# GHROMATIC SUMS FOR ROOTED PLANAR TRIANGULATIONS, III: THE CASE $\lambda=3$ 

W. T. TUTTE

Summary. In this paper we are chiefly concerned with the chromatic sums we have called $l$ and $h$, with colour-number 3 . In this case $h$ can be interpreted as enumerating the rooted Eulerian triangulations with a given number of faces, and $l$ as enumerating such triangulations with a given number of faces and a given valency for the root-vertex. The series $h$ has been determined already, by summation from the formula enumerating even slicings [3]. However our formula for $l$ does not seem to have been published before, though it could presumably be derived in a similar way. The object of the present paper is not only to obtain formulae for $l$ and $h$, but to derive them by a method analogous to that used in Paper II of this series for the case $\lambda=\tau+1$. It is thought that such analogies may help eventually in the construction of a theory valid for all $\lambda$. (See $[\mathbf{4} ; \mathbf{5}]$.)

1. The number 3. It is well-known that a planar triangulation $T$ can be 3 -coloured if and only if it is Eulerian, that is the valency of each vertex is even. If $T$ is Eulerian there is essentially only one 3 -colouring. But to allow for the six permutations of the three colours we write $P(T, 3)=6$.

By definition $h_{2 n}$, the coefficient of $z^{2 n}$ in $h$ is the sum of $P(M, 3)$ over all rooted planar near-triangulations $M$ with a digon as root-face and with $2 n$ triangular faces. It has been remarked in I and II that such a near-triangulation $M$, if non-degenerate, can be converted into a true triangulation by erasing the non-root edge of the digon. So for $\lambda=3$ and $n>0$ the coefficient $h_{2 n}$ is six times the number of rooted Eulerian planar triangulations with $2 n$ faces. Dually, it is six times the number of rooted planar bicubic maps with $2 n$ vertices. Such bicubic maps are counted in [2]. From the formula given in that paper we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{2 n}=\frac{9 \cdot 2^{n} \cdot(2 n)!}{n!(n+2)!} \quad(n \geqq 1) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

In what follows we derive this formula by a new method, analogous to that used in II for the case $\lambda=\tau+1$.

In II we gave some special theorems for the case $\lambda=\tau+1$. We now give one special theorem for the case $\lambda=3$. It has analogies with Theorem 1.3 of II, but it relates to a pentagon $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4} a_{5}$ instead of to a quadrilateral $V W X Y$.

Consider a rooted near-triangulation $N$ in which the root-face is a pentagon

Received March 28, 1972.
$P=a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4} a_{5}$. We take the root-vertex to be $a_{1}$ and the root-edge $E$ to be the edge $a_{1} a_{2}$ of $P$. Let $K$ denote the face other than $P$ incident with the rootedge. We now define $Z_{i}$ as the triangulation obtained from $N$ by subdividing $P$ by means of two diagonals $a_{i} a_{i+2}$ and $a_{i} a_{i+3}$. ( $1 \leqq i \leqq 5$ and addition and subtraction in the sufficies are modulo 5.) In $Z_{i}$ we retain the root-vertex and root-edge of $N$, and we take the new root-face to be inside $P$. If $a_{i}$ is not divalent in $N$ we define $Y_{i}$ as the triangulation obtained from $N$ by identifying $a_{i-1}$ with $a_{i+1}$, and correspondingly identifying the edge $a_{i} a_{i-1}$ with $a_{i} a_{i+1}$. The face $P$ reduces to a triangle $a_{i+1} a_{i+2} a_{i+3}$. In $Y_{i}$ we retain the same rootvertex and root-edge as in $N$, and we define the new root-face as the face other than $K$ incident with the root-edge (see Figure 1).

If $a_{i-1}$ is joined directly to $a_{i+1}$ in $N$ the above construction for a triangulation $Y_{i}$ fails. The identifications can be carried out and they yield a planar map $Y_{i}$. But $Y_{i}$ has a loop and so does not satisfy our definition of a triangulation (I, § 1). Because of this loop the chromial $P\left(Y_{i}, \lambda\right)$ is identically zero. We acknowledge $Y_{i}$ in this case as a degenerate kind of triangulation whose chromial sometimes appears formally in equations. But as the chromial is zero this makes no real difference.


We can now state our theorem.
1.1. For each suffix $i$,

$$
P\left(Y_{i}, 3\right)=P\left(Z_{i+2}, 3\right)+P\left(Z_{i+3}, 3\right) .
$$

Proof. Let $J_{i}=1$ if $a_{i+2}$ and $a_{i+3}$ are the only vertices of $N$ of odd valency, and let $J_{i}=0$ otherwise. Then evidently

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P\left(Z_{i}, 3\right)=6 J_{i} \\
& P\left(Y_{i}, 3\right)=6\left(J_{i+2}+J_{i+3}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

for each suffix $i$. The theorem follows.

Professor D. W. Hall has pointed out to the author that the theorem can also be deduced from the Birkhoff-Lewis equations for the 5 -ring [1].
2. An equation for $l$. We introduce the generating series

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(y, z)=\sum_{T} y^{n(T)} z^{t(T)+1} P(T, 3) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the sum is over all rooted triangulations $T$. We write $l=l(y, z)$ for $l(y, z, 3)$. As in II there is a simple relation between $f(y, z)$ and $l(y, z)$. It is now

$$
\begin{equation*}
l(y, z)=6 y+y f(y, z) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In our next definitions we use the notation of Section 1.
Let $S\left(Z_{i}\right)$ denote the contribution to $f(y, z)$ of all rooted planar triangulations $T$ such that $T=Z_{i}$ for some choice of $N$.

We proceed to determine $S\left(Z_{4}\right)$ in terms of $f(y, z)$.
Consider a rooted planar triangulation $T$ with root-vertex $a_{1}$, a root-edge $E=a_{1} a_{2}$, and a root-face $F=a_{1} a_{2} a_{4}$. Let the other face incident with $a_{1} a_{4}$ be $F_{1}$, and let its third vertex be $a_{5}$.

It may happen that $a_{5}=a_{2}$. In this case $T$ can be represented by the diagram of Figure 2. The shaded regions correspond to rooted near-triangula-


Figure 2
tions $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ as indicated. $M_{1}$ has the same root-edge as $T$. Each shaded region is shown bounded by a digon, but each of them may degenerate into a single edge. The chromials of $T, M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ are related, for general $\lambda$, by Equation (6) of II.

The contribution to $f(y, z)$ of triangulations $T$ of this kind is

$$
\sum_{\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right)} y^{n\left(M_{1}\right)+1} z^{t\left(M_{1}\right)+t\left(M_{2}\right)+2} P\left(M_{1}, 3\right) P\left(M_{2}, 3\right) / 6
$$

where $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ are arbitrary rooted near-triangulations each with a digon
as root-face. This expression can be abbreviated as

$$
y z^{2} l h / 6 \text {. }
$$

In the remaining case we are dealing with triangulations $T$ in which there is a quadrilateral $a_{1} a_{2} a_{4} a_{5}$ subdivided into two faces $F$ and $F_{1}$ by a diagonal $a_{1} a_{4}$. The contribution to $f(y, z)$ of triangulations of this kind is

$$
f(y, z)-\left(y z^{2} l h / 6\right) .
$$

For such a triangulation $T$ let $F_{2}$ be the non-root face incident with the edge $a_{2} a_{4}$ of $F$, and let its third vertex be $a_{3}$.

It may happen that $a_{3}=a_{1}$. In that case $T$ can be represented by the diagram of Figure 3. Again we have two shaded regions, bounded by digons,


Figure 3
corresponding to rooted near-triangulations $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$. Now $M_{1}$ may reduce to a single edge, but $M_{2}$ cannot. Otherwise there is no restriction on the structures of $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$. The contribution to $f(y, z)$ of triangulations $T$ of this kind is
that is

$$
\sum_{\left(M_{1}, M_{2}\right)} y^{n\left(M_{1}\right)+n\left(M_{2}\right)} z^{t\left(M_{1}\right)+t\left(M_{2}\right)+2} P\left(M_{1}, 3\right) P\left(M_{2}, 3\right) / 6
$$

$$
z^{2} l(l-6 y) / 6 .
$$

Another possibility is $a_{3}=a_{5}$. In this case $T$ has a subgraph that is a complete 4-graph, and therefore $T$ has no 3 -colouring. The contribution to $f(y, z)$ of such triangulations is zero.

In the remaining case we have only the triangulations such as $Z_{4}$. We deduce from the foregoing results that

$$
\begin{equation*}
S\left(Z_{4}\right)=f(y, z)-\left(y z^{2} l h / 6\right)-\left(z^{2} l(l-6 y) / 6\right) . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

We go on to determine $S\left(Z_{5}\right)$. We can start with a general rooted planar triangulation $T$ with root-vertex $a_{1}$, root-edge $E=a_{1} a_{2}$ and root-face $F=a_{1} a_{2} a_{5}$. Let $F_{1}$ be the second face incident with the edge $a_{2} a_{5}$ of $F$, and let its third vertex be $a_{3}$.
It may happen that $a_{3}=a_{1}$. Then $T$ is represented by the diagram of Figure 2 , with each $a_{i}$ replaced by $a_{i+1}$, and with the common root of $T$ and $M_{1}$ reversed. We deduce that the contribution to $f(y, z)$ of triangulations $T$ of this kind is

$$
z^{2} l^{2} / 6
$$

In the remaining case we are dealing with triangulations $T$ in which there is a quadrilateral $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{5}$ subdivided into two faces $F=a_{1} a_{2} a_{5}$ and $F_{1}=a_{2} a_{3} a_{5}$ by a diagonal $a_{2} a_{5}$. The contribution to $f(y, z)$ of such triangulations is

$$
f(y, z)-\left(z^{2} l^{2} / 6\right) .
$$

Let $F_{2}$ be the second face incident with the edge $a_{3} a_{5}$ of $F_{1}$, and let its third vertex be $a_{4}$.

It may happen that $a_{4}=a_{2}$. Then $T$ is represented by the diagram of Figure 4. The shaded region $M_{1}$, shown bounded by a digon, can be interpreted as a rooted near-triangulation. It may degenerate into a single edge.


Figure 4
The shaded region $M_{2}$ can be interpreted as a rooted planar triangulation in which one edge, not incident with the root-vertex, is expanded into a digon. The rooting of this triangulation is the same as for $T$. We deduce that the contribution to $f(y, z)$ of triangulations $T$ of this kind is

$$
f h z^{2} / 6=y^{-1} z^{2} h(l-6 y) / 6
$$

Another possibility is $a_{4}=a_{1}$. But then $T$ has a complete 4 -graph as a subgraph, and its contribution to $f(y, z)$ is zero.

In the remaining case we have only the triangulations such as $Z_{5}$. We deduce that

$$
\begin{equation*}
S\left(Z_{5}\right)=f(y, z)-\left(z^{2} l^{2} / 6\right)-\left(y^{-1} z^{2} h(l-6 y) / 6\right) . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now let $S$ denote the class of all rooted planar triangulations $T$ contributing to $S\left(Z_{4}\right)$. With $T$ as $Z_{4}$ we write $\theta(T)$ for the corresponding $Z_{5}$, and $\phi(T)$ for the corresponding $Y_{2}$. We put $f_{1}=S\left(Z_{4}\right)$, and we define $f_{2}$ and $f_{3}$ as follows.

$$
\begin{align*}
& f_{2}=\sum_{T \in S} y^{n(T)} z^{t(T)+1} P(\theta(T), 3),  \tag{6}\\
& f_{3}=\sum_{T \in S} y^{n(T)} z^{t(T)+1} P(\phi(T), 3) . \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

By Theorem 1.1 we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{3}=f_{1}+f_{2} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can rewrite (6) as

$$
f_{2}=\sum_{T \in S} y^{n(\theta(T))+1} z^{t(\theta(T))+1} P(\theta(T), 3)
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{2}=y S\left(Z_{5}\right) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

by the 1-1 correspondence between $Z_{4}$ and $Z_{5}$.
We can rewrite (7) as

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{3}=\sum_{T \in S^{\prime}} y^{n(T)} z^{t(\phi(T))+3} P(\phi(T), 3), \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $S^{\prime}$ is the set of all members $T$ of $S$ such that $\phi(T)$ has no loop.
Any rooted planar triangulation $K$ can be considered as a possible $\phi(T)$. Let the root-vertex of $K$ be $a_{1}$ and let the other end of the root-edge $E$ be $a_{2}$. Suppose there is a face $F_{1}=a_{1} a_{4} a_{5}$ of $K$ incident with $a_{1}$ but not with $a_{2}$ (see Figure 5 ). Let us cut out the face $F_{1}$, cut along the edge $E$, and open out $E$


Figure 5
so as to form with the original triangular hole $a_{1} a_{4} a_{5}$ a pentagonal hole $a_{1} a_{2} a_{3} a_{4} a_{5}$. Here the vertices $a_{1}$ and $a_{3}$ both arise from the original $a_{1}$ of $K$.

Next let us fill up the pentagonal hole with three new triangular faces $a_{1} a_{4} a_{5}$, $a_{1} a_{2} a_{4}$ and $a_{2} a_{3} a_{4}$. We thus obtain a planar triangulation $T$. We take its root vertex to be $a_{1}$, its root-edge to be the edge $a_{1} a_{2}$ of the pentagonal hole, and its root-face to be the new triangle $a_{1} a_{2} a_{4}$. Evidently $T$ is a member of $S^{\prime}$. Let us agree to adjust the notation so that the non-root face incident with the root-edge is the same in $T$ as in $K$. Then evidently $K=\phi(T)$.

For a given $K$ there are at most $n(K)-2$ faces that can be taken as $F_{1}$. These are the faces incident with $a_{1}$ but not with $E$. Some of them may be incident with $a_{2}$, and therefore inadmissible. If we neglect this possibility and consider the $n(K)-2$ faces in their order at $a_{1}$ we must conclude that they give rise to $n(K)-2$ distinct rooted triangulations $T$ such that $K=\phi(T)$, with $n(T)$ taking all values from 3 to $n(K)$. We are thus led to the following first approximation $\Phi_{3}$ to $f_{3}$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{3}=\sum_{K}\left\{\sum_{j=2}^{n(K)-1} y^{j+1}\right\} z^{t(K)+3} P(K, 3) . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here each value of $j$ corresponds to a face $F_{1}$ of $K$ incident with $a_{1}$ but not with $E$. To obtain a correct formula for $f_{3}$ we must subtract the contributions of all pairs ( $K, j$ ) corresponding to triangles $F_{1}$ incident with $a_{2}$.

Consider first the case in which $a_{4}=a_{2}$. Then $K$ is represented by the diagram of Figure 6. In this case $K$ can be decomposed into two non-de-


Figure 6
generate rooted near-triangulations $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ with root-faces both bounded by the 2 -circuit made up of $E$ and the edge $a_{1} a_{4}$ of $F_{1}$. We take $M_{2}$ to be the one not having $F_{1}$ as a face, and we assign to each of $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ the same root-vertex and root-edge as for $K$. The contribution of $K$ to $\Phi_{3}$ is found to be

$$
y^{n\left(M_{2}\right)} z^{t\left(M_{1}\right)+t\left(M_{2}\right)+2} P\left(M_{1}, 3\right) P\left(M_{2}, 3\right) / 6 .
$$

We deduce that the total contribution to $\Phi_{3}$ of all triangulations $K$ of the kind being considered is

$$
z^{2}(l-6 y)(h-6) / 6
$$

Consider next the case $a_{5}=a_{2}$. Then $K$ is represented by Figure 6 with the suffixes 4 and 5 interchanged. The analysis is similar to that of the preceding case, but the roles of $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$ are interchanged. The contribution of $K$ to $\Phi_{3}$ is found to be

$$
y^{n\left(M_{1}\right)+1} z^{t\left(M_{1}\right)+t\left(M_{2}\right)+2} P\left(M_{1}, 3\right) P\left(M_{2}, 3\right) / 6 .
$$

The extra 1 in the index of $y$ is due to the fact that the special face $F_{1}$ of $K$ is a face of $M_{2}$ but not a face of $M_{1}$. We deduce that the total contribution to $\Phi_{3}$ of all rooted triangulations $K$ of the kind now being considered is

$$
y z^{2}(l-6 y)(h-6) / 6 .
$$

Subtracting from $\Phi_{3}$ the contributions of all cases in which $F_{1}$ is incident with $a_{2}$ we find that

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{3}=\sum_{K}\left\{\sum_{j=1}^{n(K)} y^{j+1}\right\} z^{t(K)+3} P( & K, 3) \\
& -y^{2} \sum_{K} z^{t(K)+3} P(K, 3)-\sum_{K} y^{n(K)+1} z^{t(K)+3} P(K, 3) \\
& -z^{2}(1+y)(l h-6 l-6 y h+36 y) / 6 \\
=y^{2} z^{2} \triangle(f)-y^{2} z^{2}(h-6) & -z^{2}(l-6 y) \\
& -(1+y) z^{2}(l h / 6)+(1+y) z^{2} l+\left(y+y^{2}\right) z^{2} h \\
& -6(1+y) y z^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $f=f(y, z)$. Simplifying, we find

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{3}=y^{2} z^{2} \triangle(f)-(1+y) z^{2}(l h / 6)+y z^{2} l+y z^{2} h \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

But $f_{3}=f_{1}+f_{2}=S\left(Z_{4}\right)+y S\left(Z_{5}\right)$, by (8) and (9), and the definition of $f_{1}$. So by (4) and (5),

$$
f_{3}=(1+y) f-(1+y) z^{2}(l h / 6)-(1+y) z^{2}\left(l^{2} / 6\right)+y z^{2} l+y z^{2} h
$$

Comparing this with (12) we deduce that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(1+y) f=(1+y) z^{2}\left(l^{2} / 6\right)+y^{2} z^{2} \triangle(f) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

We deduce from (3) that

$$
\Delta(l)=6+f+\Delta(f)=y^{-1} l+\Delta(f)
$$

We can therefore write (13) entirely in terms of $l$, as follows.

$$
\begin{equation*}
6(1+y)(l-6 y)=(1+y) y z^{2} l^{2}-6 y^{2} z^{2} l+6 y^{3} z^{2} \triangle(l) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is of some interest to compare this equation with Equation (18) of II.
3. Solution of the difference equation. Since $\Delta(l)=(h-l) /(1-y)$ we can multiply (14) by $(1-y)$ and then rewrite it as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1-y^{2}\right) y z^{2} l^{2}-6\left(1-y^{2}+y^{2} z^{2}\right) l+36 y\left(1-y^{2}\right)+6 y^{3} z^{2} h=0 \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is equivalent to

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left\{\left(1-y^{2}\right) y z^{2} l-3\left(1-y^{2}+y^{2} z^{2}\right)\right\}^{2}  \tag{16}\\
& \quad=9\left(1-y^{2}+y^{2} z^{2}\right)^{2}-36 y^{2}\left(1-y^{2}\right)^{2} z^{2}-6 y^{4} z^{4}\left(1-y^{2}\right) h
\end{align*}
$$

Let us write

$$
\begin{equation*}
9 H=6 z^{4} h \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

and denote the expression on the right of (16) by $9 D$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
D=1-2\left(1+z^{2}\right) y^{2}+\left(1+6 z^{2}+z^{4}-H\right) y^{4}+\left(H-4 z^{2}\right) y^{6} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

We solve for $l$ and $h$ by the same method as in II. First we introduce a power series $\xi$ in $z$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1-\xi^{2}\right) \xi z^{2} l(\xi, z)-3\left(1-\xi^{2}+\xi^{2} z^{2}\right)=0 . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now $l(y, z)$ involves only odd powers of $y$ and even powers of $z$, with non-zero coefficients. Hence (19) uniquely determines $\xi^{2}$ as a power series in $z^{2}$. As in II there are two solutions for $\xi$, but now one of them is merely the negative of the other.
We deduce from (16) that $D$ and its derivative with respect to $y^{2}$ both vanish when $y^{2}$ is set equal to $\xi^{2}$. We thus have the following equations.

$$
\begin{align*}
1-2\left(1+z^{2}\right) \xi^{2}+\left(1+6 z^{2}+z^{4}\right) \xi^{4}-4 z^{2} \xi^{6}-H \xi^{4}\left(1-\xi^{2}\right) & =0  \tag{20}\\
-2\left(1+z^{2}\right)+2\left(1+6 z^{2}+z^{4}\right) \xi^{2}-12 z^{2} \xi^{4}-H \xi^{2}\left(2-3 \xi^{2}\right) & =0 \tag{21}
\end{align*}
$$

Eliminating $H$ between these two equations we find that

$$
-2+\left(5+2 z^{2}\right) \xi^{2}+\left(-4-4 z^{2}\right) \xi^{4}+\left(1+2 z^{2}+z^{4}\right) \xi^{6}=0
$$

Other forms of this equation are

$$
\begin{align*}
\xi^{6} z^{4}+2 \xi^{2}\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)^{2} z^{2}-\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)^{2}\left(2-\xi^{2}\right) & =0, \\
\xi^{2}\left\{\xi^{2} z^{2}-\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\right\}\left\{\xi^{4} z^{2}+\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\left(2-\xi^{2}\right)\right\} & =0 . \tag{22}
\end{align*}
$$

Hence the relation between $z^{2}$ and $\xi^{2}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
z^{2}=\xi^{-2}\left(1-\xi^{2}\right) \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
z^{2}=-\xi^{-4}\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\left(2-\xi^{2}\right) \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (20) and (21) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi^{6} H=2-2\left(1+z^{2}\right) \xi^{2}+4 \xi^{6} z^{2} . \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

If we assume (23) it follows that

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
\xi^{6} H & =2-2 \xi^{2}-2\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)+4 \xi^{4}\left(1-\xi^{2}\right), \\
H & =4 z^{2}, & \\
h z^{4} & =6 z^{2}, & \text { by }(17) .
\end{array}
$$

But this is impossible since $h$ is a power series in $z$ with no negative indices. We conclude that (24) holds. Accordingly

$$
\begin{aligned}
\xi^{6} H & =2-\xi^{2}\left(2-2 \xi^{-4}\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\left(2-\xi^{2}\right)\right)-4 \xi^{2}\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\left(2-\xi^{2}\right) \\
& =2\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\left(1+\xi^{-2}\left(2-\xi^{2}\right)-2 \xi^{2}\left(2-\xi^{2}\right)\right), \\
\xi^{8} H & =4\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)\left(1-2 \xi^{4}+\xi^{6}\right), \\
H & =4 \xi^{-8}\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)^{2}\left(1+\xi^{2}-\xi^{4}\right), \\
z^{4} h & =6 \xi^{-8}\left(1-\xi^{2}\right)^{2}\left(1+\xi^{2}-\xi^{4}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The above equation (22) corresponds to Equation (29) of II. There also we derive two alternative expressions for $z^{2}$. But in II both these are legitimate, in the sense that they can be used to determine $h$. Here only one of them is.

If we write $\theta=\xi^{-2}$ we have

$$
\begin{align*}
z^{2} & =-(1-\theta)(1-2 \theta),  \tag{28}\\
z^{4} h & =-6(1-\theta)^{2}\left(1-\theta-\theta^{2}\right) . \tag{29}
\end{align*}
$$

We can find $h$ as a power series in $z^{2}$ by elimination of $\theta$ between these two equations.

Substituting for $z^{2}$ and $H$ in (18) we find that

$$
\begin{aligned}
D= & 1+y^{2}(-2+2(1-\theta)(1-2 \theta))+y^{4}(1-6(1-\theta)(1-2 \theta) \\
& \left.+(1-\theta)^{2}(1-2 \theta)^{2}+4(1-\theta)^{2}\left(1-\theta-\theta^{2}\right)\right) \\
& +y^{6}\left(4(1-\theta)(1-2 \theta)-4(1-\theta)^{2}\left(1-\theta-\theta^{2}\right)\right) \\
= & 1-2 y^{2}\left(3 \theta-2 \theta^{2}\right)+y^{4}\left(9 \theta^{2}-8 \theta^{3}\right)-4 y^{6}\left(\theta^{3}-\theta^{4}\right) \\
D= & \left(1-\theta y^{2}\right)^{2}\left(1-4 \theta(1-\theta) y^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

We can now use (16) to determine $l$ in terms of $\theta$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(1-y^{2}\right) y z^{2} l-3\left(1-y^{2}-y^{2}(1-\theta)(1-2 \theta)\right)= \pm 3 \sqrt{ } D \\
\left(1-y^{2}\right) y z^{2} l-3\left(1-\theta y^{2}-2 y^{2}(1-\theta)^{2}\right)= \pm 3\left(1-\theta y^{2}\right)\left(1-4 \theta(1-\theta) y^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}
\end{gathered}
$$

Since $l=0$ when $y=0$ we must resolve the ambiguity by taking the negative sign. We interpret the square root as a power series in $y$ and $\theta$ with constant term 1 . Our equation for $l$ is thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(1-y^{2}\right) y z^{2} l+6 y^{2}(1-\theta)^{2}=3\left(1-\theta y^{2}\right)\left(1-\left(1-4 \theta(1-\theta) y^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}\right) \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

4. The series $h$. Let us write

$$
\begin{equation*}
u=-(1-2 \theta)^{-1} . \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

It can be verified, using (28) and (29), that

$$
\begin{aligned}
u & =1+2 u^{2} z^{2}, \\
2 h & =3\left(1+4 u-u^{2}\right) . \\
(d h / d u) & =3(2-u) .
\end{aligned}
$$

When $z=0$ we have $u=1$ and $h=6$.

Applying Lagrange's theorem we find that

$$
\begin{align*}
h & =6+3 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\frac{\left(2 z^{2}\right)^{n}}{n!}\right)\left[\left(\frac{d}{d u}\right)^{n-1}\left\{u^{2 n}(2-u)\right\}\right]_{u=1} \\
& =6+3 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\frac{\left(2 z^{2}\right)^{n}}{n!}\right)\left\{\frac{2 \cdot(2 n)!}{(n+1)!}-\frac{(2 n+1)!}{(n+2)!}\right\}, \\
h & =6+9 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left\{\frac{2^{n} \cdot(2 n)!z^{2 n}}{n!(n+2)!}\right\} . \tag{32}
\end{align*}
$$

We thus recover Equation (1).
For large $n$ we can apply Stirling's formula to obtain the following asymptotic approximation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{2 n} \sim 9 \pi^{-(1 / 2)} n^{-(5 / 2)} 8^{n} . \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

5. The series $q$. We do not attempt to find an explicit formula for $q(x, z, 3)$. However for the convenience of anyone who may wish to extend the theory we note that there is in principle a method for determining $q$ when $l$ is known, a method valid for every $\lambda$.

The chromatic equation (I, (13)) can be written as

$$
\begin{align*}
& g \cdot\left(x-\lambda^{-1} y z q-y z+x^{2} y^{2} z(y-1)^{-1}\right)  \tag{34}\\
&=x^{2}\left(x y \lambda(\lambda-1)-y z l+y^{2} z(y-1)^{-1} q\right)
\end{align*}
$$

We now introduce $v$, regarded as a power series in $z$ whose coefficients are functions of $y$. It is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
v-\lambda^{-1} y z q(v, z, \lambda)-y z+v^{2} y^{2} z(y-1)^{-1}=0 . \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

From this equation we can determine, in terms of the coefficients in $q$, the coefficients of successive powers of $z$ in $v$ as far as we please. Thus $v$ is welldefined.

Substituting $v$ for $x$ in (34) we find that $v$ must also satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
v y \lambda(\lambda-1)-y z l(y, z, \lambda)+y^{2} z(y-1)^{-1} q(v, z, \lambda)=0 . \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $l$ is given by an equation such as (15) or (31) we can eliminate it between this equation and (36). We can then eliminate $y$ between the resulting equation and (35). We will then have an equation giving $q(v, z, \lambda)$ directly in terms of $v, z$ and $\lambda$.

## References

1. G. D. Birkhoff and D. C. Lewis, Chromatic polynomials, Trans. Amer. Math. Soc. 60 (1946), 355-451.
2. W. T. Tutte, A census of planar maps, Can. J. Math. 15 (1963), 249-271.
3.     - A census of slicings, Can. J. Math. 14 (1962), 708-722.
4. _-_Chromatic sums for rooted planar triangulations: the cases $\lambda=1$ and $\lambda=2$, Can. J. Math. 25 (1973), 426-447.
5. -Chromatic sums for rooted planer triangulations, $I I$ : the case $\lambda=\tau+1$, Can. J. Math. 25 (1973), 657-671.

University of Waterloo, Waterloo, Ontario

