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Analytic Combinatorics of Lattice Paths: Enumeration and Asymptotics for the Area

Cyril Banderier and Bernhard Gittenberger


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This paper tackles the enumeration and asymptotics of the area below directed lattice paths (walks on \( \mathbb{N} \), with a finite set of jumps). It is a nice surprise (obtained via the “kernel method”) that the generating functions of the moments of the area are algebraic functions, expressible as symmetric functions in terms of the roots of the kernel.

For a large class of walks, we give full asymptotics for the average area of excursions (“discrete” reflected Brownian bridge) and meanders (“discrete” reflected Brownian motion). We show that drift is not playing any role in the first case. We also generalise previous works related to the number of points below a path and to the area between a path and a line of rational slope.

Keywords: Lattice path, analytic combinatorics, generating function, kernel method, algebraic function, singularity analysis, Brownian Excursion.

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1 Introduction

A lattice path is the drawing in \( \mathbb{Z}^2 \) of a sum of vectors from \( \mathbb{Z}^2 \) (where the vectors belongs to a finite fixed set \( S \), and where the origin of the path is usually taken as being the point \((0,0)\) from \( \mathbb{Z}^2 \)). If all vectors are in \( \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{Z} \), the path is called directed (the path is going “to the right”). If all vectors are in \( \{1\} \times \mathbb{Z} \), despite its natural representation as a drawing in \( \mathbb{Z}^2 \), such a path is essentially unidimensional object. If all vectors are in \( \{1\} \times (\mathbb{N} \cup \{-1\}) \), the path is called a “simple lattice path” or a “Łukasiewicz path” because there exists a bijection with simple families of trees. Unidimensional lattice paths pop up naturally in numerous fields (probability theory, combinatorics, algebra, economics, biology, analysis of algorithms, language theory, ...).

For lattice paths (or their probabilistic equivalent, random walks) which are space and time homogeneous, it was proven [4] that symbolic and analytic combinatorics [13] were quite powerful tools to study...
unidimensional lattice paths from an enumerative and asymptotic point of view. The authors developed a generating function approach to have exact enumeration of lattice paths (via the kernel method), and then used singularity analysis to study some basic parameters (like number of returns to zero, final altitude) according to some constraints (drift/reflecting conditions). For random walks there are in fact numerous works using an approach with a flavour of “generating function” and “analysis of singularity”, either with probabilistic or combinatorial methods, e.g. for interaction of random walks, for random walks on groups or for stationary distributions of 2-dimensional models in queueing theory.

In our simpler model of unidimensional lattice paths, for simple parameters which are in one sense “exactly solvable”, one can expect more than for the above difficult problems: not only one can get here critical exponents, but also we get fast computation schemes, for exact enumeration and for full asymptotics (to any order). It is then natural to ask what can be obtained for less trivial parameters, like the area or the height. We will investigate the height in a future article, and we concentrate here on the area, as already investigated in combinatorics, mainly for Dyck paths or with Riordan arrays for internal path lengths of some generating trees [23]. As lattice paths are algebraic objects, as easily proven with context free grammars [19], some techniques from language theory (Q-grammars [11]) can be used to solve the simplest cases. We extend most of these results in this article. The probabilistic corresponding object was analysed by G. Louchard [20], who proved that the limiting distribution of the area below the Brownian excursion was related to the Airy function, as further investigated in [24], and also by other authors in different contexts [14, 7, 6]. The area is also naturally related to queueing theory, polyominoes in statistical physics [27, 28], cumulative cost of some algorithms.

Fig. 1: The two kind of areas we consider in this article: To the left, a path of “continuous” area 25. Enumeration are given in Section 3 and asymptotics for simple families of walks are given in Section 4. To the right, a path of “discrete” area 40 (i.e., there are 40 points below the path). Section 5 is devoted to the analysis of this parameter.

In our approach, one of the key trick is the so-called “kernel method”, which is a way of solving functional equations of the type $K(z, u)F(z, u) = A(z, u) + B(z, u)G(z)$ where $F$ and $G$ are the unknowns one wishes to determinate. The kernel method consists in getting additional equations by plugging the roots of the “kernel” $K$ in the initial equation, which in general is enough to solve the system. The kernel method shares the spirit of the “quadratic method” of Tutte and Brown (for enumeration of maps). In combinatorics, only the simplest case of the kernel method (namely, when there is only one root) was used for 30 years, see Knuth [16] for sorting with stacks, Chung et al. [9] for a pebbling game, or [25] for generation of binary trees. During the same time period, and independently, difficult 2-dimensional generalisations of this trick were well studied in queueing theory; the classification of the different cases for the nearest neighbour walks in $\mathbb{N}^2$ was already quite a challenge, see the book [13] or [18]. This last decade, there has been a revival in combinatorics for functional equations, and the full power of the kernel method was better put into evidence, both for enumeration and for asymptotics. There are indeed nearly 20 (sic!) articles by M. Bousquet-Mélou [5], which e.g. showed how the kernel method can be, once bootstrapped, also be used in higher dimensions or for algebraic (non linear) equations. Solving equations is not the only miracle that the kernel method offers, it also gives compact formulae [5, 1, 3] thus giving access to asymptotics [4, 2, 29]. Our article thus adds a new stone to the “kernel method” edifice, and gives more results on complete asymptotics for the average area of directed lattice paths.

2 Summary of results for directed lattice paths

To each directed lattice path, we associate a Laurent polynomial which encodes all the possible jumps $P(u) := \sum_{i=-c}^{d} p_i u^i$ (where $c$ is the size of the largest backward jump and $d$ is the size of largest ahead jump, and where the $p_i$’s are some “weights”, “multiplicities”, or “probabilities”).

Figure 2 shows four drawings (for four different constraints) of lattice paths with jumps in

$$S = \{(1, -3), (1, -1), (1, 0), (1, 1), (1, 5)\};$$
the associated Laurent polynomial is therefore \( P(u) := p_{-3}u^{-3} + p_{-1}u^{-1} + p_0 + p_1u + p_5u^5 \).

In [3], Banderier and Flajolet showed that the kernel method was the key to get enumeration and asymptotics of directed lattice paths. The main results are summarised in Figure 2. The proofs rely on the following facts:

Fact 1: There are \( c \) distinct roots, \( u_1, \ldots, u_c \), of the “kernel” \( 1 - zP(u) = 0 \) which are analytical in zero.

Fact 2: There is a nice trick (the “kernel method”) which allows to write all the GF’s with these \( u_i \)’s.

Fact 3: There is a unique positive real number \( \tau \) such that \( P'(\tau) = 0 \), and the radius of convergence of the GF’s is \( \rho := 1/P'(. \).

Fact 4: Asymptotics are coming from the real root \( u_1 \), which is singular at \( \rho \), the other roots are analytical at \( \rho \) and therefore, they only affect the multiplicative constant. (Some easy modifications have to be made here if the walk is “periodic”).

Fact 5: \( u_1 \) has a square root behaviour near its singularity: \( u_1 \sim \tau + K \sqrt{1 - z/\rho} \).

Fact 6: The drift \( \delta := P'(1) \) of the walk plays a rôle for asymptotics of meanders (\( \delta \geq 0 \) when \( \tau \geq 1 \), \( \delta \leq 0 \) when \( \tau \leq 1 \)).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ending anywhere</th>
<th>ending at 0</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>unconstrained (on ( \mathbb{Z} ))</td>
<td>walk/path (W)</td>
<td>bridge (B)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( W(z) = \frac{1}{1 - zP(1)} )</td>
<td>( B(z) = z \sum_{i=1}^{c} u_i(z) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( W_n = P(1)^n )</td>
<td>( B_n \sim \beta_0 P(1)^n )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>constrained (on ( \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0} ))</td>
<td>meander (M)</td>
<td>excursion (E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( M(z) = \frac{1}{1 - zP(1)} \prod_{i=1}^{c} (1 - u_i(z)) )</td>
<td>( E(z) = (-1)^{c-1} \sum_{i=1}^{c} u_i(z) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( M_n \sim \mu_0 \sqrt{\pi n} P(1)^n ) (zero drift)</td>
<td>( E_n \sim \epsilon_0 P(1)^n \sqrt{\pi n^3} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( M_n \sim \mu_0^{\frac{1}{2}} P(1)^n ) (negative drift)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>( M_n \sim \mu_0^{\frac{1}{2}} P(1)^n \beta_0^{\frac{1}{2}} ) (positive drift)</td>
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Fig. 2: The four types of paths: walks, bridges, meanders, and excursions and the corresponding generating functions. The \( u_i \)’s are such that \( 1 - zP(u_i(z)) = 0 \) and the constants \( \epsilon_0, \beta_0 \), and the \( \mu_0 \)’s are algebraic numbers which can be made explicit. In the rest of this paper, we want to analyse the area enclosed between a constrained path and the \( y = 0 \) line. For the meander drawn here, the area is 27, and the area of the excursion is 34.

3 Generating function for the area

Taking the unit square of \( \mathbb{Z}^2 \) as unit of area, it is convenient to consider the generating function of the “doubled” area (i.e., area multiplied by 2): it precludes a mathematically equivalent but practically boring use of Puiseux series in our context.

Definition 1 (Area Generating Function) Let \( f_{nkm} \) denote the number of walks of length \( n \) with final altitude \( k \) and area \( m/2 \) and

\[
F(z, u, q) = \sum_{n,k,m} f_{nkm} z^n u^k q^m = \sum_{k \geq 0} F_k(z, q) u^k.
\]

Theorem 1 (Fundamental Functional Equation for \( F(z, u, q) \)) The area generating function satisfies the following recursive definition:

\[
F(z, u, q) = 1 + zP(uq)F(z, uq^2, q) - z \sum_{k=0}^{c-1} r_k(uq) F_k(z, q) q^k,
\]
where the \( r_k \)'s are Laurent polynomial defined by \( r_k(u) := \{u^{<0}\} \ (P(u)u^k) \equiv \sum_{j=-c}^{k-1} p_j u^{j+k} \).

**Proof:** If at time \( n \), one is at altitude \( k \) with doubled-area \( r \), and if one makes a jump \( j \), then at time \( n+1 \) one is at altitude and doubled-area encoded by \( u^{k+j}g^{r+2k+j} \). This transformation can be encoded with some linear operators: \( f_{n+1}(u, q) = \{u^{<0}\} \ P(u) f_n(uq^2, q) \). This leads to

\[
F(z, u, q) = 1 + zP(uq)F(z, uq^2, q) - \{u^{<0}\}zP(uq)F(z, uq^2, q).
\]

We get the theorem by noting that

\[
\{u^{<0}\} P(uq) F(z, uq^2, q) = \sum_{k=0}^{c-1} F_k(z, q) q^{2k} \{u^{<0}\} P(uq) u^k
\]

In some cases (mainly for walks with jumps +1, 0, and −1, which are related to the combinatorics of continued fractions), it is possible to get \( q \)-analog expressions for \( F_0(z, q) \). It is also related to the fact that we can get nice results for the moments. For this, we will apply \( \partial_\nu^n \) on both sides of our fundamental functional equation, and this is why we need now the following theorem.

**Theorem 2 (Bivariate Faà di Bruno Formula (Most, 1870))** Consider \( f(u, q) \) (and note \( \partial_\nu \) for \( \frac{d}{du} \)), then

\[
\partial_\nu^n f(g_1(x), g_2(x)) = \sum_{\lambda_1=0}^{n} \sum_{\lambda_2=0}^{n-\lambda_1} (\partial_\nu^{\lambda_1} \partial_\omega^{\lambda_2} f)(g_1(x), g_2(x)) \sum_{\kappa} n! \prod_{j=1}^{n} (\partial_\nu^{k_1} g_1^{k_1} (\partial_\omega^{k_2} g_2)^{k_2}),
\]

where the last summation runs over the set \( \kappa \) defined by

\[
\kappa := \{k_1, \ldots, k_n, k_{21}, \ldots, k_{2n} : k_{1j} + k_{2j} \geq 0, k_{1j}, k_{2j} \geq 0, n, \sum_{j=1}^{n} k_{1j} = \lambda_1, n, \sum_{j=1}^{n} k_{2j} = \lambda_2, \sum_{j=1}^{n} (k_{1j} + k_{2j})j = n\}.
\]

**Proof:** See [10].

**Nota bene:** This huge sum has in fact a lot of 0 terms. It is possible to write more complicated expressions (by adding a nested sum) with less 0 terms; however this new expression would even not be more efficient (while trying to use it on a computer algebra system like Maple[1]).

**Proposition 1 (Application of Faà di Bruno to \( \partial_\nu^n F(z, uq^2, q) \))**

\[
\partial_\nu^n F(z, uq^2, q) = \sum_{\lambda=0}^{n} (\partial_\nu^{\lambda_1} \partial_\omega^{\lambda_2} F)(z, uq^2, q) \frac{(2uq)^{\lambda_1} n!}{(n-\lambda)!} + \sum_{\lambda=0}^{n-2} \sum_{\lambda_1=\lambda+2}^{n-\lambda_1-1} \frac{n! u^{\lambda_1} (2q)^{2\lambda_1+\lambda_2-n}}{(2\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 - n)! (n-\lambda_1-\lambda_2)!} \partial_\omega^{\lambda_2} F(z, uq^2, q) + \sum_{\lambda=[n/2]+1}^{n-1} \frac{n! u^{\lambda_1} (2q)^{2\lambda_1-n}}{(2\lambda_1 - n)! (n-\lambda_1)!} \partial_\nu^{\lambda_2} F(z, uq^2, q).
\]

**Proof:** Bivariate Faà di Bruno formula with \( f = F(z, u, q), g_1(q) = uq^2, g_2(q) = q \), and \( f(g_1, g_2) = F(z, uq^2, q) \) (\( z \) is considered here as a parameter).

The following result was stated in [1], but the proof was just sketched.

\(^{(1)}\) Note that Maple needs to be “human-helped” a lot, when dealing with this kind of formulae. This “pleasant” fact is due to bugs in Maple: Indeed Maple is sometimes converting its diff function into its D function without warning the user (which could miss this fact, cancelled after simplifications), and the D function is buggy while dealing with Faà di Bruno like differentiation. Another Maple trouble that we encounter is mul(x, i = 3..1) = 1 (which is fine) whereas product(x, i = 3..1) = 1/x (sic!). The interested reader can check all our computations with the file http://www-ls2n.univ-paris13.fr/~banderier/Papers/area.mw. At this occasion, we would like to advertise Salvy and Zimmermann’s Gfun package, which allowed us to get automatic proofs for some of our generating functions.
Theorem 3 (Algebraicity of moments) The moments of the area are algebraic, i.e. \((\partial_q^n F)(z, u, 1)\) is an algebraic generating function. Furthermore, it can be expressed as a rational function in terms of the roots of the kernel, i.e. \((\partial_q^n F)(z, u, 1) \in \mathbb{Q}(z, u, u_1, \ldots, u_c)\).

Comments: this field is in fact \(\mathbb{Q}(z, u, u_1, \ldots, u_c, p_{-c}, \ldots, p_d)\) if the Laurent polynomial \(P(u)\) of the walk has non-rational coefficients. Note that the platypus trick (sic) presented in [4] implies that coefficients \(\partial_q^n f_n(u, 1)\) can be computed in linear time.

Proof: We make a proof by induction. Our claim is true for \(n = 0\): in this case \((\partial_q^n F)(z, u, 1) = F(z, u, 1)\), which is algebraic and in \(\mathbb{Q}(z, u, u_1, \ldots, u_c)\) (see [4] for a detailed proof). Now, let us assume that the induction hypothesis is true for all \(\lambda_k < n\) (which implies\(^{(ii)}\) that \((\partial_q^n \partial_{z_k} F)(z, u, 1)\) is algebraic and in \(\mathbb{Q}(z, u, u_1, \ldots, u_c)\) for all \(k\)), then we will show that \(\partial_q^n F(z, u, 1)\) is algebraic and in \(\mathbb{Q}(z, u, u_1, \ldots, u_c)\).

To this aim, consider the \(n\)th derivative of the fundamental functional equation \((\partial_q^n F)\) using Leibniz rule and setting \(G_k(z, q) := F_k(z, q) q^k\) gives:

\[
(\partial_q^n F)(z, u, q) = zP(uq)\partial_q^n F(z, uq^2, q) + z\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \binom{n}{j} \partial_q^{n-j} P(uq) \partial_q^j F(z, uq^2, q) - z \sum_{k=0}^{c-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \binom{n}{j} \partial_q^{n-j}(r_k(uq)) \partial_q^j G_k(z, q).
\]

Define \(R_n(z, u, q)\) as the “known” part (by induction, once one sets \(q = 1\)) of the right hand side, that is

\[
R_n(z, u, q) := zP(uq) (\partial_q^n F(z, uq^2, q) - \partial_q^n(F)(z, uq^2, q)) + z \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \binom{n}{j} \partial_q^{n-j} P(uq) \partial_q^j F(z, uq^2, q) - z \sum_{k=0}^{c-1} \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \binom{n}{j} \partial_q^{n-j}(r_k(uq)) \partial_q^j G_k(z, q).
\]

Setting \(q = 1\), the equation is then simply:

\[
(1 - zP(u))(\partial_q^n F)(z, u, 1) = R_n(z, u, 1) - z \sum_{k=0}^{c-1} r_k(u) \partial_q^n G_k(z, 1).
\]

\(R_n\) contains only derivatives of order \(< n\) and therefore (by induction, see the previous footnote) is algebraic and belongs to \(\mathbb{Q}(z, u, u_1, \ldots, u_c)\). Plugging the \(c\) roots of the kernel in this equation (this substitution is analytically legitimate) and, taking all small branches into account, provides a system of \(c\) equations in the unknown functions \(\partial_q^n G_0, \ldots, \partial_q^n G_{c-1}\):

\[
\begin{align*}
R_n(z, u_1, 1) - z \sum_{k=0}^{c-1} r_k(u_1) \partial_q^n G_k(z, 1) &= 0, \\
R_n(z, u_c, 1) - z \sum_{k=0}^{c-1} r_k(u_c) \partial_q^n G_k(z, 1) &= 0.
\end{align*}
\]

One has \(M.(\partial_q^n G_i) = (R_n(u_i)/z)\) where the matrix \(M\) of this system has the following shape:

\[
M := \begin{pmatrix}
(p_{-c} u_1^{-c} + u_1^{-c+1} + \ldots + u_1^{-1}) & \ldots & p_{-c} u_1^{-2} + p_{-c+1} u_1^{-1} & (p_{-c} u_1^{-1}) \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
(p_{-c} u_c^{-c} + u_c^{-c+1} + \ldots + u_c^{-1}) & \ldots & p_{-c} u_c^{-2} + p_{-c+1} u_c^{-1} & (p_{-c} u_c^{-1})
\end{pmatrix}
\]

The determinant of \(M\) is unchanged if we add/subtract rows between them. Then, subtracting iteratively a multiple of the \(i\)-th row to the \((i-1)\)-th row gives a classical Vandermonde matrix \(V\), multiplied by \(p_{-c}\)

\[
V := \begin{pmatrix}
p_{-c} u_1^{-c} & \ldots & p_{-c} u_1^{-2} & p_{-c} u_1^{-1} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
p_{-c} u_c^{-c} & \ldots & p_{-c} u_c^{-2} & p_{-c} u_c^{-1}
\end{pmatrix}
\]

\(^{(ii)}\) If \(F(z, u)\) is algebraic, then \(F(z, 0)\) is algebraic. If \(F(z, u)\) is algebraic, then \(\partial_u F(z, u)\) is algebraic (this can be proven by a resultant with the derivative of the algebraic equation of \(F\)). From this, it is easy to get that if \(F(z, u) = \sum u^k F_k(z)\) is algebraic, then each \(F_k(z)\) is algebraic.
we can use the classical formula to get its determinant, and it gives
\[
\det M = \det V = p^c \prod_{i=1}^{c} u_i^{-c} \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq n} (u_j(z) - u_i(z))
\]
which is nonzero as \( p^-c \neq 0 \) (the multiplicity of the largest negative jump) and as all the roots are distinct (by Fact 1 in Section 2). Therefore our system has a unique solution, and all the unknowns are algebraic as they can be expressed thanks to the Cràmer formula as a fraction in the \( u_i \)'s:
\[
\frac{\partial^u_i G_k(z, 1)}{\det M} = \frac{\det M_k}{\det M}.
\]

\textit{Nota bene}: it is in fact possible to express \( \det M_k \) as a polynomial involving homogeneous symmetric functions. But this involves positive and negative integer coefficients, and therefore it seems hopeless to get a general asymptotic theory of the area from such a formula.

In order to get a nicer expression for \( \partial_u F(z, u, 1) \), we need some intermediate computations, e.g. for computing \( P'(u_k) \), \( P''(u_k) \) and other such expressions, for sake of simplicity, we simply include here the following Proposition, the other proofs having the same flavour.

\textbf{Proposition 2 (Computations of \( \partial_u F(z, u, 1) \))} Writing \( u_k \) for \( u_k(z) \), one has:
\[
\partial_u F(z, u, 1) = \frac{\Pi'(u_k)}{A'(u_k)} \sum_{i=1, c \neq k} \frac{1}{u_k - u_i} - \frac{\Pi'(u_k) A''(u_k)}{2A'(u_k)^2} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\Pi'}{A'}
\]
where \( \Pi(u) = \prod_{i=1, c}(u - u_i) \) and \( A(u) = u^c(1 - zP(u)) \).

\textbf{Proof}: With \( \Pi(u) \) and \( A(u) \) defined as above, deriving \( F(z, u, 1) = \frac{\Pi(u)}{A(u)} \) leads to
\[
\partial_u F(z, u, 1) = \frac{\Pi'(u)}{A(u)} - \frac{A'(u)}{A^2(u)} \Pi(u)
\]
Dividing numerator and denominator of the last fraction by \((u - u_k(z))^2\) leads to
\[
\partial_u F(z, u, 1) = \frac{\Pi'(u) - \Pi'(u_k)}{u - u_k(z)} \frac{u - u_k(z)}{A(u) - A(u_k)} \left( \sum_{i=1, c \neq k} \frac{1}{u - u_i(z)} + \frac{A(u) - A'(u)(u - u_k(z))}{A(u)(u - u_k(z))} \right).
\]
Taking limit when \( u \) goes to \( u_k \) on both sides gives
\[
\partial_u F(z, u_k(z), 1) = \Pi'(u_k(z)) \frac{1}{A'(u_k)} \left( \sum_{i=1, c \neq k} \frac{1}{u_k - u_i(z)} + \lim_{u \rightarrow u_k} \frac{A(u) - A'(u)(u - u_k(z))}{2A'(u_k)} \right).
\]
Using the Taylor expansion of \( A(u) \) up to \( O((u - u_k)^3) \) and of \( A'(u) \) up to \( O((u - u_k)^2) \) gives :
\[
\partial_u F(z, u_k(z), 1) = \Pi'(u_k(z)) \frac{1}{A'(u_k)} \left( \sum_{i=1, c \neq k} \frac{1}{u_k - u_i(z)} + \frac{-A''(u_k)}{2A'(u_k)} \right). \tag*{\square}
\]

4 Average area for simple family of lattice paths

We call “simple family of lattice paths” or “Łukasiewicz walks” the important family of walks corresponding to the case \( c = 1 \) (there is only one jump of length 1 to the left). Note that we could allow \( d = +\infty \), which means that \( P(u) \) could be a Laurent series (this would correspond to càdlàg processes in probability theory); our formula would then be derived in the same way (and for asymptotics several subcases have to be considered, see [J2B]).
Łukasiewicz excursions with jumps in $S$ correspond to trees whose node degrees are constrained to lie in $1 + S$. This holds by virtue of the Łukasiewicz encoding, a well-known correspondence. ( Traverse the tree in preorder and output a step of $d - 1$ when a node of outdegree $d$ is encountered.) In this way, it is seen that the equation $1 - zP(u) = 0$ gives the GF of “simple families of trees” counted according to their number of nodes, an otherwise classical result \cite{21}. By Lagrange inversion, the number of trees comprised of $n$ nodes is $T_n = \frac{1}{n} \left[ \frac{u^{n-1} - 1}{u} \right]^n$, where $\phi = uP(u)$ can be directly interpreted as the characteristic polynomial of the allowed node (out)degrees. The rich combinatorics of these structures suggests that we could also get rather explicit formulae for the area of such walks. This is indeed the case, as shown in the next three theorems.

**Theorem 4** The generating function of the moments of the area below Łukasiewicz walks (i.e., $c = 1$) simplify to:

$$ (\partial_q^n F)(z, u, 1) = \frac{1}{1 - zP(u)} \left( R_n(z, u, 1) - u_1 R_n(z, u_1, 1) \right). $$

The average is then the quotient $E_n = \frac{R_n(z, u, 1)}{u_1 R_n(z, u_1, 1)}$.

The generating function of the average moment is:

$$ (\partial_q F)(z, u, 1) = \frac{u(z + zP(u))P'(u)(u - u_1) + 2zP(u)u_1}{(1 - zP(u))^3} \left( 1 - zP(u)^2 \right) - \frac{u_1 + \frac{zu_1}{u_1} - zu'_1}{1 - zP(u)}. $$

**Proof:** Propositions 2 and 3 allow to get the following expressions:

$$ R_1(z, u, 1) = 2zP(u)\partial_q F(z, u, 1) + zuP'(u)F(z, u, 1) + \frac{zP-1}{u} E(z), $$

$$ R_1(z, u_1, 1) = 2 + \frac{zu_1}{u_1} - \frac{zu'_1}{u_1}. $$

Using the expressions for $F_0(z, 1) = E(z)$ and $F(z, u, 1)$ given in Section 2, and plugging this in Eq. 2 for $n = 1$ gives the first moment.

**Theorem 5** The generating function of the average area below Łukasiewicz excursions is given by

$$ \partial_q F_0(z, 1) = \frac{2}{zp-1} u_1 + \frac{u_1 u'_1}{p-1 u'_1} - \frac{2}{p-1}u'_1 = 2E' + E\Theta \ln(zE) $$

where $E$ is the GF of excursions and $\Theta$ stands for $z\partial_z$, the pointing operator\(^{(iii)}\). The average area below an excursion is asymptotically:

$$ \frac{\tau \sqrt{\pi P(\tau)}}{\rho p-1} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi P(\tau)}} \cdot n^{3/2} - \frac{3}{\rho p-1} n - \frac{3\tau \sqrt{\pi P(\tau)}}{8p-1 \rho} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi P(\tau)}} \cdot \sqrt{n} + \frac{7}{2p-1} + O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right). $$

**Proof:** Plugging $u = 0$ in Theorem 4 and using several Taylor expansions gives

$$ \partial_q F_0(z, 1) = \frac{2}{zp-1} u_1 + \frac{u_1 u'_1}{p-1 u'_1} - \frac{2}{p-1}u'_1. $$

Then, we know by Fact 5 from Section 2 that $u_1(z) = \tau + K \sqrt{1 - z/\rho} + \ldots$ (with $K = 2P(\tau)/P''(\tau)$). Using singularity analysis, this leads to

$$ \partial_q F_0(z, 1) = \frac{-K}{\sqrt{1 - z/\rho p p-1}} + \frac{\tau - K \sqrt{1 - z/\rho}}{z p-1} + \frac{\tau - K \sqrt{1 - z/\rho}}{2((1 - z/\rho)p p-1) }. $$

The average is then the quotient

$$ \frac{[z^n] \partial_q F_0(z, 1)}{[z^n] F_0(z, 1)} = \frac{\tau \sqrt{\pi P(\tau)}}{\rho p-1} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi P(\tau)}} \cdot n^{3/2} - \frac{3}{\rho p-1} n - \frac{3\tau \sqrt{\pi P(\tau)}}{8p-1 \rho} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi P(\tau)}} \cdot \sqrt{n} + \frac{7}{2p-1} + O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right). $$

\(^{(iii)}\) Using the notations of symbolic combinatorics used in \cite{15}, note that we have both for EGF and OGF that $\Theta \ln E = E\Theta A$ whenever $E = SeqA$. For generating functions, this translates in $z\partial_z \ln E(z) = E(z)z\partial_z A(z)$. There is therefore a natural meaning for logarithms, also for non-labelled combinatorial structures: this is nothing else than another formulation of the cycle lemma (also known as Dvoretzky/Motzkin/Raney/Spitzer/Sparre Andersen principles). To give a bijective proof of our formula \(^{(iii)}\) is an interesting problem.
from which we can get as many terms as one wishes in the asymptotic expansion (note that the denominators are well defined: $P''(\tau) > 0$ as $P$ has $\geq 0$ coefficients).

Morality: whatever the drift of the excursion is, we have universality of the $n^{3/2}$ result for average area below an excursion.

**Theorem 6** The average area below Łukasiewicz meanders is given by

$$ (\partial_1 F)(z, 1, 1) = \frac{\delta z (1 + zP(1))(1 - u_1) + 2zP(1)u_1}{(1 - zP(1))^3} = \frac{u_1 + \frac{z u_1 u''_1}{u_1} - z u'_1}{1 - zP(1)}. $$

Asymptotics of the average depend on the drift $\delta := P'(1)$ of the walk:

- **negative drift** ($\delta < 0$): $\tau \sqrt{\frac{P''(1)}{P'(1)}} \sqrt{2\pi n^{3/2}} - 2n + O(\sqrt{n})$,
- **zero drift** ($\delta = 0$): $\frac{3}{4} \sqrt{\frac{P''(1)}{P'(1)}} \sqrt{2\pi n^{3/2}} - 2\sqrt{n} + O(n^{3/2})$,
- **positive drift** ($\delta > 0$): $\frac{3}{4} \sqrt{\frac{P''(1)}{P'(1)}} n^2 + O(n^{3/2})$.

Comments: it is quite striking that a meander with a negative drift has the “same” area (up to an asymptotic factor of $3/(4\tau)$) as a meander with 0 drift. The universality of this $\Theta(n^{3/2})$ area also proves the paradoxical $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$ height for meanders with a drift $\leq 0$. It is often the case for Brownian properties (see e.g. [8]) that

It is quite nice that analytic combinatorics allows to make explicit the two different multiplicative constants of these “brother behaviours”.

**Proof:** Plugging $u = 1$ in Theorem 5 gives

$$ (\partial_1 F)(z, 1, 1) = \frac{1}{1 - zP(1)} (R_n(z, 1, 1) - u_1 R_n(z, u_1, 1)) $$

where $R_1(z, u_1, 1)$ is given by Eq. [4] while plugging $u = 1$ in Eq. [3] gives

$$ R_1(z, 1, 1) = \frac{(1 + zP(1))P'(1)z(1 - u_1)}{(1 - zP(1))^2} + \frac{2zP(1)u_1}{(1 - zP(1))} + u_1. $$

Using the square behaviour of $u_1$ (see [4]) gives the asymptotics. \qed

**Nota bene:** The expression for $\partial_1 F(z, 1, 1)$ was also obtained by Merlini [23] with a Riordan array approach.

5 Links between area and number of points below the paths

As a direct byproduct of our formula, we get a rational generating function for the number of points below weighted Motzkin path, thus generalising previous results of G. Kreweras and B. Sulanke et al. [17][26].

**Theorem 7 (Rationality for weighted Motzkin excursions)** This corresponds to the walks encoded by a polynomial $P(u) = \frac{u^{-1}}{u^{-1}} + p_0 + p_1 u$. The number $G_n$ of points (with integer coordinates) below walks of length $n$ satisfies

$$ G_n = \frac{(p_0 + 2\sqrt{p_1 p_{-1}})^{n+1} - (p_0 - 2\sqrt{p_1 p_{-1}})^{n+1}}{4\sqrt{p_1 p_{-1}}} $$

$$ G_{n+2} = 2p_0 G_{n+1} + (4p_1 p_{-1} - p_0^2) G_n, \quad G_0 = 1, G_1 = 2p_0 $$

or equivalently, the GF is given by $G(z) = \frac{1}{1 - ((p_0^2 - 4p_1 p_{-1}) z^2 + 2p_0 z)}$.

**Proof:** The number of points below a path is $\sum_{i=0}^{n}(1 + \text{altitude at time } (i))$ and summing over all paths gives $G(z) = \partial_q F_0(z, 1, 2) + (zE(z))^q$. Then, it follows directly from our previous theorems that $G(z) = \frac{u_1(z) + u_1(z) u''_1(z)}{2p_{-1} u_1(z)}$ which gives the theorem above, using the closed form expression of $u_1$. \qed
This result can still be extended by dilatation (in $x$ or $y$) of the 0 or $+1$ and $−1$ jumps. Note that, for $c > 1$ or $d > 1$ (that is, if one has a jump of amplitude larger than 1), it is no more the case that the generating function is always rational. For example, excursions with jumps $−1$ and $+2$ lead to $G(z) = \frac{1+2-z\sqrt{1-4z}}{1+z(1-z)^2}$, which is algebraic but not rational. For meanders, even in the simplest case (like Dyck, weighted Motzkin, ...), the GF is also a pure algebraic function. However, even if it is quite unlikely, it could be the case that for a given $P(u)$, the GF $G(z)$ is rational; it would correspond to a kind of “miracle” (a factorisation of the characteristic polynomial in a linear factor cancelling our $G(z)$).

6 Links with area of Dyck paths below a line of rational slope.

Fig. 3: A walk with below the line $y = 2x/3$ is mapped to an excursion: Each jump $(1, 0)$ (resp. $(0, 1)$) is mapped to a jump $(1, 2)$ (resp. $(1, −3)$).

In [12], P. Duchon considered Dyck paths (with a Northeastbound representation, see Figure 3) below a line of rational slope: walks on $\mathbb{N}^2$ with jumps $(+1, +0)$ or $(+0, +1)$, beginning in $(0, 0)$ and constrained to stay below a line of rational slope, $y = \frac{2}{3}x$ ($\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{N}$ and coprimes). Note that there are some links with Faber polynomials.

The case $\frac{2}{3} = \frac{3}{4}$ is EIS A060941 (where EIS refers to the on-line encyclopedia of integer sequences, http://www.research.att.com/~njas/sequences/). P. Duchon also gave nice formulae for the case $\beta = 1$. It is a nice fact, that a more general model of walks below a line of rational slope can be solved with our approach. The key is the following bijection:

**Theorem 8 (Bijection between directed walks on $\mathbb{N}$ and walks below $y = \alpha/\beta x$)** Take a finite set of jumps $\mathcal{S} := \{(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_m, y_m)\}$, where the $x_i$’s and the $y_i$’s are integers $\geq 0$. Consider walks, which starts at the origin $(0, 0)$, which are only making jumps from $\mathcal{S}$, and which are constraint to stay below a line of rational slope, e.g. $y = \frac{x}{3}$ (“below” means here “this can touch, but not cross this line”).

Note $\bar{M}(z)$ the generating function of such walks. Note $\bar{E}(z)$ the generating function of such walks ending exactly on the line $y = \frac{x}{3}$. Note $\bar{A}(z, q)$ the generating function of the area between the path and the line $y = \frac{q}{3}$. Note $\bar{M}(z)$, $\bar{E}(z)$, and $\bar{A}(z, q)$ the generating functions of meanders/excursions/area of the walk on $\mathbb{N}$ with jumps $(x_i + y_i, \alpha x_i - \beta y_i)$.

Then, one has $\bar{M}(z) = \bar{M}(z)$, $\bar{E}(z) = \bar{E}(z)$, and $\bar{A}(z, q) = A(z, q)/(\alpha + \beta)$.

**Proof:** All jumps are modified by the matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ \alpha & -\beta \end{pmatrix}$, the determinant of which is $-\alpha - \beta$, therefore the volume (i.e., the area) is multiplied by $\alpha + \beta$. What is more, one easily checks that the constraint to be below (resp. on) the line $y = \alpha/\beta x$ is mapped to the constraint of being positive (resp. on zero).

Here again, it is nice to have a direct generalisation to any kind of jumps. This extends previous results [22]. E.g., Motzkin paths under the line $y = x$ are giving Schröder lattice paths, etc. In the full version of our article, we will give more examples (thus solving an old open problem: average size of a queue in Duchon’s clubs [12][3]).

7 Conclusion and Perspectives

For enumeration and asymptotics, symbolic and analytic combinatorics are here again a successful approach. It is a nice surprise that the kernel method strikes again, for a parameter like area. We think we give here an approach which is pleasant, because of its generality.

There are numerous possible extensions of our work: taking into account an infinite number of possible jumps, considering real 2-dimensional directed lattice paths, assuming higher temporal dependencies,
counting “signed” area, counting other cumulative parameters... All these extensions are indeed suitable with the kernel method, via the approach presented in this article. For sake of simplicity, we preferred to stay here within the framework of a Laurent polynomial $P(u)$ whereas more general results can be written while using a Laurent series $P(z, x, y)$ (series in $z$ and $x$, Laurent series in $y$).

For simple directed walks, we can also possible to compute the variance. In the Dyck case, the first asymptotic term of each moment follows from Louchard’s result: the Airy distribution for area of Brownian excursions. Beyond the Dyck case, it is not known if discrete excursions are weakly converging towards the Brownian excursion. Tying down a random walk is not a continuous operation and therefore Donsker’s theorem for unconstrained walks is not sufficient (note that the Brownian positivity constraint could – with respect to finite dimensional densities – also be realized by a $o(\sqrt{n})$ region constraint in the discrete case). So, in conclusion, for the general case ($c \geq 2$), the situation remains open: our computations become messy, and it is right now not clear if the symmetric functions we got are not hiding some tricky (asymptotical) cancellations. But we believe the pumping method should again lead to the Airy recurrence for the first asymptotic term of moments, and then to the Airy distribution in all cases.

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References


