

Math 833

Introduction:

Week 1

integrable probability and branching graphs.

Central question of probability theory:
asymptotic behavior of large stochastic systems.

Approach of integrable probability: focus on
special exactly-solvable or integrable cases,
where the systems can be described by means of
exact formulas for observables
↖ a vague notion

Benefits:

1. Formulas allow much finer asymptotic results
2. Once we understood integrable case, attacking generic systems becomes simpler: we have a base for predictions and conjectures.

Example 1: You are given a sequence of random variables $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n$ (on the same probability space)

Question: what is the distribution of their sum $S_n = Z_1 + Z_2 + \dots + Z_n$?

In general, this is a hard question. Even if Z_i are independent, you either need to compute $(n-1)$ convolutions (integrals over $\mathbb{R}$) or make the Fourier transform (= compute characteristic function), multiply the results, and then make the inverse Fourier transform.

However, there are special nice cases.

We show one example here - another one will appear in mid-semester homework.

Theorem 1: Let z_i be independent Bernoulli random variables

$$z_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{with probability } p, \\ 0, & \text{with probability } 1-p. \end{cases}$$

Then $S_n = z_1 + \dots + z_n$ is a Binomial random variable

$$\text{Prob}(S_n = k) = p^k (1-p)^{n-k} \binom{n}{k}, \quad 0 \leq k \leq n.$$

Proof: $S_n = k$ means that k out of n z_i came $z_i = 1$ and $n-k$ others came $z_i = 0$. This has probability $p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$. Binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{k}$ arises from counting all ways to choose which z_i are equal to 1. 

The proof is not difficult. But we had to somehow guess to look into i.i.d. Bernoulli case! For generic $(z_1, \dots, z_n)$ this is much harder!

Is this useful for asymptotic questions? Very much!

Theorem 2:

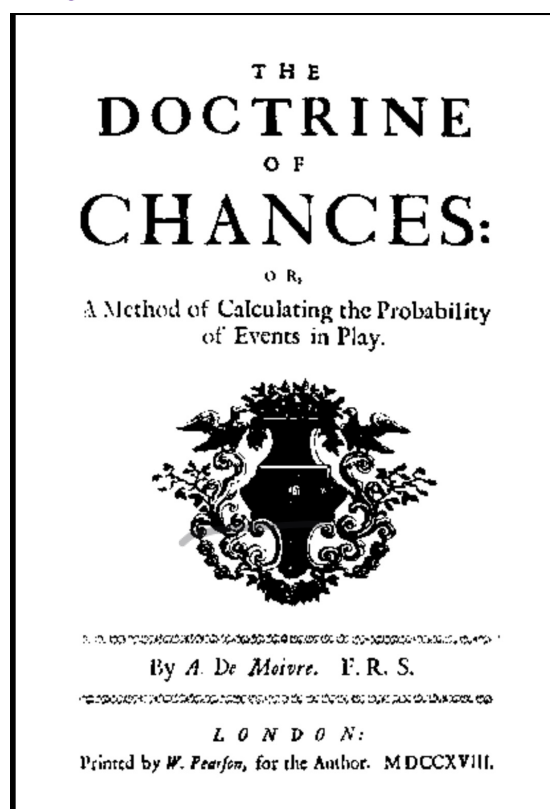
$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty}$

$$\frac{S_n - np}{\sqrt{p(1-p)}}$$

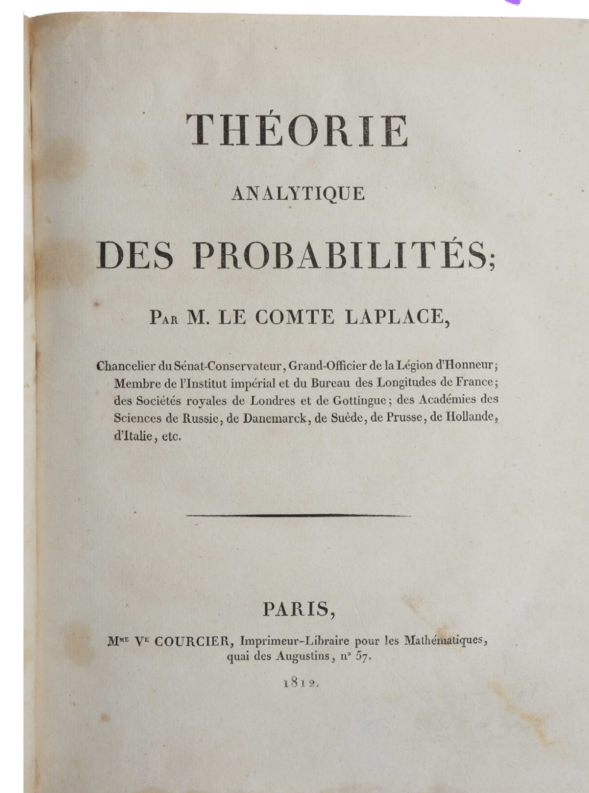
$$\stackrel{d}{=} N(0, 1)$$

convergence in distribution

Gaussian random variable of mean 0 and variance 1.



← First proofs →
rely on Theorem 1
and asymptotic expansion of
factorials in $\binom{n}{k}$



- This was the very first instance of Central Limit Theorem
- This was the way Gaussian distribution first appeared.
- Later greatly extended (independent Z_i , weakly-dependent, martingales, etc)

Example 2: Take $N \times N$ real symmetric random matrix. and suppose that the joint law of its matrix elements is known.

Question: What is the distribution of its N (real) eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_N$?

In general, this is a very hard problem. Eigenvalues are zeros of characteristic polynomial, which is a degree N polynomial with coefficients quite non-trivially depending on the matrix elements.

However, for some special choices of the (random) matrix elements, the answer is quite simple.

Theorem 3: Let X be $N \times N$ matrix with independent Gaussian $N(0,1)$ matrix elements, Set $M = \frac{X + X^t}{2}$

Then the joint law of eigenvalues $\lambda_1 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_N$ of M has density proportional to

$$\prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq N} (\lambda_j - \lambda_i) \prod_{i=1}^N \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda_i^2}{2}\right)$$

Gaussian
Orthogonal
Ensemble
(GOE)

- At $N=1$ this is the Gaussian density
- General N proof will be given later in this class
- There are similar computations for XX^t and for complex and quaternion matrices
- Origin: Representation theory (1920s), Multidimensional statistics (1930s), High energy physics (1950s)

Is this useful for asymptotic statements? Very much!

Theorem 4: Let $\lambda_1 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_N$ be eigenvalues of GOE.

Then

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E} N^{1/6} (\lambda_N - \sqrt{2N}) = F_1$$

convergence in distribution

Note scaling!

$\beta=1$ (GOE)
Tracy-Widom distribution.

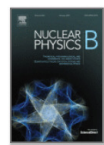
On orthogonal and symplectic matrix ensembles

[Craig A. Tracy](#) & [Harold Widom](#)

[Communications in Mathematical Physics](#) **177**, 727–754(1996) | [Cite this article](#)



Nuclear Physics B
Volume 402, Issue 3, 9 August 1993, Pages 709-728



The spectrum edge of random matrix ensembles

[P.J. Forrester](#) ✉

Proofs are based on the technology of Pfaffian point processes applied to the result of Theorem 3.

- This was the very first appearance of the Tracy-Widom distribution
- Later F_1 was shown to be the scaling limit of largest eigenvalues of very general random matrices.

Example 3: Take any probability measure μ on $\mathbb{R}$.

Consider monic orthogonal polynomials $p_n(x)$:

$$\begin{cases} p_n(x) = x^n + \dots \\ \int_{\mathbb{R}} p_n(x) p_m(x) \mu(dx) = 0, \text{ unless } n=m. \end{cases}$$

Question: what are they explicitly?

There is a general recurrent algorithm;

$$p_n(x) = x^n + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} C_n^k \cdot p_k(x), \text{ where}$$

$$C_n^k = - \frac{\int x^n p_k(x) \mu(dx)}{\int p_k(x) p_k(x) \mu(dx)}$$

Check that
this works!

But there are many integrations involved and the final answer is unclear.

However, there are much better special cases!

Theorem 5: Suppose $\mu = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right) dx$ [Gaussian weight]

Then $p_n(x)$ are Hermite polynomials

$$H_n(x) = (-1)^n e^{\frac{x^2}{2}} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)^n e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} = n! \sum_{m=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \frac{(-1)^m}{m!(n-2m)!} \frac{x^{n-2m}}{2^m}$$

Proof: For $k < n$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int H_n(x) x^k e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx &= (-1)^n \int x^k \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)^n e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx \quad (\text{integrate by parts}) \\ &= (-1)^{n-1} \int k x^{k-1} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)^{n-1} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx = \dots = 0 \quad (\text{integrate by parts again}) \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

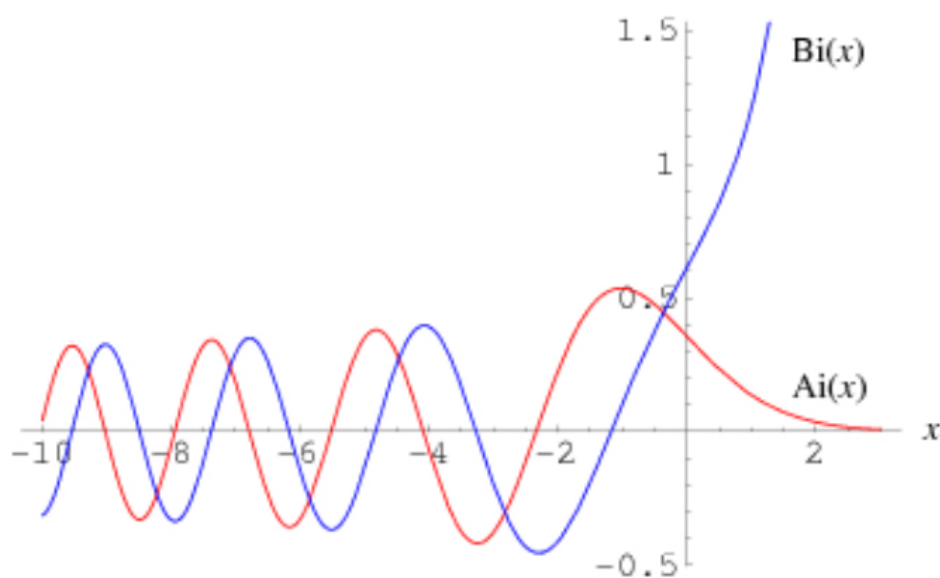
Proof is not hard, but is not going to work for generic μ .
We somehow needed to guess that this weight or polynomials are nice.

And again there are asymptotic statements. For instance:

Theorem 6: Let $x_1^n < x_2^n < \dots < x_n^n$ be n roots of Hermite polynomial $H_n(x)$. Then for $k=0,1,2,\dots$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{1/6} (x_{n-k}^n - 2\sqrt{n}) = a_k$$

i -th largest zero of the Airy function $Ai(x)$



$Ai(x)$ is a solution to

$$f''(x) = x f(x), \quad \text{which decays as } x \rightarrow +\infty.$$

-
- Theorem is not hard to prove using the formula for Hermite polynomials
 - The same a_k appear in largest zeros of very general orthogonal polynomials.
(but this is much harder to show)

We saw so far:

- Among sequences of random variables, *i.i.d. Bernoulli* are especially nice.
 - Among random matrices, *Gaussian Orthogonal ensemble* is especially nice.
 - Among polynomials, *Hermite polynomials* are especially nice
-

These are *exactly-solvable* or *integrable* cases.

How do you find them?

Often some luck is involved in the first discoveries.
Yet we want to develop structural guiding principles.

Our approach to the hunt on integrable stochastic systems:

Let mathematics do the work!

In this class we obtain such systems as answers to classification problems.

They involve:

- Large dimension N or even $N = \infty$.
- Invariance under groups of symmetries.

Eventually symmetries give rise to integrability.

Back to example 1.

I.i.d. Bernoulli as an answer.

De Finetti's theorem. Let $z_1, z_2, \dots$ be an infinite sequence of random variables taking values 0/1, such that its distribution is invariant under all finite permutations of coordinates.

Then $\{z_i\}$ is a mixture of i.i.d. Bernoulli's.

This means that the laws of $\{z_i\}$ are parameterized by measures μ on $[0, 1]$. In order to sample z_i , one first samples $p \in [0, 1]$ according to μ and then samples $\{z_i\}$ as a sequence of i.i.d. Bernoulli with $\text{Prob}(z_i = 1) = p$.

In particular ergodic (or extreme) invariant measures are i.i.d. Bernoulli
do not have to understand these words — will be explained in class

Back to example 2

GOE as an answer

Consider infinite real-symmetric matrices $\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \end{pmatrix}$

Any such matrix can be conjugated by an element u of the infinite-dimensional orthogonal group $O(\infty)$

$$u = \begin{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} N \times N \\ \text{orthogonal} \\ \text{matrix} \end{matrix} & \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \end{matrix} & \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \end{matrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

Question: What are all possible infinite random real-symmetric matrices with $O(\infty)$ -invariant distribution?

Answer: There is a complete and concise classification and GOE is one of them.

[stay tuned to the class in order to learn about others!]

Back to example 3. Hermite polynomials as an answer

Consider a sequence of polynomials $p_n(x) = x^n + \dots$, $n=0,1,2,\dots$

It is called an **Appell sequence** if for each n

$$p_{n-1}(x) = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} p_n(x)$$

Question: What are all possible Appell sequences of **real-rooted** polynomials?

$\uparrow$
all zeros of $p_n(x)$ are real

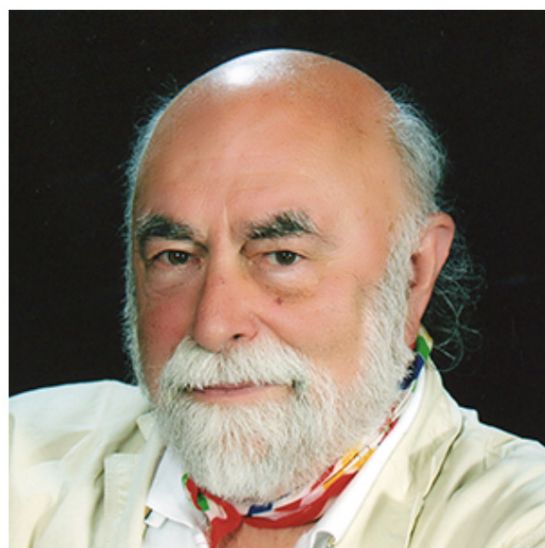
Answer: There is a (short) complete list and **Hermite polynomials** $p_n(x) = H_n(x)$ are in this list.

[Full theorem is coming next week!]

Summary:

Classification problems involving large dimensions and symmetries give rise to many distinguished stochastic systems of integrable probability.

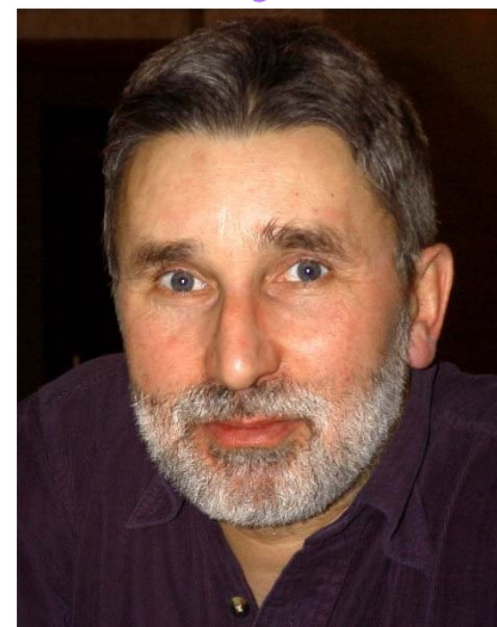
A unifying framework for such problems has a name
identification of boundaries of branching graphs.
The setting is largely developed by Russian mathematicians



Anatoly
Vershik

and

Sergei
Kerov



This is the main topic of our class.