

# The Asymptotics of Young Diagrams and Free Probability Theory

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## Section 1

# Young Diagrams and Representations of Symmetric Groups



# Irreducible Representations of $S_n$ are Given in Terms of Young Diagrams

## Example ( $n = 4$ )

$$4 = 4 \quad (4) = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|} \hline \square & \square & \square & \square \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$4 = 3 + 1 \quad (3, 1) = \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline \square & \square & \square \\ \hline \square & & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$4 = 2 + 2 \quad (2, 2) = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \square & \square \\ \hline \square & \square \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$4 = 2 + 1 + 1 \quad (2, 1, 1) = \begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline \square & \square \\ \hline \square & \\ \hline \square & \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$4 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 \quad (1, 1, 1, 1) = \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array}$$

# Induction of representation of subgroup

- Let  $H \subset G$  be subgroup of  $G$ ; write  $G$  as disjoint union of cosets:

$$G = g_1H \cup \cdots \cup g_mH$$

- Let  $\pi$  be representation of  $H$
- Define induced representation

$$\text{Ind}_H^G \pi(g) = \left( \pi(g_i^{-1} g g_j) \right)_{i,j=1}^m$$

where

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- Even if  $\pi$  is irreducible, the induction  $\text{Ind}_H^G \pi$  is in general reducible, hence decomposes into irreducible components

# Inducing a representation of $S_m$ and of $S_n$ from $S_m \times S_n \subset S_{m+n}$ to a (reducible) representation of $S_{m+n}$

- Decomposition into irreducible components is given by Littlewood-Richardson rule
- $\lambda$  appears in  $\mu \times \nu$  as often as there are tableaux of skew shape  $\lambda \setminus \nu$  of weight  $\mu$  such that ...

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- this rule is algorithmic, decomposition can be calculated quite effectively by computer algebra: Littlewood-Richardson Calculator `lrcalc` by Anders Buch
- for  $m, n$  large there are many terms; there is no apparent structure



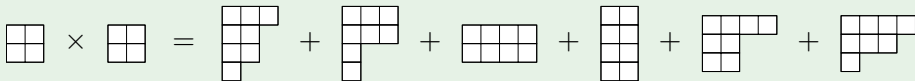
# Inducing a representation of $S_4$ and of $S_4$ to $S_8$

## Example

$$\text{Ind}_{S_4 \times S_4}^{S_8} \pi(2,2) \otimes \pi(2,2) =$$

$$\pi(3,2,2,1) \oplus \pi(3,3,1,1) \oplus \pi(4,4) \oplus \pi(2,2,2,2) \oplus \pi(4,2,2) \oplus \pi(4,3,1),$$

or in terms of Young diagrams



The diagram shows the tensor product of two Young diagrams for  $S_4$  (each a 2x2 square) resulting in the direct sum of six Young diagrams for  $S_8$ :

- $\pi(3,2,2,1)$ : A Young diagram with 3 boxes in the first row, 2 in the second, 2 in the third, and 1 in the fourth.
- $\pi(3,3,1,1)$ : A Young diagram with 3 boxes in the first row, 3 in the second, 1 in the third, and 1 in the fourth.
- $\pi(4,4)$ : A Young diagram with 4 boxes in the first row and 4 in the second.
- $\pi(2,2,2,2)$ : A Young diagram with 2 boxes in each of the four rows.
- $\pi(4,2,2)$ : A Young diagram with 4 boxes in the first row, 2 in the second, and 2 in the third.
- $\pi(4,3,1)$ : A Young diagram with 4 boxes in the first row, 3 in the second, and 1 in the third.

Inducing a representation of  $S_9$  and of  $S_9$  to  $S_{18}$ 

## Example

$$\text{Ind}_{S_9 \times S_9}^{S_{18}} \pi(3,3,3) \otimes \pi(3,3,3):$$

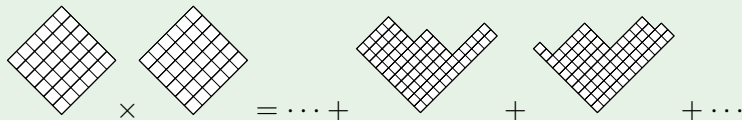
The diagram illustrates the decomposition of the tensor product of two Young diagrams of shape  $(3,3)$  into 20 Young diagrams of various shapes. The decomposition is shown in four rows:

- Row 1:  $(3,3) \times (3,3) =$  (5 diagrams)
- Row 2:  $+$  (5 diagrams)
- Row 3:  $+$  (5 diagrams)
- Row 4:  $+$  (5 diagrams)

The total number of Young diagrams is 20.

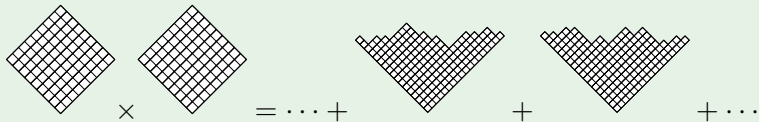
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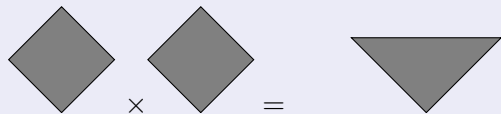
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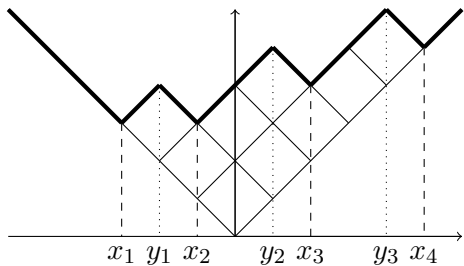
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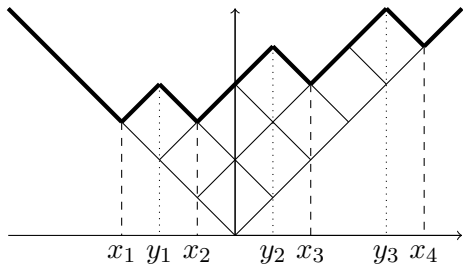


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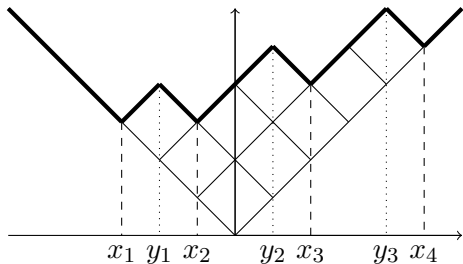




$$\mu_\lambda = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \delta_{x_k}$$

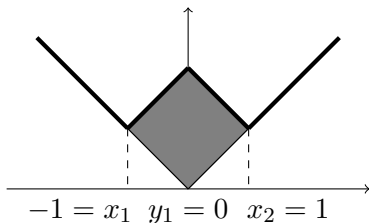
$$\alpha_k = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{m-1} (x_k - y_i)}{\prod_{i \neq k} (x_k - x_i)}$$

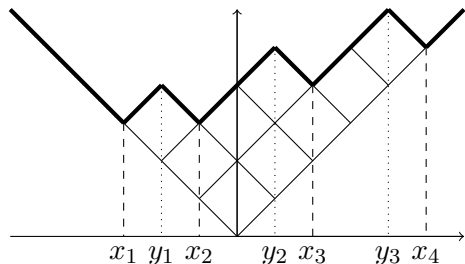




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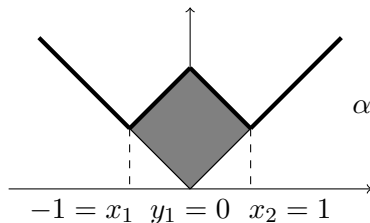
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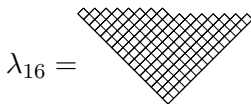
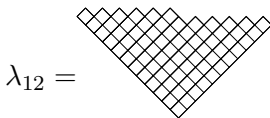
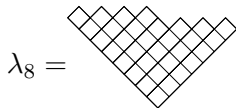


$$\alpha_1 = \frac{x_1 - y_1}{x_1 - x_2} = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \alpha_2 = \frac{x_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

$$\mu_{\diamond} = \mu_{(1)} = \mu_{(2,2)} = \cdots = \frac{1}{2}(\delta_{-1} + \delta_{+1}).$$

# Measure Associated to limiting Young Shape $\blacktriangledown$

$$\lambda_m = (m-1, m-2, \dots, \frac{m}{2}+2, \frac{m}{2}+1, \frac{m}{2}, \frac{m}{2}, \frac{m}{2}-1, \frac{m}{2}-2, \dots, 4, 3, 2, 1)$$



For  $m \rightarrow \infty$  this converges to our triangular limit shape, thus we can assign to the latter continuous Young diagram the measure

$$\mu_{\blacktriangledown} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \mu_{\lambda_m}.$$

# Measure Associated to limiting Young Shape

The interlacing sequences for these  $\lambda_m$  are given by

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc}
 -2 & & -2 + \frac{4}{m} & & \dots & & -\frac{4}{m} & & \frac{2}{m} & & \dots & & 2 - \frac{6}{m} & & 2 - \frac{2}{m} \\
 & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\
 & & -2 + \frac{2}{m} & & & & -2 + \frac{6}{m} & & \dots & & -\frac{2}{m} & & \frac{4}{m} & & \dots & & 2 - \frac{4}{m}
 \end{array}$$

It is quite straightforward to check that the corresponding measure  $\mu_{\lambda_m}$  converges, for  $m \rightarrow \infty$ , to the arcsine distribution on  $[-2, 2]$ , which has the density

$$\mu_{\blacktriangledown} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi\sqrt{4-t^2}}, & |t| \leq 2 \\ 0, & |t| > 2. \end{cases}$$

# Free Convolution

We say

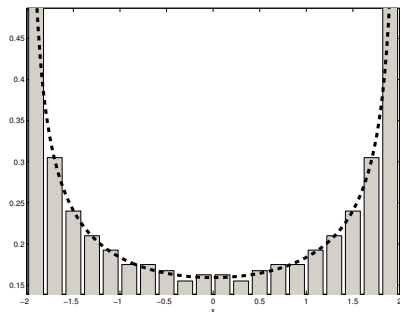
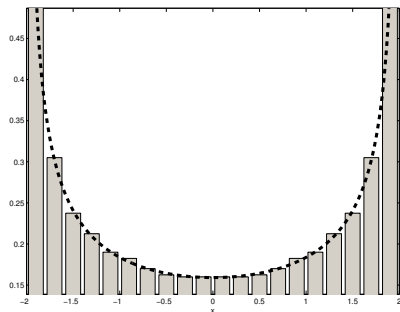
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Can we understand (and calculate) this?

Another Instance of  $\mu_{\nabla} = \mu_{\blacklozenge} \boxplus \mu_{\blacklozenge}$ 

Histogram of the  $n$  eigenvalues of  $X + Y$  for  $X$  diagonal and two random choices of the eigenspace of  $Y$ ; both  $X$  and  $Y$  have eigenvalue distribution  $\mu_{\blacklozenge}$ ; the eigenvalue histogram of  $X + Y$  is in both cases compared to  $\mu_{\nabla} = \mu_{\blacklozenge} \boxplus \mu_{\blacklozenge}$ ;  $n = 2000$

## How to Capture Information About $\mu_{\diamond}$

$X$  has eigenvalue distribution  $\mu_{\diamond} = \frac{1}{2}(\delta_{-1} + \delta_{+1})$  can be described by

- $X^2 = 1$
- $X$  has moments

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- Canonical extension of this is

$$\tau\left(\sum_{g \in G} \alpha_g g\right) = \alpha_1$$

## Transferring Freeness from $G$ to $\mathbb{C}G$

$G = G_1 * G_2$       free product  
of groups

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$\mathbb{C}G = \mathbb{C}G_1 * \mathbb{C}G_2$       free product  
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$G_1, G_2$  are **free** in  $G$  (as subgroups) means:

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$$g_i \neq e \quad \forall i$$

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# Reformulation in Terms of the Trace

We can reformulate the freeness of the subgroups also in terms of  $\tau$ :

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} g_i \in G_{j(i)} \\ \tau(g_i) = 0 \quad \forall i \\ j(1) \neq \dots \neq j(k) \end{array} \right\} \implies \tau(g_1 \cdots g_k) = 0$$

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This motivated Voiculescu to make the following definition.

# The Fundamental Notion: Freeness

## Definition (Voiculescu 1985)

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a unital algebra and  $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  a unital linear functional. Subalgebras  $\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n \subset \mathcal{A}$  are **free (w.r.t.  $\varphi$ )**, if:

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- Freeness is a special structure of the mixed moments in elements from  $\mathcal{A}_1, \dots, \mathcal{A}_n$ .
- **This structure should be seen and investigated in analogy to the classical concept of “independence”.**

## Section 2

# Freeness





## Some History



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- 1994 Speicher develops combinatorial theory of freeness, based on "free cumulants"
- 1998 Biane describes operations on representations asymptotically by free probability
- later ... many new results on operator algebras, eigenvalue distribution of random matrices, and much more ....

### Definition (Voiculescu 1985)

Let  $(\mathcal{A}, \varphi)$  be a **non-commutative probability space**, i.e.,  $\mathcal{A}$  is a unital algebra and  $\varphi : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is unital linear functional (i.e.,  $\varphi(1) = 1$ ).

### Example (Commutative Probability Space)

For a classical probability space  $(\Omega, P)$  take

- $\mathcal{A} = L^\infty(\Omega, P)$
- $\varphi(x) = \int_\Omega x(\omega) dP(\omega)$  for  $x \in \mathcal{A}$

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Unital subalgebras  $\mathcal{A}_i$  ( $i \in I$ ) are **free** or **freely independent**, if

$\varphi(a_1 \cdots a_n) = 0$  whenever

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Random variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathcal{A}$  are freely independent, if their generated unital subalgebras  $\mathcal{A}_i := \text{algebra}(1, x_i)$  are so.

# What is Freeness?

Freeness between  $x$  and  $y$  is an infinite set of equations relating various moments in  $x$  and  $y$ :

$$\varphi\left(p_1(x)q_1(y)p_2(x)q_2(y)\cdots\right) = 0$$



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Basic observation: freeness between  $x$  and  $y$  is actually a **rule for calculating mixed moments** in  $x$  and  $y$  from the moments of  $x$  and the moments of  $y$ :

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If  $x$  and  $y$  are free, then we have

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which results in

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(xyxy) &= \varphi(xx) \cdot \varphi(y) \cdot \varphi(y) + \varphi(x) \cdot \varphi(x) \cdot \varphi(yy) \\ &\quad - \varphi(x) \cdot \varphi(y) \cdot \varphi(x) \cdot \varphi(y) \end{aligned}$$

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Freeness is a rule for calculating mixed moments, analogous to the concept of independence for random variables. This is the reason that it is also called “free independence”.

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Note: free independence is a different rule from classical independence; free independence occurs typically for **non-commuting random variables**, like operators on Hilbert spaces or (random) matrices.

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## Section 3

# How can we calculate the free convolution



## Definition

For any probability measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbb{R}$  we define its *Cauchy transform*  $G$  by

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## Theorem (Voiculescu, 1986)

For a compactly supported probability measure we define its  $\mathcal{R}$ -transform  $\mathcal{R}_\mu$  as the analytic function in some disk about 0, which is uniquely determined by

$$G_\mu[1/z + \mathcal{R}(z)] = z,$$

where  $G_\mu$  is the Cauchy transform of  $\mu$ .

Then we have the additivity of the  $\mathcal{R}$ -transform under free convolution, i.e., for compactly supported probability measures  $\mu$  and  $\nu$ , we have

$$\mathcal{R}_{\mu \boxplus \nu}(z) = \mathcal{R}_\mu(z) + \mathcal{R}_\nu(z).$$

Example (Calculation of  $\mu_{\diamond} \boxplus \mu_{\diamond}$  via  $\mathcal{R}$ -transform)

We set  $\mu := \mu_{\diamond} = 1/2(\delta_{-1} + \delta_{+1})$  and  $\nu := \mu \boxplus \mu$ .

$$\text{Then } G_{\mu}(z) = \int \frac{1}{z-t} d\mu(t) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{z+1} + \frac{1}{z-1} \right) = \frac{z}{z^2-1}.$$

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$$\text{Hence } z = \frac{\mathcal{R}_{\mu}(z) + 1/z}{(\mathcal{R}_{\mu}(z) + 1/z)^2 - 1}, \quad \text{thus } \mathcal{R}_{\mu}(z) = \frac{\sqrt{1+4z^2}-1}{2z}$$

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$$\text{Thus } d\nu(t) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \Im \frac{1}{\sqrt{t^2-4}} dt = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\pi\sqrt{4-t^2}}, & |t| \leq 2 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases},$$

i.e., we have indeed that  $\mu_\diamond \boxplus \mu_\diamond = \nu$  is the arcsine distribution  $\mu_\blacktriangledown$ .