

# Conjugation of Trees and Random Maps

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[summary by Alain Denise]

## Abstract

We present a general scheme to generate uniformly at random planar maps of various kinds. Our algorithms rely on a combinatorial and bijective approach: we encode the planar maps by some classes of particular trees. This encoding is the basis of efficient random generators of maps of the most simple classes of planar maps. For more complex structures, we proceed by using a new general probabilistic scheme, that we call *extraction/rejection* algorithm.

## 1. Introduction

A *planar map* is an embedding of a graph in the plane, considered up to continuous deformations of the plane. Maps are allowed to have multiple edges and loops; otherwise there are called *simple maps*. The maps we consider are *rooted*: there is an oriented edge, called the *root*.

We present here two families of algorithms for the random generation of rooted planar maps. The first one applies to the few classes of maps which are counted by multiplicative closed formulas. Here are two examples from [2, 5]:

$$\text{Number of planar maps with } n \text{ edges: } \frac{2}{n+2} \frac{3^n}{2n+1} \binom{2n+1}{n},$$

$$\text{Number of bipartite cubic maps with } 3n \text{ vertices: } \frac{3}{n+2} \frac{2^{n-1}}{2n+1} \binom{2n+1}{n}.$$

Our approach consists in finding new bijections between these maps and some particular families of trees. More precisely, there exists, for each family of maps as above, a family of trees such that

$$\#\{\text{maps}\} = \frac{\#\{\text{free leaves}\}}{\#\{\text{leaves}\}} \cdot \#\{\text{trees}\},$$

and the bijection is given by the *closure* of the trees (terms like *free leaves* and *closure* will be explained below). Then the generation scheme is the following: *i*) generate uniformly at random a tree, by known efficient algorithms; *ii*) “decode” the tree to get its associated map. Table 1 gives the basic families that benefit from this approach, leading to linear generation algorithms. The method is illustrated in Section 2 on the family of bipartite cubic maps.

However, a number of families do not present simple formulas as above. In these cases we use a new method: *extraction/rejection*. It combines the usual rejection principle with *composition schemes* that are common for maps. See in Table 2 the new families reached with this new approach, which is presented in Section 3.

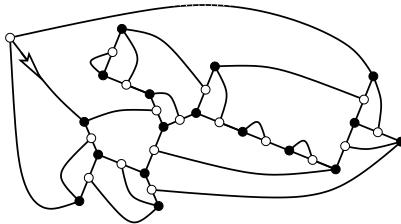
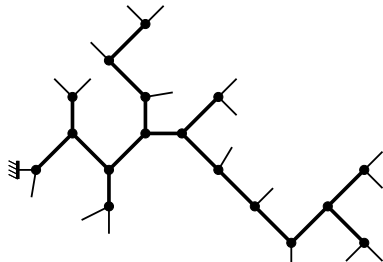
FIGURE 1. A bipartite cubic map with  $17 \times 2$  vertices

FIGURE 2. A planted plane tree with 17 internal nodes

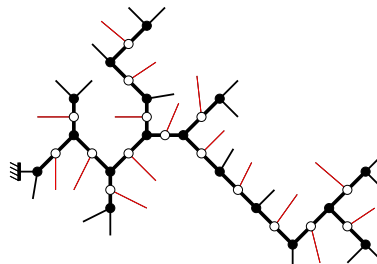


FIGURE 3. A blossom tree

## 2. Bijective Approach

We present here the method through the example of bipartite cubic maps: maps whose vertices have degree 3 and are colored in black or white in such a way that no edge joins two vertices of the same color (Figure 1).

These maps are in bijection with *blossom trees*, as we will see below. A *planted plane binary tree* is a plane binary tree whose root has degree one. Figure 2 presents such a tree (the leaves are omitted in the figure, except the root leaf at the left). A *blossom tree* is a particular tree which can be constructed from a planted plane tree as follows: in the middle of each internal edge, we put a white-colored vertex with a *bud* on one of the two sides, as in Figure 3. Now we call *partial closure* of a blossom tree the structure obtained after the following treatment: turn anti-clockwise around

main family	intermediate family	underlying trees
general	quartic (all degree 4)	binary
bipartite (or Eulerian)	bipartite cubic	binary
<i>m</i> -constellations	<i>m</i> -Eulerian	general
non separable	quartic without 2-cocycle	ternary
loopless triangulations	non separable cubic	ternary

TABLE 1. Maps (with  $n$  edges, loops and multiple edges allowed) generated in linear time

maps	simple	smooth	no leaf	2-c	non separ.	3-c	4-c
all	ok	ok	ok	ok	ok	ok	no
bipartite	ok	no	ok	ok	ok	no	no
triangulations	ok	-	-	-	-	ok	ok

TABLE 2. Some extra properties reachable via extraction/rejection. (Non separable means loopless 2-connected, smooth means without vertices of degree 2)

the tree, and join each bud to the nearest leaf so that no crossing occurs. (In this way, buds and leaves can be seen as a system of nested parentheses.) See in Figure 4 the partial closure of the blossom tree of Figure 3. Since there are 3 more leaves than buds in any blossom tree, there are necessarily 3 leaves which remain alone; we call them *single leaves*. We say that a blossom tree is *balanced* if its root is a single leaf in its partial closure. Finally the *complete closure* of a blossom tree is obtained by joining the three single leaves to a new vertex and rooting the resulting map towards the root leaf (Figure 5). This gives the map of Figure 1.

**Theorem 1.** *The complete closure defines a one-to-one correspondence between balanced blossom trees with  $n$  nodes and bipartite cubic maps with  $3n$  edges.*

Now here is the way to generate uniformly at random a bipartite cubic map with  $3n$  edges:

1. generate uniformly at random a planted binary tree with  $n$  nodes; this can be done in linear complexity with well known algorithms (see [1] for example);
2. toss a coin independently for each edge to place buds;
3. choose with probability  $1/3$  one of the three possible balanced blossom trees and achieve the complete closure.

### 3. Extraction/Rejection Algorithms

Suppose that we have to generate uniformly at random a *bicolored triangulation* like the one in Figure 6, with a given number of faces. By duality, this is equivalent to generate a bipartite cubic map as the one in Figure 7: each black (resp. white) vertex in the map gives a black (resp. white) triangle in the triangulation, each face gives a vertex. But the map must be without *separator*, i.e., without configuration like the one on the left of Figure 8; otherwise the associated triangulation might present multiple edges, like in the right of the figure.

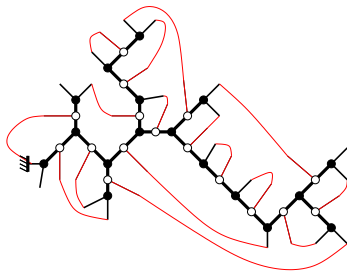


FIGURE 4. Partial closure of the blossom tree

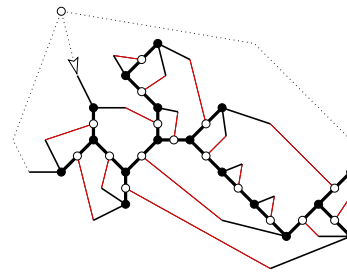


FIGURE 5. Complete closure of the blossom tree

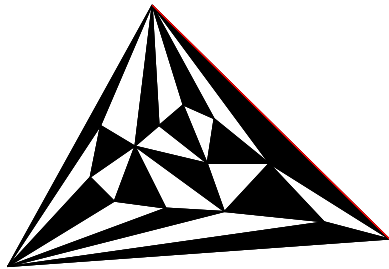


FIGURE 6. A bicolored triangulation

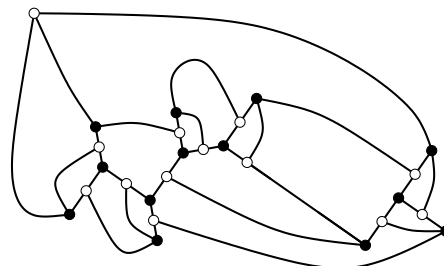


FIGURE 7. A bipartite cubic map without separator

A natural idea would be to use a rejection algorithm in order to generate maps without separators: draw uniformly at random bipartite cubic maps until we get a map without separator. Unfortunately, bipartite cubic maps without separators are very rare, so this approach is practically intractable. So we need another idea. Here is the extraction/rejection method:

1. Generate uniformly at random a bipartite cubic map with the algorithm of Section 2;
2. remove the possible separators (we get what we call the *core* of the map);
3. construct the triangulation from the core by duality.

An important problem appears here: if we generate a map with  $n$  vertices and remove the separators, the resulting map is likely to have less than  $n$  vertices! To fix this problem, we will generate *maps with too many vertices*: we can prove, using asymptotic analysis, that drawing bipartite cubic maps with  $m = 3n$  vertices gives, with a good probability, cores having  $n$  vertices. This leads to an algorithm with complexity  $O(n^{5/3})$ .

This approach can be generalized for a number of families, as seen in Table 2. Details are given in [3, 4].



FIGURE 8. A separator in a bipartite cubic map and its result by duality

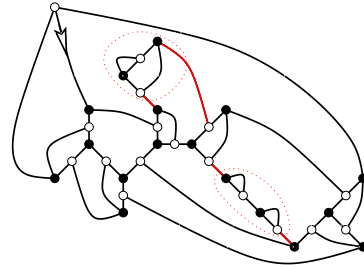


FIGURE 9. A map with separators

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