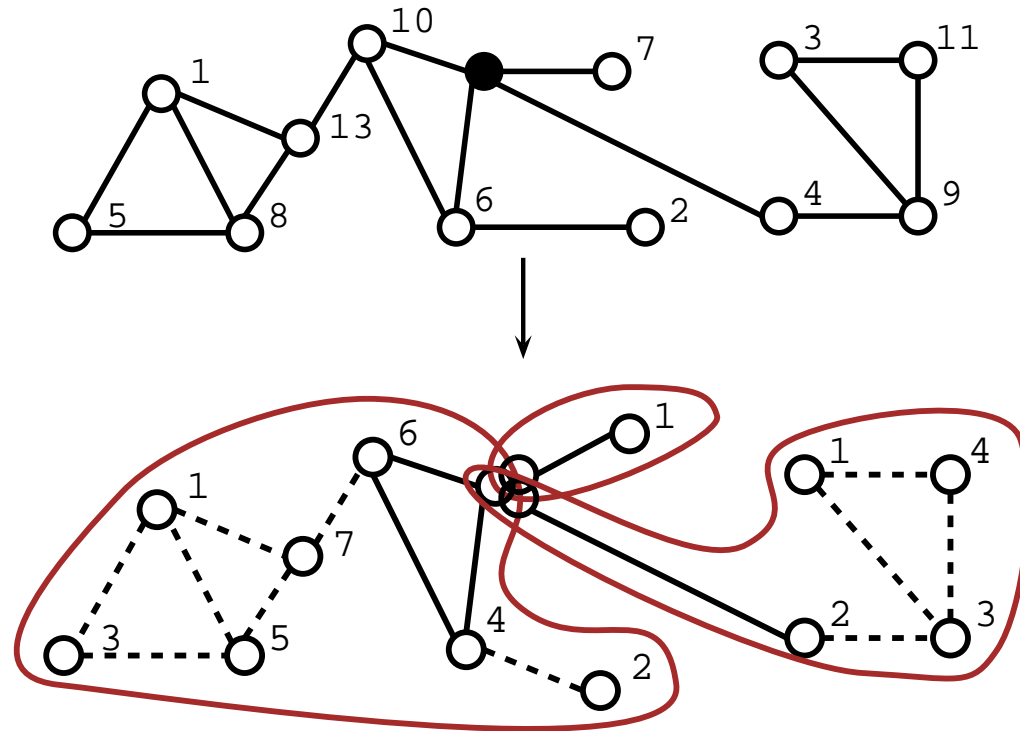
Equations relating the GFs

Another example.



A *pointed* LCPG is a *powerset* of *pointed* L2CPG where each vertex is *replaced* by a *pointed* LCPG (everything conveniently relabelled).

Equations relating the GFs



$$\mathcal{C}^o = \text{multiset}(\mathcal{B}^o(\mathcal{C}^*))$$

$$C'(x, y) = \exp(B'(xC'(x), y))$$

Equations relating the GFs

Vertex
rooted

Non-rooted

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(x, y)$$

2-connected

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x}(x, y)$$

$$C(x, y)$$

connected

$$G(x, y)$$

all

The arrow \longleftrightarrow means that the generating functions are related by a hard (implicit) equation.

Equations relating the GFs

Labelled 2-Connected Planar Graphs.

We need a characterization of 2-connected graphs in terms of 3-connected graphs.

A *network* is a graph with two distinguished vertices (poles) such that the graph obtained by joining the poles if they were not joined is 2-connected.

[Trakhtenbrot, 1958] Every network is either

- A *series* composition of networks.
- A *parallel* composition of networks.
- A *3-connected graph* (with two poles) where every edge has been replaced by a network.

Equations relating the GFs

Let $D(x, y)$ be the GF of labelled planar networks with unlabelled poles.

To obtain such a network we need to

- Choose a 2-connected planar graph
- Select an edge
- Unlabel the two vertices of the edge (the poles)
- Choose which pole is the first one
- Remove or do not remove the selected edge

Hence planar networks are related to L2CPG by:

$$D(x, y) = (1 + y) \frac{2}{x^2} \frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(x, y)$$

Equations relating the GFs

Vertex
rooted

Non-rooted

Edge
rooted

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(x, y)$$

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(x, y) \leftrightarrow D(x, y)$$

2-connected

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x}(x, y)$$

$$C(x, y)$$

connected

$$G(x, y)$$

all

Planar networks counted by $D(x, y)$ are closely related to edge-rooted 2-connected graphs.

Equations relating the GFs

Let $S(x, y)$ be the GF of labelled planar networks that are series compositions.

To obtain such a *series* network we need to

- Choose a network N
- Choose a non-series network M
- Join the second pole of N with the first pole of M .
- Add a label to the joined poles.

Hence the GFs of all networks and series networks satisfy

$$S(x, y) = xD(x, y) (D(x, y) - S(x, y))$$

$$S(x, y) = \frac{x D(x, y)^2}{1 + x D(x, y)}$$

Equations relating the GFs

Let $K(x, y)$ be the GF of networks with non-adjacent poles, and $U(x, y)$ of those that are non-parallel.

A network with non-adjacent poles is either

- non-parallel
- parallel, that is, a set of at least two non-parallel networks.

$$K(x, y) = 1 + \underbrace{U(x, y)}_{\text{non-parallel}} + \underbrace{\left(\frac{U^2}{2!} + \frac{U^3}{3!} + \dots \right)}_{\text{parallel}} = \exp(U(x, y))$$

On the other hand $D(x, y)$ and $K(x, y)$ are easy to relate, so

$$(1 + y)K(x, y) - 1 = D(x, y) \quad K(x, y) = \frac{1 + D(x, y)}{1 + y}$$

$$U(x, y) = \log \left(\frac{1 + D(x, y)}{1 + y} \right)$$

Equations relating the GFs

Let $M_3(x, y)$ be the GF of the rooted 3-connected planar maps.

To obtain a network with non-adjacent poles that is neither parallel nor series:

- Choose a rooted 3-connected planar map
- Forget which face is the root face
- Remove the root edge
- Unlabel the two distinguished vertices (poles)
- Substitute every edge by a network

So we have the equation

$$\underbrace{\frac{M_3(x, D(x, y))}{2x^2 D(x, y)}}_{\text{non-parallel, non-series}} = \underbrace{\log \left(\frac{1 + D(x, y)}{1 + y} \right)}_{\text{non-parallel}} - \underbrace{\frac{x^2 D(x, y)}{1 + xD(x, y)}}_{\text{series}}$$

Equations relating the GFs

Vertex
rooted

Non-rooted

Edge
rooted

3-connected

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(x, y)$$

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(x, y) \leftrightarrow D(x, y)$$

2-connected

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x}(x, y)$$

$$C(x, y)$$

connected

$$G(x, y)$$

all

$M_3(x, y)$ and $D(x, y)$ are related by an implicit equation.

Equations relating the GFs

Mullin, Schellenberg (1968) gave the GF for rooted 3-connected planar maps.

$$u(x, y) = xy(1 + v(x, y))^2 \quad v(x, y) = y(1 + u(x, y))^2$$

$$M_3(x, y) = x^2y^2 \left(\frac{1}{1 + xy} + \frac{1}{1 + y} - 1 - \frac{(1 + u)^2(1 + v)^2}{(1 + u + v)^3} \right)$$

Fusy, Schaeffer (2003) provided a combinatorial explanation for this formula.

Equations relating the GFs

So these are all the equations:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} u(x, z) = xz(1 + v(x, z))^2 \\ v(x, z) = z(1 + u(x, z))^2 \\ M_3(x, z) = x^2 z^2 \left(\frac{1}{1 + xz} + \frac{1}{1 + z} - 1 - \frac{(1 + u)^2(1 + v)^2}{(1 + u + v)^3} \right) \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{M_3(x, D)}{2x^2 D} - \log \left(\frac{1 + D}{1 + y} \right) + \frac{x D^2}{1 + x D} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{2} \left(\frac{1 + D(x, y)}{1 + y} \right) \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} C'(x, y) = \exp(B'(xC'(x, y), y)) \\ G(x, y) = \exp(C(x, y)) \end{array} \right.$$

Equations relating the GFs

Vertex
rooted

Non-rooted

Edge
rooted

3-connected

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(x, y) \xleftarrow{B(x, y)} \frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(x, y) \leftrightarrow D(x, y)$$

2-connected

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x}(x, y) \xleftarrow{C(x, y)}$$

connected

$$G(x, y)$$

all

The arrow \longrightarrow means that the generating functions are related by a partial derivation.

Equations relating the GFs

Vertex
rooted

Non-rooted

Edge
rooted

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(x, y) \longleftrightarrow B(x, y) \longleftrightarrow \frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(x, y) \longleftrightarrow D(x, y)$$

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x}(x, y) \longleftrightarrow C(x, y)$$

$$G(x, y)$$

$$M_3(x, y)$$

3-connected

2-connected

connected

all

We follow the path \longrightarrow to obtain $G(x, y)$.

2-connected graphs [BGW]

[BGW] proved that:

The singularities of $D(x, y)$ are given by those of $M_3(x, z)$.

$$\frac{M_3(x, D)}{2x^2D} - \log \left(\frac{1+D}{1+y} \right) + \frac{x D^2}{1+x D} = 0$$

A parametrization $x_0(t), y_0(t)$ for the singularities of $D(x, y)$.

The expansion of $D(x, y_0)$ at a singular point $(x_0(t), y_0(t))$:

$$D(x, y_0) \sim D_0(t) + D_2(t) \left(1 - \frac{x}{x_0}\right) + D_3(t) \left(1 - \frac{x}{x_0}\right)^{3/2}$$

If t is such that $y_0(t) = 1$, then

$$[x^n] D(x, 1) = \frac{D_3(t)}{\Gamma(-3/2)} n^{-5/2} x_0(t)^{-n}$$

2-connected graphs [BGW]

Because of

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{2} \left(\frac{1 + D(x, y)}{1 + y} \right)$$

they can obtain the asymptotics for

$$[x^n] \frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(x, 1) = \sum_m m b_{n,m}$$

They also prove that

- The expected number of edges is μn , with $\mu \simeq 2.26$.
- The variance is $\sigma^2 n$, with $\sigma^2 \simeq 0.4$.

So almost all n -vertex 2-connected planar graphs (for large n) have μn edges,

$$b_n \sim \frac{\sum_m m b_{n,m}}{\mu n} \sim \frac{x_0^2 D_3}{4\mu \Gamma(-3/2)} n^{-7/2} x_0^{-n}$$

2-connected graphs [BGW]

Summary:

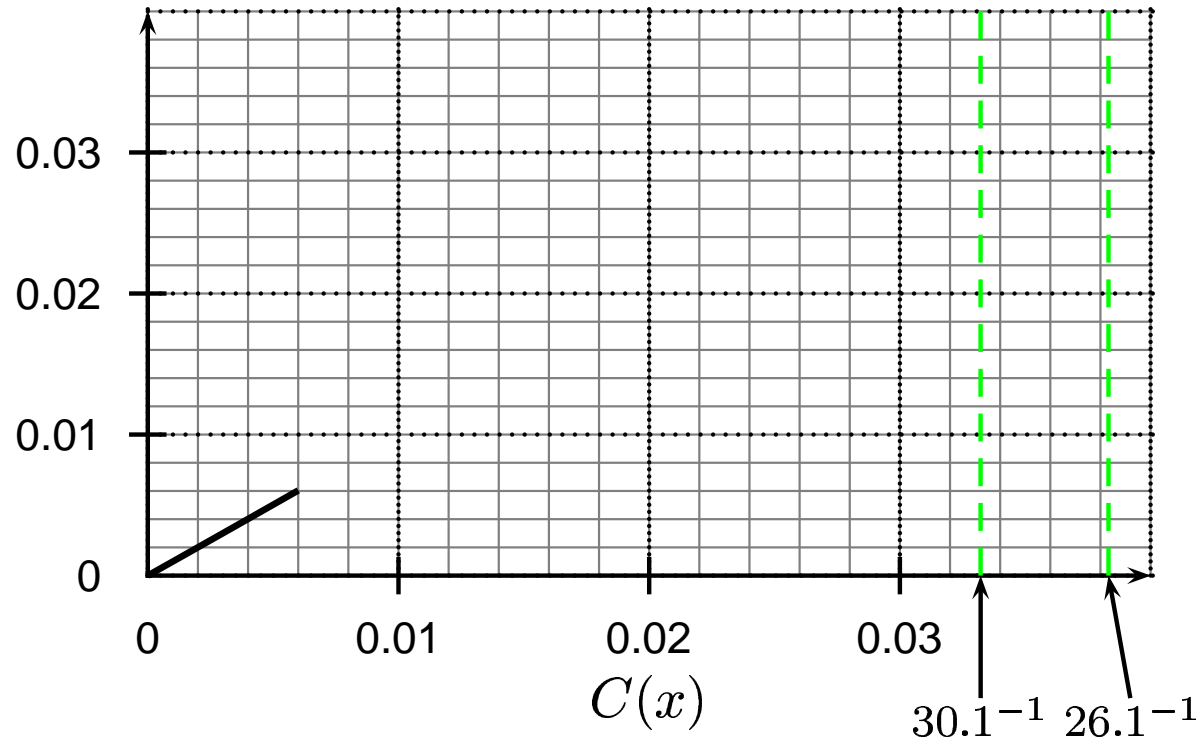
- We know about $\frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(x, y)$.
- We know about the *coefficients* of B and $\frac{\partial B}{\partial y}$.
- But $B(x, y)$ is hidden behind an integral.

$$B(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{2} \int_0^y \frac{1 + D(x, s)}{1 + s} ds$$

Just understanding $D(x, y)$ at the singularity point is not enough for evaluating $B(x, y)$.

Estimating γ

The growth constant γ is the inverse of the radius of convergence of $C(x)$.



Question:

Where does $C(x)$ stop being defined?

Lower bound: $\gamma > 27.22685$

We use the equation

$$C'(x) = \exp\left(\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(xC'(x), 1)\right).$$

Define

$$\bar{C}(x) := xC'(x), \quad \Psi(u) := u \exp\left(-\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(u, 1)\right);$$

then $\bar{c}_n = n c_n$, and

$$\bar{C}(x) = x \exp\left(\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(\bar{C}(x), 1)\right)$$

$$\bar{C}(x) \exp\left(-\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(\bar{C}(x), 1)\right) = x$$

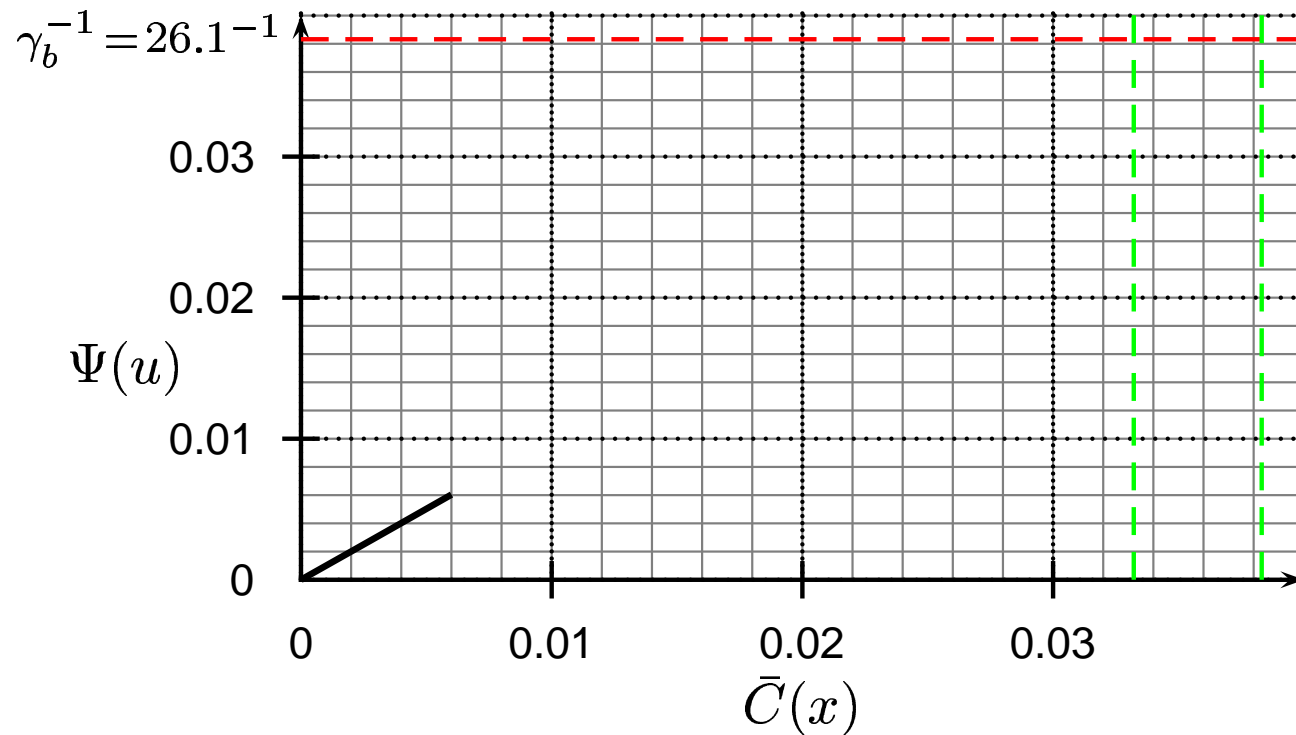
$$\boxed{\Psi(\bar{C}(x)) = x}$$

That is, $\Psi(u)$ is the inverse of $\bar{C}(x)$.

Lower bound: $\gamma > 27.22685$

$$\Psi(u) = u \exp\left(-\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(u, 1)\right)$$

$\Psi(u)$ stops being defined at the radius of convergence of $B(u, 1)$: $\gamma_b^{-1} \simeq 0.0383$. Hence $\bar{C}(x)$ is bounded by γ_b^{-1} .



Lower bound: $\gamma > 27.22685$

Consider the truncations of $\bar{C}(x)$ and $B(u, 1)$. That is, if

$$\bar{C}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \bar{c}_i x^i, \text{ then let}$$

$$\bar{C}_n(x) := \sum_{i=0}^n \bar{c}_i x^i.$$

$\bar{C}_n(x)$ is a *lower bound* of $\bar{C}(x)$.

Similarly, if $B(u, 1) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i u^i$, then let

$$B_n(u) := \sum_{i=0}^n b_i u^i; \quad \Psi_n(u) := u \exp\left(-\frac{\partial B_n}{\partial x}(u)\right)$$

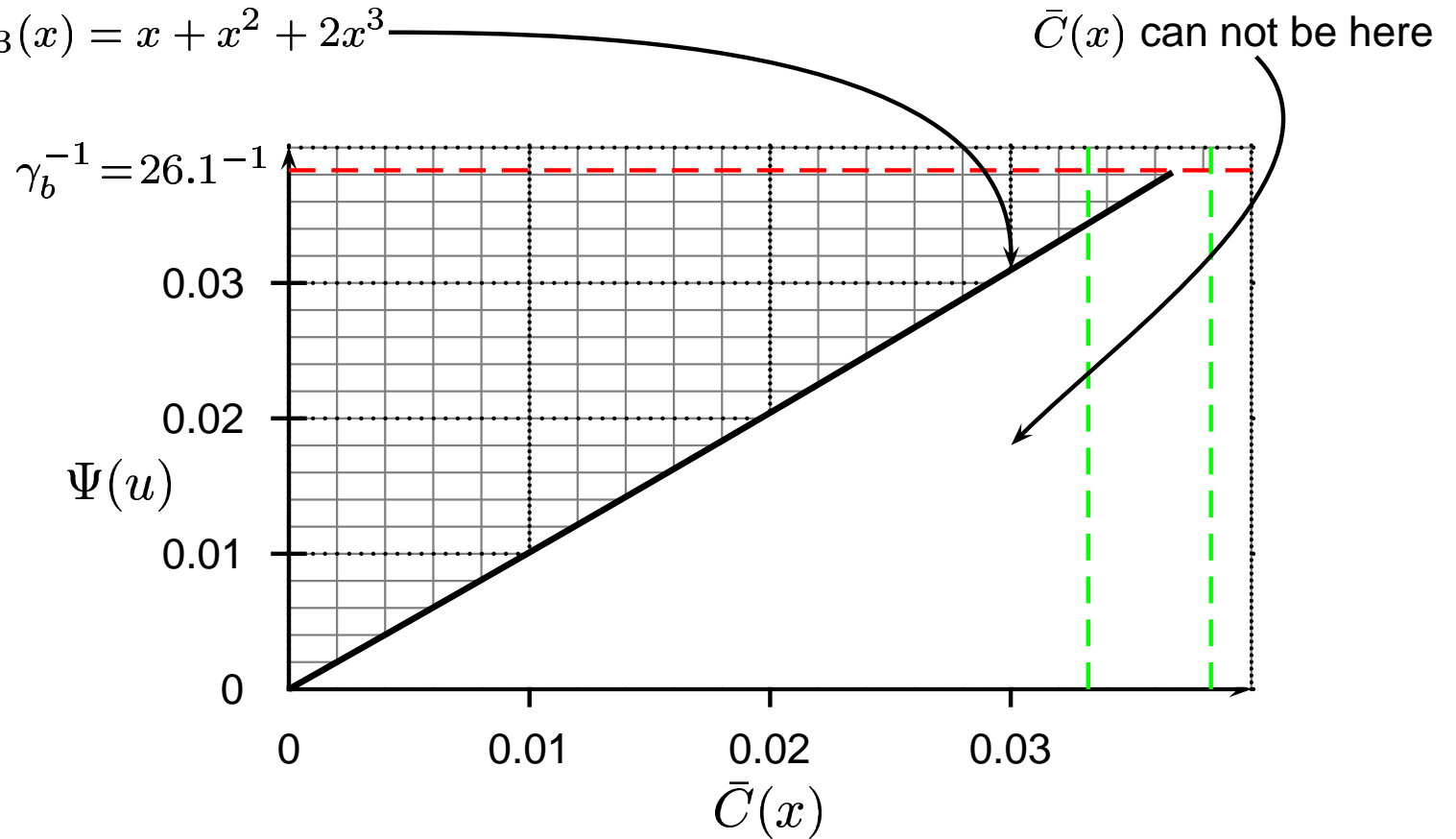
Since $B_n(u)$ is a *lower bound* of $B(u, 1)$,

$\Psi_n(u)$ is an *upper bound* of $\Psi(u)$.

Lower bound: $\gamma > 27.22685$

We can use $\bar{C}_n(x)$ or $\Psi_n(u)$ to bound the region where $\bar{C}(x)$ can be.

$$\bar{C}_3(x) = x + x^2 + 2x^3$$



Lower bound: $\gamma > 27.22685$

This gives us

- a *lower bound* on the region where $\bar{C}(x)$ is defined,
- an *upper bound* on the radius of convergence γ^{-1} ,
- a *lower bound* on the growth constant γ .

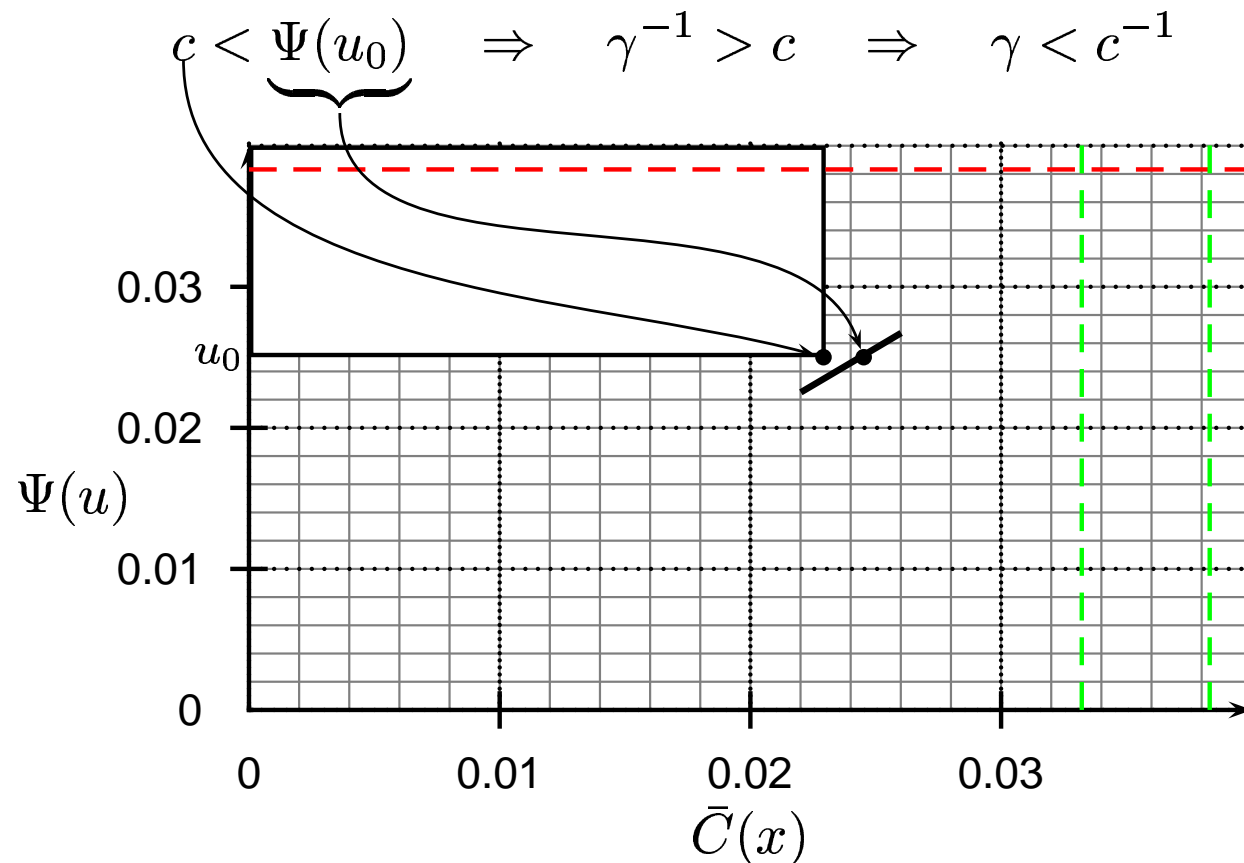
By considering $\bar{C}_n(x)$ and $\Psi_n(u)$ for greater n we can improve the previous bounds.

n	$\max\{x \bar{C}_n(x) < \gamma_b^{-1}\}^{-1}$ (bound from $\bar{C}_n(x)$)	$\max\{\Psi_n(u) u \in (0, \gamma_b^{-1})\}^{-1}$ (bound from $\Psi_n(u)$)
5	27.226147	27.226399
10	27.226779	27.226790
15	27.226833	27.226837
20	27.226851	27.226853

Upper bound: $\gamma < 27.22688$

To prove $\gamma < 27.22688$ we need the opposite:

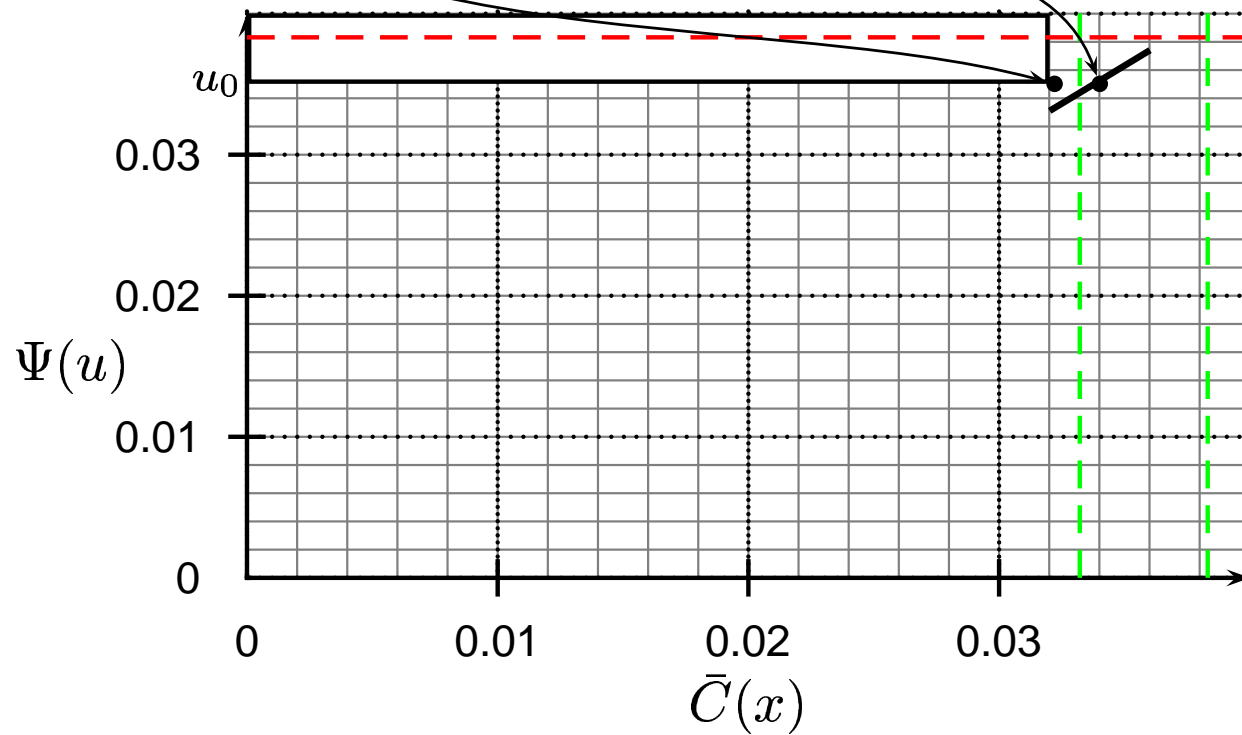
- An *upper bound* on the region where $\bar{C}(x)$ is defined,
- a *lower bound* on the radius of convergence γ^{-1} ,
- an *upper bound* on the growth constant γ .



Upper bound: $\gamma < 27.22688$

We want u_0 to be as close to γ_b^{-1} as possible.

$$c < \underbrace{\Psi(u_0)} \Rightarrow \gamma^{-1} > c \Rightarrow \gamma < c^{-1}$$



Upper bound: $\gamma < 27.22688$

Truncations \bar{C}_n and Ψ_n bound in the wrong direction.

We try to evaluate $\Psi(u_0)$ using the equations:

$$\Psi(u) = u \exp\left(-\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(u, 1)\right)$$

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(u, 1) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_0^1 \frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(u, t) dt$$

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{2} \left(\frac{1 + D(x, y)}{1 + y} - 1 \right)$$

$$\frac{M_3(x, D)}{2x^2 D} - \log\left(\frac{1 + D}{1 + y}\right) + \frac{x D^2}{1 + x D} = 0$$

$$M_3(x, y) = x^2 y^2 \left(\frac{1}{1 + xy} + \frac{1}{1 + y} - 1 - \frac{(1 + u)^2 (1 + v)^2}{(1 + u + v)^3} \right)$$

$$u = xy(1 + v)^2 \quad v = y(1 + u)^2$$

Upper bound: $\gamma < 27.22688$

Things to take care of:

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(u, 1) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \int_0^1 \frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(u, t) dt$$

- We have to bound $\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(u_0, 1)$.
- We use that $\frac{\partial^2 B}{\partial x^2}(u, y)$ is positive.

$$B'(u_0) \leq \frac{B(u_0 + \epsilon) - B(u_0)}{\epsilon}$$

- We need to evaluate $\int \partial B / \partial y$ at u_0 and at $u_0 + \epsilon$.

Upper bound: $\gamma < 27.22688$

Things to take care of:

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial x}(u, 1) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_0^1 \frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(u, t) dt$$

- Numerical methods to estimate the integral.
- Errors in Newton-Cotes integration methods (Simpson rule, midpoint rule, etc.) are evaluations of a derivative of the integrand.
- Integrand $\partial B / \partial y$ has positive derivatives.
- We know the sign of the derivative, so we know the sign of the error.
- We are obtaining bounds, not just approximations.

Upper bound: $\gamma < 27.22688$

Things to take care of:

$$\frac{M_3(x, D)}{2x^2 D} - \log \left(\frac{1 + D}{1 + y} \right) + \frac{x D^2}{1 + x D} = 0$$

- $D(x, y)$ is singular in $(\gamma_b^{-1}, 1)$.
- We need to be careful when solving for $D(x, y)$ if (x, y) is close to $(\gamma_b^{-1}, 1)$.
- $D(x, y)$ does not go to infinity at the singularity.

Upper bound: $\gamma < 27.22688$

- Maple 9
- 25 precision digits.
- $u_0 = 0.038191096$ ($\gamma_b^{-1} - u_0 \simeq 10^{-8}$).
- $\epsilon = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-9}$.
- Integration methods: repeated midpoint rule, trapezoid rule.
- 30000 equispaced evaluations.

Computational results:

$$\gamma^{-1} > \Psi(u_0) > 0.036728410432$$

$$\gamma < 27.2268797$$

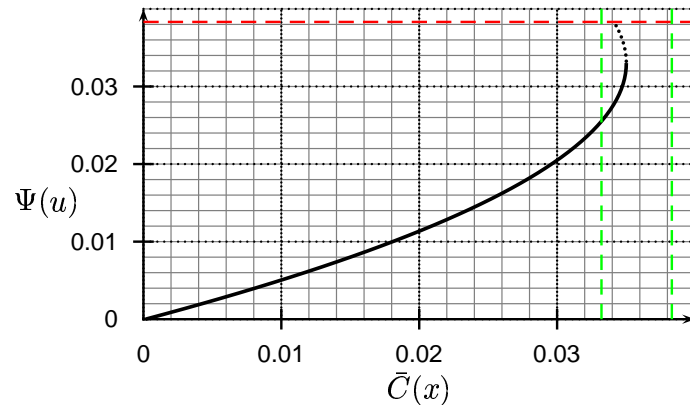
Singularity type

Transfer theorems (Flajotet, Odlyzko): The singularity type of $C(x)$ determines the subexponential behaviour of its coefficients c_n .

Question: *How* does $C(x)$ stop being defined?

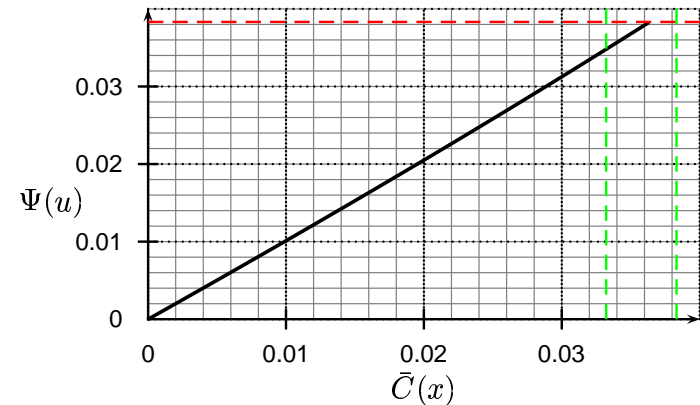
Since its inverse $\Psi(u)$ is defined in $(0, \gamma_b^{-1})$, there are two different possibilities:

$$\exists u_0 \in (0, \gamma_b^{-1}) \quad \Psi'(u_0) = 0$$



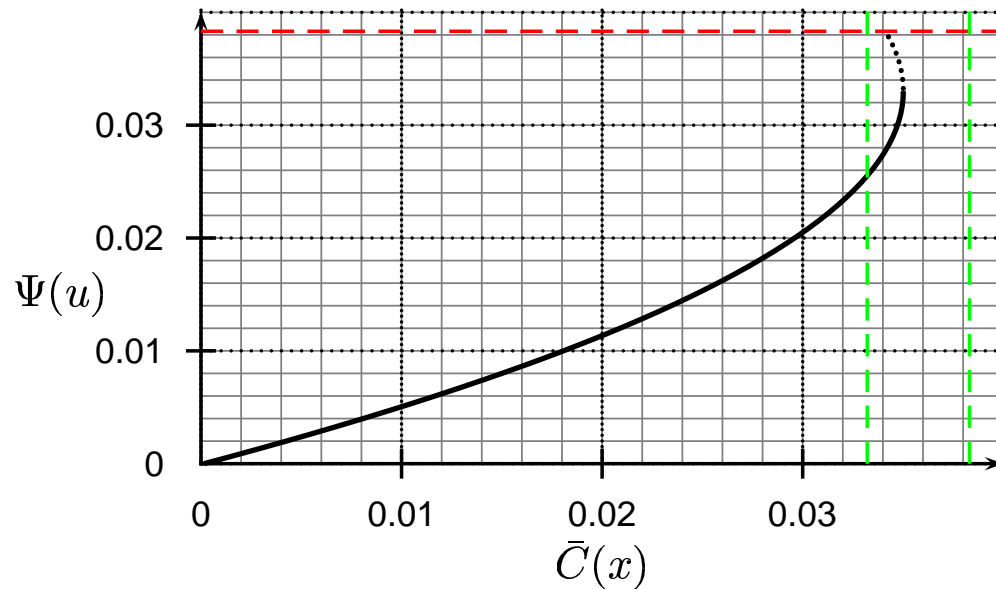
(case A)

$$\forall u \in (0, \gamma_b^{-1}) \quad \Psi'(u) > 0$$



(case B)

Singularity type



(case A): \bar{C} has a square root-type singularity ($Z^{1/2}$):

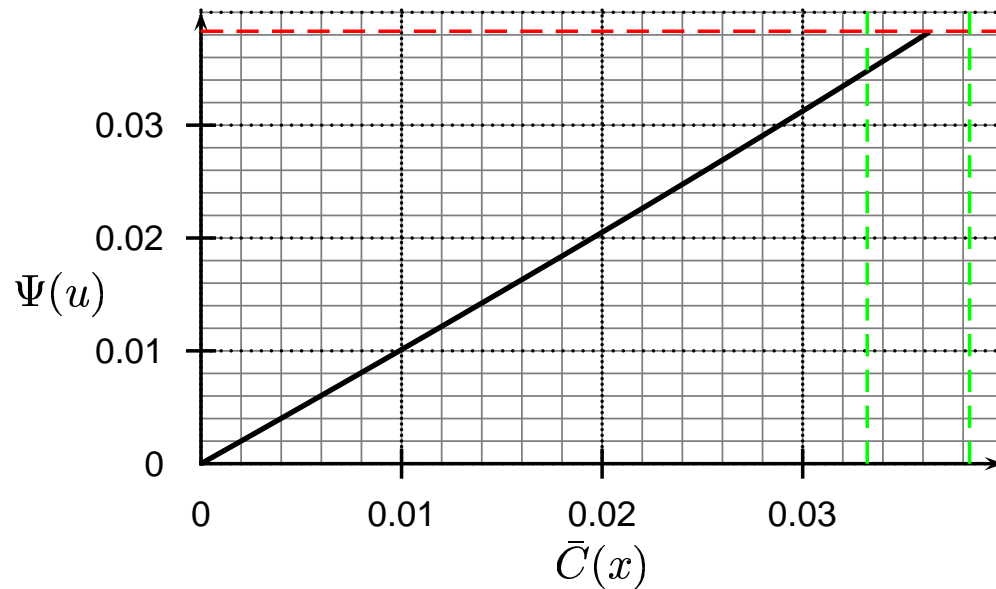
$$\Psi(u) = \Psi(u_0) + A(u - u_0)^2 + \mathcal{O}((u - u_0)^3)$$

$$\bar{C}(x) = u_0 - B\sqrt{1 - x/\Psi(u_0)} + \mathcal{O}\left((x - \Psi(u_0))^2\right)$$

By the Transfer theorems,

$$\bar{c}_n \sim \rho n^{-3/2} \gamma^n n! \qquad c_n \sim \rho n^{-5/2} \gamma^n n!$$

Singularity type



(case B): \bar{C} has the same singularity type than Ψ .

The singularity type of B is $Z^{5/2}$ (BGW; 2002). Thus the singularity type of B' is $Z^{3/2}$.

$\Psi(u) = u \exp(-B'(u, 1))$ has the same singularity type that B' .

$$\bar{c}_n \sim \rho n^{-5/2} \gamma^n n! \qquad c_n \sim \rho n^{-7/2} \gamma^n n!$$

How to obtain exact results

$$\exists u_0 \in (0, \gamma_b^{-1}) \quad \Psi'(u_0) = 0?$$

$$\Psi'(u) = \exp(-B'(u))(1 - uB''(u))$$

If $1 - R_b B''(R_b) > 0$ it follows that $\Psi'(u) > 0$ for all u . So:

- Evaluate $B''(R_b, y)$ to obtain the singularity type of C .
- If $1 - R_b B''(R_b) > 0$, then
 - ◆ the singularity type would be $Z^{5/2}$,
 - ◆ and γ^{-1} would be $R_b \exp(-B'(R_b, y))$.

Problem: We know about $\partial B / \partial y$, but not about B .

$$\frac{\partial B}{\partial y}(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{2} \frac{1 + D(x, y)}{1 + y}$$

$$B(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{2} \int_0^y \frac{1 + D(x, s)}{1 + s} ds$$

How to obtain exact results

Three lemmas about integrating functions through its inverses.

Let $f(z)$ be an invertible function such that $f(0) = 0$, and let $f^{-1}(u)$ be its inverse. Then

$$\int_0^Z f(z)dz = Zf(Z) - \int_0^{f(Z)} f^{-1}(u)du$$

$$\int_0^Z f(z)a'(z)dz = a(Z)f(Z) - \int_0^{f(Z)} a(f^{-1}(u))du$$

$$\int_0^Z \Phi(z, f(z))dz = \int_0^{f(Z)} \Phi(f^{-1}(u), u) \frac{\partial f^{-1}(u)}{\partial u} du$$

How to obtain exact results

$$\frac{M_3(x, D)}{2x^2 D} - \log \left(\frac{1 + D}{1 + y} \right) + \frac{x D^2}{1 + x D} = 0$$

The inverse of $D(x, y)$ with respect to y is explicit:

$$y = \exp \left(-\frac{M_3(x, D)}{2x^2 D} + \log(1 + D) - \frac{x D^2}{1 + x D} \right) - 1$$

So we can integrate $D(x, y)$ through its inverse:

$$\int_0^y \frac{1 + D(x, s)}{1 + s} ds = D(x, y) \log(1 + y) - \int_0^{D(x, y)} \log(1 + D^{-1}(x, t)) dt =$$

$$D(x, y) \log(1 + y) + \int_0^{D(x, y)} \frac{M_3(x, t)}{2x^2 t} - \log(1 + t) + \frac{x t^2}{1 + x t} dt =$$

$$\int_0^{D(x, y)} \frac{M_3(x, t)}{2x^2 t} - \log(1 + t) + \log(1 + y) + \frac{x t^2}{1 + x t} dt$$

How to obtain exact results

$$\int_0^{D(x,y)} \frac{M_3(x,t)}{2x^2t} - \log(1+t) + \log(1+y) + \frac{xt^2}{1+xt} dt$$

But $\int \frac{M_3(x,t)}{t} dt$ is not easy, because M_3 depends on algebraic functions u and v :

$$u(x,z) = xz(1+v(x,z))^2 \quad v(x,z) = z(1+u(x,z))^2$$
$$u(x,z) = xz(1+z(1+u(x,z))^2)^2$$

To obtain the inverses of $u(x,z)$ with respect to z we need to solve a cubic equation.

How to obtain exact results

But if we consider $w(x, z) = z(1 + u(x, z))$ it will be easier, because

$$w(x, z) = z(1 + u(x, z)) = z(1 + xz (1 + z(1 + u(x, z))^2)^2) = z + xz^2 \left(1 + \frac{w(x, z)^2}{z}\right)^2 = z + x(z + w(x, z)^2)^2$$

so to obtain inverse of $w(x, z)$ we only need to solve a quadratic equation.

- We express $M_3(x, z)$ in terms of $w(x, z)$.
- We integrate through the inverse of w .
- We replace every resulting $w(x, z)$ by $z(1 + u(x, z))$.
- So we obtain a long but explicit expression for $B(x, y)$:

$$B(x, y) = \Phi(x, y, D(x, y), u(x, D(x, y)))$$

From here we can obtain $B'(x, y)$, $B''(x, y)$, etc.

How to obtain exact results

One last application of the integrating-through-inverse lemmas:

$$\bar{C}(x, y) = xC'(x, y) \quad \bar{C} \text{ and } \Psi \text{ are inverses}$$

$$C(x, y) = \int_0^x C'(s, y) ds = \int_0^x \frac{\bar{C}(s, x)}{s} ds =$$

$$\log(x)\bar{C}(x, y) - \int_0^{\bar{C}(x, y)} \log(\Psi(t, y)) dt =$$

$$\log(x)\bar{C}(x, y) - \int_0^{\bar{C}(x, y)} \log(t \exp(-B'(t, y))) dt =$$

$$\log(x)\bar{C}(x, y) - \int_0^{\bar{C}(x, y)} \log(t) dt + \int_0^{\bar{C}(x, y)} B'(t, y) dt =$$

$$\log(x)\bar{C}(x, y) - \bar{C}(x, y) \log(\bar{C}(x, y)) + \bar{C}(x, y) B(\bar{C}(x, y), y)$$

Applications

How many isolated vertices has a random planar graph?

Consider the following GF, where t counts the number of isolated vertices

$$G(x, t) = \exp(C(x) - x + tx)$$

The probability that a n -vertex graf has k isolated vertices is

$$\frac{[x^n][t^k]G(x, t)}{[x^n]G(x)} = \frac{[x^n] \exp(C(x) - x) [t^k] \exp(tx)}{[x^n] \exp(C(x))} \sim$$

$$\frac{R^k [x^n] \exp(C(x))}{e^R k! [x^n] \exp(C(x))} = \frac{R^k}{e^R k!}$$

Answer: Poisson distribution of parameter $R = \gamma^{-1}$.

Applications

We generalize the previous result.

Let \mathcal{A} be a *not too large* family of planar graphs, and $A(x)$ its GF.

How many \mathcal{A} -components has a random planar graph?

$$\frac{[x^n][t^k]G(x, t)}{[x^n]G(x, 1)} = \frac{[x^n] \exp(C(x) - A(x)) [t^k] \exp(tA(x))}{[x^n] \exp(C(x))} \sim$$

$$\frac{A(R)^k [x^n] \exp(C(x))}{e^{A(R)} k! [x^n] \exp(C(x))} = \frac{A(R)^k}{e^{A(R)} k!}$$

Answer: Poisson distribution of parameter $A(R)$.

Applications

What is the probability of being connected?

Consider the GF $G(x, t) = \exp(tC(x))$, where t counts the number of connected components.

The probability of having k components is given by

$$\frac{[x^n][t^k]G(x, t)}{[x^n]G(x)} = \frac{[x^n][t^k]\exp(tC(x))}{[x^n]\exp(G(x))} \sim \frac{[x^n]C(x)^k}{\exp(C(R))k![x^n]C(x)}$$

If we set $k = 1$ we obtain the probability of being connected:

$$\frac{[x^n]C(x)}{\exp(C(R))[x^n]C(x)} = \exp(-C(R))$$

Applications

How many components has a random planar graph?

$$\frac{[x^n][t^k]G(x, t)}{[x^n]G(x)} \sim \frac{[x^n]C(x)^k}{\exp(C(R))k![x^n]C(x)}$$

The important terms of the expansion of $C(x)$ close to the singularity are $C(R) + b(1 - \frac{x}{R})^{5/2}$, so

$$[x^n]C(x) \sim b[x^n](1 - \frac{x}{R})^{5/2}$$

$$[x^n]C(x)^k \sim kC(R)^{k-1}b[x^n](1 - \frac{x}{R})^{5/2}$$

$$\frac{[x^n]C(x)^k}{\exp(C(R))k![x^n]C(x)} \sim \frac{C(R)^{k-1}}{\exp(C(R))(k-1)!}$$

Answer: (1+#components) follows a Poisson distribution of parameter $C(R)$.

Applications

How many edges has a random planar graph?

- $C(x, y) \sim (1 - \frac{x}{R(y)})^{7/2}$ around the singularity in a neighbourhood of $y = 1$.
- We apply the quasi powers theorem.
- It follows that
 - ◆ The distribution of the number of edges follows a Normal law.
 - ◆ The expected number of edges is μn .
 - ◆ The variation is $\sigma^2 n$.
 - ◆ Concentration: almost all planar graphs has μn edges.
- μ is given by $R'(1)/R(1)$, and can be computed using that

$$R'(y) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (R_b(y) \exp(B'(R_b(y), y)))$$

.