# Equivalence of Liouville quantum gravity and the Brownian map 

Jason Miller

Cambridge
joint with
Ewain Gwynne (Cambridge)
Scott Sheffield (MIT)

June 21, 2019

## Overview

How does one make sense of the uniform measure on surfaces homeomorphic to the sphere?

- Approach 1: Random planar maps
- Rooted in the combinatorics literature from the 1960s
- Approach 2: Liouville quantum gravity (LQG)
- Rooted in the physics literature from the 1980s
- Relationship

Schramm-Loewner evolution, percolation, Eden growth model, diffusion limited aggregation

## Planar Brownian motion

- Planar Brownian motion is the "uniform measure" on continuous curves in $\mathbf{C}$



## Planar Brownian motion

- Planar Brownian motion is the "uniform measure" on continuous curves in $\mathbf{C}$
- Arises as the scaling limit of uniformly random discrete paths



## Planar Brownian motion

- Planar Brownian motion is the "uniform measure" on continuous curves in $\mathbf{C}$
- Arises as the scaling limit of uniformly random discrete paths
- Let $S_{n}$ be a simple random walk on $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$
- moves up/down/left/right in each time step with equal probability



## Planar Brownian motion

- Planar Brownian motion is the "uniform measure" on continuous curves in $\mathbf{C}$
- Arises as the scaling limit of uniformly random discrete paths
- Let $S_{n}$ be a simple random walk on $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$
- moves up/down/left/right in each time step with equal probability
- Donsker's invariance principle: $S_{\lfloor t n\rfloor} / \sqrt{n}$ converges to planar Brownian motion as $n \rightarrow \infty$



## Random planar maps

- A planar map is a finite graph together with an embedding in the plane so that no edges cross.



## Random planar maps

- A planar map is a finite graph together with an embedding in the plane so that no edges cross.
- Its faces are the connected components of the complement of its edges


## Random planar maps

- A planar map is a finite graph together with an embedding in the plane so that no edges cross.
- Its faces are the connected components of the complement of its edges
- A map is a quadrangulation if each face has 4 adjacent edges


## Random planar maps

- A planar map is a finite graph together with an embedding in the plane so that no edges cross.
- Its faces are the connected components of the complement of its edges
- A map is a quadrangulation if each face has 4 adjacent edges
- A quadrangulation corresponds to a metric space when equipped with the graph distance


## Random planar maps

- A planar map is a finite graph together with an embedding in the plane so that no edges cross.
- Its faces are the connected components of the complement of its edges
- A map is a quadrangulation if each face has 4 adjacent edges
- A quadrangulation corresponds to a metric space when equipped with the graph distance
- Interested in uniformly random quadrangulations with $n$ faces - random planar map (RPM).


## Random planar maps

- A planar map is a finite graph together with an embedding in the plane so that no edges cross.
- Its faces are the connected components of the complement of its edges
- A map is a quadrangulation if each face has 4 adjacent edges
- A quadrangulation corresponds to a metric space when equipped with the graph distance
- Interested in uniformly random quadrangulations with $n$ faces - random planar map (RPM).
- First studied by Tutte in 1960s while working on the four color theorem
- Combinatorics: enumeration formulas
- Physics: statistical physics models: percolation, Ising, UST ...
- Probability: "uniformly random surface," Brownian surface



What is the structure of a typical quadrangulation when the number of faces is large?


What is the structure of a typical quadrangulation when the number of faces is large? How many are there? Tutte:

$$
\frac{2 \times 3^{n}}{(n+1)(n+2)}\binom{2 n}{n} .
$$

Random quadrangulation with 25,000 faces

(Simulation due to J.F. Marckert)

## Structure of large random planar maps



- Diameter is $\asymp n^{1 / 4}$ (Chaissang-Schaefer)
(Simulation due to J.F. Marckert)


## Structure of large random planar maps


(Simulation due to J.F. Marckert)

- Diameter is $\asymp n^{1 / 4}$ (Chaissang-Schaefer)
- Non-trivial subsequentially limiting metric spaces upon scaling distances by $n^{-1 / 4}$ (Le Gall)


## Structure of large random planar maps


(Simulation due to J.F. Marckert)

- Diameter is $\asymp n^{1 / 4}$ (Chaissang-Schaefer)
- Non-trivial subsequentially limiting metric spaces upon scaling distances by $n^{-1 / 4}$ (Le Gall)
- Subsequentially limiting space is a.s.:
- 4-dimensional (Le Gall)
- homeomorphic to the 2-sphere (Le Gall and Paulin, Miermont)


## Structure of large random planar maps


(Simulation due to J.F. Marckert)

- Diameter is $\asymp n^{1 / 4}$ (Chaissang-Schaefer)
- Non-trivial subsequentially limiting metric spaces upon scaling distances by $n^{-1 / 4}$ (Le Gall)
- Subsequentially limiting space is a.s.:
- 4-dimensional (Le Gall)
- homeomorphic to the 2-sphere (Le Gall and Paulin, Miermont)
- There exists a unique limit in distribution: the Brownian map (Le Gall, Miermont)


## Structure of large random planar maps


(Simulation due to J.F. Marckert)

- Diameter is $\asymp n^{1 / 4}$ (Chaissang-Schaefer)
- Non-trivial subsequentially limiting metric spaces upon scaling distances by $n^{-1 / 4}$ (Le Gall)
- Subsequentially limiting space is a.s.:
- 4-dimensional (Le Gall)
- homeomorphic to the 2-sphere (Le Gall and Paulin, Miermont)
- There exists a unique limit in distribution: the Brownian map (Le Gall, Miermont)
- Brownian surface: disk, plane, sphere, half-plane


## Structure of large random planar maps


(Simulation due to J.F. Marckert)

- Diameter is $\asymp n^{1 / 4}$ (Chaissang-Schaefer)
- Non-trivial subsequentially limiting metric spaces upon scaling distances by $n^{-1 / 4}$ (Le Gall)
- Subsequentially limiting space is a.s.:
- 4-dimensional (Le Gall)
- homeomorphic to the 2-sphere (Le Gall and Paulin, Miermont)
- There exists a unique limit in distribution: the Brownian map (Le Gall, Miermont)
- Brownian surface: disk, plane, sphere, half-plane
- Abstract metric measure spaces $(X, d, \mu)$


## Brownian intersection exponents



Three "random walks" on the planar grid $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$. Each one moves independently in each direction with equal probability.

## Brownian intersection exponents



Three "random walks" on the planar grid $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$. Each one moves independently in each direction with equal probability.

## Brownian intersection exponents



Three "random walks" on the planar grid $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$. Each one moves independently in each direction with equal probability.

## Brownian intersection exponents



Three "random walks" on the planar grid $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$. Each one moves independently in each direction with equal probability.

## Brownian intersection exponents



Three "random walks" on the planar grid $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$. Each one moves independently in each direction with equal probability.

## Brownian intersection exponents



Three "random walks" on the planar grid $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$. Each one moves independently in each direction with equal probability.

## Brownian intersection exponents



Three "random walks" on the planar grid $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$. Each one moves independently in each direction with equal probability.

## Brownian intersection exponents



Three "random walks" on the planar grid $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$. Each one moves independently in each direction with equal probability. Ranges very likely to intersect in many places.

## Brownian intersection exponents



Three "random walks" on the planar grid $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$. Each one moves independently in each direction with equal probability. Ranges very likely to intersect in many places. How unlikely is it that they travel a long distance without intersecting?

## Brownian intersection exponents



Three "random walks" on the planar grid $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$. Each one moves independently in each direction with equal probability. Ranges very likely to intersect in many places. How unlikely is it that they travel a long distance without intersecting? Hard problem...

## Brownian intersection exponents



Three "random walks" on the planar grid $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$. Each one moves independently in each direction with equal probability. Ranges very likely to intersect in many places. How unlikely is it that they travel a long distance without intersecting? Hard problem...

## How was it solved?

Idea: Often easier to solve problems like this one on random quadrangulations because they are "less rigid."


## How was it solved?

Idea: Often easier to solve problems like this one on random quadrangulations because they are "less rigid."

- Formulate and solve the analogous problem on a random quadrangulation (Duplantier)



## How was it solved?

Idea: Often easier to solve problems like this one on random quadrangulations because they are "less rigid."

- Formulate and solve the analogous problem on a random quadrangulation (Duplantier)
- Apply a physics heuristic called the "KPZ relation" which converts probabilities computed on random quadrangulations to the corresponding probabilities on the square lattice



## How was it solved?

Idea: Often easier to solve problems like this one on random quadrangulations because they are "less rigid."

- Formulate and solve the analogous problem on a random quadrangulation (Duplantier)
- Apply a physics heuristic called the "KPZ relation" which converts probabilities computed on random quadrangulations to the corresponding probabilities on the square lattice
- Verify the physics prediction mathematically (Lawler, Schramm, Werner using SLE)



## How was it solved?

Idea: Often easier to solve problems like this one on random quadrangulations because they are "less rigid."

- Formulate and solve the analogous problem on a random quadrangulation (Duplantier)
- Apply a physics heuristic called the "KPZ relation" which converts probabilities computed on random quadrangulations to the corresponding probabilities on the square lattice
- Verify the physics prediction mathematically (Lawler, Schramm, Werner using SLE)

Many other examples just like this.


## Picking a surface at random in the continuum

Uniformization theorem: every two-dimensional Riemannian manifold homeomorphic to the unit disk $\mathbf{D}$ can be conformally mapped to the disk.


## Picking a surface at random in the continuum

Uniformization theorem: every two-dimensional Riemannian manifold homeomorphic to the unit disk $\mathbf{D}$ can be conformally mapped to the disk.


Isothermal coordinates: Metric for the surface takes the form $e^{\rho(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ for some smooth function $\rho$ where $d x^{2}+d y^{2}$ is the Euclidean metric.

## Picking a surface at random in the continuum

Uniformization theorem: every two-dimensional Riemannian manifold homeomorphic to the unit disk $\mathbf{D}$ can be conformally mapped to the disk.


Isothermal coordinates: Metric for the surface takes the form $e^{\rho(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ for some smooth function $\rho$ where $d x^{2}+d y^{2}$ is the Euclidean metric.
$\Rightarrow$ Can parameterize the surfaces homeomorphic to $\mathbf{D}$ with smooth functions on $\mathbf{D}$.

- If $\rho=0$, get $\mathbf{D}$
- If $\Delta \rho=0$, i.e. if $\rho$ is harmonic, the surface described is flat


## Picking a surface at random in the continuum

Uniformization theorem: every two-dimensional Riemannian manifold homeomorphic to the unit disk $\mathbf{D}$ can be conformally mapped to the disk.


Isothermal coordinates: Metric for the surface takes the form $e^{\rho(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ for some smooth function $\rho$ where $d x^{2}+d y^{2}$ is the Euclidean metric.
$\Rightarrow$ Can parameterize the surfaces homeomorphic to $\mathbf{D}$ with smooth functions on $\mathbf{D}$.

- If $\rho=0$, get $\mathbf{D}$
- If $\Delta \rho=0$, i.e. if $\rho$ is harmonic, the surface described is flat

Question: Which measure on $\rho$ ? If we want our surface to be a perturbation of a flat metric, natural to choose $\rho$ as the canonical perturbation of a harmonic function.

## The Gaussian free field

- The discrete Gaussian free field (DGFF) is the measure on functions $h: D \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ for $D \subseteq \mathbf{Z}^{2}$ and $\left.h\right|_{\partial D}=\psi$ with density with respect to Lebesgue measure on $\mathbf{R}^{|D|}$ :

$$
\frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \sim y}(h(x)-h(y))^{2}\right)
$$



## The Gaussian free field

- The discrete Gaussian free field (DGFF) is the measure on functions $h: D \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ for $D \subseteq \mathbf{Z}^{2}$ and $\left.h\right|_{\partial D}=\psi$ with density with respect to Lebesgue measure on $\mathbf{R}^{|D|}$ :

$$
\frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \sim y}(h(x)-h(y))^{2}\right)
$$

- Natural perturbation of a harmonic function



## The Gaussian free field

- The discrete Gaussian free field (DGFF) is the measure on functions $h: D \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ for $D \subseteq \mathbf{Z}^{2}$ and $\left.h\right|_{\partial D}=\psi$ with density with respect to Lebesgue measure on $\mathbf{R}^{|D|}$ :

$$
\frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \sim y}(h(x)-h(y))^{2}\right)
$$



- Natural perturbation of a harmonic function
- Fine mesh limit: converges to the continuum GFF, the Gaussian field $h$ with

$$
\operatorname{cov}(h(x), h(y))=G(x, y)
$$

where $G$ is the Green's function for $\Delta$

## The Gaussian free field

- The discrete Gaussian free field (DGFF) is the measure on functions $h: D \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ for $D \subseteq \mathbf{Z}^{2}$ and $\left.h\right|_{\partial D}=\psi$ with density with respect to Lebesgue measure on $\mathbf{R}^{|D|}$ :

$$
\frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x \sim y}(h(x)-h(y))^{2}\right)
$$



- Natural perturbation of a harmonic function
- Fine mesh limit: converges to the continuum GFF, the Gaussian field $h$ with

$$
\operatorname{cov}(h(x), h(y))=G(x, y)
$$

where $G$ is the Green's function for $\Delta$

- Conformally invariant and Markovian


## Liouville quantum gravity

$$
\gamma=0.5
$$

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG): $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF

(Number of subdivisions)


## Liouville quantum gravity

$$
\gamma=0.5
$$

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG): $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF
- Introduced by Polyakov in the 1980s

(Number of subdivisions)


## Liouville quantum gravity

$$
\gamma=0.5
$$

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG): $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF
- Introduced by Polyakov in the 1980s
- III-defined as $h$ takes values in the space of distributions

(Number of subdivisions)


## Liouville quantum gravity

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG):
$e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF
- Introduced by Polyakov in the 1980s
- III-defined as $h$ takes values in the space of distributions
- Previously, area measure constructed using a regularization procedure
- Can compute areas of regions and lengths of curves
- Does not come with an obvious notion of "distance"

$$
\gamma=0.5
$$


(Number of subdivisions)

## Liouville quantum gravity

$$
\gamma=0.5
$$

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG): $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF
- Introduced by Polyakov in the 1980s
- III-defined as $h$ takes values in the space of distributions
- Previously, area measure constructed using a regularization procedure
- Can compute areas of regions and lengths of curves
- Does not come with an obvious notion of "distance"

Hoegh-Krohn, Kahane, Duplantier-Sheffield.

(Number of subdivisions)

## Liouville quantum gravity

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG): $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF
- Introduced by Polyakov in the 1980s
- III-defined as $h$ takes values in the space of distributions
- Previously, area measure constructed using a regularization procedure
- Can compute areas of regions and lengths of curves
- Does not come with an obvious notion of "distance"

Hoegh-Krohn, Kahane, Duplantier-Sheffield.

$$
\gamma=1.0
$$


(Number of subdivisions)

## Liouville quantum gravity

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG): $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF
- Introduced by Polyakov in the 1980s
- III-defined as $h$ takes values in the space of distributions
- Previously, area measure constructed using a regularization procedure
- Can compute areas of regions and lengths of curves
- Does not come with an obvious notion of "distance"

Hoegh-Krohn, Kahane, Duplantier-Sheffield.

(Number of subdivisions)

## Liouville quantum gravity

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG): $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF
- Introduced by Polyakov in the 1980s
- III-defined as $h$ takes values in the space of distributions
- Previously, area measure constructed using a regularization procedure
- Can compute areas of regions and lengths of curves
- Does not come with an obvious notion of "distance"

Hoegh-Krohn, Kahane, Duplantier-Sheffield.

$$
\gamma=2.0
$$


(Number of subdivisions)

## LQG and TBM

- Two "canonical" (but very different) constructions of random surfaces: Liouville quantum gravity (LQG) and the Brownian map (TBM)


## LQG and TBM

- Two "canonical" (but very different) constructions of random surfaces: Liouville quantum gravity (LQG) and the Brownian map (TBM)
- For $\gamma \in[0,2)$, Liouville quantum gravity (LQG) is the "random surface" with "Riemannian metric" $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF


## LQG and TBM

- Two "canonical" (but very different) constructions of random surfaces: Liouville quantum gravity (LQG) and the Brownian map (TBM)
- For $\gamma \in[0,2)$, Liouville quantum gravity (LQG) is the "random surface" with "Riemannian metric" $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF
- Previously, only made sense of as an area measure using a regularization procedure:

$$
\mu_{h}^{\gamma}=\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \epsilon^{\gamma^{2} / 2} e^{\gamma h_{\epsilon}(z)} d x d y
$$

## LQG and TBM

- Two "canonical" (but very different) constructions of random surfaces: Liouville quantum gravity (LQG) and the Brownian map (TBM)
- For $\gamma \in[0,2)$, Liouville quantum gravity (LQG) is the "random surface" with "Riemannian metric" $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF
- Previously, only made sense of as an area measure using a regularization procedure:

$$
\mu_{h}^{\gamma}=\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \epsilon^{\gamma^{2} / 2} e^{\gamma h_{\epsilon}(z)} d x d y
$$

- LQG has a conformal structure (compute angles, etc...) and an area measure


## LQG and TBM

- Two "canonical" (but very different) constructions of random surfaces: Liouville quantum gravity (LQG) and the Brownian map (TBM)
- For $\gamma \in[0,2)$, Liouville quantum gravity (LQG) is the "random surface" with "Riemannian metric" $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF
- Previously, only made sense of as an area measure using a regularization procedure:

$$
\mu_{h}^{\gamma}=\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \epsilon^{\gamma^{2} / 2} e^{\gamma h_{\epsilon}(z)} d x d y
$$

- LQG has a conformal structure (compute angles, etc...) and an area measure
- In contrast, TBM has a metric structure and an area measure


## Canonical embedding of TBM into $\mathbf{S}^{2}$

- It has been believed that there should be a "natural embedding" of TBM into $\mathbf{S}^{2}$ and that the embedded surface is described by a form of Liouville quantum gravity (LQG) with $\gamma=\sqrt{8 / 3}$


## Canonical embedding of TBM into $\mathbf{S}^{2}$

- It has been believed that there should be a "natural embedding" of TBM into $\mathbf{S}^{2}$ and that the embedded surface is described by a form of Liouville quantum gravity (LQG) with $\gamma=\sqrt{8 / 3}$

- Discrete approach: take a uniformly random planar map and embed it conformally into $\mathbf{S}^{2}$ (circle packing, uniformization, etc...), then in the $n \rightarrow \infty$ limit it converges to a form of $\sqrt{8 / 3-L Q G}$.


## Equivalence of LQG and TBM

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG): $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$, $h$ a GFF
- The Brownian map (TBM): Gromov-Hausdorff limit of uniformly random quadrangulations

Theorem (M., Sheffield)
$T B M$ and $\sqrt{8 / 3}-L Q G$ are equivalent. More precisely, there is a canonical way to endow $\sqrt{8 / 3}-L Q G$ with a metric so that it is isometric to TBM.

## Equivalence of LQG and TBM

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG): $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right), h$ a GFF
- The Brownian map (TBM): Gromov-Hausdorff limit of uniformly random quadrangulations

Theorem (M., Sheffield)
$T B M$ and $\sqrt{8 / 3}-L Q G$ are equivalent. More precisely, there is a canonical way to endow $\sqrt{8 / 3}-L Q G$ with a metric so that it is isometric to TBM.

Comments

## Equivalence of LQG and TBM

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG): $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right), h$ a GFF
- The Brownian map (TBM): Gromov-Hausdorff limit of uniformly random quadrangulations

Theorem (M., Sheffield)
$T B M$ and $\sqrt{8 / 3}-L Q G$ are equivalent. More precisely, there is a canonical way to endow $\sqrt{8 / 3}-L Q G$ with a metric so that it is isometric to TBM.

## Comments

1. Construction is purely in the continuum

## Equivalence of LQG and TBM

- Liouville quantum gravity (LQG): $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right), h$ a GFF
- The Brownian map (TBM): Gromov-Hausdorff limit of uniformly random quadrangulations

Theorem (M., Sheffield)
$T B M$ and $\sqrt{8 / 3}-L Q G$ are equivalent. More precisely, there is a canonical way to endow $\sqrt{8 / 3}-L Q G$ with a metric so that it is isometric to TBM.

## Comments

1. Construction is purely in the continuum
2. Ideas are connected to aggregation models, such as the Eden model and diffusion limited aggregation


Metric ball on a $\sqrt{8 / 3}-\mathrm{LQG}$

## Schramm-Loewner evolution (SLE)

- Introduced by Schramm in '99 to describe limits of interfaces in discrete models


Critical percolation, hexagonal lattice Each hexagon is colored red or black with prob. $\frac{1}{2}$

## Schramm-Loewner evolution (SLE)

- Introduced by Schramm in '99 to describe limits of interfaces in discrete models


Critical percolation, hexagonal lattice Each hexagon is colored red or black with prob. $\frac{1}{2}$

## Schramm-Loewner evolution (SLE)

- Introduced by Schramm in '99 to describe limits of interfaces in discrete models


Critical percolation, hexagonal lattice Each hexagon is colored red or black with prob. $\frac{1}{2}$

## Schramm-Loewner evolution (SLE)

- Introduced by Schramm in '99 to describe limits of interfaces in discrete models
- Characterized by conformal invariance and domain Markov property


Critical percolation, hexagonal lattice Each hexagon is colored red or black with prob. $\frac{1}{2}$

## Schramm-Loewner evolution (SLE)

- Introduced by Schramm in '99 to describe limits of interfaces in discrete models
- Characterized by conformal invariance and domain Markov property
- Indexed by a parameter $\kappa>0$


Critical percolation, hexagonal lattice Each hexagon is colored red or black with prob. $\frac{1}{2}$

## Schramm-Loewner evolution (SLE)

- Introduced by Schramm in '99 to describe limits of interfaces in discrete models
- Characterized by conformal invariance and domain Markov property
- Indexed by a parameter $\kappa>0$
- Simple for $\kappa \in(0,4]$, self-intersecting for $\kappa \in(4,8)$, space-filling for $\kappa \geq 8$


Critical percolation, hexagonal lattice Each hexagon is colored red or black with prob. $\frac{1}{2}$

## Schramm-Loewner evolution (SLE)

- Introduced by Schramm in '99 to describe limits of interfaces in discrete models
- Characterized by conformal invariance and domain Markov property
- Indexed by a parameter $\kappa>0$
- Simple for $\kappa \in(0,4]$, self-intersecting for $\kappa \in(4,8)$, space-filling for $\kappa \geq 8$
- Dimension: $1+\kappa / 8$ for $\kappa \leq 8$


Critical percolation, hexagonal lattice Each hexagon is colored red or black with prob. $\frac{1}{2}$

## Schramm-Loewner evolution (SLE)

- Introduced by Schramm in '99 to describe limits of interfaces in discrete models
- Characterized by conformal invariance and domain Markov property
- Indexed by a parameter $\kappa>0$
- Simple for $\kappa \in(0,4]$, self-intersecting for $\kappa \in(4,8)$, space-filling for $\kappa \geq 8$
- Dimension: $1+\kappa / 8$ for $\kappa \leq 8$
- Some special $\kappa$ values:
- $\kappa=2$ LERW, $\kappa=8$ UST
- $\kappa=8 / 3$ Self-avoiding walk
- $\kappa=3$ Ising, $\kappa=16 / 3$ FK-Ising
- $\kappa=4$ GFF level lines
- $\kappa=6$ Percolation
- $\kappa=12$ Bipolar orientations


Critical percolation, hexagonal lattice Each hexagon is colored red or black with prob. $\frac{1}{2}$
(Lawler-Schramm-Werner, Smirnov, Schramm-Sheffield, ...)

## $\mathrm{SLE}_{\kappa}$



Loewner's equation: if $\eta$ is a non self-crossing path in $\mathbf{H}$ with $\eta(0) \in \mathbf{R}$ and $g_{t}$ is the Riemann map from the unbounded component of $\mathbf{H} \backslash \eta([0, t])$ to $\mathbf{H}$ normalized by $g_{t}(z)=z+o(1)$ as $z \rightarrow \infty$, then

$$
\partial_{t} g_{t}(z)=\frac{2}{g_{t}(z)-W_{t}} \text { where } g_{0}(z)=z \text { and } W_{t}=g_{t}(\eta(t))
$$

## $\mathrm{SLE}_{\kappa}$



Loewner's equation: if $\eta$ is a non self-crossing path in $\mathbf{H}$ with $\eta(0) \in \mathbf{R}$ and $g_{t}$ is the Riemann map from the unbounded component of $\mathbf{H} \backslash \eta([0, t])$ to $\mathbf{H}$ normalized by $g_{t}(z)=z+o(1)$ as $z \rightarrow \infty$, then

$$
\partial_{t} g_{t}(z)=\frac{2}{g_{t}(z)-W_{t}} \text { where } g_{0}(z)=z \text { and } W_{t}=g_{t}(\eta(t))
$$

SLE $_{\kappa}$ in H : The random curve associated with $(\star)$ with $W_{t}=\sqrt{\kappa} B_{t}, B$ a standard Brownian motion.

## $\mathrm{SLE}_{\kappa}$



Loewner's equation: if $\eta$ is a non self-crossing path in $\mathbf{H}$ with $\eta(0) \in \mathbf{R}$ and $g_{t}$ is the Riemann map from the unbounded component of $\mathbf{H} \backslash \eta([0, t])$ to $\mathbf{H}$ normalized by $g_{t}(z)=z+o(1)$ as $z \rightarrow \infty$, then

$$
\partial_{t} g_{t}(z)=\frac{2}{g_{t}(z)-W_{t}} \text { where } g_{0}(z)=z \text { and } W_{t}=g_{t}(\eta(t))
$$

SLE $_{\kappa}$ in H : The random curve associated with $(\star)$ with $W_{t}=\sqrt{\kappa} B_{t}, B$ a standard Brownian motion. Other domains: apply conformal mapping.


SLE(4)


SLE(8)


Simulations due to Tom Kennedy.

## Percolation

- Introduced in the mathematics literature by Hammersley and Welsh (1957)



## Percolation

- Introduced in the mathematics literature by Hammersley and Welsh (1957)
- Motivation: understand the flow of gas through a gas mask



## Percolation

- Introduced in the mathematics literature by Hammersley and Welsh (1957)
- Motivation: understand the flow of gas through a gas mask
- Graph $G=(V, E), p \in(0,1)$.



## Percolation

- Introduced in the mathematics literature by Hammersley and Welsh (1957)
- Motivation: understand the flow of gas through a gas mask
- Graph $G=(V, E), p \in(0,1)$.
- Keep each $e \in E$ based on the toss of an independent $p$-coin



## Percolation

- Introduced in the mathematics literature by Hammersley and Welsh (1957)
- Motivation: understand the flow of gas through a gas mask
- Graph $G=(V, E), p \in(0,1)$.
- Keep each $e \in E$ based on the toss of an independent $p$-coin
- Interested in connectivity properties of the resulting graph



## Percolation

- Introduced in the mathematics literature by Hammersley and Welsh (1957)
- Motivation: understand the flow of gas through a gas mask
- Graph $G=(V, E), p \in(0,1)$.
- Keep each $e \in E$ based on the toss of an independent $p$-coin
- Interested in connectivity properties of the resulting graph
- Critical value $p_{c}$ :
- $p>p_{c} \rightarrow$ there exists an infinite cluster
- $p<p_{c} \rightarrow$ all clusters are finite



## Percolation

- Introduced in the mathematics literature by Hammersley and Welsh (1957)
- Motivation: understand the flow of gas through a gas mask
- Graph $G=(V, E), p \in(0,1)$.
- Keep each $e \in E$ based on the toss of an independent $p$-coin

- Crossing probabilities


## Percolation

- Introduced in the mathematics literature by Hammersley and Welsh (1957)
- Motivation: understand the flow of gas through a gas mask
- Graph $G=(V, E), p \in(0,1)$.
- Keep each $e \in E$ based on the toss of an independent $p$-coin

- Crossing probabilities
- Scaling limits


Critical bond percolation on a box in $\mathbf{Z}^{2}$ with side-length 1000 , conformally mapped to D. Shown are the clusters which touch the boundary.

## Results on planar lattices

- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for bond percolation on the $\square$-lattice



## Results on planar lattices

- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for bond percolation on the


## $\square$-lattice

- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on the $\triangle$-lattice



## Results on planar lattices

- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for bond percolation on the $\square$-lattice
- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on the $\triangle$-lattice
- Smirnov: The exploration path between open and closed sites in critical site
 percolation on the $\triangle$-lattice converges to $\mathrm{SLE}_{6}$ as the mesh size tends to 0.



## Results on planar lattices

- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for bond percolation on the $\square$-lattice
- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on the $\triangle$-lattice
- Smirnov: The exploration path between open and closed sites in critical site
 percolation on the $\triangle$-lattice converges to $\mathrm{SLE}_{6}$ as the mesh size tends to 0.



## Results on planar lattices

- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for bond percolation on the $\square$-lattice
- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on the $\triangle$-lattice
- Smirnov: The exploration path between open and closed sites in critical site
 percolation on the $\triangle$-lattice converges to $\mathrm{SLE}_{6}$ as the mesh size tends to 0.



## Results on planar lattices

- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for bond percolation on the D-lattice
- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on the $\triangle$-lattice
- Smirnov: The exploration path between open and closed sites in critical site
 percolation on the $\triangle$-lattice converges to $\mathrm{SLE}_{6}$ as the mesh size tends to 0.

Open problem: is there any universality?


## Results on planar lattices

- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for bond percolation on the $\square$-lattice
- $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on the $\triangle$-lattice
- Smirnov: The exploration path between open and closed sites in critical site
 percolation on the $\triangle$-lattice converges to $\mathrm{SLE}_{6}$ as the mesh size tends to 0.

Open problem: is there any universality? Does the percolation exploration path converge on any other planar lattice?


## Percolation on random planar maps

- Angel: $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on a random $\triangle$



## Percolation on random planar maps

- Angel: $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on a random $\triangle$



## Percolation on random planar maps

- Angel: $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on a random $\triangle$
- Angel-Curien: $p_{c}=\frac{3}{4}$ for face percolation on a random $\square$



## Percolation on random planar maps

- Angel: $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on a random $\triangle$
- Angel-Curien: $p_{c}=\frac{3}{4}$ for face percolation on a random $\square$



## Percolation on random planar maps

- Angel: $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on a random $\triangle$
- Angel-Curien: $p_{c}=\frac{3}{4}$ for face percolation on a random $\square$
- Open faces are adjacent if they share an edge. Closed faces are adjacent if they share a vertex.



## Percolation on random planar maps

- Angel: $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on a random $\triangle$
- Angel-Curien: $p_{c}=\frac{3}{4}$ for face percolation on a random
- Open faces are adjacent if they share an edge. Closed faces are adjacent if they share a vertex.

Percolation thresholds for many other types of maps have been computed (c.f. Angel-Curien, Menard-Nolin, Richlier...)


## Percolation on random planar maps

- Angel: $p_{c}=\frac{1}{2}$ for site percolation on a random $\triangle$
- Angel-Curien: $p_{c}=\frac{3}{4}$ for face percolation on a random $\square$
- Open faces are adjacent if they share an edge. Closed faces are adjacent if they share a vertex.

Percolation thresholds for many other types of maps have been computed (c.f. Angel-Curien, Menard-Nolin, Richlier...)


We will consider critical $p=p_{c}=\frac{3}{4}$ face percolation on a random $\square$.

## Percolation exploration path

- Work on $\square$ of the disk



## Percolation exploration path

- Work on $\square$ of the disk



## Percolation exploration path

- Work on $\square$ of the disk
- $p=p_{c}=3 / 4$



## Percolation exploration path

- Work on $\square$ of the disk
- $p=p_{c}=3 / 4$
- Open/closed $\partial$-conditions



## Percolation exploration path

- Work on $\square$ of the disk
- $p=p_{c}=3 / 4$
- Open/closed $\partial$-conditions
- There is a unique interface separating open/closed clusters attached to the boundary



## Percolation exploration path

- Work on $\square$ of the disk
- $p=p_{c}=3 / 4$
- Open/closed $\partial$-conditions
- There is a unique interface separating open/closed clusters attached to the boundary
- Perspective: this is a random path on a random metric space



## Percolation exploration path

- Work on $\square$ of the disk
- $p=p_{c}=3 / 4$
- Open/closed $\partial$-conditions
- There is a unique interface separating open/closed clusters attached to the boundary
- Perspective: this is a random path on a random metric space


## Theorem (Gwynne-M.)

The interface for critical face percolation on a random $\square$ of the disk converges to $\mathrm{SLE}_{6}$ on $\sqrt{8 / 3}-L Q G$.


## Percolation exploration path

- Work on $\square$ of the disk
- $p=p_{c}=3 / 4$
- Open/closed $\partial$-conditions
- There is a unique interface separating open/closed clusters attached to the boundary
- Perspective: this is a random path on a random metric space


## Theorem (Gwynne-M.)

The interface for critical face percolation on a random $\square$ of the disk converges to $\mathrm{SLE}_{6}$ on $\sqrt{8 / 3}-L Q G$.


Universal strategy: works for any random planar map model provided one has certain technical inputs.

## Final words

$\gamma$-LQG: $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF.

- $\gamma$-LQG for $\gamma=\sqrt{8 / 3}$ corresponds to uniformly random planar maps / TBM


## Final words

$\gamma$-LQG: $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF.

- $\gamma$-LQG for $\gamma=\sqrt{8 / 3}$ corresponds to uniformly random planar maps / TBM
- Other values of $\gamma$ correspond to random planar maps with extra structure
$-\sqrt{3} \longleftrightarrow$ Ising model
- $\sqrt{2} \longleftrightarrow$ Uniform spanning tree


## Final words

$\gamma$-LQG: $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF.

- $\gamma$-LQG for $\gamma=\sqrt{8 / 3}$ corresponds to uniformly random planar maps / TBM
- Other values of $\gamma$ correspond to random planar maps with extra structure
- $\sqrt{3} \longleftrightarrow$ Ising model
- $\sqrt{2} \longleftrightarrow$ Uniform spanning tree
- 
- Metric properties of $\gamma$-LQG less well-understood


## Final words

$\gamma$-LQG: $e^{\gamma h(z)}\left(d x^{2}+d y^{2}\right)$ where $h$ is a GFF.

- $\gamma$-LQG for $\gamma=\sqrt{8 / 3}$ corresponds to uniformly random planar maps / TBM
- Other values of $\gamma$ correspond to random planar maps with extra structure
- $\sqrt{3} \longleftrightarrow$ Ising model
- $\sqrt{2} \longleftrightarrow$ Uniform spanning tree
- 
- Metric properties of $\gamma$-LQG less well-understood
- Hausdorff dimension of $\gamma$-LQG for $\gamma \neq \sqrt{8 / 3}$ is not known
- Watabiki prediction:

$$
d_{\gamma}=1+\frac{\gamma^{2}}{4}+\frac{1}{4} \sqrt{\left(4+\gamma^{2}\right)^{2}+16 \gamma^{2}}
$$

- Ding, Goswami, Gwynne, Zeitouni, Zhang.


