

Limit distributions of tree parameters

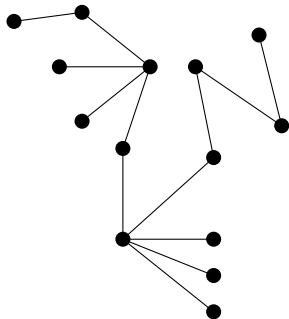
Stephan Wagner

Stellenbosch University

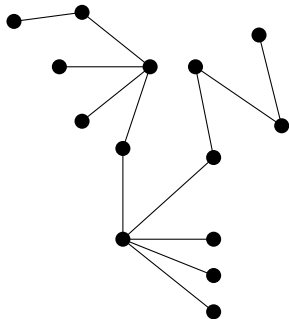
FPSAC, 4 July 2019



Why study trees?

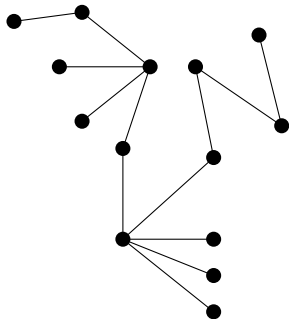


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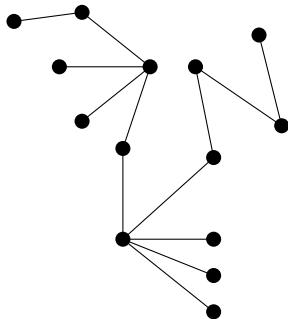
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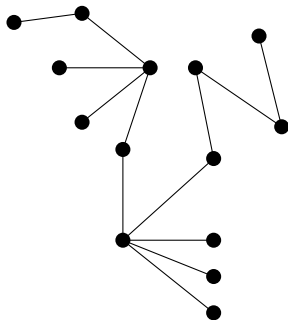
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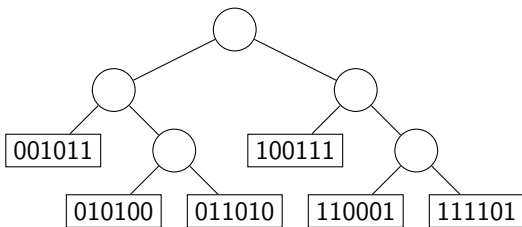
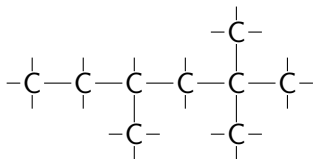
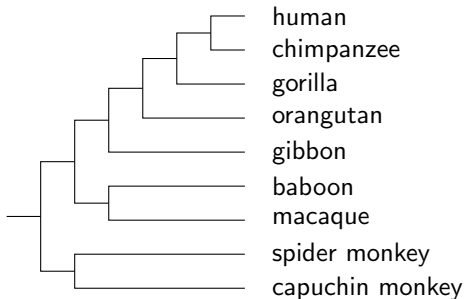
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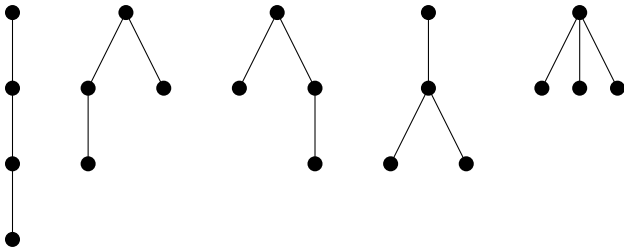


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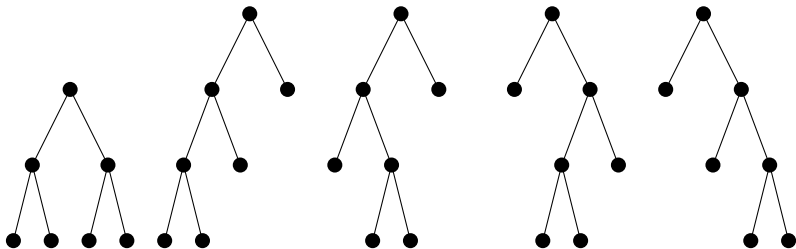
Depending on these, many different classes of trees have been studied in the literature.

(Planted) plane trees: rooted trees embedded in the plane



The number of plane trees with n vertices is the *Catalan number* $\frac{1}{n} \binom{2n-2}{n-1}$.

Binary trees: rooted trees where every vertex is either a leaf or has exactly two children (left and right).



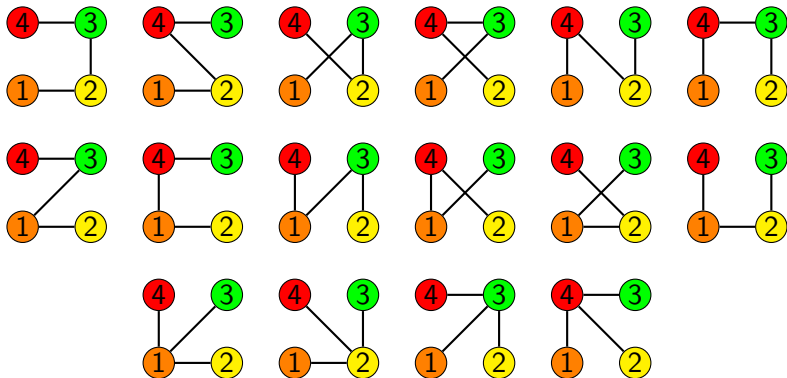
The number of binary trees with n internal vertices is the *Catalan number*

$$\frac{1}{n+1} \binom{2n}{n}.$$

Families of trees



Labelled trees: each vertex has a unique label from 1 up to n (can be rooted or unrooted).

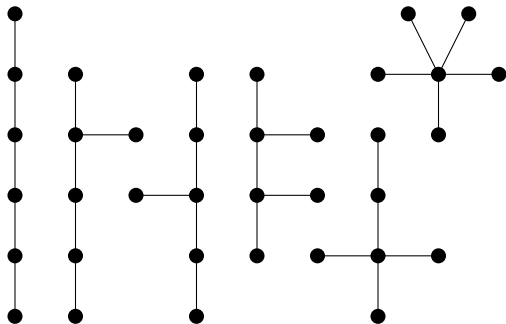


The number of labelled (unrooted) trees with n vertices is n^{n-2} .

Families of trees

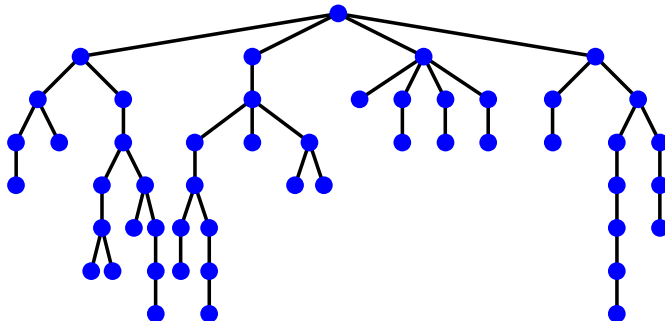


Unlabelled (unrooted) trees:



There is no simple formula for the number of unlabelled trees of a given size. The counting sequence starts 1, 1, 1, 2, 3, 6, 11, 23, 47, \dots , and there is an asymptotic formula for the number of trees with n vertices:

$$0.53495 \cdot n^{-5/2} \cdot 2.95577^n.$$



A random tree with 50 vertices. What is the underlying model?



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- Uniform models (e.g. uniformly random labelled or binary trees),
- Branching processes (e.g. Galton-Watson trees),
- Increasing tree models (e.g. recursive trees),
- Models based on random strings or permutations (e.g. tries, binary search trees).



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The analysis of such models often involves exact counting and generating functions.

In particular, this is the case for *simply generated families of trees*.



On the set of all rooted ordered (plane) trees, we impose a weight function by first specifying a sequence $1 = w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots$ and then setting

$$w(T) = \prod_{i \geq 0} w_i^{N_i(T)},$$

where $N_i(T)$ is the number of vertices of outdegree i in T . Then we pick a tree of given order n at random, with probabilities proportional to the weights. For instance,



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- $w_0 = w_2 = 1$ (and $w_i = 0$ otherwise) generates random binary trees,
- $w_i = \frac{1}{i!}$ generates random rooted labelled trees.



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Simply generated trees and Galton-Watson trees are essentially equivalent. For example, a geometric distribution for branching will result in a random plane tree, a Poisson distribution in a random rooted labelled tree.

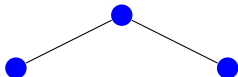


Construction of a random binary tree according to the Galton-Watson model: each vertex has either no children or precisely two.



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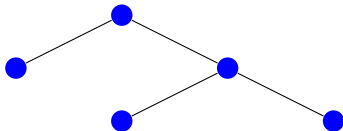
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Branching processes



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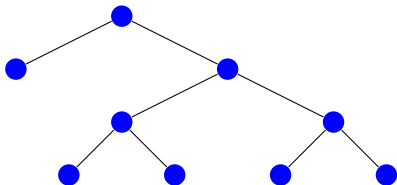
$$t = 1$$

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Branching processes



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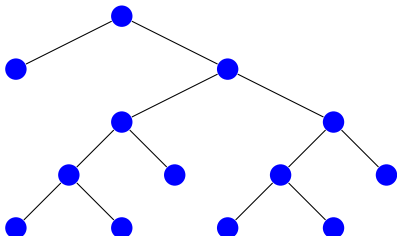
$t = 2$

$t = 3$

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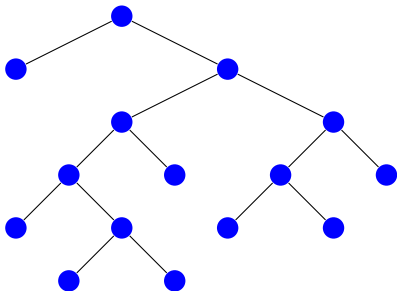
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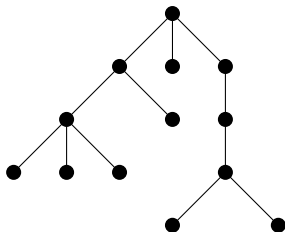
$t = 3$

$t = 4$

$t = 5$



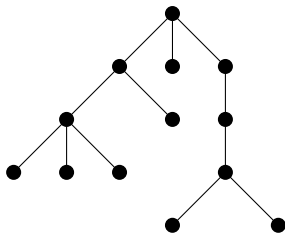
An example:



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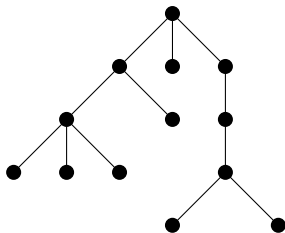
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as does every tree with 13 vertices.



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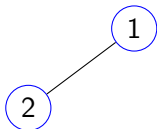
The model can be modified by not choosing a parent uniformly at random, but depending on the current outdegrees (to generate, for example, binary increasing trees).



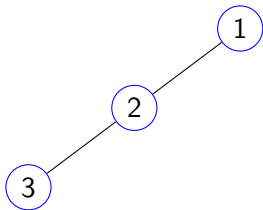
Construction of a recursive tree with 10 vertices:

1

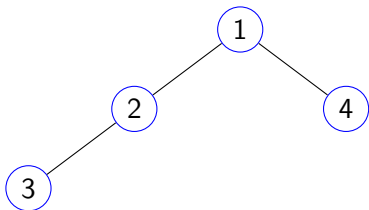
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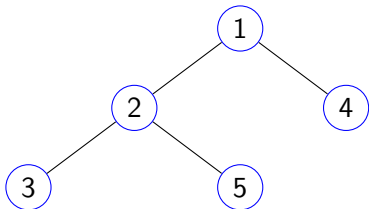
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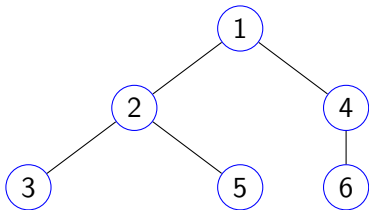
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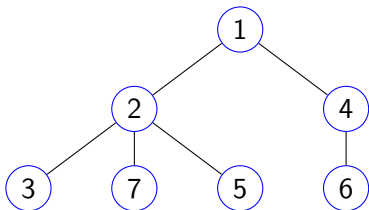
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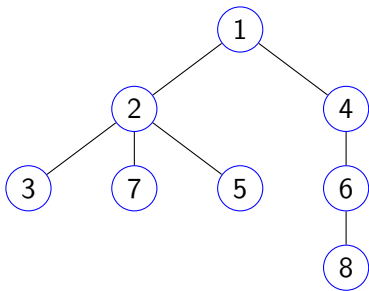
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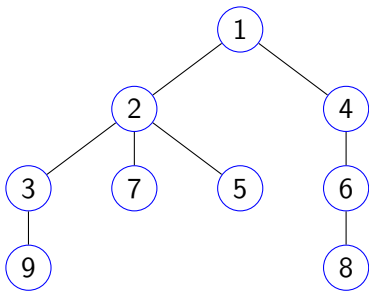
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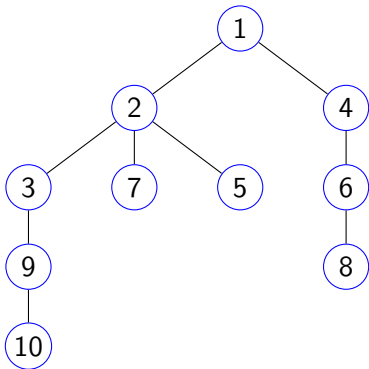
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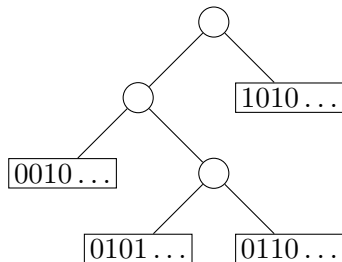
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- This procedure is repeated recursively.

An example of a trie:



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A general question



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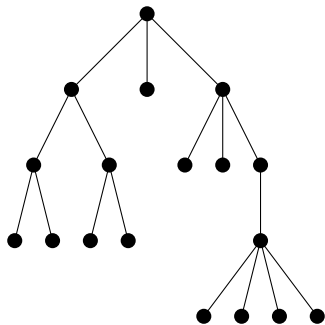


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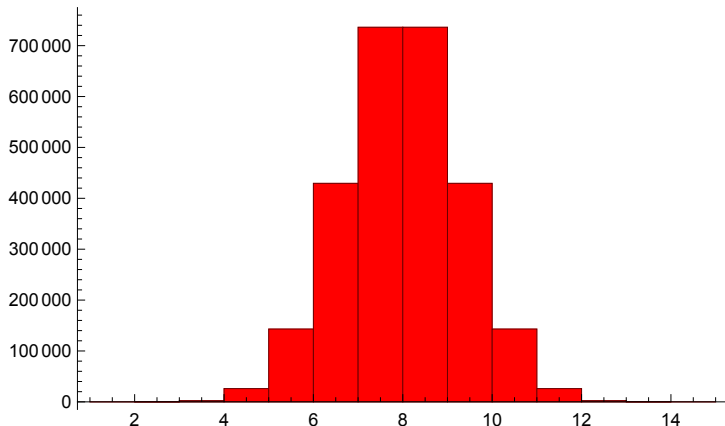
These questions become particularly relevant when n is large.

Some examples of parameters



The tree above has 11 leaves, 2 “cherries”, height 4, path length 44, 384 automorphisms and 3945 subtrees.

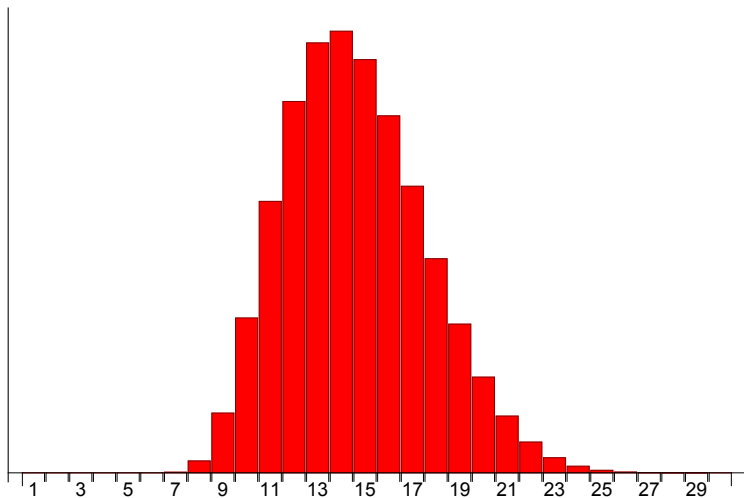
Distribution of parameters: some examples



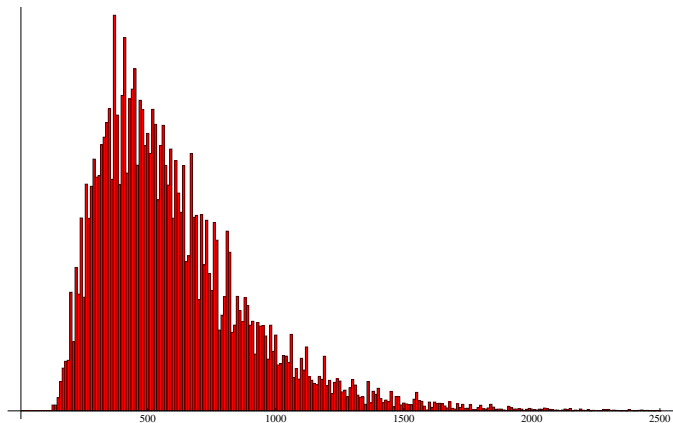
Distribution of the number of leaves in plane trees with 15 vertices. Plane trees with n vertices and k leaves are counted by the Narayana numbers

$$N_{n,k} = \frac{1}{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} \binom{n-1}{k-1}.$$

Distribution of parameters: some examples



Distribution of the height in binary trees with 30 internal vertices.



Distribution of the number of subtrees in labelled trees with 15 vertices.



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For some parameter P , what can we say about the distribution of $P(\mathcal{T}_n)$?

The number of leaves



Theorem (Kolchin 1984, Drmota + Gittenberger 1999, Janson 2016)

For every family \mathcal{F} , there exist constants $\mu > 0$ and $\sigma^2 > 0$ such that the number of leaves $L(\mathcal{T}_n)$ of a random tree \mathcal{T}_n in \mathcal{F} has mean $\mu_n \sim \mu n$ and variance $\sigma_n^2 \sim \sigma^2 n$.



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Moreover, the renormalised random variable

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The theorem generalises to the number of vertices with a given degree or the number of fringe subtrees of a given shape.



Theorem (Flajolet, Gao, Odlyzko + Richmond 1993, Drmota + Gittenberger 2010)

For every family \mathcal{F} , there exists a constant $\mu > 0$ such that the height $H(\mathcal{T}_n)$ of a random tree \mathcal{T}_n in \mathcal{F} has mean $\mu_n \sim \mu\sqrt{n}$.

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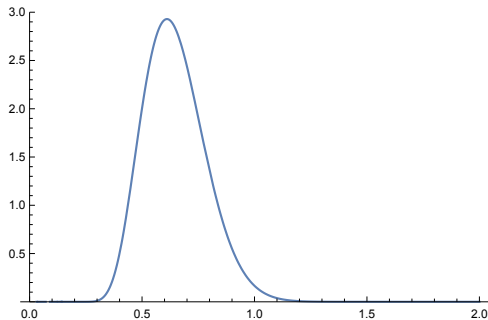
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Moreover, the renormalised random variable

$$X_n = \frac{H(\mathcal{T}_n)}{c\sqrt{n}},$$

where $c = \frac{45\zeta(3)\mu}{2\pi^{5/2}}$, converges weakly to a so-called theta distribution, characterised by the density function

$$f(t) = \frac{4\pi^{5/2}}{3\zeta(3)} t^4 \sum_{m \geq 1} (m\pi)^2 (2(m\pi t)^2 - 3) \exp(-(m\pi t)^2).$$



The theta distribution: limiting distribution of the height.



Theorem (Takács 1993, Janson 2003, SW 2012)

For every family \mathcal{F} , there exists a constant $\mu > 0$ such that the path length $D(\mathcal{T}_n)$ and the Wiener index $W(\mathcal{T}_n)$ of a random tree \mathcal{T}_n in \mathcal{F} have means $\mu_n^D \sim \mu n^{3/2}$ and $\mu_n^W \sim \frac{\mu}{2} n^{5/2}$ respectively.

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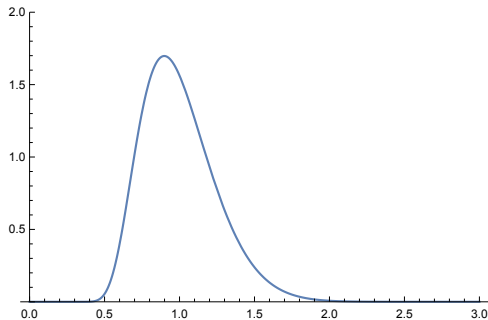
Moreover, the renormalised random variables

$$X_n = \frac{D(\mathcal{T}_n)}{\mu n^{3/2}} \quad \text{and} \quad Y_n = \frac{W(\mathcal{T}_n)}{\mu n^{5/2}}$$

converge weakly to random variables given in terms of a normalised Brownian excursion $e(t)$ on $[0, 1]$:

$$\sqrt{\frac{8}{\pi}} \int_0^1 e(t) dt \quad \text{and} \quad \sqrt{\frac{8}{\pi}} \iint_{0 < s < t < 1} (e(s) + e(t) - 2 \min_{s \leq u \leq t} e(u)) ds dt.$$

The path length



The Airy distribution: limiting distribution of the path length.

Additive functionals: a general concept

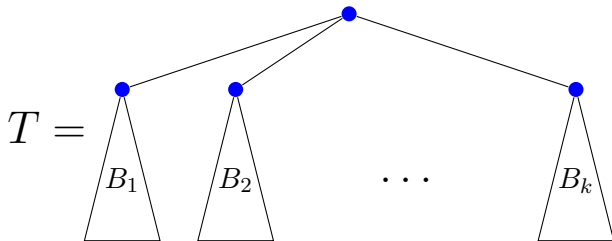


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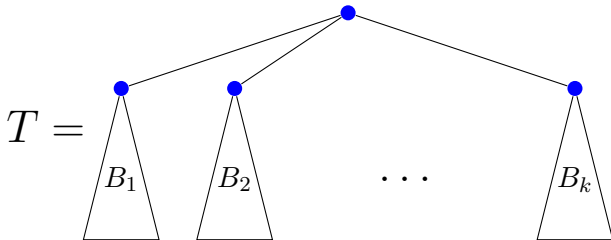


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Remark

The recursion remains true for the tree $T = \bullet$ of order 1 if we assume without loss of generality that $f(\bullet) = F(\bullet)$.

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One can see by induction that the recursion

$$F(T) = F(B_1) + F(B_2) + \cdots + F(B_k) + f(T)$$

is equivalent to the formula

$$F(T) = \sum_v f(T_v).$$



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$$f(T) = \begin{cases} 1 & |T| = 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$



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- The number of vertices whose outdegree is a fixed number k :

$$f(T) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if the root of } T \text{ has outdegree } k, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$



- The path length, i.e., the sum of the distances from the root to all vertices, can be obtained from the toll function $f(T) = |T| - 1$:

$$P(T) = \sum_{i=1}^k (P(B_i) + |B_i|) = |T| - 1 + \sum_{i=1}^k P(B_i).$$



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- The log-product of the subtree sizes, also called the “shape functional”, corresponds to $f(T) = \log |T|$. It is related to the number of linear extensions:

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$$\log \frac{|T|!}{\text{LE}(T)} = \log |T| + \sum_{i=1}^n \log \frac{|B_i|!}{\text{LE}(B_i)}.$$

Even more examples



- The size of the automorphism group: if c_1, c_2, \dots, c_r are the multiplicities of the different isomorphism classes of branches, we have

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- The multiplicity of some eigenvalue λ :

$$N_\lambda(T) = \sum_{i=1}^k N_\lambda(B_i) + \epsilon_\lambda(T),$$

where $\epsilon_\lambda(T) \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$.

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Hence

$$\log(1 + s_1(T)) = \sum_{i=1}^k \log(1 + s_1(B_i)) + \log(1 + s_1(T))^{-1}.$$

This means that $\log(1 + s_1(T))$ is additive with toll function $f(T) = \log(1 + s_1(T))^{-1}$.



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In a nutshell, there are two types of conditions:

- The toll function f is “small” (at least on average) for large trees.
- The toll function f is “local” (only depends on a small neighbourhood of the root), at least approximately.



Similar results are known for other tree models, specifically:

- increasing tree families: recursive trees, d -ary increasing trees, (generalised) plane-oriented recursive trees (Holmgren + Janson 2015, Holmgren + Janson + Šileikis 2017, Ralaivaosaona + SW 2019)
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Proofs involve:

- combinatorial techniques (generating functions, analytic combinatorics, ...)
- probabilistic techniques (growth processes, urn models, ...)

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