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 $\Lambda \rightarrow$ Understand the typical properties of \mathfrak{X}_n .

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Motivation for studying scaling limits

Let \mathfrak{X}_n be a set of combinatorial objects of "size" \mathfrak{n} (permutations, partitions, graphs, functions, walks, matrices, etc.).

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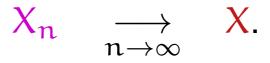
- \bigwedge Find the cardinal of χ_n . (bijective methods, generating functions)
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- Λ → Understand the typical properties of X_n . Let X_n be an element of X_n chosen *uniformly at random*. What can be said of X_n ?
- $\stackrel{\checkmark}{\longrightarrow} A \text{ possibility to study } X_n \text{ is to find a continuous object } X \text{ such that } X_n \to X \text{ as } n \to \infty.$

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- From the world to the discrete world: if a property \mathcal{P} is satisfied by X and passes to the limit, X_n satisfies "approximately" \mathcal{P} for n large.

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- From the discrete to the continuous world: if a property \mathcal{P} is satisfied by all the X_n and passes to the limit, then X satisfies \mathcal{P} .
- From the world to the discrete world: if a property \mathcal{P} is satisfied by X and passes to the limit, X_n satisfies "approximately" \mathcal{P} for n large.
- Universality: if $(Y_n)_{n \ge 1}$ is another sequence of objects converging towards X, then X_n and Y_n share approximately the same properties for n large.

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- A→ In what space do the objects live? Here, a metric space (Z, d) which will be complete and separable (there exists a dense countable subset).
- √→ What is the sense of the convergence when the objects are random? Here, convergence in distribution:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[F(\mathbf{X}_{n})\right] \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} \mathbb{E}\left[F(\mathbf{X})\right]$$

for every continous bounded function $F:Z\to \mathbb{R}.$



I. RANDOM WALKS AND BROWNIAN MOTION (1951)



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II. SCALING LIMITS OF BGW TREES (1991)



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Central Limit Theorem

Theorem (Central Limit, $\simeq 1901$ Liapounov) Let $(X_n)_{n \ge 1}$ be i.i.d. (independent identically distributed) random variables with $\mathbb{E}[X_1] = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}[X_1^2] \in]0, \infty[$.

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$$\frac{\mathbf{S}_{n}}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} \quad \stackrel{(d)}{\underset{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow}} \quad \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}),$$

where $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ is a standard Gaussian random variable.

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∧→ Consequence: for every a < b,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(a < \frac{S_n}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} < b\right) \quad \underset{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} \quad \int_a^b dx \ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}.$$

Theorem (Donsker, 1951)

Let $(X_n)_{n \ge 1}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables such that $\mathbb{E}[X_1] = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}[X_1^2] \in (0, \infty)$.

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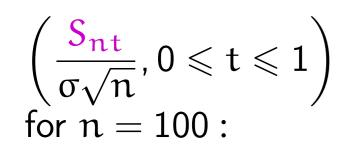
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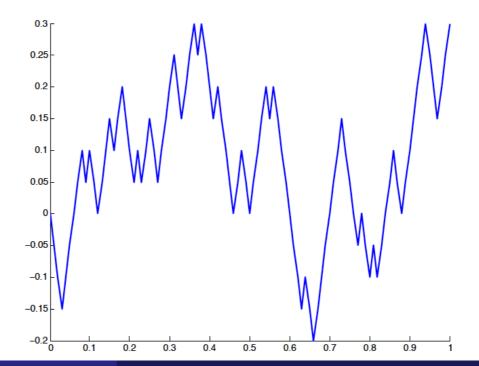
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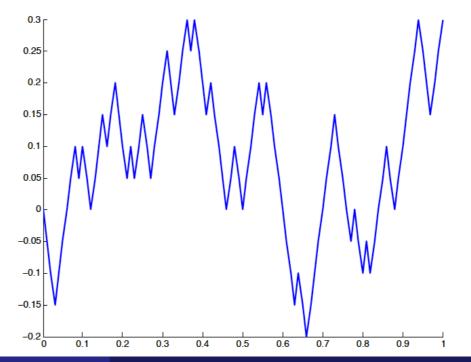


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 for $n=100$:



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Brownian motion as a limit of discrete paths

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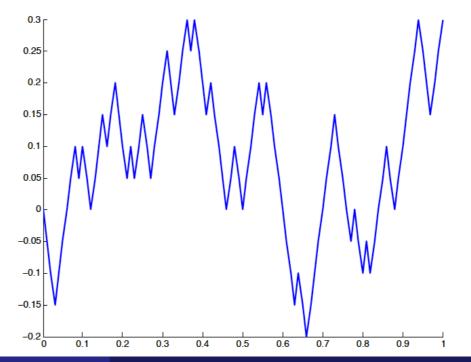
Here the metric space (Z, d) is $\mathcal{C}([0, 1], \mathbb{R})$, the space of \mathbb{R} -valued continuous functions on [0, 1], equiped with the topology of uniform convergence on [0, 1]

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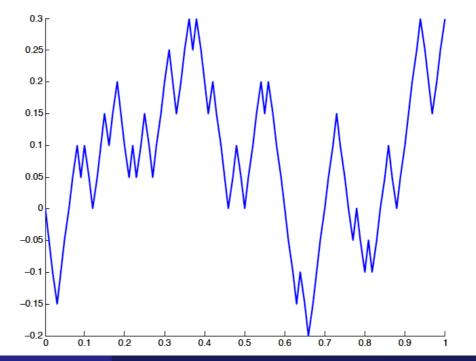


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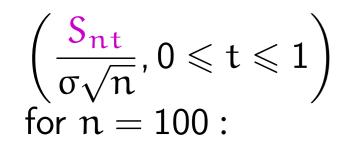


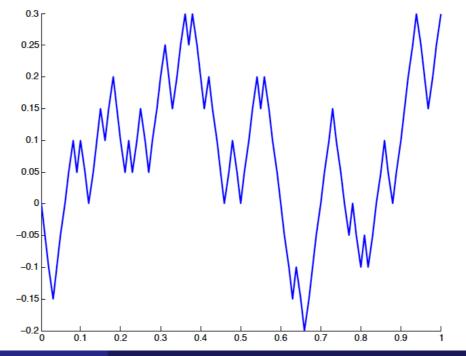
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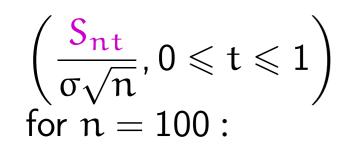


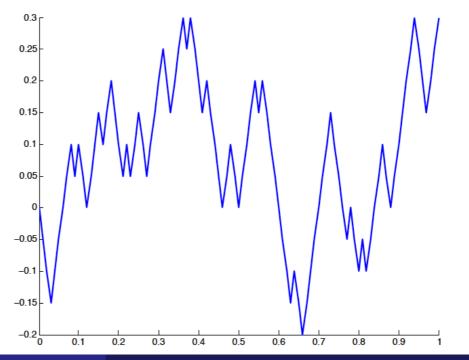
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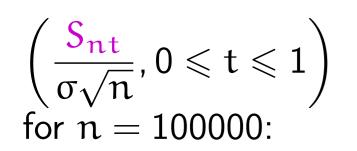


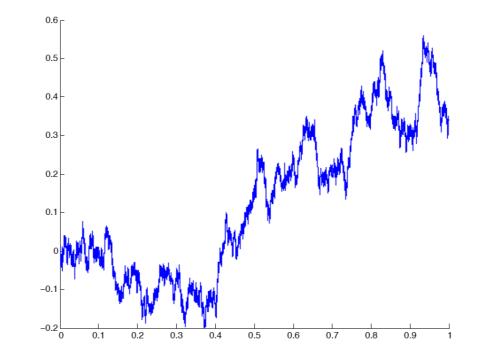
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 Λ → Consequence: for every a > 0,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\sup_{0\leqslant t\leqslant 1}\frac{S_{nt}}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}>\alpha\right)\quad\underset{n\to\infty}{\longrightarrow}\quad \mathbb{P}\left(\sup_{0\leqslant t\leqslant 1}W_t>\alpha\right)=2\int_{\alpha}^{\infty}dx\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$

Theorem (Conditioned Donsker Theorem, Kaigh '75) Let $(X_n)_{n \ge 1}$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables $\mathbb{E}[X_1] = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = \mathbb{E}[X_1^2] \in]0, \infty[$.

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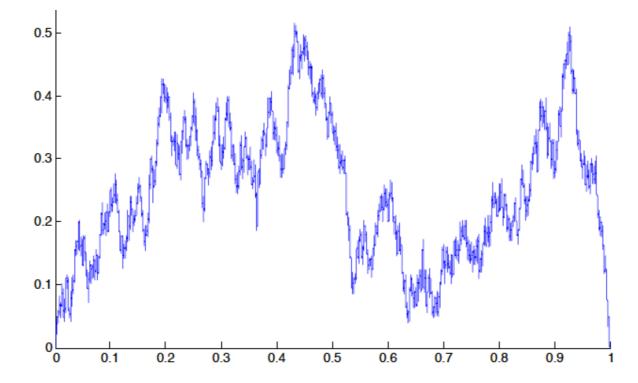
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where $(\mathbf{e}_t)_{0 \leq t \leq 1}$ is a random variable with values in $\mathcal{C}([0, 1], \mathbb{R})$ called the Brownian excursion.

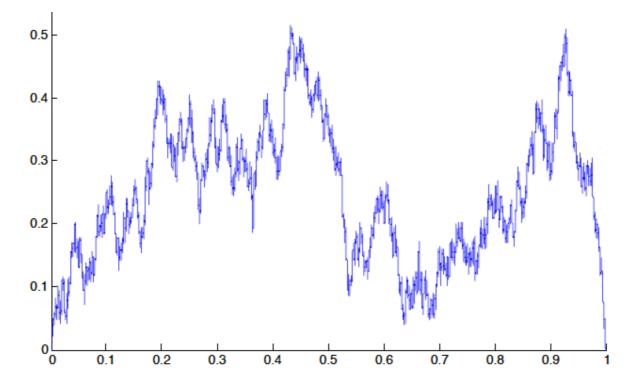
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The Brownian excursion can be seen as Brownian motion $(W_t, 0 \le t \le 1)$ conditioned by the events $W_1 = 0$ and $W_t > 0$ for $t \in]0, 1[$.

 $\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Theorem (Conditioned Donsker Theorem, Kaigh '75)} \\ \mbox{Let } (X_n)_{n \geqslant 1} \ \mbox{be a sequence of i.i.d. random variables } \mathbb{E} \left[X_1 \right] = 0 \ \mbox{and} \\ \sigma^2 = \mathbb{E} \left[X_1^{\ 2} \right] \in]0, \infty [. \ \mbox{Set } S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n. \ \ \mbox{Then:} \\ \\ \mbox{} \left(\left. \frac{S_{nt}}{\sigma_n \sqrt{n}}, 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1 \right| S_n = 0, S_i \geqslant 0 \ \mbox{for } i < n \right) \quad \begin{array}{c} (d) \\ \frac{(d)}{n \rightarrow \infty} \quad (e_t, 0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1), \end{array} \right. \ \label{eq:second}$

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 \wedge Consequence: for every a > 0,

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$$\left(\left. \frac{\mathbf{S}_{\mathsf{n}\mathsf{t}}}{\sigma\sqrt{n}}, 0 \leqslant \mathsf{t} \leqslant 1 \right| \mathbf{S}_{\mathsf{n}} = \mathsf{0}, \mathbf{S}_{\mathsf{i}} \geqslant \mathsf{0} \text{ for } \mathsf{i} < \mathsf{n} \right) \quad \underset{\mathsf{n} \to \infty}{\overset{(\mathsf{d})}{\longrightarrow}} \quad (\mathbf{e}_{\mathsf{t}}, \mathsf{0} \leqslant \mathsf{t} \leqslant \mathsf{1}),$$

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$$\xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} \mathbb{P}\left(\sup_{0 \leq t \leq 1} \mathbb{P}_t > \alpha\right)$$

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$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}\left(\sup_{0\leqslant t\leqslant 1}\frac{S_{nt}}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} > \alpha \middle| S_n = 0, S_i \geqslant 0 \text{ for } i < n\right) \\ & \xrightarrow[n\to\infty]{} \mathbb{P}\left(\sup_{0\leqslant t\leqslant 1} e_t > \alpha\right) \\ & = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (4k^2a^2 - 1)e^{-2k^2a^2} \end{split}$$

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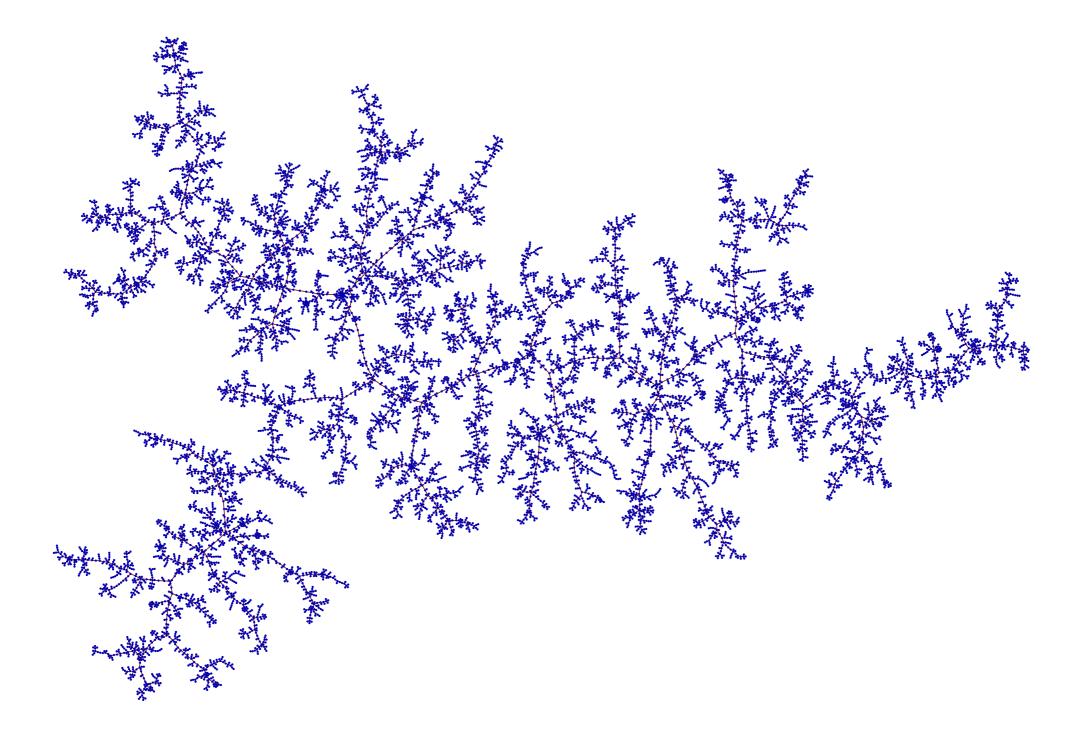
IV. RANDOM PLANAR MAPS (2004)

Recall that in a Bienaymé–Galton–Watson tree, every individual has a random number of children (independently of each other) distributed according to μ (offspring distribution).

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What does a large Bienaymé–Galton–Watson tree look like ?

A simulation of a large random critical GW tree



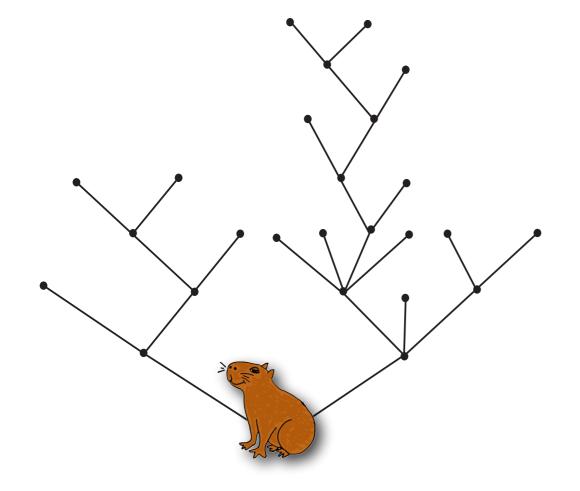
CODING TREES BY FUNCTIONS

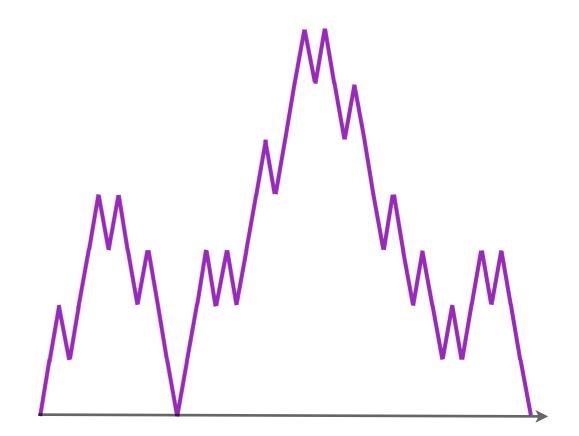


Random maps



Define the contour function of a tree:





Coding trees by contour functions

Knowing the contour function, it is easy to recover the tree.

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Theorem (Aldous '93)

Let σ^2 be the variance of μ . Let $t \mapsto C_t(\mathfrak{T}_n)$ be the contour function of \mathfrak{T}_n . Then:

$$\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}C_{2nt}(\mathfrak{T}_{n})\right)_{0\leqslant t\leqslant 1} \quad \xrightarrow[n\to\infty]{(d)}$$

where the convergence holds in distribution in $\mathbb{C}([0,1],\mathbb{R})$

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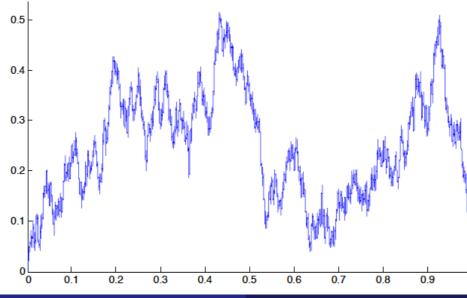
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DO THE DISCRETE TREES CONVERGE TO A CONTINUOUS TREE?



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Yes, if we view trees as compact metric spaces by equiping the vertices with the graph distance!



Let X, Y be two subsets of the same metric space Z.



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be the r-neighborhoods of X and Y.

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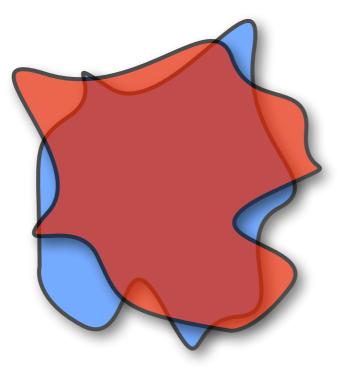


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 $d_H(X,Y) = \inf \left\{ r > 0; X \subset Y_r \text{ and } Y \subset X_r \right\}.$



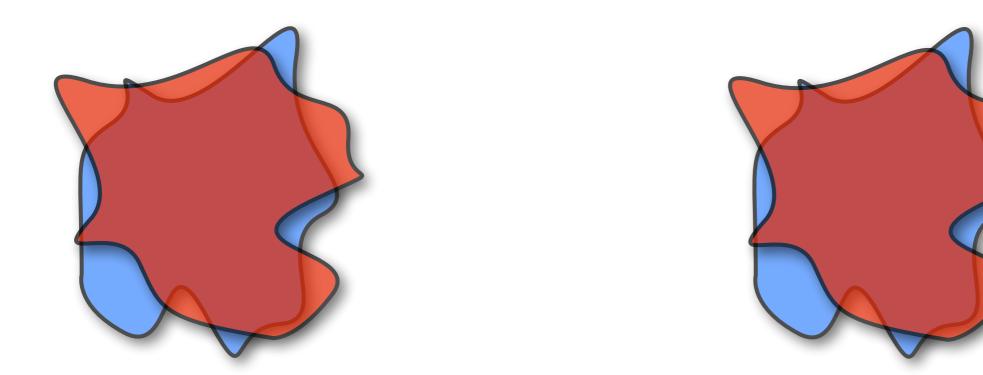


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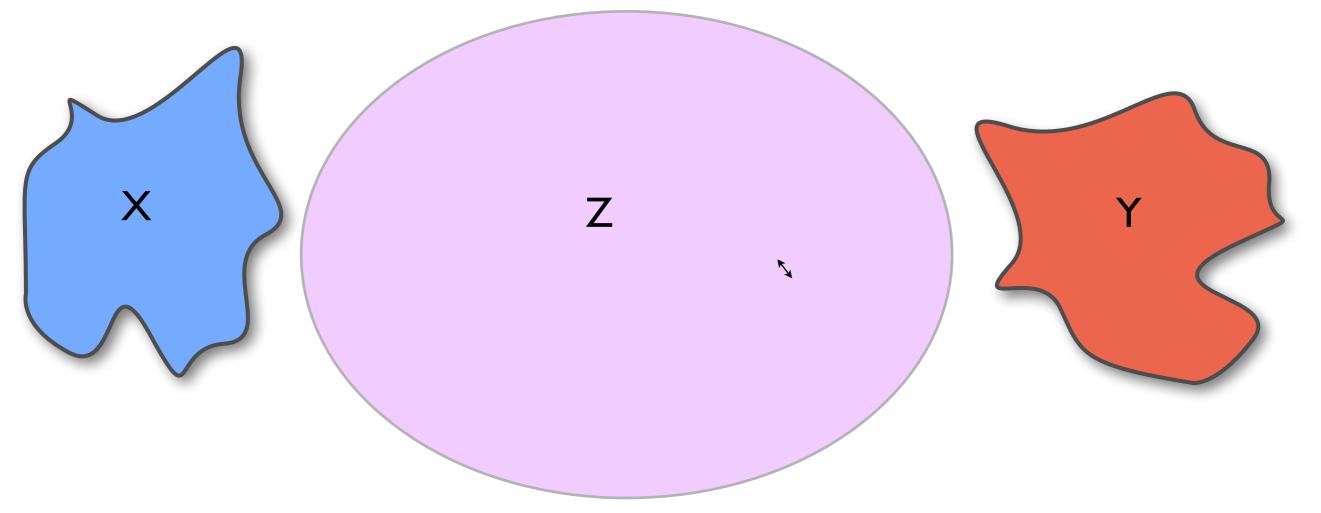
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The Gromov–Hausdorff distance between X and Y is the smallest Hausdorff distance between all possible isometric embeddings of X and Y in a same metric space Z.

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$$\frac{\sigma}{2\sqrt{n}} \cdot \mathfrak{t}_{n} \quad \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} \quad \mathfrak{T}_{\mathfrak{E}},$$

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Formally, for $0 \leqslant s, t \leqslant 1$, set

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and write $s \sim t$ if $d_e(s, t) = 0$. The Brownian tree \mathcal{T}_e is then defined to be the quotient metric space $[0, 1] / \sim$ equiped with d_e .

I. RANDOM WALKS AND BROWNIAN MOTION (1951)

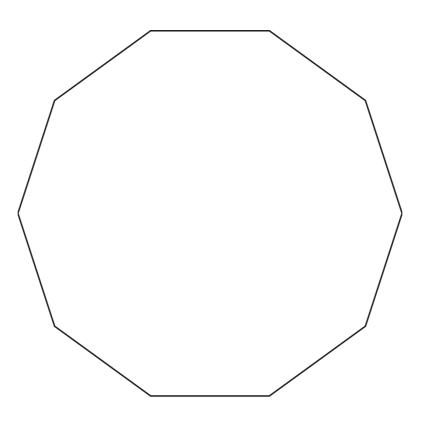
II. SCALING LIMITS OF BGW TREES (1991)

III. PLANE NON-CROSSING CONFIGURATIONS (2012)

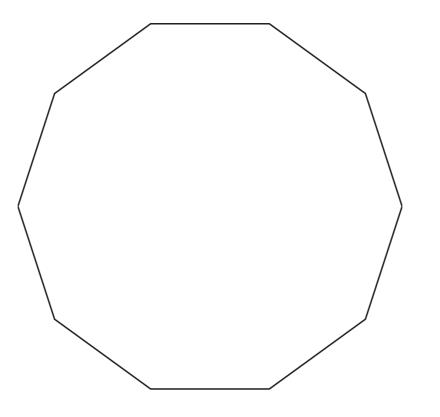
 $\rightarrow 0$

IV. RANDOM PLANAR MAPS (2004)

Let P_n be the polygon with vertices $e^{\frac{2i\pi j}{n}}(j = 0, 1, ..., n - 1)$.

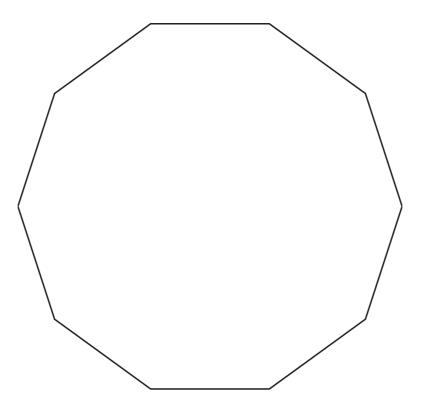


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General philosophy: chose at random a non crossing configuration, obtained from the vertices of P_n by drawing diagonals which may not cross.

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General philosophy: chose at random a non crossing configuration, obtained from the vertices of P_n by drawing diagonals which may not cross.

What happens for n large?

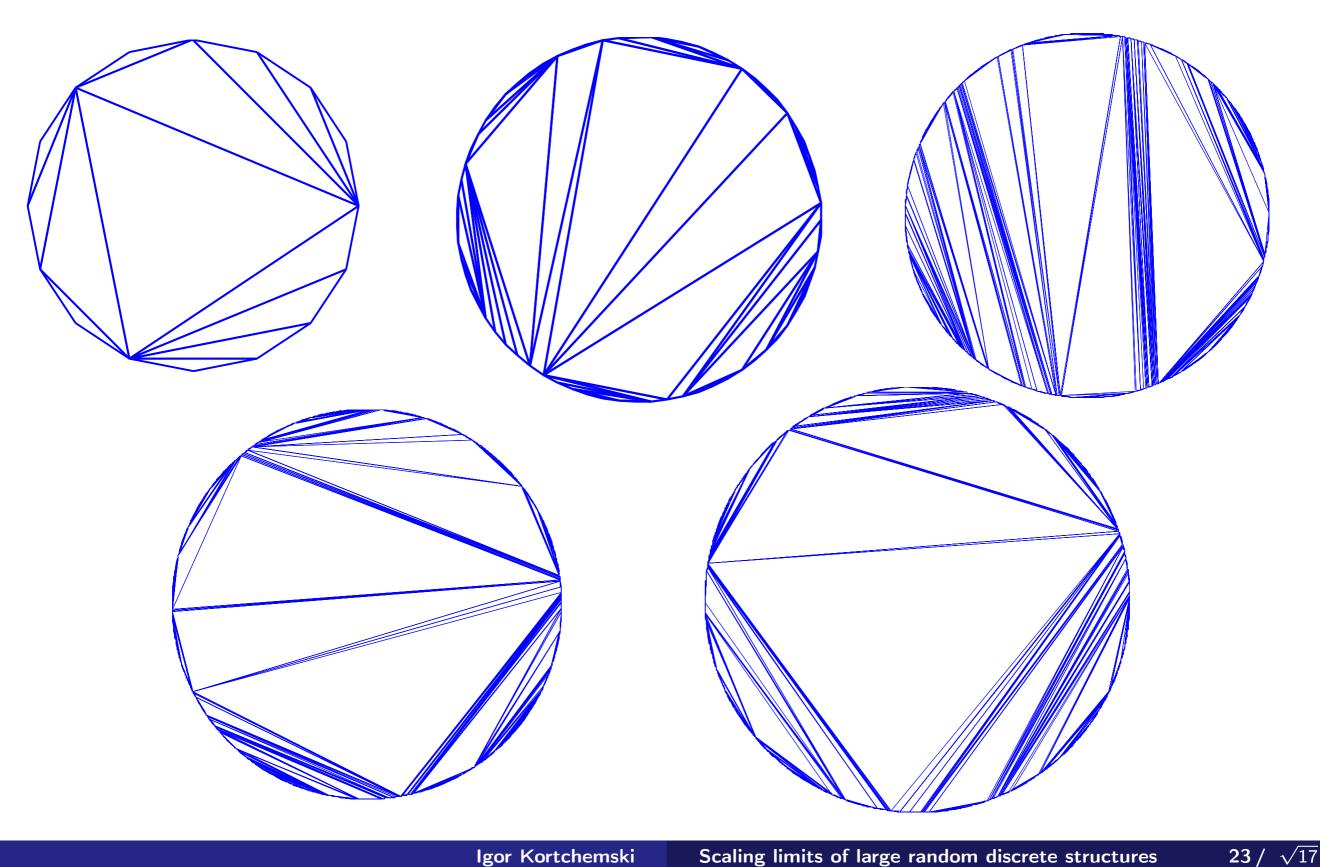
Case of triangulations of P_n





Let \mathfrak{T}_n be a random triangulation, chosen uniformly among all triangulations of P_n . What does \mathfrak{T}_n look like when n is large?

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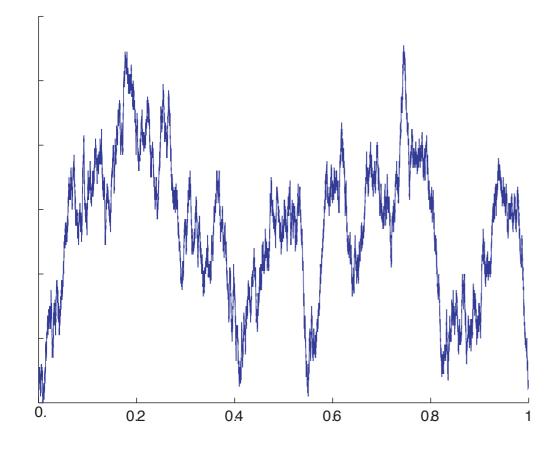
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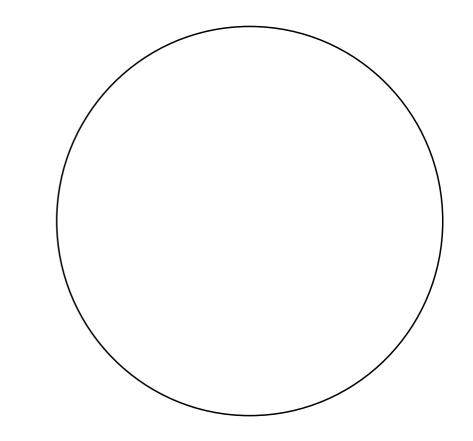
N→ Consequence: The length (that is its normalised angle from the center, $360^{\circ} = 1$) of the longest diagonal of T_n converges in distribution to the length of the longest chord of L(@). We get that the length of the longest chord of L(@) has density:

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{3x-1}{x^2(1-x)^2\sqrt{1-2x}} \mathbf{1}_{\frac{1}{3} \leqslant x \leqslant \frac{1}{2}} dx.$$

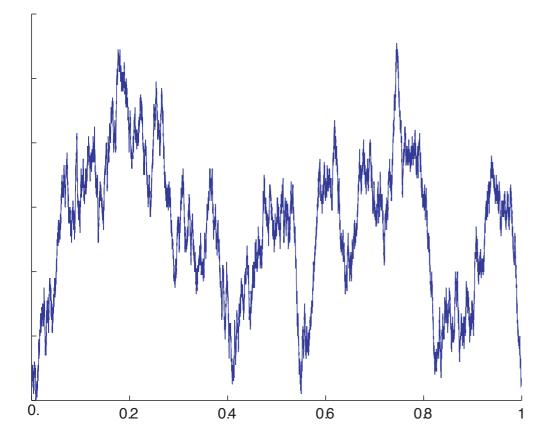
Start from the Brownian excursion \oplus :

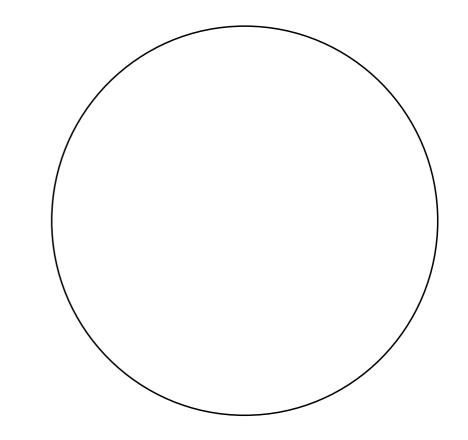
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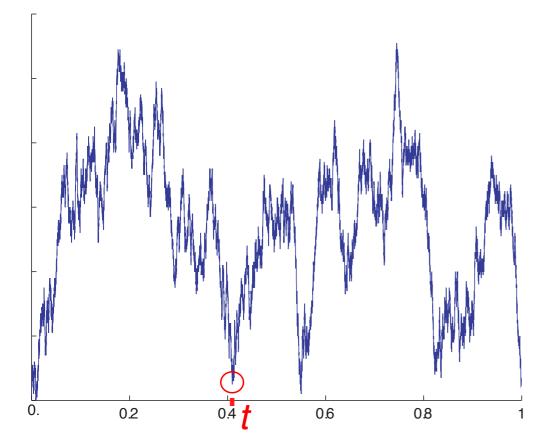
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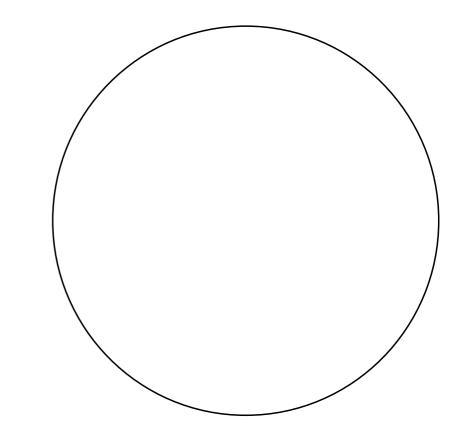




Let t be a local minimum timel.

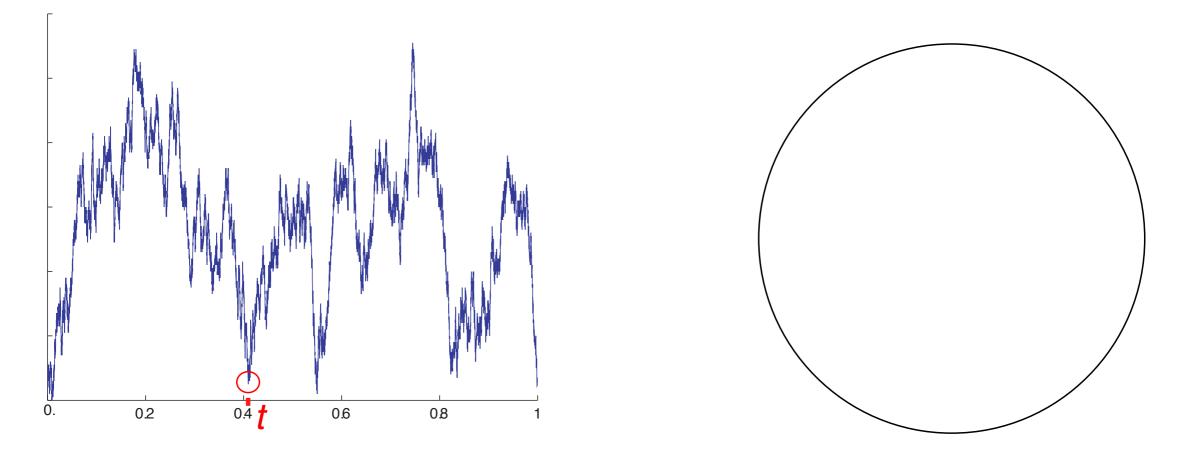
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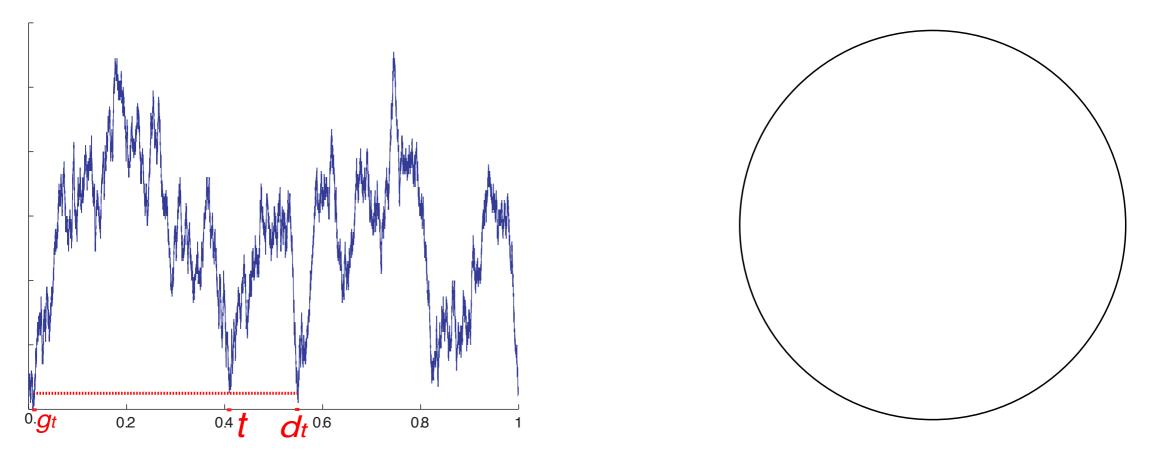
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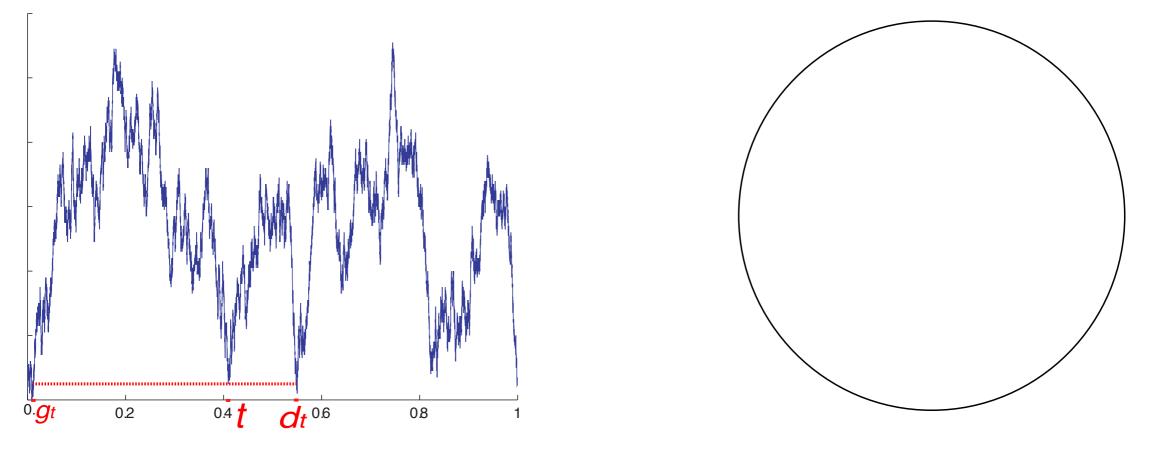
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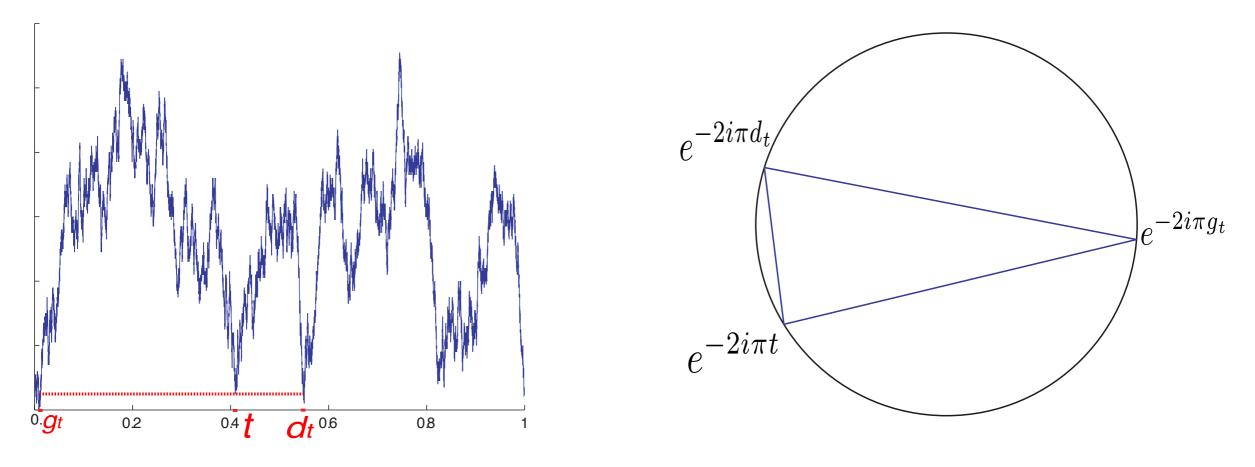
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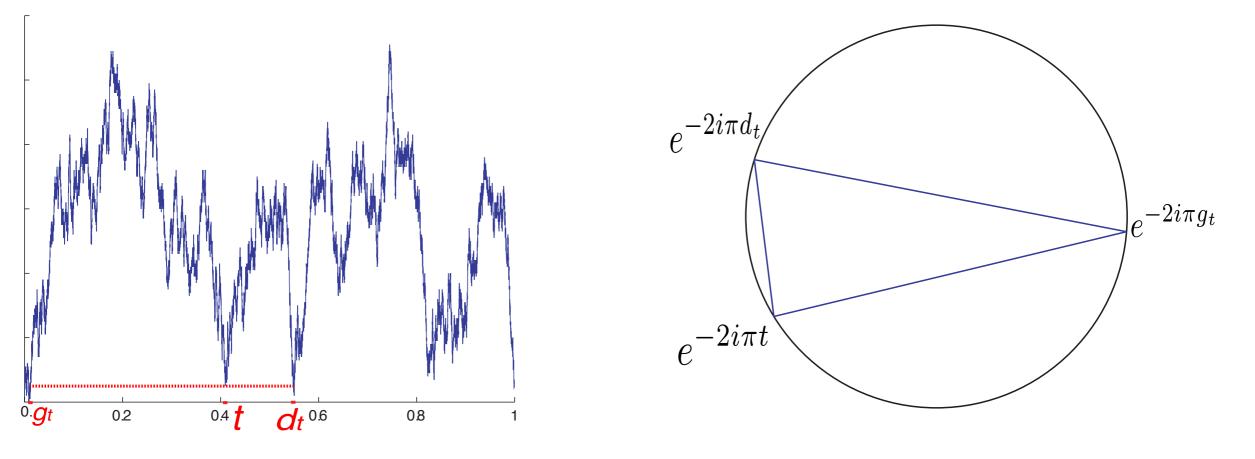
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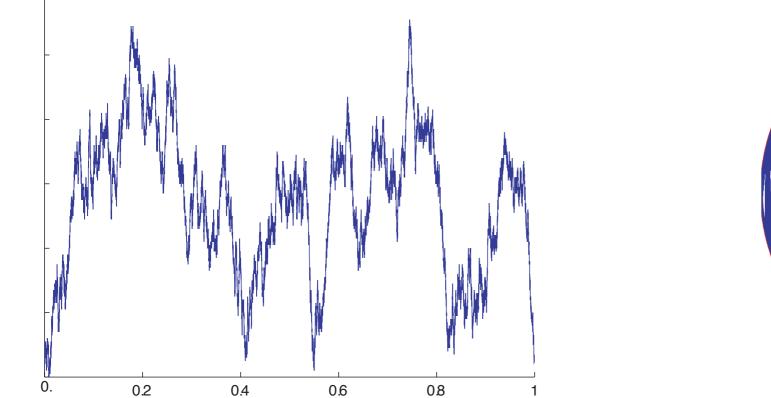
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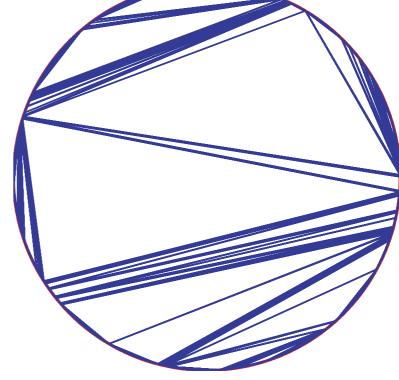
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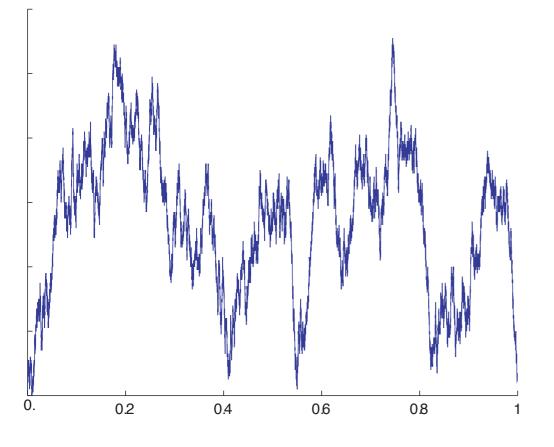
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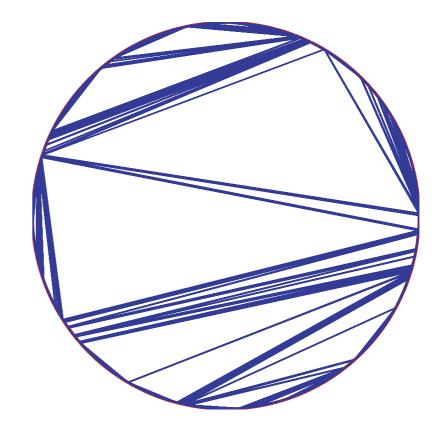




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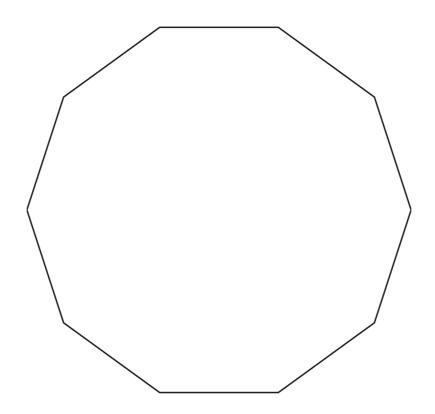
The closure of this object, denoted by L(e), is called the Brownian triangulation.

Case of dissections of P_n



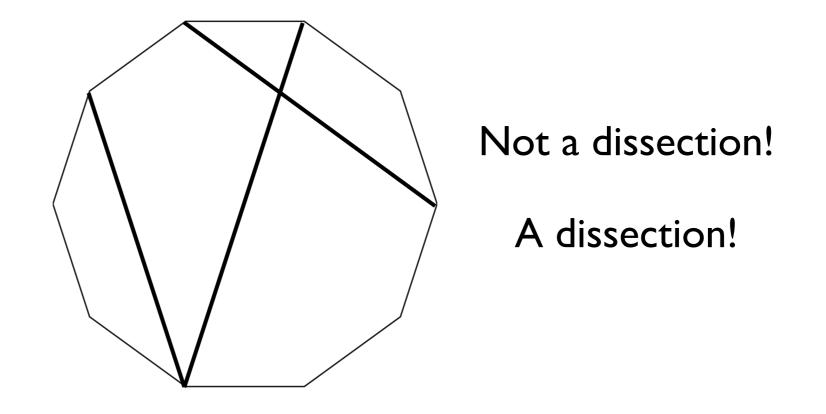


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Dissections

Recall that P_n is the polygon with vertices $e^{\frac{2i\pi j}{n}}$ (j = 0, 1, ..., n - 1).



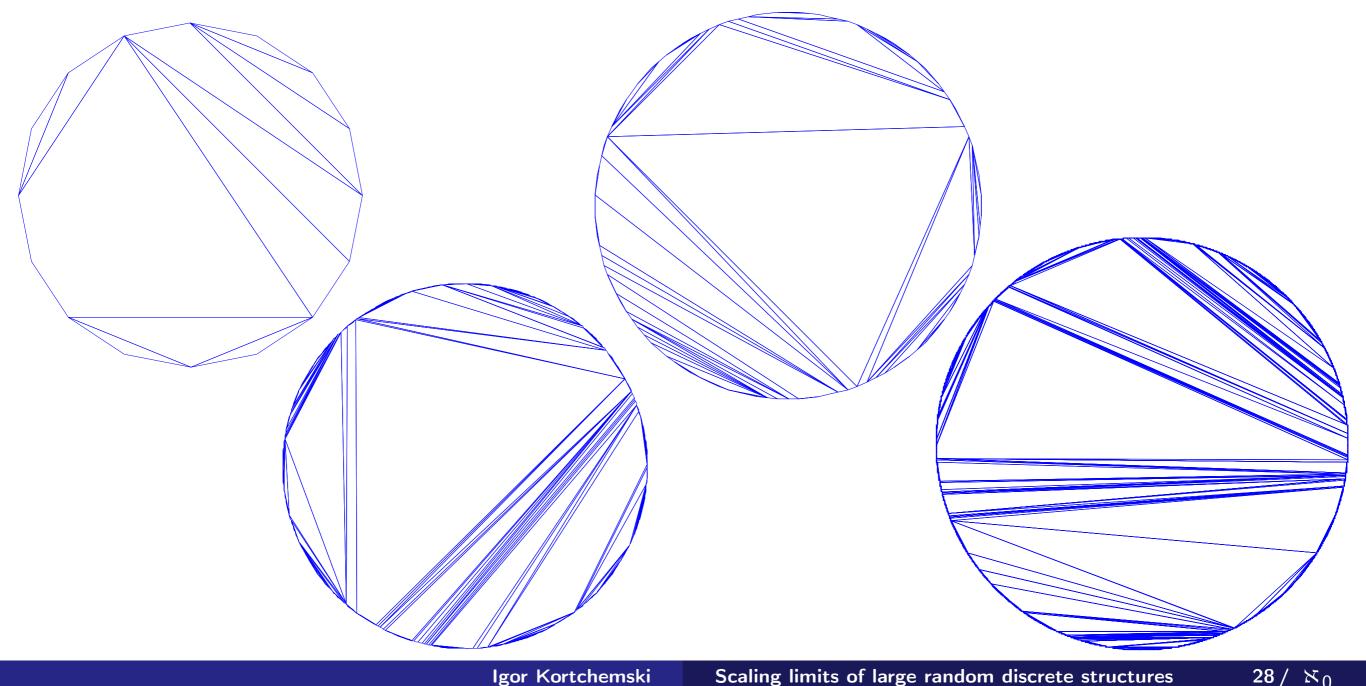
A *dissection* of P_n is the union of P_n with a collection of non-crossing diagonals.

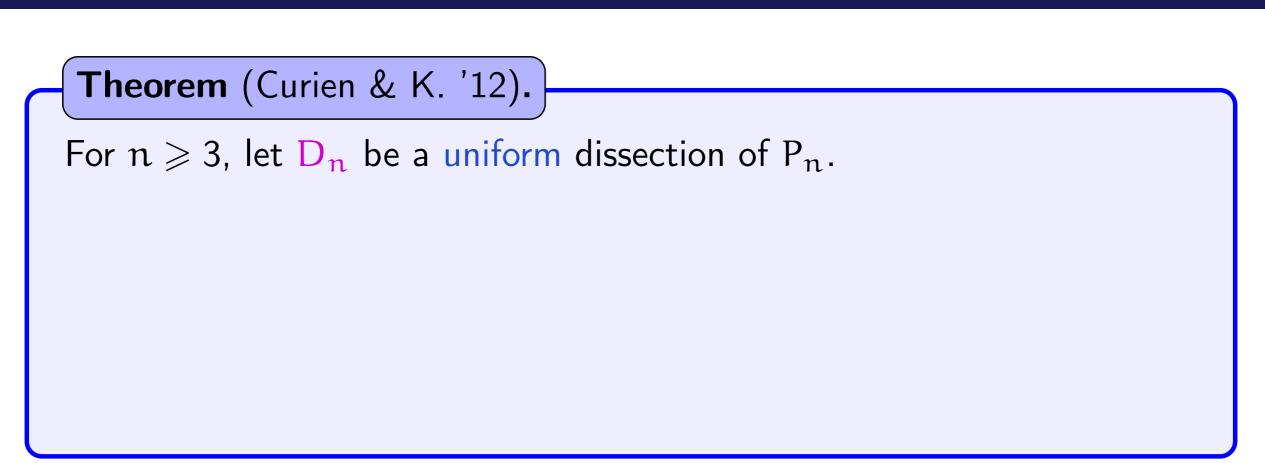


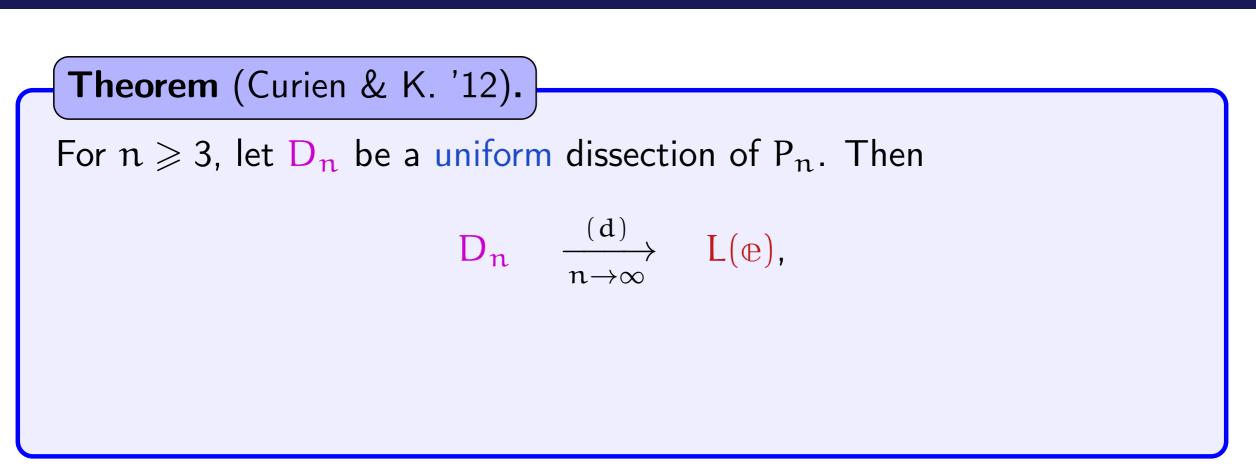
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For $n \ge 3$, let D_n be a uniform dissection of P_n . Then

$$D_n \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{(d)} L(\mathbb{e}),$$

where the convergence holds in distribution in the space of compact subsets of the unit disk equiped with the Hausdorff distance.

$$\label{eq:Formation} \begin{array}{l} \hline \mbox{Theorem (Curien \& K. '12).} \\ \mbox{For } n \geqslant 3, \mbox{ let } D_n \mbox{ be a uniform dissection of } P_n. \mbox{ Then} \\ D_n \quad \underbrace{ \begin{pmatrix} d \\ n \rightarrow \infty \end{pmatrix}} \quad L(\oplus), \\ \\ \mbox{ where the convergence holds in distribution in the space of compact subsets of the unit disk equiped with the Hausdorff distance.} \end{array}$$

(Many other models of random plane non-crossing configurations converge to the Brownian triangulation: non-crossing trees, non-crossing partitions, etc. Curien & K. '12, K. & Marzouk '15).

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 \bigwedge Consequence: The length (that is its normalised angle from the center) of the longest diagonal of D_n converges in distribution to a probability measure with density:

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 \bigwedge Consequence: The length (that is its normalised angle from the center) of the longest diagonal of D_n converges in distribution to a probability measure with density:

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{3x-1}{x^2(1-x)^2\sqrt{1-2x}} \mathbf{1}_{\frac{1}{3} \leqslant x \leqslant \frac{1}{2}} dx.$$

How to prove that these models converge to the Brownian triangulation?



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Key point: these trees can be coded by BGW trees.



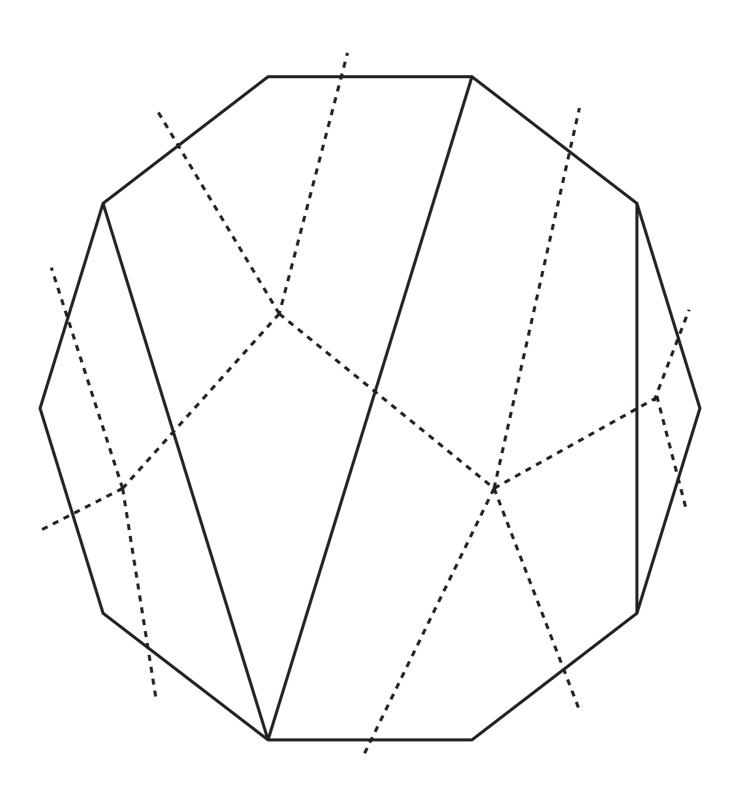
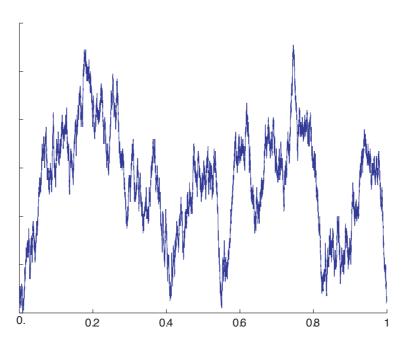
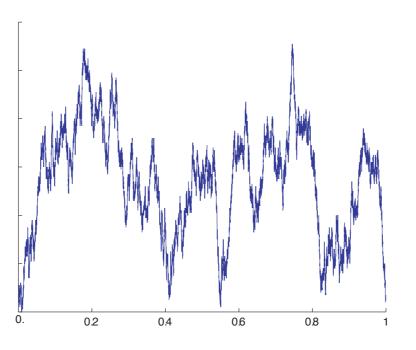
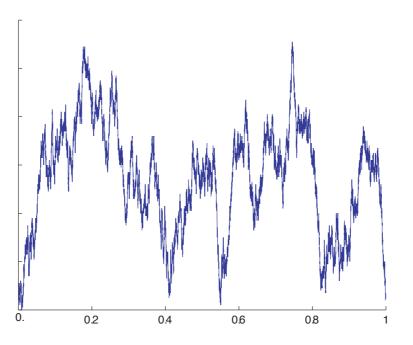


Figure: The dual tree of a dissection.



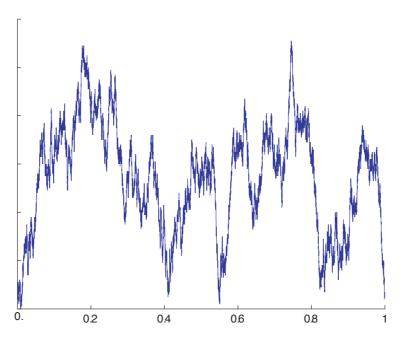


Strategy of the proof:



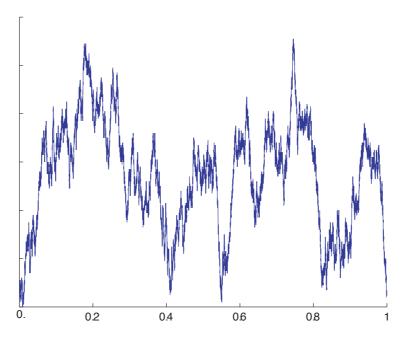
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These models can be coded a random conditioned Bienaymé–Galton–Watson tree.



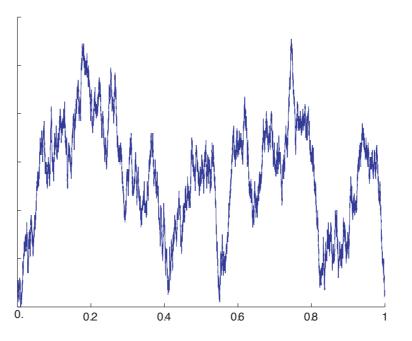
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Therefore these random plane non-crossing configurations converge to L(e).

WHAT ABOUT DISSECTIONS SEEN AS COMPACT METRIC SPACES?



Random maps

Dissections seen as compact metric spaces

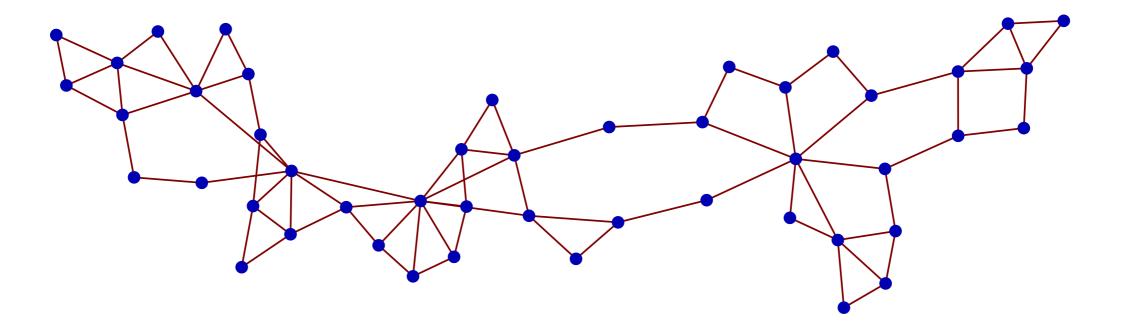


Figure: A uniform dissection of P_{45} .

Random maps

Dissections seen as compact metric spaces

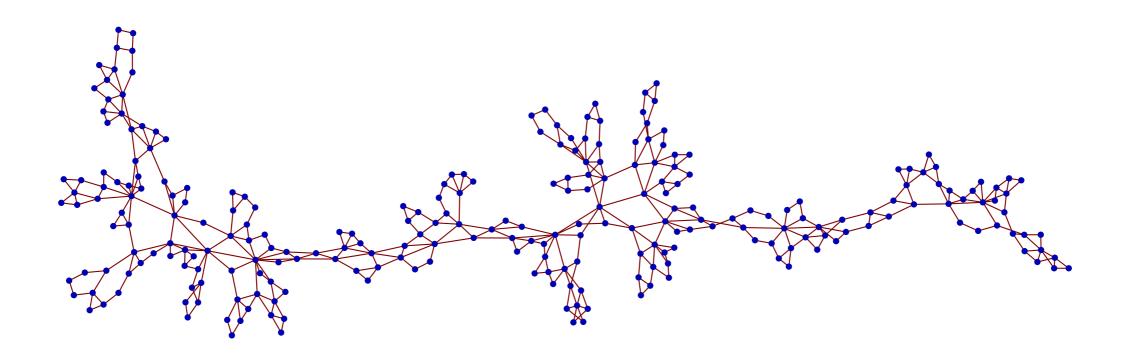


Figure: A uniform dissection of P_{260} .

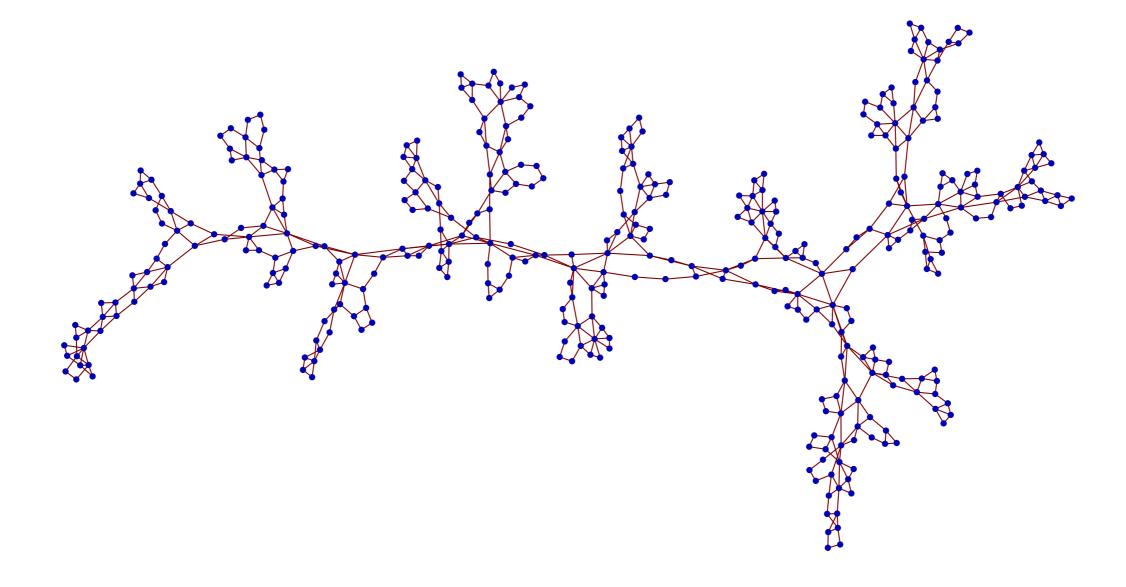


Figure: A uniform dissection of P_{387} .

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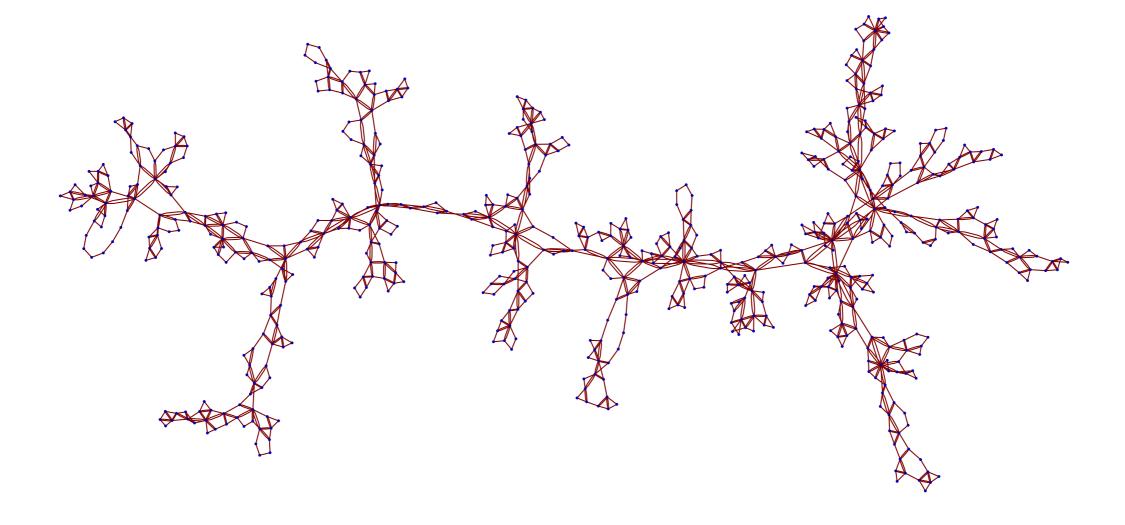


Figure: A uniform dissection of P_{637} .

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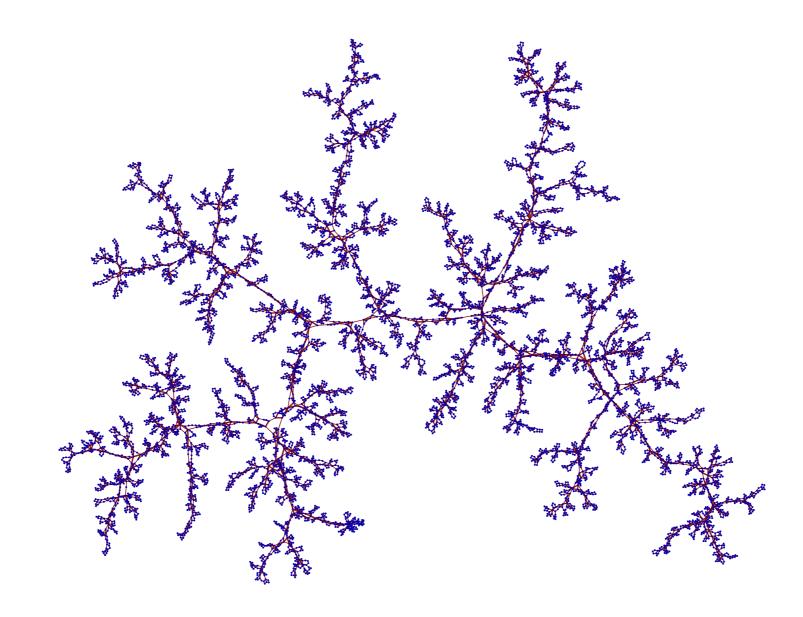


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I. SCALING LIMITS OF BGW TREES (FINITE VARIANCE, 1991)

II. SCALING LIMITS OF BGW TREES (INFINITE VARIANCE, 1998)

III. PLANE NON-CROSSING CONFIGURATIONS (2012)

IV. RANDOM MAPS (2004 - ?)



What does a "typical" random surface look like?





It is natural to view Brownian motion as a "typical" random path, describing the motion of a particle moving "uniformly at random".

A→ Idea: construct a (two-dimensional) random surface as a limit of random discrete surfaces.

39 / ×1

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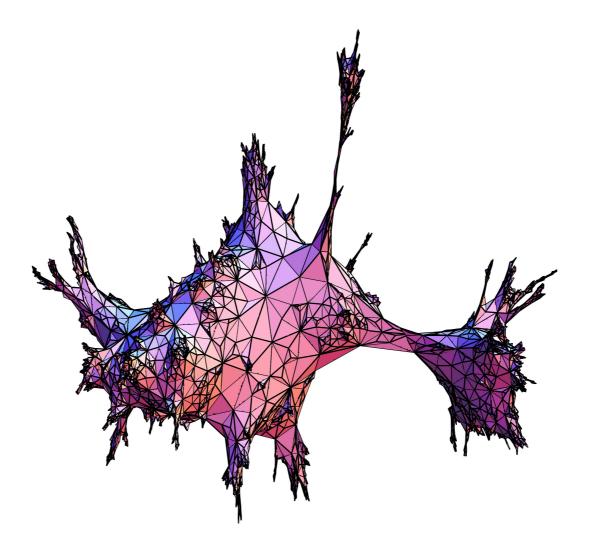


Figure: A large random triangulation (simulation by Nicolas Curien)



Problem (Schramm at ICM '06): Let T_n be a random uniform triangulation of the sphere with n triangles.



The Brownian map

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(see Le Gall's proceeding at ICM '14 for more information and references)

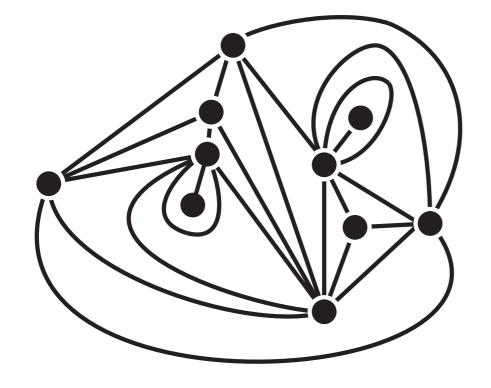


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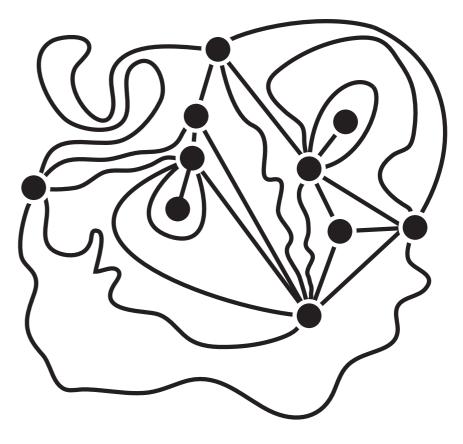


Figure: Two identical maps .



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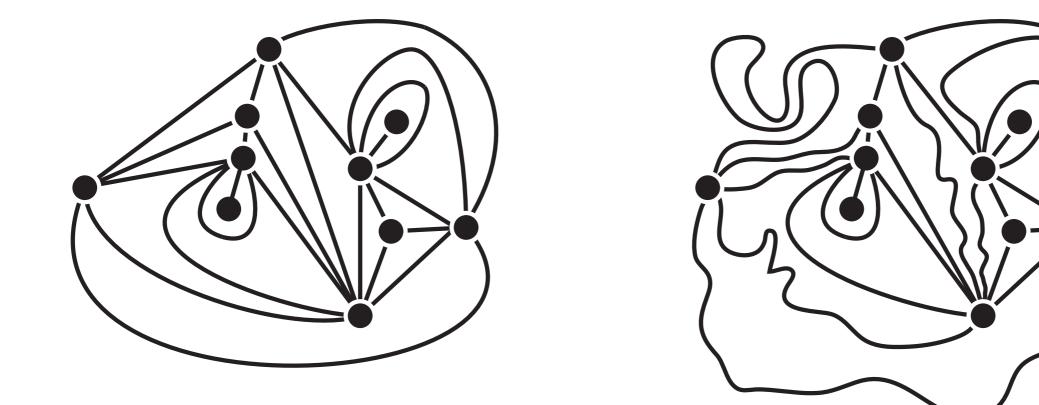


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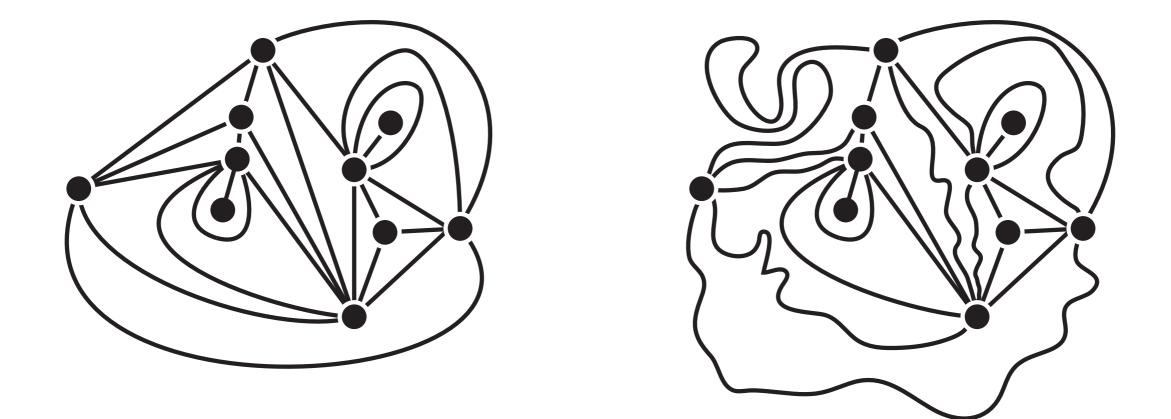


Figure: Two identical 3-angulations .



- A→ Combinatorics (Tutte starting in '60)
- -∧→ Probability theory (model for a Brownian surface)
- Algebraix and geometric motivations Motivations (cf Lando–Zvonkine '04 Graphs on surfaces and their applications)
- A→ Theoretical physics (connections with matrix integrals, 2D Liouville quantum gravity, KPZ formula.)

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There exists a constant $c_p > 0$ and a random compact metric space $(\mathfrak{m}_{\infty}, \mathsf{D}^*)$, called the Brownian map, such that the convergence

$$\left(V(M_n), c_p n^{-1/4} d_{gr}\right) \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{(d)} (m_{\infty}, D^*)$$

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- Λ → Le Gall '08: almost surely, (m_{∞}, D^*) has Hausdorff dimension 4.