

Quasirandom processes

by Jim Propp (UMass Lowell;
visiting UCB and MSRI)

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Slides for this talk are on-line at

<http://jamespropp.org/opp12.pdf>

Slides for a different version of this talk (with more about quasirandom processes) can be found at

<http://jamespropp.org/cvc11.pdf>

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Quasirandom processes

Consider the sequence $(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) = (.618, .236, .854, \dots)$ whose n th term is the fractional part of n times $(1 + \sqrt{5})/2$.

Nobody would ever call this sequence random, or even *pseudorandom*. But it would be considered *quasirandom* for some purposes, because it's uniformly distributed in $[0, 1]$.

In fact, it's more evenly spread out than a random sequence would typically be: for an interval I in $[0, 1]$ of length L , the discrepancy

$$\#\{1 \leq k \leq n : x_k \in I\} - nL$$

is of magnitude $O(\log n)$ rather than of typical magnitude $O(\sqrt{n})$. In low dimensions, quasirandom sampling gives more accurate estimates of integrals than random sampling.

(There's another usage of the word “quasirandom” current among graph-theorists, tracing back to Chung, Graham and Wilson (1989), but that is a different story.)

Quasirandom processes

I'm a probabilist, so the “integrals” that interest me most are probabilities and expected values, and the measure with respect to which I'm integrating is the probability measure associated with a random process.

(Example: the measure space is the sequence of outcomes of infinitely many flips of a fair coin, where each initial string of length n has probability measure 2^{-n} .)

I'm also a combinatorialist, so the kinds of probabilistic systems I like best are discrete ones, like Markov chains. And I want to quasirandomize these processes by using very simple combinatorial constructions.

Rotors

Quasirandom analogue of a fair coin-flip process:

$$H, T, H, T, H, T, \dots$$

Quasirandom analogue of a fair die-roll process:

$$1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, \dots$$

(This generalizes to arbitrary discrete probability distributions, including ones with infinitely many values and/or irrational probabilities; see “Discrete low-discrepancy sequences” by Angel, Holroyd, Martin, and Propp, [arXiv:0910.1077](#).)

Rotor-routers

A Markov chain can be thought of as a random walk on a graph, where a walker at vertex u has probability $p(u, v)$ of moving to a vertex v in the next time-step, regardless of her previous history.

Instead of making these choices randomly, we can use a rotor situated at each vertex u to tell the walker which v to go to next.

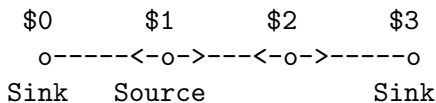
E.g., if $p(u, v_1) = p(u, v_2) = 1/2$, then we use a simple 2-way rotor at u , and the walker follows the rule “Do whatever you **didn't** do the last time you were at u .”

Gambler's ruin

A gambler starts with \$1, and makes a sequence of fair bets, each of which results in her purse going either up by \$1 or down by \$1.

The gambler stops when she reaches either \$0 or \$3.

We can view this as a random walk on a path of length three, with a source at \$1 and sinks at \$0 and \$3.



What is the probability that, starting with \$1, the gambler reaches \$3?

Gambler's ruin, repeated

The probability that, starting with \$1, the gambler reaches \$3, is $1/3$.

So, if the gambler does this procedure n times, starting from the source \$1 and returning to \$1 after each arrival at \$0 or \$3, she will reach \$3 rather than \$0 about $n/3$ times.

To quasirandomize this, replace the random gambles by rigged gambles, where the gambler **wins** her current gamble if and only she **lost** her gamble the last time she had the exact same amount of money in her purse.

Gambler's ruin with rotor-routing

See <http://www.cs.uml.edu/~jpropp/rotor-router-model/>;
select The Applet (tab at top of page) and set Graph/Mode to
Walk on Finite Graph A.

(This applet was written by Hal Canary and Yutai Wong while they
were undergraduates at the University of Wisconsin.)

The color at a site conveys the same information as the rotor there.

The rotor-walker ends up with \$3 (“success”) one-third of the
time, just like the random-walker.

But for a random walker, the number of successes in the first n
trials typically differs from $n/3$ by $O(\sqrt{n})$, while for a rotor-walker,
the number of successes in the first n trials differs from $n/3$ by at
most a **constant**.

This generalizes to arbitrary finite-state Markov chains, and some
infinite-state Markov chains as well.

Random walk on the two-dimensional grid

Starting from $(0,0)$, the walker takes random steps in the set $\{E, W, N, S\} = \{(1,0), (-1,0), (0,1), (0,-1)\}$, stopping upon arriving at either $(0,0)$ or $(1,1)$.

Starting from anywhere, the walker ends up in $\{(0,0), (1,1)\}$ with probability 1.

The probability that a random walker who starts at $(0,0)$ ends up at $(1,1)$ rather than $(0,0)$ (“success”) is $\pi/8$.

Rotor-walk on the two-dimensional grid

The walker successively goes $\dots, N, E, S, W, N, E, S, W, \dots$ upon leaving a particular vertex.

Rule: The rotor advances and the walker then moves in the direction indicated by the *current* (updated) state of the rotor; thus, if a vertex u been visited, and the rotor at that site points in a direction, this is the direction that was travelled by the walker after the walker's most recent visit to u .

Set Graph/Mode to 2-D Walk.

Under suitable initial settings of the rotors, it can be shown that the number of successes in the first n trials differs from $n\pi/8$ by at most $C \log n$ for some constant C . (For a proof, see “Rotor Walks and Markov Chains” by Holroyd and Propp.)

Two open problems

Can we **tighten** the preceding result, so that $O(\log n)$ is replaced by something smaller? (Empirically, it seems that $O(\log \log n)$ or even $O(1)$ might be closer to the truth.)

Can we **broaden** the preceding result, so that it applies to a wider class of initial rotor-settings?

The quasirandom quincunx

Modify the random walk process so that the walker can only go East or South. Rotated by 45 degrees, this is the quincunx or Galton board process.

In the quasirandom version we put a 2-way rotor at each site; assume all the 2-way rotors all point the same way at the start.

To see what happens, view the animated gif file

<http://jamespropp.org/quincunx.gif> or the “movie-version”
<http://jamespropp.org/Galton.swf>

What's going on here?

Internal DLA

Physicists Meakin and Deutch in 1986 proposed a model for electropolishing, etching, and corrosion that was independently reinvented by mathematicians Diaconis and Fulton in the 1990s as a pure mathematics construction.

We use random walk to grow a blob.

At stage 0, the blob is empty.

At stage 1, the blob consists of just the source $(0,0)$.

To turn the stage- n blob into the stage- $(n+1)$ blob, a particle starts from the source and does random walk until it reaches a vertex that isn't in the blob; the new vertex gets added to the blob.

Roundness of Internal DLA

Lawler, Bramson, and Griffeath (1992) showed that the internal DLA cluster of size n , rescaled by $\sqrt{n/\pi}$, converges almost surely to a disk of radius 1.

Lawler (1995) showed that the inward and outward fluctuations from roundness are $O(n^{1/6})$, and it was finally shown in 2010 (by two different research groups working independently and using different methods) that the fluctuations are $\Theta(\log n)$.

Quasirandom Internal DLA

We can replace the random walkers by rotor-walkers.

To see what quasirandom Internal DLA looks like using the [rotor-router-model applet](#), set Graph/Mode to 2-D Aggregation; to see what one has after a million particles have joined the aggregate, see <http://jamespropp.org/million.gif>.

Roundness of quasirandom Internal DLA

Levine and Peres proved in 2007 that when $n = \pi r^2$ particles have been joined the aggregate, the inradius of the set of occupied sites is at least $r - O(\log r)$, while the outradius is at most $r + O(r^\alpha)$ for any $\alpha > 1/2$.

But empirically we observe that the blobs are much rounder.

E.g., for a rotor-router blob of cardinality $n = 2^{32}$ (and radius $r = \sqrt{n/\pi} \approx 36975$), the inradius and outradius of the blob measured from the point $(1/2, 1/2)$ (which is believed to be the limiting location of the center of mass of the blob on both empirical and theoretical grounds) differ by only $0.366 \approx r/10^5$.

Fast simulation

The naive method of constructing the rotor-router Internal DLA blob of cardinality n takes $\Theta(n^2)$ steps. Friedrich and Levine have found clever shortcuts that let them construct the rotor-router Internal DLA blob of size n much more quickly (experimentally, in time about $n \log n$).

They have implemented their method, creating blobs so big that the only way to study them is via a Google Maps interface that allows the user to navigate between different scales. See <http://rotor-router.mpi-inf.mpg.de/>.

Friedrich's website shows rotor-router blobs associated with not just the standard style of rotor (rotating clockwise) but other styles of rotor as well.

Interesting spots

There are places in the picture where many adjacent sites have the same color, forming a monochromatic *patch*.

Matt Cook and Dan Hoey independently noticed that if one normalizes the blob to be the inside of the unit disk in the complex plane, the patches occur precisely at complex numbers of the form $(A + Bi)^{-1/2}$ with A, B integers (not both 0), though if A or B is large, one needs n to be quite large before the patch becomes visible.

One also finds patches on which the coloring is not constant but periodic of small period. E.g., on the boundary of the disk, one sees this behavior near points $(a + bi)/\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ with a, b integers (not both 0).

Interesting curves

In some of the pictures, the eye detects curves, especially the “lrdu” picture (though it’s hard to say, mathematically speaking, exactly what the eye is detecting along those curves).

Rick Kenyon pointed out that some of these curves appear to be the images of circles of radius $1/2$ centered at points $a + bi$ under the map $z \mapsto 1/\sqrt{z}$; see <http://jamespropp.org/RRcircles.pdf>.

Prospects

To the extent that quasirandom processes **share** properties with their random counterparts, they teach us that many of the theorems of probability theory remain true when hypotheses of randomness are replaced by weaker hypotheses of discrepancy.

To the extent that quasirandom processes have properties **different** from their random counterparts, the task of proving that these properties actually prevail offers exciting challenges to theorists, blending combinatorics, probability, and geometry.

Fifteen years in one slide

I spent most of 1987 – 2002 working on questions like the following (see <http://jamespropp.org/hexagon.gif> to get a feel for what random tilings look like):

- ▶ How many tilings of a particular region (using specified tiles) are there?
- ▶ How can we sample from the uniform distribution on the set of tilings?
- ▶ What does a random tiling look like?
 - ▶ Why do we see “frozen regions” near the boundary?
 - ▶ What is the shape of the interface between the frozen and non-frozen regions?
 - ▶ What do we see inside the non-frozen region?

Research programs

- ▶ “how you started your research program”: going to conferences, reading, refereeing, talking to people
- ▶ “how you have continued it”: good collaborators (including bright undergraduates and people who program better than I do)
- ▶ “the things that you find useful in maintaining a successful research career”: giving talks, using MathOverflow