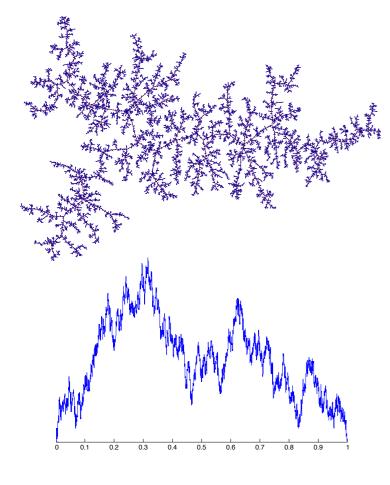
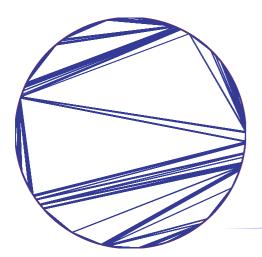




# Asymptotic behavior of large random discrete structures





Igor Kortchemski (with Valentin Féray) CNRS & École polytechnique

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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?

Let  $(X_n)_{n \ge 1}$  be a sequence of "discrete" objects converging to a "continuous" object X:

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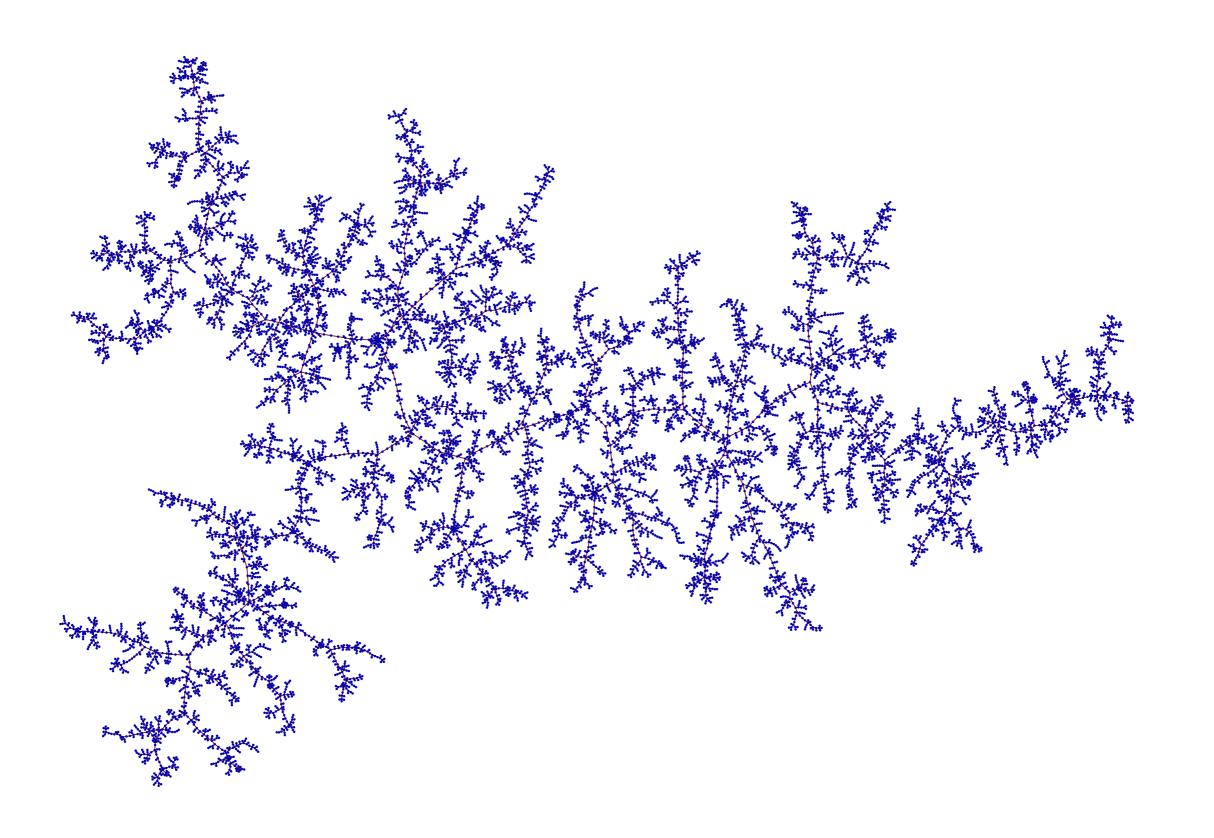
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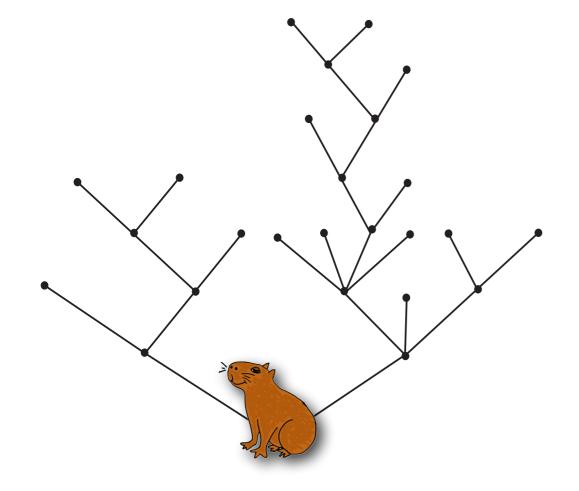
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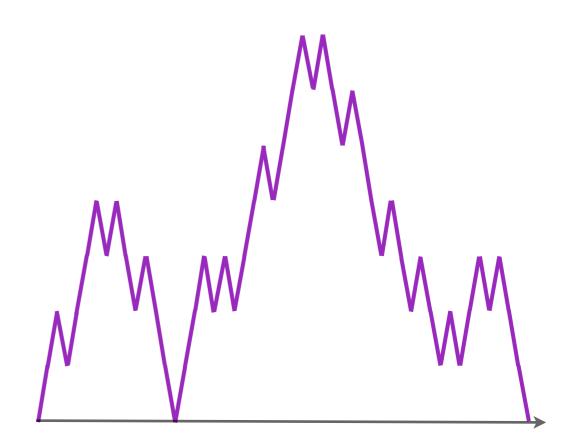
 $\wedge \rightarrow$  Question: What does a large typical plane tree look like?



## Coding a tree by its contour function

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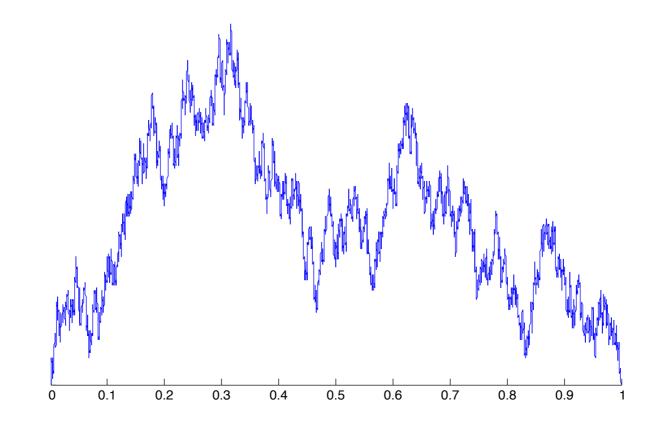
$$\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}}C_{2nt}(\mathbf{t}_n)\right)_{0\leqslant t\leqslant 1}\quad \overset{(d)}{\underset{n\to\infty}{\longrightarrow}}\quad (\mathbf{e}(\mathbf{t}))_{0\leqslant t\leqslant 1}\,,$$

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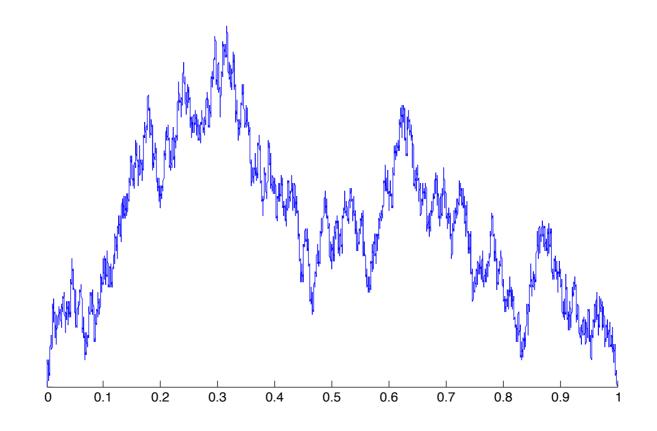
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 $\bigwedge$  Idea:  $\mathfrak{t}_n$  is a (conditioned) random walk, use (a conditioned) Donsker's invariance principle.

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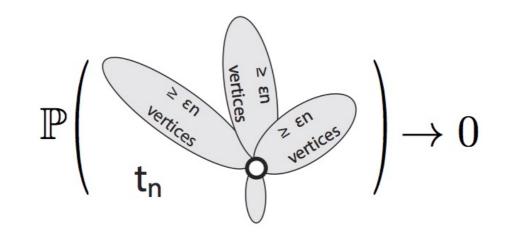
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∧→ Consequence 2: for every ε > 0,

 $\mathbb{P}$  (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).

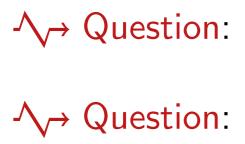
I. TREES

#### **II.** TRIANGULATIONS & DISSECTIONS

**III.** MINIMAL FACTORIZATIONS







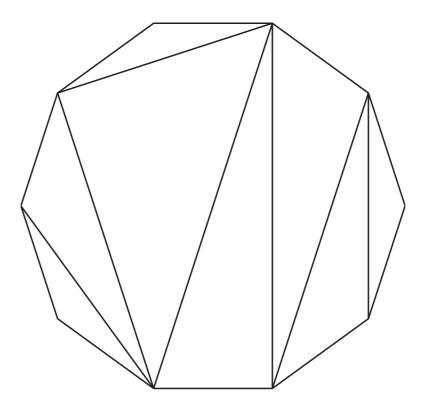


Figure: A triangulation of  $\chi_{10}$ .

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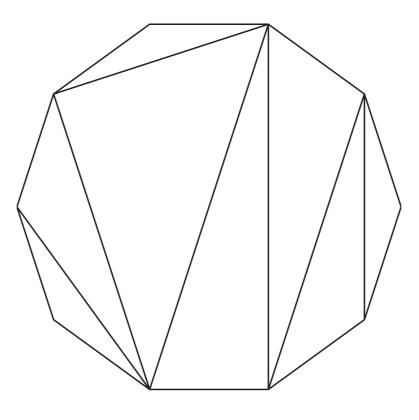
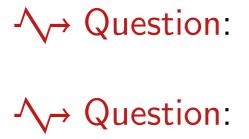


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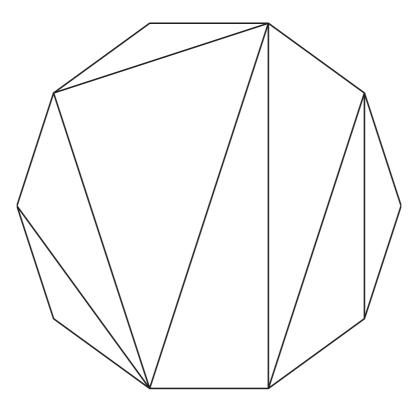


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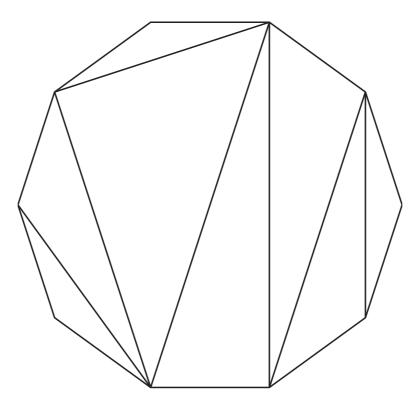


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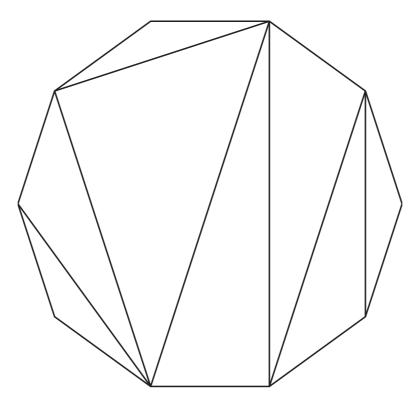
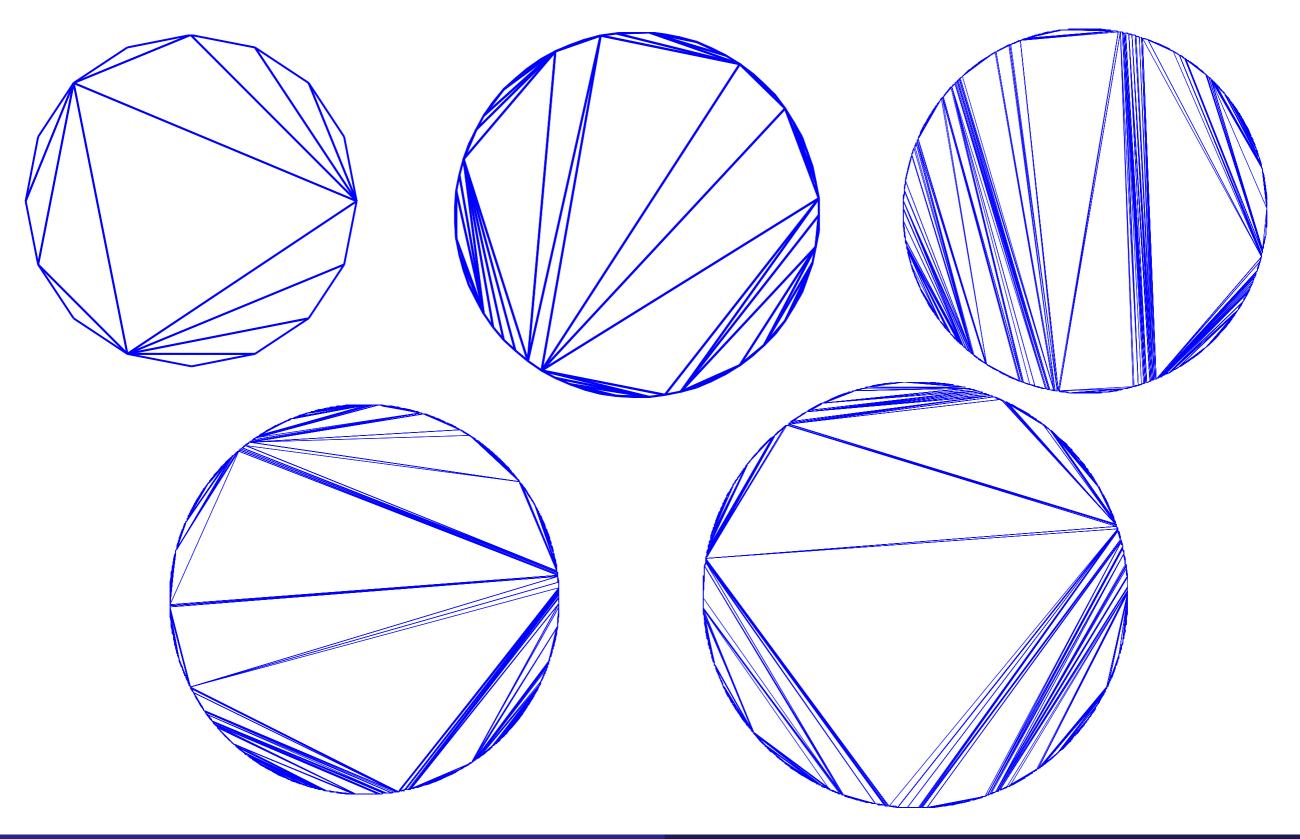


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# Typical triangulations



#### What space for triangulations?



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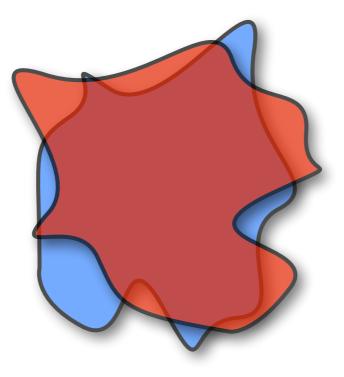
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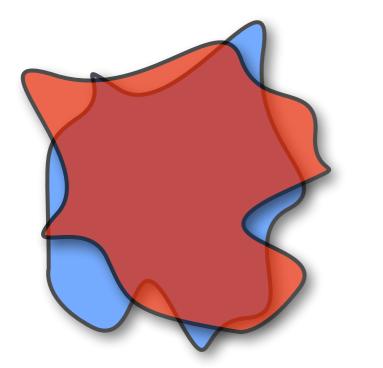


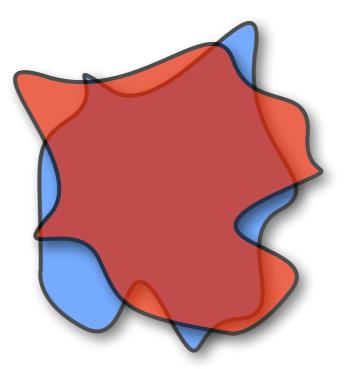
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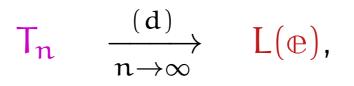
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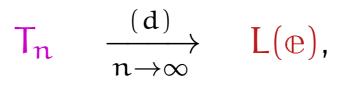
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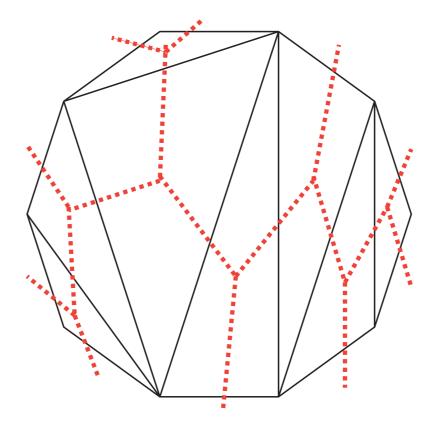
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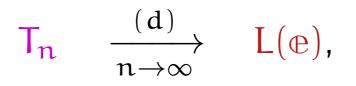


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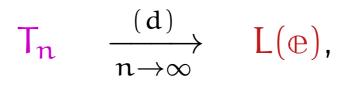


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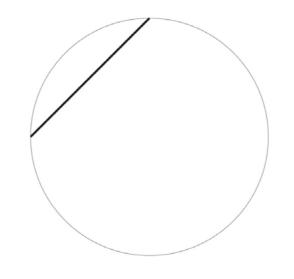
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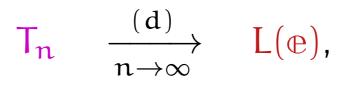
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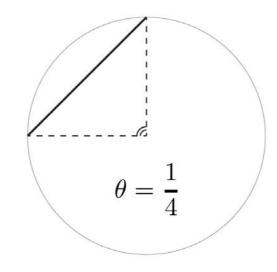
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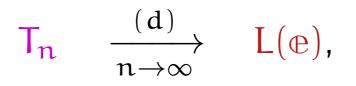
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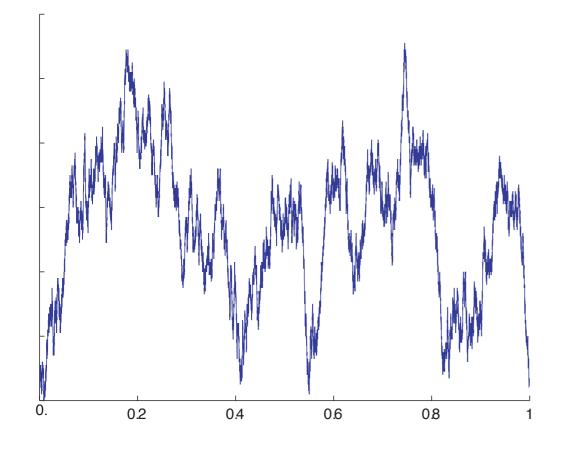
It is the probability measure with density:

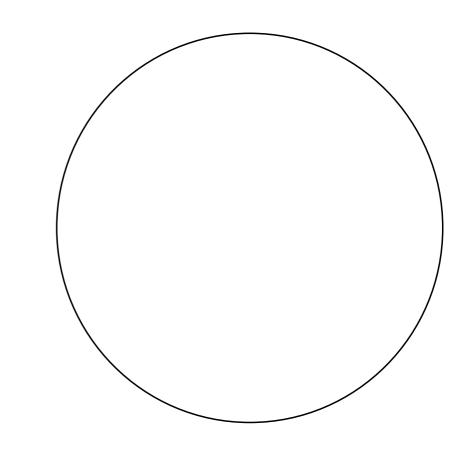
$$\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{3\theta - 1}{\theta^2 (1 - \theta)^2 \sqrt{1 - 2\theta}} \mathbf{1}_{\frac{1}{3} \leqslant \theta \leqslant \frac{1}{2}} \mathsf{d}\theta.$$

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

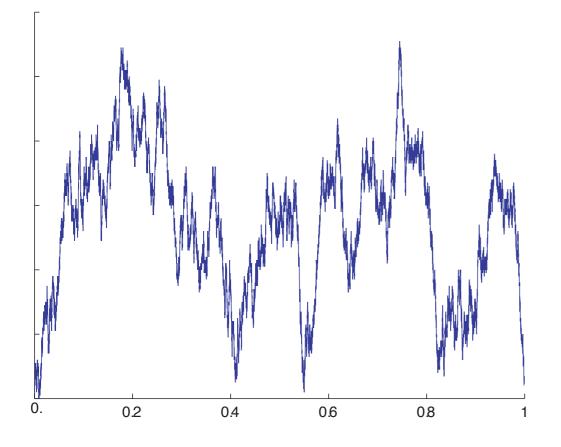
Start with the Brownian excursion e:

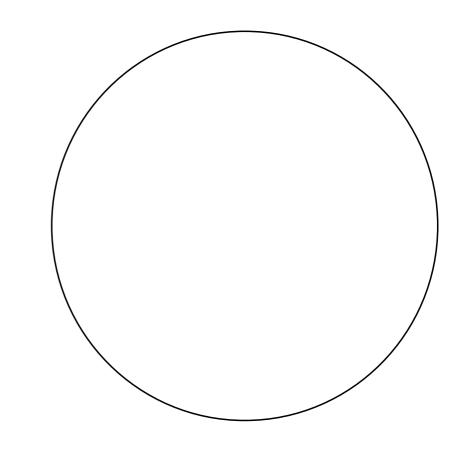
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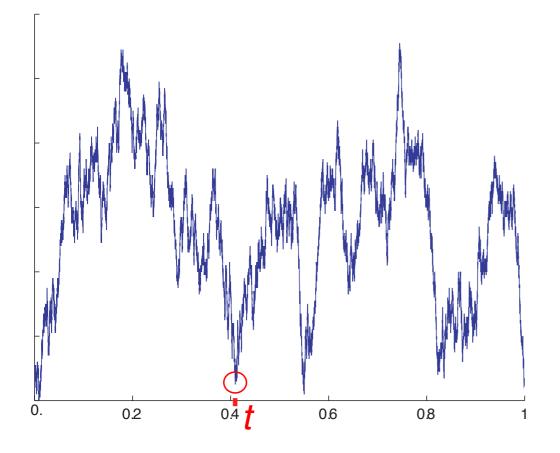
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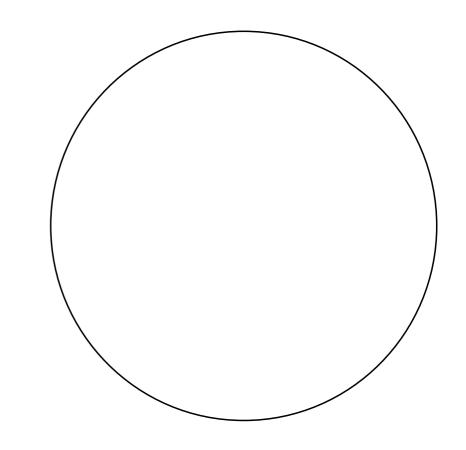




Let t be a time of local minimum.

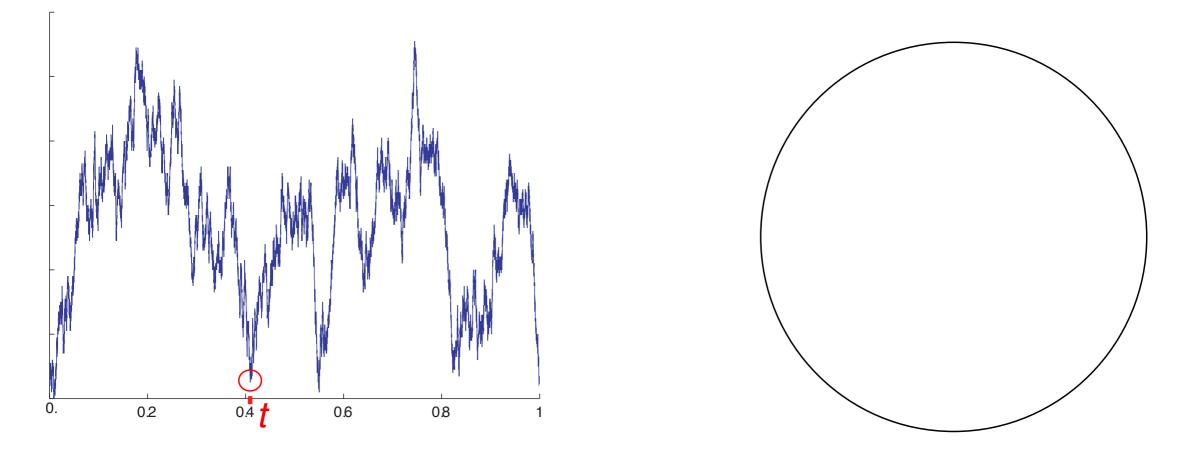
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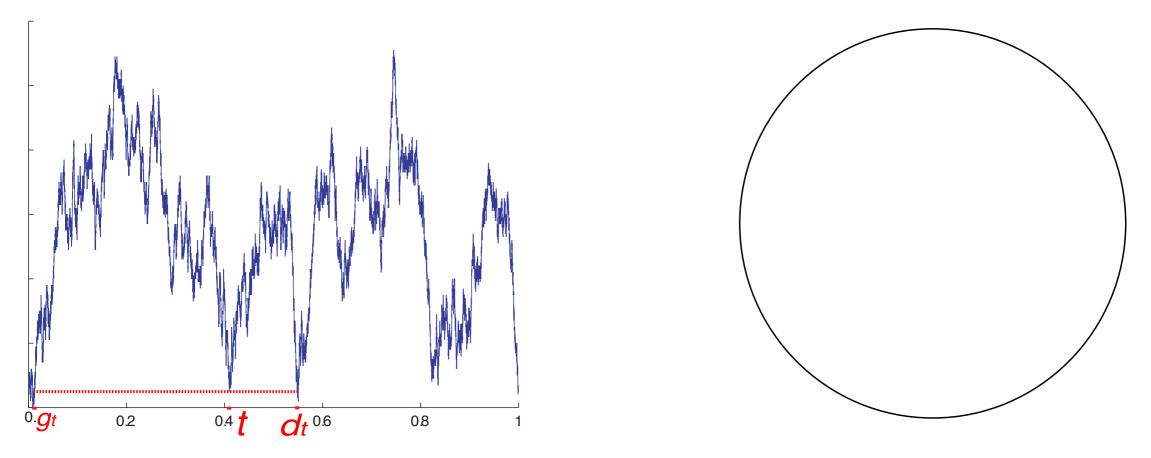
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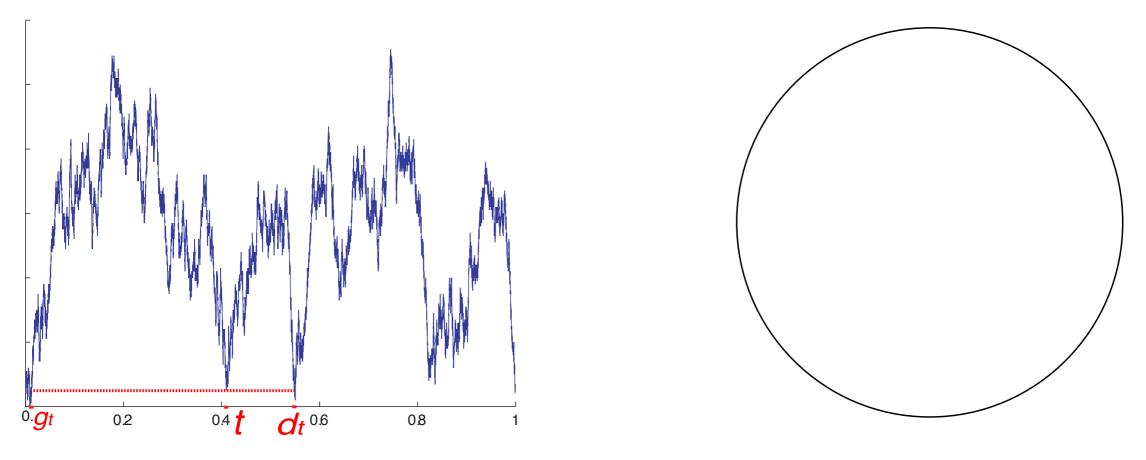
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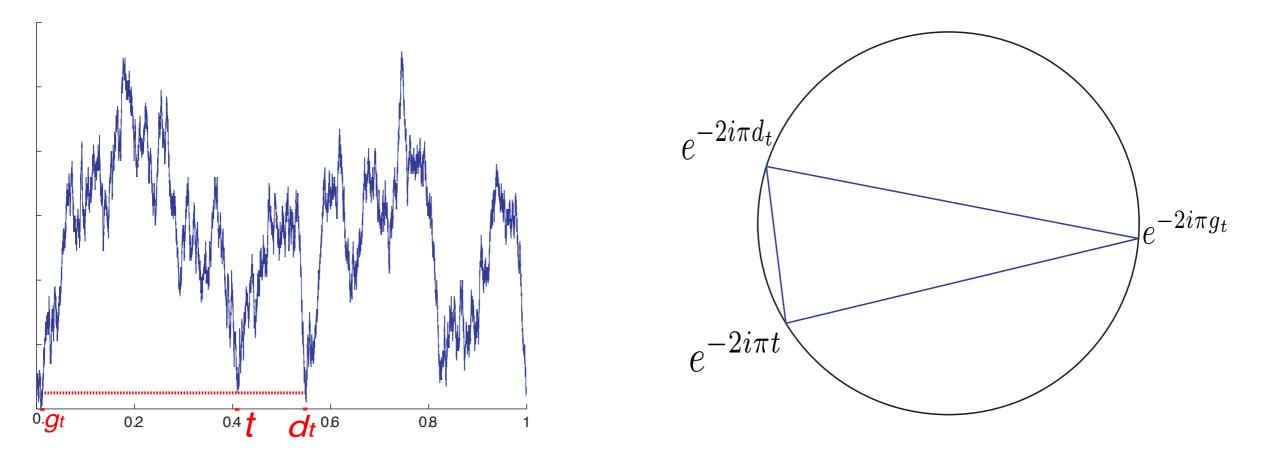
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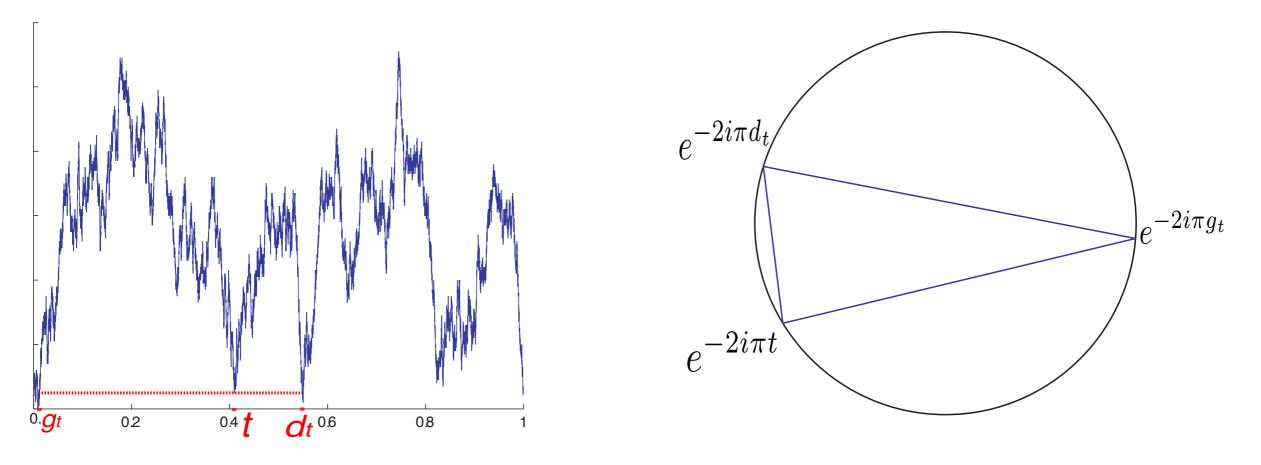
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#### Start with the Brownian excursion e:



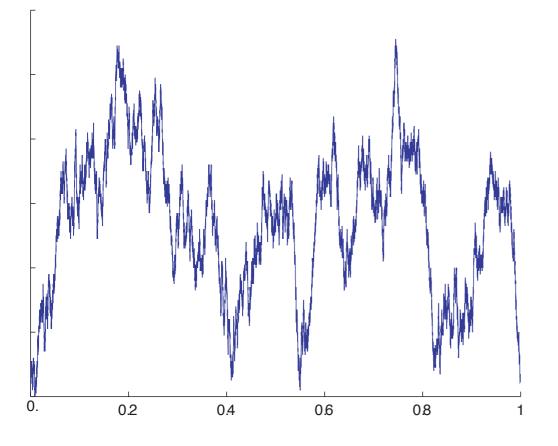
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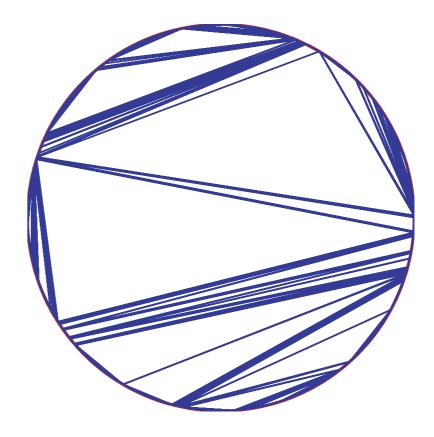
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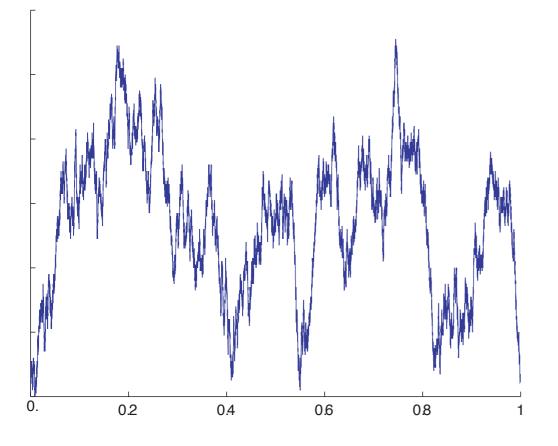
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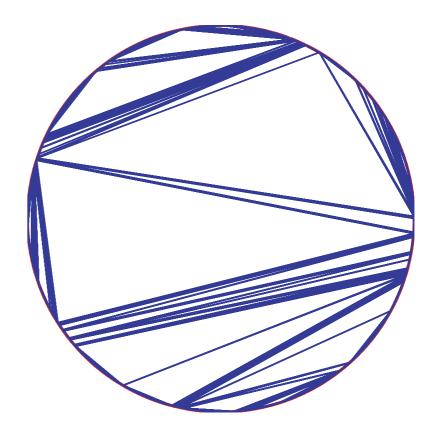




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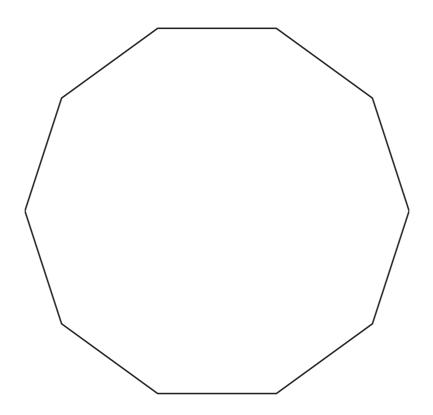




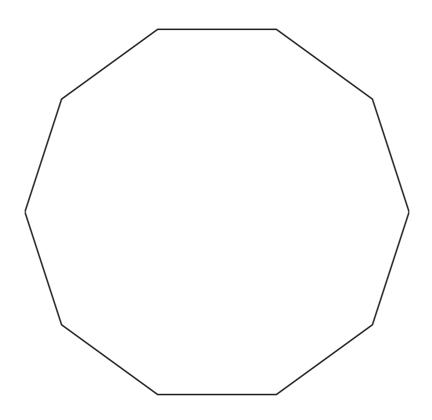
Let t be a time of local minimum. Set  $g_t = \sup\{s < t; e_s = e_t\}$  and  $d_t = \inf\{s > t; e_s = e_t\}$ . Draw the chords  $[e^{-2i\pi g_t}, e^{-2i\pi t}]$ ,  $[e^{-2i\pi t}, e^{-2i\pi t}]$  et  $[e^{-2i\pi g_t}, e^{-2i\pi d_t}]$ . Do this for all the times of local minimum.

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).

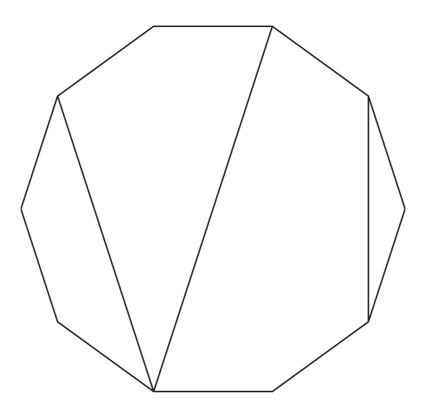


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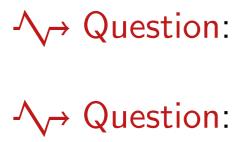
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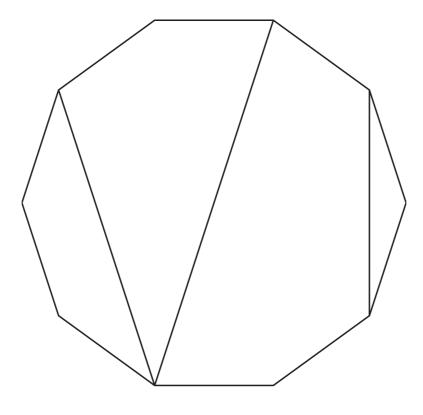


Figure: A dissection of a 10-gon.

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



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).

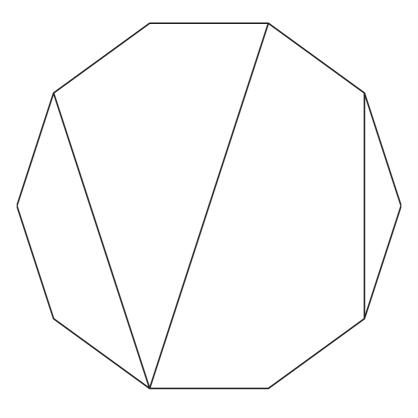


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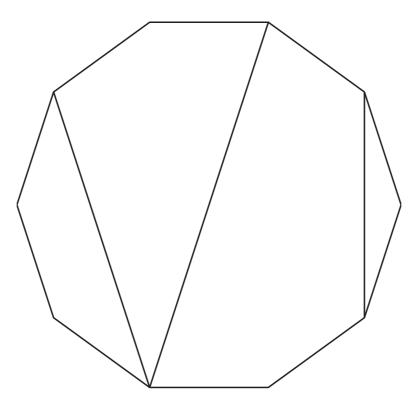


Figure: A dissection of a 10-gon.

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

 $\mathcal{N} \rightarrow$ Question:

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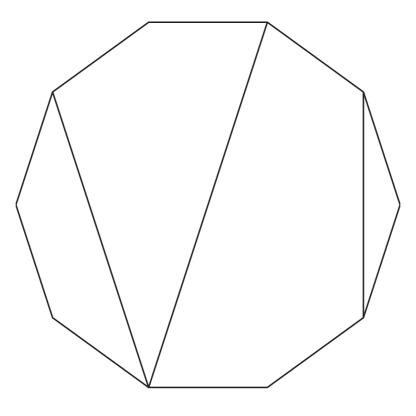


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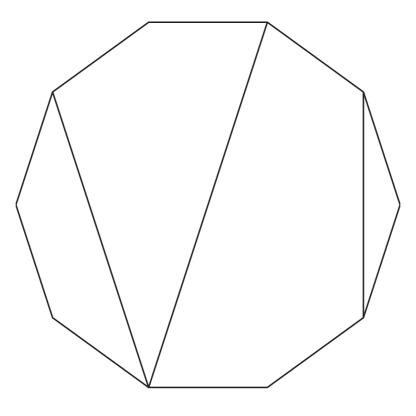


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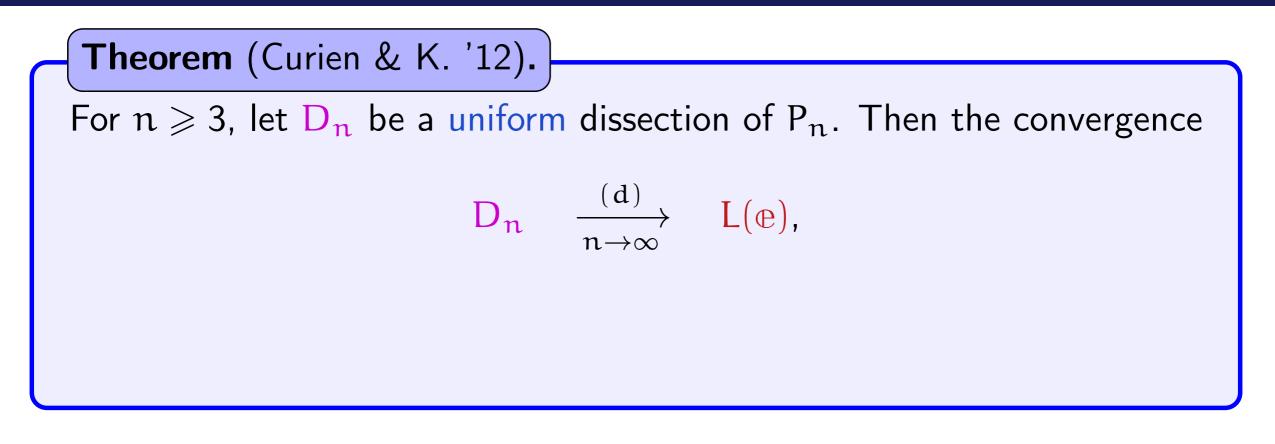
 $\Lambda \rightarrow$  Question:  $\# \chi_n =$  no explicit simple formula.

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

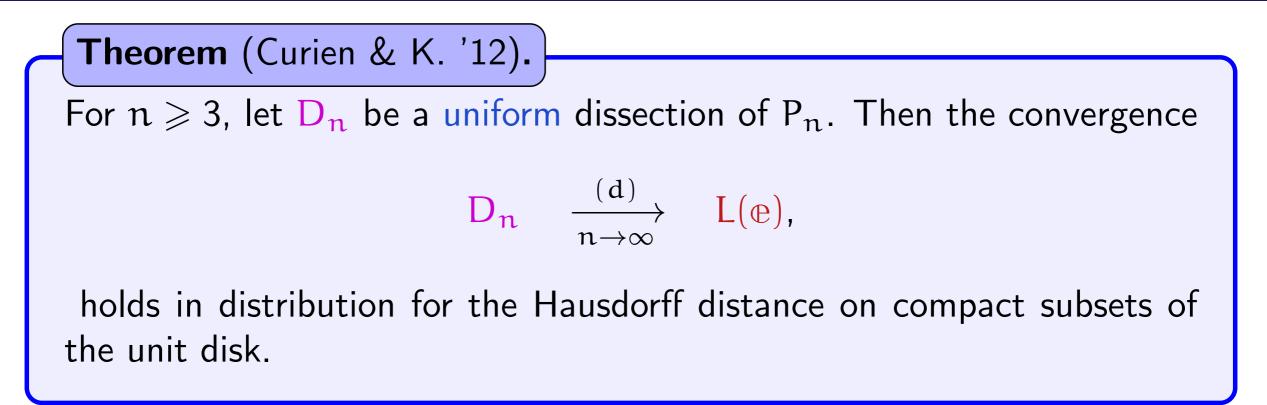
Large typical dissections

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

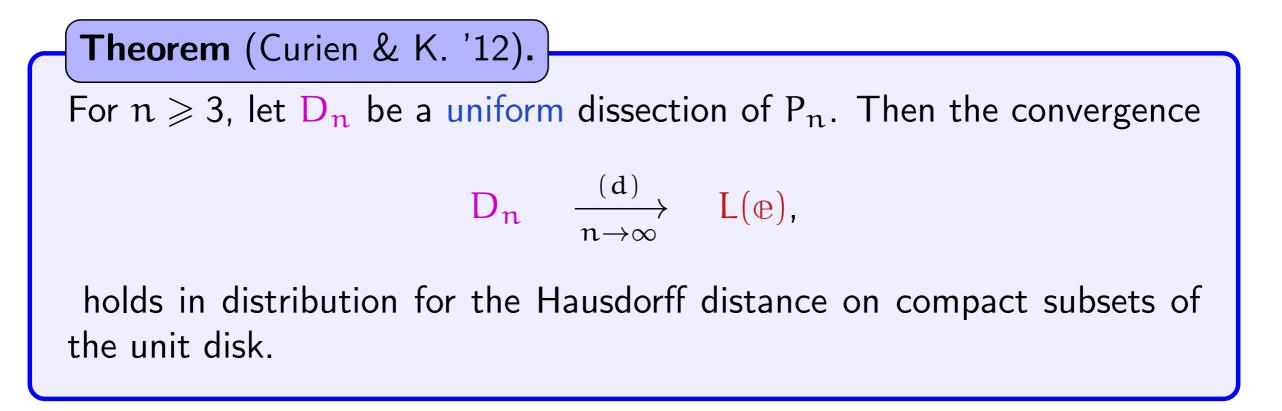
For  $n \ge 3$ , let  $D_n$  be a uniform dissection of  $P_n$ .











 $\wedge \rightarrow$  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.

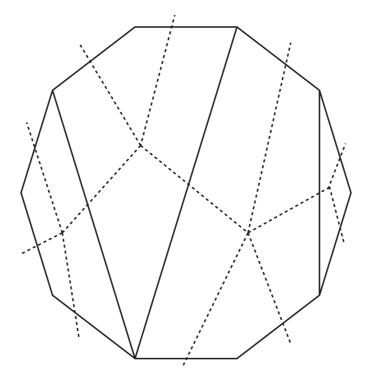


Figure: The dual tree of a dissection.

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

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

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

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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?



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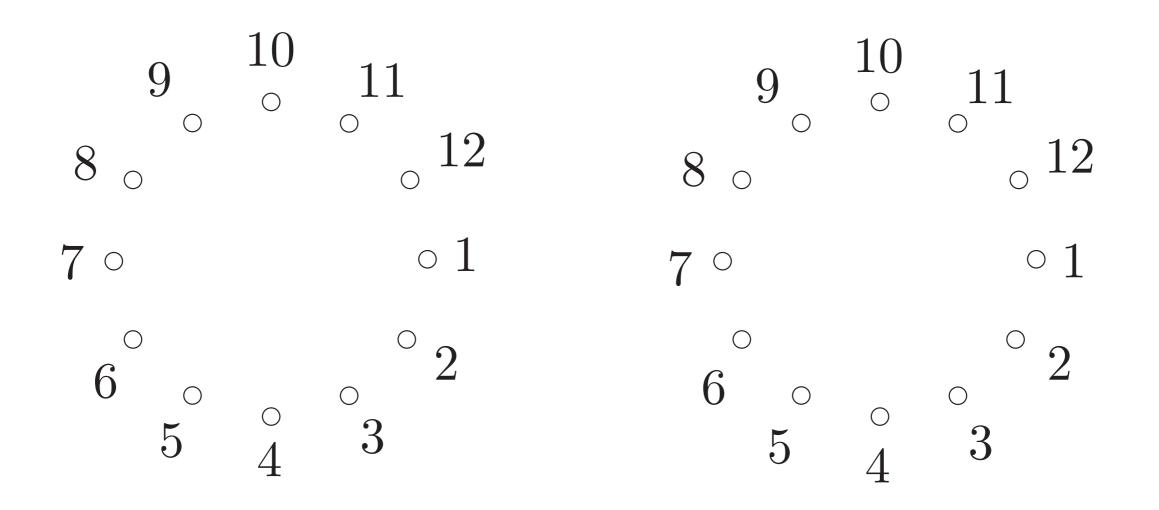
compact subsets of the unit disk.



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

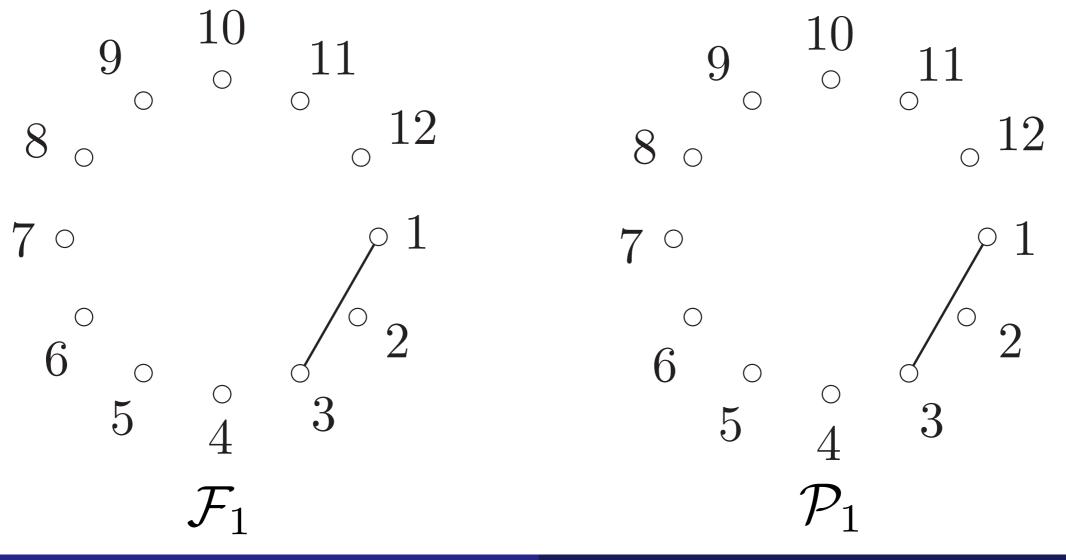
 $\rightarrow$  Example (n = 12)). Take

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



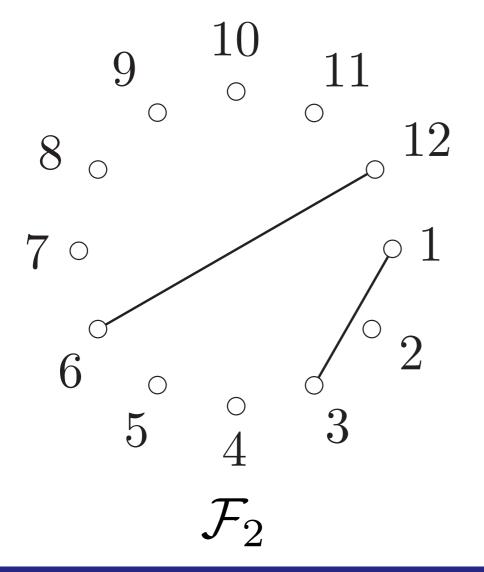
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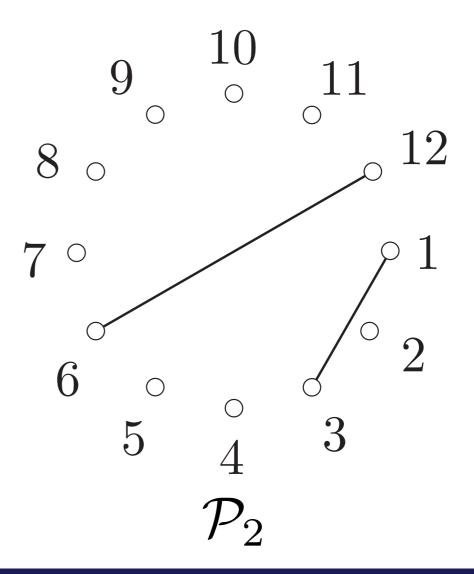
 $\begin{array}{l} & \longrightarrow \text{Example } (n = 12) \text{). For } k = 1: \\ (\underbrace{(1,3)}_{\text{product}=(1,3)}, (6,12), (1,5), (7,12), (9,10), (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11)$ 



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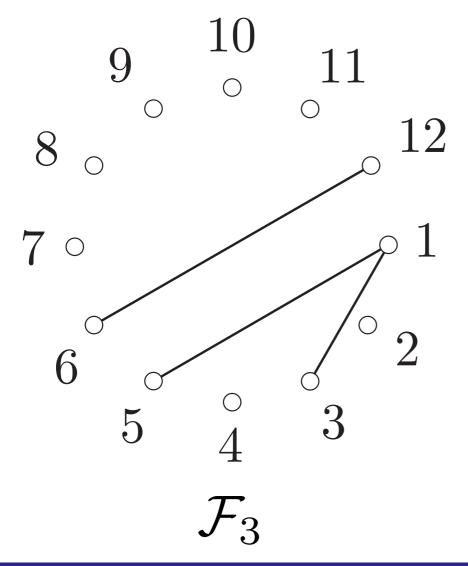
 $\begin{array}{l} & \longrightarrow \text{Example } (n = 12) \text{). For } k = 2: \\ & \left( \underbrace{(1,3), (6,12)}_{\text{product}=(1,3)(6,12)} , (1,5), (7,12), (9,10), (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11) \right) \end{array} \right)$ 

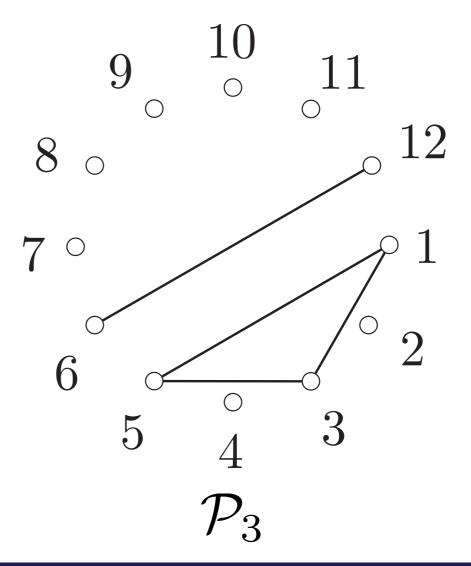




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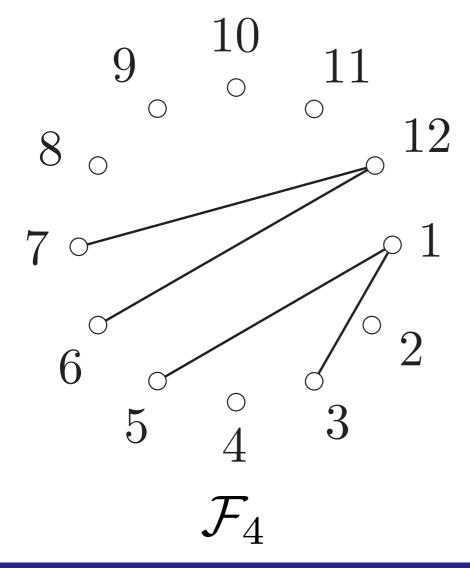
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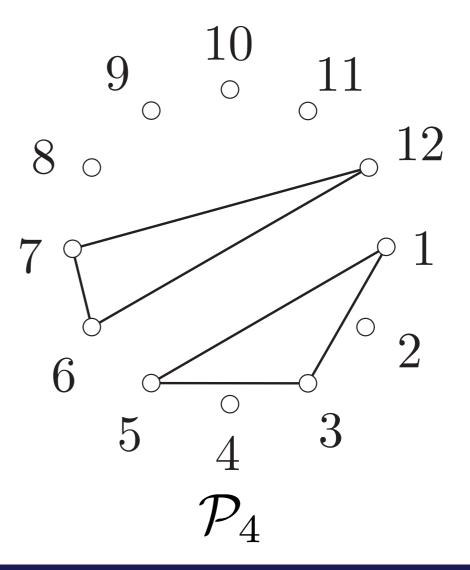




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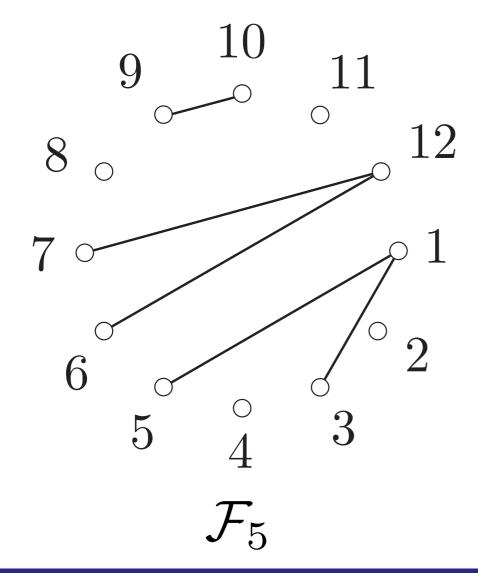
 $\begin{array}{l} & \longrightarrow \text{Example (n = 12)). For k = 4:} \\ & \left( \underbrace{(1,3), (6,12), (1,5), (7,12)}_{\text{product}=(1,3,5)(6,7,12)}, (9,10), (11,12), (2,3), (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11) \right) \end{array}$ 

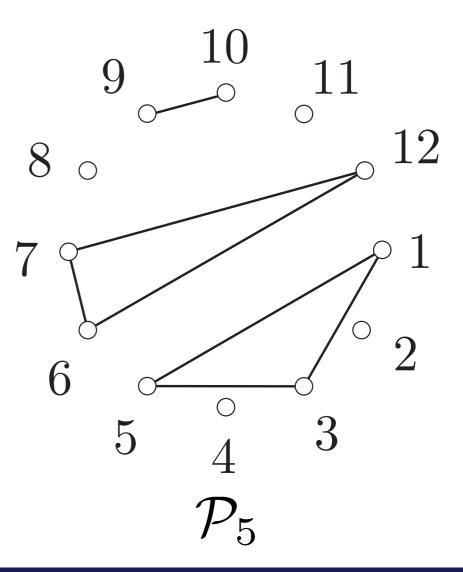




- ►  $\mathfrak{F}_k$  is the compact subset obtained by drawing the chords  $\tau_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq k$ .
- $\mathcal{P}_k$  is the compact subset associated to the cycles of  $\tau_1 \tau_2 \cdots \tau_k$ .

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



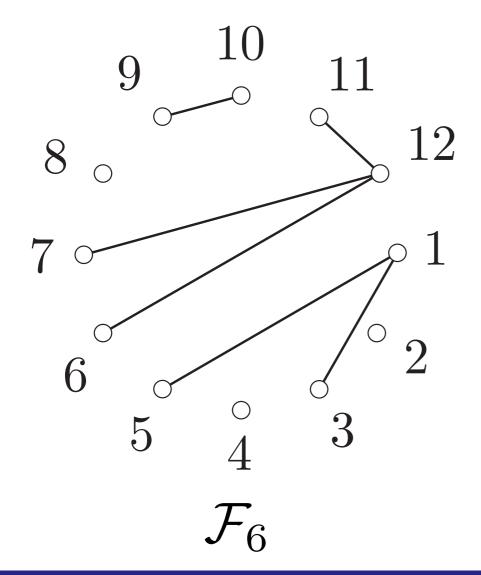


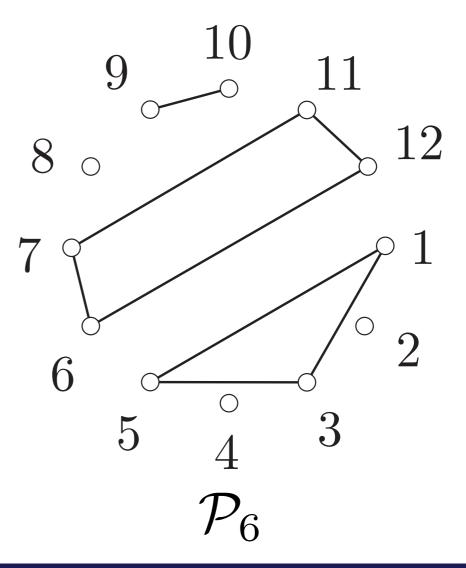
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 $\rightarrow$  Example (n = 12)). For k = 6:

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

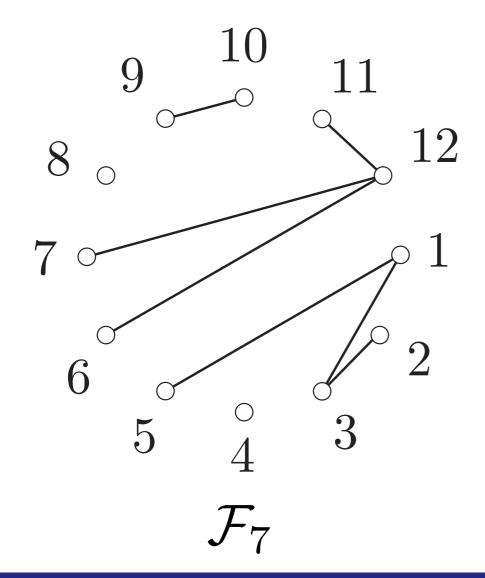
product = (1,3,5)(6,7,11,12)(9,10)

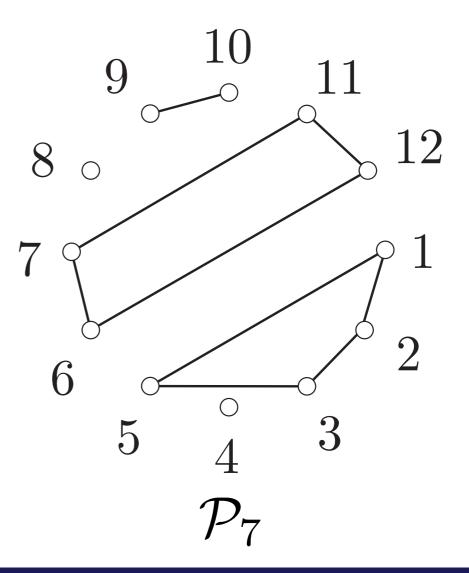




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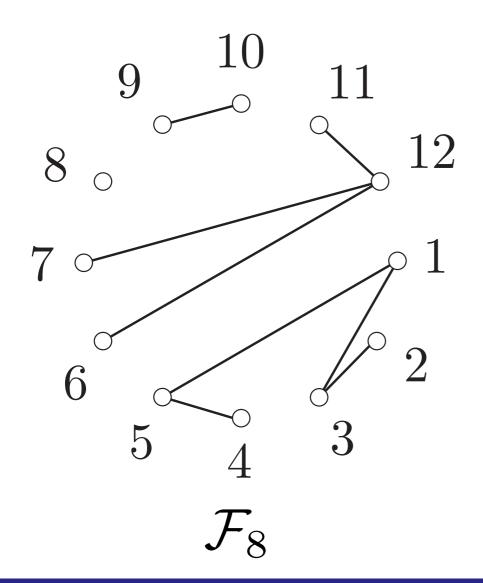
 $\begin{array}{l} & \checkmark \in \text{Example } (n = 12) \text{). For } k = 7: \\ & \left( \underbrace{(1,3), (6,12), (1,5), (7,12), (9,10), (11,12), (2,3)}_{\text{product} = (1,2,3,5)(6,7,11,12)(9,10)}, (4,5), (1,6), (8,11), (9,11) \right) \end{array}$ 

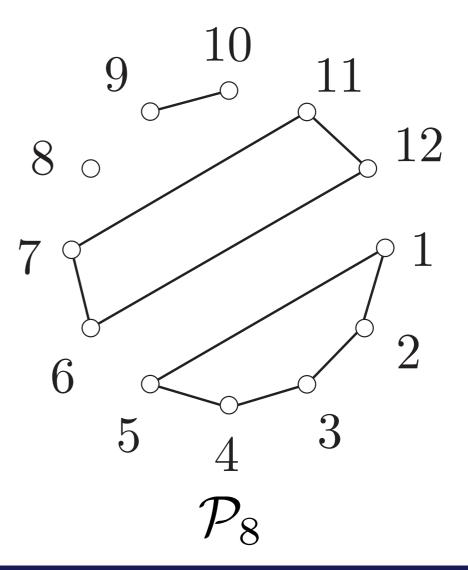




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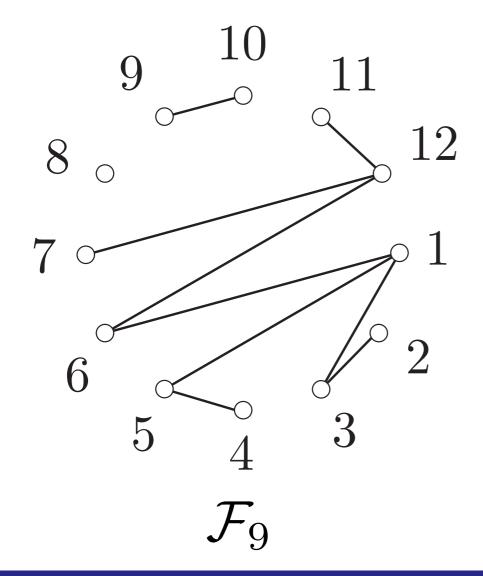


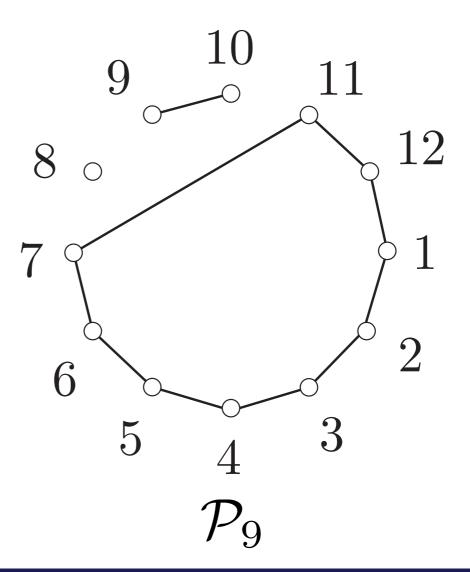
- ►  $\mathcal{F}_k$  is the compact subset obtained by drawing the chords  $\tau_i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq k$ .
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 $\rightarrow$  Example (n = 12)). For k = 9:

((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)



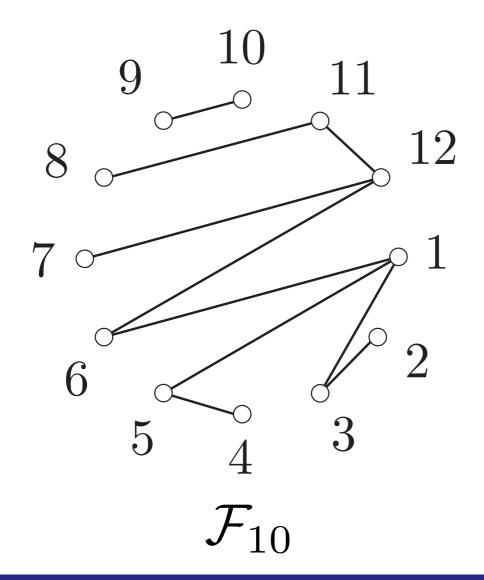


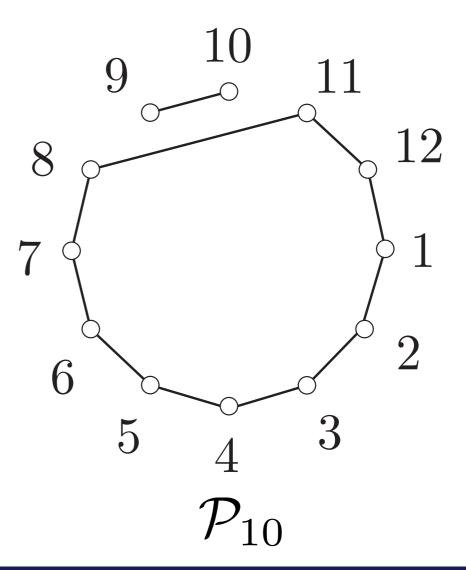
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product = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12)(9, 10)



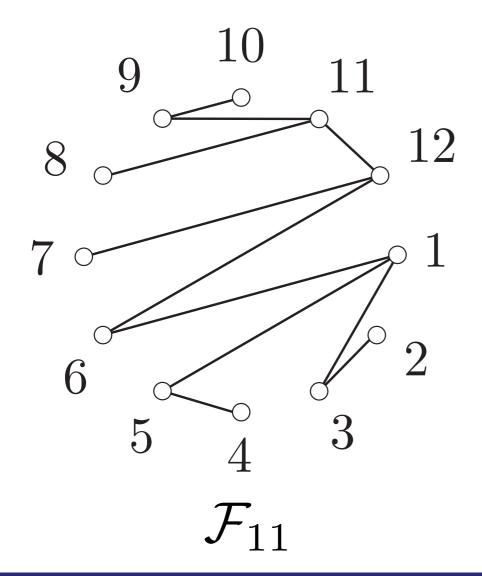


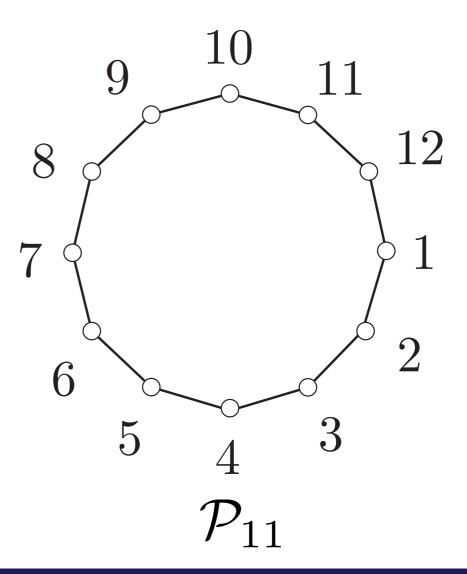
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 $\rightarrow$  Example (n = 12)). For k = 11:

((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)





### Let $(\tau_1^n, \ldots, \tau_{n-1}^n)$ be a uniform minimal factorization of the n-cycle.



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$$(\mathcal{F}_{K_n}^n, \mathcal{P}_{K_n}^n)$$

55

with  $K_n = \lfloor cf(n) \rfloor$  for fixed n = 20000, as c varies (for a certain mystery function f).

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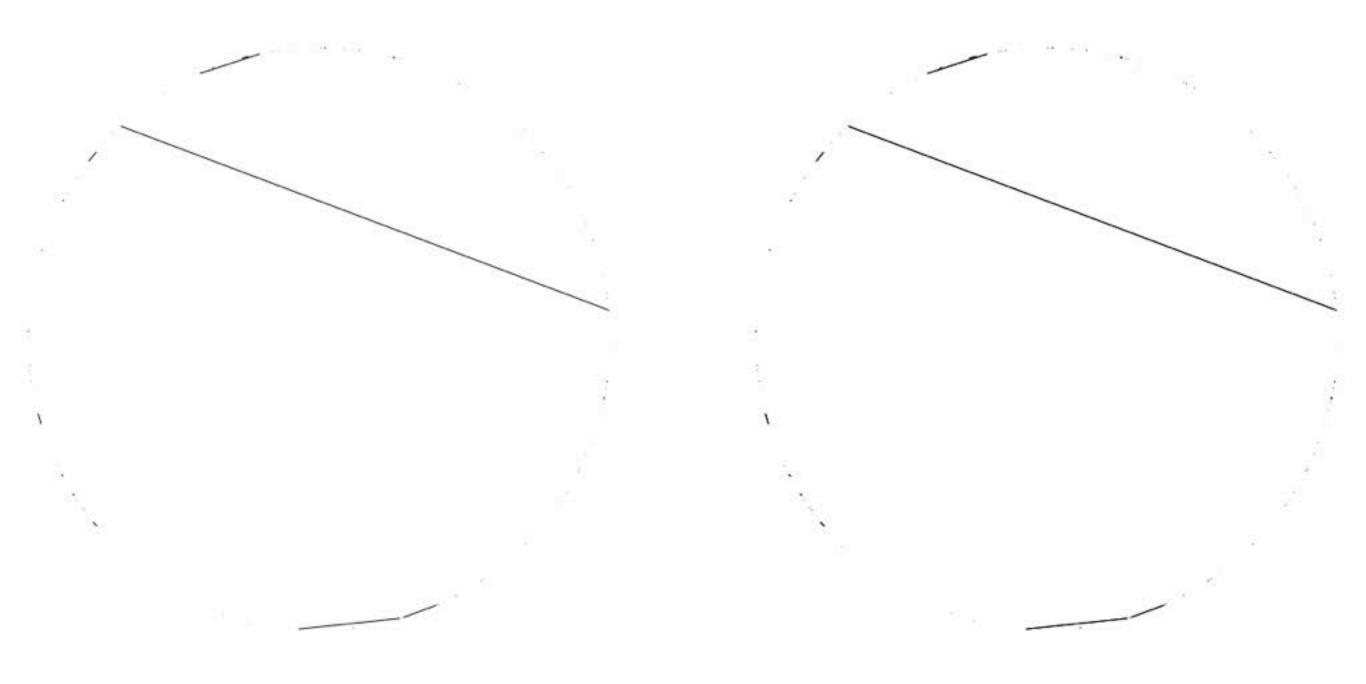
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Who is f?

#### The following film represents

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1

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$$(\mathcal{F}_{K_n}^n, \mathcal{P}_{K_n}^n)$$

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

K\_n = 0.050 n^(1/2)

.

Theorem (Féray, K.). Let  $(t_1^{(n)}, \ldots, t_{n-1}^{(n)})$  be a uniform minimal factorization of length n and  $1 \leq K_n \leq n-1$  with  $K_n \rightarrow \infty$ . (i) (ii) (iii) (iv)

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 $\aleph_0$ 

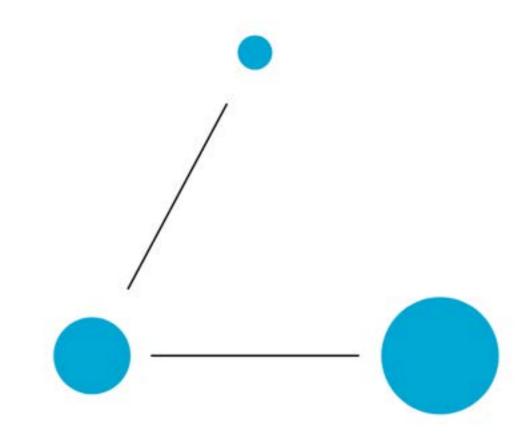
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# ANNALES HENRI LEBESGUE

What is the limit?

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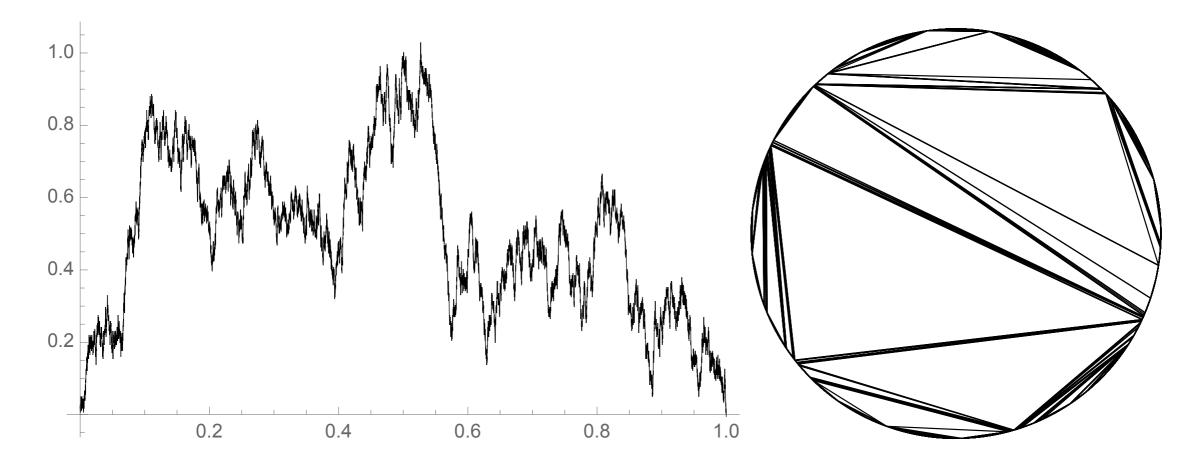


Figure: A Brownian excursion (left) coding  $L_{\infty}$  (right).

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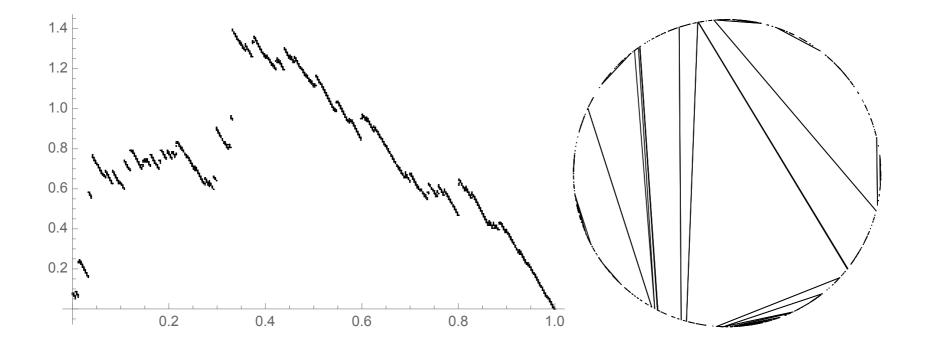


Figure: An excursion of a spectrally positive Lévy process (left) coding  $L_5$  (right).

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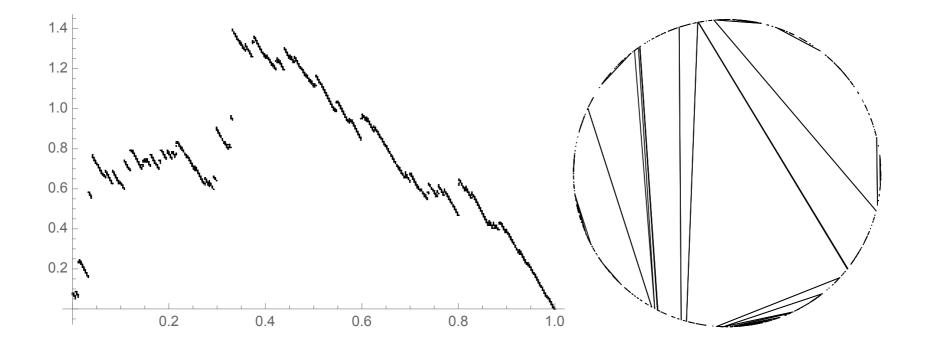


Figure: An excursion of a spectrally positive Lévy process (left) coding  $L_5$  (right).

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$$\Phi(\lambda) = c^2 \left( 1 - \sqrt{1 + \frac{2\lambda}{c}} \right) + \lambda c.$$

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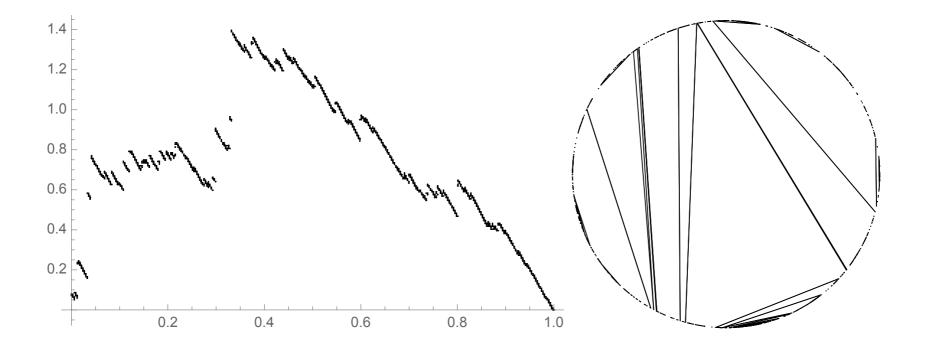


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∧→ Thévenin shows the convergence of  $\left(\mathcal{F}_{\lfloor c\sqrt{n} \rfloor}^n\right)_{c \ge 0}$  to  $(\mathbf{L}_c)_{c \ge 0}$  as a process.

## 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

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{P}(\boldsymbol{t}_1^{(n)}\boldsymbol{t}_2^{(n)}\cdots\boldsymbol{t}_k^{(n)})=\mathsf{P}\right)$$

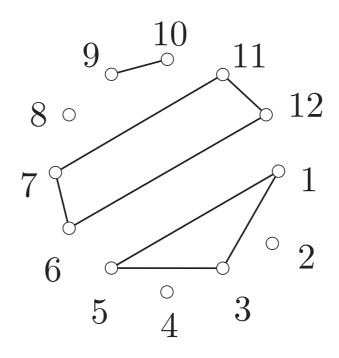
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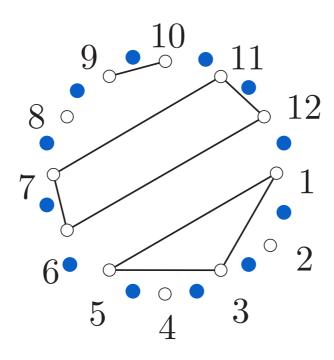
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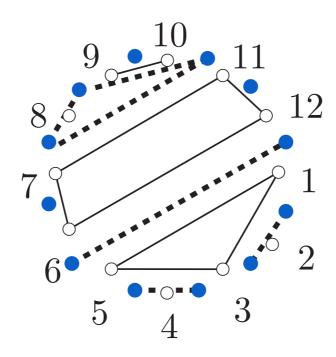
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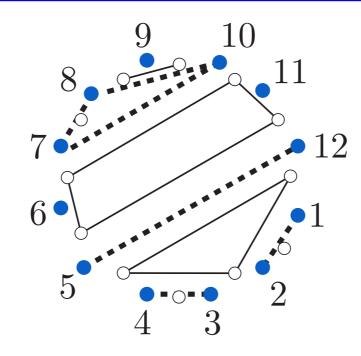
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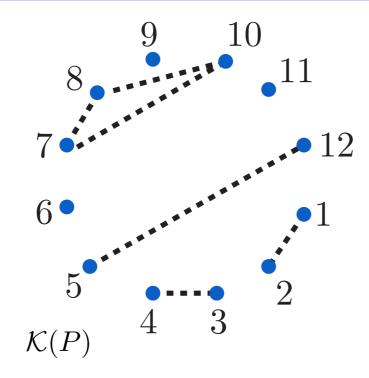
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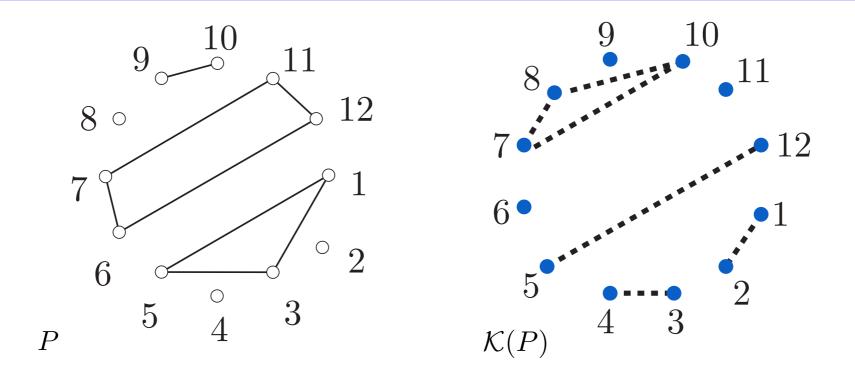
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where  $\mathcal{K}(P)$  is the Kreweras complement of P.

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

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

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\mathcal{P}(t_1^{(n)}t_2^{(n)}\cdots t_k^{(n)}) = \mathbb{P}\right) = \frac{k!(n-k-1)!}{n^{n-2}} \cdot \left(\prod_{B \in \mathbb{P}} \frac{|B|^{|B|-2}}{(|B|-1)!}\right) \cdot \left(\prod_{B \in \mathcal{K}(\mathbb{P})} \frac{|B|^{|B|-2}}{(|B|-1)!}\right),$$

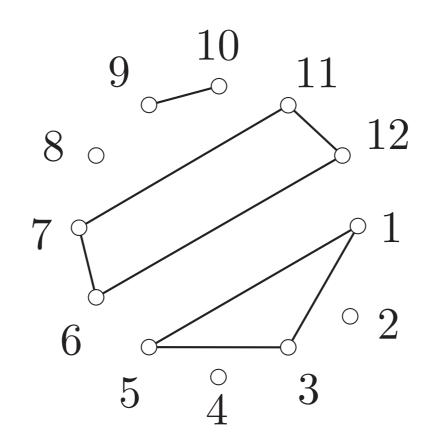
where  $\mathcal{K}(P)$  is the Kreweras complement of P.

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

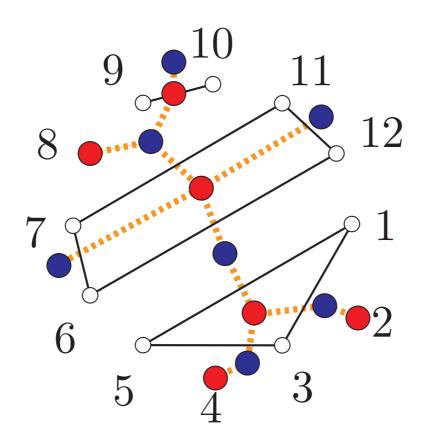
$$\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{t_{1}^{(n)}}{n} = (a, a+i) \text{ for some } a\right) = \frac{(n-2)!}{n^{n-2}} \cdot \frac{i^{i-2}}{(i-1)!} \cdot \frac{(n-i)^{(n-i-2)}}{(n-i-1)!} \sim \frac{C}{i^{3/2}}$$

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

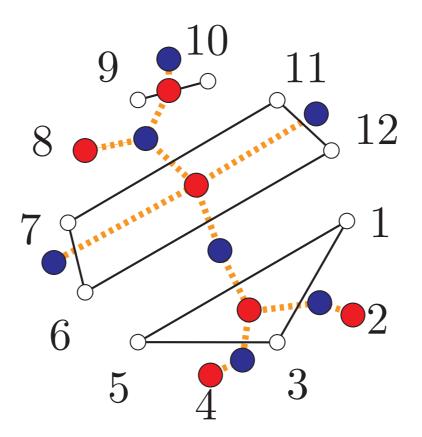






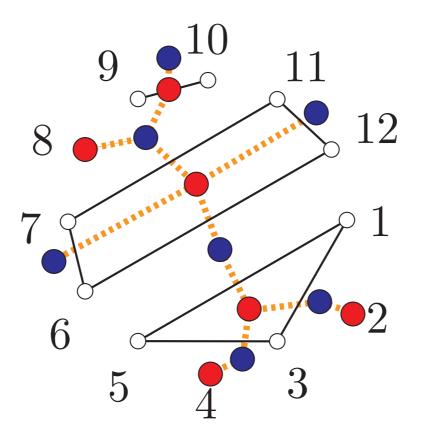






It follows that  $\mathcal{P}(t_1^{(n)}t_2^{(n)}\cdots t_k^{(n)})$  is coded by a bitype biconditioned Bienaymé–Galton–Watson (or simply generated) tree (n - k blue vertices and k + 1 red vertices)!

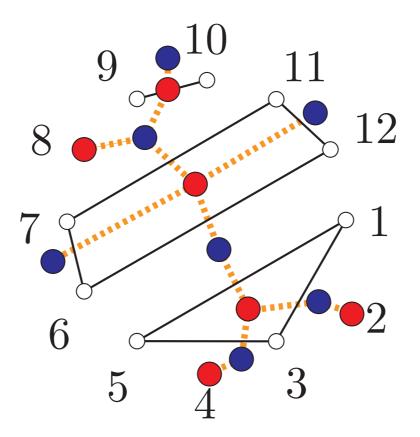




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We develop a new machinery to study limits of such random trees.

