# A BIJECTION FOR COVERED MAPS ON ORIENTABLE SURFACES 

OLIVIER BERNARDI AND GUILLAUME CHAPUY


#### Abstract

Unicellular maps are a natural generalisation of plane trees to higher genus surfaces. In this article we study covered maps, which are maps together with a distinguished unicellular spanning submap. We prove that the covered maps of genus $g$ with $n$ edges are in bijection with pairs made of a plane tree with $n$ edges and a bipartite unicellular map of genus $g$ with $n+1$ edges. This generalises to any genus the bijection given in [2] between planar tree-rooted maps (maps with a distinguished spanning tree) and pairs made of a tree with $n$ edges and a tree with $n+1$ edges. In the special case of genus 1 , a duality argument allows us to obtain a bijective proof of a formula of Lehman and Walsh [4] about the number of tree-rooted maps of genus 1 .


## 1. Introduction

We consider maps on orientable surfaces of arbitrary genus. A map is unicellular if it has a single face, that is, if the complement of the map is simply connected. A unicellular map on the torus is represented in Figure 4(b). A covered map is a map together with a distinguished spanning unicellular submap. A map of genus $g$ can have spanning submaps of any genus in $\{0 \ldots, g\}$. An example of covered map is given in Figure 1. The main goal of this article is to exhibit a bijection $\Psi$ between covered maps of genus $g$ and size $n$ and pairs made of a plane tree of size $n$ and a unicellular map of genus $g$ and size $n+1$.

Covered maps are a natural generalisation of tree-rooted maps, that is, maps together with a distinguished spanning tree. In the planar case these two notions coincide and our bijection $\Psi$ specialise into the bijection found in [2] in order to give a bijective explanation of a result of Mullin [6]: the number of planar tree-rooted maps of size $n$ is $T_{n}^{0}=C_{n} C_{n+1}$, where $C_{n}=\frac{(2 n)!}{n!(n+1)!}$ is the $n^{\text {th }}$ Catalan number i.e. the number of plane trees with $n$ edges. In the case of the torus, a duality argument shows that exactly half of the covered maps of size $n$ are tree-rooted maps. Therefore, our bijection $\Psi$ give a bijective explanation to the formula of Lehman and Walsh [4]: the number of tree-rooted maps of genus 1 is $T_{n}^{1}=\frac{1}{2} C_{n} B_{n+1}^{1}$, where $B_{n}^{1}=\frac{(2 n-1)!}{6 n!(n-3)!}$ is the number of bipartite unicellular maps with $n$ edges.

We first recall some definitions. A map is a connected graph embedded in an orientable surface considered up to homeomorphism. By embedded, one means drawn on the surface in such a way the edges do not intersect and the faces (connected components of the complement of the graph) are simply connected. An example is given in Figure 1 (forget the thick lines for the time being). The genus of a map is the genus of the surface in which it is embedded and its size is the number of edges. A planar map is a map of genus 0 . A map is unicellular if it has a single face. For instance, plane trees are the unicellular planar maps. A map is bipartite if the underlying graph is. A unicellular bipartite map of genus 1 is represented in Figure 4(b).

The embedding of a map defines a cyclic order (the counterclockwise order) of the half-edges around each vertex. There is, in fact, a one-to-one correspondence between maps and connected graphs together with a cyclic order of the edges around each vertex [5]. Equivalently, a map can be defined as a triple $M=(H, \sigma, \alpha)$, where $H$ is a finite set whose element are the half-edges, $\alpha$ is an involution of $H$ without fixed point, and $\sigma$ is a permutation of $H$ such that the group generated by $\alpha$ and $\sigma$ acts transitively on $H$. The cycles of the involution $\sigma$ are the edges and the cycles of the permutation $\sigma$ are the vertices together with the counterclockwise order of half-edges around them. For instance, the map in Figure 1 is $M=(H, \sigma, \alpha)$, where $H=$ $\left\{1,1^{\prime}, 2,2^{\prime}, \ldots, 9,9^{\prime}\right\}, \alpha=\left(1,1^{\prime}\right)\left(2,2^{\prime}\right) \cdots\left(9,9^{\prime}\right)$ and $\sigma=(1,2,6)\left(1^{\prime}, 2^{\prime}, 3,5^{\prime}\right)\left(3^{\prime}, 4^{\prime}\right)\left(5,9^{\prime}\right)\left(4,8^{\prime}, 9\right)\left(6^{\prime}, 7^{\prime}, 8,7\right)$. Observe that the faces of $M$ are in bijection with the cycles of the permutation $\phi=\sigma \alpha$. For the map of Figure $1, \phi=\left(1,2^{\prime}, 6,7^{\prime}, 6^{\prime}\right)\left(1^{\prime}, 2,3,4^{\prime}, 8^{\prime}, 7,8,9,5\right)\left(3^{\prime}, 5^{\prime}, 9^{\prime}, 4\right)$. A map is rooted if one of the half-edges is distinguished as the root; we denote by $M=(H, r, \sigma, \alpha)$ the map $(H, \sigma, \alpha)$ having root $r$. In the following

[^0]maps are rooted and are considered up to isomorphism (relabelling of the half-edges).
Given a subset $S$ of $H$, the restriction of $\pi$ to $S$, denoted by $\pi_{\mid S}$ is the permutation of $S$ whose cycles are obtained from the cycles of $\pi$ by erasing the elements not in $S$. For instance, if $\pi=(a, b, c)(d, e)(f, g, h, i)$ and $S=\{b, c, f, g, i\}$, then $\pi_{\mid S}=(b, c)(f, g, i)$. A submap of a map $M=(H, \sigma, \alpha)$ is a map of the form $N=\left(S, \alpha_{\mid S}, \sigma_{\mid S}\right)$, where $S \subseteq H$. It is spanning if every cycle of $\sigma$ contains an element of $S$. A submap of a map of genus $g$ has genus less or equal to $g$. For instance, the map $M$ in Figure 1 has genus 1 while the spanning submap $T=\left(S, \alpha_{\mid S}, \sigma_{\mid S}\right)$ induced by the set $S=\left\{1,1^{\prime}, 3,3^{\prime}, 6,6^{\prime}, 8,8^{\prime}, 9,9^{\prime}\right\}$ (thick lines) has genus 0. A pair $(M, T)$ made of a map $M$ and a unicellular spanning submap $T$ is a covered map. A covered $\operatorname{map}(M, T)$ is represented in Figure 1. Given a covered map $(M, T)$, a half-edge is called internal if it belongs to the submap $T$ and external otherwise. An orientation of a map $M=(H, \sigma, \alpha)$ is a partition $H=I \uplus O$ such that the involution $\alpha$ maps the set $I$ on the set $O$; the half-edges in $I$ and $O$ are respectively called ingoing and outgoing. The orientation $I=\left\{1^{\prime}, 2^{\prime}, \ldots, 9^{\prime}\right\}$ and $O=\{1,2, \ldots, 9\}$ of the map $M$ is represented in Figure 2(a).

## 2. Bijection

We now define the mapping $\Psi$ which associates to a covered map $(M, T)$ a pair made of a (rooted plane) tree $\Psi_{1}(M, T)$ and a bipartite unicellular map $\Psi_{2}(M, T)$. The mapping $\Psi$ has two steps. At the first step, one defines an orientation $(I, O)=\delta_{M}(T)$ of the map $M$ which is closely related to the order in which half-edges of $M$ appear around the submap $T$. At the second step, the map is broken into two parts: a plane tree $\Psi_{1}(M, T)$ containing every edge of $M$ and a bipartite unicellular map $\Psi_{2}(M, T)$ which roughly speaking describes how to fold the tree $\Psi_{1}(M, T)$ in order to obtain the map $M$ (and the orientation $(I, O)$ ).

Step 1: orientation. Consider a map $M=(H, r, \alpha, \sigma)$. We denote by $\phi=\sigma \alpha$ the permutation corresponding to the faces of $M$. For any unicellular spanning submap $T$ of $M$, we call the motion function around $T$ the mapping $\theta$ on $H$ defined by $\theta(h)=\sigma(h)$ if $h$ is external and $\theta(h)=\phi(h)$ otherwise. It can be shown that the motion function $\theta$ is a cyclic permutation of $H$ if and only if $T$ is a unicellular map. In this case, the motion function $\theta$ induces a total order on the set of half-edges $H$ by setting $r<_{T} \theta(r)<_{T} \theta^{2}(r) \cdots<_{T} \theta^{|H|-1}(r)$. For instance, the order induced by the spanning submap $T$ in Figure 1 is $1<2^{\prime}<3<4^{\prime}<3^{\prime}<5^{\prime}<1^{\prime}<2<6<7^{\prime}<8<9<5<9^{\prime}<4<8^{\prime}<7<6^{\prime}$. We are now ready to define the orientation $\delta_{M}(T)$ which is represented in Figure 2.
Definition 2.1. Let $M$ be a map. The mapping $\delta_{M}$ associates to a unicellular submap $T$ of $M$ the orientation $\delta_{M}(T)=(I, O)$, where the set of ingoing half-edges $I$ contains the internal half-edges such that $\alpha(h)<_{T} h$ and the external half-edges such that $h<_{T} \alpha(h)$ (and $\left.O=H-I\right)$.

Step 2: unfolding. Let us first describe the unfolding step informally. At this step, each vertex of the map $M$ is broken according to the rule described in Figure 3(a). The rule is the following: given a vertex, that is, a cycle $v=\left(h_{1}, \ldots, h_{k}\right)$ of $\sigma$ we consider the indices $1 \leq i_{1}<i_{2}<\cdots<i_{l}=k$ of the ingoing half-edges incident to $v$. At the unfolding step, the vertex $v$ is decomposed into $l$ vertices $v_{1}=\left(h_{1}, \ldots h_{i_{1}}\right), v_{2}=\left(h_{i_{1}+1}, \ldots, h_{i_{2}}\right), \ldots, v_{l}=\left(h_{i_{l-1}+1}, \ldots, h_{i_{l}}\right)$. Note that the decomposition of $v$ can be written as: $v=v_{1} v_{2} \cdots v_{l} \pi_{\bullet}$, where $\pi_{\bullet}(h)=h$ if $h \in O$ and $\pi_{\bullet}\left(h_{i_{j}}\right)=h_{i_{j+1}}$ for $j=1, \ldots, l$. Figure 3(a) shows the topological representation of the decomposition of a vertex incident to 3 ingoing half-edges. After unfolding, one gets the vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}$ (they will be vertices of the plane tree $\Psi_{1}(M, T)$ ) and a big black vertex corresponding to the permutation $\pi_{\bullet}$ (it will be a vertex of the unicellular bipartite map $\Psi_{2}(M, T)$ ).

We now describe the unfolding step in more details. Let $(I, O)=\delta_{M}(T)$ be the orientation of $M$ associated to the unicellular map $T$. Let $i$ and $o$ be two new elements not in $H$. We define $\sigma^{\prime}$ (resp. $\phi^{\prime}$ ) as the permutation of $I^{\prime}=I \cup\{i\}$ (resp. $O^{\prime}=O \cup\{o\}$ ) obtained from $\sigma$ by inserting the new half-edge $i$ (resp. $o$ ) just before the root $r$ in the cycle of $\sigma$ (resp. $\phi$ ) containing $r$. We also consider the restrictions $\pi_{\bullet}=\sigma_{\mid I^{\prime}}^{\prime}$ and $\pi_{\circ}=\phi_{\mid O^{\prime}}^{\prime}$. In our favourite example, we get $\pi_{\bullet}=(i)\left(1^{\prime}, 2^{\prime}, 5^{\prime}\right)\left(3^{\prime}, 4^{\prime}\right)\left(6^{\prime}, 7^{\prime}\right)\left(8^{\prime}\right)\left(9^{\prime}\right)$ and $\pi_{\circ}=(o, 1,6)(2,3,7,8,9)(4)$. We now define $\pi=\pi_{\bullet} \pi_{\circ}^{-1}$ and $\tau^{\prime}=\sigma^{\prime} \pi_{\bullet}^{-1}$ (here we make a slight abuse of notation by considering that $\pi_{\bullet}=\sigma_{\mid I^{\prime}}^{\prime}$ acts as the identity on $O^{\prime}$ and that $\pi_{\circ}=\phi_{\mid O^{\prime}}^{\prime}$ acts as the identity on $I^{\prime}$ ). We are now ready to define the mapping $\Psi$.


Figure 1. A map $M$ (rooted on the half-edge 1) and a unicellular spanning submap $T$ (thick lines).


Figure 2. (a) Orientation $(O, I)=\delta_{M}(T)$.(b) Unfolding


Figure 3. Topological representation of the unfolding around a vertex (a) and around a face (b).


Figure 4. (a) The tree $\Psi_{1}(M, T)$. (b) The unicellular map $\Psi_{2}(M, T)$.

Definition 2.2. Let $M=(H, r, \sigma, \alpha)$ be a map and let $T$ be a unicellular spanning submap. The mapping $\Psi$ associates to the covered map $(M, T)$ the pair $\left(\Psi_{1}(M, T), \Psi_{2}(M, T)\right)$ defined by: $\Psi_{1}(M, T)=(H, t, \tau, \alpha)$ and $\Psi_{2}(M, T)=\left(H^{\prime}, i, \pi, \alpha\right)$ where $\tau=\tau_{\mid H}^{\prime}$ and $t=\tau^{\prime}(i)$.

The image of the covered map in Figure 1 by $\Psi_{1}$ and $\Psi_{2}$ are represented respectively in Figure 4 (a) and (b). Our main result is the following:

Theorem 2.3. The mapping $\Psi:(M, T) \mapsto\left(\Psi_{1}(M, T), \Psi_{2}(M, T)\right)$ is a bijection between covered maps of size $n$ and genus $g$ and pairs made of a tree of size $n$ and a bipartite unicellular map of size $n+1$ and genus $g$.

## 3. Enumerative corrolaries.

The immediate enumerative corrolary of Theorem 2.3 is the following.
Corollary 3.1. The number of covered maps of size $n$ and genus $g$ is $S_{n}^{g}=C_{n} B_{n+1}^{g}$, where $C_{n}=\frac{(2 n)!}{n!(n+1)!}$ is the $n^{\text {th }}$ Catalan number and $B_{n}^{g}$ is the number of bipartite unicellular maps with $n$ edges.

In [3], an expression is given for the number $B_{n}^{g}$ of bipartite unicellular maps. In particular, it is shown there that for a given genus $g$ the asymptotic of $B_{n}^{g}$ is

$$
B_{n}^{g} \sim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi} g!48^{g}} \cdot n^{3 g-3 / 2} 4^{n}
$$

Using this formula, we obtain the following asymptotic result.
Proposition 3.2. Let $g$ be a non-negative integer. The asymptotic number of covered maps of genus $g$ and size $n$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
S_{n}^{g} \sim \frac{4}{\pi g!96^{g}} \cdot n^{3 g-3} 16^{n} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Covered maps vs tree-rooted maps. As mentioned in the introduction, the notion of covered map generalise the well studied notion of tree-rooted map. In the planar case (genus 0 ), the two notions coincide. In the toroidal case (genus 1), a duality argument shows that exactly half of the covered maps of size $n$ are tree-rooted maps. This property, together with the expression of $B_{n}^{1}$ given in [3] allows one to recover a result obtained by Lehman and Walsh:
Proposition 3.3. [4] The number $T_{n}^{1}$ of tree-rooted maps of size $n$ on the torus is

$$
T_{n}^{1}=\frac{1}{2} A_{n}^{1}=\frac{1}{2} C_{n} B_{n}^{1}=\frac{(2 n)!(2 n+1)!}{12(n-2)!n!((n+1)!)^{2}}
$$

For genus $g$ greater than 1, no nice relation seems to hold between the number $S_{n}^{g}$ of covered maps of size $n$ and the number $T_{n}^{g}$ of tree-rooted maps of size $n$. However, it is proved in [1] that the asymptotic number of tree-rooted maps of genus $g$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
T_{n}^{g} \sim \frac{4}{\pi g!48^{g}} \cdot n^{3 g-3} 16^{n} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Comparing this result with (1) shows that $S_{n}^{g} \sim 2^{g} T_{n}^{g}$. In other words, the probability that a covered map of genus $g$ is a tree-rooted map tends to $1 / 2^{g}$. As an algorithmic consequence of this fact, our bijection could be used to provide an optimal coding of tree-rooted maps of genus $g$, using only $4+o(1)$ bits per edge.

## References

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