# Statistical mechanics of forced and adsorbing directed polymers

Nicholas Beaton

School of Mathematics and Statistics University of Melbourne

Monash Workshop on Self-interacting Processes 29-31 August, 2017





Nicholas Beaton (University of Melbourne)

A self-avoiding walk (SAW) on a lattice is a walk which never visits the same vertex twice.



A self-avoiding walk (SAW) on a lattice is a walk which never visits the same vertex twice.



A self-avoiding polygon (SAP) is a simple closed loop on the lattice (ie. a SAW which returns to its starting position).



SAWs and SAPs were originally conceived in the 1940s as a model of long polymer chains like polyethylene or DNA:





SAWs and SAPs were originally conceived in the 1940s as a model of long polymer chains like polyethylene or DNA:



The self-avoidance constraint mimics the excluded volume of the monomers in the polymer. Geometric properties like the radius of gyration of long polymers in dilute solution closely match those of SAWs in 3D.

Polymers experience various physical and chemical interactions with their environment, each other, and themselves, including

Polymers experience various physical and chemical interactions with their environment, each other, and themselves, including surface adsorption,





Polymers experience various physical and chemical interactions with their environment, each other, and themselves, including surface adsorption, collapse



Polymers experience various physical and chemical interactions with their environment, each other, and themselves, including surface adsorption, collapse and force-induced stretching.



Polymers experience various physical and chemical interactions with their environment, each other, and themselves, including surface adsorption, collapse and force-induced stretching.



These interactions may lead to phase transitions at a critical temperature or force.

Interactions can be modelled with SAWs by including an energy term.

Interactions can be modelled with SAWs by including an energy term. e.g. For adsorption, put the SAWs in a half-space of the lattice and associate an energy with each visit to the boundary:



Interactions can be modelled with SAWs by including an energy term. e.g. For adsorption, put the SAWs in a half-space of the lattice and associate an energy with each visit to the boundary:



Let  $c_n(v)$  be the number of *n*-step SAWs which start on the boundary (counted up to translation) and have *v* visits to the boundary (excluding the first vertex). So the above walk is counted by  $c_{34}(7)$ .

Interactions can be modelled with SAWs by including an energy term. e.g. For adsorption, put the SAWs in a half-space of the lattice and associate an energy with each visit to the boundary:



Let  $c_n(v)$  be the number of *n*-step SAWs which start on the boundary (counted up to translation) and have *v* visits to the boundary (excluding the first vertex). So the above walk is counted by  $c_{34}(7)$ .

The partition function for walks of length n is then

$$C_n(a) = \sum_v c_n(v) a^v$$

where  $a = e^{\epsilon/kT}$ ,  $\epsilon$  is the energy of a single visit, k is Boltzmann's constant and T is absolute temperature.

 $C_n(a)$  is the normalisation for the Boltzmann distribution, where the probability of a walk with v visits is proportional to  $a^v$ :

$$\mathbb{P}(\omega) = \frac{a^{\nu(\omega)}}{C_n(a)}$$

If a is large, walks with lots of visits are favoured, while if a is small, walks with few visits are favoured. The expected number of visits is

$$\langle v \rangle_n = a \frac{\partial}{\partial a} \log C_n(a).$$

 $C_n(a)$  is the normalisation for the Boltzmann distribution, where the probability of a walk with v visits is proportional to  $a^v$ :

$$\mathbb{P}(\omega) = \frac{a^{\nu(\omega)}}{C_n(a)}$$

If a is large, walks with lots of visits are favoured, while if a is small, walks with few visits are favoured. The expected number of visits is

$$\langle v \rangle_n = a \frac{\partial}{\partial a} \log C_n(a).$$

#### Theorem (Hammersley, Torrie & Whittington 1982)

The limit

$$\kappa(a) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(a)$$

exists for all a  $\geq$  0. It is a non-decreasing log-convex function, and is thus continuous and almost-everywhere differentiable.

This is the limiting free energy per step. The log-convexity implies that the limiting density of visits is

$$\delta(a) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \langle v \rangle_n = a \frac{\partial}{\partial a} \kappa(a).$$

 $C_n(1)$  just counts walks of length *n* in a half-space. So

$$\kappa(1) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(1) = \kappa$$

is the connective constant of the lattice.

 $C_n(1)$  just counts walks of length *n* in a half-space. So

$$\kappa(1) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(1) = \kappa$$

is the connective constant of the lattice.

 $C_n(0)$  counts walks with no visits to the surface. Those are half-space walks with an extra up-step at the start, so  $C_n(0) = C_{n-1}(1)$ , and hence

$$\kappa(0) = \kappa(1) = \kappa.$$

Since  $\kappa$  is non-decreasing, it must be constant for  $0 \le a \le 1$ .

 $C_n(1)$  just counts walks of length *n* in a half-space. So

$$\kappa(1) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(1) = \kappa$$

is the connective constant of the lattice.

 $C_n(0)$  counts walks with no visits to the surface. Those are half-space walks with an extra up-step at the start, so  $C_n(0) = C_{n-1}(1)$ , and hence

$$\kappa(0) = \kappa(1) = \kappa$$

Since  $\kappa$  is non-decreasing, it must be constant for  $0 \le a \le 1$ .

On the other hand, there is always a walk with n visits, so  $C_n(a) \ge a^n$ , and

$$\kappa(a) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(a) \ge \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log a^n = \log a.$$

 $C_n(1)$  just counts walks of length *n* in a half-space. So

$$\kappa(1) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(1) = \kappa$$

is the connective constant of the lattice.

 $C_n(0)$  counts walks with no visits to the surface. Those are half-space walks with an extra up-step at the start, so  $C_n(0) = C_{n-1}(1)$ , and hence

$$\kappa(0) = \kappa(1) = \kappa$$

Since  $\kappa$  is non-decreasing, it must be constant for  $0 \le a \le 1$ .

On the other hand, there is always a walk with n visits, so  $C_n(a) \ge a^n$ , and

$$\kappa(a) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(a) \ge \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log a^n = \log a.$$

So there must be a value  $1 \le a_c \le e^{\kappa}$  where  $\kappa(a)$  switches from constant to increasing, i.e. a point where it is non-analytic. This corresponds to the critical temperature, at which the adsorption phase transition occurs.

 $C_n(1)$  just counts walks of length *n* in a half-space. So

$$\kappa(1) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(1) = \kappa$$

is the connective constant of the lattice.

 $C_n(0)$  counts walks with no visits to the surface. Those are half-space walks with an extra up-step at the start, so  $C_n(0) = C_{n-1}(1)$ , and hence

$$\kappa(0) = \kappa(1) = \kappa$$

Since  $\kappa$  is non-decreasing, it must be constant for  $0 \le a \le 1$ .

On the other hand, there is always a walk with n visits, so  $C_n(a) \ge a^n$ , and

$$\kappa(a) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(a) \ge \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log a^n = \log a.$$

So there must be a value  $1 \le a_c \le e^{\kappa}$  where  $\kappa(a)$  switches from constant to increasing, i.e. a point where it is non-analytic. This corresponds to the critical temperature, at which the adsorption phase transition occurs.

When  $a < a_c$ , walks sampled from the Boltzmann distribution are desorbed and  $\delta(a) = 0$ . When  $a > a_c$ , walks sampled from the Boltzmann distribution are adsorbed and  $\delta(a) > 0$ .

 $\kappa$  is not known exactly for any lattice except the 2D honeycomb lattice, where

$$\kappa = \log \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}$$
 [Duminil-Copin & Smirnov 2012].

 $\kappa$  is not known exactly for any lattice except the 2D honeycomb lattice, where

$$\kappa = \log \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}$$
 [Duminil-Copin & Smirnov 2012].

Similarly  $a_c$  is not known exactly for any lattice except the 2D honeycomb lattice. Depending on which way the lattice is oriented, either

 $a_c = 1 + \sqrt{2}$  [NRB, Bousquet-Mélou, de Gier, Duminil-Copin & Guttmann 2014]

or

$$a_{c} = \sqrt{rac{2+\sqrt{2}}{1+\sqrt{2}-\sqrt{2+\sqrt{2}}}}$$

[NRB 2014].

Can do something similar for pulled walks.

Can do something similar for pulled walks. Again take a polymer pinned to a surface at one end. To represent a force acting on the other end, in a direction perpendicular to the surface, let  $c_n(v, h)$  be the number of half-space walks with v visits and endpoint height h.



So this walk is counted by  $c_{38}(5,5)$ .

Can do something similar for pulled walks. Again take a polymer pinned to a surface at one end. To represent a force acting on the other end, in a direction perpendicular to the surface, let  $c_n(v, h)$  be the number of half-space walks with v visits and endpoint height h.



So this walk is counted by  $c_{38}(5,5)$ .

Now the two-variable partition function is

$$C_n(a,y) = \sum_{v,h} c_n(v,h) a^v y^h$$

where  $y = e^{f/kT}$ , and f is the force.

When a = 1, there are no interactions with the surface.

When a = 1, there are no interactions with the surface.

Theorem (Janse van Rensburg et al 2009)

The limit

$$\lambda(y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(1, y)$$

exists for all a  $\geq$  0. It is a non-decreasing log-convex function, and is thus continuous and almost-everywhere differentiable.

When a = 1, there are no interactions with the surface.

Theorem (Janse van Rensburg et al 2009)

The limit

$$\lambda(y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(1, y)$$

exists for all a  $\geq$  0. It is a non-decreasing log-convex function, and is thus continuous and almost-everywhere differentiable.

There is again a critical value  $1 \le y_c \le e^{\kappa}$  where  $\lambda(y)$  switches from constant  $\kappa$  to an increasing function of y. This time, however,

Theorem (NRB 2015)

The critical value

$$y_c = 1$$

for all lattices in all dimensions  $\geq 2$ .

When a = 1, there are no interactions with the surface.

Theorem (Janse van Rensburg et al 2009)

The limit

$$\lambda(y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(1, y)$$

exists for all a  $\geq$  0. It is a non-decreasing log-convex function, and is thus continuous and almost-everywhere differentiable.

There is again a critical value  $1 \le y_c \le e^{\kappa}$  where  $\lambda(y)$  switches from constant  $\kappa$  to an increasing function of y. This time, however,

Theorem (NRB 2015)

The critical value

$$y_c = 1$$

for all lattices in all dimensions  $\geq 2$ .

When  $y \le 1$ , walks sampled from the Boltzmann distribution are free, and exhibit the same scaling behaviour (e.g. radius of gyration) as walks in the bulk. When y > 1, walks become **ballistic**, and move away from the surface at positive speed (i.e. height is O(n)).

When a = 1, there are no interactions with the surface.

Theorem (Janse van Rensburg et al 2009)

The limit

$$\lambda(y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(1, y)$$

exists for all a  $\geq$  0. It is a non-decreasing log-convex function, and is thus continuous and almost-everywhere differentiable.

There is again a critical value  $1 \le y_c \le e^{\kappa}$  where  $\lambda(y)$  switches from constant  $\kappa$  to an increasing function of y. This time, however,

Theorem (NRB 2015)

The critical value

$$y_c = 1$$

for all lattices in all dimensions  $\geq 2$ .

When  $y \le 1$ , walks sampled from the Boltzmann distribution are free, and exhibit the same scaling behaviour (e.g. radius of gyration) as walks in the bulk. When y > 1, walks become **ballistic**, and move away from the surface at positive speed (i.e. height is O(n)).

Similar results when pulling at an angle to the surface.

The richer model is for general a and y, so that walks can be desorbed by pulling hard enough from the surface.

The richer model is for general *a* and *y*, so that walks can be desorbed by pulling hard enough from the surface.

#### Theorem (Janse van Rensburg & Whittington 2013)

The two-variable free energy

$$\psi(a,y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(a,y)$$

exists for all  $a, y \ge 0$  and is equal to  $\max\{\kappa(a), \lambda(y)\}$ . It is a log-convex function, and is thus continuous and almost-everywhere differentiable.

The richer model is for general *a* and *y*, so that walks can be desorbed by pulling hard enough from the surface.

#### Theorem (Janse van Rensburg & Whittington 2013)

The two-variable free energy

$$\psi(a,y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(a,y)$$

exists for all  $a, y \ge 0$  and is equal to  $\max\{\kappa(a), \lambda(y)\}$ . It is a log-convex function, and is thus continuous and almost-everywhere differentiable.

This leads to the phase diagram



The richer model is for general *a* and *y*, so that walks can be desorbed by pulling hard enough from the surface.

#### Theorem (Janse van Rensburg & Whittington 2013)

The two-variable free energy

$$\psi(a,y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(a,y)$$

exists for all  $a, y \ge 0$  and is equal to  $\max\{\kappa(a), \lambda(y)\}$ . It is a log-convex function, and is thus continuous and almost-everywhere differentiable.

This leads to the phase diagram



Adsorbed-ballistic phase boundary is curve defined by  $\kappa(a) = \lambda(y)$ .

The richer model is for general *a* and *y*, so that walks can be desorbed by pulling hard enough from the surface.

#### Theorem (Janse van Rensburg & Whittington 2013)

The two-variable free energy

$$\psi(a,y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log C_n(a,y)$$

exists for all  $a, y \ge 0$  and is equal to  $\max\{\kappa(a), \lambda(y)\}$ . It is a log-convex function, and is thus continuous and almost-everywhere differentiable.

This leads to the phase diagram



Adsorbed-ballistic phase boundary is curve defined by  $\kappa(a) = \lambda(y)$ .
Self-avoiding polygons are a model of ring polymers. Can do all the same physics with polygons, but not so obvious how to attach to the surface or apply force.

Self-avoiding polygons are a model of ring polymers. Can do all the same physics with polygons, but not so obvious how to attach to the surface or apply force.

For simplicity we will fix one vertex o in the surface and apply the force at the opposite vertex.



Let  $p_{2n}(v, h)$  be the number of half-space polygons of length 2n with one marked vertex o in the surface, v + 2 total vertices in the surface, and the vertex opposite o of height h. e.g. The above polygon is counted by  $p_{48}(4, 5)$ .

Self-avoiding polygons are a model of ring polymers. Can do all the same physics with polygons, but not so obvious how to attach to the surface or apply force.

For simplicity we will fix one vertex o in the surface and apply the force at the opposite vertex.



Let  $p_{2n}(v, h)$  be the number of half-space polygons of length 2n with one marked vertex o in the surface, v + 2 total vertices in the surface, and the vertex opposite o of height h. e.g. The above polygon is counted by  $p_{48}(4, 5)$ .

The partition function is

$$P_{2n}(a,y)=\sum_{v,h}p_{2n}(v,h)a^{v}y^{h}.$$

Things now depend on the dimension: in 2D, at most half of the vertices can be in the surface, but in  $\geq$  3 dimensions all of the vertices can be in the surface. In all dimensions the height is at most half of the length.

Things now depend on the dimension: in 2D, at most half of the vertices can be in the surface, but in  $\geq$  3 dimensions all of the vertices can be in the surface. In all dimensions the height is at most half of the length.

#### Theorem (Soteros 1992)

The limiting free energy

$$\kappa^P(a) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n} \log P_{2n}(a, 1)$$

exists for all  $a \ge 0$ . It is a non-decreasing and log-convex function of a, and is thus continuous and almost-everywhere differentiable. In  $\ge 3$  dimensions,  $\kappa^{P}(a) = \kappa(a)$ . In 2 dimensions,  $\kappa^{P}(a) \le \kappa(a)$ .

As with walks there is an adsorption phase transition at  $a = a_c^p$ . In  $\geq 3$  dimensions,  $a_c^p = a_c$ , while in 2 dimensions  $a_c^p \geq a_c$ . (Unknown if they are really the same.)

Things now depend on the dimension: in 2D, at most half of the vertices can be in the surface, but in  $\geq$  3 dimensions all of the vertices can be in the surface. In all dimensions the height is at most half of the length.

#### Theorem (Soteros 1992)

The limiting free energy

$$\kappa^P(a) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n} \log P_{2n}(a, 1)$$

exists for all  $a \ge 0$ . It is a non-decreasing and log-convex function of a, and is thus continuous and almost-everywhere differentiable. In  $\ge 3$  dimensions,  $\kappa^{P}(a) = \kappa(a)$ . In 2 dimensions,  $\kappa^{P}(a) \le \kappa(a)$ .

As with walks there is an adsorption phase transition at  $a = a_c^p$ . In  $\geq 3$  dimensions,  $a_c^p = a_c$ , while in 2 dimensions  $a_c^p \geq a_c$ . (Unknown if they are really the same.)

#### Theorem (Guttmann, Janse van Rensburg, Jensen & Whittington 2017)

The limiting free energy

$$\lambda^{P}(y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n} \log P_{2n}(1, y)$$

exists for all y > 0. In all dimensions,  $\lambda^{P}(y) = \lambda(\sqrt{y})$ .

So polygons also become **ballistic** at  $y = y_c^P = y_c = 1$ .

In  $\geq$  3 dimensions polygons work the same way as walks:

Theorem (Guttmann, Janse van Rensburg, Jensen & Whittington 2017)

In  $\geq$  3 dimensions, the limiting free energy

$$\psi^{P}(a, y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n} \log P_{2n}(a, y)$$

exists for all  $a \ge 0$  and y > 0. Moreover, it is equal to  $\max\{\kappa^{P}(a), \lambda^{P}(y)\}$ .

Corresponding phase diagram.

In  $\geq$  3 dimensions polygons work the same way as walks:

Theorem (Guttmann, Janse van Rensburg, Jensen & Whittington 2017)

In  $\geq$  3 dimensions, the limiting free energy

$$\psi^{P}(a, y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n} \log P_{2n}(a, y)$$

exists for all  $a \ge 0$  and y > 0. Moreover, it is equal to  $\max\{\kappa^{P}(a), \lambda^{P}(y)\}$ .

Corresponding phase diagram.

In 2 dimensions, much less is known.

Theorem (Guttmann, Janse van Rensburg, Jensen & Whittington 2017)

In 2 dimensions, when  $0 \le a \le 1$  or  $0 < y \le 1$ , the limiting free energy

$$\psi^{P}(a,y) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n} \log P_{2n}(a,y)$$

exists, and is equal to  $\kappa^{P}(a)$  or  $\lambda^{P}(y)$  respectively.

For a, y > 1, there are only bounds:

$$\liminf_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{2n}\log P_{2n}(a,y)\geq \max\{\kappa^P(a),\lambda^P(y)\}$$

and

$$\limsup_{n\to\infty}\frac{1}{2n}\log P_{2n}(a,y)\leq \max\{\kappa(a),\lambda^P(y)\}.$$

For a, y > 1, there are only bounds:

and

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n} \log P_{2n}(a, y) \ge \max\{\kappa^{P}(a), \lambda^{P}(y)\}$$
$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n} \log P_{2n}(a, y) \le \max\{\kappa(a), \lambda^{P}(y)\}.$$

Numerical evidence (series analysis) suggests that the phase diagram is more complicated, with possibly (at least) 4 phases:



For a, y > 1, there are only bounds:

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n} \log P_{2n}(a, y) \ge \max\{\kappa^{P}(a), \lambda^{P}(y)\}$$
$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2n} \log P_{2n}(a, y) \le \max\{\kappa(a), \lambda^{P}(y)\}.$$

and

Numerical evidence (series analysis) suggests that the phase diagram is more complicated, with possibly (at least) 4 phases:



But the series are not very long so this is only speculation...

### Solvable models

Solvable models often exhibit similar physics as the more general cases, but allow for exactly analysis. The simplest solvable models use directed paths:



Let  $d_n(v, h)$  be the number of directed paths starting at (0, 0) and ending at (n, h), staying in the upper half-plane and with v + 1 vertices in the surface.

#### Solvable models

Solvable models often exhibit similar physics as the more general cases, but allow for exactly analysis. The simplest solvable models use directed paths:



Let  $d_n(v, h)$  be the number of directed paths starting at (0, 0) and ending at (n, h), staying in the upper half-plane and with v + 1 vertices in the surface.

Define the partition function

$$D_n(a,y) = \sum_{v,h} d_n(v,h) a^v y^h$$

and generating function

$$D(t; a, y) = \sum_{n \ge 0} D_n(a, y) t^n.$$

Then D(t; a, y) satisfies a simple functional equation:

$$D(t; a, y) = 1 + t(y + \overline{y})D(t; a, y) + t(a - 1)[y^1]D(t; a, y) - t\overline{y}D(t; a, 0)$$

where  $\overline{y} = y^{-1}$ .

Then D(t; a, y) satisfies a simple functional equation:

$$D(t;a,y) = 1 + t(y+\overline{y})D(t;a,y) + t(a-1)[y^1]D(t;a,y) - t\overline{y}D(t;a,0)$$

where  $\overline{y} = y^{-1}$ . This can be solved with the kernel method, giving

$$D(t; a, y) = \frac{2(1 - 2t^2 + \sqrt{1 - 4t^2})}{(1 - 2t^2a + \sqrt{1 - 4t^2})(1 - 2ty + \sqrt{1 - 4t^2})}.$$

Then D(t; a, y) satisfies a simple functional equation:

$$D(t;a,y) = 1 + t(y+\overline{y})D(t;a,y) + t(a-1)[y^1]D(t;a,y) - t\overline{y}D(t;a,0)$$

where  $\overline{y} = y^{-1}$ . This can be solved with the kernel method, giving

$$D(t; a, y) = \frac{2(1-2t^2+\sqrt{1-4t^2})}{(1-2t^2a+\sqrt{1-4t^2})(1-2ty+\sqrt{1-4t^2})}.$$

The dominant singularity (i.e. the one closest to the origin) of D(t; a, y) (viewed as a function of t) determines the asymptotic behaviour of  $D_n(a, y)$ , which in turn determines the free energy.

When 
$$y = 1$$
,  
 $\kappa^D(a) = \begin{cases}
\log 2 & \text{if } a \le 2 \\
\log a - \frac{1}{2}\log(a - 1) & \text{if } a > 2,
\end{cases}$ 
while if  $a = 1$  then

$$\lambda^{D}(y) = \begin{cases} \log 2 & \text{if } y \leq 1\\ \log(y^{2}+1) - \log y & \text{if } y > 1. \end{cases}$$

Then D(t; a, y) satisfies a simple functional equation:

$$D(t;a,y) = 1 + t(y+\overline{y})D(t;a,y) + t(a-1)[y^1]D(t;a,y) - t\overline{y}D(t;a,0)$$

where  $\overline{y} = y^{-1}$ . This can be solved with the kernel method, giving

$$D(t; a, y) = \frac{2(1-2t^2+\sqrt{1-4t^2})}{(1-2t^2a+\sqrt{1-4t^2})(1-2ty+\sqrt{1-4t^2})}.$$

The dominant singularity (i.e. the one closest to the origin) of D(t; a, y) (viewed as a function of t) determines the asymptotic behaviour of  $D_n(a, y)$ , which in turn determines the free energy.

When 
$$y = 1$$
,  
 $\kappa^D(a) = \begin{cases}
\log 2 & \text{if } a \le 2 \\
\log a - \frac{1}{2}\log(a-1) & \text{if } a > 2,
\end{cases}$ 
while if  $a = 1$  then

while if 
$$a = 1$$
 then

$$\lambda^D(y) = egin{cases} \log 2 & ext{if } y \leq 1 \ \log(y^2+1) - \log y & ext{if } y > 1. \end{cases}$$

Then

$$\psi^{D}(a, y) = \max\{\kappa^{D}(a), \lambda^{D}(y)\}.$$

The phase diagram matches that of SAWs, but here we can exactly locate the phase boundaries:



# **Directed polygons**

That worked well, so what about polygons?

# **Directed polygons**

That worked well, so what about polygons?

The simplest model is staircase polygons:



Two directed paths, starting and ending at the same vertices but otherwise avoiding each other.

Focus on two cases:

Focus on two cases: the two ends fixed at the surface (grafted staircase polygons)



Focus on two cases: the two ends fixed at the surface (grafted staircase polygons)



or the middle vertex on the bottom fixed at the surface (centred staircase polygons)



Focus on two cases: the two ends fixed at the surface (grafted staircase polygons)



or the middle vertex on the bottom fixed at the surface (centred staircase polygons)



In both cases, count vertices in the surface as visits and apply the force at the middle vertex on the top.

Let  $s_{4n}^G(v, h)$  (resp.  $s_{4n}^G(v, h)$ ) be the number of grafted (resp. centred) staircase polygons of total length 4n, with v vertices in the surface and middle vertex of height h.

Define partition functions in the usual way:

$$S^{G}_{4n}(a,y)$$
 &  $S^{C}_{4n}(a,y)$ .

(Everything can be adapted to total length 4n + 2 as well.)

Let  $s_{4n}^G(v, h)$  (resp.  $s_{4n}^G(v, h)$ ) be the number of grafted (resp. centred) staircase polygons of total length 4n, with v vertices in the surface and middle vertex of height h.

Define partition functions in the usual way:

$$S^G_{4n}(a,y)$$
 &  $S^C_{4n}(a,y)$ .

(Everything can be adapted to total length 4n + 2 as well.)

Can once again write down functional equations for the generating functions, but this time they are too complicated to solve explicitly.

Let  $s_{4n}^G(v, h)$  (resp.  $s_{4n}^G(v, h)$ ) be the number of grafted (resp. centred) staircase polygons of total length 4n, with v vertices in the surface and middle vertex of height h.

Define partition functions in the usual way:

$$S^G_{4n}(a,y)$$
 &  $S^C_{4n}(a,y)$ .

(Everything can be adapted to total length 4n + 2 as well.)

Can once again write down functional equations for the generating functions, but this time they are too complicated to solve explicitly.

Fortunately, we have another way: can count pairs of nonintersecting paths directly.

Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:



Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:




Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





Let  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  be the total weight of all non-intersecting pairs of paths which start at (0,0) (resp. (0,2)) and end at (n,m) (resp. (n, k+2)), with the bottom path accumulating *a* weights on the surface:





The  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  satisfy a recurrence, which can be solved with a **Bethe ansatz**. When a = 1,

$$r_{n,k,m}(1) = \frac{(k+3)(m+1)(k-m+2)(k+m+4)}{4(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)^2} {n+3 \choose \frac{1}{2}(n+k+6)} {n+3 \choose \frac{1}{2}(n+m+4)}.$$

The  $r_{n,k,m}(a)$  satisfy a recurrence, which can be solved with a Bethe ansatz. When a = 1,

$$r_{n,k,m}(1) = \frac{(k+3)(m+1)(k-m+2)(k+m+4)}{4(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)^2} {n+3 \choose \frac{1}{2}(n+k+6)} {n+3 \choose \frac{1}{2}(n+m+4)}.$$

Then for general a,

$$r_{n,k,m}(a) = a \sum_{w=0}^{n} (a-1)^{w} \sum_{p=0}^{w} s_{n,k+2p,m+2w-2p}(1).$$

Grafted polygons can then be formed by gluing together two pairs of paths with the same m and k, multiplying by  $y^{k+2}$ , and summing over m, k:

$$S_{4n}^{G}(a,y) = \frac{1}{a} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r_{n-1,k,0}(1)^2 y^{k+2} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sum_{m=1}^{k} r_{n-1,k,m}(a)^2 y^{k+2}.$$

Grafted polygons can then be formed by gluing together two pairs of paths with the same m and k, multiplying by  $y^{k+2}$ , and summing over m, k:

$$S_{4n}^{G}(a,y) = \frac{1}{a} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r_{n-1,k,0}(1)^2 y^{k+2} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sum_{m=1}^{k} r_{n-1,k,m}(a)^2 y^{k+2}.$$

The asymptotics can be computed by using Stirling's approximation and replacing the sums with integrals. The free energy turns out to be

$$\psi^{\mathsf{G}}(\mathsf{a}, y) = rac{1}{2}\kappa^{\mathsf{D}}(\mathsf{a}) + rac{1}{2}\lambda^{\mathsf{D}}(\sqrt{y}).$$

Grafted polygons can then be formed by gluing together two pairs of paths with the same m and k, multiplying by  $y^{k+2}$ , and summing over m, k:

$$S_{4n}^{G}(a,y) = \frac{1}{a} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r_{n-1,k,0}(1)^2 y^{k+2} + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \sum_{m=1}^{k} r_{n-1,k,m}(a)^2 y^{k+2}$$

The asymptotics can be computed by using Stirling's approximation and replacing the sums with integrals. The free energy turns out to be

$$\psi^{\mathsf{G}}(\mathsf{a}, y) = rac{1}{2}\kappa^{\mathsf{D}}(\mathsf{a}) + rac{1}{2}\lambda^{\mathsf{D}}(\sqrt{y}).$$

i.e. The bottom path acts as an adsorbing directed path, and the top path acts like a pulled directed path with half the force:



Impossible to desorb by pulling.

The phase diagram is simple:



All phase transitions are second-order.

A similar approach can be used for centred staircase polygons.

A similar approach can be used for centred staircase polygons.

This time

$$\psi^{C}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{2}\lambda^{D}(\sqrt{\mathbf{y}}) + \frac{1}{2}\max\{\lambda^{D}(\sqrt{\mathbf{y}}), \kappa^{D}(\mathbf{a})\}.$$

A similar approach can be used for centred staircase polygons.

This time

$$\psi^{\mathcal{C}}(\mathbf{a}, y) = \frac{1}{2}\lambda^{D}(\sqrt{y}) + \frac{1}{2}\max\{\lambda^{D}(\sqrt{y}), \kappa^{D}(\mathbf{a})\}.$$

Now pulling hard enough does induce desorption:



A similar approach can be used for centred staircase polygons.

This time

$$\psi^{\mathcal{C}}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{2}\lambda^{D}(\sqrt{\mathbf{y}}) + \frac{1}{2}\max\{\lambda^{D}(\sqrt{\mathbf{y}}), \kappa^{D}(\mathbf{a})\}.$$

Now pulling hard enough does induce desorption:



But the converse (adsorb strongly enough to overcome force) is still impossible.

The phase diagram now resembles what the numerics suggest for SAPs:



Ballistic-mixed transition is first-order, all others are second-order.

### Generalisations

A more general model for staircase polygons requires only that there is at least one vertex in the surface somewhere. In that case the free energy turns out to be the same as centred polygons.

### Generalisations

A more general model for staircase polygons requires only that there is at least one vertex in the surface somewhere. In that case the free energy turns out to be the same as centred polygons.

A model which more closely resembles that of SAPs might be column-convex polygons:



But this may not be amenable to generating-function or Bethe ansatz methods.

Can instead induce directedness by restricting the walks/polygons to a narrow strip (2D) or tube (3D):



Can instead induce directedness by restricting the walks/polygons to a narrow strip (2D) or tube (3D):



The physics here is quite different though – there are no phase transitions in such geometry.

Can instead induce directedness by restricting the walks/polygons to a narrow strip (2D) or tube (3D):



The physics here is quite different though – there are **no phase transitions** in such geometry. But we can do other things, e.g. measure the **force** that the walk/polygon exerts on the boundaries of the strip, and how this changes if we add adsorption weights to the top and bottom.

Can instead induce directedness by restricting the walks/polygons to a narrow strip (2D) or tube (3D):



The physics here is quite different though – there are **no phase transitions** in such geometry. But we can do other things, e.g. measure the **force** that the walk/polygon exerts on the boundaries of the strip, and how this changes if we add adsorption weights to the top and bottom.

Can also apply forces in the horizontal direction, causing the walks/polygons to become space-filling (Hamiltonian):



#### References

NRB, Adsorbing staircase polygons subject to a force, arXiv:1706.07653, submitted.

NRB, J. W. Eng & C. E. Soteros, *Polygons in restricted geometries subjected to infinite forces*, J. Phys. A: Math. Theor. **49** (2016), 424002.

#### References

NRB, Adsorbing staircase polygons subject to a force, arXiv:1706.07653, submitted.

NRB, J. W. Eng & C. E. Soteros, *Polygons in restricted geometries subjected to infinite forces*, J. Phys. A: Math. Theor. **49** (2016), 424002.

Thank you!