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A VARIATIONAL PRINCIPLE FOR DOMINO TILINGS

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Dedicated to Pieter Willem Kasteleyn (1924–1996)

The effect of boundary conditions is, however, not entirely trivial and will be discussed in more detail in a subsequent paper.

P. W. Kasteleyn, 1961

1. Introduction

1.1. **Description of results.** A *domino* is a 1×2 (or 2×1) rectangle, and a *tiling* of a region by dominos is a way of covering that region with dominos so that there are no gaps or overlaps. In 1961, Kasteleyn [Ka1] found a formula for the number of domino tilings of an $m \times n$ rectangle (with mn even), as shown in Figure 1 for $m = n = 68$. Temperley and Fisher [TF] used a different method and arrived at the same result at almost exactly the same time. Both lines of calculation showed that the logarithm of number of tilings, divided by the number of dominos in a tiling (that is, $mn/2$), converges to $2G/\pi \approx 0.58$ (here G is Catalan's constant). On the other hand, in 1992 Elkies et al. [EKLP] studied domino tilings of regions they called Aztec diamonds (Figure 2 shows an Aztec diamond of order 48), and showed that the logarithm of the number of tilings, divided by the number of dominos, converges to the smaller number $(\log 2)/2 \approx 0.35$. Thus, even though the region in Figure 1 has slightly smaller area than the region in Figure 2, the former has far more domino tilings. For regions with other shapes, neither of these asymptotic formulas may apply.

In the present paper we consider simply-connected regions of arbitrary shape. We give an exact formula for the limiting value of the logarithm of the number of tilings per unit area, as a function of the shape of the boundary of the region, as the size of the region goes to infinity. In particular, we show that computation of this limit is intimately linked with an understanding of long-range variations in the local statistics of random domino tilings. Such variations can be seen by comparing Figures 1 and 2. Each of the two tilings is random in the sense that the algorithm [PW] that was used to create it generates each of the possible tilings of the region being tiled with the same probability. Hence one can expect each tiling to be qualitatively typical of the overwhelming majority of tilings of the region in

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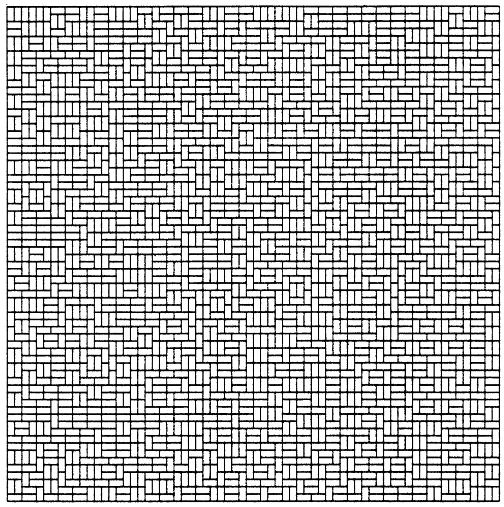

FIGURE 1. A random domino tiling of a square.

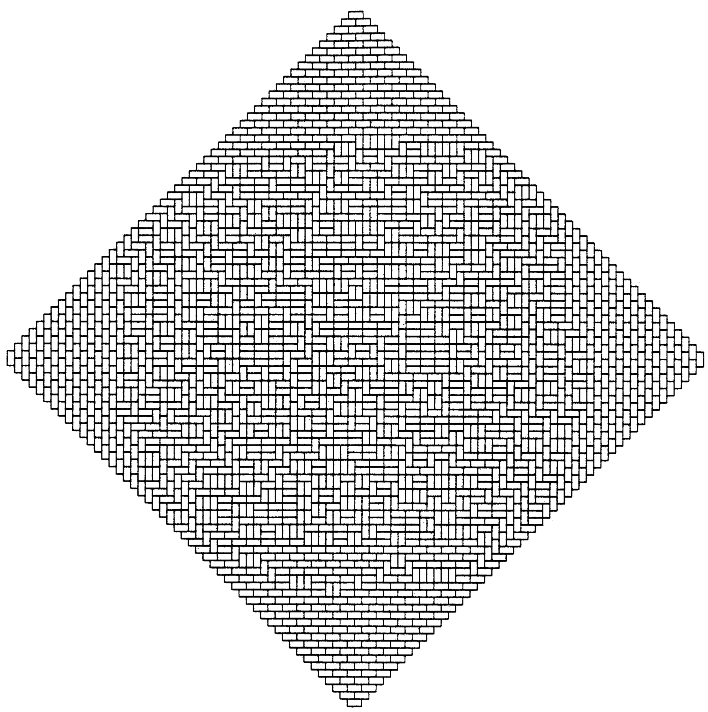

FIGURE 2. A random domino tiling of an Aztec diamond.

question, as is in fact the case. Figure 1 looks more or less homogeneous, but even cursory examination of Figure 2 shows that the tiling manifests different gross behavior in different parts of the region. In particular, the tiling degenerates into a non-random-looking brickwork pattern near the four corners of the region, whereas closer to the middle one sees a mixture of horizontal and vertical dominos of the sort seen everywhere in Figure 1 (except very close to the boundary).

In earlier work [CEP, JPS] two of us, together with other researchers, analyzed random domino tilings of Aztec diamonds in great detail, and showed how some of the properties of Figure 2 could be explained and quantified. It was proved that the boundary between the four brickwork regions and the central mixed region for a randomly tiled Aztec diamond tends in probability towards the inscribed circle (the so-called "arctic circle") as the size of the diamonds becomes large [JPS], and that even inside the inscribed circle, the first-order local statistics (that is, the probabilities of finding individual dominos in particular locations) fail to exhibit homogeneity on a macroscopic scale [CEP].

Unfortunately, the techniques of [JPS] and [CEP] do not apply to general regions. A few cases besides Aztec diamonds have been analyzed; for example, random domino tilings of square regions have been analyzed and do turn out to be homogeneous [BP]. (That is, if one looks at two patches at distance at least d from the boundary of an $n \times n$ square, with n even, the local statistics on the two patches become more and more alike as n goes to infinity, as long as d goes to infinity with n.) However, before our research was undertaken no general analysis was known.

In this paper, we will demonstrate that the behavior of random tilings of large regions is determined by a variational (or entropy maximization) principle, as was conjectured in Section 8 of [CEP]. We show that *the logarithm of the number of tilings, divided by the number of dominos in a tiling of R, is asymptotic* (*when* $\text{area}(R) \to \infty$) *to*

$$\sup_h \iint_{R^*} \text{ent}\left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}\right) \, dx \, dy. \tag{1.1}$$

Here the domain of integration R^* is a normalized version of R, the function h ranges over a certain compact set of Lipschitz functions from R^* to $\mathbb{R}$, and

$$\text{ent}(s,t) = \frac{1}{\pi}(L(\pi p_a) + L(\pi p_b) + L(\pi p_c) + L(\pi p_d)), \tag{1.2}$$

where $L(\cdot)$ is the Lobachevsky function (see [M]), defined by

$$L(z) = -\int_0^z \log|2\sin t| \, dt, \tag{1.3}$$

and the quantities p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d are determined by the equations

$$2(p_a - p_b) = s, \tag{1.4}$$

$$2(p_c - p_d) = t, \tag{1.5}$$

$$p_a + p_b + p_c + p_d = 1, \tag{1.6}$$

$$\sin(\pi p_a)\sin(\pi p_b) = \sin(\pi p_c)\sin(\pi p_d). \tag{1.7}$$

The quantities p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d can be understood in terms of properties of random domino tilings on the torus (see Subsection 1.2); the quantities also have attractively direct but still conjectural interpretations in terms of the local statistics for random tilings of the original planar region (see Conjecture 13.2).

There exists a unique function f that achieves the maximum in (1.1). Its partial derivatives encode information about the local statistics exhibited by random tilings of the region; for example, the places (x, y) where the "tilt" $(\partial f/\partial x, \partial f/\partial y)$ is $(2, 0)$, $(-2, 0)$, $(0, 2)$, or $(0, -2)$ correspond to the places in the tiling where the probability of seeing brickwork patterns goes to 1 in the limit, in a suitable sense. The function f need not be C^∞, and in fact often is not. For example, in the case of Aztec diamonds f is smooth everywhere except on the arctic circle, where it is only C^1 (except at the midpoints of the sides, where it is only C^0). Inside this circle, f takes on a variety of values, corresponding to the fact that different local statistics are manifested at different locations. In contrast, for square regions the function f is constant, corresponding to the fact that throughout the region (except very close to the boundary), the local statistics are constant. (See Figures 1 and 2.)

In general, the locations where f is not smooth correspond to the existence of a phase transition in the two-dimensional dimer model, closely related to a phase transition first noticed by Kasteleyn [Ka2].

The function f is related to combinatorial representations of states of the dimer model called *height functions*. Each of the different tilings of a fixed finite simply-connected region in the square grid has a height function which is a function from the vertices of the region to $\mathbb{Z}$ satisfying certain conditions (see Subsection 1.4); there is a one-to-one correspondence between tilings and height functions (as long as we fix the height at one point, since the actual correspondence is between tilings and height functions modulo additive constants). All of the height functions agree on the boundary of the region but have different values on the interior. In an earlier paper [CEP], it was shown that these height functions satisfy a law of large numbers, in the sense that for each vertex v within a very large region, the height of v in a random tiling of the region is a random variable whose standard deviation is negligible compared to the size of the region. This suggested the existence of a limit law, but did not indicate what the limit law was. We show (see Theorem 1.1 at the end of Subsection 1.3): *for every $\varepsilon > 0$, the height function of a random tiling, when rescaled by the dimensions of the region being tiled, is, with probability tending to 1, within ε of f*, where f is the function that maximizes the double integral in (1.1). We therefore call f an *asymptotic height function*. One may qualitatively summarize our main results by saying that the pattern governing local statistical behavior of uniform random tilings of a region is, in the limit, the unique pattern that maximizes the integral of the "local entropy" over the region. Moreover, the value of this maximum is an asymptotic expression for the "global entropy" of the ensemble of tilings of the region.

Our main theorem (Theorem 1.1) thus has two intertwined components: a law of large numbers that describes the local statistics of random tilings of a large region by way of an asymptotic height function f, and an entropy estimate that tells us that the total number of tilings is determined by a certain functional of that self-same function f. Furthermore f is precisely the unique Lipschitz function that maximizes that functional.

We supplement our main theorem by two supporting results: a large deviations estimate (Theorem 1.3) and a PDE that the entropy-maximizing function f must satisfy (Theorem 12.1). To be technically correct, we should not assert that the function f satisfies the PDE everywhere, but only where the partial derivatives are continuous and the tilt (s,t) satisfies $|s|+|t|<2$. This proviso is necessary because singularities in f (corresponding to domain boundaries like the arctic circle) are an essential feature of the phenomena we are studying; in fact, we shall find (see Section 6 and Theorem 8.3) that these singularities are related to a phase transition manifested by the dimer model as an external field is permitted to vary, and that domain boundaries can be viewed as a spatial expression of that phase transition.

Our results also imply that if instead of studying the uniform distribution on the set of *all* the tilings of a large region R, one restricts one's attention to those tilings whose height functions (suitably normalized) approximate some asymptotic height function h (which need not be the h that maximizes the double integral (1.1)), then the entropy of this restricted ensemble (that is, the normalized logarithm of the number of tilings) approximates the value of the double integral. Note that this more general result implies that the total number of (unrestricted) tilings is at least as large as the supremum (1.1). As for the integrand itself, we remark here that $\mathrm{ent}(s,t)$ achieves its maximum at $(0,0)$ and that it goes to zero as (s,t) goes to the boundary curve $|s|+|t|=2$; that is, there are many ways to tile a patch so that its average tilt is near zero, but fewer ways to tile it as the tilt gets larger, and no ways to tile it at all if the desired tilt (s,t) fails to satisfy $|s|+|t|\leq 2$.

1.2. **Interpretation.** A *dimer configuration*, or *perfect matching*, of a graph is a set of edges in the graph such that each vertex belongs to exactly one of the selected edges. To see the equivalence between tilings by dominos and dimer configurations on a grid (the graph-theoretic dual to the graph of edges between lattice squares), one need only replace each 1×1 square by a vertex and each domino by an edge.

To explain the significance of the quantities p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d, we need to digress and discuss the dimer model on a torus. Here the graph is just like the $m\times n$ rectangular grid, but with m extra bonds that connect vertices on the left and right and n extra bonds that connect vertices on the top and bottom. Kasteleyn showed [Ka1] that the number of dimer configurations on this graph is governed by the same asymptotic formula as for the dimer model on a rectangle. In the same article Kasteleyn considered a generalization to non-uniform distributions on the set of tilings, obtained by assigning different "weights" to horizontal and vertical bonds, and letting the probability of a particular dimer configuration be proportional to the product of the weights of its bonds. In the statistical mechanics literature, such modifications of a model are sometimes conceived of as resulting from the imposition of an external field.

Here we go one step further, and impose a field that discriminates among four different kinds of bonds: a-bonds and b-bonds (both horizontal) and c-bonds and d-bonds (both vertical), staggered as in Figure 3 from Section 7 (this is different from a 4-parameter external field that was considered by Kasteleyn [Ka2]). The field depends on four parameters a,b,c,d, which are the weights associated with the respective kinds of bonds; the probability of a dimer configuration on the torus graph is proportional to the product of the weights of its bonds. Taking the graph-theoretic dual, we get a non-uniform distribution on domino tilings on the torus, having less symmetry than the torus itself. One way to motivate the consideration of such asymmetrical measures is to observe that in regions like the one shown in Figure 2, the boundary conditions break the symmetry of the underlying square grid in precisely this fashion, yielding subregions in which bonds (or dominos) of one of the four types predominate.

To avoid unnecessary complexity, we limit ourselves to square tori ($m=n$), but the situation for more general tori is much the same.

The quantities p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d have a direct (and rigorously proved) interpretation in terms of the dimer model on the $n\times n$ torus. Suppose we are given positive real weights a,b,c,d as described above. Suppose that each of a,b,c,d is less than the sum of the others. Then there is a unique Euclidean quadrilateral of edge lengths

a, c, b, d (in that order) which is cyclic, that is, can be inscribed in a circle. Define p_a to be $1/(2\pi)$ times the angle of arc of the circumscribed circle cut off by the edge a of this quadrilateral. Similarly define p_b, p_c, and p_d. Then we shall see (see Theorem 8.3) that p_a is (in the large-n limit) the probability that a given a-bond belongs to a randomly-chosen dimer configuration (under the probability distribution determined by the weights a, b, c, d), and likewise for p_b, p_c, p_d. Technically, we only prove convergence for n in a large subset of $\mathbb{N}$, but we believe that convergence holds for all n. If on the other hand $a \geq b+c+d$, then we shall see that as $n \to \infty$, p_a tends to 1 (and p_b, p_c, p_d tend to zero). A similar phenomenon occurs when b, c, or d is greater than or equal to the sum of the others.

Moreover, the quantities $s = 2(p_a - p_b)$ and $t = 2(p_c - p_d)$ have a height-function interpretation. Since the torus can be viewed as a rolled-up plane, every dimer configuration on the torus "unrolls" to give a dimer configuration on the plane, which (in the guise of a domino tiling of the plane) gives rise to a height function. The height is not in general a periodic function, but rather increases by some amounts H_x and H_y as one moves n vertices in the $+x$ direction or n vertices in the $+y$ direction. Here H_x and H_y depend on the tiling chosen, and thus are random variables; the expected values of H_x/n and H_y/n are s and t, respectively.

The relationship between the uniform measure on tilings of finite simply-connected regions and the a, b, c, d-weighted measure on tilings of tori may become clearer after one has verified that the a, b, c, d-weighted measure on the tilings of a finite simply-connected region, defined in the obvious fashion, is nothing other than the uniform distribution, as long as $ab = cd$. To see this, one may make use of the fact that any domino tiling of such a region can be obtained from any other tiling by a sequence of moves, each of which consists of applying a 90-degree rotation to a pair of dominos that form a 2×2 block [T]. Such a move trades in an a-domino and a b-domino for a c-domino and a d-domino, or vice versa. The condition $ab = cd$ then guarantees that the two tilings have the same weight. Since such moves suffice to turn any tiling into any other, all the tilings have the same weight, and the probability distribution is uniform. This property is called "conditional uniformity", because if one conditions on the tiling outside a simply-connected region, the conditional distribution on tilings of the interior is uniform.

We do not propose any concrete interpretation for the weights a, b, c, d, and it might be unreasonable to ask for one, given that the probability distribution on matchings determined by a, b, c, d is unaffected if all four are multiplied by a constant. There is a choice of scaling that makes most of our formulas relatively simple, namely, the scaling that makes the arcsines of the four weights add up to π, or equivalently, the scaling that makes the product

$$(a+b+c-d)(a+b-c+d)(a-b+c+d)(-a+b+c+d)$$

equal to the product

$$4(ab+cd)(ac+bd)(ad+bc)$$

(this is most easily seen from Theorem 8.3). However, it is worth mentioning at least one instance in which the scaling $\sin^{-1} a + \sin^{-1} b + \sin^{-1} c + \sin^{-1} d = \pi$ does not give the simplest possible formula for a, b, c, d. Specifically, consider the normalized Aztec diamond with vertices at $(\pm 1, 0)$ and $(0, \pm 1)$. The arctangent law of [CEP] gives one way of expressing how p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d vary throughout the normalized diamond (corresponding to the fact that the respective densities of north-, south-, east-, and west-going dominos vary throughout large Aztec diamonds). However, an even more compact way of stating this dependence is via the formulas

$$\begin{aligned} a &= \sqrt{(1+y)^2 - x^2}, \\ b &= \sqrt{(1-y)^2 - x^2}, \\ c &= \sqrt{(1+x)^2 - y^2}, \\ d &= \sqrt{(1-x)^2 - y^2}. \end{aligned}$$

1.3. **Sketch of proof and preliminary statement of results.** The strategy behind our proof of the main theorem is roughly as follows. In the first few (and more qualitative) sections of the article (Sections 2 through 4), we cover the set of all domino tilings of the region by subsets which are balls in the uniform metric on height functions (that is, each subset consists of tilings whose height functions are approximately equal); each ball is associated with an asymptotic height function h from a bounded subset of $\mathbb{R}^2$ into $\mathbb{R}$. Appealing to quantitative results proved later in more technical sections of the article (Sections 6 through 11), as well as to combinatorial arguments, we show that the logarithm of the cardinality of a ball is approximated by the double integral in (1.1) times half the area of the region. However, we also show that there is a unique ball in our cover for which the corresponding h maximizes the double integral, and that the contribution that this ball makes to the total number of tilings swamps all the other contributions.

In Section 7, we compute the "partition function" for tilings (that is, the sum of the weights of all the tilings). This computation relies on Kasteleyn's original work [Ka1]. The next few sections of the article, on which the first few sections depend, are close in spirit to Kasteleyn's original work on the dimer model on the torus. (Indeed, the local entropy $\mathrm{ent}(s,t)$ is equal to the asymptotic entropy for dimer covers of the $n \times n$ torus as n goes to infinity, where the edges have been assigned new weights as described above, favoring those tilings that have tilt near (s,t).) Using Kasteleyn's method of Pfaffians, we show that the dimer model in the presence of weights a, b, c, d exhibits a phase transition when any of the four weights equals the sum of the other three, and our method of analysis also requires that special attention be given to the case in which $a = b$ and $c = d$ (which was analyzed by Kasteleyn). The calculations are lengthy, but the end results, obtained in the final sections of the paper, are satisfyingly simple. For direct formulas for p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d in terms of $s = \partial f/\partial x$ and $t = \partial f/\partial y$, see (1.8) below.

Here is a loose statement of our result. See Theorems 1.3 and 4.3 for more precisely quantified statements, and the remainder of Section 1 for the relevant definitions.

Theorem 1.1. *Let R^* be a region in $\mathbb{R}^2$ bounded by a piecewise smooth, simple closed curve ∂R^*. Let $h_b : \partial R^* \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function which can be extended to a function on R^* with Lipschitz constant at most* 2 *in the sup norm. Let $f : R^* \to \mathbb{R}$ be the unique such Lipschitz function maximizing the entropy functional* $\mathrm{Ent}(f)$ (*see equations* (1.2) *and* (1.9)), *subject to $f|_{\partial R^*} = h_b$.* (*See Section 2 for the proof of the asserted uniqueness.*)

Let R be a lattice region that approximates R^* when rescaled by a factor of $1/n$, and whose normalized boundary height function approximates h_b. Then the normalized height function of a random tiling of R approximates f, with probability tending to 1 *as $n \to \infty$.*

Furthermore, let $g : R^* \to \mathbb{R}$ be any function satisfying the Lipschitz condition. Then the logarithm of the number of tilings of R whose normalized height functions are near g is $n^2(\mathrm{Ent}(g) + o(1))$.

In his thesis [H], Höffe derives (in a less rigorous manner) expressions equivalent to our (7.20) and (8.3). In [DMB], Destainville, Mosseri, and Bailly set up a similar framework to our variational principle, but they use a quadratic approximation to the entropy, and they do not supply rigorous proofs. Readers of this article might also wish to read [Ke2] and [P2]. These two articles cover some of the same ground as this one, but with more of an emphasis on phenomena and less concern with proofs.

Before we can continue our discussion of the variational principle and state the main result more precisely (Subsection 1.6), we need to review some background on entropy and height functions.

1.4. **Height functions.** Height functions are a geometrical tool discovered in individual cases by Blöte and Hilhorst [BH] and Levitov [L] and independently studied by Thurston [T], who situated the idea in a less ad hoc, more general context. Given a (connected and) simply-connected region R that can be tiled by dominos, domino tilings of R are in one-to-one correspondence with height functions on the set of lattice points in R, defined up to an additive constant. The height function representation is useful because the difference between the heights of two vertices encodes non-local information about a tiling. Here we will quickly summarize the basic definitions and properties of height functions. For a more extensive discussion aimed at applications to random tilings, see Subsections 6.1–6.3 and Section 8 of [CEP]; for a geometrical point of view, see [T].

Color the lattice squares in the plane alternately black and white, like a checkerboard. (It does not matter which of the two ways of doing this is used.) Define a horizontal domino to be *north-going* or *south-going* according to whether its leftmost square is white or black, and define a vertical domino to be *west-going* or *east-going* according to whether its upper square is white or black. These names come from the domino shuffling algorithm from [EKLP], which is the main combinatorial tool used to study Aztec diamonds. We will not use domino shuffling, but the division of dominos into these four orientations will nevertheless be important, as will the coloring in general. (It is intended that north-going dominos correspond to a-edges, south-going to b-edges, east-going to c-edges, and west-going to d-edges. The geometrical terminology is more pleasant when we have no weights in mind.)

Let R be a lattice region (i.e., a connected region composed of squares from the unit square lattice), and let V be the set of lattice points within R or on its boundary. We will always assume that R can be tiled by dominos in one or more ways. A *height function* h on R is a function from V to $\mathbb{Z}$ that satisfies the following two properties for adjacent lattice points u and v on which it is defined. (We consider two lattice points to be adjacent only if the edge connecting them is contained in R.) First, if the edge from u to v has a black square on its left, then $h(v)$ equals $h(u) + 1$ or $h(u) - 3$. Second, if the edge from u to v is part of the boundary of R, then $|h(u) - h(v)| = 1$.

Given a height function h on R, consider the set of all pairs of adjacent lattice points u, v with $|h(u) - h(v)| = 1$; then it is not hard to check that the set of all dominos in R that are bisected by such an edge taken together constitutes a tiling of R.

Given a domino tiling of a simply-connected region R, we can reverse the process, and find a height function that leads to the tiling. Such a height function always exists, but it is not quite unique, because one can add a constant (integer) value to it everywhere to get another such height function. To avoid this ambiguity, we fix the height of one lattice point on the boundary of R. Then height functions satisfying this constraint are in one-to-one correspondence with domino tilings.

From this point on, when we use the term *lattice region*, we will always implicitly assume that one of the lattice points on the boundary has a specified height, and when we talk about height functions we will always assume that they satisfy this condition. Notice that when the region is simply-connected, our assumption takes on an especially pleasant form, because it is then equivalent to fixing the heights along the entire boundary. (However, when the boundary is in several pieces, the situation is more complicated. In this paper, we will typically assume that our regions are simply-connected, although we will always mention that assumption when we make it.)

To define a height function for a domino tiling of an $n \times n$ torus, view the torus as an $n \times n$ square with opposite sides identified, and view this square as sitting centered inside an $(n+2) \times (n+2)$ square. A tiling of the torus determines a covering of the smaller square by dominos that lie inside the larger square. (Dominos that jump from one side of the small square to the other correspond to two dominos in the large square; the rest correspond to just one.) Then define the height function on the $n \times n$ square as for a lattice region in the plane. This height function may not be well defined on the torus, since its values can be different at two identified vertices, but this will not matter for our purposes. This definition is not really natural, but it is convenient. (See [STCR] for a more natural definition of height functions on tori. We will not use their definitions or results.)

Let R be a lattice region, and let $H(R)$ be the set of all height functions on R. We define a partial ordering $\leq$ on $H(R)$ by setting $h_1 \leq h_2$ if $h_1(u) \leq h_2(u)$ for every lattice point $u \in R$.

The set $H(R)$ is not just a partially ordered set, but also a lattice. The join of two height functions h_1 and h_2 can be defined by $(h_1 \vee h_2)(u) = \max(h_1(u), h_2(u))$, and their meet by $(h_1 \wedge h_2)(u) = \min(h_1(u), h_2(u))$. To show that $H(R)$ is a lattice, we need to show that $h_1 \vee h_2$ and $h_1 \wedge h_2$ are height functions. Notice that, at each lattice point u, the value of height functions at u is determined modulo 4 (independently of the specific tiling); this assertion is trivial when u is the point at which we have fixed the values of height functions, and if it is true at some particular lattice point, then the definition of a height function immediately implies that it is true at all adjacent lattice points. Thus, if $h_1(u)$ is unequal to $h_2(u)$, then they differ by at least 4. It now follows from the definition of a height function that if $h_1(u) > h_2(u)$, then $h_1(v) \geq h_2(v)$ for all lattice points v adjacent to u. Hence, given any two adjacent lattice points, $h_1 \vee h_2$ (or $h_1 \wedge h_2$) agrees with h_1 at both points, or agrees with h_2 at both of them, which is what is needed to show that $h_1 \vee h_2$ and $h_1 \wedge h_2$ are height functions. (See [P1] for details and more general results.)

As Figures 1 and 2 demonstrate, the precise boundary conditions of a region can have a dramatic effect on the behavior of typical tilings. Height functions provide the proper tool for gauging the effect of boundary conditions on random tilings. (Proposition 20 of [CEP] is one way to make this claim precise. It says, roughly, that the height function of a typical tiling depends continuously on the heights on the boundary of the region.) For example, one can compute the rate of change of the height function in terms of the probabilities of finding dominos in given locations. If a region has statistically homogeneous random tilings, then the typical height function should be nearly planar. Because the boundary heights for Aztec diamonds are highly non-planar, typical tilings cannot be homogeneous.

Define the *average height function* of a lattice region R to be the average of all height functions on R. (Of course, it is almost never a height function itself.) Theorem 21 of [CEP] implies (roughly) that if R is large, then almost all height functions on R approximate the average. Thus, the problem of describing typical tilings is reduced to the problem of describing the average height function.

1.5. **Entropy.** The *entropy* of a random variable that takes on n different values, with probabilities $p_1, \dots, p_n$, is defined as $\sum_{i=1}^{n} -p_i \log p_i$ (with $0 \log 0 = 0$). For a uniformly distributed random variable, the entropy is simply the logarithm of the number of possible outcomes. We will nevertheless often need to deal with entropy for a non-uniform distribution. In general, we denote the entropy of a random variable X by $\operatorname{ent}(X)$; there should be no confusion with our use of "$\operatorname{ent}(\cdot)$" to denote local entropy depending on tilt.

We will sometimes speak of the *conditional entropy* of a discrete random variable, conditional upon some event; this is just the entropy of the conditional distribution determined by the conditional probabilities.

The only fact about entropy that we will need other than the definition is the following standard fact about conditional entropy (the proof is straightforward).

Lemma 1.2. *Suppose X is a random variable that takes on values $x_1, \dots, x_n$, and suppose that $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is partitioned into blocks $B_1, \dots, B_m$. Let B be the random variable that tells which block X is in, and let X_i be the random variable that takes on values in B_i according to the conditional distribution of X given that $X \in B_i$. Then the entropy of X is given by*

$$\operatorname{ent}(X) = \operatorname{ent}(B) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \operatorname{Prob}(x \in B_i)\operatorname{ent}(X_i).$$

When we deal with entropy for tilings of a lattice region R, we will always normalize it by dividing by half the area of R, so that we measure the information content per domino. Thus, the normalized entropy of a set of tilings of a lattice region R (under the uniform distribution) is the logarithm of the number of tilings in the set, normalized by dividing by the number of dominos in a tiling of R. When we refer to the entropy of a region R, we mean the entropy of the set of all tilings of R, under the uniform distribution.

1.6. **The variational principle.** Let R^* be a region in $\mathbb{R}^2$ bounded by a piecewise smooth, simple closed curve ∂R^*. (We will always assume our curves do not have cusps.) Suppose R is a large, simply-connected lattice region. We can normalize by scaling the coordinates by a factor of $1/n$ (for some appropriate choice of n). Suppose that the normalization of R approximates R^* (in a sense to be clarified below). If we scale the values of height functions by dividing their values by n, then for large n the *normalized height functions* that one obtains approximate functions on R^* that satisfy a Lipschitz condition with constant 2 for the sup norm. The reason for this is that if u and v are lattice points at sup norm distance at most d from each other within R (i.e., they are connected by a path within R of length d, where the allowable steps are lattice edges or diagonal steps) and h is any height function, then one can check that $|h(u)-h(v)| \le 2d+1$. (One can prove this claim directly, or deduce it from Lemmas 3.1 and 3.3.)

Whenever we refer to a *2-Lipschitz function* f from a subset of $\mathbb{R}^2$ to $\mathbb{R}$, we mean one that is locally Lipschitz with Lipschitz constant 2 for the sup norm, i.e., its domain is covered by open balls in which every pair of points (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) satisfies

$$|f(x_1, y_1) - f(x_2, y_2)| \le 2\max(|x_1 - x_2|, |y_1 - y_2|).$$

Notice that where such a function f is differentiable, it must satisfy

$$|\partial f/\partial x| + |\partial f/\partial y| \le 2.$$

Conversely, every differentiable function satisfying this condition is 2-Lipschitz. We call $(\partial f/\partial x, \partial f/\partial y)$ the *tilt* of the function (and use this terminology whether or not f is Lipschitz). It is important to keep in mind Rademacher's theorem (Theorem 3.16 of [Fe]), which says that every Lipschitz function is differentiable almost everywhere.

Suppose that ∂R^* is a simple, closed, piecewise smooth curve in $\mathbb{R}^2$ that bounds a region R^*. We say that a function h_b defined on ∂R^* is a *boundary asymptotic height function* if there exists a 2-Lipschitz function h on R^* such that $h|_{\partial R^*} = h_b$, and we call such an h an *asymptotic height function*. Let $\mathrm{AH}(R^*, h_b)$ be the set of all asymptotic height functions on R^* with boundary heights h_b; notice that this set is convex and that it is compact with respect to the sup norm.

Before continuing, we need to specify exactly what it means for one region bounded by a simple closed curve to approximate another. This can be defined by the Hausdorff metric on closed subsets of $\mathbb{R}^2$; specifically, two regions are defined to be within ε of each other if the ε-neighborhood of each one's boundary curve contains the other's.

We also need to discuss what approximation to within ε means when there are boundary asymptotic height functions on the curves. Given regions R_1 and R_2 with boundary asymptotic height functions h_1 and h_2, we say that (R_1, h_1) is within ε of (R_2, h_2) if for all $x_1 \in \partial R_1$ there exists an $x_2 \in \partial R_2$ such that $d(x_1, x_2) < \varepsilon$ and $|h_1(x_1) - h_2(x_2)| < \varepsilon$, and vice versa.

For technical reasons, it is most convenient to write out our arguments in the case of approximation from within, where we have a sequence $R_1, R_2, \dots$ of regions in the interior of R^* whose limit is R^*. In most cases, this is easily arranged. The regions $R_1, R_2, \dots$ will be rescaled lattice regions, and if R^* is a star-shaped region, then by adjusting the scaling we can assume approximation from within, without changing our asymptotic results. However, when R^* is not star-shaped, slightly more is required. There are two ways to deal with such domains. First, Proposition 20 of [CEP] tells us that average height functions behave continuously when boundary heights are perturbed, and this lets one adjust regions so that their normalizations fit within the limiting region, without changing the asymptotics. Second, one can give a direct proof by cutting a general region into star-shaped pieces. Thus, we will be able to assume approximation from within in later sections without loss of generality.

In the case of approximation from within, it will be convenient to use a slightly different definition of ε-approximation. If R_2 is in the interior of R_1, with boundary height functions h_1 and h_2, then we say that (R_1, h_1) is within ε of (R_2, h_2) if their boundaries are within ε, and for every height function h on R_1 extending h_1, the restriction of h to ∂R_2 is within ε of h_2. This clearly generates the same topology as the definitions above, but it is more convenient to work with, so we will use it in later sections.

We saw in the first paragraph of this subsection that if R approximates R^* when rescaled, then normalized height functions on R approximate asymptotic height functions on R^* (because of the Lipschitz condition on height functions). Later, Proposition 3.2 will tell us that every asymptotic height function is nearly equal to a normalized height function; that is, the class of asymptotic height functions has not been defined too broadly.

We will show that the average height function on R is determined by finding the asymptotic height function f that maximizes the integral of local entropy, which depends on the tilt of f.

Given (s, t) satisfying $|s| + |t| \leq 2$ (i.e., a possible tilt for an asymptotic height function), define the local entropy integrand $\mathrm{ent}(s, t)$ as follows. First define

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_a &= \frac{s}{4} + \frac{1}{2\pi} \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\cos(\pi s/2) - \cos(\pi t/2)}{2}\right), \\
p_b &= -\frac{s}{4} + \frac{1}{2\pi} \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\cos(\pi s/2) - \cos(\pi t/2)}{2}\right), \\
p_c &= \frac{t}{4} + \frac{1}{2\pi} \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\cos(\pi t/2) - \cos(\pi s/2)}{2}\right), \\
p_d &= -\frac{t}{4} + \frac{1}{2\pi} \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\cos(\pi t/2) - \cos(\pi s/2)}{2}\right),
\end{aligned}
\tag{1.8}
$$

where the values of $\cos^{-1}$ are taken from $[0, \pi]$. We set $a = \sin(\pi p_a)$, $b = \sin(\pi p_b)$, $c = \sin(\pi p_c)$, and $d = \sin(\pi p_d)$ when $|s| + |t| < 2$, and we define $\mathrm{ent}(s, t)$ as in (1.2).

We will see later that there is good reason to believe that the numbers p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d correspond to the local densities of the four orientations of dominos. However, we do not have a proof.

Define the entropy functional on $\mathrm{AH}(R^*, h_b)$ by

$$
\mathrm{Ent}(h) = \frac{1}{\mathrm{area}(R^*)} \iint_{R^*} \mathrm{ent}\left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}\right) dx\, dy. \tag{1.9}
$$

Suppose that $R_1, R_2, \dots$ is a sequence of simply-connected lattice regions with specified boundary heights, such that when R_n is normalized by n (or, say, a constant times n), as $n \to \infty$ the boundary converges to ∂R^* and the boundary heights to h_b (as specified above). Without loss of generality, we can assume that the normalized boundaries of $R_1, R_2, \dots$ all lie within R^*. We know from Proposition 2.4 that there is a unique $f \in \mathrm{AH}(R^*, h_b)$ that maximizes $\mathrm{Ent}(f)$. We will prove (in Theorem 4.3) that the entropy of tilings of R_n whose normalized height functions are close to f (that is, the logarithm of the number of such tilings, divided by half the area of R_n) is $\mathrm{Ent}(f) + o(1)$ as $n \to \infty$.

We can now prove a sharpened version of the claim made in the second paragraph of Theorem 1.1:

Theorem 1.3. *For each $\varepsilon > 0$, the probability that a normalized random height function on R_n differs anywhere by more than ε from the entropy-maximizing function f is exponentially small in n^2 (i.e., is bounded above by r^{n^2} for some $r < 1$).*

Proof. Cover $\mathrm{AH}(R^*, h_b)$ with open sets around each asymptotic height function h, such that the entropy for normalized height functions in these sets is strictly less than $\mathrm{Ent}(f)$ unless $h = f$. By compactness, only finitely many of the sets are needed to cover $\mathrm{AH}(R^*, h_b)$; we include the one corresponding to $h = f$. Then Theorem 4.3 implies that for n large, the probability that a random normalized height function on R_n does not lie in the open set around f is exponentially small in n^2. $\square$

Theorem 1.3 provides a much stronger large deviation estimate than the best previous result (Theorem 21 of [CEP]). In addition, it gives the first proof that under these conditions the normalized average height function of R_n converges to f as $n \to \infty$. (It was previously not known to converge at all, nor was a precise characterization of the entropy-maximizing function known.)

It is worth pointing out that all our results generalize to tilings with unit lozenges (as studied in, for example, [CLP]). The combinatorial results for lozenge tilings (or, equivalently, the dimer model on a honeycomb graph) are straightforward modifications of those we present here for domino tilings; the analytic results are special cases of ours (set one of the four weights a, b, c, d equal to 0 to move from weighted domino tilings of tori to weighted lozenge tilings).

In Sections 2 through 4, we will need the following three facts proved later in the article:

1. For every tilt (s, t) satisfying $|s| + |t| < 2$, there exist unique weights a, b, c, d (up to scaling) that satisfy $ab = cd$ and give tilt (s, t) (see Subsection 9.2).
2. If an $n \times n$ torus has edge weights a, b, c, d such that $ab = cd$ and the tilt is (s, t), then the normalized entropy (for the probability distribution on the tilings) is $\mathrm{ent}(s, t) + o(1)$ as $n \to \infty$ (Theorem 9.2).
3. The local entropy function $\mathrm{ent}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is strictly concave and continuous as a function of tilt (Theorem 10.1).

2. Analytic results on the entropy functional

In this section, we will phrase all our results in terms of the local entropy integrand, but they will depend only on its continuity and strict concavity. (Thus, if desired, the results can be applied in different circumstances, for example to other sorts of tiling problems.) Everything in this section is fairly standard material from geometric measure theory and the calculus of variations; for example, Theorem 5.1.5 of [Fe] is a more sophisticated version of Lemma 2.1. However, we will give complete proofs, partly to make this part of the paper self-contained and accessible, and partly because some of what we need does not seem to appear in the literature in quite the form we would like.

In what follows, h_b denotes a particular boundary asymptotic height function and h ranges over the asymptotic height functions that restrict to h_b on the boundary of the region R.

Lemma 2.1. *The functional* $\mathrm{Ent} : \mathrm{AH}(R^*, h_b) \to \mathbb{R}$*, defined* (*as above*) *by*

$$\mathrm{Ent}(h) = \frac{1}{\mathrm{area}(R^*)} \iint_{R^*} \mathrm{ent}\left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}\right) \, dx \, dy,$$

is upper semicontinuous.

For the proof of Lemma 2.1, as well as other applications later in the paper, we will need to know how well we can approximate an asymptotic height function h by a piecewise linear function. The simplest way to achieve such an approximation is as follows. For $\ell > 0$, look at a mesh made up of equilateral triangles of side length ℓ (which we call an ℓ-mesh). Consider any piecewise linear, 2-Lipschitz function $\tilde{h}$ that agrees with h at the vertices of the mesh and is linear on each triangle. (Of course, $\tilde{h}$ depends on the mesh as well as on h. It is uniquely determined on each triangle that lies completely within R^*, but not on those that extend over the boundary.)

Lemma 2.2. *Let h be an asymptotic height function, and let $\varepsilon > 0$. If ℓ is sufficiently small, then, on at least a $1 - \varepsilon$ fraction of the triangles in the ℓ-mesh that intersect R^*, we have the following two properties. First, the piecewise linear approximation $\tilde{h}$ agrees with h to within $\ell\varepsilon$. Second, for at least a $1 - \varepsilon$ fraction (in measure) of the points x of the triangle, the tilt $h'(x)$ exists and is within ε of $\tilde{h}'(x)$.*

Keep in mind that $h'(x)$ is the vector of partial derivatives of h at x; it does not matter which norm we use to measure the distance between tilts, but for the sake of specificity we choose the ℓ_2 norm. Notice that the second property implies that $\mathrm{Ent}(\tilde{h}) = \mathrm{Ent}(h) + o(1)$ (that is, $\mathrm{Ent}(\tilde{h}) \to \mathrm{Ent}(h)$ as $\varepsilon \to 0$). (Keep in mind that $||h'||_1 \leq 2$.)

Proof. We begin with the first of the two properties. Recall that Lipschitz functions are differentiable almost everywhere (Rademacher's theorem) [Fe]. For any point x at which h is differentiable, we have $|h(x + d) - (h(x) + h'(x) \cdot d)| < \varepsilon|d|/2$ if $|d|$ is sufficiently small, say $|d| \leq r$ with $r > 0$ (where r depends on x). If x lies within an equilateral triangle of side length ℓ with $\ell \leq r$, then on that triangle we have the approximation property we want, because there the two functions $d \mapsto h(x+d)$ and $d \mapsto \tilde{h}(x + d)$ (the unique linear function that agrees with g on the corners of the triangle) both lie within $\varepsilon\ell/2$ of $d \mapsto h(x) + h'(x) \cdot d$.

Given $\rho > 0$, let S_ρ be the set of all x such that r (depending on x as above) can be taken to be at least ρ. Take ρ small enough that the measure of S_ρ is at least $(1 - \varepsilon/3)$ times $\mathrm{area}(R^*)$. (We can do that since h is differentiable almost everywhere.)

Now take $\ell \leq \rho$. Look at any ℓ-mesh, and the piecewise linear approximation $\tilde{h}$ we get from it. If ℓ is sufficiently small, then all but an $o(1)$ fraction of the mesh triangles lie entirely within the region. At least a $1 - \varepsilon/3 - o(1)$ fraction of them must intersect S_ρ, which proves that the desired approximation property holds on at least a $1 - \varepsilon/3 - o(1)$ fraction of the triangles.

For the second property, we will apply a result on metric density (see Section 7.12 of [R]). Let $U_1, \dots, U_n$ be open subsets covering the set of possible tilts such that any two tilts contained within the same subset differ by at most ε, and for $1 \leq i \leq n$ let $V_i = \{x : h'(x) \in U_i\}$. It follows from the theorem on metric density that (for each i) if δ is sufficiently small, then for all but an $\varepsilon/3$ fraction of the points $x \in V_i$, at least a $1-\varepsilon$ fraction of the ball of radius δ about x lies in V_i (and thus the tilt at those points differs by at most ε from $h'(x)$). Now we can take δ small enough that this result holds for all i from 1 to n, and then as above it follows that for $\ell < \delta$, a $1 - \varepsilon/3 - o(1)$ fraction of the mesh triangles in any ℓ-mesh lies entirely within R^* and satisfies the second property.

Thus, if ℓ is sufficiently small, at least a $1-\varepsilon$ fraction of the triangles satisfies both properties (since a $1-\varepsilon/3-o(1)$ fraction satisfies each). $\square$

Lemma 2.3. *Suppose that ∂R^* is an equilateral triangle of side length ℓ, and that the asymptotic height function h satisfies $|h_b - \tilde{h}| < \varepsilon\ell$ on ∂R^*, where $\tilde{h}$ is some linear function. Then*

$$\mathrm{Ent}(h) \leq \mathrm{Ent}(\tilde{h}) + o(1)$$

as $\varepsilon \to 0$.

Proof. Because $\mathrm{ent}(\cdot)$ is concave,

$$\frac{1}{\mathrm{area}(R^*)} \iint_{R^*} \mathrm{ent}\left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}\right) dx\, dy \leq \mathrm{ent}(h_{x,\mathrm{av}}, h_{y,\mathrm{av}}), \tag{2.1}$$

where

$$h_{x,\mathrm{av}} = \frac{1}{\mathrm{area}(R^*)} \iint_{R^*} \frac{\partial h}{\partial x}\, dx\, dy$$

and

$$h_{y,\mathrm{av}} = \frac{1}{\mathrm{area}(R^*)} \iint_{R^*} \frac{\partial h}{\partial y}\, dx\, dy.$$

We have

$$(h_{x,\mathrm{av}}, h_{y,\mathrm{av}}) = (\tilde{h}_{x,\mathrm{av}}, \tilde{h}_{y,\mathrm{av}}) + O(\varepsilon)$$

(as one can see by computing the average by integrating over cross sections and applying the fundamental theorem of calculus), and hence

$$\mathrm{ent}(h_{x,\mathrm{av}}, h_{y,\mathrm{av}}) = \mathrm{ent}(\tilde{h}_{x,\mathrm{av}}, \tilde{h}_{y,\mathrm{av}}) + o(1),$$

since $\mathrm{ent}(s,t)$ is a continuous function of (s,t). Now combining (2.1) with

$$\mathrm{Ent}(\tilde{h}) = \mathrm{area}(R^*)\mathrm{ent}(\tilde{h}_{x,\mathrm{av}}, \tilde{h}_{y,\mathrm{av}})$$

yields the desired result. $\square$

Proof of Lemma 2.1. Let h be any asymptotic height function, and consider the neighborhood U_δ of h consisting of all asymptotic height functions within δ of h. We need to show that given $\varepsilon > 0$, if δ is sufficiently small, then for all $g \in U_\delta$, $\mathrm{Ent}(g) \leq \mathrm{Ent}(h) + \varepsilon$.

Let $\varepsilon' > 0$. It follows from Lemma 2.2 that if ℓ is small enough, then the piecewise linear approximation $\tilde{h}$ coming from an ℓ-mesh satisfies $|h - \tilde{h}| < \varepsilon'\ell$ on all but an ε' fraction of the triangles of the mesh, and $\mathrm{Ent}(\tilde{h}) = \mathrm{Ent}(h) + o(1)$ as $\varepsilon' \to 0$. Let $\delta < \varepsilon'\ell$. Then if $g \in U_\delta$, $|g - \tilde{f}| < 2\varepsilon'\ell$ on all but an ε' fraction of the triangles, and by Lemma 2.3 the contribution to $\mathrm{Ent}(g)$ from the non-exceptional triangles is at most $o(1)$ greater than the corresponding contribution to $\mathrm{Ent}(\tilde{h})$. Of course, the remaining ε' fraction of the triangles contribute a total of $O(\varepsilon')$. Hence,

$$\mathrm{Ent}(g) \leq (1 - O(\varepsilon'))\mathrm{Ent}(\tilde{h}) + o(1) + O(\varepsilon') = \mathrm{Ent}(h) + o(1).$$

By choosing ε' sufficiently small, one can make the $o(1)$ term less than ε. Thus, $\mathrm{Ent}(\cdot)$ is upper semicontinuous. $\square$

Proposition 2.4. *There is a unique asymptotic height function $f \in \mathrm{AH}(R^*, h_b)$ that maximizes* $\mathrm{Ent}(f)$.

Proof. For existence, we can use a compactness argument, since $\mathrm{AH}(R^*, h_b)$ is compact. Because the local entropy integrand is bounded, $\mathrm{Ent}(\cdot)$ is bounded above, and we can choose a sequence $h_1, h_2, \dots$ such that $\mathrm{Ent}(h_i)$ approaches the least upper bound as $i \to \infty$. By compactness, there is a subsequence that converges, and by upper semicontinuity, the limit of the subsequence must have maximal entropy.

Now uniqueness is easy. Suppose that f_1 and f_2 are two asymptotic height functions that maximize entropy, with $f_1 \neq f_2$.

Their derivatives cannot be equal almost everywhere, so for some $\varepsilon > 0$ we must have

$$\mathrm{ent}\left(\frac{\partial(f_1+f_2)/2}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial(f_1+f_2)/2}{\partial y}\right) > \varepsilon + \frac{\mathrm{ent}\left(\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y}\right) + \mathrm{ent}\left(\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y}\right)}{2}$$

on a set of positive measure, by the strict concavity of $\mathrm{ent}(\cdot)$. It follows that

$$\mathrm{Ent}\left(\frac{f_1+f_2}{2}\right) > \frac{\mathrm{Ent}(f_1)+\mathrm{Ent}(f_2)}{2},$$

which contradicts the assumption that $\mathrm{Ent}(f_1)$ and $\mathrm{Ent}(f_2)$ were maximal. (Notice that since f_1 and f_2 are asymptotic height functions, so is $(f_1+f_2)/2$.) Therefore, only one asymptotic height function can maximize entropy. $\square$

3. Combinatorial results on entropy

In this section, we will compare the entropies of several regions with nearly the same shape, but slightly different boundary conditions. To deal with this sort of situation, we will use partial height functions. Let R be a simply-connected lattice region. A *partial height function* on R is an integer-valued function h defined on a subset of the lattice points in R, including all the lattice points on the boundary, such that h satisfies the following condition. If u and v are adjacent lattice points on which h is defined, such that the edge from u to v has a black square on its left, then $h(v) - h(u)$ is 1 or -3. We call h a *complete height function* if it is defined on all the lattice points in R, and we say that a complete height function is an *extension* of a partial height function if they agree where both are defined. We call a partial height function a *boundary height function* if the set of lattice points on which it is defined is the boundary of R and there exists a complete height function extending it.

Define a *free tiling* (or a "tiling with free boundary conditions") of a region as a covering of the region by dominos, no two of which overlap, and each of which contains at least one cell belonging to the region. A free tiling is just like a tiling, except that the tiles are allowed to cross the boundary. Given a boundary height function h, extensions of h to R correspond to tilings where dominos cross the boundary of R at certain specified places (namely the places where the height changes by ± 3). In this way h singles out a certain subset of the free tilings of R. We could phrase all of our results in terms of free tilings, but partial height functions will be a more convenient formulation.

Suppose we have a boundary height function on R, such that there is an extension to a complete height function on R. We can determine the maximal extension H (under the usual partial ordering) as follows. For any lattice point v in R, look at boundary points w and paths π joining w to v such that every edge of π (oriented from w towards v) has a black square on its left. Call such a path an *increasing* *path*, since it if does not cross any dominos, then the height increases by 1 after each edge. Define a *decreasing path* analogously.

Lemma 3.1 (Fournier)**.** *For each lattice point $v \in R$, define $H_{\max}(v)$ as the minimum of $h(w) + \operatorname{length}(\pi)$, where w ranges over all boundary lattice points and π ranges over all increasing paths in R from w to v, and define $H_{\min}(v)$ as the maximum of $h(w) - \operatorname{length}(\pi)$, where this time π ranges over all decreasing paths in R from w to v. Then $H_{\max}$ is the maximal extension of h to R, and $H_{\min}$ is the minimal extension.*

For a proof, see [Fo]. Notice that Lemma 3.1 implies that if one changes the boundary height function h by at most a constant c at each point, then $H_{\max}$ and $H_{\min}$ change by at most c as well.

We can now prove a proposition we will need later that connects asymptotic height functions to actual height functions. Suppose R is a domino-tileable lattice region, such that rescaling R by a factor of $1/n$ gives a region whose boundary lies close to a region R^*, where ∂R^* is a piecewise smooth, simple closed curve. Without loss of generality, we can suppose that the normalized region lies within R^* (as discussed in Subsection 1.6).

Proposition 3.2. *Given an asymptotic height function f which is within ε of the normalized boundary heights of R, there is an actual height function on R whose normalization is within $\varepsilon + O(1/n)$ of f.*

Proof. Let g be the largest height function on R whose normalization is less than or equal to f, i.e., the lattice sup of all height functions below f. (Technically, we must pick a lattice point and restrict our attention to height functions that give it height 0 modulo 4. This ensures that all our height functions are equal modulo 4 and thus that the lattice operations are well defined.) Then all values of g are within 8 of what one would get simply by un-normalizing f, because if one takes any lattice point, assigns it a value that is correct modulo 4 and at least 4 below the un-normalized value of f, and looks at the minimal height function taking that value there, then the Lipschitz constraint on f implies that one stays below f.

The height function g will typically not have the correct boundary values on R. Instead, it will have boundary heights corresponding to some different boundary height function b, although they will be within $\varepsilon n + O(1)$ of the actual boundary heights for R.

To fix this problem, let h be the minimal height function on R, and let H be the maximal one. Then consider $(g \vee h) \wedge H$, which is a height function with the correct boundary values for R. It follows from Lemma 3.1 that h and H differ by only $\varepsilon n + O(1)$ from the minimal and maximal extensions h' and H' of b, respectively. Thus, since $(g \vee h') \wedge H' = g$, it follows that $(g \vee h) \wedge H$ differs by only $\varepsilon n + O(1)$ from g. Because the normalization of g differs from f by only $O(1/n)$, we see that the normalization of $(g \vee h) \wedge H$ differs from f by at most $\varepsilon + O(1/n)$, as desired. □

Lemma 3.3. *The minimal increasing path length* (*with the path not restricted to lie in any particular region*) *between two lattice points is always within* 1 *of twice the sup norm distance between them.*

Proof. Start at any lattice point and work outwards, labelling the other points with the lengths of the shortest increasing paths to them. It is easy to prove by induction that on the square at sup norm distance n from the starting point, on two opposite sides the lengths alternate between $2n$ and $2n+1$, and on the other two sides they alternate between $2n$ and $2n-1$. □

We will prove the next three results in more generality than we need, in order to make the precise hypotheses clear. We will need to apply them only to regions whose boundaries closely approximate a $k \times k$ square or an equilateral triangle of side length k, such that the heights along the boundary are nearly planar (in particular are fit by a plane to within εk for some fixed $\varepsilon > 0$).

Proposition 3.4. *Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Suppose R is a simply-connected lattice region of diameter at most n (i.e., every lattice point in R is connected to every other by a path within R of length n or less), such that the heights on the boundary of R are fit to within εn by a plane with tilt (s,t) satisfying $|s|+|t| \leq 2$. Then the average height function is given to within $O(\varepsilon n)$ by that plane (if n is sufficiently large).*

Here "$O(\varepsilon n)$" simply denotes a quantity bounded in absolute value by a fixed constant times εn, for sufficiently large n.

Proof. Consider a large torus, with edge weights a, b, c, d chosen to give tilt (s,t) and satisfying $ab = cd$ (see Subsection 9.2), and view R as being contained in the torus. We will look at random free tilings of R generated according to the probability distribution on weighted tilings of the torus. If we fix the height of one point on the boundary of R, then the average height function for these tilings is given (exactly) by a linear function of the two position coordinates, so that its graph is a plane.

If we select a random tiling from this distribution, then with probability differing from 1 by an exponentially small amount, the heights along the border of the patch stay within εn of the plane, by Proposition 22 of [CEP]. (It is not hard to check that all the large deviation results from Section 6 of [CEP], such as Propositions 20 and 22, apply to random tilings generated this way, not just from the uniform measures on tilings of finite regions. All that matters is conditional uniformity, in the sense that two tilings agreeing everywhere except on a subregion are equally likely to occur; conditional uniformity follows from $ab = cd$.) Consider all possible boundary height functions on R that stay within εn of a plane. The average of the corresponding average height functions, weighted by how likely they are to occur in the weighted probability distribution, is within $o(1)$ of the plane (for n large).

By Proposition 20 of [CEP], all boundary height functions that stay within εn of the plane have average height functions within $O(\varepsilon n)$ of each other. Since the average is within $o(1)$ of the plane, each must be within $O(\varepsilon n)$ of it. This completes the proof. □

Lemma 3.5. *Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Suppose R is a horizontally and vertically convex lattice region of area A with at most n rows and columns, such that $n \leq \varepsilon A$. Assume that the boundary heights are fit to within $\varepsilon A/n$ by a plane with tilt (s,t). If $|s|+|t| \geq 2-\varepsilon$, then the entropy of R is $O(\varepsilon \log 1/\varepsilon)$, if A is sufficiently large.*

Proof. Without loss of generality, suppose that s and t are positive.

Consider any vertical line through R on which the x-coordinate is integral. If the segment that lies within R has length k, then for every tiling of R, the difference between the number of north-going dominos bisected by the line and the number of south-going dominos bisected by it is $tk/4 + O(\varepsilon A/n) + O(1)$, as one can see by considering the total height change along the segment. Similarly, on a horizontal segment of length k, the number of west-going dominos bisected minus the number of east-going ones bisected is $sk/4 + O(\varepsilon A/n) + O(1)$. If we add up all of these quantities, the error term becomes $O(\varepsilon A) + O(n)$, which is $O(\varepsilon A)$ since $n \leq \varepsilon A$.

The total number of dominos in any tiling of R is $A/2$. By the results of the previous paragraph, this quantity is also twice the number of east-going or south-going dominos plus $(s/4 + t/4)A + O(\varepsilon A)$. We have $(s/4 + t/4)A \geq ((2-\varepsilon)/4)A$. Hence, the total number of east-going or south-going dominos is $O(\varepsilon A)$.

Every tiling is determined by the locations of its east-going and south-going dominos. (To see why, recall that superimposing the matchings corresponding to two tilings gives a collection of cycles. Any disagreement between the two tilings yields a cycle of length at least 4, which must contain an east-going or south-going edge that is in one tiling but not the other.) Hence, there are at most

$$O(\varepsilon A)\binom{A}{O(\varepsilon A)}2^{O(\varepsilon A)}$$

tilings, since there are $O(\varepsilon A)$ possibilities for the number of east-going or south-going dominos, at most

$$\binom{A}{O(\varepsilon A)}$$

places to put them, and at most

$$2^{O(\varepsilon A)}$$

ways to choose which are east-going. It is not hard to check that Stirling's formula implies that

$$\log\binom{A}{O(\varepsilon A)} = O((\varepsilon \log 1/\varepsilon)A).$$

Therefore, the entropy of R is $O(\varepsilon \log 1/\varepsilon)$. □

Proposition 3.6. *Fix $k > 0$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$, and let R be a horizontally and vertically convex region of area A with at most n rows and columns, such that $kn^2 \leq A$ and $n \leq \varepsilon A$. Suppose h is a boundary height function on R that is fit to within $\varepsilon A/n$ by a fixed plane. Then for A sufficiently large and ε sufficiently small, the entropy of extensions of h to R is independent of the precise boundary conditions, up to an error of $O(\varepsilon^{1/2}\log 1/\varepsilon)$.* (*The entropy does depend on the tilt of the plane, and this proposition says nothing about whether it depends on the shape of R. Notice also that the dependence on k is hidden within the implicit constant in the big-O term.*)

Proof. Let (s,t) be the tilt of the plane. If $|s| + |t| \geq 2 - \varepsilon^{1/2}$, then the conclusion follows from Lemma 3.5. Thus, we can assume that the tilt satisfies $|s| + |t| \leq 2 - \varepsilon^{1/2}$.

Suppose g is another boundary height function on R, which agrees with the same plane as h, to within $O(\varepsilon A/n)$. We need to show that extensions of g and h have nearly the same entropy. Without loss of generality we can assume that $g \geq h$, since otherwise we can go from g to $g \vee h$ and from h to $g \vee h$.

Given any extension f of g, let $H(f)$ be the infimum of f and the maximal extension of h, so that $H(f)$ is an extension of h. Similarly, given any extension f of h, let $G(f)$ be the supremum of f and the minimal extension of g, so that $G(f)$ is an extension of g.

The maps H and G are not inverses of each other, but they come fairly close to being inverses. Given an extension f of h, $H(G(f))$ agrees with f at every lattice point except those with heights less than or equal to their heights in the minimal extension of g. By Lemma 3.1, the minimal extension of g is within $O(\varepsilon A/n)$ of the minimal extension of h, so these points have heights within $O(\varepsilon A/n)$ of their minimal heights. Similarly, given an extension f of g, $G(H(f))$ agrees with f at all lattice points that are not within $O(\varepsilon A/n)$ of their maximal heights.

By assumption, the tilt (s,t) of the plane satisfies $|s|+|t| \leq 2-\varepsilon^{1/2}$. Thus, the height difference between any two points in the plane is bounded by $2-\varepsilon^{1/2}$ times the sup norm distance between them. Therefore, Lemma 3.1 and Lemma 3.3 imply that the extreme heights at a point differ from the heights on the plane by at least $\varepsilon^{1/2}$ times the sup norm distance to the boundary.

Look at all lattice points not within sup norm distance $(\varepsilon^{1/2}\log 1/\varepsilon)A/n$ of the boundary. By Proposition 3.4, at any such point the average height for extensions of g or h is within $O(\varepsilon A/n)$ of the plane (notice that because $kn^2 \leq A \leq n^2$, being $O(\varepsilon n)$ is the same as being $O(\varepsilon A/n)$), and the extreme heights differ from the plane by at least $(\varepsilon \log 1/\varepsilon)A/n$, so the extreme heights differ from the average heights by an amount on the order of $(\varepsilon \log 1/\varepsilon)A/n$, for ε small. By Proposition 22 of [CEP], the probability that any such point will have height within $O(\varepsilon A/n)$ of its extreme heights is exponentially small in n.

Thus, given any point not within sup norm distance $(\varepsilon^{1/2}\log 1/\varepsilon)A/n$ of the boundary, the probability that $H \circ G$ or $G \circ H$ will not be the identity at that point is exponentially small. It follows that with probability nearly 1, $H \circ G$ and $G \circ H$ are the identity except on at most $O((\varepsilon^{1/2}\log 1/\varepsilon)A)$ lattice points. Thus, the numbers of extensions of g and h differ by at most a factor of

$$4^{O((\varepsilon^{1/2}\log 1/\varepsilon)A)},$$

so the entropy of extensions of g to R differs from that of extensions of h by $O(\varepsilon^{1/2}\log 1/\varepsilon)$. □

4. Proof of the variational principle

Theorem 4.1. *Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Suppose R is an $n \times n$ square, with a boundary height function h fit to within εn by a plane with tilt (s,t) satisfying $|s|+|t| \leq 2$. Then for n sufficiently large, the entropy of extensions of h to R is*

$$\operatorname{ent}(s,t) + O(\varepsilon^{1/2}\log 1/\varepsilon),$$

as is the entropy for free boundary conditions staying within εn of the plane (i.e., the entropy for the set of all free tilings of R whose boundary heights stay within εn of the plane).

Proof. We know from Proposition 3.6 that the entropy is independent of the precise boundary conditions, but we still need to prove that it equals $\operatorname{ent}(s,t)$. To do so, we will compare with an $n \times n$ torus that has edge weights a,b,c,d satisfying $ab=cd$ and yielding tilt (s,t). (We can suppose that $|s|+|t| < 2$, since otherwise the result follows from Lemma 3.5 and Proposition 3.6.) The torus is obtained by identifying opposite sides of R, so that tilings of R give tilings of the torus, but not vice versa. Keep in mind that because of the weighted edges in the torus, the probability distribution on its tilings will not be uniform. However, the equation $ab=cd$ implies conditional uniformity (as mentioned earlier), so if we fix the behavior on the boundary of R, then the conditional distribution on extensions to the interior will be uniform.

In Section 8, we will define a set $W \subset \mathbb{N}$ depending on (s,t). By Lemma 8.1, for sufficiently large even n, either n or $n+2$ is in W. In Proposition 9.1, we show that the entropy of $n \times n$ tori with tilt (s,t) converges to $\mathrm{ent}(s,t)$ as $n \to \infty$ in W.

First we will suppose that $n \in W$, so that the entropy of the $n \times n$ torus is $\mathrm{ent}(s,t) + o(1)$.

It follows from Proposition 22 of [CEP] that with probability exponentially close to 1, in a random tiling of the torus, the heights on the boundary of the square will be fit to within εn by the average height function, which is a linear function with tilt (s,t). The number of toroidal boundary conditions is exponential in n, and by Proposition 3.6 each has about the same entropy (except ones that are not nearly planar, but they are very unlikely to appear). Lemma 1.2 tells us that the entropy of the torus equals the average of the entropies for the different boundary conditions, plus a negligible quantity for large n (since we have normalized by dividing by half of the area n^2). Because all the nearly planar boundary conditions have the same entropy, the torus must as well, so since we know it has entropy $\mathrm{ent}(s,t)+o(1)$ as $n \to \infty$, each of the nearly planar boundary conditions must have entropy $\mathrm{ent}(s,t) + O(\varepsilon^{1/2} \log 1/\varepsilon)$. (Since ε is fixed as $n \to \infty$, we can absorb the $o(1)$ into the big-O term.)

Now it is easy to deal with the case of $n \notin W$. If $n \notin W$, then $n+2 \in W$ and $n-2 \in W$. The entropies for tilings of $(n-2)\times(n-2)$, $n \times n$, and $(n+2)\times(n+2)$ squares with nearly planar boundary conditions are nearly the same. (To prove that, embed an $(n-2) \times (n-2)$ square into an $n \times n$ one, and an $n \times n$ one into an $(n+2) \times (n+2)$ one, extending the boundary conditions arbitrarily. Then the number of tilings increases with each embedding, so the entropy of the $n \times n$ square is caught between the other two, to within a $1+o(1)$ factor coming from the differing areas. By Proposition 3.6, this result holds for all nearly planar boundary conditions.) Note that the same argument as above goes back from squares to the torus, thus proving entropy convergence for all n (not just $n \in W$).

The claim about free boundary conditions follows easily (since the number of boundary conditions that stay within εn of the plane is only exponential in n, and all of them have about the same entropy). □

Corollary 4.2. *Theorem 4.1 holds if R is an equilateral triangle of side length n, instead of a square.*

Proof. It is not hard to check that equilateral triangles satisfy the hypotheses of Proposition 3.4, Lemma 3.5, and Proposition 3.6. Thus, we just need to deal with the case of an equilateral triangle whose boundary heights are within $O(1)$ of being planar.

To prove that the entropy of the triangle is at least what we expect, tile the triangle with smaller squares, such that their boundary heights are within $O(1)$ of being planar. (Of course, those near the edges will stick out over the boundary, but if n is large enough, we can make the squares small enough compared to the triangle that only an ε fraction of the squares will cross the boundary.) Except for an error of $O(\varepsilon)$ from the squares that cross the boundary, the entropy of the triangle is at least the entropy of the squares, which is what we wanted.

An analogous argument (involving tiling a square with triangles) shows that the entropy of the triangle is at most what we expect. □

For the next theorem, we will use the same setup as in Proposition 3.2.

Theorem 4.3. *Let R^* be the region bounded by a simple closed curve, and let h_b be a boundary height function on R^*. Suppose R is a simply-connected lattice region such that when R is normalized by a factor of $1/n$, it approximates R^* to within δ, and its normalized boundary heights approximate the region R^* with boundary heights h_b to within δ; we assume that the normalization of R lies within R^*. Given an asymptotic height function $h \in \mathrm{AH}(R^*, h_b)$, the logarithm of the number of tilings of R whose normalized height functions are within $O(\delta)$ of h is the area of R times*

$$\mathrm{Ent}(h) + o(1)$$

as $\delta \to 0$ (for n sufficiently large).

Proof. Notice that the set of tilings whose normalized height functions are within $O(\delta)$ of h is non-empty, by Proposition 3.2. Call the set of such tilings U_δ.

Fix $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose ℓ small enough that we can apply Lemma 2.2 to the piecewise linear approximation $\tilde{h}$ to h derived from an ℓ-mesh (with approximation tolerance ε). Then, as is pointed out after the statement of Lemma 2.2, $\mathrm{Ent}(h) = \mathrm{Ent}(\tilde{h}) + o(1)$. We will take $\delta < \ell\varepsilon$, and show that the entropy we want to compute is $\mathrm{Ent}(h) + o(1)$.

We know that $|h - \tilde{h}| < \ell\varepsilon$ on all but at most an ε fraction of the triangles in the mesh. Those triangles can change the entropy by only $O(\varepsilon)$, so we can ignore them. We can also ignore the $O(\delta)$ fraction of the triangles that do not lie within the normalization of R (which change the entropy by $O(\delta) = O(\varepsilon)$). We will call the triangles within the normalization of R on which $|h - \tilde{h}| < \ell\varepsilon$ the included triangles, and the others the excluded triangles.

Let g be any element of U_δ. The entropy of U_δ is bounded below by the sum over all included triangles of the entropy of g restricted to that triangle, plus the $O(\varepsilon)$ contribution from the excluded triangles. It is bounded above by the same sum (including the $O(\varepsilon)$), but with free boundary conditions on the included triangles (subject to the condition of staying within $\ell\varepsilon$ of f).

We can now apply Corollary 4.2. It tells us that each included triangle's contribution to the entropy of U_δ is approximately equal to its contribution towards the entropy of $\tilde{h}$. It follows that our upper and lower bounds for the entropy of U_δ both equal $\mathrm{Ent}(\tilde{h}) + O(\varepsilon) + O(\varepsilon^{1/2} \log 1/\varepsilon)$. This gives us the desired conclusion. □

Note that Theorem 4.3 implies Theorem 1.1.

5. Overview of the remaining sections

In Section 6 we compute the partition function $Z_n(a, b, c, d)$ for matchings of the toroidal graph $G_n = \mathbb{Z}^2/2n\mathbb{Z}^2$ with $4n^2$ vertices. In Subsection 7.2 we compute the limit, as $n \to \infty$, of $Z_n^{1/(2n^2)}$. In Section 8 we compute the limit of the edge-inclusion probabilities for edges of each type, with respect to the measures μ_n, and also a bound on the variance of the number of edges of a fixed type in G_n. This computation is only done for n in an infinite subset $W \subset \mathbb{N}$. Since the variance is $o(n^4)$, the measure is concentrating near tilings with the mean number of edges of each type. This fact allows us, in Section 9, to compute the limit for $n \in W$ of the entropies. As explained in the proof of Theorem 4.1, it follows that the limit for arbitrary $n \to \infty$ must be the same as the limit for $n \in W$. In Section 10 we show that the entropy is strictly concave as a function of the tilt (s, t). In Section 12 we present the PDE which a C^1 entropy-maximizing Lipschitz function must satisfy (at least in the distributional sense).

6. The partition function

Let the graph G be the infinite square grid. Define an a-edge to be a horizontal edge whose left vertex has even coordinate sum, a b-edge to be a horizontal edge whose left vertex has odd coordinate sum, a c-edge to be a vertical edge whose lower vertex has even coordinate sum, and a d-edge to be a vertical edge whose lower vertex has odd coordinate sum. Let a, b, c, d be four non-negative real numbers. Weight the a-edges with weight a, the b-edges with weight b, and so on. (For comparison with our earlier, more geometrical terminology, a-edges are north-going, b-edges south-going, c-edges east-going, and d-edges west-going; in other words, points with even coordinate sum correspond to white squares.)

We assume without loss of generality that $a \geq b$, $c \geq d$, and $a \geq c$.

For n an even positive integer let G_n denote the quotient of G by the action of translation by $(2n, 0)$ and $(0, 2n)$. Then G_n is a graph on the torus and has $4n^2$ vertices and $8n^2$ edges ($2n^2$ edges of each type). A vertex (a, b) of G (where $a, b \in [0, 2n-1]$) will be denoted in what follows not by an ordered pair (a, b) but rather by an ordered triple (x, y, t), where $x = \lfloor a/2 \rfloor$, $y = \lfloor b/2 \rfloor$, and $t = 1, 2, 3$, or 4 corresponding to (a, b) being congruent to $(0, 0), (1, 1), (1, 0)$, or $(0, 1)$ modulo 2.

The partition function Z_n is by definition the sum, over all perfect matchings of G_n, of the product of the edge weights in the matching:

$$Z_n(a, b, c, d) = \sum_{\text{matchings}} a^{N_a} b^{N_b} c^{N_c} d^{N_d},$$

where N_a is the number of matched a-edges, etc.

There is a natural probability measure $\mu_n = \mu_n(a, b, c, d)$ on the set of all matchings, where the probability of a matching that has N_a a-edges, etc., is

$$a^{N_a} b^{N_b} c^{N_c} d^{N_d} / Z_n.$$

The physical interpretation of μ is the following. Let E_a, E_b, E_c, and E_d be energies associated with "dimers" on an a-edge, b-edge, c-edge, and d-edge, respectively. Define weights a, b, c, d (also called "activities" in the statistical mechanics literature) by

$$a = e^{-\beta E_a}, \; b = e^{-\beta E_b}, \; c = e^{-\beta E_c}, \; d = e^{-\beta E_d},$$

where β is a constant depending on the temperature. Then μ is the Boltzmann measure associated to these energies; specifically, the probability of a configuration of energy E is proportional to $e^{-\beta E}$, where E is the sum of the energies of the individual dimers.

In what follows we will take a, b, c, d as the fundamental quantities and will not deal with β or temperature as such.

Our concern will be with the situation in which n goes to infinity with the field-parameters a, b, c, d fixed: the so-called "thermodynamic limit". Even though for each finite n, $Z_n(a, b, c, d)$ is a smooth function (indeed a polynomial function) of the 4-tuple (a, b, c, d), the limit $Z(a, b, c, d) = \lim_{n \to \infty} Z_n^{1/(2n^2)}$ and other thermodynamic quantities need not be. We will see that $Z(a, b, c, d)$ is C^1 everywhere but not C^2 in the vicinity of the locus of $(a+b+c-d)(a+b-c+d)(a-b+c+d)(-a+b+c+d) = 0$.

It's worth pointing out that the 4-parameter field determined by (a,b,c,d) actually only has two meaningful degrees of freedom: one degree of freedom drops out because of the imposition of the constraint $ab = cd$, and the other drops out by virtue of the fact that multiplying a, b, c, d by a constant has no effect on any of the quantities of interest. These two degrees of freedom correspond to the two degrees of freedom associated with (s,t) (the tilt).

7. Determinants

The goal of this section is to compute Z_n: we use Proposition 7.1 and equations (7.5)–(7.8) below.

Given an enumeration of the $4n^2$ vertices of G_n, we define the weighted adjacency matrix of G_n as the $4n^2 \times 4n^2$ matrix whose i,jth entry is the weight of the edge connecting vertex i to vertex j (interpreted as 0 if there is no such edge). Define a matrix A_1 by multiplying the weights on vertical edges of the weighted adjacency matrix of G_n by $i = \sqrt{-1}$. The matrix A_2 is obtained from A_1 by multiplying by -1 the weights on the vertical edges from vertices $(j, n-1, 4)$ to $(j, 0, 1)$ and edges from vertices $(j, n-1, 2)$ to $(j, 0, 3)$ for all $j \in [0, n-1]$. The matrix A_3 is obtained from A_1 by multiplying by -1 the weights on horizontal edges from vertices $(n-1, k, 2)$ to $(0, k, 4)$ and horizontal edges from vertices $(n-1, k, 3)$ to $(0, k, 1)$, for $k \in [0, n-1]$. The matrix A_4 is obtained from A_1 by multiplying by -1 the weights on both these sets of edges. By the method of Kasteleyn [Ka1], we have the following proposition.

Proposition 7.1. *For $i = 1,2,3,4$ the quantities $\det A_i$ are non-negative, satisfy $Z_n \geq \sqrt{\det A_i}$, and satisfy*

$$Z_n(a,b,c,d) = \frac{1}{2}\left(-\sqrt{\det A_1} + \sqrt{\det A_2} + \sqrt{\det A_3} + \sqrt{\det A_4}\right).$$

Let V denote the set of vertices of G_n. The matrix A_1 operates on $\mathbb{C}^V$ in the following way: for $f \in \mathbb{C}^V$ and $w \in V$,

$$(A_1 f)_w = \sum_{v \in V} a_{vw} f_v.$$

Let $T_{(j,k)}$ be the linear operator on $\mathbb{C}^V$ corresponding to the translation by (j,k) on G_n. The operators $T_{(2,0)}$ and $T_{(0,2)}$ commute with each other and with A_1. The eigenvalues of $T_{(2,0)}$ are $e^{2\pi ij/n}$ for integers $j \in [0, n-1]$. The eigenspace of $T_{(2,0)}$ for eigenvalue $e^{2\pi ij/n}$ is $4n$-dimensional: a vector v in this eigenspace is determined by its coordinates in two consecutive columns of G_n. Similarly $T_{(0,2)}$ has eigenvalues $e^{2\pi ik/n}$ and a vector in the $e^{2\pi ik/n}$-eigenspace is determined by its coordinates in two consecutive rows of G_n. The intersection of a maximal eigenspace of $T_{(2,0)}$ and one of $T_{(0,2)}$ is 4-dimensional: a vector in the intersection is determined by its coordinates on a 2×2 square of vertices (as in Figure 3, vertices v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4).

Let $z = e^{2\pi i/n}$. For $(j,k) \in [0, n-1]^2$ and $s \in \{1,2,3,4\}$ define a vector $e^{(s)}_{j,k}$ by

$$e^{(s)}_{j,k}(x,y,t) = \begin{cases} z^{jx+ky} & \text{if } t = s, \text{ and} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \tag{7.1}$$

The $e^{(s)}_{j,k}$ are in the intersection of the z^j-eigenspace of $T_{(2,0)}$ and the z^k-eigenspace of $T_{(0,2)}$. Let S be the $4n^2 \times 4n^2$ matrix whose columns are these eigenvectors:

$$S = (e^{(1)}_{0,0}, \dots, e^{(4)}_{0,0}, e^{(1)}_{1,0}, \dots, e^{(4)}_{1,0}, \dots, e^{(4)}_{n-1,n-1}). \tag{7.2}$$

Note that S satisfies $S^{-1} = \frac{1}{n^2}\overline{S^t}$, where ^{t} denotes the transpose.

Because both $T_{(2,0)}$ and $T_{(0,2)}$ commute with A_1, $S^{-1}A_1S$ has the block-diagonal form

$$S^{-1}A_1S = \begin{pmatrix} B_{0,0} & 0 & & & \\ 0 & B_{1,0} & 0 & & \\ & 0 & \ddots & 0 & \\ & & 0 & \ddots & 0 \\ & & & 0 & B_{n-1,n-1} \end{pmatrix}, \tag{7.3}$$

with 4×4 blocks $B_{j,k}$ for $j,k \in [0,n-1]$. The block $B_{j,k}$ is the action of A_1 on the intersection of the z^j-eigenspace of $T_{(2,0)}$ and the z^k-eigenspace of $T_{(0,2)}$. We have

$$B_{j,k} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & a+bz^{-j} & i(c+dz^{-k}) \\ 0 & 0 & i(d+cz^k) & b+az^j \\ a+bz^j & i(d+cz^{-k}) & 0 & 0 \\ i(c+dz^k) & b+az^{-j} & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \tag{7.4}$$

for the ordering $\{e^{(1)}_{j,k}, \dots, e^{(4)}_{j,k}\}$ (see Figure 3).

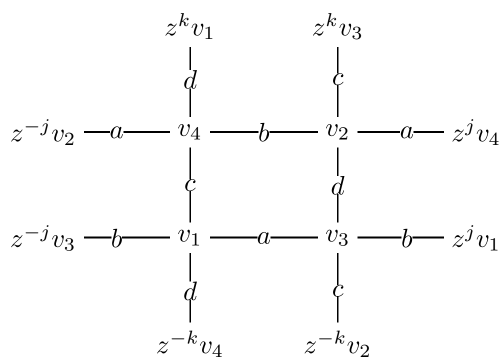

FIGURE 3. A vector v in the intersection of the z^j-eigenspace of $T_{(2,0)}$ and the z^k-eigenspace of $T_{(0,2)}$.

Since the upper right and lower left 2-by-2 subdeterminants of $B_{j,k}$ are complex conjugates, the determinant of A_1 is

$$\det A_1 = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1}\prod_{k=0}^{n-1} \left|2ab + a^2z^{-j} + b^2z^j + 2cd + c^2z^{-k} + d^2z^k\right|^2,$$

so

$$\det A_1 = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1}\prod_{k=0}^{n-1} \left|\frac{(a+bz^j)^2}{z^j} + \frac{(c+dz^k)^2}{z^k}\right|^2. \tag{7.5}$$

The matrices A_2, A_3, A_4 have similar determinants. For example for A_2, let $R_{(0,2)}$ act on $\mathbb{C}^V$ by translation by $(0,2)$ followed by negation of the coordinates in the first two rows, that is, vertices $(j,0,s)$ for $0 \le j \le n-1$ and $s \in \{1,2,3,4\}$. Then $R^n_{(0,2)} = -I$, and $R_{(0,2)}$ and $T_{(2,0)}$ commute with A_2. One thus finds that

$$\det(A_2) = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1}\prod_{k=0}^{n-1}\left|\frac{(a+be^{2\pi ij/n})^2}{e^{2\pi ij/n}} + \frac{(c+de^{\pi i(2k+1)/n})^2}{e^{\pi i(2k+1)/n}}\right|^2, \tag{7.6}$$

and similarly

$$\det(A_3) = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1}\prod_{k=0}^{n-1}\left|\frac{(a+be^{\pi i(2j+1)/n})^2}{e^{\pi i(2j+1)/n}} + \frac{(c+de^{2\pi ik/n})^2}{e^{2\pi ik/n}}\right|^2, \tag{7.7}$$

$$\det(A_4) = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1}\prod_{k=0}^{n-1}\left|\frac{(a+be^{\pi i(2j+1)/n})^2}{e^{\pi i(2j+1)/n}} + \frac{(c+de^{\pi i(2k+1)/n})^2}{e^{\pi i(2k+1)/n}}\right|^2. \tag{7.8}$$

We show that, with the exception of A_1, the square roots of $\det A_i$ are polynomials in a, b, c, d. Define

$$P_2 = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1}\prod_{k=0}^{n-1}\left(\frac{(a+be^{2\pi ij/n})^2}{e^{2\pi ij/n}} + \frac{(c+de^{\pi i(2k+1)/n})^2}{e^{\pi i(2k+1)/n}}\right), \tag{7.9}$$

$$P_3 = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1}\prod_{k=0}^{n-1}\left(\frac{(a+be^{\pi i(2j+1)/n})^2}{e^{\pi i(2j+1)/n}} + \frac{(c+de^{2\pi ik/n})^2}{e^{2\pi ik/n}}\right), \tag{7.10}$$

$$P_4 = \prod_{j=0}^{n-1}\prod_{k=0}^{n-1}\left(\frac{(a+be^{\pi i(2j+1)/n})^2}{e^{\pi i(2j+1)/n}} + \frac{(c+de^{\pi i(2k+1)/n})^2}{e^{\pi i(2k+1)/n}}\right). \tag{7.11}$$

The functions P_2, P_3, and P_4 are polynomials in a, b, c, d. Note that in (7.9), the involution $(j,k) \mapsto (-j, -k+1)$ maps each term to its complex conjugate (and this involution has no fixed point). Therefore $P_2 = \sqrt{\det A_2}$. Similarly $P_3 = \sqrt{\det A_3}$ and $P_4 = \sqrt{\det A_4}$.

Define

$$P_1 = \pm\prod_{j=0}^{n-1}\prod_{k=0}^{n-1}\left(\frac{(a+be^{2\pi ij/n})^2}{e^{2\pi ij/n}} + \frac{(c+de^{2\pi ik/n})^2}{e^{2\pi ik/n}}\right), \tag{7.12}$$

where the $+$ sign holds when $a < b+c+d$ and the $-$ sign holds when $a > b+c+d$. The involution $(j,k) \mapsto (-j,-k)$ maps each term in (7.12) to its complex conjugate; the product of the terms which are fixed under this involution is

$$((a+b)^2+(c+d)^2)(-(a-b)^2+(c+d)^2)((a+b)^2-(c-d)^2)((a-b)^2+(c-d)^2).$$

This product is positive or negative depending on whether $a < b+c+d$ or $a > b+c+d$. Thus on the domain $a < b+c+d$, P_1 is a polynomial (taking non-negative values), and on the domain $a > b+c+d$, P_1 is the negative of this polynomial (and this polynomial also takes non-negative values). Note that $P_1 = \sqrt{\det A_1}$. (The quantity P_1 is defined similarly for all positive values of a, b, c, d; when one of a, b, c, d is greater than the sum of the other three, the $-$ sign is used, otherwise the $+$ sign is used.)

From Proposition 7.1 we have

$$Z_n = \frac{1}{2}(-P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + P_4). \tag{7.13}$$

7.1. **Eigenvalues and roots.** Here we study in greater detail the function

$$q(z, w) = \frac{(a + bz)^2}{z} + \frac{(c + dw)^2}{w},$$

where a, b, c, d are non-negative reals.

Let

$$r(z) = cd + \frac{(a + bz)^2}{2z}.$$

Then

$$q(z, w) = \frac{c^2 + 2r(z)w + d^2w^2}{w} = \frac{(dw - \alpha c)(dw - \beta c)}{w}, \tag{7.14}$$

where

$$\alpha(z), \beta(z) = \frac{-r(z)}{cd} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{r(z)}{cd}\right)^2 - 1}. \tag{7.15}$$

We will choose $\beta(z)$ to be the larger root (in modulus).

Let $\xi(z) = (a + bz)^2/z$ and $\eta(w) = -(c + dw)^2/w$, so that $\xi(z) - \eta(w) = q(z, w)$. The critical points of $\xi(z), \eta(w)$ are respectively $z = \pm a/b$ and $w = \pm c/d$. Recall our assumption that $a \geq b$ and $c \geq d$.

Lemma 7.2. *The map ξ maps the punctured unit disk $\{z : |z| < 1,\ z \neq 0\}$ injectively onto the exterior of the ellipse E_1 whose major axis has endpoints $-(a-b)^2, (a+b)^2$ and whose minor axis has endpoints $2ab+i(a^2-b^2), 2ab-i(a^2-b^2)$. The ellipse E_1 has foci 0 and $4ab$ and center $2ab$. In the case $a = b$, this ellipse degenerates to the line segment $[0, 4ab]$. The map η maps the punctured unit disk $\{|w| < 1,\ w \neq 0\}$ injectively onto the exterior of the ellipse E_2 with major axis $-(c + d)^2, (c - d)^2$, minor axis $-2cd \pm i(c^2 - d^2)$, and foci at 0 and $-4cd$.*

See Figures 4 and 5.

Proof. Recall that $a \geq b$ by hypothesis. Suppose $a > b$. We have $\xi(z) = a^2/z + b^2z + 2ab$. For $|z| = 1$ write $z = \cos t + i \sin t$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \xi(z) &= a^2(\cos t - i \sin t) + b^2(\cos t + i \sin t) + 2ab \\ &= 2ab + (a^2 + b^2) \cos t - i(a^2 - b^2) \sin t. \end{aligned}$$

Thus as z runs counterclockwise around S^1, $\xi(z)$ runs clockwise around the ellipse E_1. Since ξ has no critical points in the unit disk, it is injective on the unit disk, mapping it to the exterior of E_1 (with 0 mapping to ∞).

When $a = b$, E_1 degenerates to a segment; still, ξ maps the punctured open unit disk injectively onto the exterior of the segment.

The case of η is similar. $\square$

The function q can also be written

$$q = \left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{z}} + b\sqrt{z} + i\left(\frac{c}{\sqrt{w}} + d\sqrt{w}\right)\right)\left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{z}} + b\sqrt{z} - i\left(\frac{c}{\sqrt{w}} + d\sqrt{w}\right)\right). \tag{7.16}$$

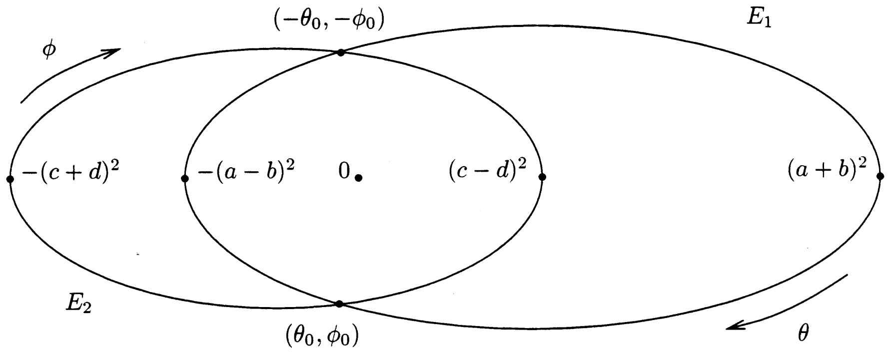

FIGURE 4. The ellipses E_1 and E_2 in the case $a < b + c + d$.

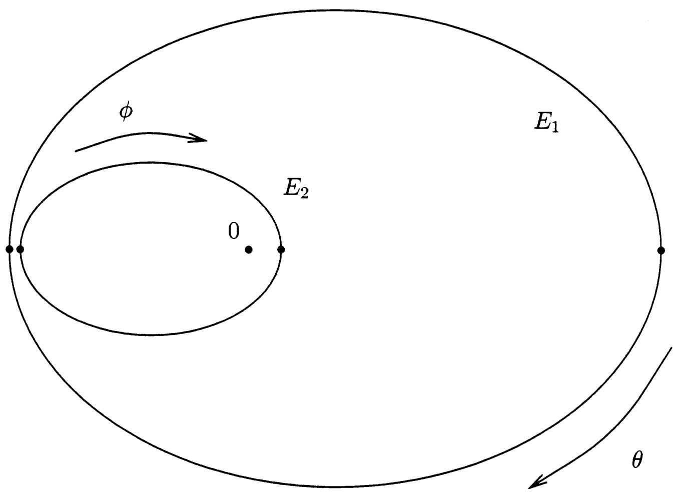

FIGURE 5. The ellipses E_1 and E_2 in the case $a > b + c + d$.

The coefficients of a, b, c, d in either term of (7.16) have modulus 1 when $|z| = 1 = |w|$. Suppose $a > b + c + d$. Then $q(e^{i\theta}, e^{i\phi}) \neq 0$ for all θ and ϕ, so $E_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$, and hence E_2 is contained inside the bounded region delimited by E_1. See Figure 5. For each fixed z satisfying $|z| = 1$, $\xi(z)$ is on E_1 and so by Lemma 7.2 the roots w of $0 = q(z, w) = \xi(z) - \eta(w)$ are situated one outside and one inside the unit disk. Since β is the larger of α and β, $\alpha(z)c/d$ is the root inside the disk.

On the other hand if $a < b+c+d$ but not both $a = b$ and $c = d$, then $(a-b)^2 < (c+d)^2$ (and $(c-d)^2 < (a+b)^2$ by the hypothesis that a is the largest of a, b, c, d) so the two ellipses intersect as in Figure 4 (because the places where they cross the x-axis are interlaced). Let $(z_0, w_0) = (e^{i\theta_0}, e^{i\phi_0})$ and $(\overline{z_0}, \overline{w_0}) = (e^{-i\theta_0}, e^{-i\phi_0})$ be the roots (satisfying $|z| = |w| = 1$) of $q(z, w) = 0$, where $\theta_0 \in (0, \pi)$ (the angle θ cannot be 0 or π since, as we noted, the ellipses are interlaced on the x-axis). Again by Lemma 7.2, for each z with $|z| = 1$, exactly one of the roots $w = \alpha c/d, \beta c/d$ is inside the (closed) unit disk when $-\theta_0 \leq \theta \leq \theta_0$, and for $\theta \notin [-\theta_0, \theta_0]$, both roots are outside. We will again take $\alpha(z)c/d$ to be the smaller root.

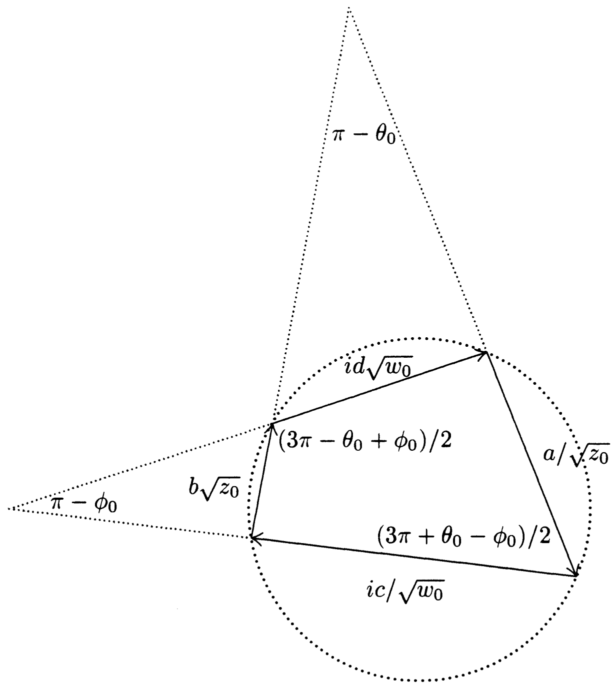

FIGURE 6. The cyclic quadrilateral formed at (θ_0, ϕ_0).

In the case $a = b+c+d$, the two ellipses are tangent, and their single intersection point is at $z = -1, w = 1$, that is, $(\theta_0, \phi_0) = (\pi, 0)$.

In the case when both $a = b$ and $c = d$, the two degenerate ellipses intersect only when $z = w = -1$, so that the single intersection point is at $(\theta_0, \phi_0) = (\pi, \pi)$.

An important fact about the above four cases is that $|\beta(z)c/d| > 1$ always, and $|\alpha(z)c/d| > 1$ unless $\theta \in [-\theta_0, \theta_0]$.

Going back to the case $a \leq b + c + d$, at the point (θ_0, ϕ_0), the four quantities

$$\frac{a}{\sqrt{z_0}}, b\sqrt{z_0}, \frac{ic}{\sqrt{w_0}}, id\sqrt{w_0}$$

sum to zero by (7.16), assuming we choose the correct signs for $\sqrt{z_0}$ and $\sqrt{w_0}$. They therefore form the edge vectors of a quadrilateral. When taken in the order as in Figure 6, the quadrilateral is in fact cyclic since opposite angles sum to π: The (interior) angle between sides $a/\sqrt{z_0}$ and $ic/\sqrt{w_0}$ is

$$\pi - \arg\left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{z_0}}\frac{\sqrt{w_0}}{ic}\right) = \frac{3\pi}{2} - \arg\sqrt{\frac{w_0}{z_0}},$$

and the (interior) angle between sides $b\sqrt{z_0}$ and $id\sqrt{w_0}$ is

$$\pi - \arg\left(\frac{b\sqrt{z_0}}{id\sqrt{w_0}}\right) = \frac{3\pi}{2} - \arg\sqrt{\frac{z_0}{w_0}}.$$

Summing these two gives angle π (modulo 2π, of course).

7.2. **The limit of the partition functions.**

Theorem 7.3. *The limit*

$$Z = Z(a,b,c,d) = \lim_{n\to\infty} Z_n^{1/(2n^2)}$$

exists, and

$$\log Z = \frac{1}{8\pi^2}\int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^{2\pi} \log\left|\frac{(a+be^{i\theta})^2}{e^{i\theta}} + \frac{(c+de^{i\phi})^2}{e^{i\phi}}\right| d\phi\, d\theta.$$

Kasteleyn [Ka1] computed Z in the special case $a = b$ and $c = d$.

Proof. From Proposition 7.1, for positive reals a,b,c,d we have $P_\ell \le Z$ for all ℓ. Combined with Proposition 7.1, this gives

$$\max_\ell P_\ell(a,b,c,d) \le Z_n(a,b,c,d) \le \frac{3}{2}\max_\ell P_\ell(a,b,c,d).$$

This implies that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} Z_n^{1/(2n^2)} = \lim_{n\to\infty} (\max_\ell P_\ell)^{1/(2n^2)}$$

(assuming these limits exist). Here note that the j for which $P_j = \max_\ell P_\ell$ may also depend on n.

Let I denote the integral in the statement of the theorem. We show that $(2n^2)^{-1}\log\max_\ell P_\ell$ converges to I.

Let

$$F(\theta,\phi) = q(e^{i\theta}, e^{i\phi}) = a^2e^{-i\theta} + 2ab + b^2e^{i\theta} + c^2e^{-i\phi} + 2cd + d^2e^{i\phi}. \tag{7.17}$$

We then have

$$P_1 = \pm\prod_{j,k} F\left(\frac{2\pi j}{n}, \frac{2\pi k}{n}\right),$$

and similar expressions for P_2, P_3, P_4 (see (7.9)–(7.12)). The quantity $n^{-2}\log(P_\ell)$ is a Riemann sum for the integral of $\log|F|$. The function $\log|F|$ is continuous, hence Riemann integrable, on the complement of a small neighborhood of its two (possible) singularities (θ_0,ϕ_0) and $(-\theta_0,-\phi_0)$, defined in Subsection 7.1.

We break the proof into four cases: the case $a > b+c+d$, the case $a < b+c+d$ but not both $a = b$ and $c = d$, the case $a = b$ and $c = d$, and finally the case $a = b+c+d$.

If $a > b+c+d$, then $\log|F|$ is continuous everywhere on $[0,2\pi]\times[0,2\pi]$ and so the Riemann sums converge to I.

In the case $a < b+c+d$ but not both $a = b$ and $c = d$, there are two singularities. It suffices to show that the Riemann sums $n^{-2}\log P_\ell$ for each ℓ are small on a small neighborhood of the singularities. This is not quite true since for some ℓ the product P_ℓ may have a factor in which (θ,ϕ) lands close to a singularity; as a consequence this P_ℓ may be very small. However, we will show that this can happen for at most one of the four products P_ℓ.

For each term in the four products (7.9)–(7.12), (θ,ϕ) is of the form $(j'\pi/n, k'\pi/n)$ for integers j', k'. Furthermore for each pair of integers (j',k'), exactly one of the four products has a term with $(\theta,\phi) = (j'\pi/n, k'\pi/n)$. Thus at most one of the four products has a term closer than $\pi/(2n)$ to the singularity (θ_0,ϕ_0). The *same* P_ℓ will have the term closest to the other singularity $(-\theta_0,-\phi_0)$.

Fix a small constant $\delta > 0$ and let $U_\delta \subset [0, 2\pi] \times [0, 2\pi]$ be the $\delta \times \delta$-neighborhood of a singularity. In U_δ we use the Taylor expansion

(7.18)
$$F(\theta, \phi) = F_\theta(\theta_0, \phi_0)(\theta - \theta_0) + F_\phi(\theta_0, \phi_0)(\phi - \phi_0) + O((\theta - \theta_0)^2, (\phi - \phi_0)^2),$$

and by Lemma 7.4 below, the ratio of $F_\theta(\theta_0, \phi_0)$ and $F_\phi(\theta_0, \phi_0)$ is not real.

The sum of those terms in $n^{-2} \log P_\ell$ for which $(\theta, \phi) \in U_\delta$ is

$$\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{(\theta,\phi) \in U_\delta} \log |F(\theta, \phi)| = \frac{1}{n^2} \left[\sum_{(\theta,\phi) \in U_\delta} \log |C_1(\theta - \theta_0) + C_2(\phi - \phi_0)| \right] + O(\delta^3),$$

for constants $C_1 = F_\theta(\theta_0, \phi_0), C_2 = F_\phi(\theta_0, \phi_0)$ with $C_1/C_2 \notin \mathbb{R}$. (We used here the fact that $\log(x + O(x^2)) = \log(x) + O(x)$ for small x; we then could take the big-O term out of the summation because of the $1/n^2$ factor.)

To bound this sum, note that $|C_1 x + C_2 y| \geq C_3|x| + C_4|y| \geq C_5|x + iy|$ for some positive constants C_3, C_4, C_5 since $C_1/C_2 \notin \mathbb{R}$. We use polar coordinates around the singularity. In the annulus around (θ_0, ϕ_0) of inner radius $K/(2n)$ and outer radius $(K+1)/(2n)$, there are at most constant $\cdot\, K$ points (θ, ϕ) which contribute to the sum, and each such point contributes $\leq \left| n^{-2} \log(\text{constant} \cdot K/(2n)) \right|$ to the sum. Therefore the sum on U_δ (for those P_j without terms within $\pi/(2n)$ of the singularity) is bounded by

$$\frac{\text{constant}}{n^2} \sum_{1 \leq K \leq \delta n} K \left| \log \frac{K}{n} \right| = O(\delta^2 \log \delta).$$

For the P_j which does have a term closer than $\pi/(2n)$ to the singularity, the above calculations give an *upper bound* on $(2n^2)^{-1} \log P_j$. (Including in the factor close to the singularity only decreases the product.) Thus we have shown that $(2n^2)^{-1} \log \max_\ell P_\ell$ converges to I. This proves the convergence of $(2n^2)^{-1} \log Z$ to I.

In the case $a = b$ and $c = d$ we have only one singularity (π, π), and $P_1 = 0$. For the other P_ℓ's, when (θ, ϕ) is close to (π, π) we have

$$\begin{aligned} F(\theta, \phi) &= a^2(2 + 2\cos\theta) + c^2(2 + 2\cos\phi) \\ &= a^2(\theta - \pi)^2 + c^2(\phi - \pi)^2 + O((\theta - \pi)^4, (\phi - \pi)^4). \end{aligned}$$

An argument similar to the previous case holds: on U_δ we have

$$\frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{(\theta,\phi) \in U_\delta} \log |F| = \frac{1}{n^2} \left[\sum_{(\theta,\phi) \in U_\delta} \log \left| a^2(\theta - \pi)^2 + c^2(\phi - \pi)^2 \right| \right] + O(\delta^3).$$

Now $\log |a^2 x^2 + c^2 y^2| \leq \log |C(x^2 + y^2)|$. Summing over annuli as before gives the bound.

Finally, suppose $a = b + c + d$. For any $\delta > 0$ we have

$$Z_n(a + \delta, b, c, d) \geq Z_n(a, b, c, d) \geq Z_n(a - \delta, b, c, d)$$

(recall that coefficients of the polynomial Z_n are non-negative). For fixed δ, the limits

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} Z_n(a \pm \delta, b, c, d)^{1/(2n^2)}$$

both exist, and (as we shall see in (7.20) below) converge to the same value as $\delta \to 0$. Thus

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} Z_n(a,b,c,d)^{1/(2n^2)}$$

exists and converges to this same value. This completes the proof. $\square$

The integral in Theorem 7.3 can be written more usefully as follows. As before set

$$r = r(z) = cd + \frac{(a+bz)^2}{2z}.$$

We can evaluate the first integral (the integral with respect to ϕ) in I as follows. We have (with $w = e^{i\phi}$)

$$\frac{1}{2\pi}\int_0^{2\pi} \log\left|\frac{c^2+2rw+d^2w^2}{w}\right| d\phi = \frac{1}{2\pi}\int_0^{2\pi} \log|(dw-\alpha c)(dw-\beta c)|\, d\phi,$$

where α, β are chosen as in Subsection 7.1.

Using the identity

$$\frac{1}{2\pi}\int_0^{2\pi} \log|t+se^{i\phi}|\, d\phi = \begin{cases} \log|t| & \text{if } |t|>|s|, \text{ and} \\ \log|s| & \text{if } |s|\geq|t| \end{cases}$$

(note that the logarithmic singularity in the case $s = t$ makes no contribution to the integral), we find (with $z = e^{i\theta}$)

$$\begin{aligned} 4\pi \log Z = &\int_{|c\alpha(z)|<d} \log d\, d\theta + \int_{|c\alpha(z)|>d} \log|c\alpha(z)|\, d\theta \\ &+ \int_{|c\beta(z)|<d} \log d\, d\theta + \int_{|c\beta(z)|>d} \log|c\beta(z)|\, d\theta. \end{aligned}$$

From Lemma 7.2 we know that $c|\beta(z)| > d$ for all z on the unit circle. If $a \geq b+c+d$, then $|c\alpha(z)| \leq d$ for all $|z| = 1$ and so

$$4\pi \log Z = 2\pi \log d + 2\pi \log c + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \log|\beta(z)|\, d\theta$$

or

$$\log Z = \frac{1}{2}\log d + \frac{1}{2}\log c + \frac{1}{4\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \log|\beta(z)|\, d\theta. \tag{7.19}$$

If $a < b+c+d$, then recall $|c\alpha(z)| < d$ if and only if $\theta \in (-\theta_0, \theta_0)$. Thus we have

$$4\pi \log Z = \int_{-\theta_0}^{\theta_0} \log d\, d\theta + \int_{\theta_0}^{2\pi-\theta_0} \log|c\alpha(z)|\, d\theta + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \log|c\beta(z)|\, d\theta,$$

which gives (using $\alpha\beta = 1$)

$$\log Z = \frac{\theta_0}{2\pi}\log d + \left(1 - \frac{\theta_0}{2\pi}\right)\log c + \frac{1}{4\pi}\int_{-\theta_0}^{\theta_0} \log|\beta(z)|\, d\theta. \tag{7.20}$$

Comparing (7.19) and (7.20), we see that (7.20) holds for all a, b, c, d, as long as we define $\theta_0 = \pi$ when $a \geq b+c+d$.

Lemma 7.4. *For the function F of* (7.17), *the ratio $F_\theta(\theta_0,\phi_0)/F_\phi(\theta_0,\phi_0) \notin \mathbb{R}$ unless $a = b+c+d$ or both $a = b$ and $c = d$.*

Proof. We must show

$$\frac{-c^2e^{-i\phi_0}+d^2e^{i\phi_0}}{-a^2e^{-i\theta_0}+b^2e^{i\theta_0}}\notin\mathbb{R}. \tag{7.21}$$

For this proof only, let $e^{i\theta}$ and $e^{i\phi}$ be square roots of $e^{i\theta_0}, e^{i\phi_0}$, respectively, with signs chosen so that

$$ae^{-i\theta}+be^{i\theta}+i(ce^{-i\phi}+de^{i\phi})=0 \tag{7.22}$$

(cf. (7.16)). We can then factor (7.21) as

$$\frac{(de^{i\phi}-ce^{-i\phi})}{be^{i\theta}-ae^{-i\theta}}\cdot\frac{(de^{i\phi}+ce^{-i\phi})}{be^{i\theta}+ae^{-i\theta}},$$

and the second quotient is i. That is, we are left to show that

$$\mathrm{Im}\left(\frac{(d-c)i\cos\phi-(d+c)\sin\phi}{(b-a)\cos\theta+i(b+a)\sin\theta}\right)\neq 0.$$

Separating the real and imaginary parts of (7.22) we have

$$(a+b)\cos\theta+(c-d)\sin\phi = 0, \text{ and} \tag{7.23}$$
$$(-a+b)\sin\theta+(c+d)\cos\phi = 0. \tag{7.24}$$

Solving these for $\sin\phi, \cos\phi$ and plugging in to the above gives

$$\mathrm{Im}\left(\frac{(d-c)i\frac{a-b}{c+d}\sin\theta-(d+c)\frac{a+b}{d-c}\cos\theta}{(b-a)\cos\theta+i(b+a)\sin\theta}\right)$$

which is zero only if the real and imaginary parts of the numerator and denominator are in proportion: either $\sin\theta\cos\theta=0$ or (clearing denominators)

$$(d-c)^2(a-b)^2=(d+c)^2(a+b)^2.$$

Neither of these is possible (recall that $\theta_0=\pi$ only when $a=b$ and $c=d$), so the proof is complete. □

8. The edge-inclusion probabilities

Let μ_n denote the measure on matchings of G_n, where each matching has weight which is the product of the edge weights of its matched edges.

The expected number of a-edges occurring in a μ_n-random matching is simply

$$\mathbf{E}(N_a)=\frac{a}{Z_n}\frac{\partial Z_n}{\partial a}$$

(this follows from the definition of μ_n). From (7.13), the probability $p_a(n)$ of a particular a-edge occurring in a μ_n-randomly chosen matching is therefore

$$p_a(n)=\frac{a}{2n^2}\frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial a}(-P_1+P_2+P_3+P_4)}{-P_1+P_2+P_3+P_4}. \tag{8.1}$$

From (7.12) we obtain (assuming $P_1(a,b,c,d)\neq 0$)

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial a}P_1=P_1\sum_{j,k}\frac{2(b+ae^{-2\pi ij/n})}{(a+be^{2\pi ij/n})^2e^{-2\pi ij/n}+(c+de^{2\pi ik/n})^2e^{-2\pi ik/n}}. \tag{8.2}$$

Note that this holds for all values of a,b,c,d for which $P_1(a,b,c,d)\neq 0$, independently of whether or not $a>b+c+d$. Similar expressions hold for P_2,P_3,P_4.

In what follows we may no longer assume that a is the largest of b, c, d since we are computing a non-symmetric function p_a. Recall that the quadruple (a, b, c, d) determines two possible singularities $\pm(\theta_0, \phi_0)$ of the function F of (7.17).

We will define a set $W \subset \mathbb{N}$, depending on a, b, c, d, on which our remaining convergence arguments work. If one of a, b, c, d is greater than the sum of the others, or if both $a = b$ and $c = d$, take $W = \mathbb{N}$. If one of a, b, c, d equals the sum of the others, we define W below in the proof of Proposition 8.2. In the remaining case, there are two distinct singularities $\pm(\theta_0, \phi_0)$, where $\theta_0 \in (0, \pi)$. If $\theta_0 \neq \pi/2$, let W be the set of n for which θ_0/π is not well approximated by rationals of denominator n, in the following sense: for all integers j we have

$$\left|\theta_0 - \frac{\pi j}{n}\right| > \frac{1}{n^{3/2}}.$$

If $\theta_0 = \pi/2$, define W as above using ϕ_0 instead: note that θ_0 and ϕ_0 cannot both equal $\pi/2$, for $F(\pi/2, \pi/2) = -i(a + bi)^2 - i(c + di)^2$ cannot be zero (its real part is $2ab + 2cd$).

Lemma 8.1. *When $\theta_0 \in (0, \pi)$, for any sufficiently large even n, one of $n, n+2$ is in W.*

Proof. Without loss of generality $\theta_0 \neq \frac{\pi}{2}$. Suppose

$$\left|\theta_0 - \frac{\pi j}{n}\right| < \frac{1}{n^{3/2}}$$

and

$$\left|\theta_0 - \frac{\pi j'}{n+2}\right| < \frac{1}{(n+2)^{3/2}}.$$

Then j' must be equal to one of $j, j+1$, or $j+2$; but then

$$\left|\frac{\pi j}{n} - \frac{\pi j'}{n+2}\right| = \frac{\pi \min\{2j, |2j-n|, |2j-2n|\}}{n(n+2)} \geq \frac{\text{constant}}{n},$$

a contradiction. □

Proposition 8.2. *If none of a, b, c, d equals the sum of the others, then for n tending to ∞ in W, the edge-inclusion probability $p_a(n)$ converges to*

$$p_a = \frac{a}{4\pi^2} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{(b + ae^{-i\theta})\, d\phi\, d\theta}{(a + be^{i\theta})^2 e^{-i\theta} + (c + de^{i\phi})^2 e^{-i\phi}}. \tag{8.3}$$

If one of a, b, c, d equals the sum of the other three, then $p_a(n)$ converges to the above integral along a subsequence W containing at least one of each pair $n, n+2$ with n even.

Proof. We will show that the sum

$$\frac{a}{2n^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial a} \log P_1 = \frac{a}{2n^2} \sum_{\theta,\phi} \frac{2(b + ae^{-i\theta})}{F(\theta, \phi)} \tag{8.4}$$

converges to the desired integral (8.3), where the sum is over $(\theta, \phi) = (2\pi j/n, 2\pi k/n)$. Similar arguments hold for P_2, P_3, and P_4. The value (8.1) is then a weighted average of these sums, with weights $\pm P_\ell/(2Z_n)$. Since $Z_n \geq P_\ell \geq 0$ (see Proposition 7.1), the weights are bounded in absolute value (less than 1/2) and sum to 1. Therefore the weighted average also converges to (8.3).

We separate the proof into four cases. In the first case, where one of a, b, c, d is greater than the sum of the other three, there are no singularities ($F(\theta, \phi)$ is never zero), so the summand is a continuous function on $[0, 2\pi]^2$. Therefore (8.4) converges to the integral in (8.3).

For the second case, suppose each of a, b, c, d is strictly less than the sum of the others, but we are not in the case where both $a = b$ and $c = d$. Since $n \in W$, none of the four P_ℓ can have a term with (θ, ϕ) within $n^{-3/2}$ of a singularity. We claim that the sum (8.4) converges to the integral (8.3). This is proved in the same manner as in Theorem 7.3: one only needs to check that the contribution on a small neighborhood of the singularities is small. As before, let U_δ be a $\delta \times \delta$-neighborhood of a singularity. Ignore for a moment the single term closest to the singularity. Lemma 7.4 and (7.18) give us the estimate

$$\left| \frac{a}{2n^2} \sum_{(\theta,\phi)\in U_\delta} \frac{2(b + ae^{-i\theta})}{F(\theta, \phi)} \right| \tag{8.5}$$

$$\leq \frac{2a}{2n^2} \sum_{U_\delta} \frac{|b + ae^{-i\theta}|}{|C_1(\theta - \theta_0) + C_2(\phi - \phi_0) + O((\theta - \theta_0)^2, (\phi - \phi_0)^2)|}$$

for constants $C_1 = F_\theta(\theta_0, \phi_0), C_2 = F_\phi(\theta_0, \phi_0)$ where $C_1/C_2 \notin \mathbb{R}$. Now

$$|C_1(\theta - \theta_0) + C_2(\phi - \phi_0)| \geq C_3|(\theta - \theta_0) + i(\phi - \phi_0)| \geq C_4 \max\{|\theta - \theta_0|, |\phi - \phi_0|\}$$

for some positive constants C_3, C_4. Using $1/(x + O(x^2)) = 1/x + O(1)$ for small x, where $x = C_3|(\theta - \theta_0) + i(\phi - \phi_0)|$, we get the bound

$$\frac{2a}{2n^2} \sum_{U_\delta} \left[\frac{|b + ae^{-i\theta}|}{|C_1(\theta - \theta_0) + C_2(\phi - \phi_0)|} + O(1) \right].$$

Taking the $O(1)$ term out of the summation turns it into a $O(\delta^2)$.

Summing over annuli concentric about the singularity, we may bound the left-hand side of (8.5) by

$$O(\delta^2) + \frac{\text{constant}}{n^2} \sum_{1 \leq K \leq \delta n} K \cdot \frac{n}{K} = O(\delta).$$

The single term closest to the singularity contributes a negligible amount

$$\frac{\text{constant}}{n^2} \cdot n^{3/2}.$$

In the third case, when both $a = b$ and $c = d$, we have $(\theta_0, \phi_0) = (\pi, \pi)$. Then $P_1 = 0$ and the other P_ℓ are non-zero. Furthermore the pairs (θ, ϕ) appearing in the products for P_2, P_3, P_4 do not come within distance π/n of the singularity. Since near (a, b, c, d), P_1 is a polynomial taking non-negative values which is zero at (a, b, c, d), it must have a double root there. Thus its derivative with respect to a is zero at (a, b, c, d). We can therefore remove P_1 from the expression (8.1) and just deal with the remaining three P_ℓ. When $a = b$ and $c = d$, (8.5) becomes

$$\frac{2a}{2n^2} \left| \sum_{U_\delta} \frac{a(1 + e^{-i\theta})}{a^2(2 + 2\cos\theta) + c^2(2 + 2\cos\phi)} \right| \leq \frac{2a^2}{2n^2} \left[\sum_{U_\delta} \frac{|i(\theta - \pi)|}{|a^2(\theta - \pi)^2 + c^2(\phi - \pi)^2|} \right] + O(\delta^3),$$

where we used $1/(x^2+O(x^4)) = 1/x^2 + O(1)$. This is $O(\delta)$ (sum over annuli as before).

Finally we consider the case when one of a, b, c, d is equal to the sum of the other three. Suppose first that $a = b + c + d$. Note that $p_a(n)(a, b, c, d)$ is a monotonic increasing function of a: the expected number of a-edges increases with their relative weight. For each $\delta > 0$ sufficiently small, choose n so that

$$|p_a(n)(a-\delta, b, c, d) - p_a(a-\delta, b, c, d)| < \delta.$$

Such an n exists because $(a-\delta, b, c, d)$ is in the domain of case two, above. By monotonicity

$$p_a(n)(a, b, c, d) \geq p_a(n)(a-\delta, b, c, d) \geq p_a(a-\delta, b, c, d) - \delta$$

for this n. Take a sequence of δ's tending to 0. On the corresponding sequence of n's, $p_a(n)(a, b, c, d)$ tends to 1, which is equal to the value of the integral $p_a(a, b, c, d)$ (see Theorem 8.3 below). The set W in this case is obtained from the concatenation of the appropriate subintervals of the sets W that are defined for each quadruple $(a-\delta, b, c, d)$.

Since $p_a(n)(a, b, c, d) \to 1$ we must have that

$$\begin{aligned} p_b(n)(a, b, c, d) &\to 0, \\ p_c(n)(a, b, c, d) &\to 0, \\ p_d(n)(a, b, c, d) &\to 0. \end{aligned}$$

This (and symmetry) takes care of the remaining cases. $\square$

A rather lengthy calculation yields the following result:

Theorem 8.3. *If $a \geq b + c + d$, then $p_a = 1$. If one of b, c, d is larger than the sum of the other three of $\{a, b, c, d\}$, then $p_a = 0$. Otherwise, let Q be a cyclic quadrilateral with edge lengths a, c, b, d in cyclic order. Then p_a is $1/(2\pi)$ times the angle of the arc cut off by the edge a of Q. That is,*

(8.6)

$$p_a = \frac{1}{\pi}\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{a\sqrt{(a+b+c-d)(a+b-c+d)(a-b+c+d)(-a+b+c+d)}}{2\sqrt{(ab+cd)(ac+bd)(ad+bc)}}\right).$$

(*Here the branch of the arcsine that is needed is the one given by the preceding geometrical condition.*)

The proof is in Section 11. Note that by this theorem, in the case of non-extremal tilt, the 4-tuple

$$(\sin(\pi p_a), \sin(\pi p_b), \sin(\pi p_c), \sin(\pi p_d))$$

is proportional to (a, b, c, d). Since a constant of proportionality has no effect on the measures μ_n, we can assume that $a = \sin(\pi p_a)$, etc.

We also note a simple relation between the singularity (θ_0, ϕ_0) and the edge-inclusion probabilities (hereafter simply called edge probabilities), which will be useful later. From Figure 6 and Theorem 8.3, when $a \geq b$ and $c \geq d$ we find

$$\theta_0 = \pi - \pi(p_c - p_d), \text{ and} \tag{8.7}$$

$$\phi_0 = \pi - \pi(p_a - p_b). \tag{8.8}$$

We now bound the variance of N_a, the number of a-edges in a matching.

Proposition 8.4. *For all a, b, c, d and for $n \in W$, $\sigma^2(N_a) = o(n^4)$.*

Proof. The graph G_n has $2n^2$ a-edges. For $k \in [1, 2n^2]$ let q_k be the $\{0,1\}$-valued random variable indicating the presence of the kth a-edge in a random matching. Then $N_a = q_1 + \cdots + q_{2n^2}$, and so

$$\sigma^2(N_a) = \sum_k \sigma^2(q_k) + \sum_{k \neq \ell} (\mathbf{E}(q_k q_\ell) - \mathbf{E}(q_k)\mathbf{E}(q_\ell)). \tag{8.9}$$

We have $\mathbf{E}(q_k) = p_a(n)$ and so $\sigma^2(q_k) = p_a(n) - p_a(n)^2$. In the case when one of a, b, c, d is greater than the sum of the others, we know from Proposition 8.2 that p_a converges to 1 or 0; as a consequence $\sigma^2(q_k) \to 0$, and the covariances converge to 0 also, so $\sigma^2(N_a) = o(n^4)$ as well. Similarly when one of a, b, c, d equals the sum of the others; then p_a converges to 1 or 0 along W, and so $\sigma^2(N_a)$ is $o(n^4)$ on this same subsequence.

The remaining cases require more work. By (a straightforward extension of) Theorem 6 of [Ke1], we have

(8.10)
$$\mathbf{E}(q_k q_\ell) = \frac{-|(A_1^{-1})_{q_k,q_\ell}|P_1 + |(A_2^{-1})_{q_k,q_\ell}|P_2 + |(A_3^{-1})_{q_k,q_\ell}|P_3 + |(A_4^{-1})_{q_k,q_\ell}|P_4}{-P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + P_4},$$

where

$$|(A_i^{-1})_{q_k,q_\ell}| = \det \begin{pmatrix} A_i^{-1}(v_k, w_k) & A_i^{-1}(v_k, w_\ell) \\ A_i^{-1}(v_\ell, w_k) & A^{-1}(v_\ell, w_\ell) \end{pmatrix},$$

and where v_k, w_k are the vertices of the edge associated with q_k (v_k being the left vertex) and v_ℓ, w_ℓ the vertices of the edge associated with q_ℓ (v_ℓ being the right vertex). The inverses A_i^{-1} are only defined when the corresponding P_i are non-zero.

When $n \in W$ tends to ∞ the diagonal entries $A_i^{-1}(v_k, w_k)$, $A_i^{-1}(v_\ell, w_\ell)$ tend to p_a (see Proposition 8.2). Writing each 2×2 determinant in (8.10) as the product of the two diagonal entries minus the product of the off-diagonal entries, the diagonal entries can be taken out of the quotient in (8.10) and contribute $p_a^2 + o(1)$. It remains to estimate the contribution of the off-diagonal entries.

We can compute the inverses of the A_i as follows. Note that from (7.4) we have

$$B_{j,k}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & D_1 \\ D_2 & 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

where

$$D_1 = \frac{1}{(a + bz^j)^2 z^{-j} + (c + dw^k)w^{-k}} \begin{pmatrix} b + az^{-j} & -i(d + cw^{-k}) \\ -i(c + dw^k) & a + bz^j \end{pmatrix}$$

(we won't need the expression for D_2). Recall the definition of the matrix S of (7.2). Let $\delta_{x,y,s}$ be the vector

$$\delta_{x,y,s}(j,k,t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (j,k,t) = (x,y,s), \text{ and} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We have

$$S^{-1}(\delta_{x,y,s})(j,k,t) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n^2} e^{-2\pi i jx/n} e^{-2\pi i ky/n} & \text{if } t = s, \text{ and} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

From (7.3) we therefore find, for example,

$$\begin{aligned} &A_1^{-1}((0,0,1),(x,y,3)) \\ &\qquad = \frac{1}{n^2}\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\frac{e^{-2\pi i(jx+ky)/n}(b+ae^{-2\pi ij/n})}{(a+be^{2\pi ij/n})^2e^{-2\pi ij/n}+(c+de^{2\pi ik/n})^2e^{-2\pi ik/n}} \end{aligned} \tag{8.11}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} &A_1^{-1}((0,0,1),(x,y,4)) \\ &\qquad = \frac{1}{n^2}\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\sum_{k=0}^{n-1}\frac{e^{-2\pi i(jx+ky)/n}(-i)(d+ce^{-2\pi ik/n})}{(a+be^{2\pi ij/n})^2z^{-2\pi ij/n}+(c+de^{2\pi ik/n})^2e^{-2\pi ik/n}}. \end{aligned}$$

We also have $A_1^{-1}((0,0,1),(x,y,t))=0$ when $t=1$ or $t=2$. Similar expressions hold for inverses of A_2, A_3, A_4.

An argument identical to the proof of Proposition 8.2 (the only difference is the factor $z^{-(jx+ky)}$, which has modulus 1) shows that the parts of the sums (8.11) over a δ-neighborhood U_δ of the singularities are $O(\delta)$.

We will show that for all y with $(1-\varepsilon)n > y > \varepsilon n$ (later we will set $\varepsilon = n^{-1/4}$) the value $A_1^{-1}((0,0,1),(x,y,3))$ tends to zero as $n\to\infty$ in W. Similar results hold for A_2, A_3, and A_4. For simplicity of notation let $0, v$ denote the vertices $(0,0,1)$ and $(x,y,3)$. The equation (8.11) has the form

$$A_1^{-1}(0,v) = \frac{1}{n^2}\sum_{j,k} e^{-2\pi i(jx+ky)/n}G_1(j/n,k/n),$$

where G_1 is a smooth function on the complement of the region U_δ. We already know that the sum over U_δ is $O(\delta)$, so let us replace G_1 by a new function G_2 which agrees with G_1 outside U_δ and is zero on U_δ. We sum by parts over the variable k to get

$$\begin{aligned} A_1^{-1}(0,v) = \frac{1}{n^2}\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\sum_{k=0}^{n-1}&\left[\left(\sum_{\ell=0}^{k} e^{-2\pi i\ell y/n}\right)\left(G_2\left(\frac{j}{n},\frac{k}{n}\right)-G_2\left(\frac{j}{n},\frac{k+1}{n}\right)\right)\right] \\ &+\frac{1}{n^2}\sum_{j=0}^{n-1}\left(\sum_{\ell=0}^{n-1}e^{-2\pi i\ell y/n}\right)G_2\left(\frac{j}{n},0\right)+O(\delta). \end{aligned}$$

Since $(1-\varepsilon)n > y > \varepsilon n$, the sum over ℓ of the exponentials is

$$\frac{1-e^{-2\pi i(k+1)y/n}}{1-e^{-2\pi iy/n}} = O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)$$

for each k. The difference $|G_2(j/n,k/n)-G_2(j/n,(k+1)/n)|$ is bounded by $1/n$ times the supremum of $|\partial G_1/\partial y|$ on the complement of U_δ, except that at the points adjacent to the boundary of U_δ, the difference is bounded by the supremum of $|G_1|$ near the boundary.

One can check (see the proof of Proposition 8.2) that the sup of $|\partial G_1/\partial y|$ on the complement of U_δ is $O(\delta^{-2})$, and the supremum of $|G_1|$ on the boundary of U_δ is $O(\delta^{-1})$. Only $O(\delta n)$ pairs (j,k) correspond to points adjacent to the boundary of

U_δ, so we have

$$\begin{aligned} |A_1^{-1}(0,v)| &\leq \frac{1}{n^2}\left(\sum_j \sum_k O(\varepsilon^{-1})O(\delta^{-2})\frac{1}{n}\right) + \frac{1}{n^2}O(n\delta)O(\delta^{-1})O(\varepsilon^{-1}) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{n^2}\sum_j O(\varepsilon^{-1})O(\delta^{-1}) + O(\delta) \\ &= O\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon\delta^2 n}\right) + O\left(\frac{1}{n\varepsilon}\right) + O\left(\frac{1}{n\varepsilon\delta}\right) + O(\delta). \end{aligned}$$

Choosing $\delta = \varepsilon = n^{-1/4}$, we have $A^{-1}(0,v) = O(n^{-1/4})$.

A similar argument holds in the case where both $a = b$ and $c = d$. From (8.9) we have

$$\sigma^2(N_a) \leq n^2 O(1) + n^4 o(1) + \sum_{\text{edges } k\neq\ell} \sum_{i=1}^{4} |A_i^{-1}(v_k, w_\ell)A_i^{-1}(v_\ell, w_k)|,$$

but $A_i^{-1}(v_k, w_\ell)$ and $A_i^{-1}(v_\ell, w_k)$ are $O(n^{-1/4})$ as soon as the edges k and ℓ are separated by at least $\epsilon n = n^{3/4}$ in their y-coordinates. Therefore (using $\varepsilon = n^{-1/4}$)

$$\sigma^2(N_a) = O(n^2) + o(n^4) + O(n^2 \cdot \varepsilon n^2) + O(n^4 n^{-1/2}) = o(n^4).$$

Here the term $O(n^2 \cdot \varepsilon n^2)$ comes from edges whose y coordinate is less than εn or greater than $(1-\varepsilon)n$, and the term $O(n^4 n^{-1/2})$ consists of the remaining pairs of edges. As a consequence $\sigma^2(N_a) = o(n^4)$. $\square$

One can show from this argument (using the result of [Ke1]) that for $n \in W$ the measures μ_n converge weakly to a measure μ on the set of matchings on $\mathbb{Z}^2$. The result is as follows.

Define

$$P(2x+1, 2y) = \frac{1}{4\pi^2}\int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{e^{-i(x\theta+y\phi)}(b + ae^{-i\theta})\ d\phi\ d\theta}{(a+be^{i\theta})^2 e^{-i\theta} + (c+de^{i\phi})^2 e^{-i\phi}}$$

and

$$P(2x, 2y+1) = \frac{1}{4\pi^2}\int_0^{2\pi}\int_0^{2\pi} \frac{e^{-i(x\theta+y\phi)}(-i)(d + ce^{-i\phi})\ d\phi\ d\theta}{(a+be^{i\theta})^2 e^{-i\theta} + (c+de^{i\phi})^2 e^{-i\phi}}.$$

Also, define a *colored configuration* of dominos as a configuration of dominos with a checkerboard coloring of the underlying square grid.

Proposition 8.5. *As $n \to \infty$ within W, the probability of finding a certain colored configuration of dominos in an (a, b, c, d)-weighted $n \times n$ torus converges to $|w \det M|$, where w is the product of the weights of those dominos and $M_{i,j} = P(v_{i,j})$, with $v_{i,j} \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ the displacement from the i-th white square to the j-th black one.*

Ben Wieland has pointed out that when $ab = cd$, one can write this more simply. Define $P'(2x+1, 2y) = c(a/b)^x(c/d)^y P(2x+1, 2y)$ and $P'(2x, 2y+1) = c(a/b)^x(c/d)^y P(2x, 2y+1)$. One can check that if $ab = cd$, then the probability we seek is simply the determinant of the matrix with entries $P'(v_{i,j})$, with no need to multiply by the products of the weights of the included dominos. This formulation makes the conditional uniformity immediately apparent.

9. The entropy

9.1. **Entropy as a function of edge-inclusion probabilities.** Since the set of matchings on G_n is finite, the entropy of a measure μ on the set of matchings is simply

$$H(\mu) = \sum_{M} -\mu(M)\log\mu(M),$$

where the sum is over all matchings M and $\mu(M)$ is the probability of M occurring for the measure μ. The *entropy per dimer* is by definition

$$\mathrm{ent}(\mu) = \frac{1}{2n^2}H(\mu)$$

(recall that a matching of G_n has $2n^2$ matched edges).

Recall that for real z, $L(z)$ is the Lobachevsky function, defined by (1.3).

Proposition 9.1. *As $n \to \infty$ in W, $\mathrm{ent}(\mu_n)$ converges to*

$$\mathrm{ent}(a,b,c,d) = \frac{1}{\pi}\left(L(\pi p_a) + L(\pi p_b) + L(\pi p_c) + L(\pi p_d)\right), \tag{9.1}$$

where p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d are given by (8.6).

Proof. Let $C(N_a, N_b, N_c, N_d)$ denote the coefficient of

$$a^{N_a}b^{N_b}c^{N_c}d^{N_d}$$

in Z_n.

As we computed earlier, on the toroidal graph G_n the μ_n-probability of an a-edge (resp. b-, c-, d-edge) is given by $p_a(n)$ (resp. $p_b(n)$, $p_c(n)$, $p_d(n)$). The expected number of a-edges is $\overline{N}_a \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbf{E}(N_a) = 2n^2 p_a(n)$.

Let

$$\begin{aligned} U_\varepsilon \quad = \quad & \{(N_a, N_b, N_c, N_d) : |N_a - \overline{N}_a| < \varepsilon\overline{N}_a, |N_b - \overline{N}_b| < \varepsilon\overline{N}_b, \\ & |N_c - \overline{N}_c| < \varepsilon\overline{N}_c, |N_d - \overline{N}_d| < \varepsilon\overline{N}_d\}. \end{aligned}$$

Let V_ε be the corresponding set of matchings, i.e., those where the corresponding quadruples (N_a, N_b, N_c, N_d) are in U_ε. Because the variance is $o(n^4)$, for all $\varepsilon, \varepsilon' > 0$ there exists n_0 such that for $n \in W$ greater than n_0 we have

$$\sum_{U_\varepsilon} C(N_a, N_b, N_c, N_d)a^{N_a}b^{N_b}c^{N_c}d^{N_d} \geq (1-\varepsilon')Z_n(a,b,c,d).$$

Note that if p_j are probabilities and $p_1 + \cdots + p_k < \varepsilon' < 1$, then

$$-\sum p_j \log p_j \leq -\varepsilon' \log\left(\frac{\varepsilon'}{k}\right)$$

(since the left-hand side is maximized when the p_j's are equal). Thus for the entropy we may write

$$\begin{aligned} H(\mu) &= -\sum_{M\notin V_\varepsilon} \mu(M)\log\mu(M) - \sum_{M\in V_\varepsilon}\mu(M)\log\mu(M) \\ &= -\sum_{M\notin V_\varepsilon} \mu(M)\log\mu(M) - \sum_{M\in V_\varepsilon}\mu(M)\log\left(\frac{a^{N_a}b^{N_b}c^{N_c}d^{N_d}}{Z_n}\right) \\ &= O\left(\varepsilon'\log\left(\frac{\varepsilon'}{\text{constant}^{n^2}}\right)\right) \\ &\quad -\sum_{M\in V_\varepsilon}\mu(M)\log\left(\frac{a^{\overline{N}_a}b^{\overline{N}_b}c^{\overline{N}_c}d^{\overline{N}_d}}{Z_n}a^{N_a-\overline{N}_a}\dots d^{N_d-\overline{N}_d}\right), \end{aligned}$$

but for $M\in V_\varepsilon$, we have $\log(a^{N_a-\overline{N}_a})<\varepsilon\log(a^{\overline{N}_a})$, and similarly for b,c,d, so

$$H(\mu)=\left[\sum_{M\in V_\varepsilon}\mu(M)\right]\left(-\log(a^{\overline{N}_a}b^{\overline{N}_b}c^{\overline{N}_c}d^{\overline{N}_d})(1+O(\varepsilon))+\log Z_n\right)+O(n^2\varepsilon'\log\varepsilon').$$

Note also that $\sum_{M\in V_\varepsilon}\mu(M)\geq 1-\varepsilon'$. Letting $\varepsilon,\varepsilon'\to 0$ as $n\to\infty$ we have finally that the limiting entropy per dimer is

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{ent}(a,b,c,d) &= \lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{2n^2}\left(\log Z_n(a,b,c,d)-\log(a^{\overline{N}_a}b^{\overline{N}_b}c^{\overline{N}_c}d^{\overline{N}_d})\right) \\ &= \log Z(a,b,c,d)-p_a\log(a)-p_b\log(b)-p_c\log(c)-p_d\log(d). \end{aligned}$$

Without loss of generality we may assume that $a\geq b$ and $c\geq d$; then from (8.7) we have $\theta_0=\pi-\pi(p_c-p_d)$. Plugging in from (7.20) now gives

(9.2)

$$\operatorname{ent}(a,b,c,d)=\frac{1}{4\pi}\int_{-\theta_0}^{\theta_0}\log|\beta(z)|\,d\theta+\frac{1-p_c-p_d}{2}\log(cd)-p_a\log(a)-p_b\log(b).$$

To prove the equivalence of this formula and (9.1), we show that they agree when $a=b=c=d$, and show that their partial derivatives are equal for all a,b,c,d.

Formula (9.2) gives

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{ent}(1,1,1,1) &= \frac{1}{4\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi}\log\left(2+\cos\theta+\sqrt{(2+\cos\theta)^2-1}\right)d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{4\pi}\int_{-\pi}^{\pi}2\log\left(\cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)+\sqrt{\cos^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)+1}\right)d\theta. \end{aligned}$$

This is two times the value of the entropy per site given in formula (17) of [Ka1], as it should be since the entropy $\operatorname{ent}(1,1,1,1)$ as we defined it is the entropy per dimer. Kasteleyn also shows that this value equals $2G/\pi$, where G is Catalan's constant

$$G=1-\frac{1}{3^2}+\frac{1}{5^2}-\frac{1}{7^2}+\cdots.$$

From the expansion

$$L(x)=\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}\frac{\sin(2kx)}{k^2}$$

(see [M]) we have $2G/\pi = (4/\pi)L(\pi/4)$, so the two formulas agree when $a = b = c = d$.

It remains to compute the derivatives. Equation (9.1) is symmetric under the full symmetry group S_4, and (9.2) is by definition symmetric under the operations of exchanging under the operations of exchanging a and b, exchanging c and d, and exchanging a, b with c, d. These operations are transitive on $\{a, b, c, d\}$, so it suffices to show equality of the derivatives with respect to a. We have

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial a}\mathrm{ent}(a,b,c,d) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial a}(\log Z - p_a \log(a) - p_b \log(b) - p_c \log(c) - p_d \log(d)) \\ &= -\log(a)\frac{\partial p_a}{\partial a} - \log(b)\frac{\partial p_b}{\partial a} - \log(c)\frac{\partial p_c}{\partial a} - \log(d)\frac{\partial p_d}{\partial a}\end{aligned}$$

(recall that $p_a = (a/Z)\partial Z/\partial a$).

On the other hand when x is one of a, b, c, d we have

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial a}\frac{1}{\pi}L(\pi p_x) = -\log(2\sin(\pi p_x))\frac{\partial p_x}{\partial a}.$$

Taking $\partial/\partial a$ of (9.1) and recalling that $a = \sin(\pi p_a)$, etc., gives

$$-\log(2a)\frac{\partial p_a}{\partial a} - \log(2b)\frac{\partial p_b}{\partial a} - \log(2c)\frac{\partial p_c}{\partial a} - \log(2d)\frac{\partial p_d}{\partial a}.$$

Since

$$\log(2)\frac{\partial}{\partial a}(p_a + p_b + p_c + p_d) = 0,$$

the proof is complete. □

As explained in the proof of Theorem 4.1, the entropy converges for all n, not just for $n \in W$:

Theorem 9.2. *As $n \to \infty$ the entropy per edge of matchings on G_n of the measure $\mu_n(a, b, c, d)$ converges to*

$$\mathrm{ent}(a,b,c,d) = \frac{1}{\pi}\left(L(\pi p_a) + L(\pi p_b) + L(\pi p_c) + L(\pi p_d)\right),$$

where p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d are given by (8.6).

Intriguingly, this formula can be used to show that when each of a, b, c, d is less than the sum of the others (the only case in which the entropy $\mathrm{ent}(s, t)$ is non-zero), $\mathrm{ent}(s, t)$ is equal to $1/\pi$ times the volume of a three-dimensional ideal hyperbolic pyramid, whose vertices in the upper-half-space model are the vertex at infinity and the four vertices of the cyclic quadrilateral of Euclidean edge lengths a, c, b, d in cyclic order (otherwise the entropy is 0). We have no conceptual explanation for this coincidence.

We do not even fully understand why the limiting behavior of the measures μ_n, viewed as a function of a, b, c, d, turns out to be symmetrical in its four arguments. This symmetry is not merely combinatorial, since it emerges only in the limit as the size of the torus goes to infinity. R. Baxter suggests (in personal communication) that it is almost certainly the same symmetry that occurs in the checkerboard Ising model. In that setting it can be proved using the Yang-Baxter relation (see [JM, MR]).

9.2. **Entropy as a function of tilt.** Given a tilt (s,t) satisfying $|s|+|t|<2$, we claim that there is a unique (up to scale) 4-tuple of weights a,b,c,d satisfying the conditional uniformity property $ab=cd$ and such that the average tilt of $\mu_{a,b,c,d}$ is (s,t). To determine a,b,c,d, we note that p_a,p_b,p_c,p_d are determined by the equations (1.4)–(1.7). To solve these equations, note that (1.7) can be written

$$\cos(\pi(p_a-p_b))-\cos(\pi(p_a+p_b))=\cos(\pi(p_c-p_d))-\cos(\pi(p_c+p_d)),$$

and so

$$\cos(\pi s/2)-\cos(\pi(p_a+p_b))=\cos(\pi t/2)-\cos(\pi-\pi(p_a+p_b)),$$

giving

$$2\cos(\pi(p_a+p_b))=\cos(\pi s/2)-\cos(\pi t/2).$$

This combined with (1.4) gives (1.8), where the values of $\cos^{-1}$ are taken from $[0,\pi]$ (to see why, notice that $\cos^{-1}((\cos(\pi s/2)-\cos(\pi t/2))/2)=\pi(p_a+p_b)$, which is between 0 and π).

Finally we can determine a,b,c,d as functions of the tilt by

$$a=\sin(\pi p_a),\ \ b=\sin(\pi p_b),\ \ c=\sin(\pi p_c),\ \ d=\sin(\pi p_d).$$

10. Concavity of the entropy

Theorem 10.1. *The entropy per edge* $\mathrm{ent}(s,t)$ *is a strictly concave function of* s,t *over the range* $|s|+|t|\le 2$.

Proof. We show that the Hessian (matrix of second derivatives) is negative definite, that is, $\mathrm{ent}_{ss}(s,t)<0$, $\mathrm{ent}_{tt}(s,t)<0$, and $\mathrm{ent}_{ss}(s,t)\mathrm{ent}_{tt}(s,t)-\mathrm{ent}_{st}(s,t)^2>0$, for all s,t, except at the four points $(s,t)=(\pm2,0)$ or $(0,\pm2)$.

A computation using Theorem 9.2 and equations (1.8) gives

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{ent}_s(s,t) &= \frac{\partial \mathrm{ent}}{\partial p_a}\frac{\partial p_a}{\partial s}+\cdots+\frac{\partial \mathrm{ent}}{\partial p_d}\frac{\partial p_d}{\partial s}\\ &= -\frac{1}{4}\log\left(\frac{\sin(\pi p_a)}{\sin(\pi p_b)}\right).\end{aligned}$$

A second differentiation yields

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2 \mathrm{ent}(s,t)}{\partial s^2} &= \frac{-\pi}{32\sin(\pi(p_a+p_b))\sin(\pi p_a)\sin(\pi p_b)}\\ &\quad\times\left(\sin^2\left(\frac{\pi t}{2}\right)+\frac{(\cos(\frac{\pi s}{2})+\cos(\frac{\pi t}{2}))^2}{2}\right),\end{aligned}$$

and this quantity is strictly negative except at the points $(s,t)=(\pm2,0),(0,\pm2)$.

A similar calculation holds for $\mathrm{ent}_{tt}(s,t)$.

We have

$$\mathrm{ent}_{st}(s,t)=\frac{-\pi}{32}\frac{\sin(\pi s/2)\sin(\pi t/2)}{\sin(\pi p_a)\sin(\pi p_b)\sin(\pi(p_a+p_b))}.$$

Finally,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{ent}_{ss}\mathrm{ent}_{tt}-\mathrm{ent}_{st}^2 &= \left(\frac{\pi}{32\sin(\pi(p_a+p_b))\sin(\pi p_a)\sin(\pi p_b)}\right)^2\\ \times\Bigg[&\left(\sin^2\left(\frac{\pi t}{2}\right)+\frac{(\cos(\frac{\pi s}{2})+\cos(\frac{\pi t}{2}))^2}{2}\right)\left(\sin^2\left(\frac{\pi s}{2}\right)+\frac{(\cos(\frac{\pi s}{2})+\cos(\frac{\pi t}{2}))^2}{2}\right)\\ &\qquad -\sin^2\left(\frac{\pi s}{2}\right)\sin^2\left(\frac{\pi t}{2}\right)\Bigg],\end{aligned}$$

which is clearly positive. □

11. Proof of Theorem 8.3

In what follows, we must be careful to distinguish the differential dw from the product $d \cdot w$ (we will write the product as wd to avoid confusion). Let $z = e^{i\theta}$, $w = e^{i\phi}$, and $r(z) = cd + (a+bz)^2/(2z)$ as before. Then (see (7.14))

$$\begin{aligned} p_a &= \frac{a}{4\pi^2}\int_{S^1}\int_{S^1}\frac{w(b+a/z)}{c^2+2rw+w^2d^2}\cdot\frac{dw}{iw}\cdot\frac{dz}{iz}\\ &= \frac{-a}{4\pi^2}\int_{S^1}\frac{(b+a/z)dz}{z}\int_{S^1}\frac{dw}{(wd-\alpha c)(wd-\beta c)}.\end{aligned}$$

Recall (see the second-to-last paragraph of Subsection 7.1) that when $|z| = 1$, $|\beta(z)c| > d$ always, and $|\alpha(z)c| < d$ if and only if $\theta \in (-\theta_0, \theta_0)$ (remember that we defined $\theta_0 = \pi$ in the case $a \geq b + c + d$). If $|\alpha(z)c| < d$, then the residue of $((wd - \alpha c)(wd - \beta c))^{-1}$ is

$$\frac{1}{(\alpha-\beta)cd}.$$

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} p_a &= \frac{-a}{4\pi^2}\frac{2\pi i}{cd}\int_{\theta=-\theta_0}^{\theta=\theta_0}\frac{b+a/z}{z(\alpha-\beta)}\,dz\\ &= \frac{-ai}{2\pi cd}\int_{\theta=-\theta_0}^{\theta=\theta_0}\frac{(bz+a)\,dz}{2z^2\sqrt{(\frac{r}{cd}-1)(\frac{r}{cd}+1)}},\end{aligned}$$

and recalling the definition of r and simplifying yields

$$p_a = \frac{-ai}{2\pi}\int_{\theta=-\theta_0}^{\theta=\theta_0}\frac{dz}{z\sqrt{(a+bz)^2+4zcd}}.$$

We don't have to worry about keeping track of the sign of the square root since we know that we want $p_a \geq 0$. In fact we only need to be careful about the sign when we get to (11.1), below.

This integral can be explicitly evaluated, giving

$$p_a = \frac{i}{2\pi}\left[\log\left(\frac{a^2+(ab+2cd)z+a\sqrt{(a+bz)^2+4zcd}}{z}\right)\right]_{e^{-i\theta_0}}^{e^{i\theta_0}}.$$

This expression can be simplified using the variable (or rather, one of the two variables) $w = w(z)$ such that $(a + bz)^2/z + (c + wd)^2/w = 0$: the expression under

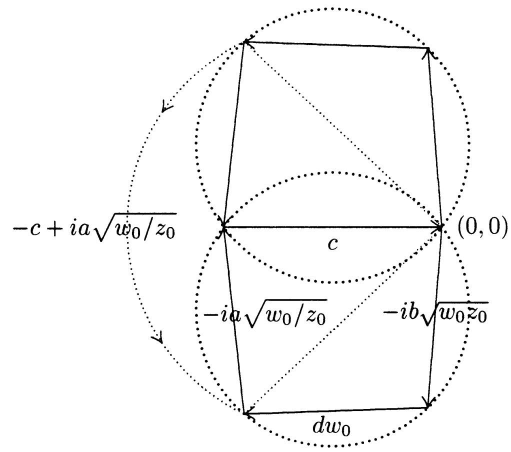

FIGURE 7. The integral defining p_a. Note that the angle between the two dotted rays at the origin is θ_a. (Recall that $\theta_a = 2\pi p_a$ is the angle of arc cut off by the edge a.)

the square root is then

$$(a+bz)^2 + 4zcd = z\left(-\frac{(c+wd)^2}{w} + 4cd\right) = \frac{-z}{w}(c-wd)^2.$$

Plugging this in yields

(11.1)

$$\begin{aligned} p_a &= \frac{i}{2\pi}\left[\log\left(\frac{a^2}{z} + ab + 2cd + a(c-wd)\frac{i}{\sqrt{wz}}\right)\right]_{e^{-i\theta_0}}^{e^{i\theta_0}} \\ &= \frac{i}{2\pi}\left[\log\left(2cd + \frac{a}{\sqrt{z}}\left\{\frac{a}{\sqrt{z}} + b\sqrt{z} + i\left(\frac{c}{\sqrt{w}} + d\sqrt{w}\right)\right\} - 2ida\frac{\sqrt{w}}{\sqrt{z}}\right)\right]_{e^{-i\theta_0}}^{e^{i\theta_0}}. \end{aligned}$$

Up until (11.1), changing the sign of the square root will only change the sign of the integral. In (11.1), we choose the sign of $\sqrt{w/z}$ (or, what is the same, the sign of $\sqrt{wz}$) so that the expression in curly brackets is zero (cf. (7.16)). We then have

$$p_a = \frac{i}{2\pi}\left[\log\left(-2d\left(-c + ia\sqrt{\frac{w}{z}}\right)\right)\right]_{e^{-i\theta_0}}^{e^{i\theta_0}}.$$

Had we chosen the other sign we would have gotten a similar expression with c and d interchanged.

But now Figure 7 (whose lower quadrilateral is a rotation of Figure 6, and whose upper quadrilateral is the reflection of the lower across the edge c) shows that, as θ runs from $-\theta_0$ to θ_0, the quantity $-c + ia\sqrt{w/z}$ sweeps out an angle of θ_a, the angle of arc cut off by edge a in a cyclic quadrilateral of edge lengths c, a, d, b. Thus $p_a = \theta_a/(2\pi)$. In the case $a > b + c + d$, one can similarly show that $-c + ia\sqrt{w/z}$ sweeps out an angle of 2π, and thus $p_a = 1$.

Finally, to prove the formula (8.6), recall the well-known formula for the radius r of the circumcircle of a triangle of sides a, b, c:

$$r^2 = \frac{a^2b^2c^2}{(a+b+c)(a+b-c)(a-b+c)(-a+b+c)}. \tag{11.2}$$

From this one can compute, for a cyclic quadrilateral of sides a, c, b, d, the length s of the diagonal having the b and c edges on the same side:

$$s^2 = \frac{(ab+cd)(ac+bd)}{ad+bc}.$$

Plugging this value back into the formula (11.2) with a, b, c replaced with a, d, s gives

$$r^2 = \frac{(ab+cd)(ac+bd)(ad+bc)}{(a+b+c-d)(a+b-c+d)(a-b+c+d)(-a+b+c+d)},$$

from which (8.6) follows by $p_a = \pi^{-1}\sin^{-1}(a/(2r))$.

12. The PDE

Under the assumption that the entropy-maximizing function f is C^2, the Euler-Lagrange equation for f is

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\mathrm{ent}_s(f_x, f_y)) + \frac{d}{dy}(\mathrm{ent}_t(f_x, f_y)) = 0,$$

where $\mathrm{ent}_s, \mathrm{ent}_t$ are the partial derivatives with respect to the first and second variable, respectively. This equation holds only at points where the tilt (f_x, f_y) is non-extremal, i.e., satisfies $|f_x| + |f_y| < 2$; otherwise, perturbing f will mess up the Lipschitz condition. In case f is only C^1, this equation still holds in a distributional sense: it is true when integrated against any smooth test function g vanishing on the boundary (and such that $f + \varepsilon g$ is 2-Lipschitz for sufficiently small $\varepsilon > 0$). In such a case f is called a weak solution [GT].

We computed in the proof of Theorem 10.1 that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathrm{ent}_s(s,t) &= -\frac{1}{4}\log\left(\frac{\sin(\pi p_a)}{\sin(\pi p_b)}\right), \text{ and} \\ \mathrm{ent}_t(s,t) &= -\frac{1}{4}\log\left(\frac{\sin(\pi p_c)}{\sin(\pi p_d)}\right). \end{aligned} \tag{12.1}$$

Plugging in from (1.8) and simplifying yields the following PDE:

Theorem 12.1. *At the points where the entropy-maximizing function f is C^2 and has non-extremal tilt, it satisfies the PDE*

$$\begin{aligned} \left(2\left(1-D^2\right) - \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi f_x}{2}\right)\right) f_{xx} \quad &+ \quad 2\sin\left(\frac{\pi f_x}{2}\right)\sin\left(\frac{\pi f_y}{2}\right) f_{xy} \\ &+ \quad \left(2\left(1-D^2\right) - \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi f_y}{2}\right)\right) f_{yy} = 0, \end{aligned}$$

where $D = \frac{1}{2}\left(\cos(\pi f_x/2) - \cos(\pi f_y/2)\right)$.

13. Conjectures and open problems

In this article, p_a, p_b, p_c, and p_d were defined in relation to the dimer model on an $n \times n$ torus, in the thermodynamic limit as $n \to \infty$. We have proved no corresponding interpretation of these quantities for the thermodynamic limit of planar regions. However, our results on the asymptotic height function associated with large regions imply that, in a patch of a large region where the associated asymptotic height function f satisfies $(\partial f/\partial x, \partial f/\partial y) = (s,t)$, the local density of a-edges minus the local density of b-edges equals $p_a - p_b$, and likewise for the c- and d-edges. To be precise here, one would define local densities as averages over mesoscopic patches within the tiling (which we recall are defined as patches whose absolute size goes to infinity but whose relative size goes to zero).

Conjecture 13.1. *The local densities of a-edges, b-edges, c-edges, and d-edges are given by p_a, p_b, p_c, and p_d, respectively, in the thermodynamic limit.*

Here our use of the phrase "thermodynamic limit" carries along with it the supposition that we are dealing with an infinite sequence of ever-larger planar regions whose normalized boundary height functions converge to some particular boundary asymptotic height function, and that the subregions we are studying stay away from the boundary by at least some mesoscopic distance.

The local density of a-edges is just the average of the inclusion probabilities of all the a-edges within a mesoscopic patch. The authors have empirically observed that such averages do not arise from the smoothing out of genuine fluctuations. Rather, it seems that apart from degenerate cases, all the a-edges within a patch have roughly the same inclusion probability. These degenerate cases occur in patches where the asymptotic height function is not smooth (so that $(s,t) = (\partial f/\partial x, \partial f/\partial y)$ is undefined), or where the tilt is nearly extremal (i.e., $|s|+|t|$ is close to 2). Hence we believe:

Conjecture 13.2. *In the thermodynamic limit, the probability of seeing a domino in a particular location is given by the suitable member of the 4-tuple (p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d), wherever the tilt (s,t) (given by the partial derivatives of the entropy-maximizing height function) is defined and satisfies $|s|+|t| < 2$.*

This is the conjectural interpretation of p_a, p_b, p_c, p_d that was alluded to in Subsection 1.1. We are two removes from being able to prove it in the sense that we do not even know how to prove Conjecture 13.1.

The restriction $|s|+|t| < 2$ deserves some comment. It is not hard to devise a large region composed of long diagonal "herringbones" that has only one tiling (see the final section of [CEP]). For such regions, the edge-inclusion probabilities can be made to fluctuate erratically between 0 and 1. Such regions have asymptotic height functions in which the tilt is extremal everywhere it is defined, so we can rule out such behavior on the basis of tilt.

Incidentally, a conjecture analogous to Conjecture 13.2 can be made for the case of lozenge tilings (which can be studied using the methods of this paper, by setting one edge weight equal to 0). Here the analogue of Conjecture 13.1 is actually a theorem; that is, for lozenges there are only three kinds of orientations of tiles, so that their relative frequencies, which jointly have two degrees of freedom, both determine and are determined by the local tilt (s,t) of the asymptotic height function.

Straying further into the unknown, we might inquire about the probabilities of finite (colored) configurations of tiles. Here again we are guided by the *Ansatz* that what is true for large tori should be true for large finite regions as well. Given any tilt (s,t) satisfying $|s|+|t| \leq 2$, choose weights a,b,c,d satisfying $ab = cd$ and giving tilt (s,t) in accordance with our earlier formulas, and use the formula in Proposition 8.5 to define a measure $\mu_{s,t}$ on the space of domino tilings of the plane. This measure is invariant under color-preserving translations and satisfies the property of "conditional uniformity"—given any finite region, the conditional distribution upon fixing a tiling of the rest of the plane is uniform. Proposition 8.5 invites us to surmise:

Conjecture 13.3. *Let $|s|+|t| \leq 2$, and let a,b,c,d be weights satisfying $ab = cd$ such that the average height function for weighted torus tilings has tilt (s,t). Then for any colored configuration of dominos, the probability of finding it in a specified location in a random $n \times n$ torus tiling converges as $n \to \infty$ to the value given by the measure $\mu_{s,t}$.*

Proposition 8.5 approaches this claim, but it restricts n to lie in a large subset W of the integers.

The measures $\mu_{s,t}$ have positive entropy whenever $|s|+|t| < 2$. Furthermore, the coupling function calculations in the proof of Proposition 8.4 show that these measures are mixing (correlations between distant cylinder sets tend to 0) and hence ergodic. We believe that these measures can be characterized uniquely by the properties mentioned so far, although we cannot prove it.

Conjecture 13.4. *Every ergodic, conditionally uniform measure on the set of tilings of the plane that is invariant under color-preserving translations and has positive entropy is of the form $\mu_{s,t}$ for some (s,t) satisfying $|s|+|t| < 2$.*

Assuming the truth of Conjecture 13.3, it would be natural to advance a further claim that would come close to being the final, definitive answer to the question Kasteleyn raised nearly four decades ago:

Conjecture 13.5. *In the thermodynamic limit for a sequence of finite regions converging to a fixed shape, the probability of seeing any colored configuration of dominos is given by the measure $\mu_{s,t}$, wherever the tilt (s,t) given by the variational principle is defined and satisfies $|s|+|t| < 2$.*

Finally, we discuss the seemingly miraculous geometric interpretation of our formula for the entropy. As was pointed out in Section 1, when each of a,b,c,d is less than the sums of the others, the (asymptotic) entropy of torus tilings with weights a,b,c,d equals $1/\pi$ times the volume of a three-dimensional ideal hyperbolic pyramid, whose vertices in the upper-half-space model are the vertex at infinity and the four vertices of the cyclic quadrilateral of Euclidean edge lengths a,c,b,d (in cyclic order). Notice that we needn't assume any particular scaling for the weights, because homotheties $(x,y,z) \mapsto (rx,ry,rz)$ are isometries of hyperbolic space.

Open Problem 13.1. *What do tilings have to do with hyperbolic geometry?*

Explaining that connection is one of the most intriguing open problems in this area.

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