Lemniscate Trees of Random Polynomials and Asymptotic Enumeration of Morse Functions on the 2-Sphere

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- Lemniscate trees of random polynomials
- Asymptotic enumeration of Morse functions on the 2-sphere

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Introduction



Problem: Understand the "landscape" of level sets of the modulus of a polynomial.

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Let $P \in \mathbb{C}[z]$ of degree n+1, $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

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 - Lemniscate configuration of P := homeomorphism class of the union of the singular level sets of P

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- P is lemniscate generic if P' has n distinct zeros y₁,..., y_n such that:

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2 $|P(y_i)| = |P(y_j)|$ iff $i = j$

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If P is lemniscate generic it has n singular lemniscates, each with one singular connected component passing through a critical point

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Introduction

 F. Catanese and M. Paluszny (1991): Classified/enumerated generic configurations

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Example

Figure:
$$f(z) = \frac{1}{7}z^7 - \frac{27}{28}z^6 - \frac{419}{70}z^5 + \frac{209}{8}z^4 + \frac{1415}{14}z^3 + \frac{809}{14}z^2 - 60z$$



Connection to Combinatorics

Catanese and Paluszny show that generic lemniscate configurations of degree n + 1 polynomials are in one-to-one correspondence with the collection T_n of "lemniscate trees" on n vertices, i.e. labeled, rooted trees in which:

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- 1 vertices have at most 2 children
- vertex labels increase along any path directed away from the root

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Example



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The Problem

Want to understand a "typical" lemniscate tree

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The Problem

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- How much branching?

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- Questions:
 - What is the distribution of nodes with 2 children among trees in T_n?

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The Problem

- Want to understand a "typical" lemniscate tree
- How much branching?
- Questions:
 - What is the distribution of nodes with 2 children among trees in T_n?
 - 2 How many nodes with 2 children should we expect in the lemniscate tree of a random polynomial?

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Example: Lemniscate trees with 40 vertices



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The Generating Function

F. Catanese, R. Miranda, D. Zagier, and E. Bombieri give some assistance in studying the combinatorial class of lemniscate trees:



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• $a_{n,k} := \#$ trees in \mathcal{T}_n with exactly k nodes with 2 children

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•
$$F(z,u) := \sum_{n,k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_{n,k}}{n!} u^k z^n$$

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$$F(z,u) := \sum_{n,k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_{n,k}}{n!} u^k z^n$$

They show:

$$F(z,u) = \left[\cosh\left(\frac{z}{2}\sqrt{1-2u}\right) - \frac{\sinh\left(\frac{z}{2}\sqrt{1-2u}\right)}{\sqrt{1-2u}}\right]^{-2}$$

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Analytic Combinatorics

 Basic idea: Use complex analysis to get information about the asymptotic rate of growth of the coefficients of a power series

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- Basic idea: Use complex analysis to get information about the asymptotic rate of growth of the coefficients of a power series
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 - Distance to the nearest singularity tells us the exponential order

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Singularity Analysis

For
$$u = 1$$
: $F(z, 1) = [1 - \sin z]^{-1}$

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Singularity Analysis

• For
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- $F(z,1) = \frac{8}{(\pi-2z)^2} + G(z)$, where G(z) is analytic in a disk of radius $3\pi/2$ about the origin

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- Use Cauchy estimates for the analytic part: $[z^n]G(z) = O(R^{-n})$ for any $\frac{\pi}{2} < R < 3\pi/2$

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• So
$$[z^n]F(z,1) = \frac{8(n+1)}{\pi^2} \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^n + O(R^{-n})$$

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- Use Cauchy estimates for the analytic part: $[z^n]G(z) = O(R^{-n})$ for any $\frac{\pi}{2} < R < 3\pi/2$
- So $[z^n]F(z,1) = \frac{8(n+1)}{\pi^2} \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^n + O(R^{-n})$
- Thus $|\mathcal{T}_n| = n! [z^n] F(z, 1) \sim \frac{8}{\pi^2} \left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)^n (n+1)!$

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 - For bivariate generating functions (treating one variable as a parameter)

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- Perturbed singularity analysis
 - For bivariate generating functions (treating one variable as a parameter)
 - The example at hand falls into the "movable singularity schema"

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Perturbed Singularity Analysis

• For *u* in a neighborhood of 1, the nearest singularity of F(z, u) moves, namely to $\rho(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-2u}} \log \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{1-2u}}{1-\sqrt{1-2u}} \right)$, but it's nature as an order two pole remains the same

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- This ultimately gives rise to a Gaussian limit law:

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Distribution of nodes with 2 children in \mathcal{T}_n

Theorem 1

The random variable $N_2(T_n)$ (where $T_n \in \mathcal{T}_n$ is chosen uniformly at random) converges in distribution to a Gaussian variable with a speed of convergence that is $O(n^{-1/2})$. The mean and variance are asymptotically $(1 - \frac{2}{\pi})n$ and $(\frac{4}{\pi^2} + \frac{2}{\pi} - 1)n$ respectively.

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Random Polynomials

In contrast to the previous result, computer simulations show that for different models of random polynomials, such as the Kostlan ensemble, the corresponding lemniscate trees have very little branching. In particular, one can prove the following theorem:

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Theorem 2

Let p_N be a random polynomial of degree N whose zeros are drawn i.i.d. from a fixed probability measure μ on S^2 that has a bounded density with respect to the uniform (Haar) measure. Then for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists C_{ϵ} so that the number Y_N of nodes with two children in the lemniscate tree associated to p_N satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}Y_N \leq C_{\epsilon}N^{\frac{1}{2}+\epsilon}.$$

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Small Petal Phenomenon



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Random Polynomials

Do any models of random polynomials have trees that resemble the combinatorial baseline?

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Random Polynomials

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Random linear combinations of Chebyshev polynomials: $p(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k T_k(z), a_k \sim N(0, 1).$

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 - rich nesting structure

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- Random linear combinations of Chebyshev polynomials: $p(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k T_k(z), a_k \sim N(0, 1).$
 - rich nesting structure
 - not generally generic

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Random Linear Combination of Chebyshev Polynomials



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Random Polynomials

Instead we consider a random perturbbition of a Chebyshev polynomial: $p(z) = T_n(z) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} b_k T_k(z)$, where the b_k are independently chosen to be 1 or -1 with equal probability.

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Randomly Perturbed Chebyshev Polynomials



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Randomly Perturbed Chebyshev Polynomials



Computer experiments: the lemniscate tree has $\approx n/3$ vertices with two children.

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Morse Functions

Let *M* be a differentiable manifold, $f : M \to \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function, and $x \in M$.

• The differential of f at x is a linear map $df_x : T_x M \to \mathbb{R}$ defined on the tangent space $T_x M$ to M at x.

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- x is a critical point of f if $df_x = 0$.
- The *Hessian* of f at x is a symmetric bilinear map $H_{f,x}: T_x M \times T_x M \to \mathbb{R}.$

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- If x is a critical point of f, we say it is nondegenerate if $H_{f,x}$ is nondegenerate, i.e. if $H_{f,x}(X, Y) = 0 \ \forall Y \in T_x M \iff X = 0.$

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- If x is a critical point of f, we say it is nondegenerate if H_{f,x} is nondegenerate, i.e. if
 H_{f,x}(X, Y) = 0 ∀Y ∈ T_xM ⇐⇒ X = 0.
- *f* is a *Morse function* if all of its critical points are nondegenerate.

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Facts About Morse Functions

There exists a Morse function on differentiable manifold.

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- There exists a Morse function on differentiable manifold.
- The critical points of any Morse function are isolated.

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Facts About Morse Functions

- There exists a Morse function on differentiable manifold.
- The critical points of any Morse function are isolated.
- If f is a Morse function on a compact differentiable manifold M, then f has at least one (at least 2 if dim M > 0) and only finitely many critical points.

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Geometric Equivalence

Two Morse functions $f, g : M \to \mathbb{R}$ are said be *geometrically* equivalent if there are orientation preserving diffeomorphisms $R : M \to M$ and $L : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

 $g = L \circ f \circ R.$

This is an equivalence relation on the set of Morse functions on M.

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Morse Trees

A Morse tree of order n is a pair (Γ, φ) , where Γ is a graph with 2n+2 vertices, and φ is an injective real-valued labeling of the vertices of Γ , such that

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The *level function* associated to φ is the function $\ell_{\varphi} : V(\Gamma) \to \mathbb{Z}$ given by $\ell_{\varphi}(v) = |\{u \in V(\Gamma) : \varphi(u) \le \varphi(v)\}|.$

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The *level function* associated to φ is the function $\ell_{\varphi} : V(\Gamma) \to \mathbb{Z}$ given by $\ell_{\varphi}(v) = |\{u \in V(\Gamma) : \varphi(u) \le \varphi(v)\}|$. Two Morse trees (Γ_1, φ_1) and (Γ_2, φ_2) are isomorphic if there is a graph isomorphism $\beta : \Gamma_1 \to \Gamma_2$ such that $\ell_{\varphi_2}(\beta(v)) = \ell_{\varphi_1}(v)$ for all $v \in V(\Gamma_1)$.

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Connecting Morse functions with Morse Trees

We can associate to any Morse function on S² a Morse tree, and to any Morse tree a Morse function on S².

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Connecting Morse functions with Morse Trees

- We can associate to any Morse function on S² a Morse tree, and to any Morse tree a Morse function on S².
- Moreover, two Morse functions on S² are geometrically equivalent if an only if their associated Morse trees are isomorphic.

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The Generating Function

Liviu Nicolaescu established a two-parameter recurrence for enumerating Morse trees, from which he was able to derive a generating function for the number of geometric equivalence classes of Morse functions on S^2 . Specifically, he proved

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The Generating Function

Theorem (Nicolaescu)

Let g(n) be the number of geometric equivalence classes of Morse functions on the 2-sphere with n saddle points and define

$$\xi(t) = \sum_{n \ge 0} g(n) \frac{t^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$$

Then $\xi(t)$ is the compositional inverse of the function

$$\theta(s) = s \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1-s^2x^2/2)^2+2s^2x}} dx.$$

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The main ingredients in deriving the asymptotic for g(n) are the Lagrange inversion theorem and the saddle point method.

Lagrange Inversion

We can extract the coefficients of $\xi(t)$ from it inverse using the Lagrange inversion theorem:

Lagrange inversion theorem

If
$$\phi$$
 is analytic with $\phi(0) \neq 0$ and $f(w) = \frac{w}{\phi(w)}$, then $[z^n]f^{-1}(z) = \frac{1}{n}[w^{n-1}]\phi(w)^n$.

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This yields
$$\frac{g(n)}{(2n+1)!} = [t^{2n+1}]\xi(t) = \frac{1}{2n+1}[s^{2n}]\left(\frac{s}{\theta(s)}\right)^{2n+1}$$
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The Saddle Point Method

The saddle point method is a method to compute the asymptotics of contour integrals of functions depending on a large parameter, such as Cauchy coefficient integrals

$$[z^n]f(z)=\frac{1}{2\pi i}\int_C\frac{f(z)}{z^{n+1}}\,dz.$$

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The idea involves integrating over a contour passing through or near a saddle point ζ . Under certain conditions if $F(z) = e^{f(z)}$ is an analytic function depending on a large parameter, then

$$rac{1}{2\pi i}\int_C F(z)\,dz\sim rac{F(\zeta)}{\sqrt{2\pi f''(\zeta)}}.$$

The Saddle Point Method



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The asymptotic for the inverse factorials $\frac{1}{N!}$ can be computed using the saddle point method:



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Example

The asymptotic for the inverse factorials $\frac{1}{N!}$ can be computed using the saddle point method:

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$$\frac{1}{N!} = [z^N]e^z = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{e^z}{z^{N+1}} dz$$

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$$\frac{1}{N!} = [z^N]e^z = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_c \frac{e^z}{z^{N+1}} \, dz$$
 $f(z) = z - (N+1)\log z \Rightarrow f''(z) = \frac{N+1}{z^2}$

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$$Saddle \text{ point: } \zeta = N+1$$

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Asymptotic for g(n)

Almost Theorem

There are constants $ho \approx$ 0.769867 and $C \approx$ 1.88056 such that

$$g(n) = (2n+1)!
ho^n rac{C}{n^{3/2}} (1+o(1)) ext{ as } n o \infty.$$

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