# Derivatives of the Gaussian Free Field via Random Matrices

Andrew Yao and Gopal K. Goel

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Recall that an  $m \times n$  matrix with entries in  $\mathbb{R}$  (or  $\mathbb{C}$ ) is an array of numbers with m rows and n columns.

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#### Examples

Here are examples of  $3 \times 2$  and  $4 \times 4$  matrices:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 \\ e & 1 \\ -\pi & \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 & 3 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

This is how we multiply a vector by a matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11}v_1 + a_{12}v_2 + a_{13}v_3 \\ a_{21}v_1 + a_{22}v_2 + a_{23}v_3 \\ a_{31}v_1 + a_{32}v_2 + a_{33}v_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 34 \end{pmatrix}$$

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We say that  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$  is an eigenvalue of a square matrix A if

$$Av = \lambda v$$

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#### Examples

$$\begin{pmatrix} -2 & -4 & 2 \ -2 & 1 & 2 \ 4 & 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \ -3 \ -1 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \ -3 \ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

so 3 is an eigenvalue of the original matrix.

# Examples

#### Here is a symmetric matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 7 & 4 \\ 3 & 4 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

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If a matrix is symmetric and real, then all of its eigenvalues are real. Generally, we order the eigenvalues as follows:

$$\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \cdots \leq \lambda_n.$$

From now on, we only consider real symmetric matrices.

# Define a probability density p(x) to be a function

$$p: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$$

such that  $\int_{\mathbb{R}} p(x) dx = 1$ .

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We say two random variables X and Y are independent if the outcome of X does not affect the outcome of Y and vice versa. For example, if X is the value of a flip of a coin, and Y is of another coin, then X and Y are independent. However, if X is the weather today, and Y is the weather tomorrow, then X and Y are not independent, i.e. correlated.

A Gaussian Random Variable is one that has

$$p(x) = rac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left(-rac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}
ight).$$

Here is a sample of 10000 Gaussian random variables with  $\mu=$  0 and  $\sigma=$  1.



# Define a joint probability density p(x) to be a function

 $p: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ 

such that  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} p(x) dx^n = 1$ .

A random vector is a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that takes random values with joint distribution p(x).

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As an example, a Wigner random matrix is a symmetric random matrix whose upper triangular entries are independent and identically distributed.

We look at a special case, namely the Gaussian Orthogonal Ensemble, which is a Wigner matrix whose entries are Gaussian. Let  $X_N$  be an  $N \times N$  GOE matrix.

It was known that the eigenvalues of  $X_N$  converge to the Gaussian Free Field as  $N \to \infty$ . Letting  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_N$  be the eigenvalues of  $X_N$ , it suffices to study

$$\lambda_1^k + \dots + \lambda_N^k = \operatorname{tr} X_N^k$$

for all positive integers k (as  $N \to \infty$ ).

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We looked at a "discrete derivative" of  $X_N$ , which means we looked at the eigenvalues of  $X_N$ , along with the eigenvalues  $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_{N-1}$  of the submatrix  $X_{N-1}$ . Again, it suffices to study

$$\lambda_1^k + \dots + \lambda_N^k - \mu_1^k - \dots - \mu_{N-1}^k = \operatorname{tr} X_N^k - \operatorname{tr} X_{N-1}^k$$

for all positive integers k. We found that this did converge to the derivative of the GFF.

We can expand the trace in terms of the entries as

$$\operatorname{tr} X_N^k = \sum_{i_1,\ldots,i_k=1}^N X_N(i_1,i_2) X_N(i_2,i_3) \cdots X_N(i_k,i_1).$$

Then,

$$\mathbb{E}\operatorname{tr} X_N^k = \sum_{i_1,\ldots,i_k=1}^N \mathbb{E} X_N(i_1,i_2) X_N(i_2,i_3) \cdots X_N(i_k,i_1).$$

Now, all results reduce to combinatorics of graphs constructed from  $(i_1, \ldots, i_N)$ .

- Vertices are  $\{i_1, \ldots, i_k\}$
- Edges are  $\{\{i_1, i_2\}, \{i_2, i_3\}, \dots, \{i_k, i_1\}\}$

Only *unicyclic* graphs contribute in the limit  $N \rightarrow \infty$ :



These graphs have the same number of vertices and edges.

Note that

$$\operatorname{tr} X_N^k - \operatorname{tr} X_{N-1}^k = \sum_{\substack{i_1, \dots, i_k = 1 \\ i_1, \dots, i_k = 2}}^N X_N(i_1, i_2) X_N(i_2, i_3) \cdots X_N(i_k, i_1) - \sum_{\substack{i_1, \dots, i_k = 2 \\ \exists j \text{ s.t } i_j = 1}}^N X_N(i_1, i_2) X_N(i_2, i_3) \cdots X_N(i_k, i_1).$$

• Our corresponding graph is rooted at 1: it must contain the vertex 1.

The main idea is to look at higher discrete derivatives. However, we have reason to believe that the *m*th discrete derivative of  $X_N$  converges to the *m*th derivative of the GFF for  $m \ge 2$ , but these derivatives are infinite. This has to do with the fact that after taking a derivative of the GFF, the elements of the GFF become "too independent" of one another.

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Another possible direction is to look at edge results of the eigenvalues after taking a discrete derivative. This has to do with looking at the largest eigenvalues of the random matrices, and understanding their statistical properties.

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