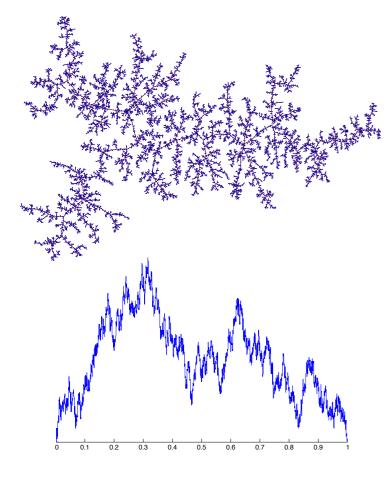
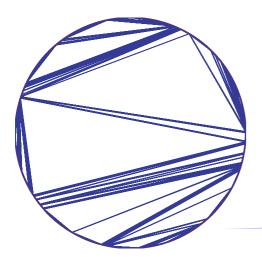




Asymptotic behavior of large random discrete structures





Igor Kortchemski (with Valentin Féray) CNRS & École polytechnique

 $\mathcal{N} \rightarrow$ Question:

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 $\Lambda \rightarrow \text{Question}$: for n large, what does a typical minimal factorization look like?



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To answer this question, a possibility is to find a continuous object X such that $X_n \to X$ as $n \to \infty$.

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- \longrightarrow From the continuous to the discrete: if a certain property \mathcal{P} is satisfied by X and passes through the limit, X_n "roughly" satisfies \mathcal{P} for n large.
- ∧→ Universality: if $(Y_n)_{n \ge 1}$ is another sequence of objects converging to X, then X_n and Y_n "roughly" have the same properties for n large.

What is it about?

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 Here, convergence in distribution:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[F(\mathbf{X}_{n})\right] \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} \mathbb{E}\left[F(\mathbf{X})\right]$$

for every continuous bounded function $F: Z \to \mathbb{R}$.





II. TRIANGULATIONS & DISSECTIONS



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III. MINIMAL FACTORIZATIONS

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Motivations:

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A→ Probability: trees are elementary pieces of various models of random graphs, having rich probabilistic properties.



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Plane trees



Figure: Two different plane trees

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 Question: $\#X_n = \frac{1}{n} \binom{2n-2}{n-1}$.
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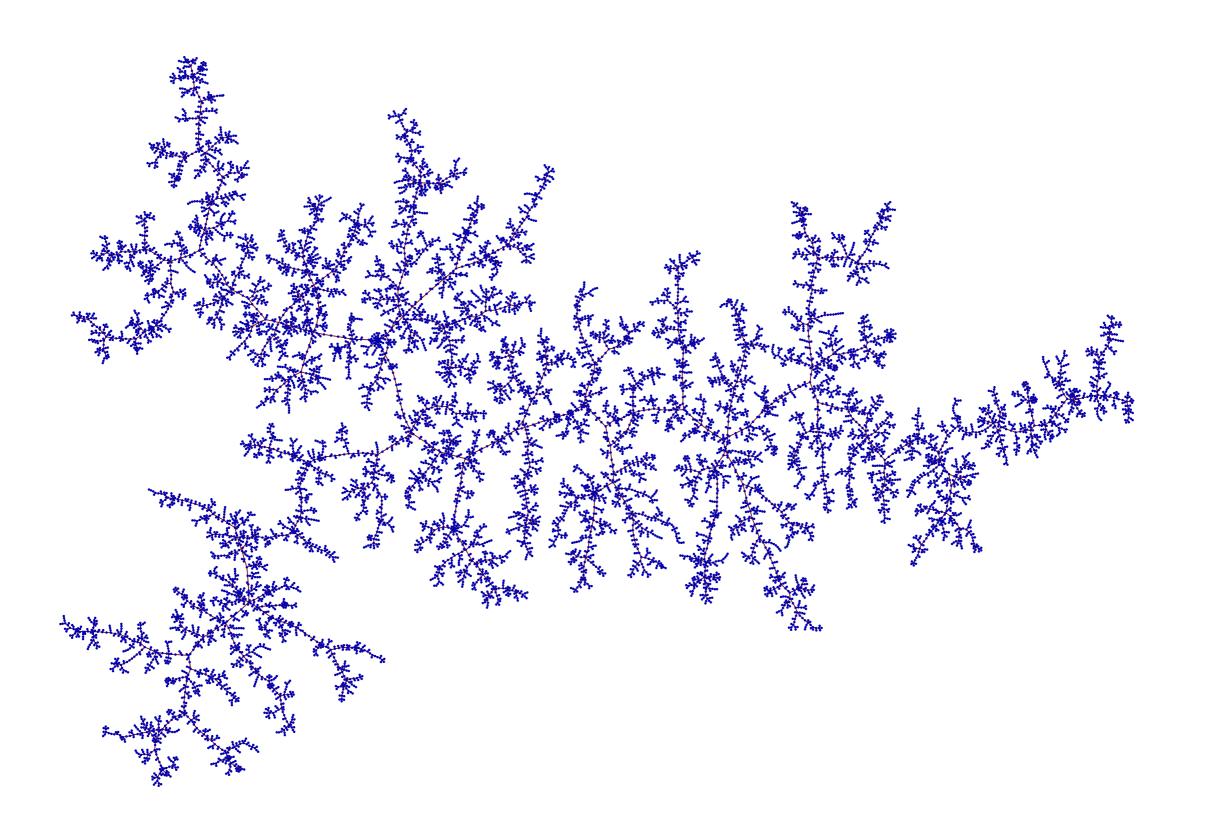
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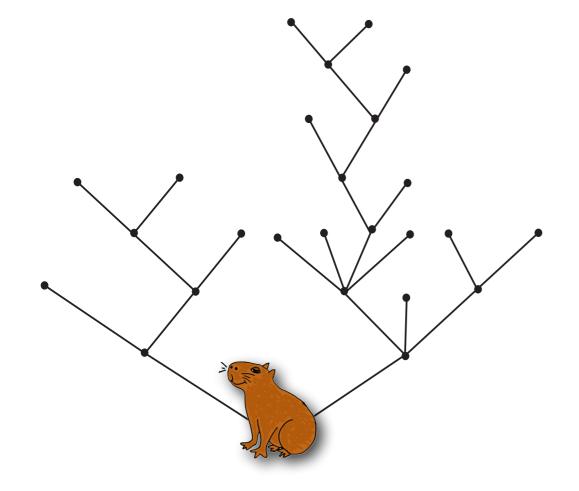
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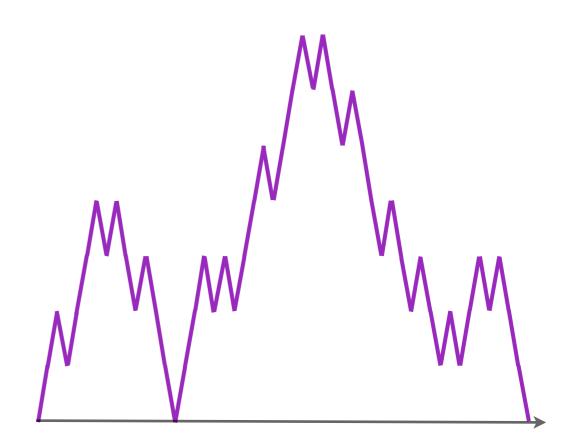
 $\wedge \rightarrow$ Question: What does a large typical plane tree look like?



Coding a tree by its contour function

 \checkmark - Code a tree τ by its contour function $C(\tau)$:





Coding a tree by its contour function

Knowing the contour function, it is easy to reconstruct the tree:



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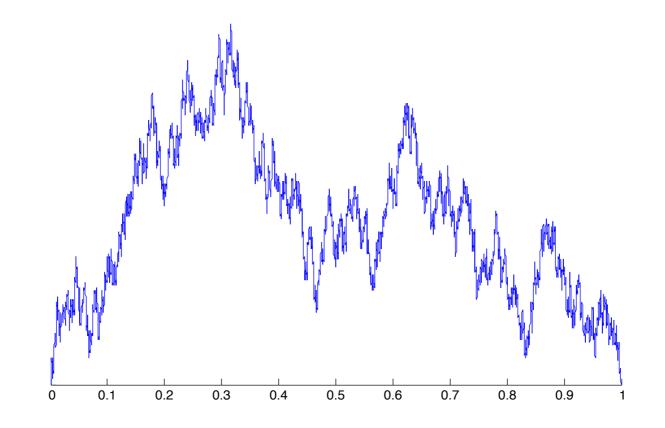
$$\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}}C_{2nt}(\mathbf{t}_n)\right)_{0\leqslant t\leqslant 1}\quad \overset{(d)}{\underset{n\to\infty}{\longrightarrow}}\quad (\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{t}))_{0\leqslant t\leqslant 1}\,,$$

where e is the normalized Brownian excursion.

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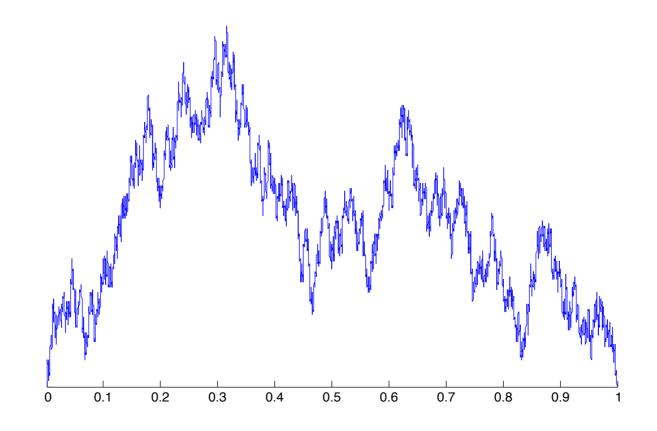
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 \bigwedge Idea: \mathfrak{t}_n is a (conditioned) random walk, use (a conditioned) Donsker's invariance principle.

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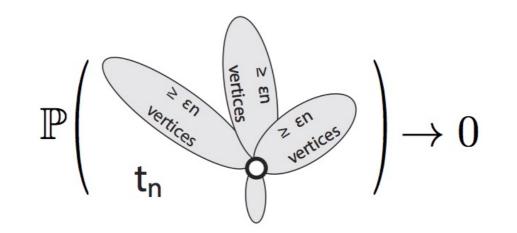
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∧→ Consequence 2: for every ε > 0,

 \mathbb{P} (there exists a vertex of \mathfrak{t}_n with 3 grafted subtrees of sizes $\geq \varepsilon \mathfrak{n} \to 0$.



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- different families of tree-like structures: stack triangulations (Albenque & Marckert), graphs from subcritical classes (Panagiotou, Stufler & Weller), dissections (Curien, Haas & K), various maps (Janson & Stefánsson, Bettinelli, Caraceni, K & Richier).

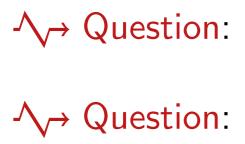
I. TREES

II. TRIANGULATIONS & DISSECTIONS

III. MINIMAL FACTORIZATIONS







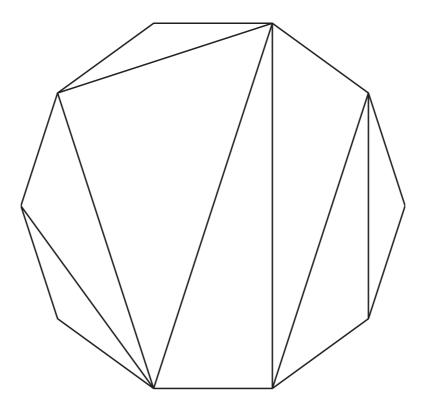


Figure: A triangulation of χ_{10} .

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Let \mathfrak{X}_n be the set of all triangulations of the polygon whose vertices are $e^{\frac{2i\pi j}{n}}$ (j = 0, 1, ..., n - 1).

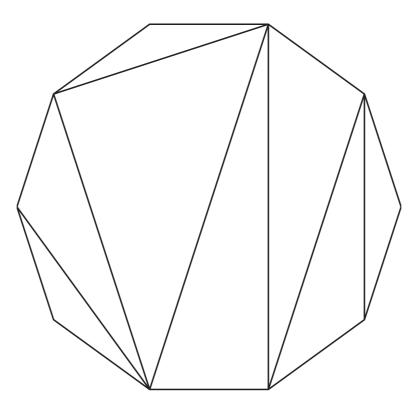
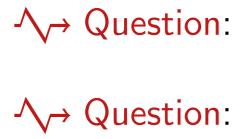


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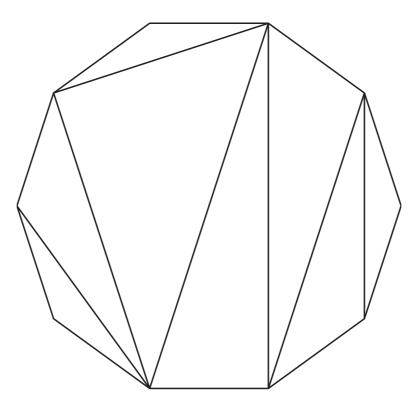


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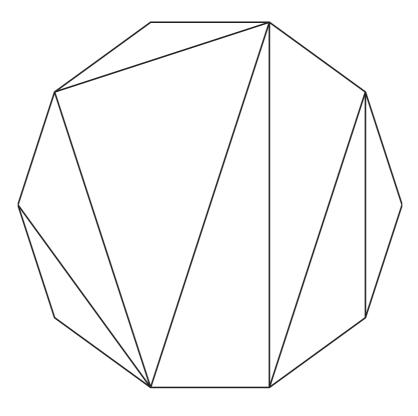


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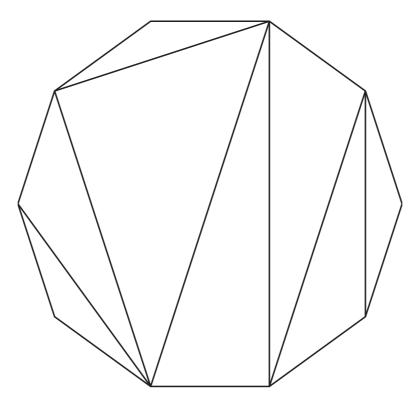
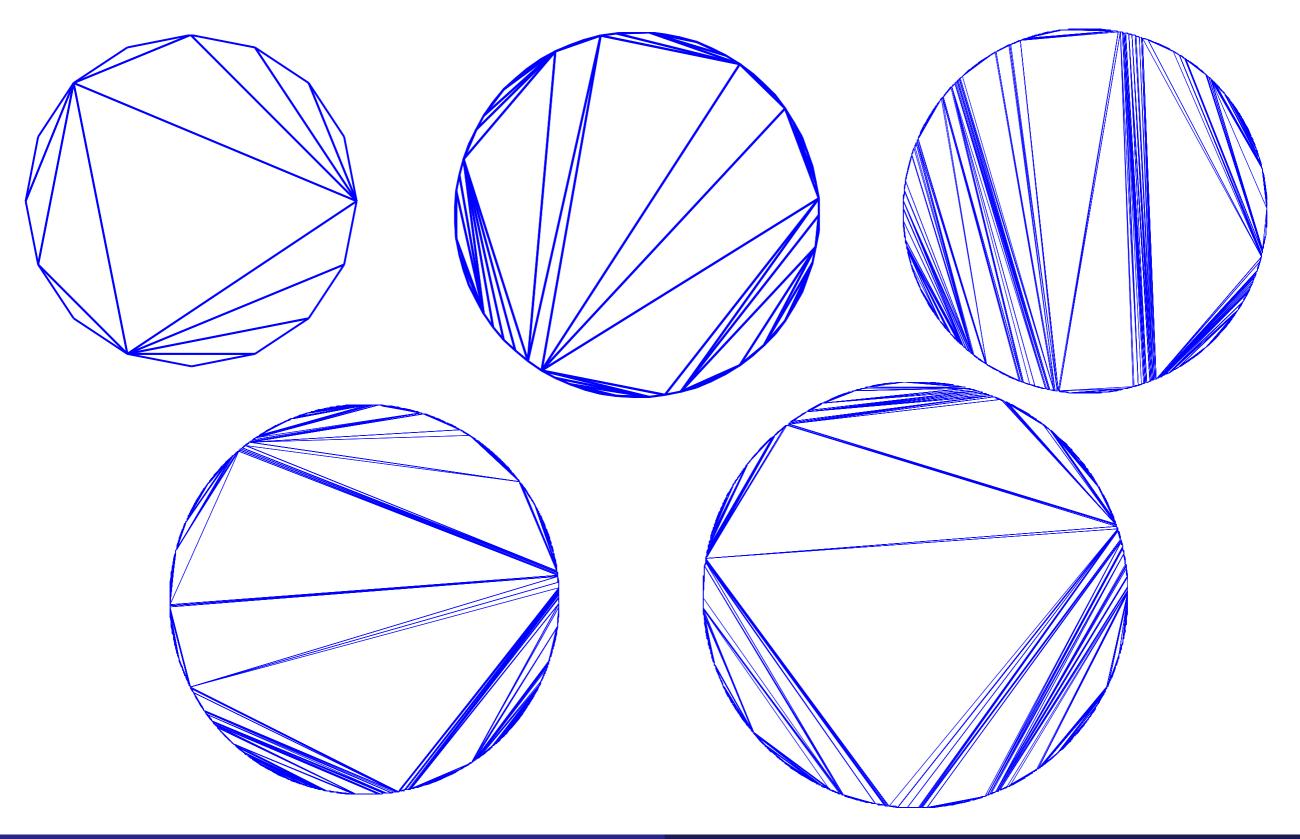


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 $\wedge \rightarrow$ Question: What does a large typical triangulation look like?

Typical triangulations



What space for triangulations?



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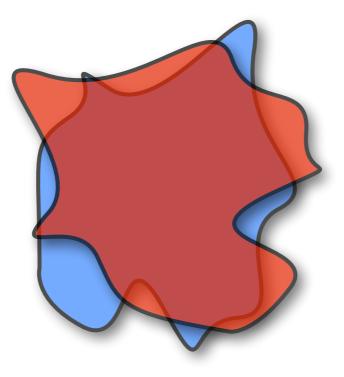
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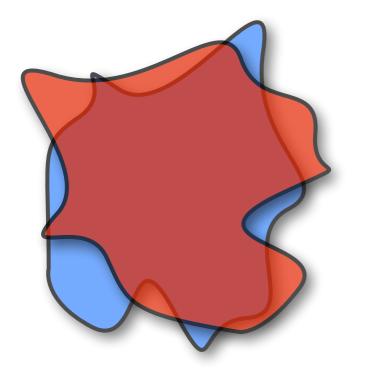


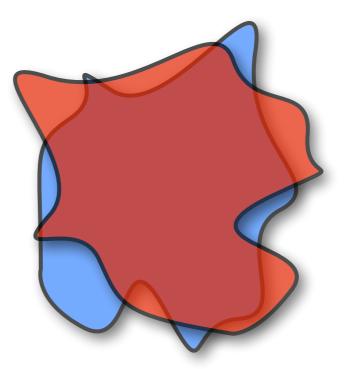
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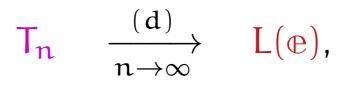
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where the convergence holds in distribution for the Hausdorff distance on all compact subsets of the unit disk.

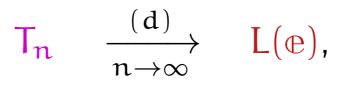
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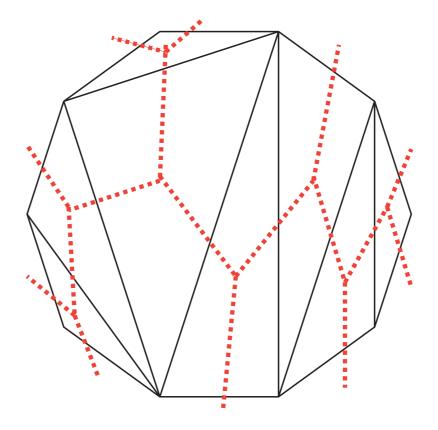
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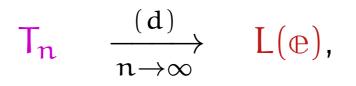


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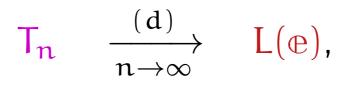


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 \wedge Consequence: we can find the distribution of the length (i.e. the proportion seen from the center) of the longest chord of L(e), with the change of variable length = $2\sin(\pi\theta)$.

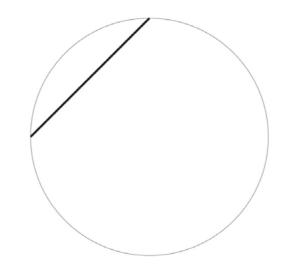
For $n \ge 3$, let T_n be a uniform triangulation with n vertices. Then there exists a random compact subset L(e) of the unit disk such that



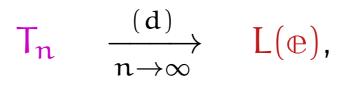
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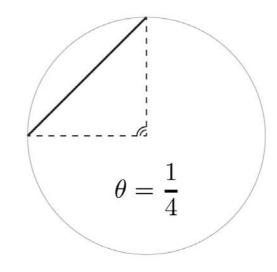
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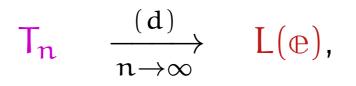
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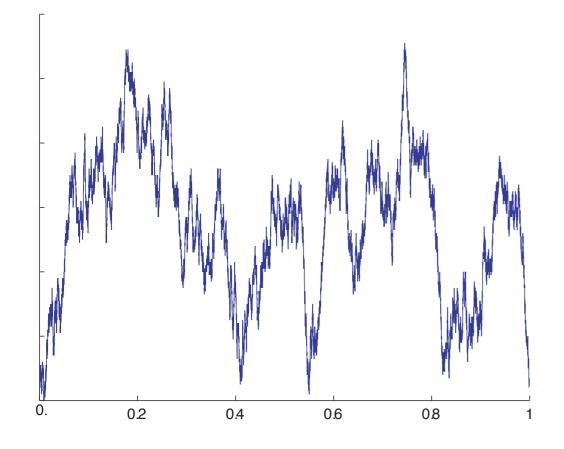
It is the probability measure with density:

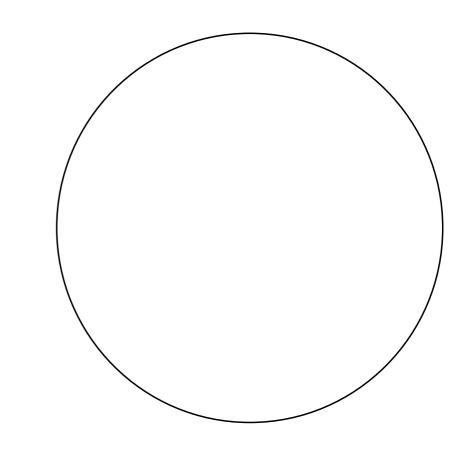
$$\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{3\theta - 1}{\theta^2 (1 - \theta)^2 \sqrt{1 - 2\theta}} \mathbf{1}_{\frac{1}{3} \leqslant \theta \leqslant \frac{1}{2}} \mathsf{d}\theta.$$

(Aldous, Devroye–Flajolet–Hurtado–Noy–Steiger)

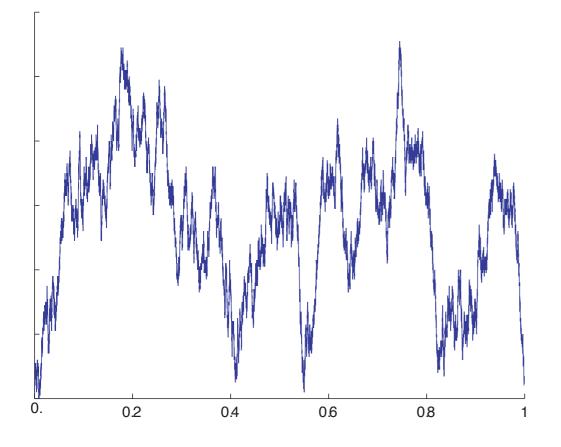
Start with the Brownian excursion e:

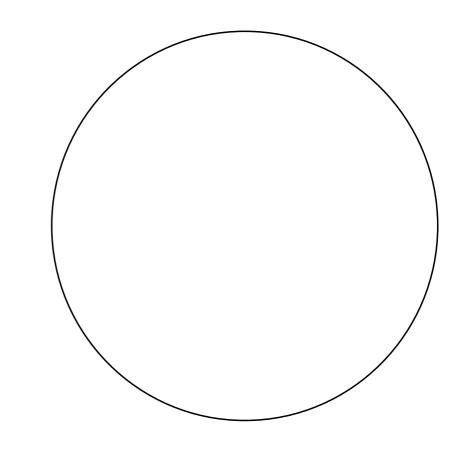
Start with the Brownian excursion e:





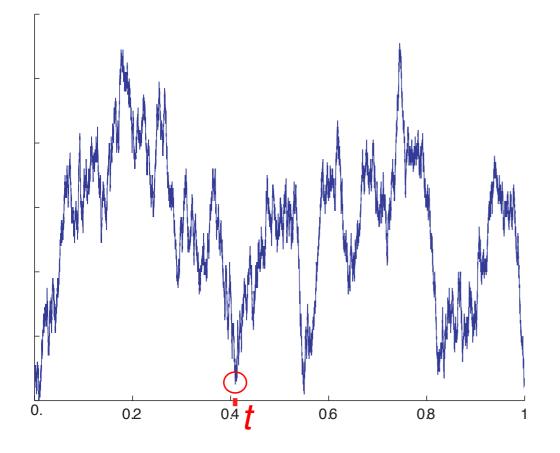
Start with the Brownian excursion e:

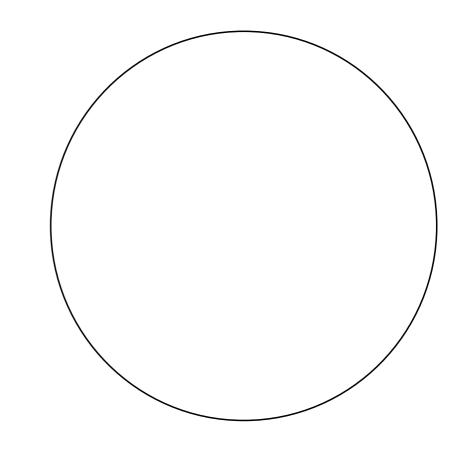




Let t be a time of local minimum.

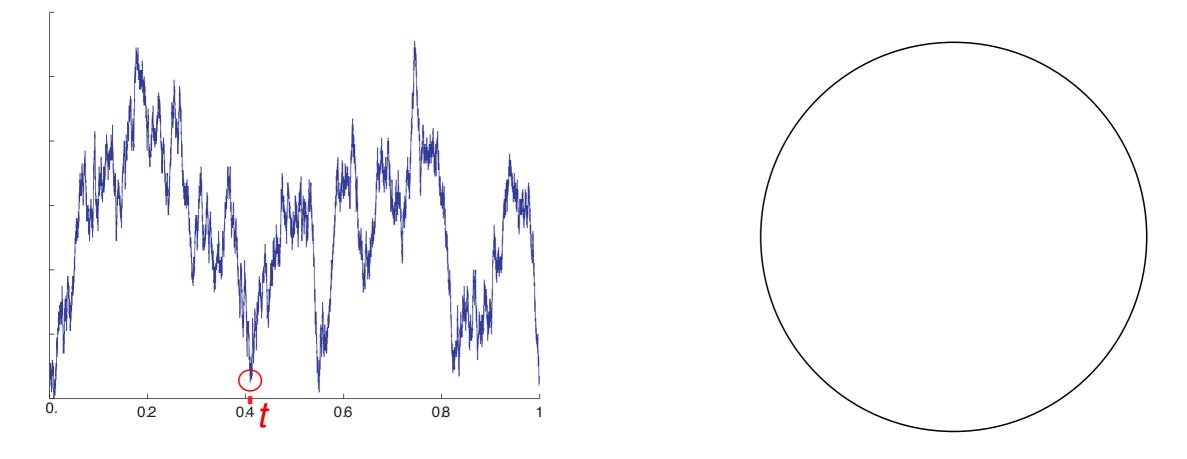
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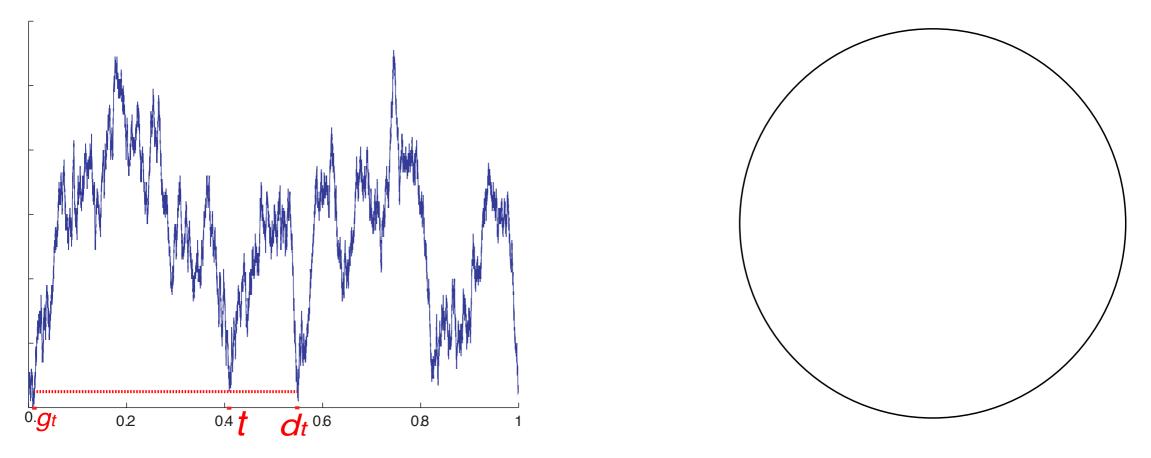
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Start with the Brownian excursion e:



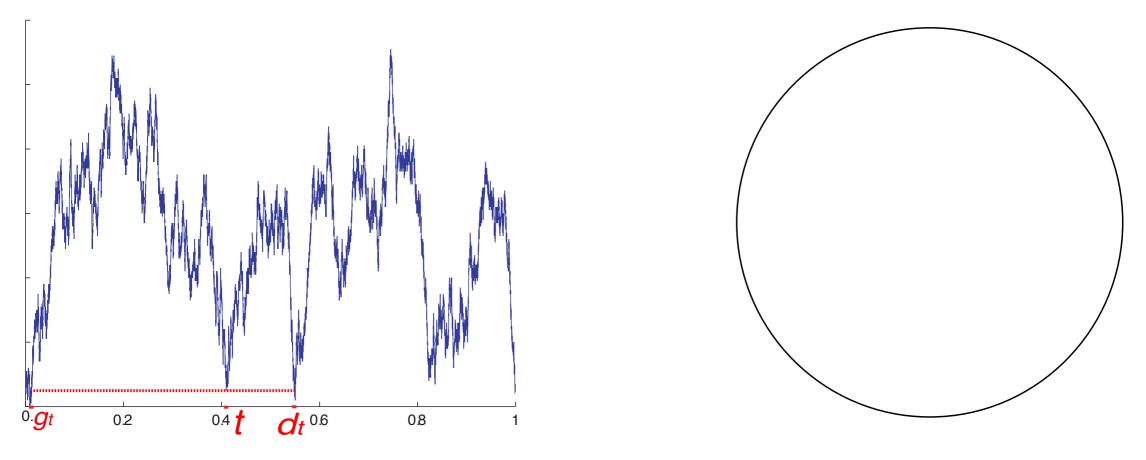
Let t be a time of local minimum. Set $g_t = \sup\{s < t; e_s = e_t\}$ and $d_t = \inf\{s > t; e_s = e_t\}$.

Start with the Brownian excursion e:



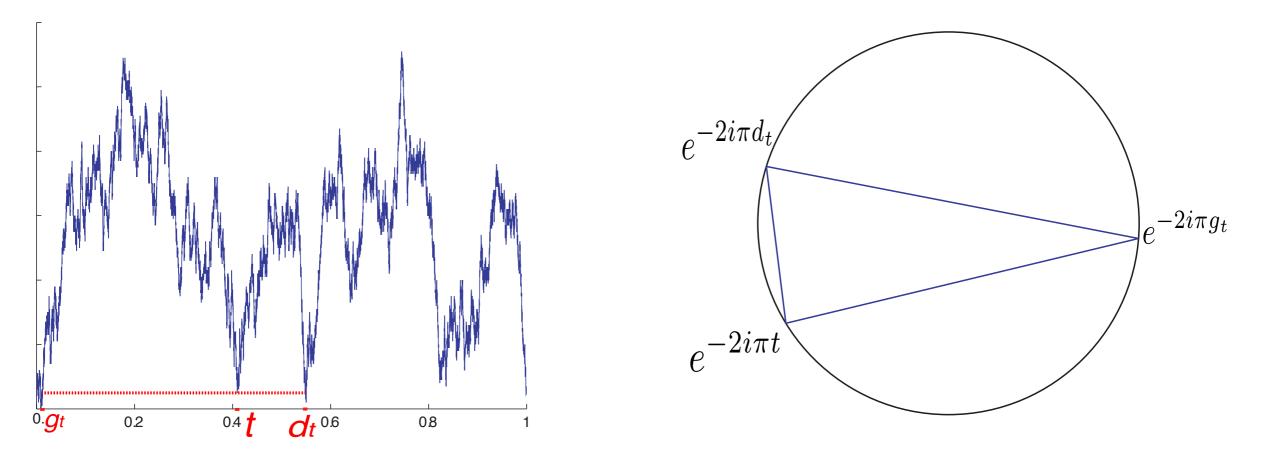
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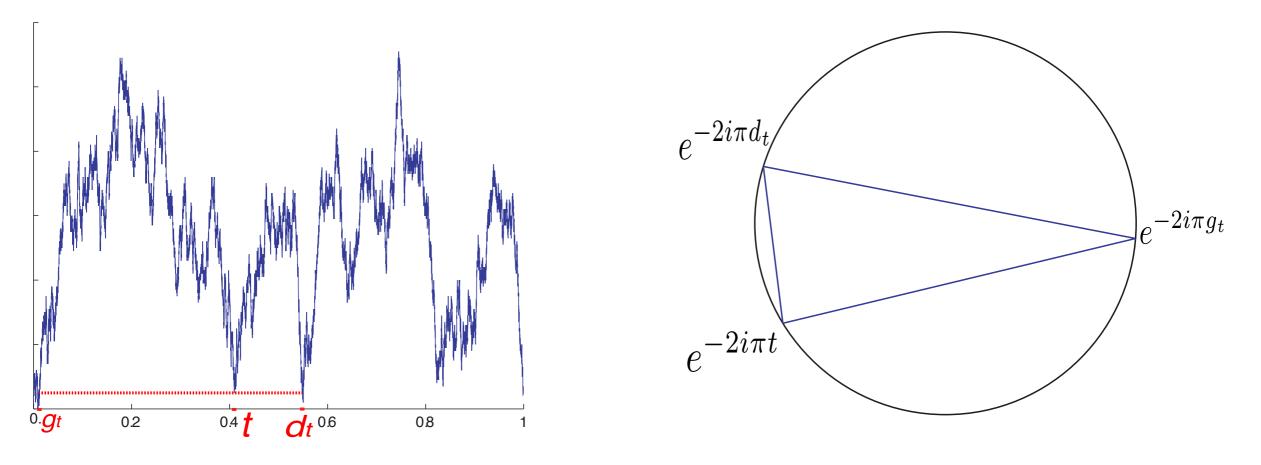
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Start with the Brownian excursion e:



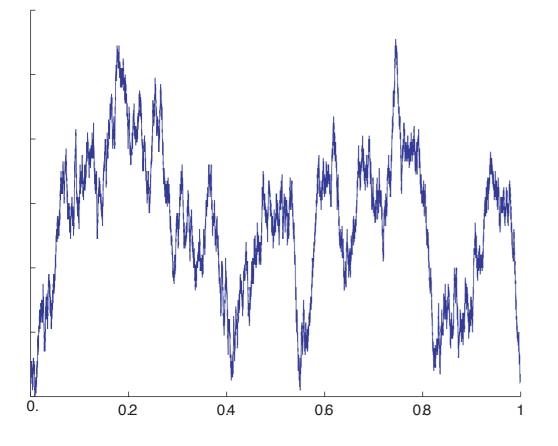
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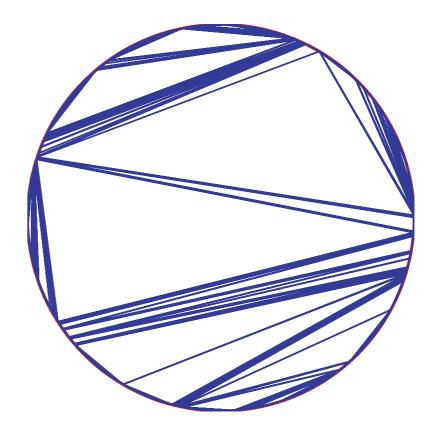
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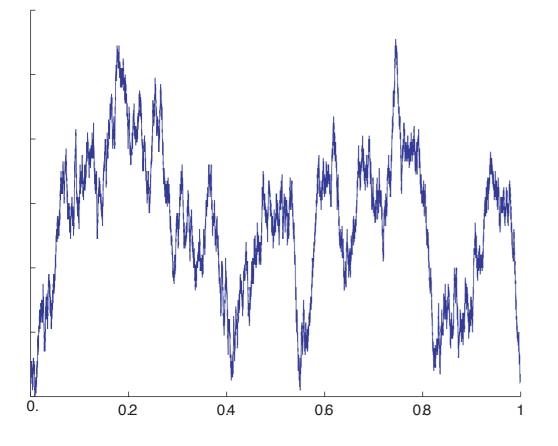
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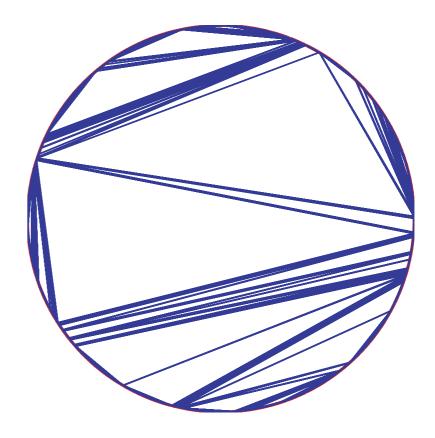




Let t be a time of local minimum. Set $g_t = \sup\{s < t; e_s = e_t\}$ and $d_t = \inf\{s > t; e_s = e_t\}$. Draw the chords $[e^{-2i\pi g_t}, e^{-2i\pi t}], [e^{-2i\pi t}, e^{-2i\pi d_t}]$ et $[e^{-2i\pi g_t}, e^{-2i\pi d_t}]$. Do this for all the times of local minimum.

Start with the Brownian excursion e:

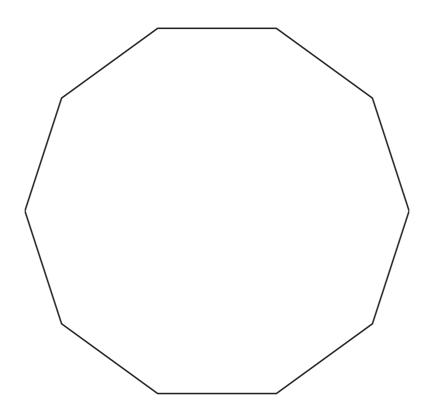




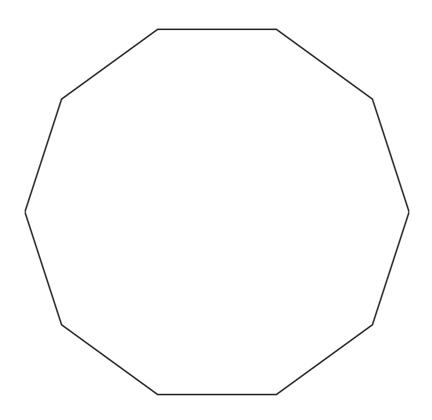
Let t be a time of local minimum. Set $g_t = \sup\{s < t; e_s = e_t\}$ and $d_t = \inf\{s > t; e_s = e_t\}$. Draw the chords $[e^{-2i\pi g_t}, e^{-2i\pi t}]$, $[e^{-2i\pi t}, e^{-2i\pi t}]$ et $[e^{-2i\pi g_t}, e^{-2i\pi d_t}]$. Do this for all the times of local minimum.

The closure of this union, L(e), is called the Brownian triangulation.

Let P_n be the polygon whose vertices are $e^{\frac{2i\pi j}{n}}$ (j = 0, 1, ..., n - 1).

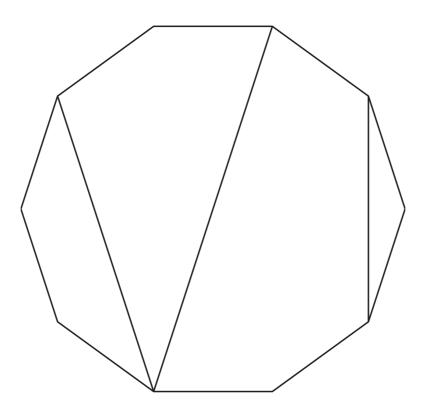


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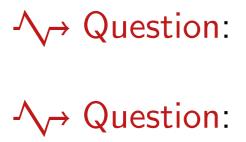
A *dissection* of P_n is the union of the sides of P_n and of a collection of non-crossing diagonals.

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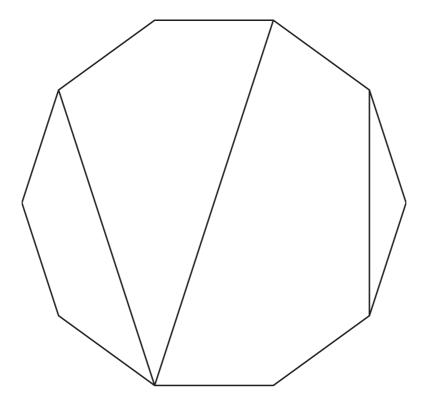


Figure: A dissection of a 10-gon.

 $\stackrel{\hspace{0.1em}}{\overset{\hspace{0.1em}}{\overset{\hspace{0.1em}}{\overset{\hspace{0.1em}}{\overset{\end{array}}}{\overset{\end{array}}}}} Question:$



Soit \mathfrak{X}_n l'ensemble des dissections du polygone dont les sommets sont $e^{\frac{2i\pi j}{n}}$ (j = 0, 1, ..., n - 1).

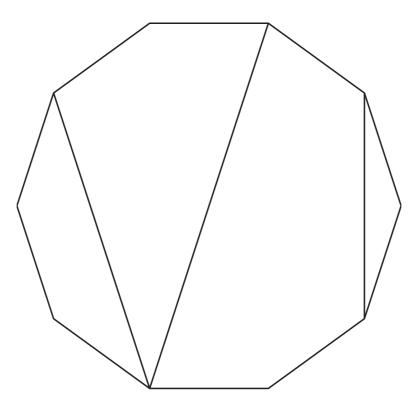


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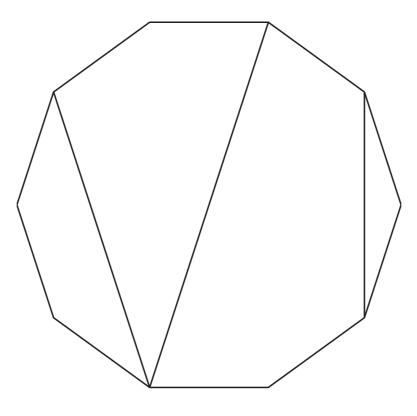


Figure: A dissection of a 10-gon.

 $\wedge \rightarrow$ Question: $\# \mathcal{X}_n = ?$

 $\mathcal{N} \rightarrow$ Question:

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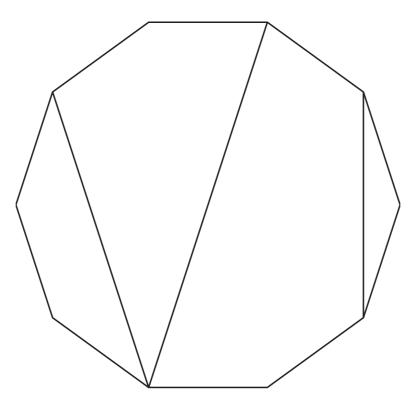


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 $\Lambda \rightarrow$ Question: $\# \chi_n =$ no explicit simple formula.

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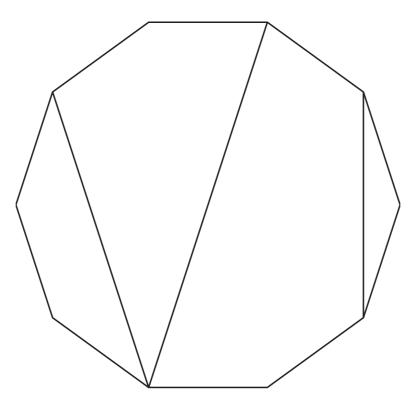


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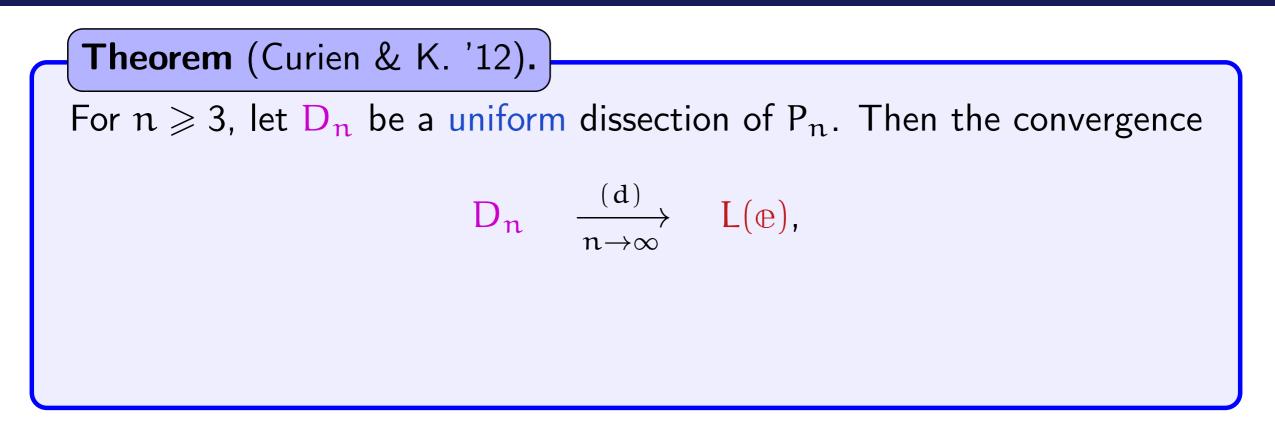
 $\Lambda \rightarrow$ Question: $\# \chi_n =$ no explicit simple formula.

 $\wedge \rightarrow$ Question: What does a large typical dissection look like?

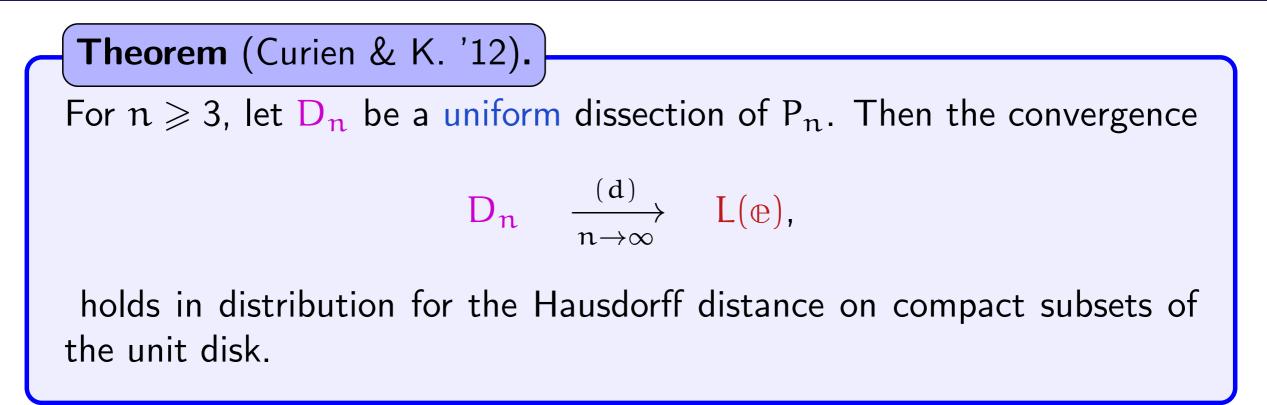
Large typical dissections

(**Theorem** (Curien & K. '12).

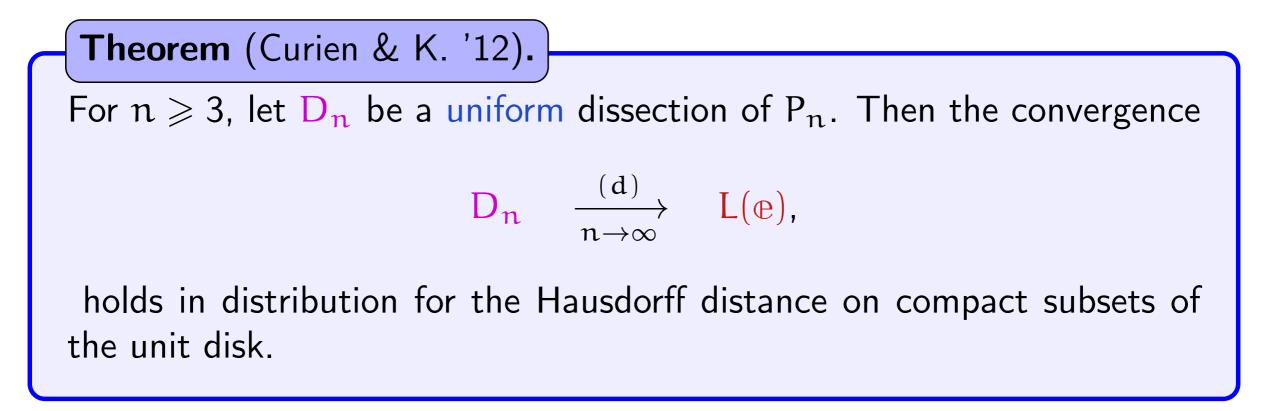
For $n \ge 3$, let D_n be a uniform dissection of P_n .











 $\wedge \rightarrow$ Consequence: The distribution of the length of the longest chord of D_n , with the change of variable length = $2\sin(\pi\theta)$ converges in distribution to the probability measure with density

$$\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{3\theta - 1}{\theta^2 (1 - \theta)^2 \sqrt{1 - 2\theta}} \mathbf{1}_{\frac{1}{3} \leqslant \theta \leqslant \frac{1}{2}} \mathsf{d}\theta.$$



Theorem (Curien & K. '12).

For $n \ge 3$, let D_n be a uniform dissection of P_n . Then the convergence

$$D_n \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{(d)} L(\mathbb{e}),$$

holds in distribution for the Hausdorff distance on compact subsets of the unit disk.

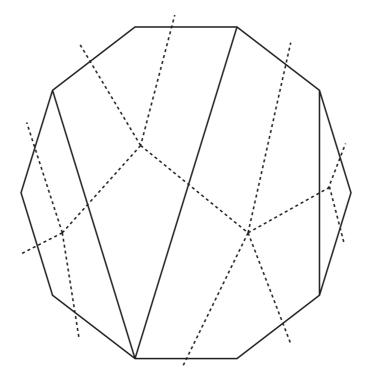


Figure: The dual tree of a dissection.

I. TREES

II. TRIANGULATIONS

III. MINIMAL FACTORIZATIONS



$\mathcal{N} \rightarrow$ Question:

 \longrightarrow Question:



Let $(1, 2, \ldots, n)$ be the n cycle.





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Consider the set

 $\mathfrak{M}_n = \{(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_{n-1}) \text{ transpositions } : \tau_1 \tau_2 \cdots \tau_{n-1} = (1, 2, \dots, n)\}$

of minimal factorizations (of the n-cycle into transpositions).

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 $\mathcal{N} \rightarrow \text{Question: } \#\mathfrak{M}_n = ?$

For example (multiply from left to right):

(1, 2, 3) = (1, 3)(2, 3) = (2, 3)(1, 2) = (1, 2)(1, 3),

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Minimal factorizations

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For example (multiply from left to right):

$$(1, 2, 3) = (1, 3)(2, 3) = (2, 3)(1, 2) = (1, 2)(1, 3),$$

 $#\mathfrak{M}_3 = 3.$

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 \wedge Question: $\#\mathfrak{M}_n = n^{n-2}$ (Dénes, 1959)

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 $#\mathfrak{M}_3=3.$

 $\Lambda \rightarrow$ Question: for n large, what does a typical minimal factorization look like?

What space for minimal factorizations?



What space for minimal factorizations?



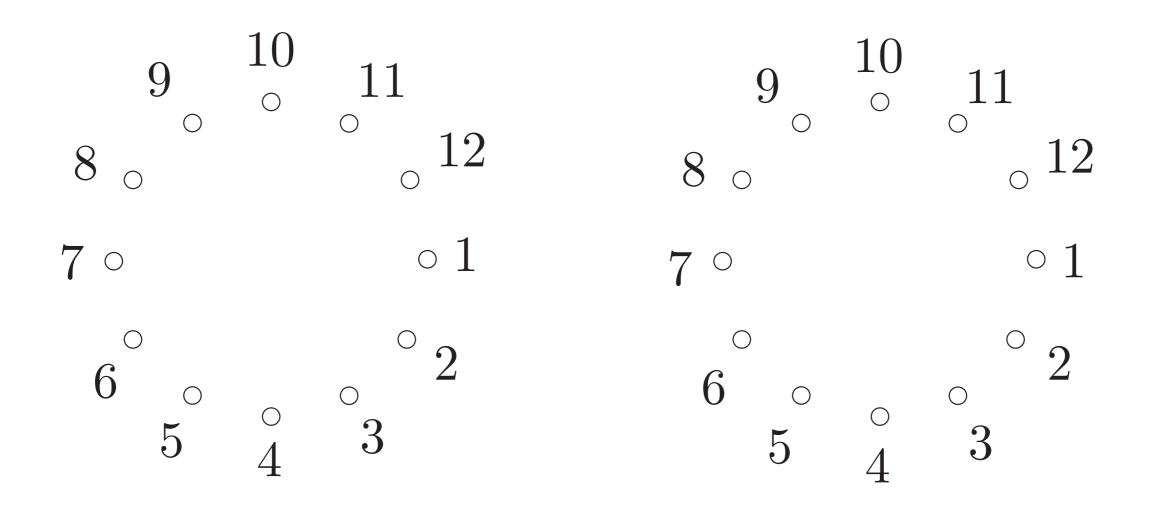
compact subsets of the unit disk.



- ► \mathcal{F}_k is the compact subset obtained by drawing the chords τ_i , $1 \leq i \leq k$.
- \mathcal{P}_k is the compact subset associated to the cycles of $\tau_1 \tau_2 \cdots \tau_k$.

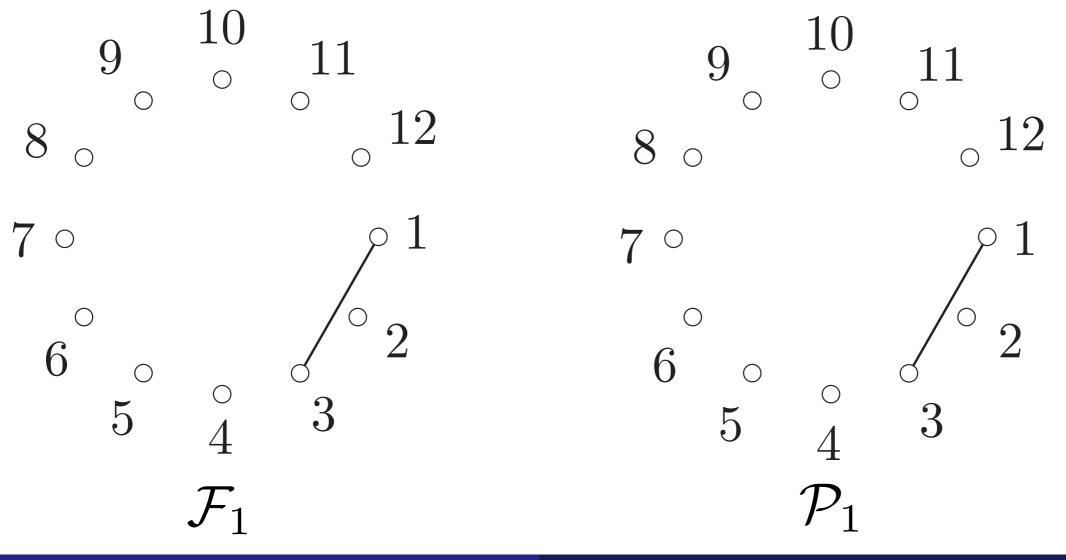
 \rightarrow Example (n = 12)). Take

((1,3), (6,12), (1,5), (7,12), (9,10), (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11))



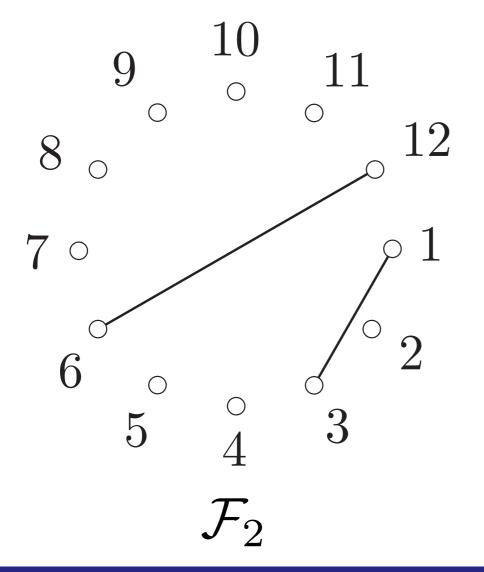
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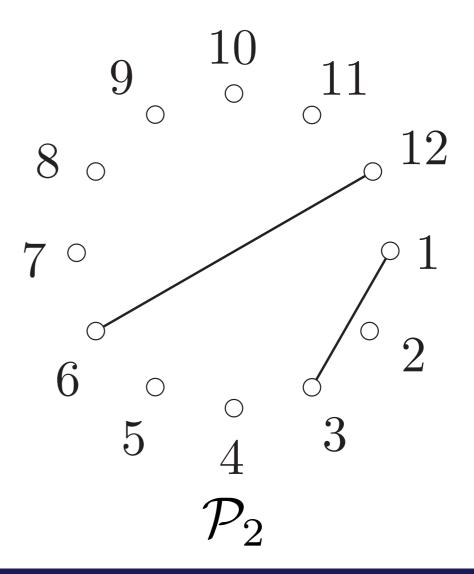
 $\begin{array}{l} & \longrightarrow \text{Example } (n = 12) \text{). For } k = 1: \\ (\underbrace{(1,3)}_{\text{product}=(1,3)}, (6,12), (1,5), (7,12), (9,10), (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11)$



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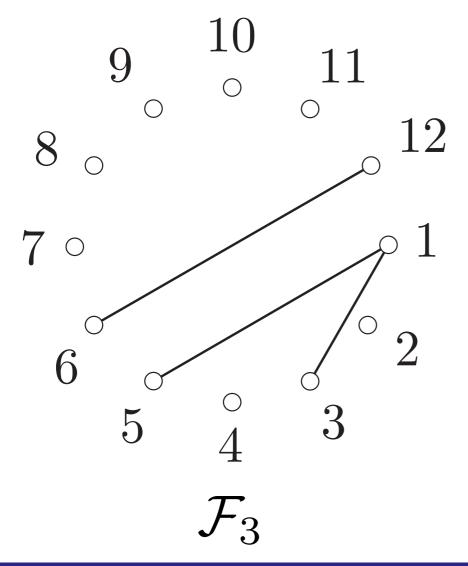
 $\begin{array}{l} & \longrightarrow \text{Example } (n = 12) \text{). For } k = 2: \\ & \left(\underbrace{(1,3), (6,12)}_{\text{product}=(1,3)(6,12)} , (1,5), (7,12), (9,10), (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11) \right) \end{array} \right)$

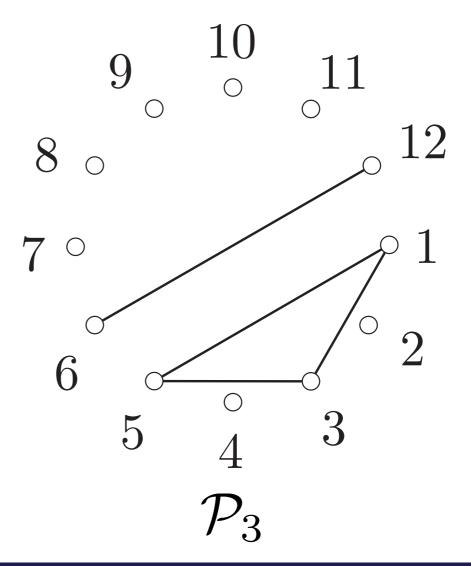




- ► \mathcal{F}_k is the compact subset obtained by drawing the chords τ_i , $1 \leq i \leq k$.
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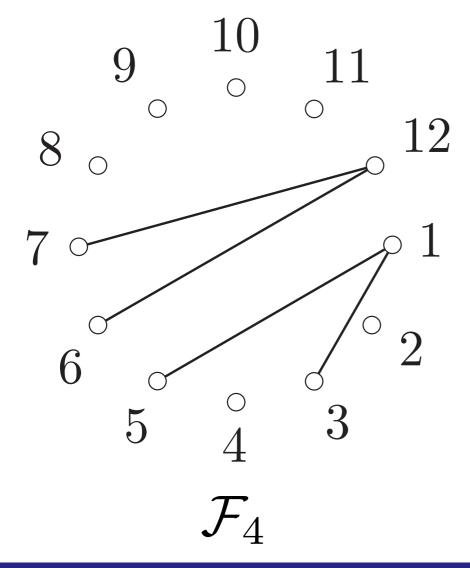
 $\begin{array}{l} & \longrightarrow \text{Example } (n = 12) \text{). For } k = 3: \\ & \left(\underbrace{(1,3), (6,12), (1,5)}_{\text{product}=(1,3,5)(6,12)}, (7,12), (9,10), (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11) \right) \end{array}$

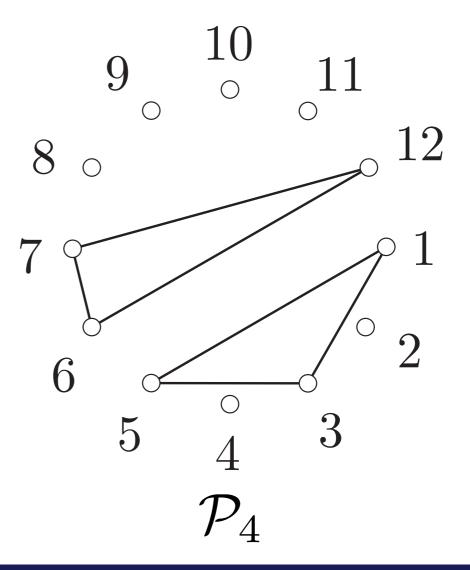




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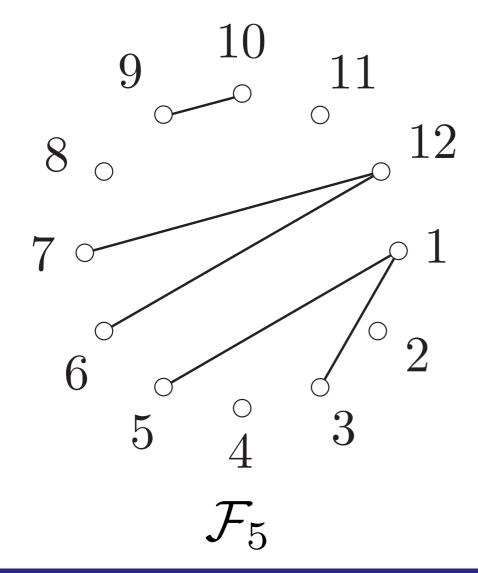
 $\begin{array}{l} & \longrightarrow \text{Example (n = 12)). For k = 4:} \\ & \left(\underbrace{(1,3), (6,12), (1,5), (7,12)}_{\text{product}=(1,3,5)(6,7,12)}, (9,10), (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11) \right) \end{array}$

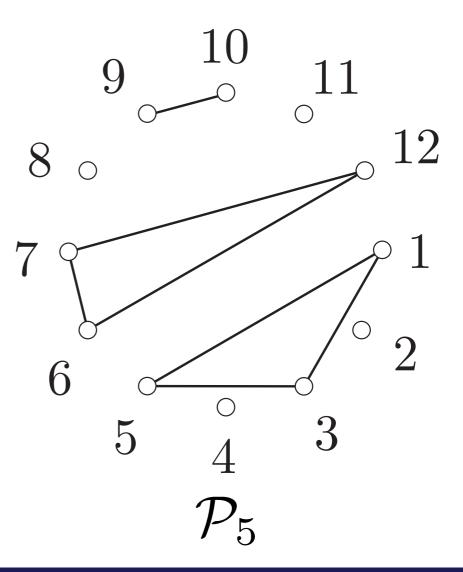




- ► \mathfrak{F}_k is the compact subset obtained by drawing the chords τ_i , $1 \leq i \leq k$.
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 $\begin{array}{l} & \longrightarrow \text{Example (n = 12)). For k = 5:} \\ & \left(\underbrace{(1,3), (6,12), (1,5), (7,12), (9,10)}_{\text{product}=(1,3,5)(6,7,12)(9,10)}, (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11) \right) \end{array}$



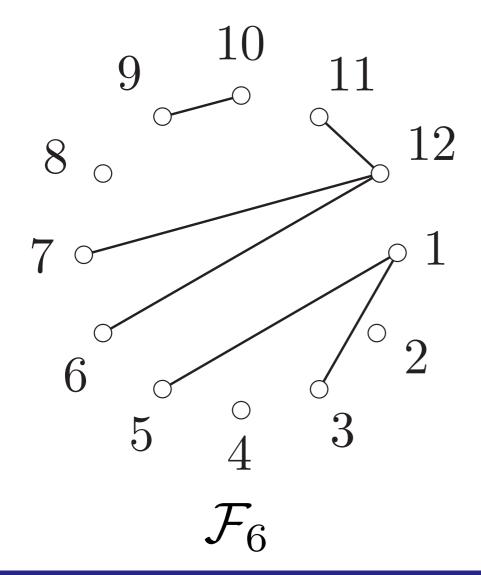


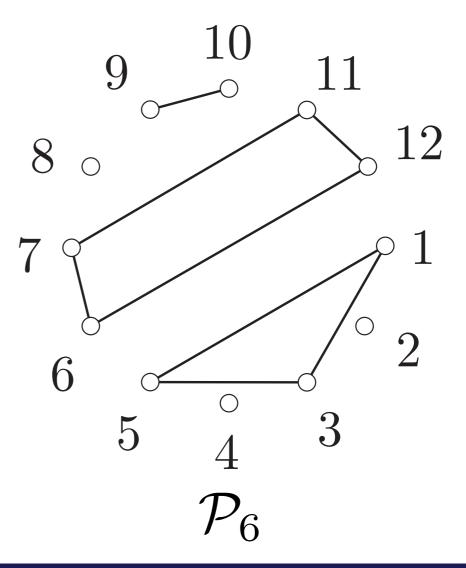
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 \rightarrow Example (n = 12)). For k = 6:

 $\left(\underbrace{(1,3),(6,12),(1,5),(7,12),(9,10),(11,12)}_{(2,3),(2,3),(4,5),(1,6),(8,11),(9,11)}\right)$

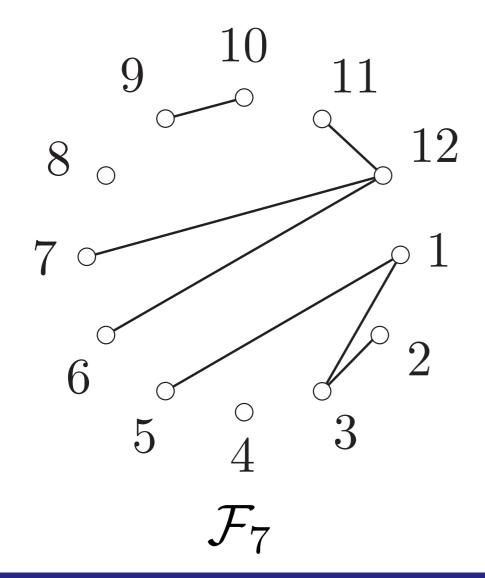
product = (1,3,5)(6,7,11,12)(9,10)

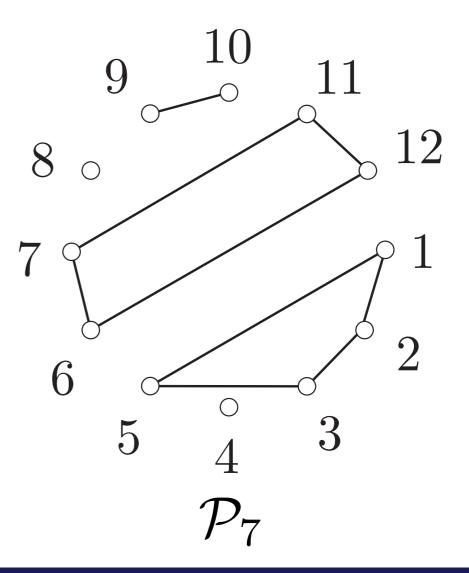




- ► \mathfrak{F}_k is the compact subset obtained by drawing the chords τ_i , $1 \leq i \leq k$.
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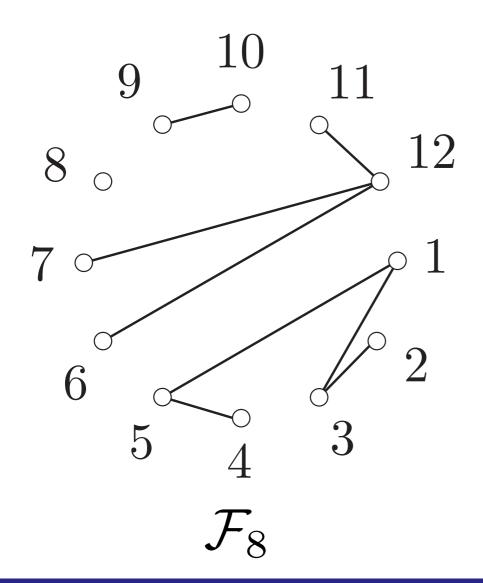
 $\begin{array}{l} & \checkmark \in \text{Example } (n = 12) \text{). For } k = 7: \\ & \left(\underbrace{(1,3), (6,12), (1,5), (7,12), (9,10), (11,12), (2,3)}_{\text{product} = (1,2,3,5)(6,7,11,12)(9,10)}, (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11) \right) \end{array}$

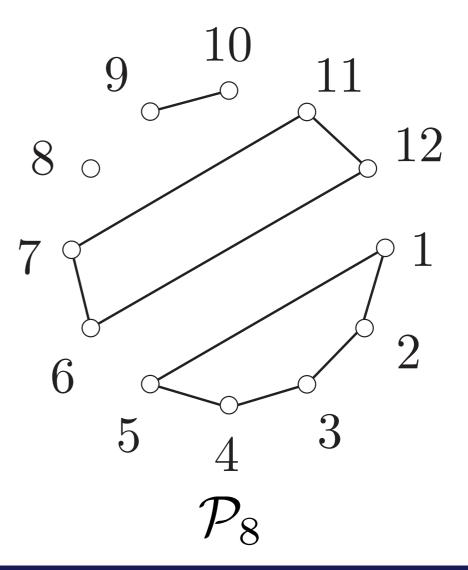




- ► \mathcal{F}_k is the compact subset obtained by drawing the chords τ_i , $1 \leq i \leq k$.
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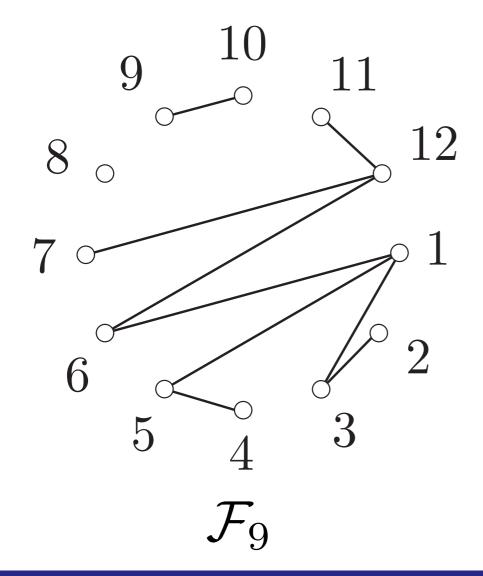


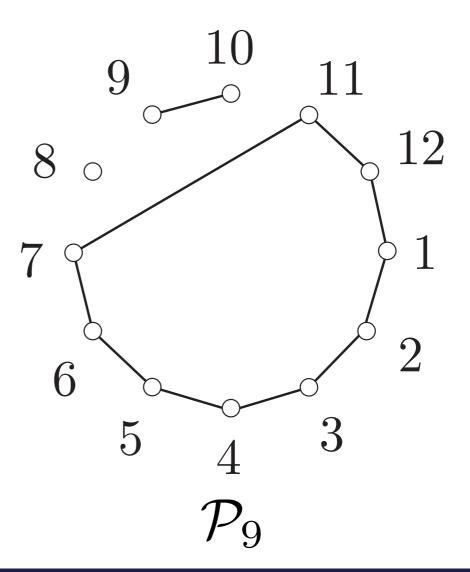
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((1,3), (6,12), (1,5), (7,12), (9,10), (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11))

product = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 11, 12)(9, 10)



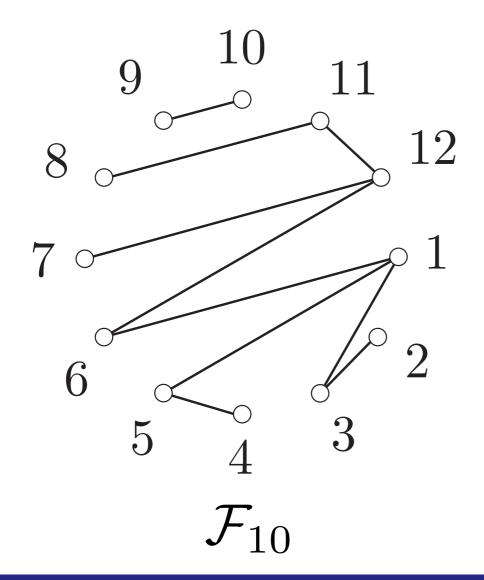


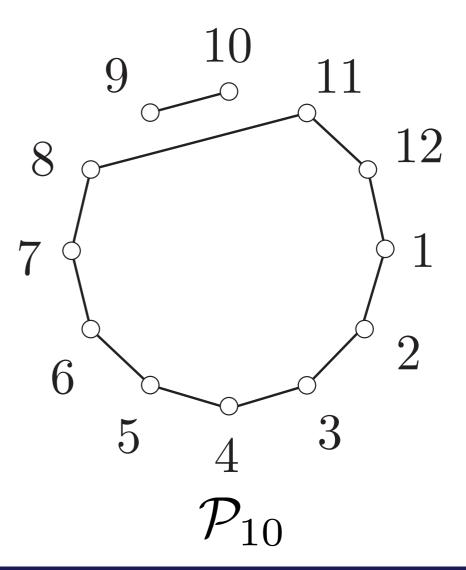
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((1,3), (6,12), (1,5), (7,12), (9,10), (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11))

product = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12)(9, 10)



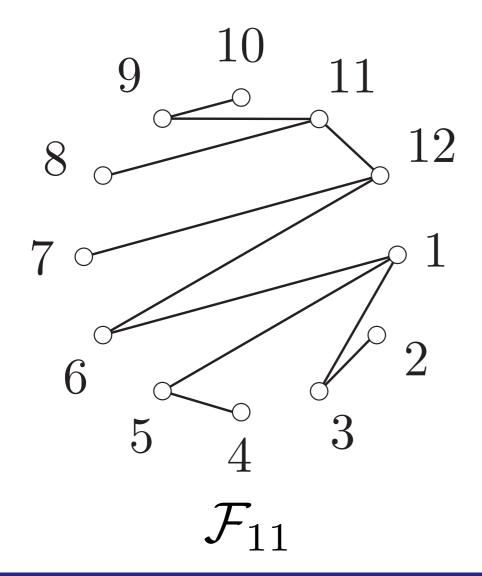


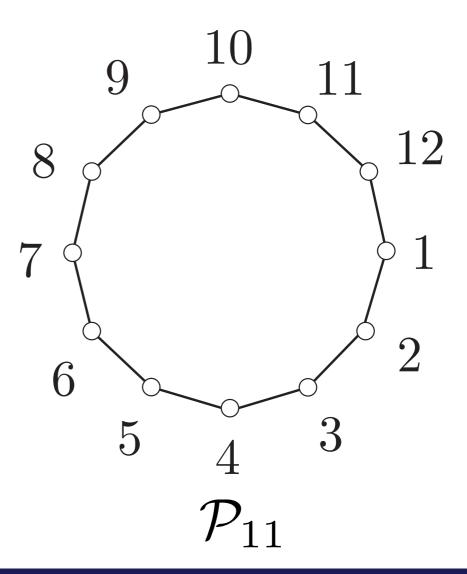
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((1,3), (6,12), (1,5), (7,12), (9,10), (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11)))

product = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12)





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55

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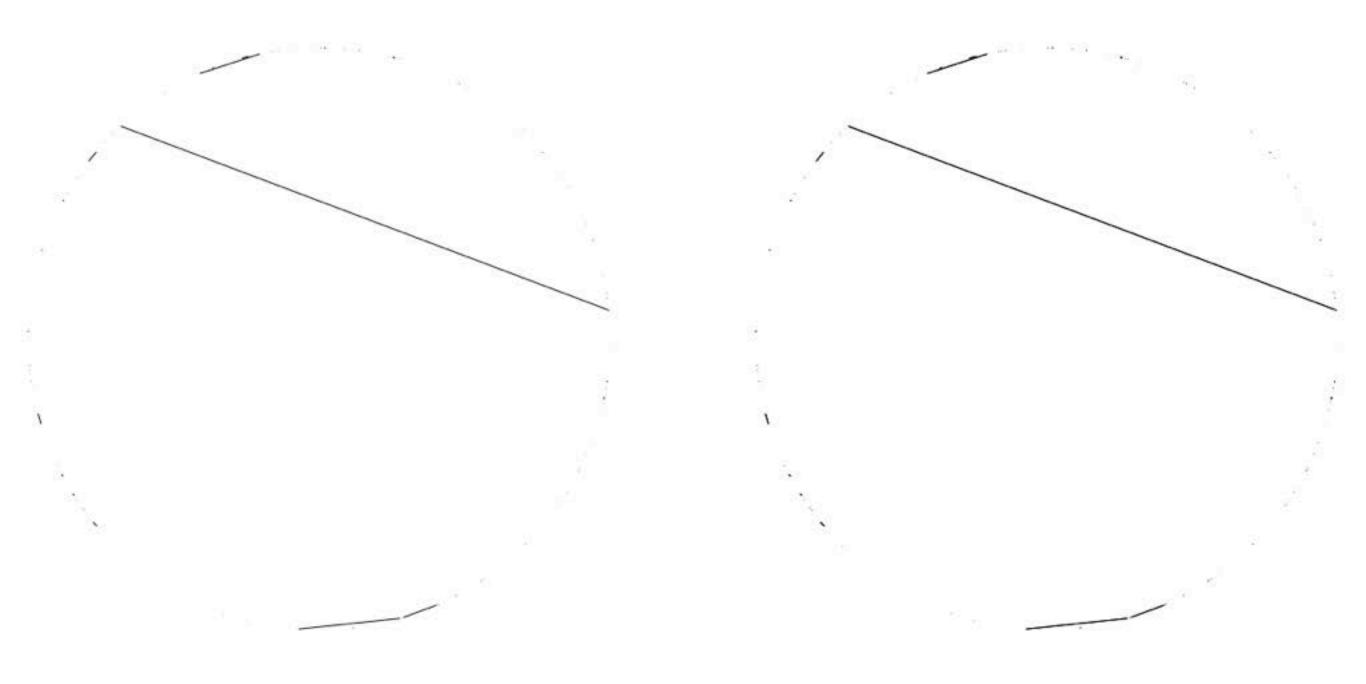
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Who is f?

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1

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with $K_n = \lfloor c\sqrt{n} \rfloor$ for fixed n, as c varies.

K_n = 0.050 n^(1/2)

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 \aleph_0

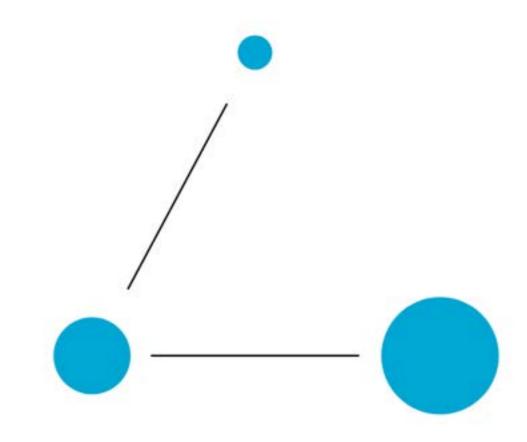
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ANNALES HENRI LEBESGUE

What is the limit?

 \longrightarrow L₀ is the unit circle.

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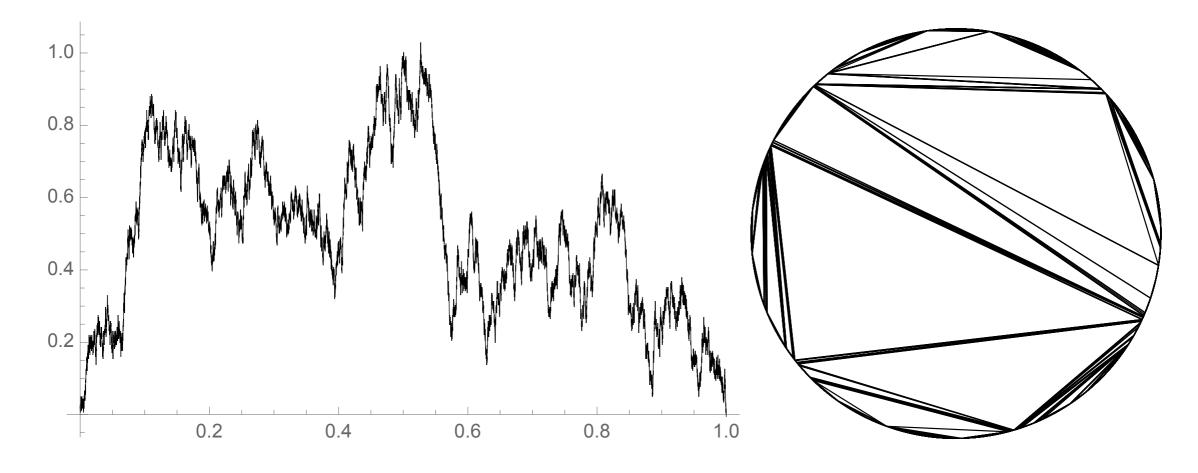


Figure: A Brownian excursion (left) coding L_{∞} (right).

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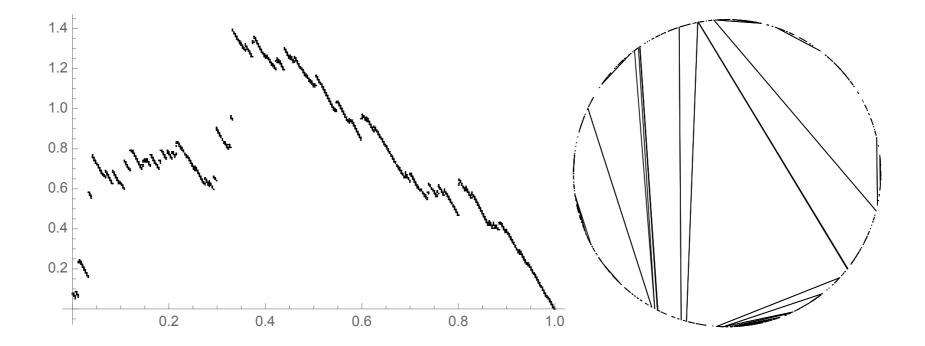


Figure: An excursion of a spectrally positive Lévy process (left) coding L_5 (right).

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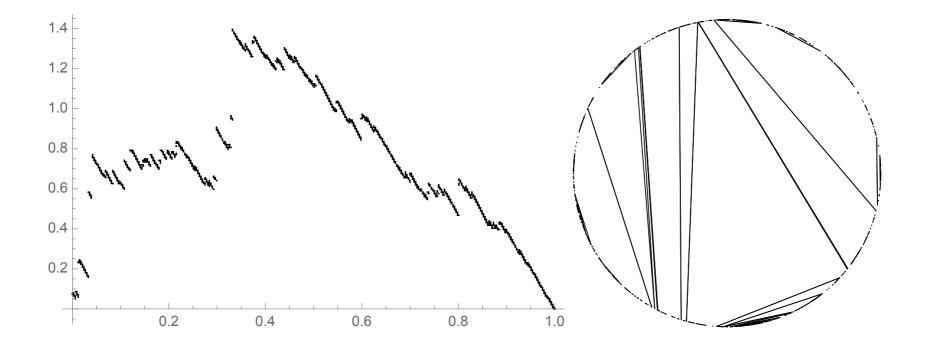


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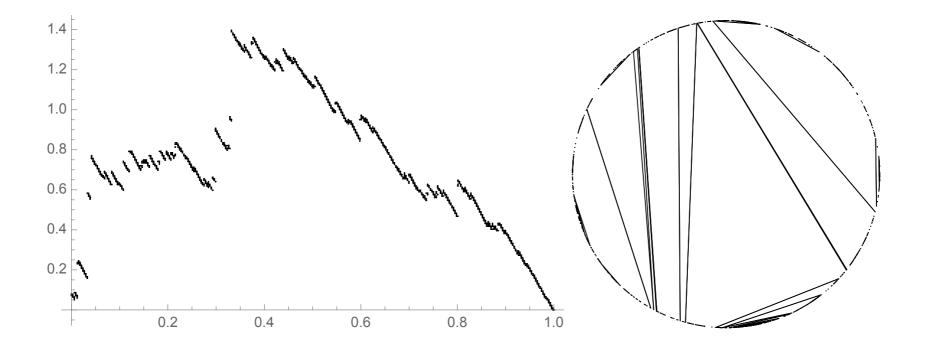


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∧→ Thévenin shows the convergence of $\left(\mathcal{F}_{\lfloor c\sqrt{n} \rfloor}^n\right)_{c \ge 0}$ to $(\mathbf{L}_c)_{c \ge 0}$ as a process.

Main idea of the proof



Fix $1 \le k \le n-1$ and let P be a non-crossing partition with n vertices and n-k blocks. Then

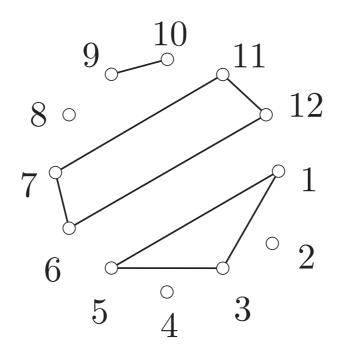
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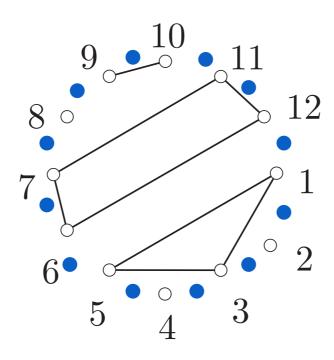
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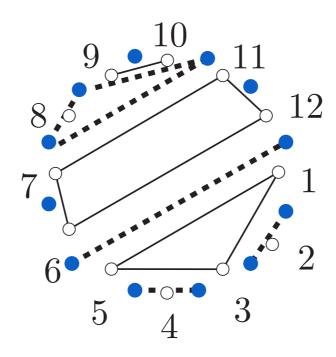
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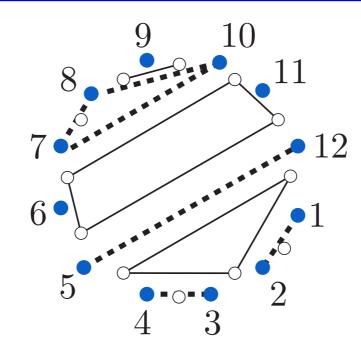
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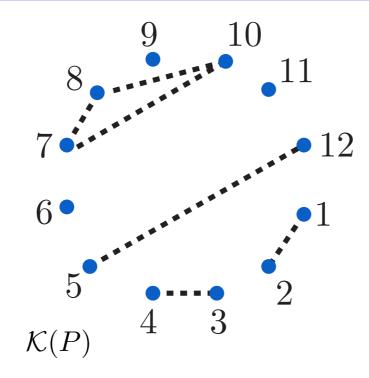
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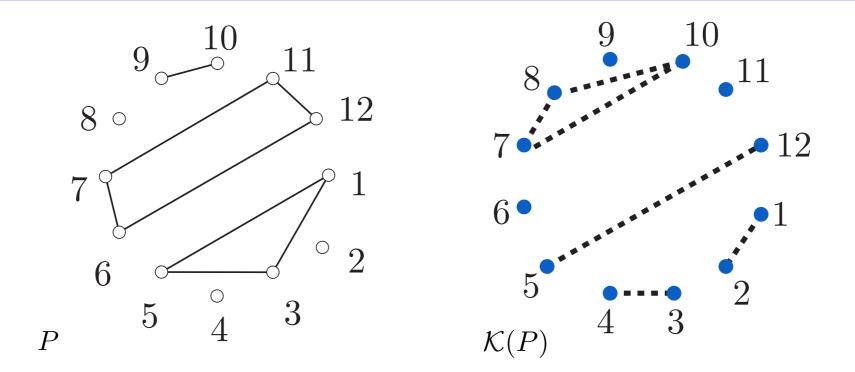
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where $\mathcal{K}(P)$ is the Kreweras complement of P.

 $\wedge \rightarrow$ Consequence 1: (take k = 1)

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{t_{1}^{(n)}}{n} = (a, a+i) \text{ for some } a\right) = \frac{(n-2)!}{n^{n-2}} \cdot \frac{i^{i-2}}{(i-1)!} \cdot \frac{(n-i)^{(n-i-2)}}{(n-i-1)!}$$

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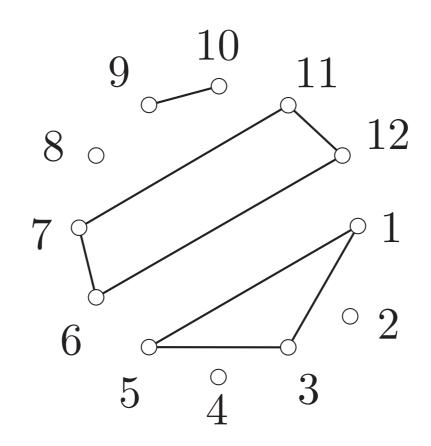
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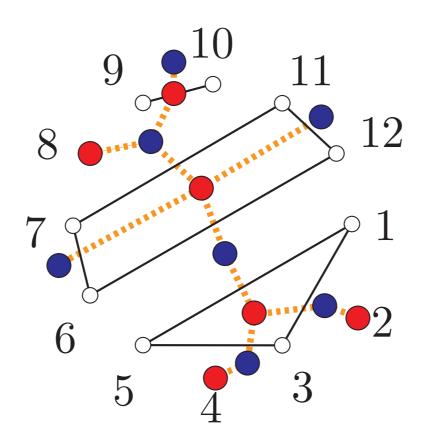
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for n and i large, which explains the \sqrt{n} transition.

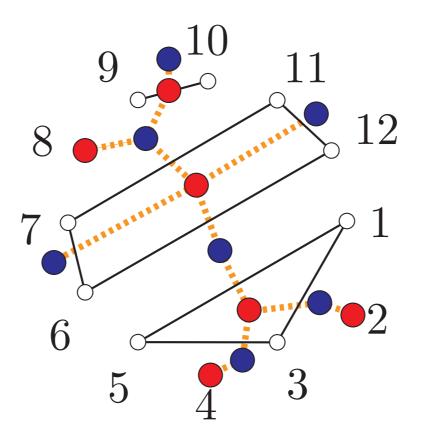






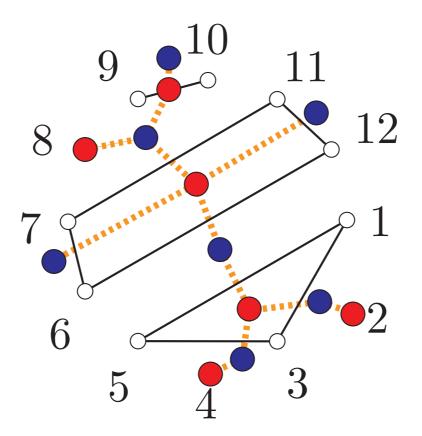






It follows that $\mathcal{P}(t_1^{(n)}t_2^{(n)}\cdots t_k^{(n)})$ is coded by a bitype biconditioned Bienaymé–Galton–Watson (or simply generated) tree (n - k blue vertices and k + 1 red vertices)!

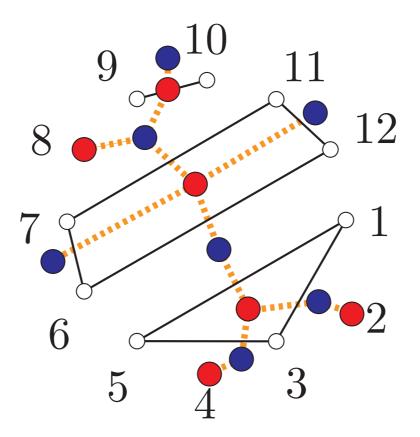




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We develop a new machinery to study limits of such random trees.

