Random trees

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5 February 2009

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Outline

- ▶ Introduction Motivation: Physics, Mathematics, Biology, ...
- Principal questions
- Models
- Methods
- Results

Random Walks

- Universal theoretical tool: diffusion, functional integrals, ...
- ► No intrinsic structure: properties come from imbedding into an ambient space, e.g. ℝ^d
- Strong universality results central limit theorem
- Rigorous continuum theory, Wiener integral, potential theory

Random geometry

- Intrinsic and extrinsic degrees of freedom
- Trees
- Surfaces: Phase boundaries, membranes, string theory, 2-dimensional quantum gravity, ...
- ► Higher dimensional manifolds: gravity in dimensions ≥ 3, mainly numerical results
- General graphs, networks

Random trees

Physical tree-like objects: branched polymers



 Surfaces and higher dimensional manifolds can have a phase where they degenerate into trees



Random trees

Secondary structure of macromolecules, e.g. RNA



(borrowed from Scott K. Silverman scott@scs.uiuc.edu)

Problem: find the secondary (and the tertiary) structure from the base sequence



I. "kissing hairpins" & interlaced strands are rare (unfavored by kinematics & topology)

2. RNA can (to some extent) be considered as a **planar tree**



Family trees

Phylogenetic trees



Immunodeficieny virus (POL polyprotein)

 Fragmentation and coagulation models, river networks, blood vessels, search algorithms, citation networks, random surfaces, etc. etc.



Random trees

- Extensive mathematics literature: branching processes etc.
- Theory of continuous trees (Aldous et al.)
- Has been used to construct a theory of continuous random surfaces (Le Gall et al.)
- Today we will consider trees which are discrete
- Rooted planar tree graphs



Two main approaches

1. Equilibrium statistical mechanics

 $\mathcal{T}=$ Set of graphs, μ a probability measure on \mathcal{T}

$$\mu(T)=Z^{-1}e^{-eta E(T)}$$

2. Growing trees $T_n \mapsto T_{n+1}$, time discrete

Growth rules induce a probability measure on \mathcal{T}_t , the trees that can arise in t steps

- Sometimes (1) is more natural
- Sometimes (2) is more natural
- Sometimes (1) and (2) are known to be equivalent

Problems to study

- What are the prinicipal characteristics of the trees under consideration?
- Universality classes
- Distribution of vertex degrees
- Correlations
- ► Fractal dimensions: Hausdorff, spectral, ...
- The "shape" of trees

Galton-Watson trees

• $p_n = \text{probability of having } n \text{ descendents, } \sum_n p_n = 1,$ $m = \sum_n n p_n$



- m < 1 subcritical, m > 1 supercritical, m = 1 critical
- n generations at time t = n 1 if no extinction
- Well understood

Preferential attachment trees

In each timestep one new edge is attached to a preexisting tree



Probability of attaching to a vertex v of order k

$$P_v = rac{w_k}{\sum_k n_k w_w}, \ \ w_k \geq 0.$$

• Growth rule induces a probability measure on T_t .

Local trees

 \blacktriangleright Weight factor of a tree T

$$W(T) = \prod_{i \in T} w_{\sigma(i)}$$

 $\sigma(i)=$ order of the vertex i

Partition functions

$$Z_N = \sum_{T:|T|=N} W(T), \quad Z = \sum_N \zeta^N Z_N, \; \; |\zeta| < \zeta_0$$

- Generating function $g(z) = \sum_n w_n z^{n-1}$, radius of convergence ho
- Main equation



Local trees



Algebraically

$$Z(\zeta)=\zeta g(Z(\zeta))=\zeta\sum_{i=0}^\infty w_{i+1}Z^i(\zeta)$$

• Define
$$Z_0 = \lim_{\zeta \to \zeta_0} Z(\zeta)$$

• If $Z_0 < \rho$ then we say that the trees are *generic*.

$$\blacktriangleright \ Z(\zeta) - Z_0 \sim \sqrt{\zeta_0 - \zeta}$$



Here we have defined

$$h(Z)=rac{g(Z)}{Z}$$

and the weights have been scaled so that ho=1

Define

$$\mu(T)=Z_0^{-1}\zeta_0^{|T|}\prod_{i\in T}w_{\sigma(i)}$$

Probability measure

This measure is the same as the one obtained from a Galton-Watson process with

$$p_n=\zeta_0 w_{n+1}Z_0^{n-1}$$

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Another equivalence

- Preferential attachment trees \approx Causal trees
- Weight proportional to the number of *causal labelings*



More branchings, more ways to grow

Work with B. Durhuus and J. Wheater

• Let $V_T(R)$ =volume of a ball of radius R centered on the root

$$\langle V_T(R)
angle \sim R^{d_H}, \;\; R o \infty \;\; ext{defines} \; d_H$$

Let p_T(t) = probability that a random walker is back at the root after t steps on T

$$egin{aligned} &\langle p_T(t)
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Averages taken w.r.t. a measure on infinite trees

$$u_N = Z_N^{-1} \prod_{i \in T} w_{\sigma(i)}$$

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 as $N o \infty$

► Theorem.

(i)
$$d_H = 2$$

(ii)
$$d_s = 4/3$$

- There is a unique infinite simple path whose outgrowths are critical GW-trees
- (iv) Vertex degrees are uncorrelated

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- One spine due to entropy
- \blacktriangleright The number of rooted planar trees with ℓ edges is

$$N(\ell) \sim \ell^{-3/2} C^\ell$$

$$\max\{N(\ell_1)N(\ell_2):\ell_1+\ell_2=\ell\}pprox N(\ell)$$

 Main tool for analysing the spectral dimension is the generating function

$$Q_T(x) = \sum_{t=0}^\infty p_T(t) (1-x)^{t/2}$$

and its ensemble average

$$egin{aligned} Q(x) &= \langle Q_T(x)
angle \ Q(x) &\sim x^{-1/3} \Longrightarrow d_s = 4/3 \end{aligned}$$

Non-generic trees

- Critical exponents change
- There can arise a vertex of infinite order in the thermodynamic limit (Bialas, Burda, Johnston) - numerical work
- Proven in a special case (S. Stefansson)

Results obtained with F. David, P. di Francesco and E. Guitter

- In general many infinite simple paths
- $d_H = \infty$ in many cases (all cases?)
- Broad distribution of sizes of subtrees
- Lesson: The vertex degree distribution alone does not characterize a random tree

Work with F. David, M. Dukes and S. Stefansson

- A model of randomly growing rooted, planar trees
- Degree of vertices is bounded by an integer d
- The parameters of the model are

0	$w_{1,2}$	$w_{1,3}$	$w_{1,d-1}$	$w_{1,d}$
$w_{2,1}$	$w_{2,2}$	$w_{2,3}$	$w_{2,d-1}$	$w_{2,d}$
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a symmetric matrix of non-negative partitioning weights.

$$w_i \;\;=\;\; rac{i}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{i+1} w_{j,i+2-j}.$$

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Given a fixed initial tree

- (i) Choose a vertex v of degree i with relative probability w_i .
- (ii) Partition the edges incident with v into two disjoint sets, V containing k-1 adjacent edges and V' containing the rest, with relative probability $w_{k,i+2-k}$.
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A tree



























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- When w_{i,j} = 0 unless j = 1 or i = 1 it reduces to the preferential attachment model R. Albert and A. L. Barabasi et al.
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Main problems

- Distribution of vertex degrees
- Correlations between vertex degrees of neighbouring vertices
- Shape of trees Hausdorff dimension

If we consider linear splitting weights

 $w_i = ai + b$.

the analysis simplifies due to the Euler relation for trees

$$\sum_{i=1}^d n_i(T) = |T|, \quad \sum_{i=1}^d i n_i(T) = 2(|T|-1)$$

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For an infinite tree that has evolved in this way, let ρ_i be the proportion of vertices of degree *i*.

For linear splitting weights and certain not so restrictive conditions, the limiting densities

 ρ_1,\ldots,ρ_d

exist and are the unique positive solution to the linear equations

$$ho_k=-rac{w_k}{w_2}
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FIGURE 4. The value of ρ_3 as given in (2.45) compared to results from simulations. Each point is calculated from 20 trees on 10000 vertices.

A comparison of the theoretical prediction with simulations in the case d=3 and uniform partitioning weights.

$$lpha=rac{w_2}{w_1}, \quad eta=rac{w_3}{w_1}$$

Unbounded vertex degrees

- ► Can solve the equation for \(\rho_i\) with \(d = \infty\) and linear splitting weights
- Perron Frobenius does not work here so a proof of convergence is missing
- ρ_i falls off factorially with i

•
$$\rho_i(w_j = 1) = \frac{1}{e(k-1)!}$$

In a typical infinite tree, what is the proportion of edges whose endpoints have degrees j and k ?

Let $n_{j,k} =$ number of such edges in a finite tree of size t, where the vertex of degree j is closer to the root

Let
$$ho_{j,k} = \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{n_{j,k}}{n}$$
. Then
 $ho_{jk} = -\frac{w_j + w_k}{w_2}
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$$lpha=rac{w_2}{w_1},\quad eta=rac{w_3}{w_1},\quad d=3$$



FIGURE 17. The solution (5.5) for the density ρ_{22} plotted as a function of β for a few values of α . Each datapoint is calculated from simulations of 100 trees on 10000 vertices.

$$\begin{split} \rho_{22} &= \frac{16}{3} \Big(284 \alpha^2 \beta^4 \gamma - 177 \, \alpha^5 \beta \gamma + 3564 \, \alpha^3 + 18 \, \alpha^6 \gamma + 161 \alpha \, \beta^5 \gamma - 873 \, \gamma + 11979 \, \alpha^2 \beta^3 \\ &- 225 \, \alpha^5 - 39 \, \alpha^6 \beta - 207 \, \alpha^5 \gamma + 6516 \, \alpha^2 \beta^4 - 5205 \, \alpha^5 \beta - 1419 \, \alpha^4 \beta \gamma + 996 \, \alpha \beta^5 \\ &- 5994 \, \alpha^4 - 892 \, \alpha^4 \beta^2 \gamma + 1543 \, \alpha^2 \beta^5 - 18 \, \alpha^7 - 668 \, \alpha^3 \beta^4 + 324 \, \alpha^2 \gamma + 909 \, \alpha \beta^3 \gamma \\ &- 2600 \, \alpha^5 \beta^2 - 975 \, \alpha^3 \beta^3 + 222 \, \alpha \beta^6 - 1533 \, \alpha^3 \beta^2 \gamma + 10206 \, \alpha^2 \beta^2 - 11799 \, \alpha^4 \beta \\ &- 5300 \, \alpha^4 \beta^3 - 1521 \, \alpha^3 \beta \gamma + 1899 \, \alpha^2 \beta^2 \gamma + 1059 \, \alpha^2 \beta^3 \gamma + 1269 \, \alpha^3 \beta^2 + 3240 \, \alpha^2 \beta \\ &+ 756 \, \alpha\beta^3 + 4800 \, \alpha^3 \beta + 6 \, \beta^6 \gamma - 11703 \, \alpha^4 \beta^2 + 1728 \, \alpha^2 \beta \gamma - 162 \, \alpha^3 \gamma + 486 \, \beta^2 \gamma \\ &+ 18 \, \beta^4 \gamma + 1530 \, \alpha \beta^4 + 624 \, \alpha \, \beta^4 \gamma - 772 \, \alpha^3 \beta^3 \gamma - 9 \, \alpha^6 + 24 \, \beta^5 \gamma \Big) \Big/ \Big(\big(3 \, \alpha + 2\beta + \gamma + 6 \big) \\ &\times \big(11 \, \alpha^2 + 25 \, \alpha \beta + 5 \, \alpha \gamma + 3 \, \beta \gamma + 12 \, \alpha + 4 \, \beta^2 \big) \, (-\alpha + \gamma) \, (1 - 2 \, \alpha + \beta) \, (7 \, \alpha + 2\beta + \gamma)^2 \Big) \Big) \end{split}$$
• Let T be a tree with ℓ edges and v a vertex of T.

- Denote the graph distance between v and the root by $d_T(v)$.
- We define the radius of T as

$$R_T = rac{1}{2|T|}\sum_{v\in T} d_T(v)\,\sigma(v),$$

▶ The definition of the Hausdorff dimension of the tree, d_H , by the scaling law for large trees $(\ell = |T|)$

$$\langle R_T
angle \ \sim \ \ell^{1/d_H} \qquad \ell
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Structure functions

- ▶ Define q_{ki}(ℓ₁, ℓ₂) = probability that a vertex of order k in a tree of seize ℓ has i right subtrees of total volume ℓ₂ and the the remaining k − i subtrees have a total volume ℓ₁
- These functions satisfy a linear system of equations
- They can be related to the Hausdorff dimension

$$\langle R
angle_{\ell} = rac{\ell+1}{2\ell} \sum_{\ell_2=0}^{\infty} (2\ell_2+1) \sum_{k=1}^d q_{k,k-1}(\ell-\ell_2,\ell_2)$$

Using scaling assumptions about the q functions

$$q_{ki}(\ell_1,\ell-\ell_1)=\ell^{-
ho}\omega_{ki}(\ell_1/\ell)+O(\ell^{
ho+1})$$

we reduced the problem of calculating d_H to finding an eigenvalue of a $\binom{d}{2}\times\binom{d}{2}$ matrix



FIGURE 13. Equation (4.25) compared to simulations. The Hausdorff dimension, d_H , is plotted against $y = w_3/w_2$. The leftmost datapoint is calculated from 50 trees on 50000 vertices and the others are calculated from 50 trees on 10000 vertices.

General solution for d = 3

$$d_{H} = rac{(w_{2,2}-2w_{3,1})+\sqrt{(w_{2,2}-2w_{3,1})^2+8w_{3,1}(w_{2,1}+3w_{3,2})}}{(w_{2,2}-2w_{3,1})+\sqrt{(w_{2,2}-2w_{3,1})^2+16w_{3,1}w_{3,2}}}.$$



Random trees are a universal mathematical tool in science

- It remains to understand what types of behaviour can occur what constitutes a universality class?
- What classes of continuum trees exist?
- Explore relations to SLE and 2d conformal field theory
- Many concrete problems: nongeneric local trees, equilibrium description of splitting vertex trees, spectral properties, etc. etc.
- Knowing the properties of the trees which arise in a physical system (or in some other context) may shed light on the mechanisms that produce the trees
- Export techniques and results from trees to graphs with loops

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