

Knotting probabilities and pattern theorems for polygons in tubes

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Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Polygons in lattice tubes
- 3 Random sampling

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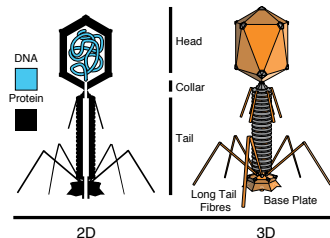
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Introduction I: Motivation

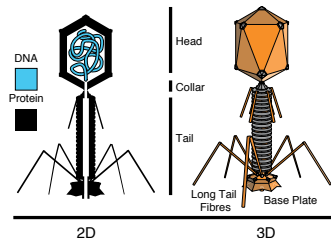
DNA molecules can be packed incredibly tightly in cell nuclei. For example, human DNA can be 2 m long but must fit inside a cell nucleus of diameter 10 μm . Similarly, bacteriophage DNA is packed into a hard capsid until it is injected into the host cell.



¹Arsuaga et al, PNAS **99** (2002), 5373–5377.

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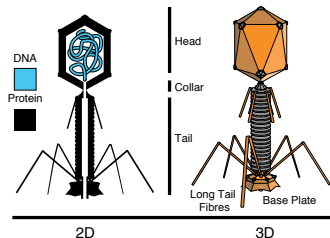


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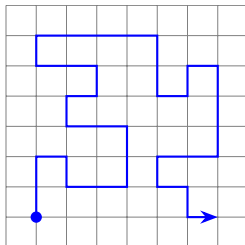
The tight packing within a cell or capsid may result in a high level of tangling, with lots of knots and/or links. Knotting rates of up to 95% have been observed for DNA released from certain bacteriophages.¹

The topology of DNA is important because knots/links have been observed to impede biological processes like replication.

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Introduction II: Self-avoiding walks & polygons

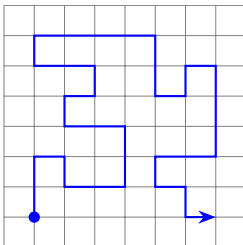
A **self-avoiding walk** (SAW) ω on a graph is a sequence $(\omega_0, \dots, \omega_n)$ of distinct vertices with consecutive vertices adjacent on the graph.



When the graph is infinite and has translational symmetry (i.e. a **lattice**), define SAWs up to translation.

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For a given lattice, c_n is the number of SAWs of length n (n edges $\iff n + 1$ vertices).

On $\mathbb{Z}^2$, $\{c_n\}_{n \geq 0} = 1, 4, 12, 36, 100, 284, \dots$ Known up to $n = 79$.

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Thus the **submultiplicative** inequality

$$c_{m+n} \leq c_m c_n.$$

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This can be used to show

Theorem (Hammersley 1957)

The limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log c_n = \kappa$$

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Corollary

$$c_n = e^{o(n)} e^{\kappa n}.$$

κ is known exactly only for 2-dimensional honeycomb lattice. For the square $\mathbb{Z}^2$ and cubic $\mathbb{Z}^3$ lattices,

$$\kappa_{\mathbb{Z}^2} \approx 0.970081147$$

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The subexponential factors are believed to have a power law form:

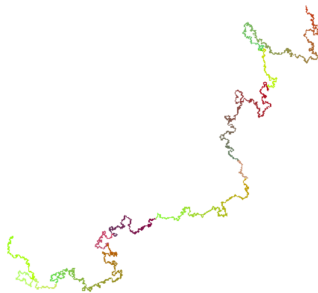
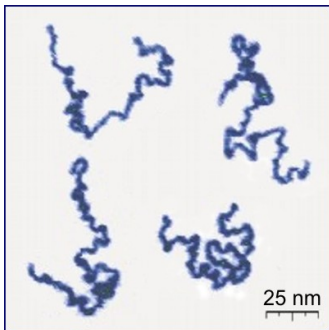
$$c_n \sim A n^{\gamma-1} e^{\kappa n}$$

where A and κ depend on the lattice, γ depends only on the dimension. In 2D, expect that $\gamma = 43/32$, while in 3D $\gamma \approx 1.156957$.

Why use SAWs?

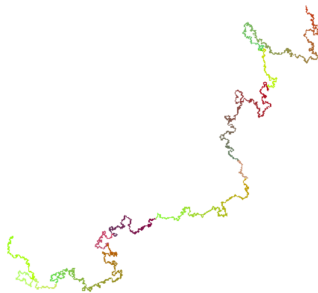
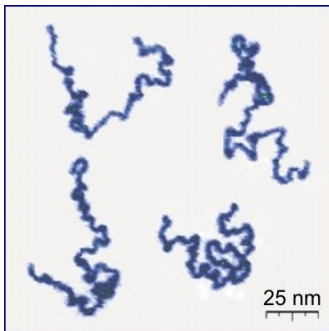
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3D SAWs do a good job of modelling **geometric properties** of polymers in a good solvent (e.g. mean squared end-to-end distance)



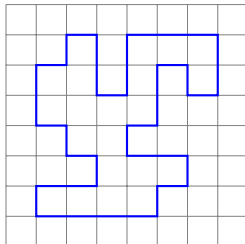
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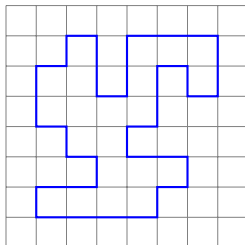


SAWs incorporate the **excluded volume effect**.

A **self-avoiding polygon** (SAP) is a simple closed loop on the edges of the lattice:

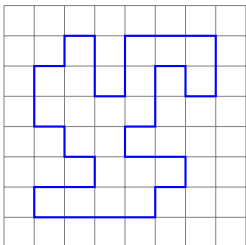


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A SAP of n edges can be associated with a SAW of $n - 1$ edges by selecting a vertex and a direction. There are $2n$ ways to do this.

Let p_n be the number of SAPs of length n . (Note that on any bipartite lattice like $\mathbb{Z}^2$ or $\mathbb{Z}^3$, $p_n = 0$ if n is odd, so **henceforth always assume n is even.**) Then two polygons of length m and n can be concatenated to give a polygon of length $m + n$ (may have to rotate the second one), so we have the **supermultiplicative** inequality

$$p_{m+n} \geq \frac{1}{d-1} p_m p_n.$$

So polygons also have an exponential growth rate.

In fact polygons have the same growth rate as walks:

Theorem (Hammersley 1961)

The limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log \left(\frac{p_n}{d-1} \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log p_n$$

exists and is equal to κ , the connective constant of the lattice, where the limit is taken through even values of n . Moreover $\kappa = \sup_{n \geq 0} \frac{1}{n} \log \left(\frac{p_n}{d-1} \right)$.

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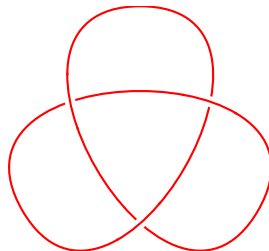
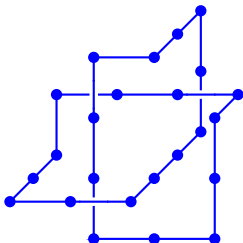
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Expect similar power law subexponential terms:

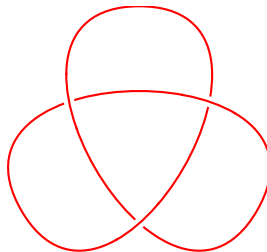
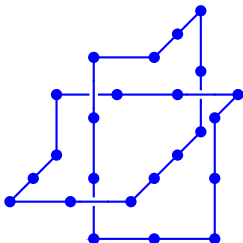
$$p_n \sim B n^{\alpha-3} e^{\kappa n}$$

where B, κ depend on lattice and α depends on dimension. In 2D, expect $\alpha = 1/2$, while in 3D expect $\alpha \approx 0.23721$.

In 3D SAPs can be **knotted**:



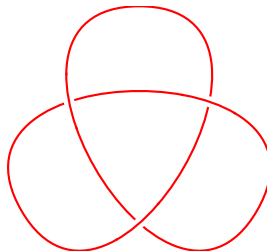
In 3D SAPs can be **knotted**:



In fact, very long polygons are almost always knotted:

Theorem (Sumners & Whittington 1988)

All except exponentially few sufficiently long SAPs on the cubic lattice are knotted.



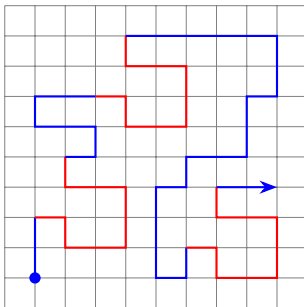
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This is proved using a **pattern theorem**.

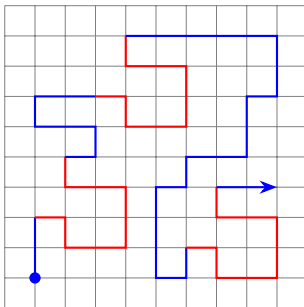
Introduction III: Pattern theorems

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Theorem (Kesten 1963)

Let P be a Kesten pattern, and let $c_{n,\bar{P}}$ be the number of SAWs of length n which do not contain any occurrences of P . Then

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log c_{n,\bar{P}} < \kappa.$$

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- Define the generating functions $\mathcal{C}(z) = \sum_n c_n z^n$, and likewise $\mathcal{B}(z)$ and $\mathcal{I}(z)$. Then with inclusion and unfolding arguments it is straightforward to show

$$\mathcal{I}(z) \leq \mathcal{B}(z) \leq \mathcal{C}(z) \leq e^{2\mathcal{B}(z)} = e^{2\mathcal{I}(z)/(1-\mathcal{I}(z))}$$

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- Likewise define $\mathcal{C}_{\bar{P}}(z)$, $\mathcal{B}_{\bar{P}}(z)$ and $\mathcal{I}_{\bar{P}}(z)$. The same inequalities hold (unless P can be formed at the concatenation of two irreducible bridges... then more care must be taken)

Sketch of (a) proof (ct'd):

- $\mathcal{C}(z)$ has a **dominant singularity** at $z = z_c = e^{-\kappa}$, and $c_{m+n} \leq c_m c_n$ implies that $\mathcal{C}(z)$ **diverges** at least as strongly as a simple pole as $z \rightarrow z_c$. Hence $\mathcal{B}(z)$ also diverges as $z \rightarrow z_c$.

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In fact a stronger result holds:

Theorem (Kesten 1963)

Let P be a Kesten pattern, and let $c_{n,\bar{P}}(\leq k)$ be the number of SAWs of length n which contain at most k occurrences of P . Then there exists an $\epsilon > 0$ such that

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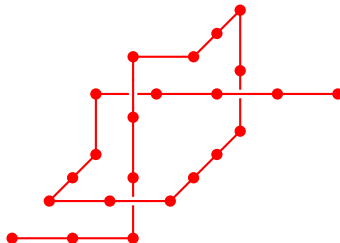
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Both results can easily be extended from SAWs to SAPs.

Whittington and Sumners show that unknots are exponentially rare by letting P be a **tight trefoil pattern**:



If this pattern occurs anywhere in a polygon, the polygon **cannot be the unknot**.

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Idea: a long knot of type K should “look” like an unknot except for the $P(K)$ small prime components, and there are $\approx n^{P(K)}$ ways to “insert” them.

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Conjecture

$$\gamma_K = \gamma_{0_1} + P(K). \quad (1)$$

Idea: a long knot of type K should “look” like an unknot except for the $P(K)$ small prime components, and there are $\approx n^{P(K)}$ ways to “insert” them.

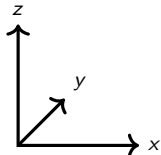
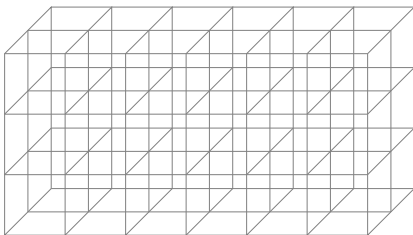
We will look at polygons in a **subset of $\mathbb{Z}^3$** in order to (hopefully) prove results which are difficult on the whole lattice.

Polygons in lattice tubes

Let $\mathbb{T}_{L,M} \equiv \mathbb{T}$ be an $L \times M$ semi-infinite tube of $\mathbb{Z}^3$:

$$\mathbb{T} = \{(x, y, z) : x \geq 0, 0 \leq y \leq L, 0 \leq z \leq M\}.$$

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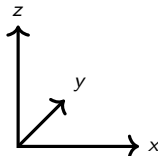
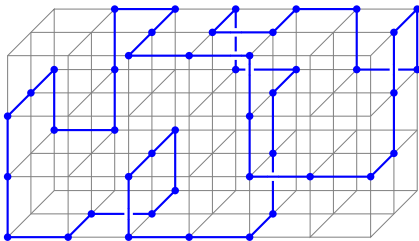
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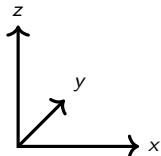
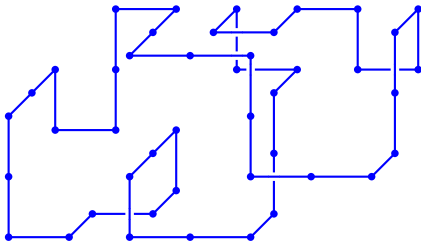
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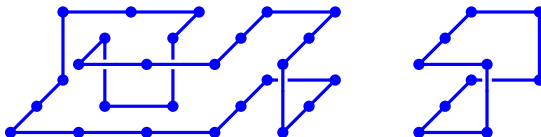
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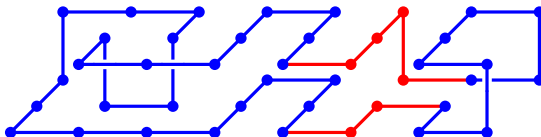


Let $p_{\mathbb{T},n}$ be the number of polygons in $\mathcal{P}_{\mathbb{T}}$ of length n .

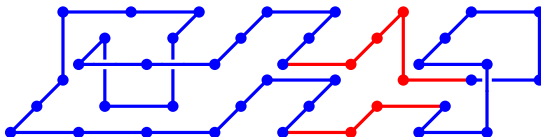
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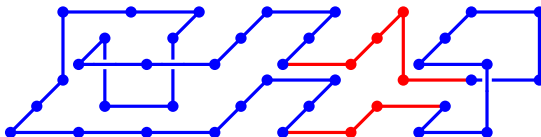
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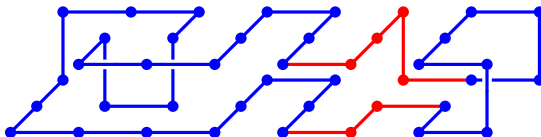
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Note: Unlike in $\mathbb{Z}^2$ or $\mathbb{Z}^3$, SAWs and SAPs in the tube have different growth rates. For now we will not consider SAWs in $\mathbb{T}$.

Transfer matrices

In fact we can do better:

Theorem (Soteros 1998)

There exists a constant $\alpha_{\mathbb{T}}$ such that

$$p_{\mathbb{T},n} = \alpha_{\mathbb{T}} e^{\kappa_{\mathbb{T}} n} (1 + O(1/n)) .$$

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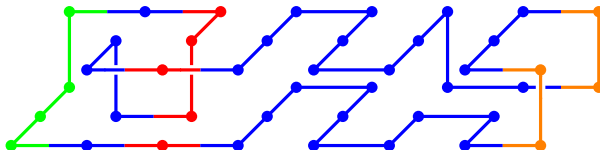
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This and other results are proved with **transfer matrices**:



A **(1-)block** is the portion of a polygon between $x = j$ and $x = j + 1$ for some $j \in \mathbb{Z} + 1/2$. A **starting block** is the first non-empty block, and a **finishing block** is the last non-empty block. Distinguish blocks not only by their edges and vertices, but also by how the incoming edges on the left are paired up.

Let $\mathbf{G}_T(z)$ be the matrix with terms

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Since polygons can be concatenated, $\mathbf{G}_{\mathbb{T}}$ is **irreducible**, and since there are blocks which can follow themselves, $\mathbf{G}_{\mathbb{T}}$ is **primitive** (aperiodic). The **dominant singularity** of $F_{\mathbb{T}}(z)$ is $z_{\mathbb{T}} = e^{-\kappa_{\mathbb{T}}} =$ the value of z which makes the **dominant eigenvalue** of $\mathbf{G}_{\mathbb{T}}(z)$ equal to 1.

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Theorem (Soteros 1998)

For any $L \times M$ tube $\mathbb{T}$ with $L \geq 2$, $M \geq 1$ the probability of a random n -step polygon in $\mathbb{T}$ being knotted approaches 1 as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

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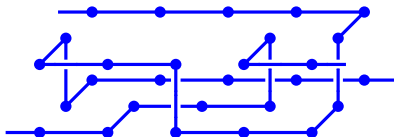
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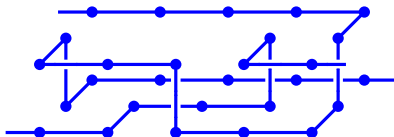
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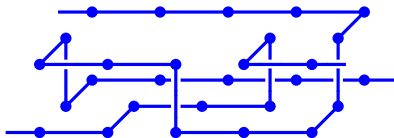
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So removing any knotted k -pattern results in a smaller growth rate!

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Theorem (Atapour, NRB, Eng, Ishihara, Shimokawa, Soteros & Vazquez 2017)

If K is a knot type that can occur in the 2×1 tube $\mathbb{T}$ (a *2-bridge knot*), then

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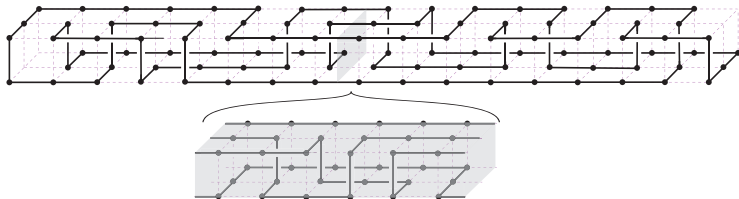
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Upper bound is proved by showing that a knot of type K can be unknotted by inserting “untwisting” blocks:



The number of insertions is bounded above by the crossing number $c(K)$, giving

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Moreover, if $K = K_1 \# K_2 \# \dots \# K_p$, with each of the K_i having unknotting number 1, then the number of insertions required is only p . In this case,

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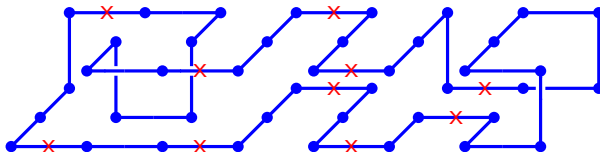
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This would require showing that there are (on average) at least $\text{const.} \times n^p$ ways to convert an unknot to a knot of type K .

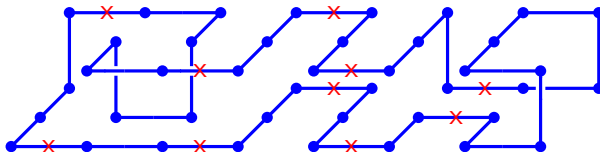
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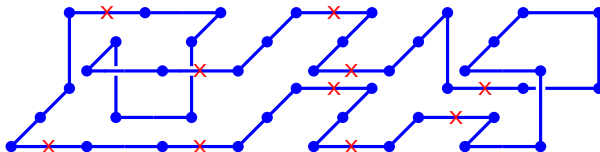
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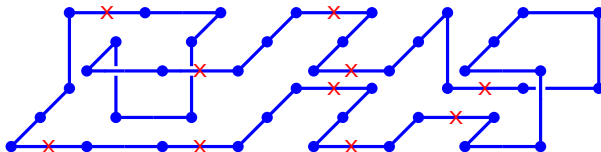


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So if unknots have a lot (ie. $O(n)$) of 2-strings, there should be a lot (ie. $O(n^p)$) of ways to insert the p knot components into an unknot to get a knot of type $K = K_1 \# \dots \# K_p$.

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Let $u_{\mathbb{T},n}(j)$ be the number of unknots in $\mathbb{T}$ of length n with j 2-strings. Then

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There are 119,796,593 unknots of length 24 in $\mathbb{T}$, so we know

$$\kappa_{\mathbb{T},0} \geq 0.620044.$$

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To prove this, we show that an unknot with $\leq j$ 2-strings can be converted into one with no 2-strings with the addition of a bounded number of edges. There are at most $n/2$ 2-strings in a polygon, so

$$u_{\mathbb{T},n}(\leq \epsilon n) \leq \sum_{j=0}^{\epsilon n} \binom{n/2}{j} u_{\mathbb{T},n+cj}(0)$$

for a constant c .

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Since unknots with fewer than $\epsilon^* n$ 2-strings are exponentially rare, we can take (almost) any unknot of length n and turn it into a knot of type $K = K_1 \# \dots \# K_p$ in at least $\binom{\epsilon^* n}{p} = O(n^p)$ ways.

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Theorem (Atapour, NRB, Eng, Ishihara, Shimokawa, Soteros & Vazquez 2017)

If $K = K_1 \# \dots \# K_p$ with all K_p being 2-bridge knots with unknotting number 1, then in the 2×1 tube $\mathbb{T}$,

$$\frac{p_{\mathbb{T},n}(K)}{u_{\mathbb{T},n}} \sim \text{const.} \times n^p.$$

Beyond the 2×1 tube?

The enumeration argument used to show the density of 2-strings works the 3×1 tube too, but have to enumerate unknots to length 28. For larger tubes, would have to go further $\Rightarrow$ infeasible at present.

The “untwisting” algorithm has not been developed beyond the 2×1 tube, but it may work in some cases.

Random sampling

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So instead we will try to use Monte Carlo methods. The transfer matrices can be used to generate **uniformly random polygons** of a given span or length, built up one 1-block at a time.

Roughly, the idea (adapted from [Alm & Janson 1990]) is that the correct transition probability from 1-block i to 1-block j is

$$e^f z_c^{|j|} \frac{\xi_j(z_c)}{\xi_i(z_c)},$$

where $|j|$ is the number of edges in j , $z_c = e^{-\kappa_{\mathbb{T}}}$, and $\xi(z_c)$ is the corresponding **right eigenvector**.

(Some other stuff has to happen at the leftmost and rightmost blocks.)

Some results

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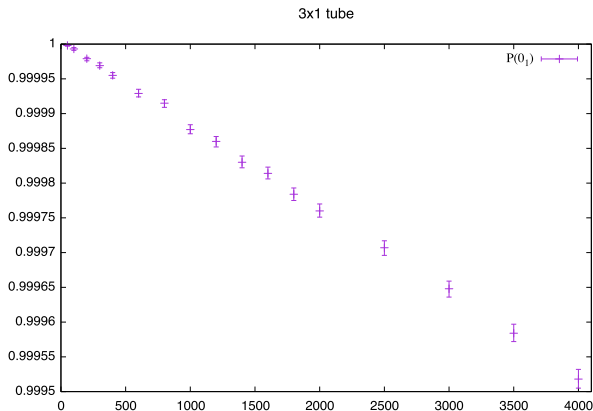


Figure: Probably of unknot in the 3×1 tube.

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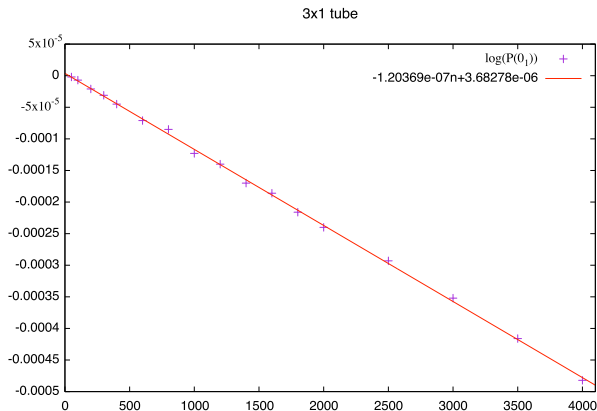


Figure: Straight line fit to $\log(\cdot)$.

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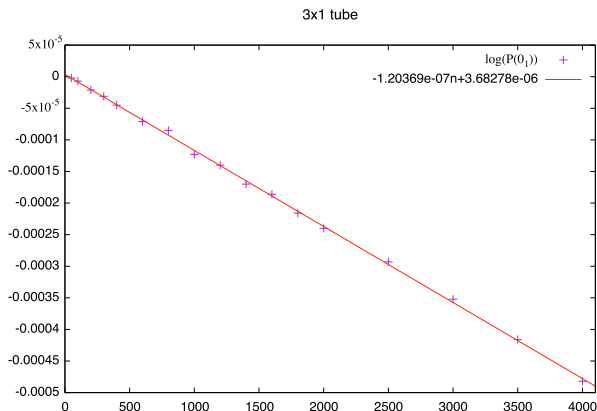


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So $\kappa_{\mathbb{T},0} \approx \kappa_{\mathbb{T}} - 1.204 \times 10^{-7}$. In $\mathbb{Z}^3$ the difference has been estimated to be $\approx 4.15 \times 10^{-6}$ [Whittington & Janse van Rensburg 1992].

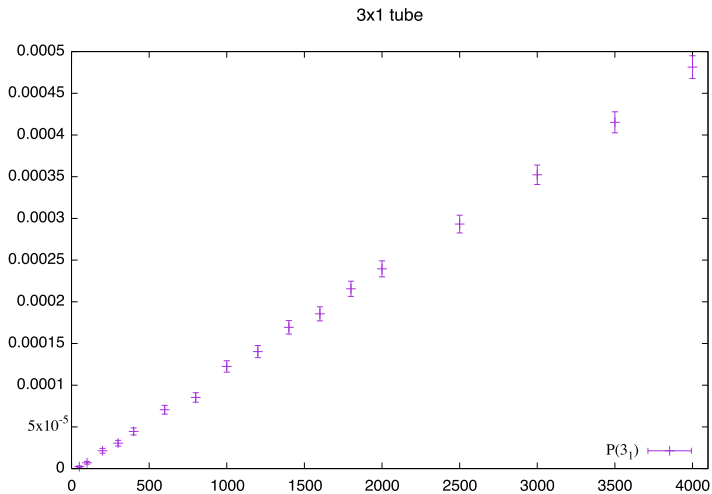


Figure: Probably of trefoil in the 3×1 tube.

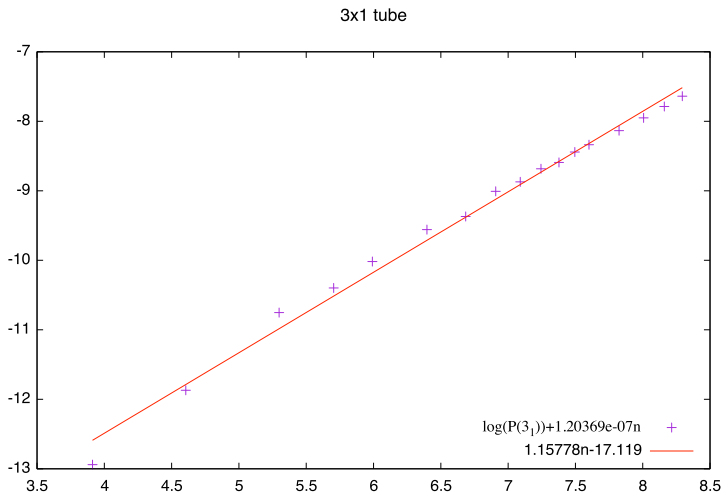


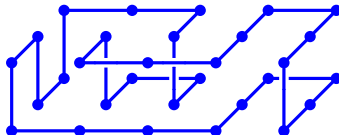
Figure: Straight line fit to log-log plot $+1.204 \times 10^{-7} n$.

Hamiltonian polygons

Knots in 3×1 are still very very rare!

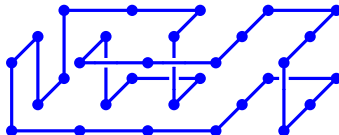
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All of the theorems proved so far work for these too (in fact some are easier).

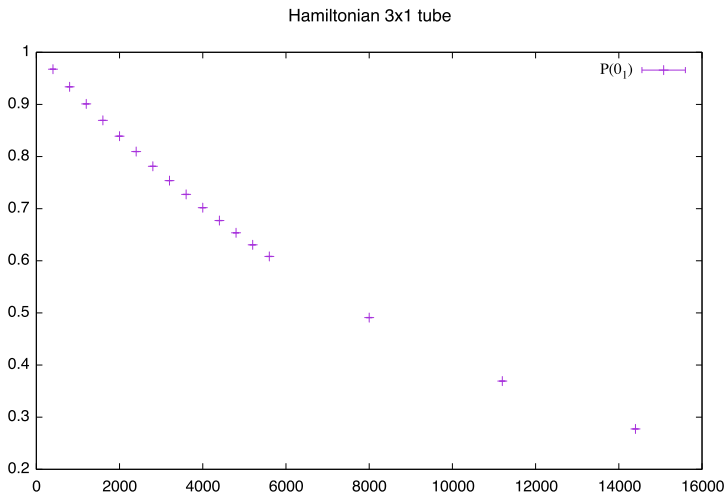


Figure: Probably of Hamiltonian unknot in the 3×1 tube.

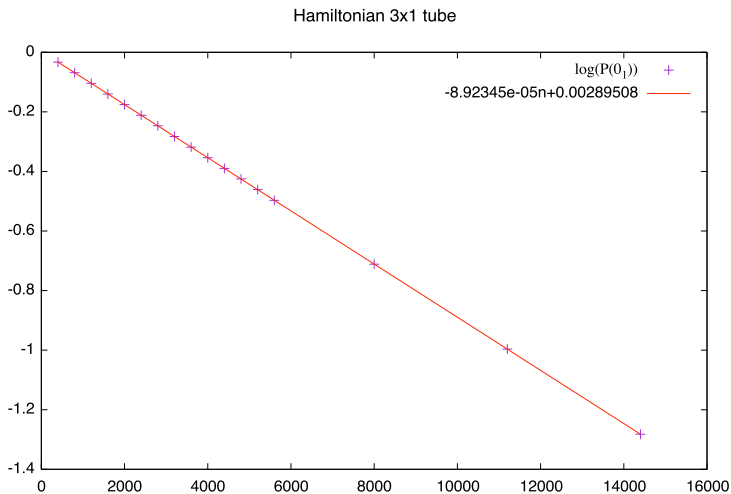


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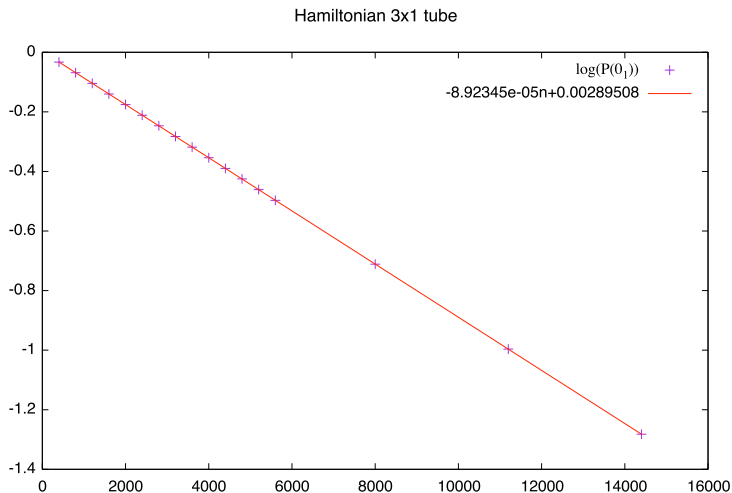


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So here $\kappa_{\mathbb{T},0}^H \approx \kappa_{\mathbb{T}}^H - 8.923 \times 10^{-5}$.

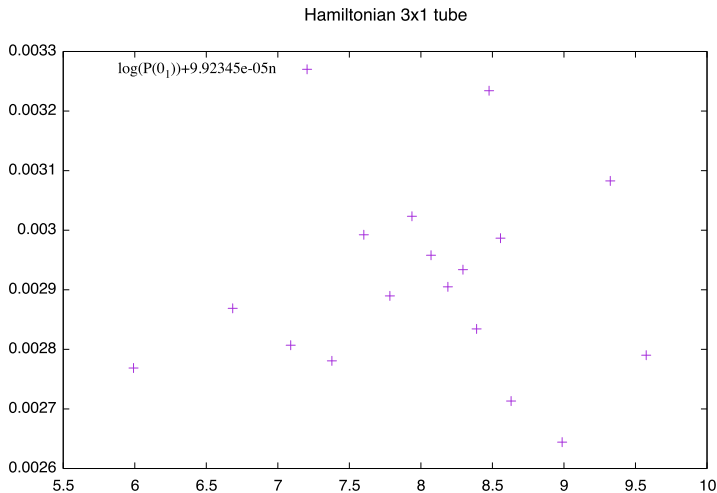


Figure: log-log plot $+8.923 \times 10^{-5}n$.

So here $\kappa_{\mathbb{T},0}^H \approx \kappa_{\mathbb{T}}^H - 8.923 \times 10^{-5}$. Taking a log-log plot and subtracting the exponential term just gives noise, suggesting that $\gamma_0 = 0$ in $\mathbb{T}$.

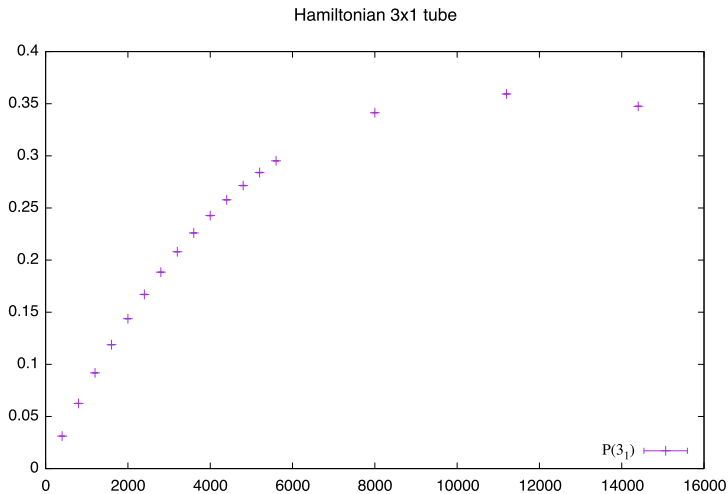


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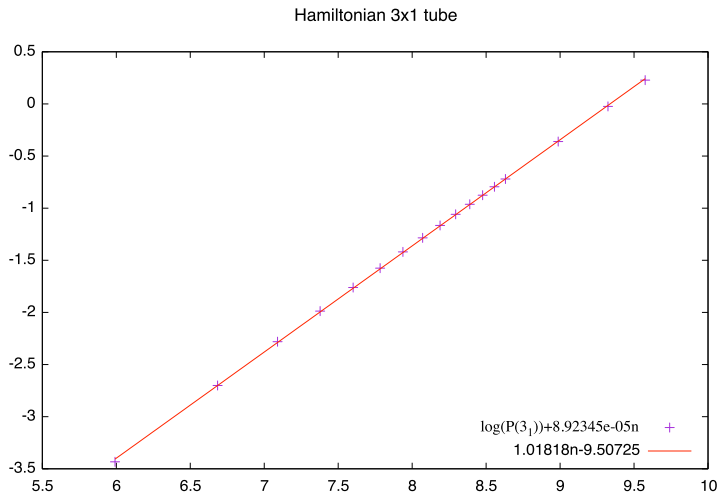


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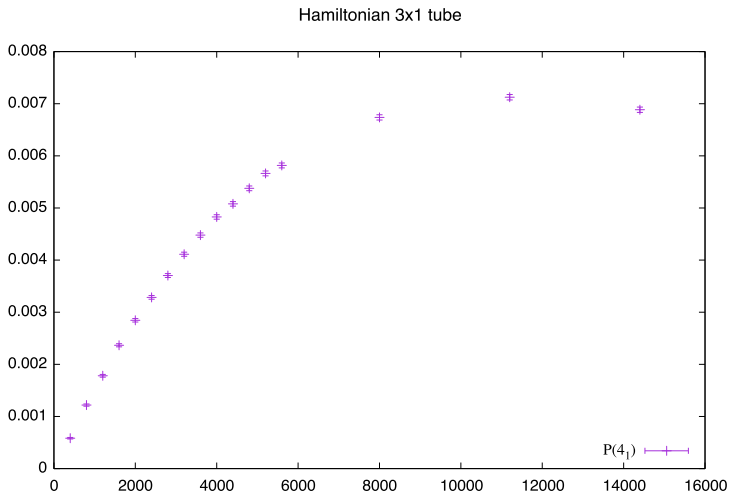


Figure: Probability of figure-eight in the 3×1 tube.

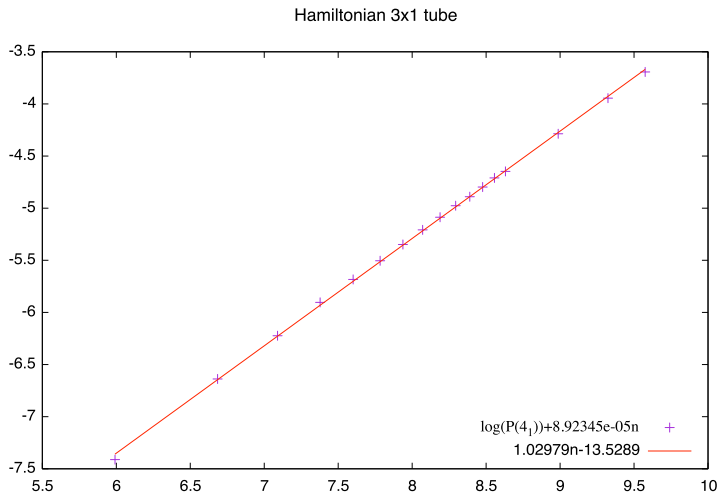


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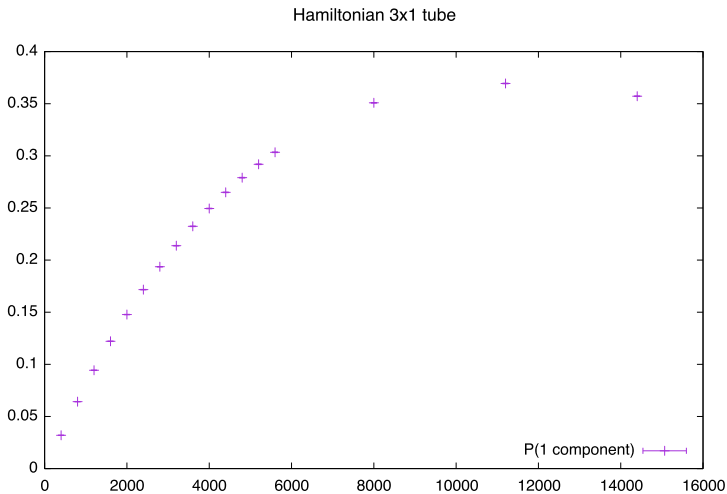


Figure: Probably of single-component knot in the 3×1 tube.

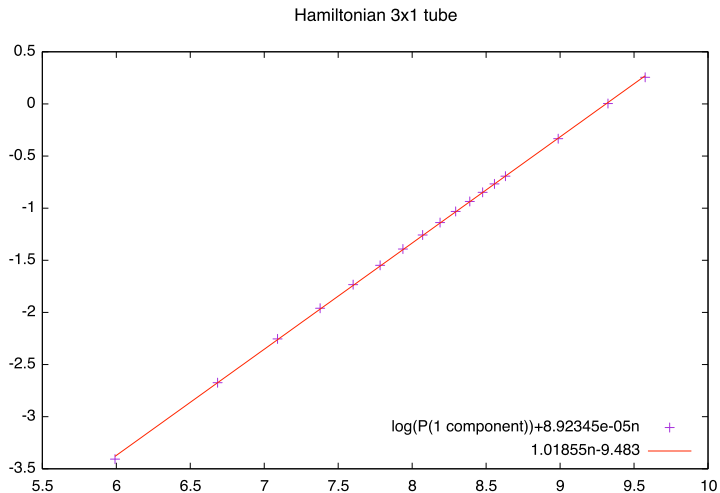


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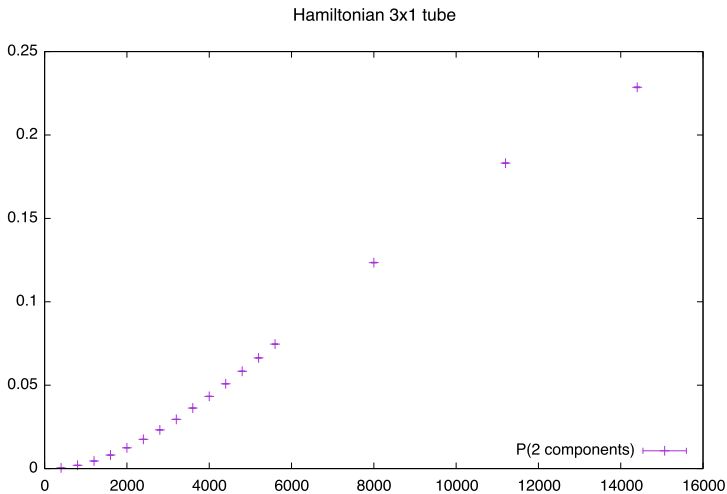


Figure: Probably of two-component knot in the 3×1 tube.

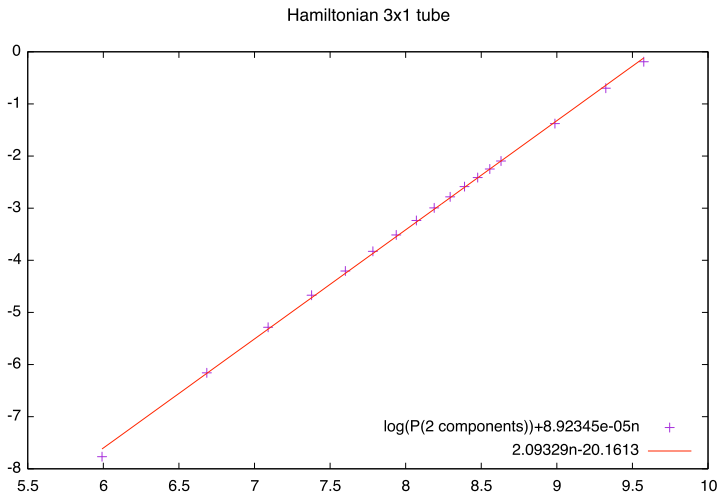


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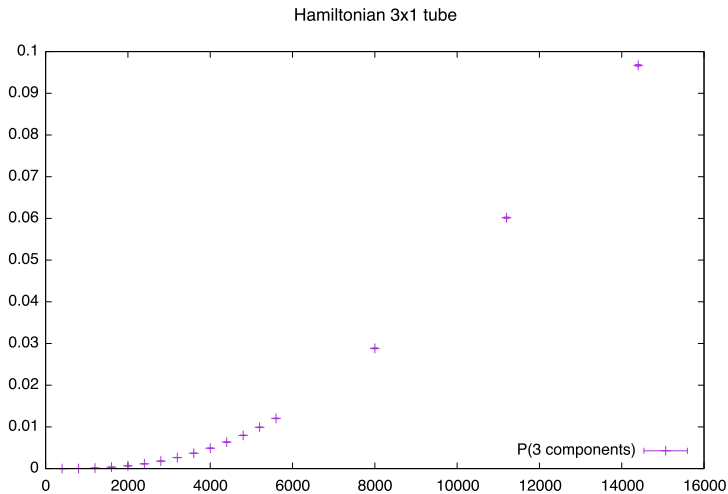


Figure: Probably of three-component knot in the 3×1 tube.

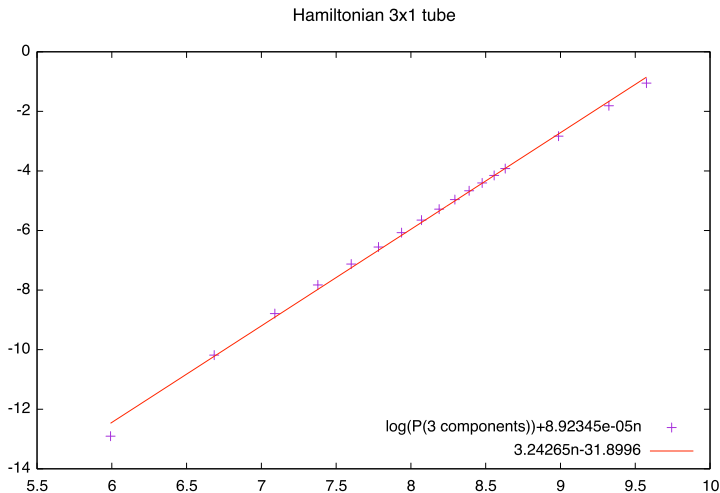


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Ongoing & future work

Investigate:

- how knotting probability behaves for larger tube sizes
- how large knot components tend to be
- whether knot components are “local” (occupy a small part along the chain) or “global”
- incorporate stretching & compressing forces; nearest-neighbour interactions; writhe
- In cases where the transfer matrix is too big to be used, develop new method (Markov chain?) for sampling Hamiltonian polygons

NRB, J. Eng & C. Soteros, Polygons in restricted geometries subjected to infinite forces. *Journal of Physics A* **49** (2016), 424002.

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Thank you!