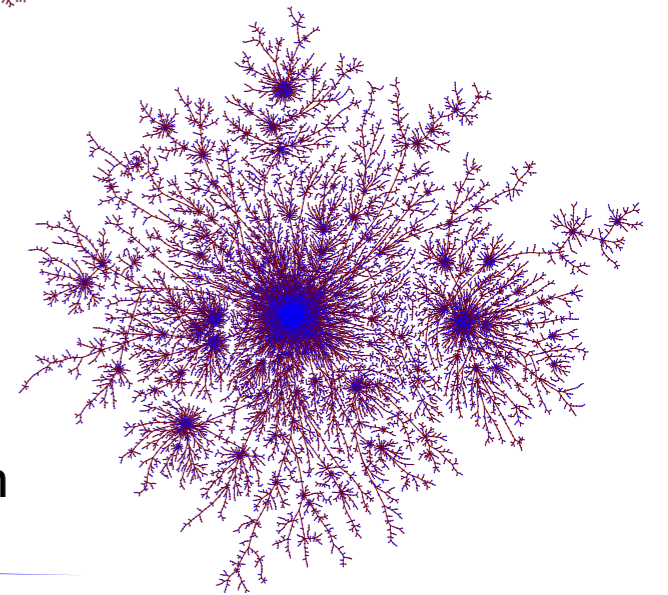
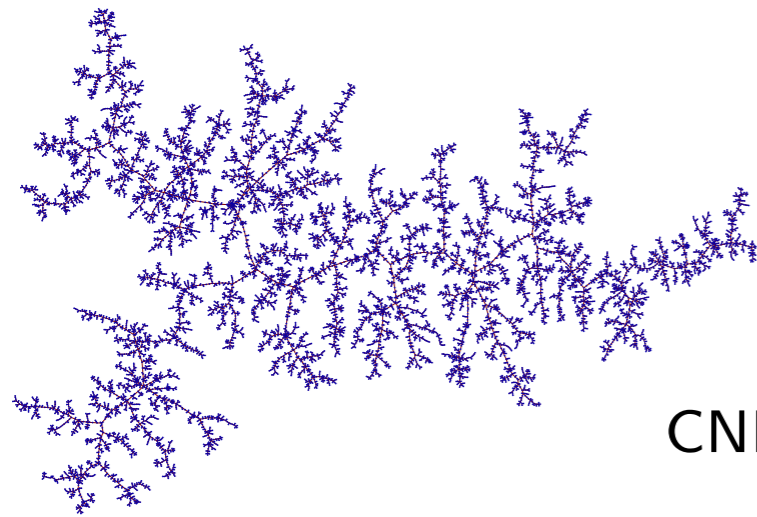
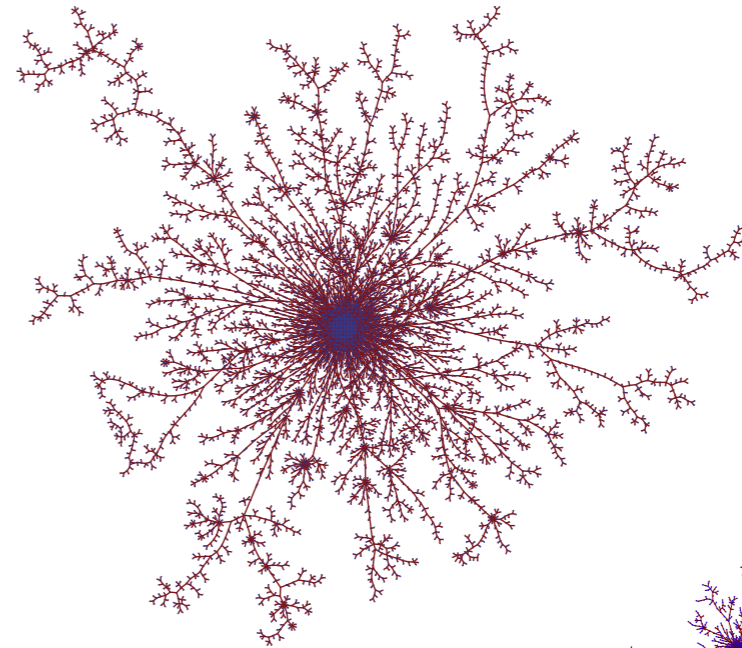
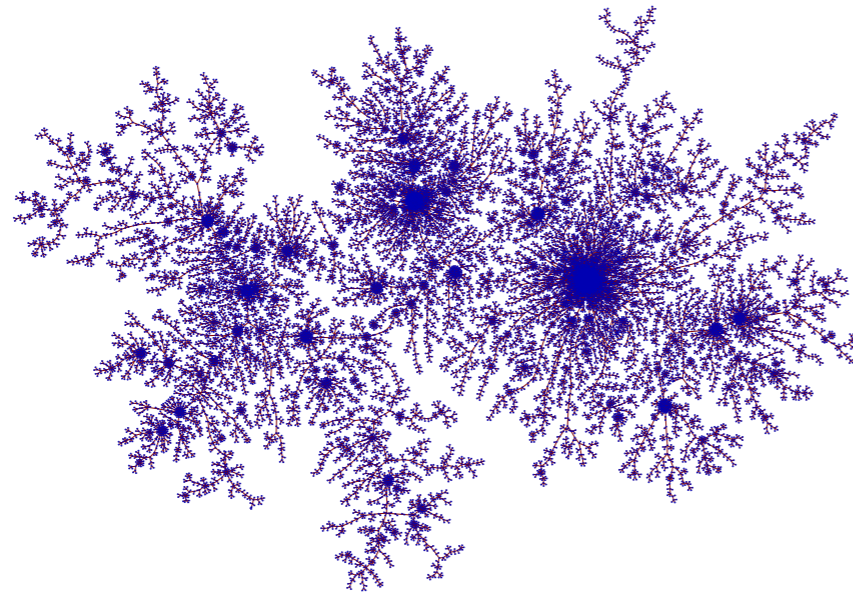




Limits of large random trees



Igor Kortchemski
CNRS, École polytechnique & ETH Zürich

Context

Understand the geometry and the structure of **large random trees** by studying their limits.

Motivation for studying limits

Let $(X_n)_{n \geq 1}$ be “discrete” objects converging towards a “limiting” object X :

$$X_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{} X.$$

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- *From the continuous world to the discrete world:* if a property \mathcal{P} is satisfied by X and passes to the limit, X_n satisfies “approximately” \mathcal{P} for n large.
- *Universality:* if $(Y_n)_{n \geq 1}$ is another sequence of objects converging towards X , then X_n and Y_n share approximately the same properties for n large.

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 $X_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{(d)} X$ implies $G(X_n) \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{(d)} G(X)$

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Outline

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Stack triangulations (Albenque, Marckert)

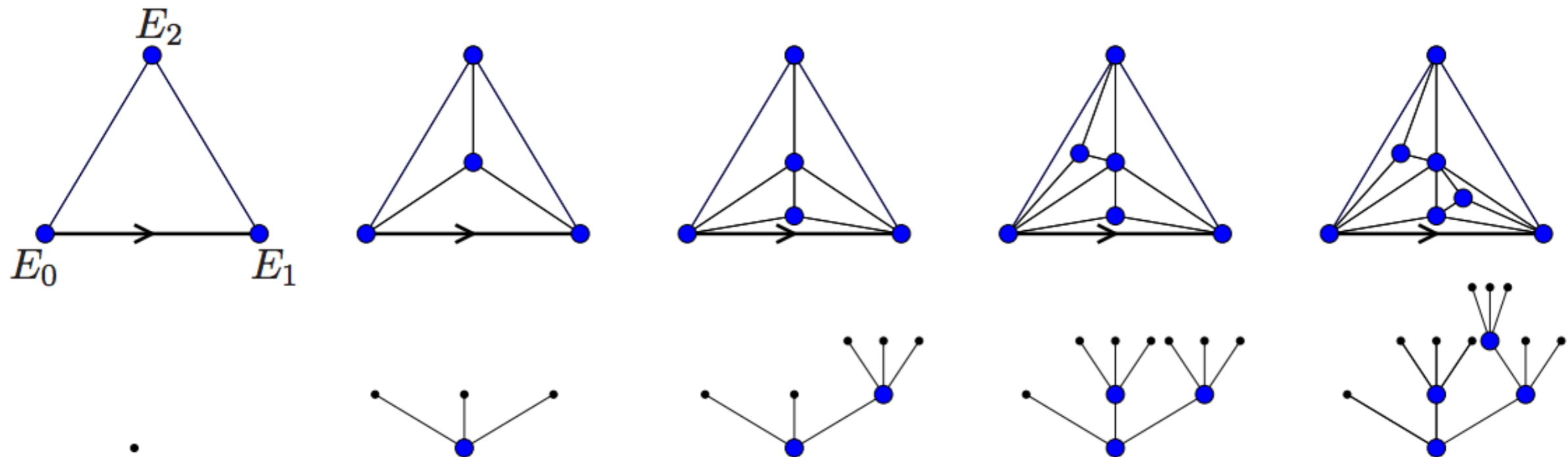


Figure 8: Construction of the ternary tree associated with an history of a stack-triangulation

Dissections (Curien, \mathcal{K} .)

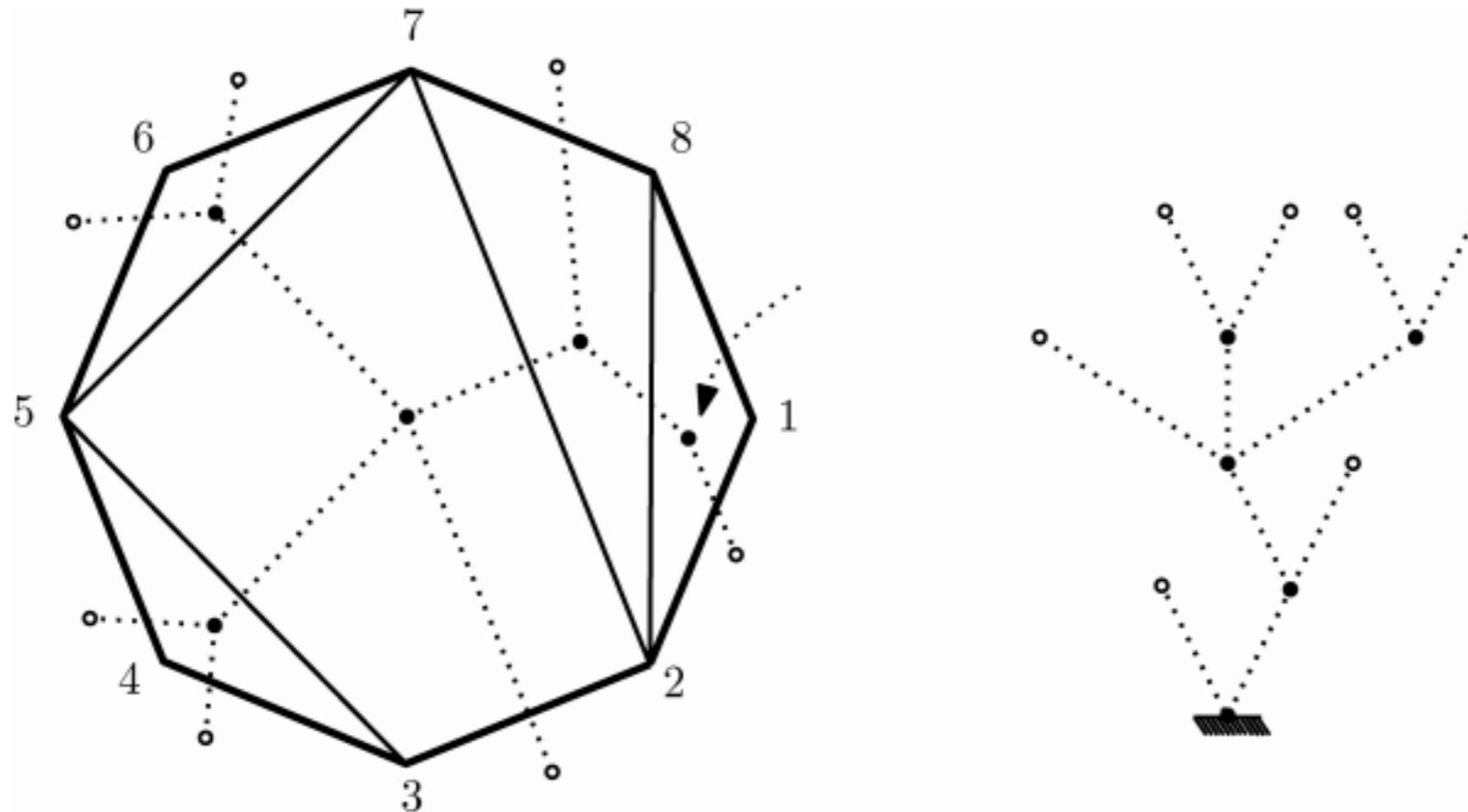


Fig. 4. The dual tree of a dissection of P_8 , note that the tree has 7 leaves.

Maps (Schaeffer)

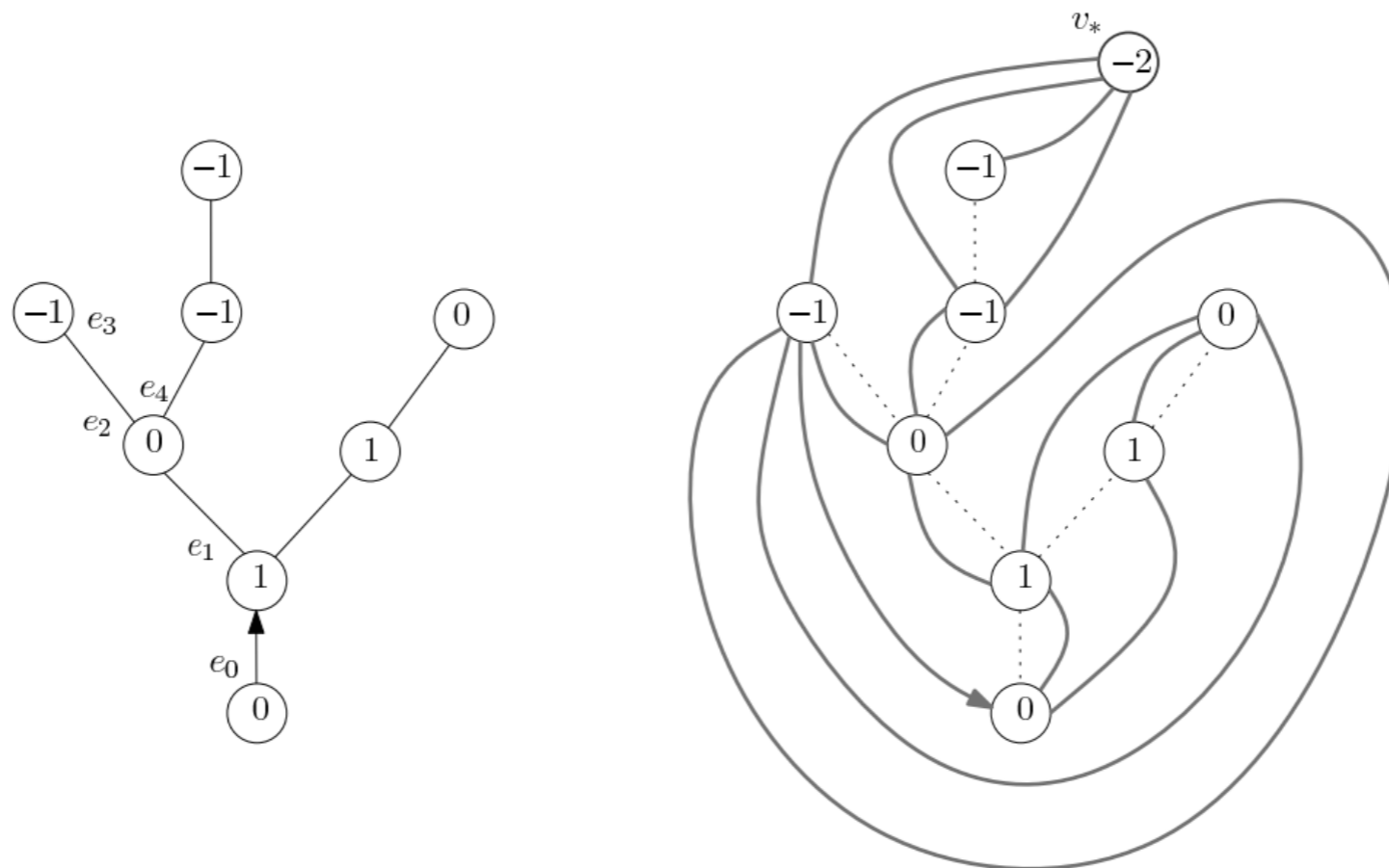
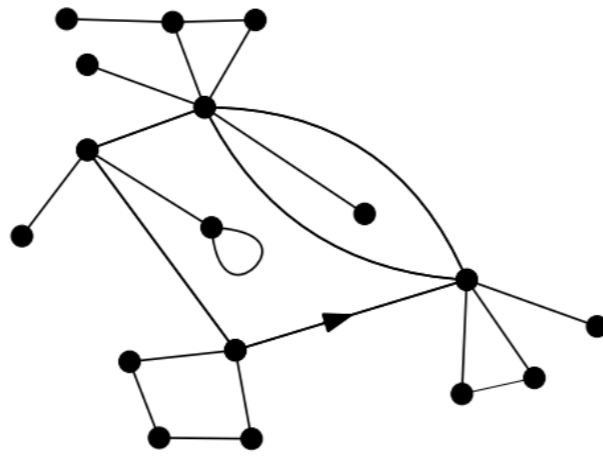
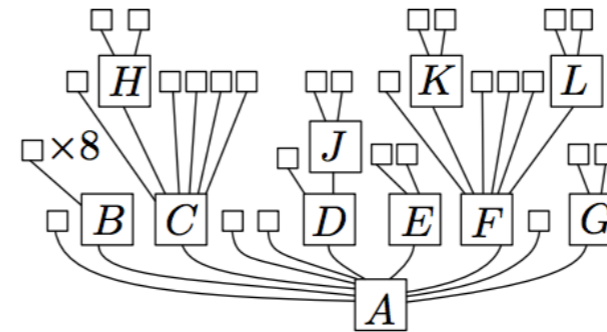
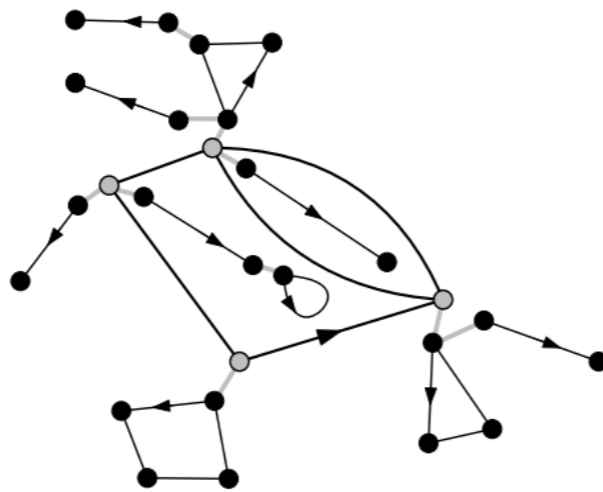
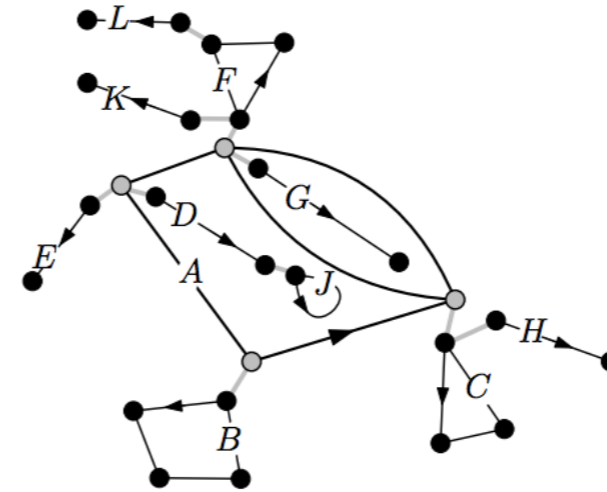
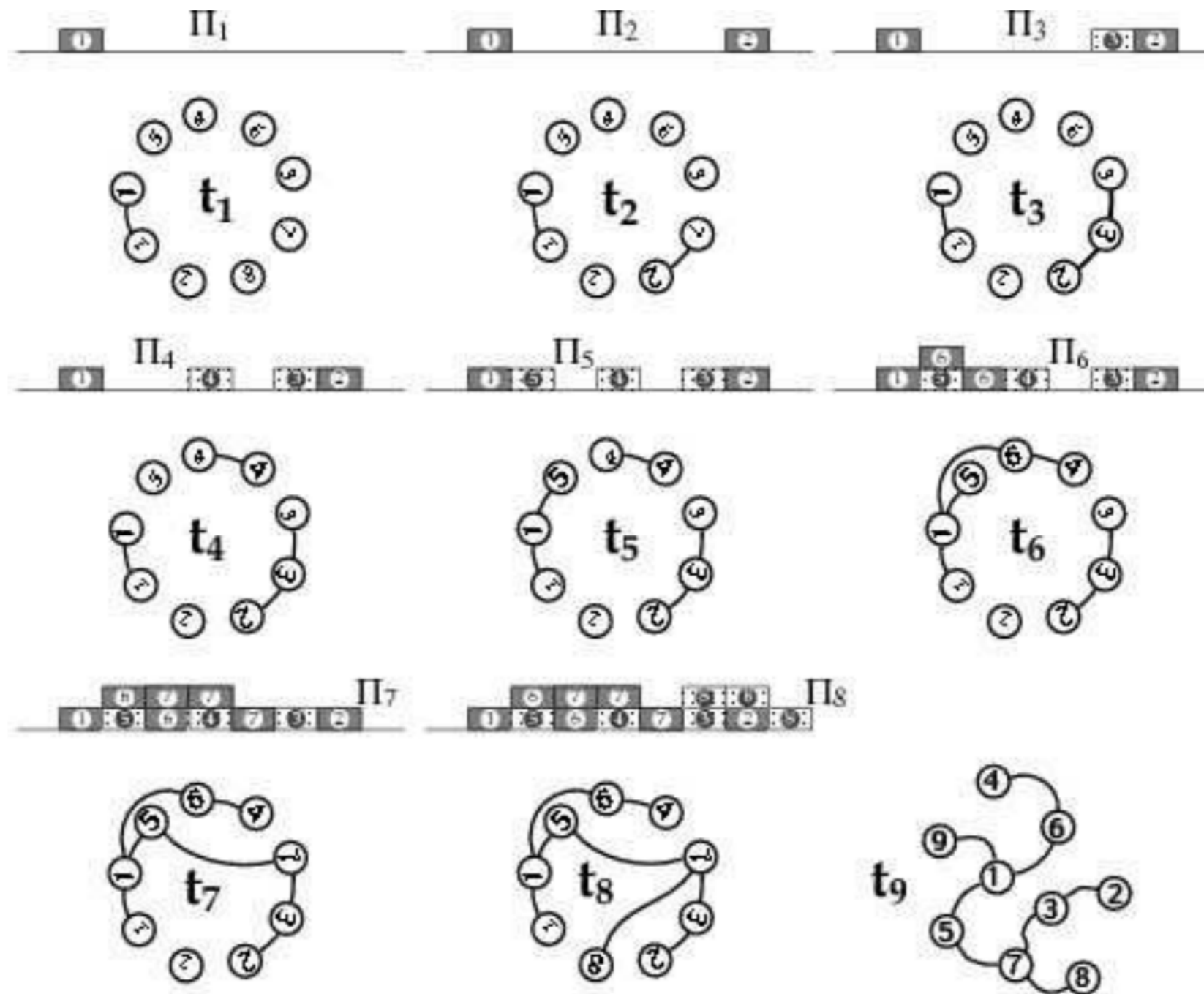


FIGURE 6. Illustration of the Cori-Vauquelin-Schaeffer bijection, in the case $\epsilon = 1$. For instance, e_3 is the successor of e_0 , e_2 the successor of e_1 , and so on.

Maps (Addario-Berry)

(A) A map M .(B) The tree T_M . Tiny squares represent trivial blocks.(C) The decomposition of M into blocks. Blocks are joined by grey lines according to the tree structure. Root edges of blocks are shown with arrows.(D) The correspondence between blocks and nodes of T_M . Non-trivial blocks receive the alphabetical label (from A through L) of the corresponding node.

Parking functions (Chassaing, Louchard)



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Plane trees



Figure: Two different plane trees

We consider **plane** (i.e. rooted ordered) trees.

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A **random tree** with law \mathbb{P}_{μ} is called a **μ -Bienaymé tree** (or **B_{μ} tree**).

Size-conditioned Bienaymé trees

It is natural to consider \mathcal{T}_n , a B_μ tree conditioned to have n vertices (we implicitly restrict to values of n for which this makes sense).

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- when $\mu(k) = e^{-1}/k!$ for $k \geq 0$, \mathcal{T}_n is a uniform labelled tree (a.k.a. Cayley tree) with n vertices (after forgetting the labels).

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↗ If $c < \rho_\mu$, two Bienaymé trees with offspring distributions μ and μ_c , defined by

$$\mu_c(k) = \frac{1}{G_\mu(c)} c^k \mu(k), \quad k \geq 0,$$

when conditioned on having n vertices, have the same distribution (Kennedy '75).

What are the limits of large size-conditioned **Bienaymé trees**?

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What does a large size-conditioned **Bienaymé tree** look like, near the root?

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holds in distribution for the local topology, where \mathcal{T}_∞ is the infinite Bienaymé tree conditioned to survive.

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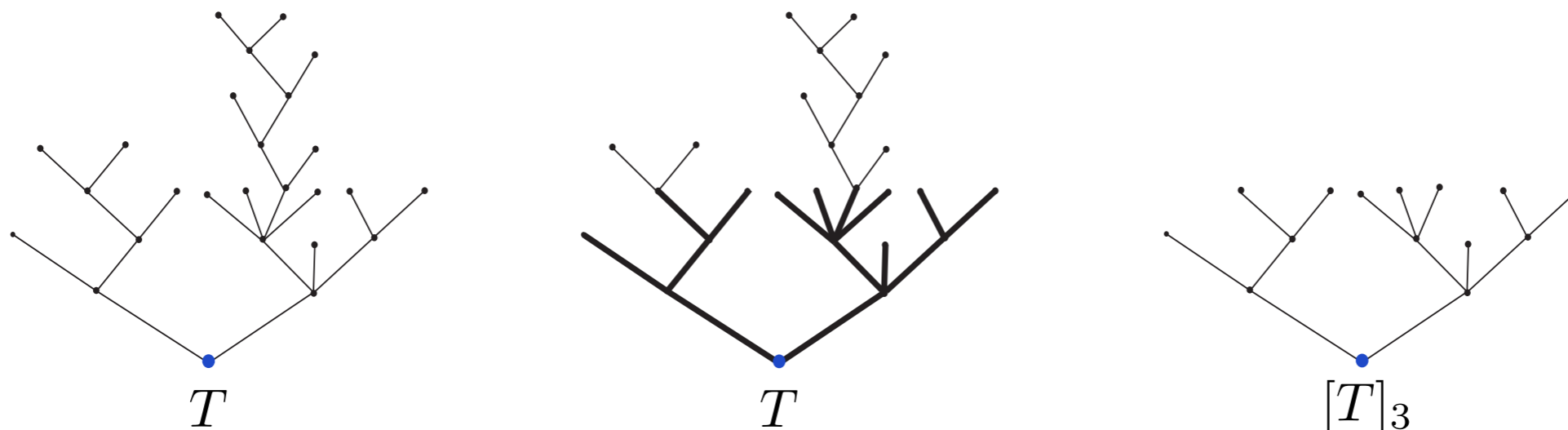
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\rightsquigarrow This means that $[\mathcal{T}_n]_k \rightarrow [\mathcal{T}_\infty]_k$ in distribution, where $[T]_k$ denotes the subtree of T obtained by keeping the first k generations:



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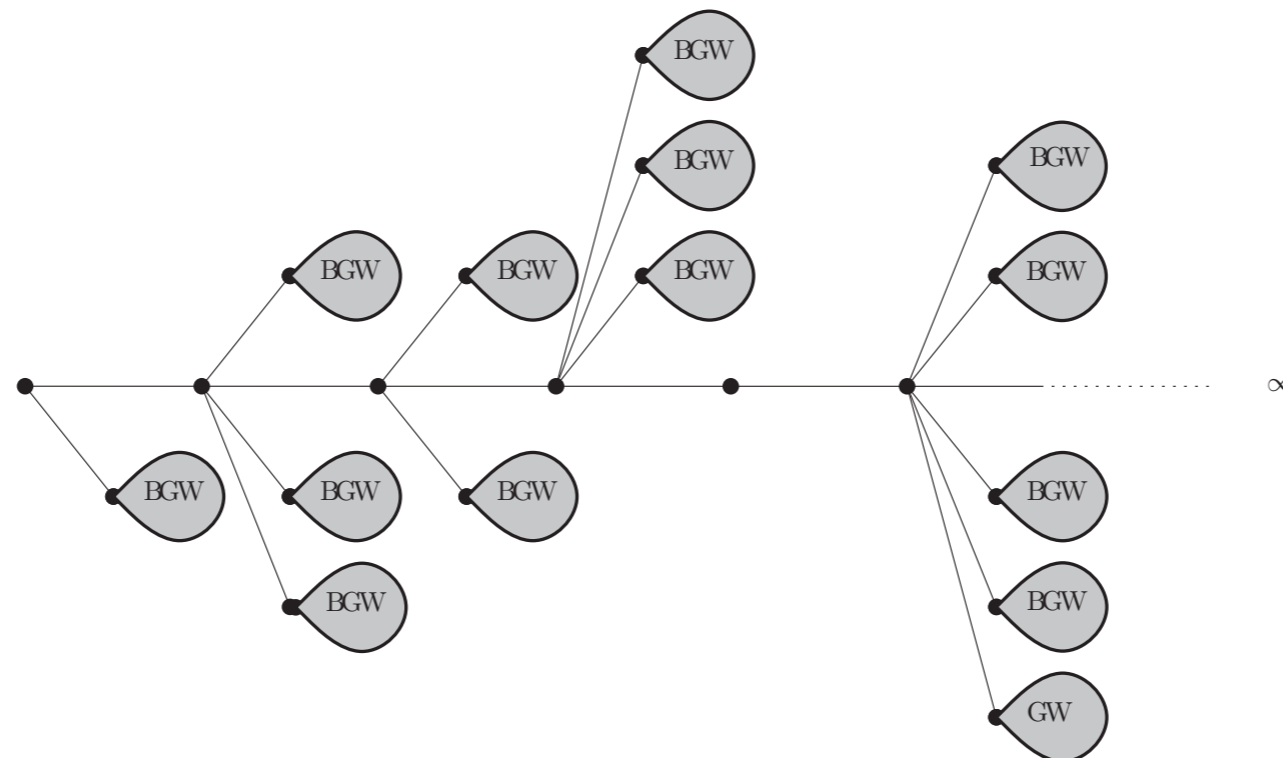
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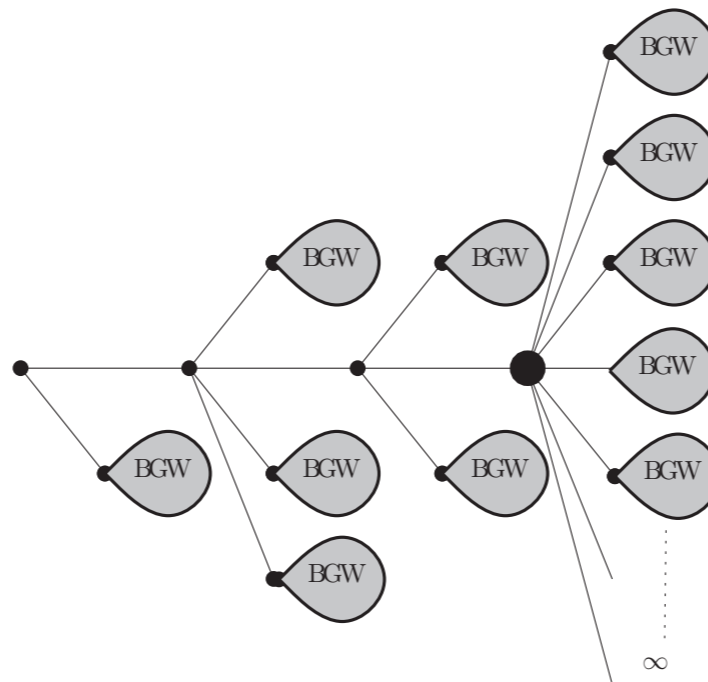
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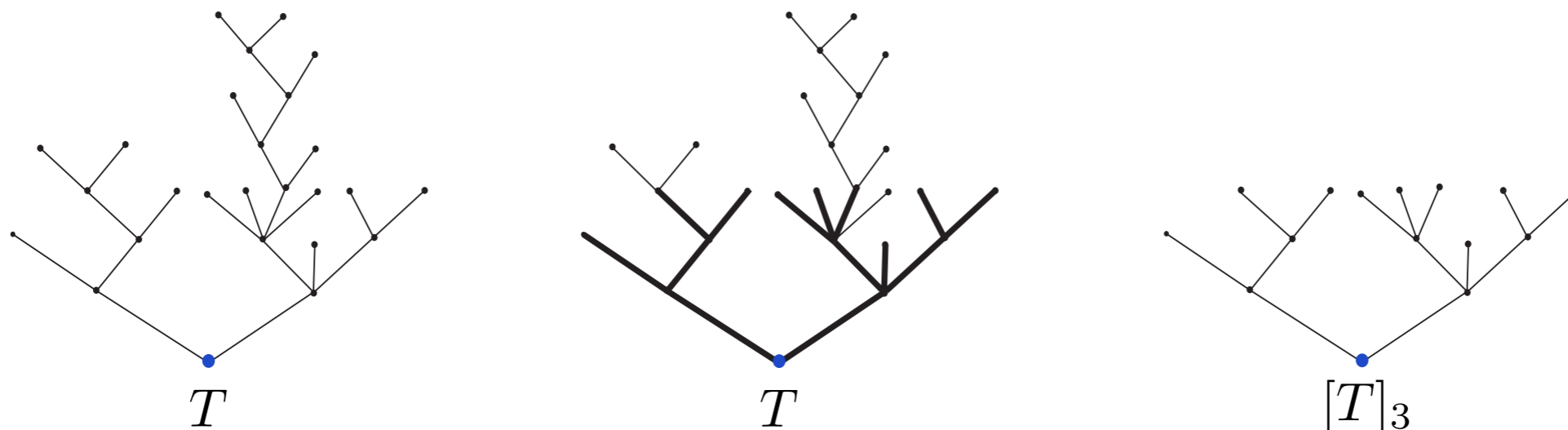
Theorem (Jonsson & Stefánsson '11, Janson '12, Abraham & Delmas '14)

The convergence

$$\mathcal{T}_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{(d)} \mathcal{T}_\infty^*$$

holds in distribution for the local topology, where \mathcal{T}_∞^* is a “condensation” tree

\rightsquigarrow This means that $[\mathcal{T}_n]_k \rightarrow [\mathcal{T}_\infty^*]_k$ in distribution, where $[T]_k$ denotes the subtree of T obtained by keeping *the first k children on the first k generations*:



I. MODELS CODED BY TREES

II. BIENAYMÉ TREES

III. LOCAL LIMITS OF BIENAYMÉ TREES

IV. SCALING LIMITS OF BIENAYMÉ TREES



What does a large **Bienaymé tree** look like, globally?

I have simulated and drawn a uniform plane tree with 10000 vertices. What did I get?

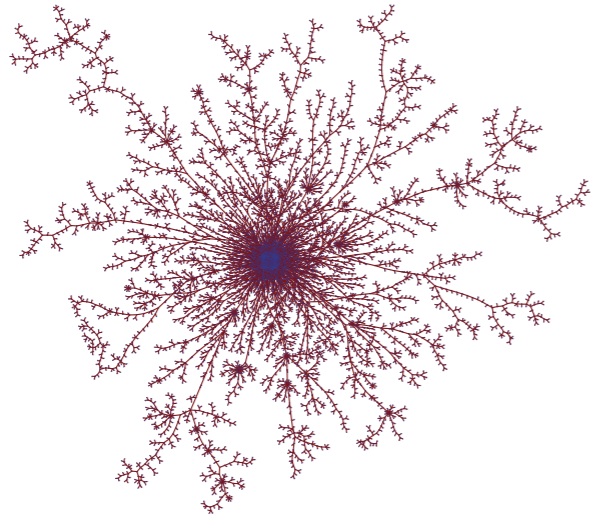


Figure: Result 1.

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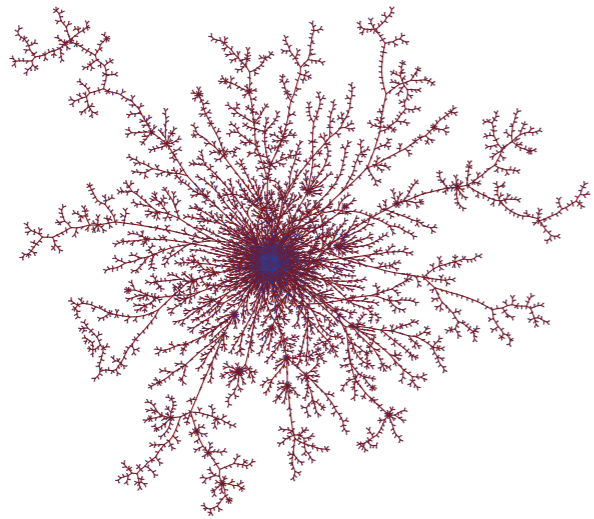


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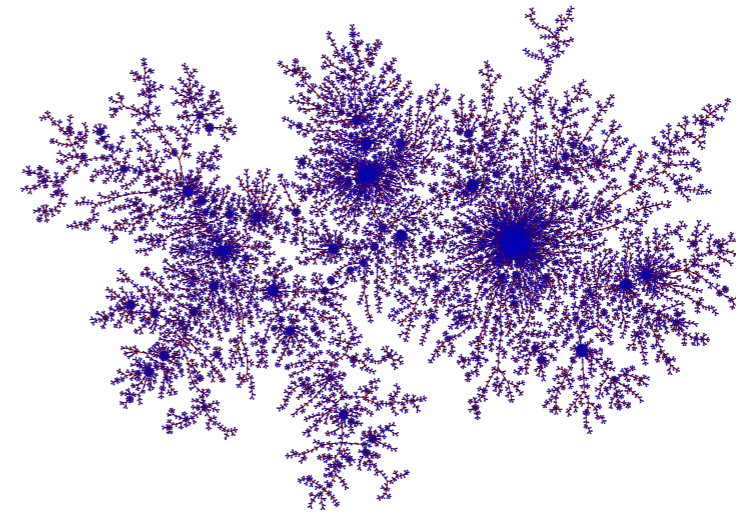


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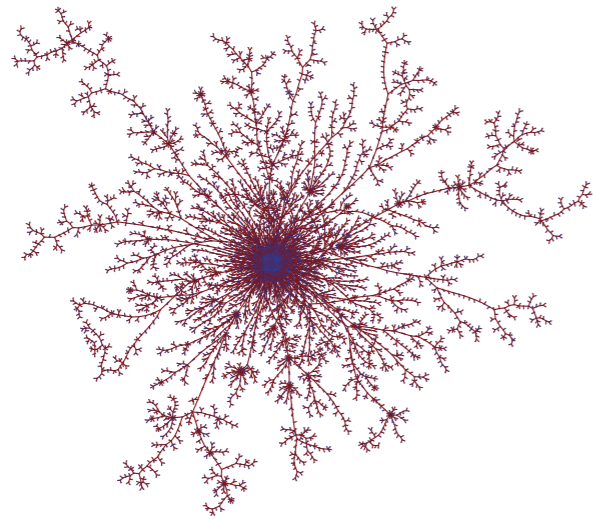


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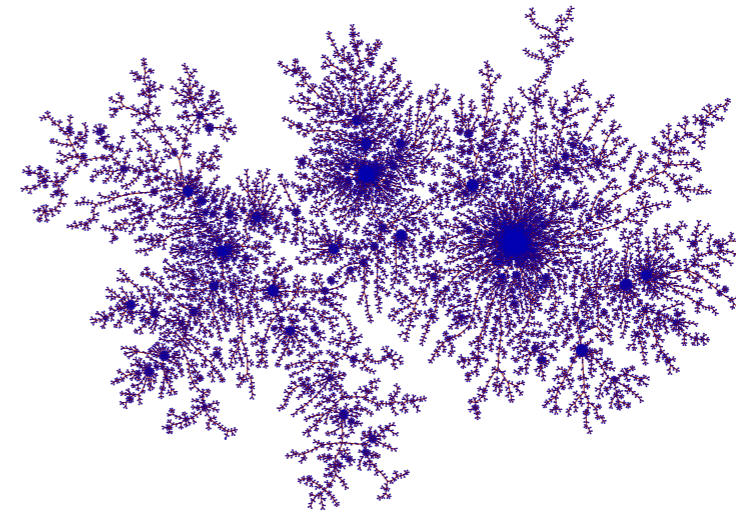


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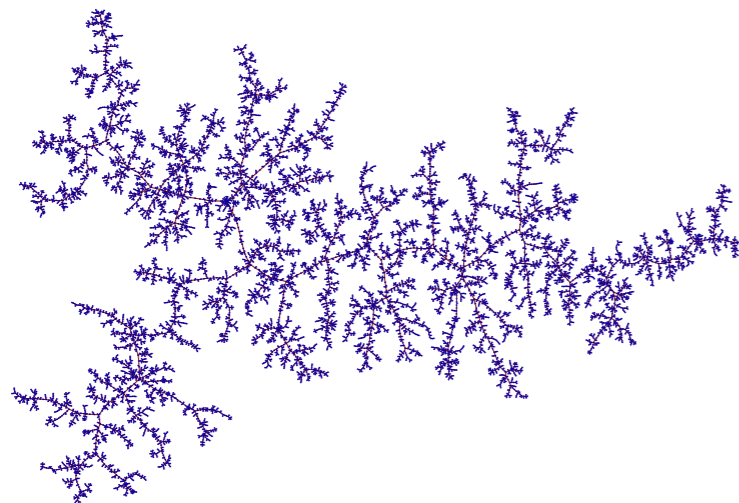


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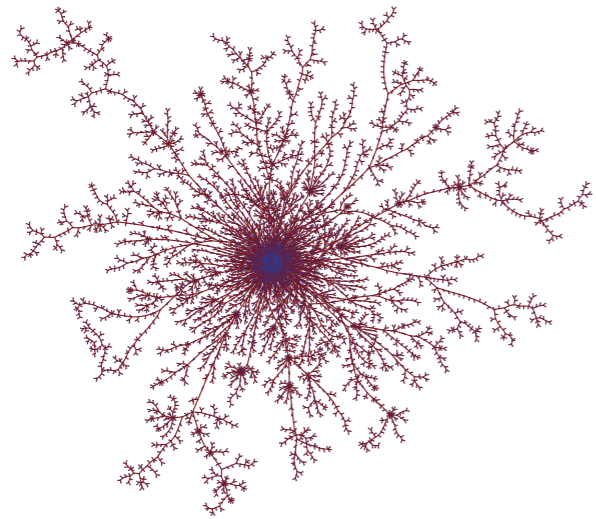


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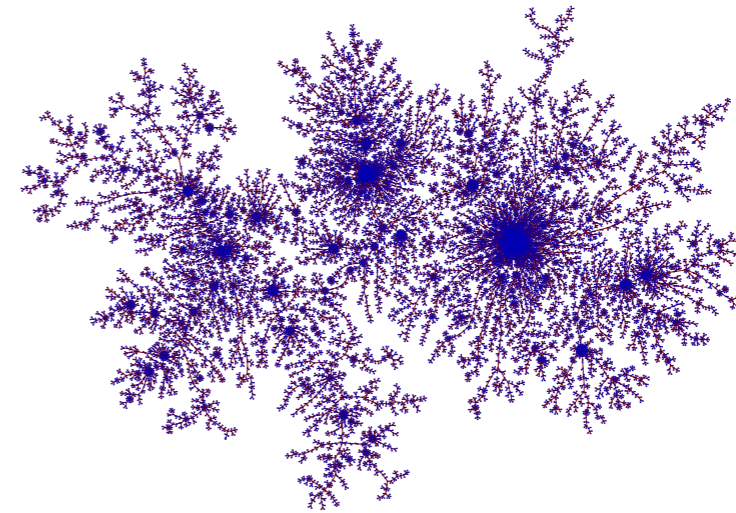


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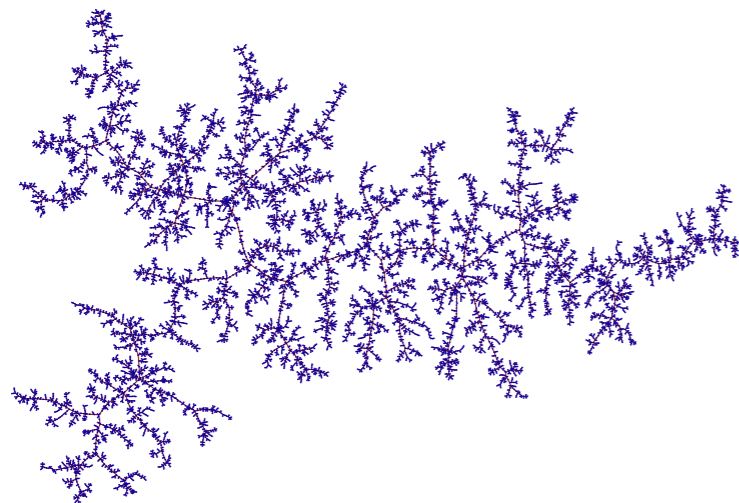


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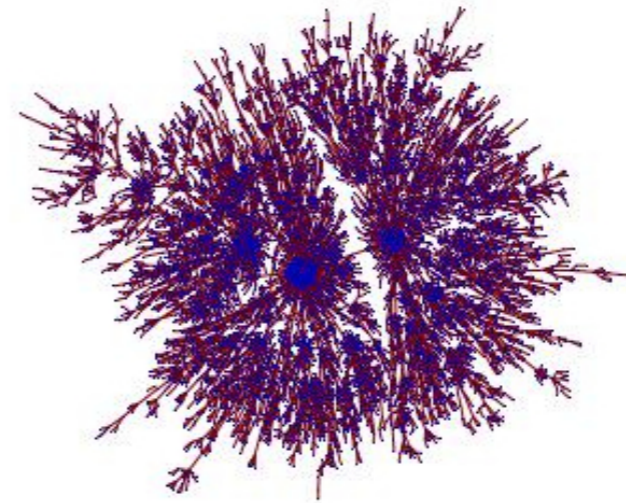


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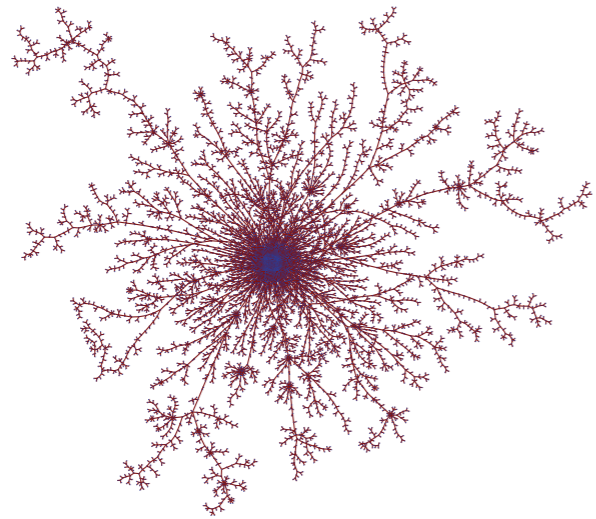


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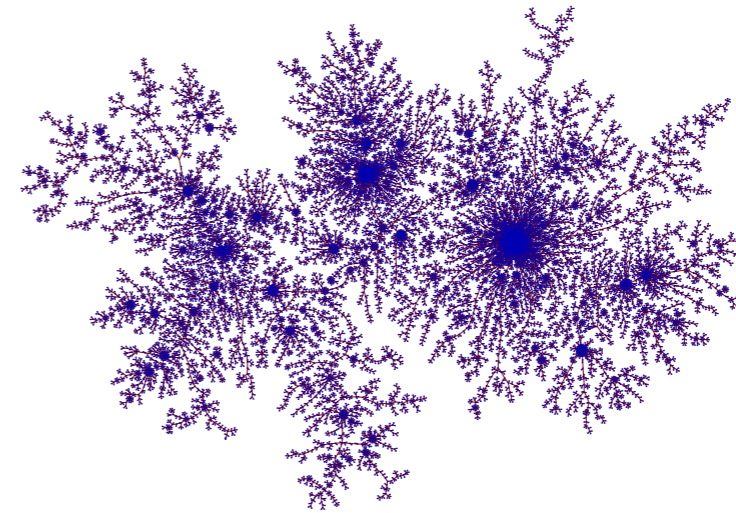


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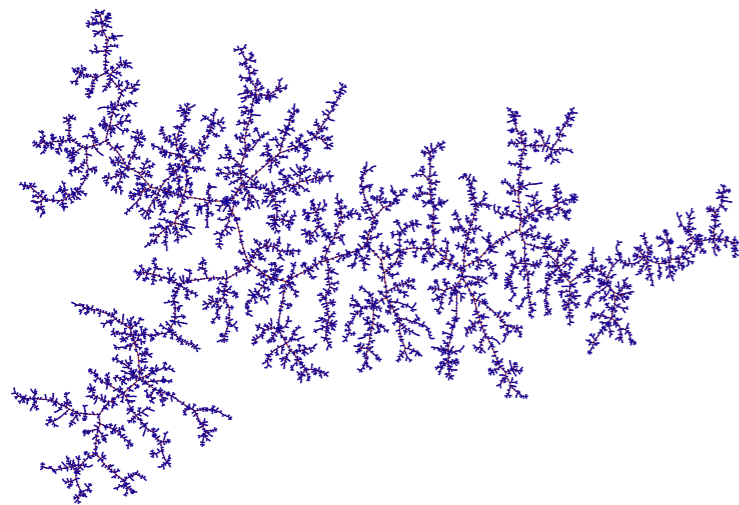


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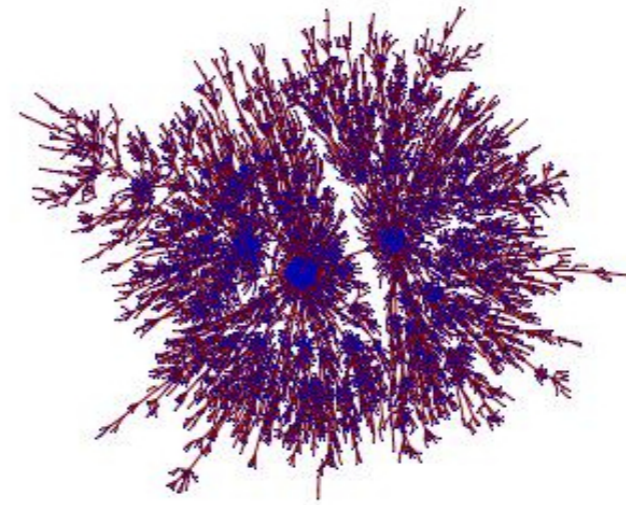


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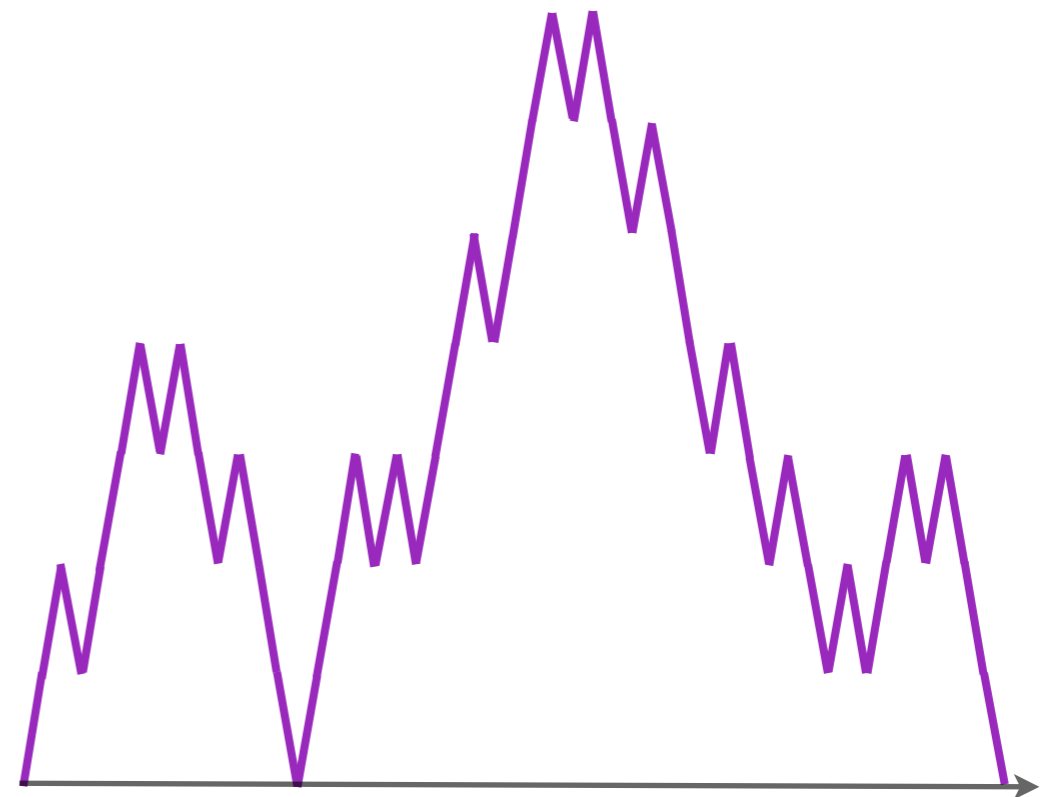
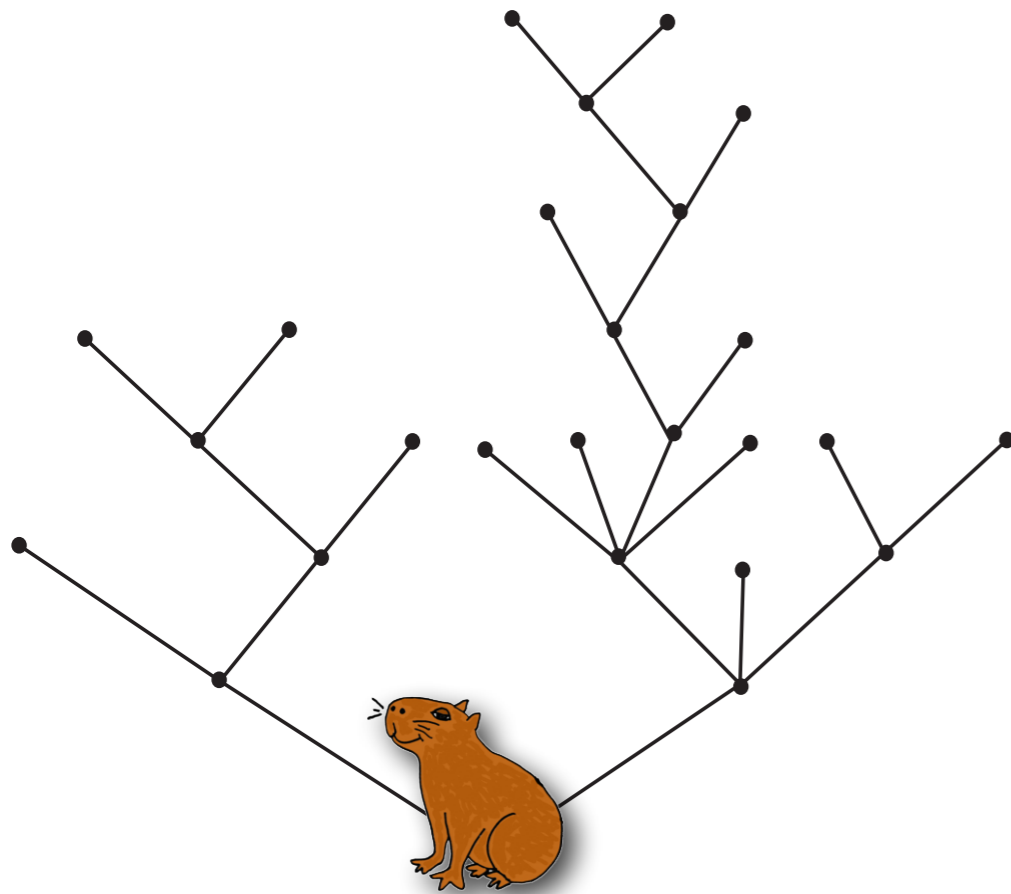
We shall code plane trees by functions.

CODING TREES BY FUNCTIONS



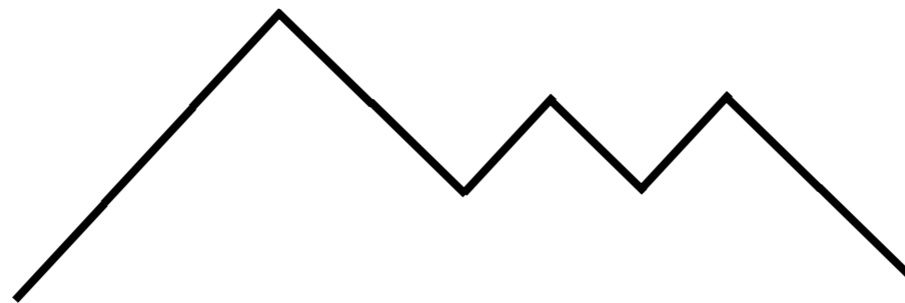
Contour function of a tree

Define the **contour function** of a tree:



Coding trees by contour functions

Knowing the contour function, it is easy to recover the tree.



SCALING LIMITS



Scaling limits: finite variance

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Let σ^2 be the variance of μ . Let $t \mapsto C_t(\mathcal{T}_n)$ be the contour function of \mathcal{T}_n .
Then:

$$\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} C_{2nt}(\mathcal{T}_n) \right)_{0 \leq t \leq 1} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{(d)}$$

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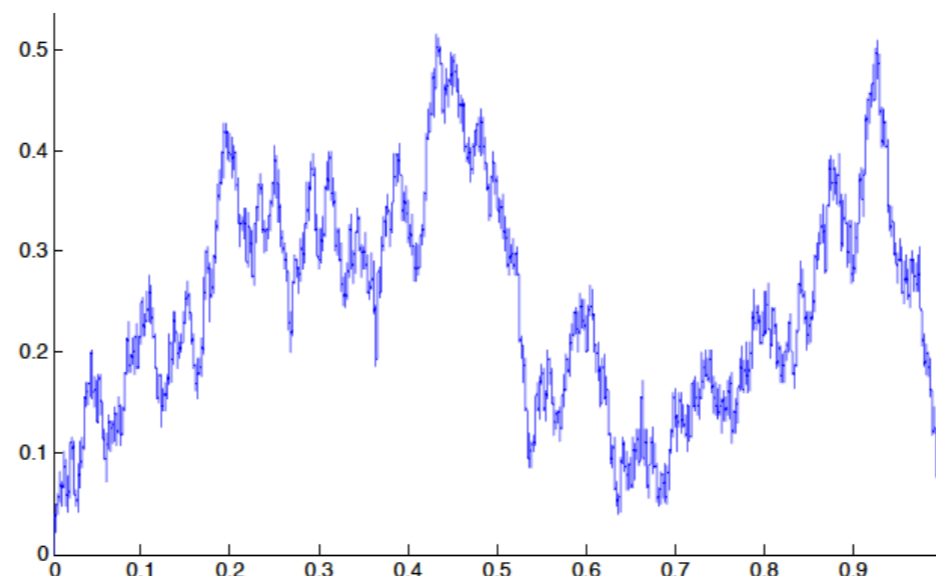
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 conditioned Donsker's invariance principle.

DO THE DISCRETE TREES CONVERGE TO A CONTINUOUS TREE?



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Yes, if we view trees as compact metric spaces by equipping the vertices with the graph distance!

The Hausdorff distance

Let X, Y be two subsets of the **same** metric space Z .

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$$X_r = \{z \in Z; d(z, X) \leq r\}, \quad Y_r = \{z \in Z; d(z, Y) \leq r\}$$

be the r -neighborhoods of X and Y .

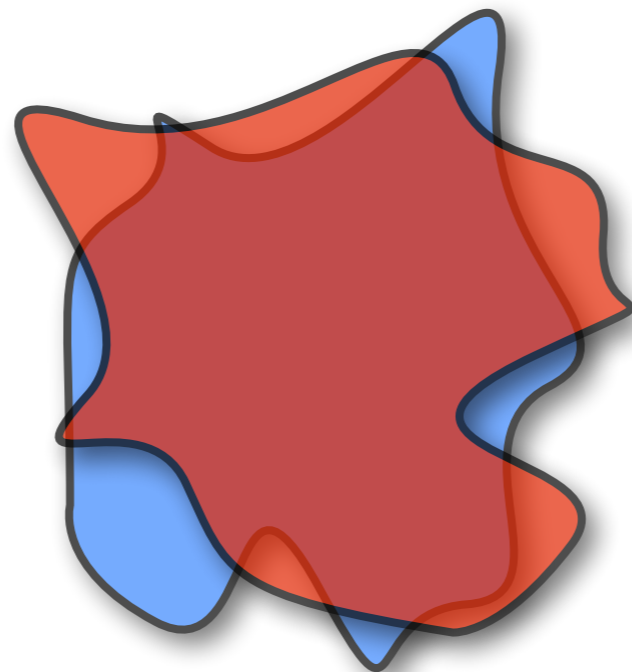
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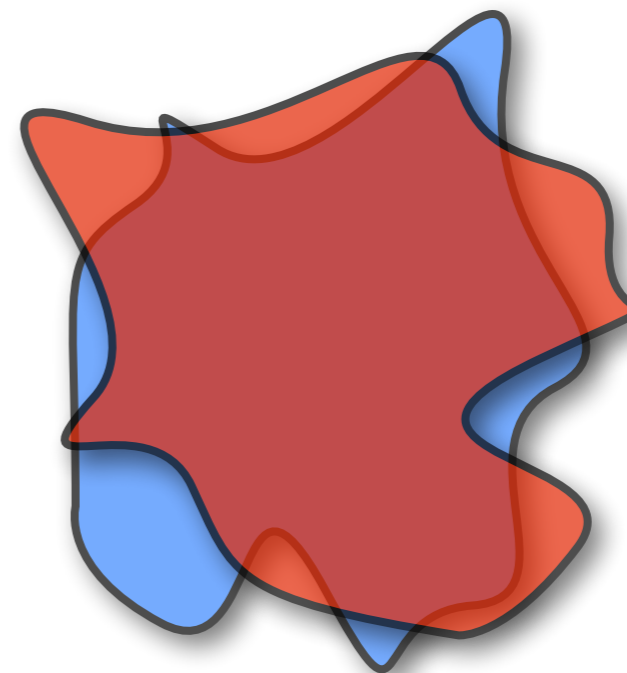
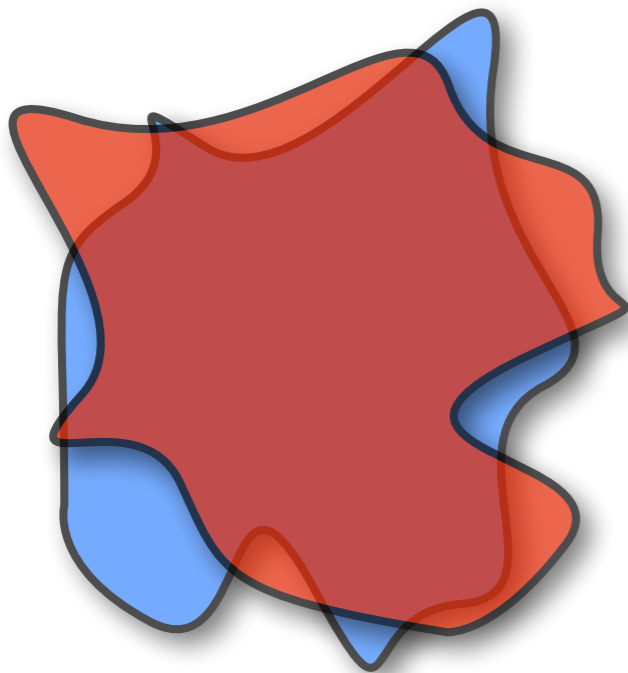
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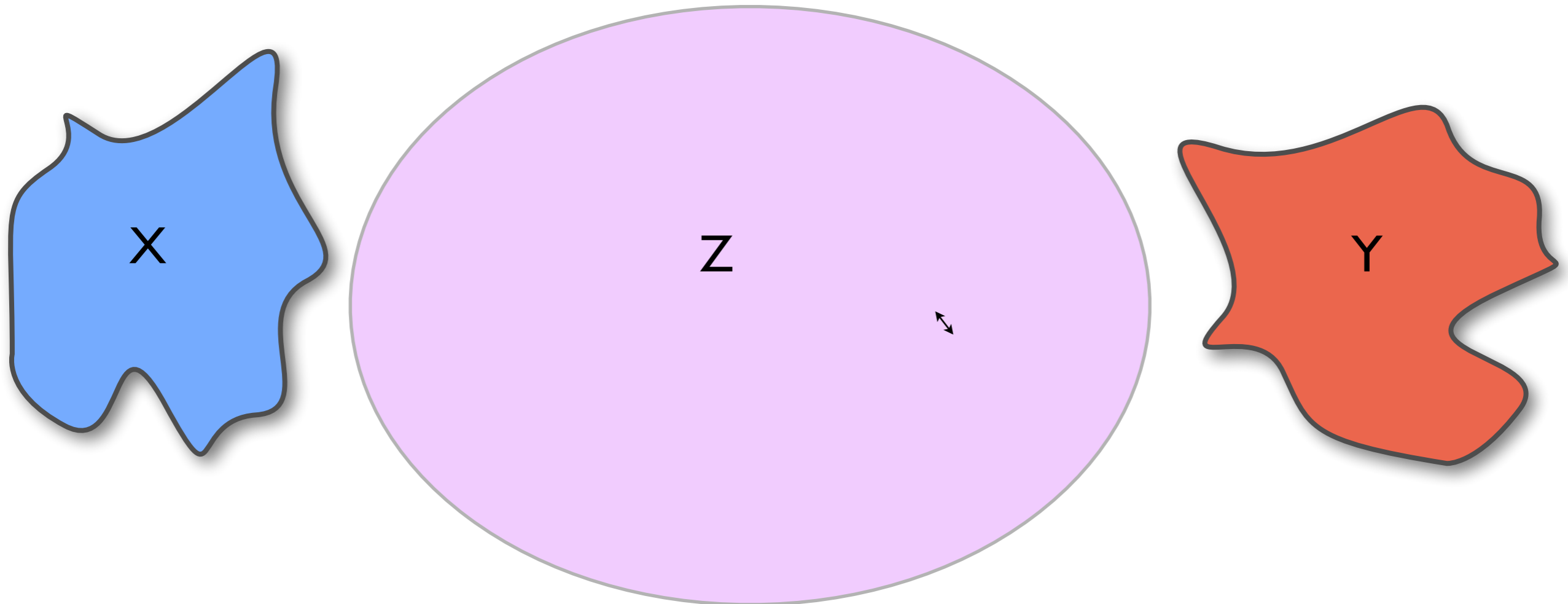


The Gromov–Hausdorff distance

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The Gromov–Hausdorff distance between X and Y is the smallest Hausdorff distance between all possible isometric embeddings of X and Y in a *same* metric space Z .

The Brownian tree

\curvearrowright **Consequence of Aldous' theorem** (Duquesne, Le Gall): there exists a compact metric space such that the convergence

$$\frac{\sigma}{2\sqrt{n}} \cdot \mathcal{T}_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{(d)} \mathcal{T}_e,$$

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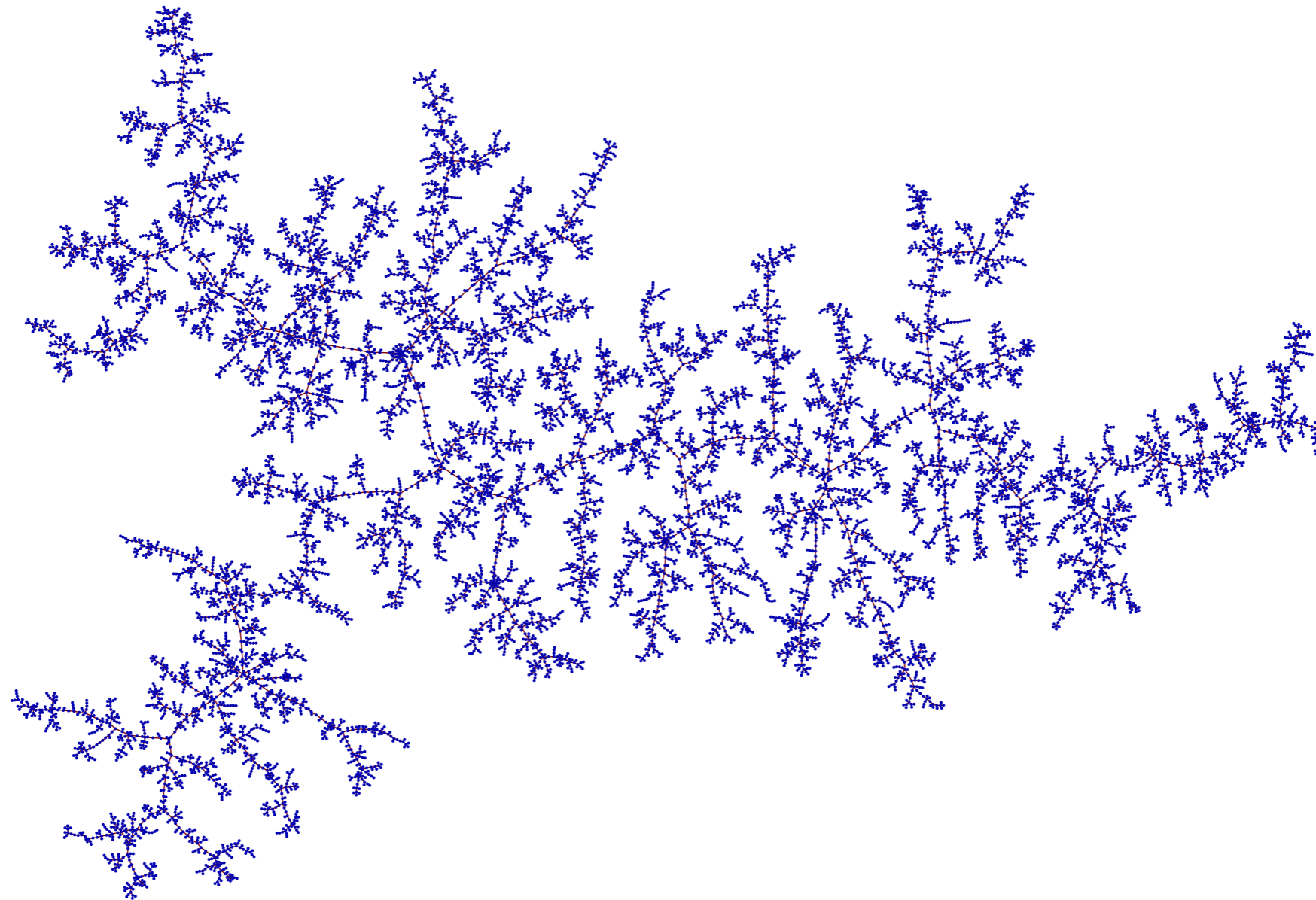
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The metric space \mathcal{T}_e is called the *Brownian continuum random tree (CRT)*, and is coded by a Brownian excursion.



An approximation of a realization of a Brownian CRT

Scaling limits: infinite variance

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→ Scaling limits are described use stable Lévy processes.

WHAT ABOUT NON-CRITICAL OFFSPRING DISTRIBUTIONS?



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→ Why did Aldous consider only critical offspring distributions?

WHAT ABOUT NON-CRITICAL OFFSPRING DISTRIBUTIONS?



↗ Why did Aldous consider only critical offspring distributions?

4. Because we condition on total population size, the distribution of \mathcal{T}_n is unchanged by replacing ξ with another distribution χ in the same exponential family

$$P(\xi = i) = c\theta^i P(\chi = i), \quad i \geq 0 \text{ for some } c, \theta.$$

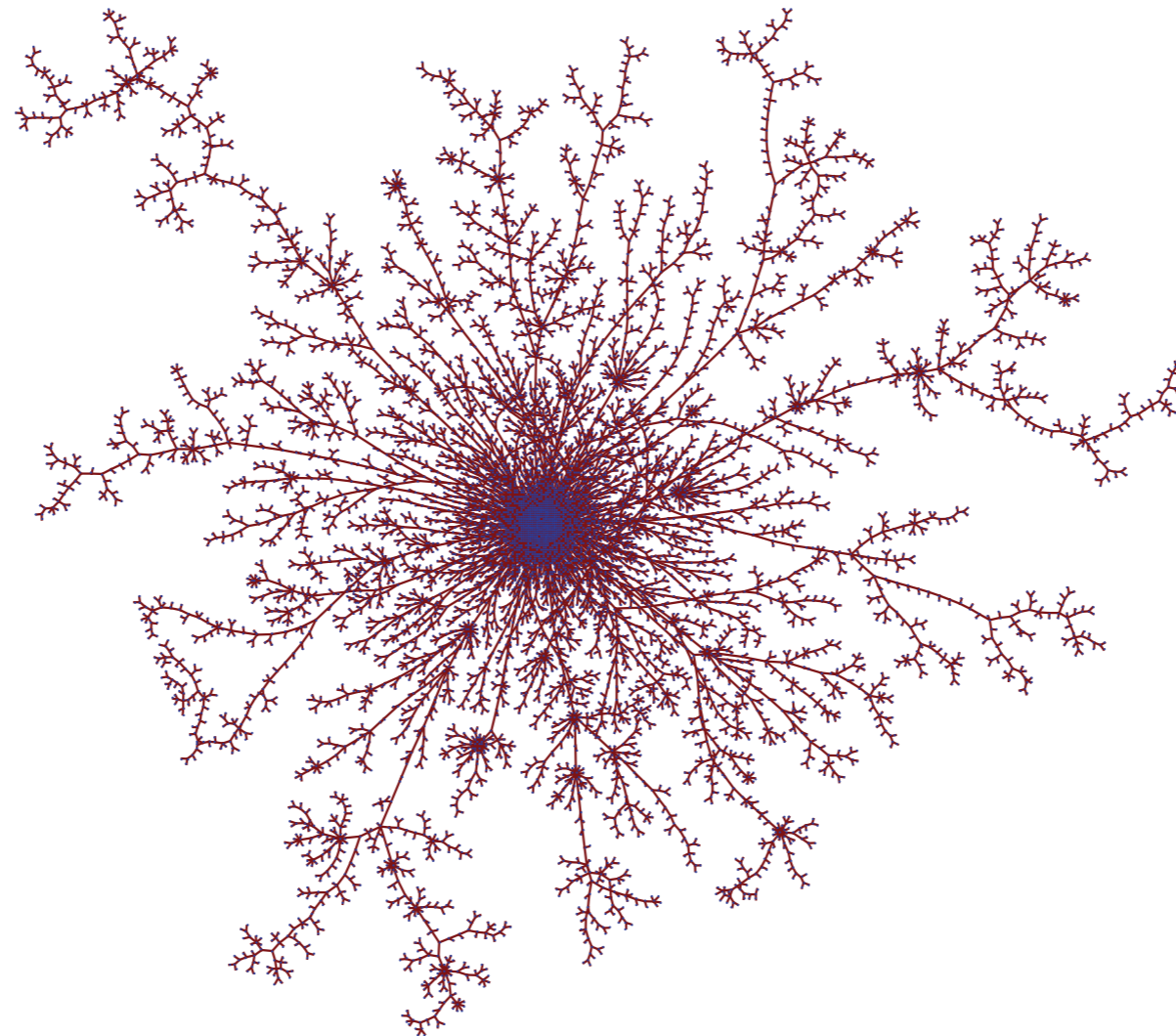
Thus there is no essential loss of generality in considering only critical branching processes.

Condensation (subcritical case)

Let μ be a **subcritical** offspring distribution such that $\mu(n) \sim c/n^{1+\beta}$ with $\beta > 2$. Let \mathcal{T}_n be a μ -**Bienaymé tree** conditioned on having n vertices.

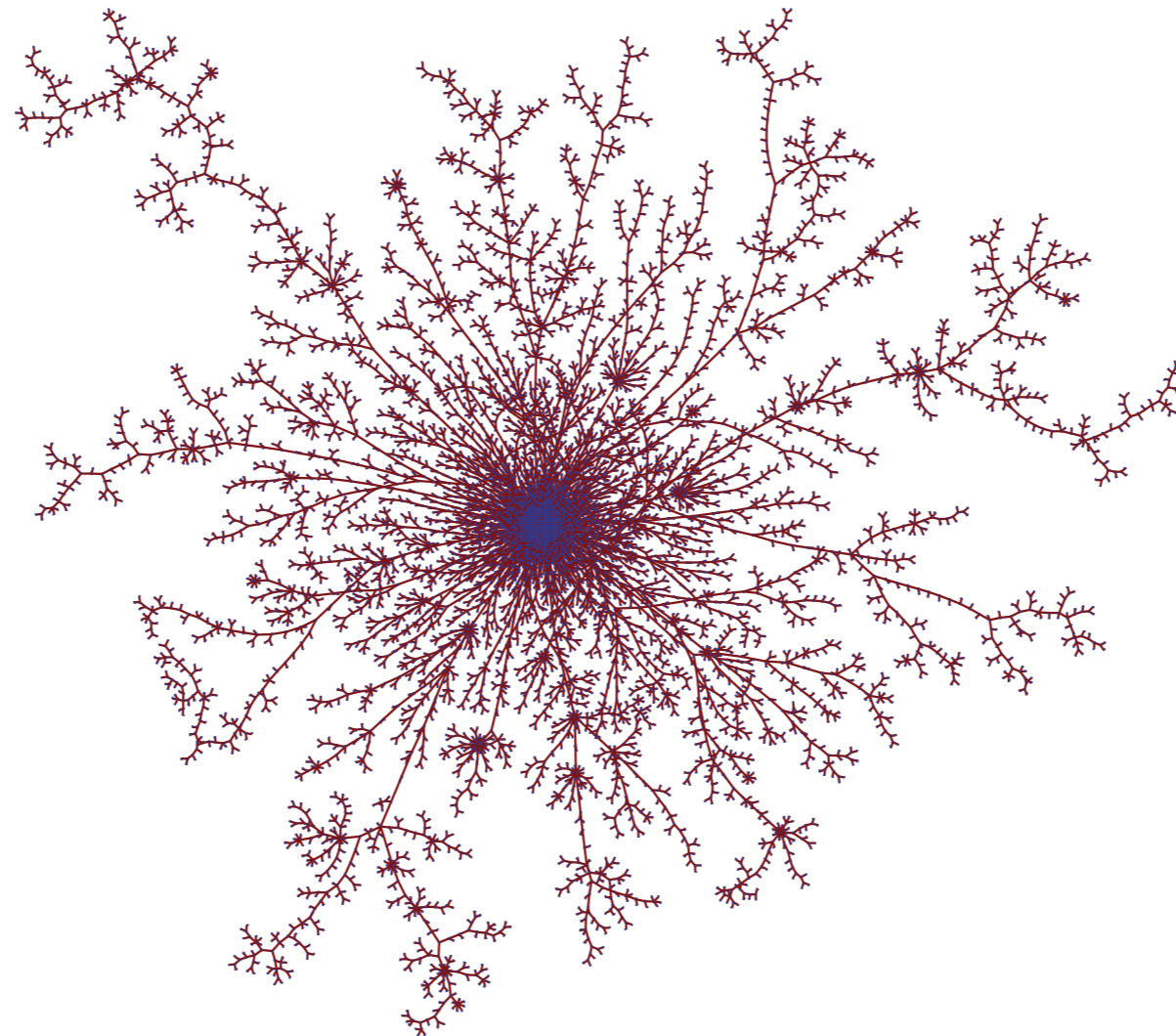
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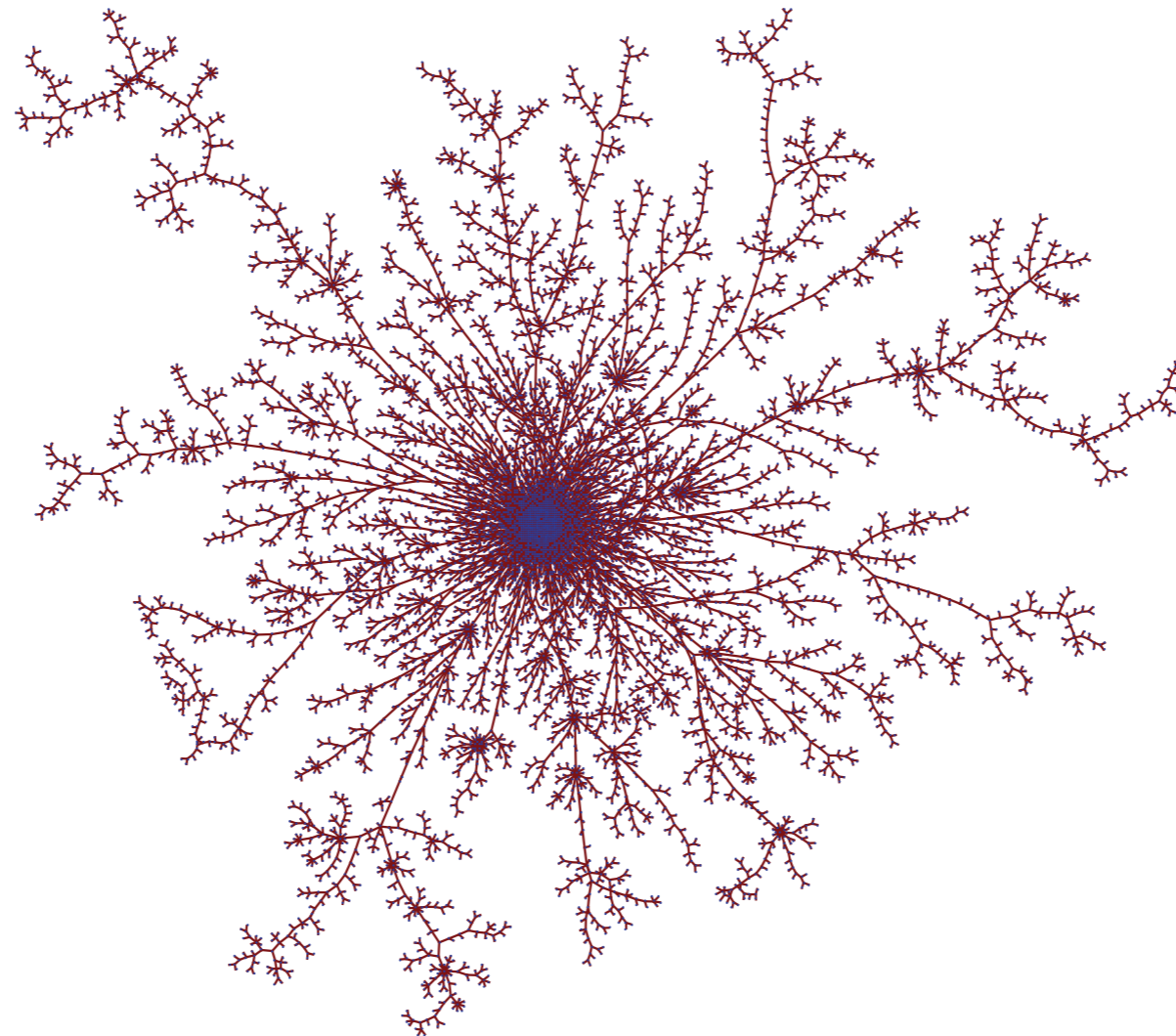
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- ↗ This will be the focus of the mini-course.