# CONGRUENCE PROPERTIES OF DEPTHS IN SOME RANDOM TREES 

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#### Abstract

Consider a random recursive tree with $n$ vertices. We show that the number of vertices with even depth is asymptotically normal as $n \rightarrow \infty$. The same is true for the number of vertices of depth divisible by $m$ for $m=3,4$ or 5 ; in all four cases the variance grows linearly. On the other hand, for $m \geq 7$, the number is not asymptotically normal, and the variance grows faster than linear in $n$. The case $m=6$ is intermediate: the number is asymptotically normal but the variance is of order $n \log n$.

This is a simple and striking example of a type of phase transition that has been observed by other authors in several cases. We prove, and explain, this non-intuitive behaviour using a translation to a generalized Pólya urn.

Similar results hold for a random binary search tree; now the number of vertices of depth divisible by $m$ is asymptotically normal for $m \leq 8$ but not for $m \geq 9$, and the variance grows linearly in the first case both faster in the second. (There is no intermediate case.)

In contrast, we show that for conditioned Galton-Watson trees, including random labelled trees and random binary trees, there is no such phase transition: the number is asymptotically normal for every $m$.


## 1. Introduction

Given a rooted tree $T$, let $X_{j}(T)$ be the number of vertices of depth $j$ (i.e., of distance $j$ from the root). The sequence $\left(X_{j}\right)_{j=0}^{\infty}$ is called the profile of the tree and has been studied for various types of random trees by many authors, see e.g. $[1,7,8,14,15,16,21,30]$.

We will here study the congruence class of the depth modulo some given integer $m \geq 2$. Thus, let $X_{j}^{(m)}(T):=\sum_{k \equiv j(\bmod m)} X_{k}(T)$ be the number of vertices of depth congruent to $j$ modulo $m$. For example, $X_{0}^{(2)}(T)$ is the number of vertices of even depth. We further let $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}(T)$ denote the vector $\left(X_{0}^{(m)}(T), \ldots, X_{m-1}^{(m)}(T)\right)$.

The purpose of this paper is to study the asymptotic distribution as $n \rightarrow \infty$ of the random vector $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}\left(T_{n}\right)$ for some random trees $T_{n}$ with $n$ vertices. For a random recursive tree (RRT), see Section 2 for definitions,

[^0]we will show (Theorem 2.1) that $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}$ is asymptotically normal for $m \leq 6$ but not for $m \geq 7$; furthermore, the variance grows linearly for $m \leq 5$ but faster for $m \geq 6$. For a random binary search tree (BST), the result is similar (Theorem 2.7): $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}$ is asymptotically normal for $m \leq 8$, but not for $m \geq 9$; moreover, the variance grows linearly for $m \leq 8$ but faster for larger $m$. In contrast, for a conditioned Galton-Watson tree (CGWT), $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}$ is asymptotically normal for every $m$ (Theorem 2.12).

Note that the typical depths are of the order $\log n$ in a RRT or BST, but $\sqrt{n}$ in a CGWT. There is thus more room for smoothing between the congruence classes in the latter case, which may explain the asymptotic normality in that case, but we see no intuitive explanation for the difference between small and large $m$ for the RRT and BST.

We do not claim that the variables $X_{j}^{(m)}$ have any importance in applications, but they provide a simple and surprising example of a type of phase transition that has been observed in several similar combinatorial situations. One well-known such example is random $m$-ary search trees, see Chern and Hwang [11]; see also e.g. Mahmoud and Pittel [31], Lew and Mahmoud [29], Fill and Kapur [17], Chauvin and Pouyanne [9]. Other examples are random quadtrees, see Chern, Fuchs and Hwang [10], and random fragmentation trees, see Dean and Majumdar [12] and Janson and Neininger [26].

We will use a translation into generalized Pólya urns; for such urns, there is a general theorem describing the phase transition in terms of the size of the real part of the second largest eigenvalue, see Athreya and Karlin [2] or Athreya and Ney [3, §V.9]; see also Kesten and Stigum [27] and, for more details, [25]. The same type of phase transition in a related (and overlapping) setting is described in [23]. We hope that our simple example can help illustrate this surprising and non-intuitive phenomenon. It provides also an illustration of the results in [25] in a simple concrete situation.

We state the results in Section 2. Proofs are given in the following three sections, with one type of random trees in each. The proofs for RRT and BST in Sections 3 and 4 are very similar and uses generalized Pólya urns, while the proof for CGWT in Section 5 uses generating functions and singularity analysis. Finally, in Section 6 we show that the oscillations shown in the results for RRT and BST except for small $m$ are genuine and not only an artefact of the proof or of the normalization.

Acknowledgement. This research was mainly done during the workshop Probability theory on trees and analysis of algorithms at the Mathematisches Forschungsinstitut Oberwolfach in August 2004. I thank the participants, in particular Hsien-Kuei Hwang, for inspiring comments.

## 2. Definitions and Results

Let 1 denote the $m$-dimensional vector $(1, \ldots, 1)$. (We do not always distinguish between row and column vectors in our notation.)

We will occasionally deal with complex random variables. A complex Gaussian variable is a complex random variable $\zeta$ such that $\operatorname{Re} \zeta$ and $\operatorname{Im} \zeta$ are jointly Gaussian (i.e., normal). A complex Gaussian variable $\zeta$ is symmetric if and only if $\mathbb{E} \zeta=\mathbb{E} \zeta^{2}=0$; its distribution is then determined by the scale factor $\mathbb{E}|\zeta|^{2}$. See further [24, Section I.4].

The discrete Fourier transform on the group $\mathbb{Z}_{m}=\{0, \ldots, m-1\}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{f}(k)=\sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \omega^{k j} f(j) \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\omega=\omega_{m}:=e^{2 \pi \mathrm{i} / m}$.
All limits below are as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
2.1. Random recursive trees. A random recursive tree ( $R R T$ ) with $n$ vertices is a random rooted tree obtained by starting with a single root and then adding $n-1$ vertices one by one, each time joining the new vertex to a randomly chosen old vertex; the random choices are uniform and independent of each other. If the vertices are labelled $1,2, \ldots$, we then obtain a tree where the labels increase along each branch as we travel from the root; the random recursive tree can also be defined as a (uniform) randomly chosen such labelled tree. (The distribution of a random recursive tree differs from the distribution of a uniform random labelled tree.) See also the survey [33].

We state the main results for RRT in the following theorem, and add various details in the remarks after it.

Theorem 2.1. Let $T_{n}$ be a random recursive tree with $n$ vertices. Then, the following holds for $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}=\mathbf{X}^{(m)}\left(T_{n}\right)$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
(i) If $2 \leq m \leq 5$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{-1 / 2}\left(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m} \mathbf{1}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} N\left(0, \Sigma_{m}\right) \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for a covariance matrix $\Sigma_{m}$ given explicitly in (2.5)-(2.8).
(ii) If $m=6$, then

$$
(n \ln n)^{-1 / 2}\left(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m} \mathbf{1}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} N\left(0, \Sigma_{m}\right),
$$

where $\Sigma_{m}$ is given explicitly in (2.9).
(iii) For $m \geq 7$, let $\alpha=\cos (2 \pi / m)>1 / 2$ and $\beta=\sin (2 \pi / m)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{-\alpha}\left(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m} \mathbf{1}\right)-\operatorname{Re}\left(n^{\mathrm{i} \beta} \widetilde{W}_{m}\right) \xrightarrow{\text { a.s. }} 0 \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some complex random vector $\widetilde{W}_{m}=\left(\widetilde{Z}_{m} e^{-2 \pi j i / m}\right)_{j=0}^{m-1}$, where $\widetilde{Z}_{m}$ is a complex random variable. In particular, along any subsequence such that $\beta \ln n \bmod 2 \pi \rightarrow \gamma$ for some $\gamma \in[0,2 \pi]$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{-\alpha}\left(X_{j}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} \operatorname{Re}\left(e^{\mathrm{i}(\gamma-2 \pi j / m)} \widetilde{Z}_{m}\right), \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

jointly in $j=0, \ldots, m-1$.

Remark 2.2. The covariance matrices $\Sigma_{m}$ in (i) and (ii) are given by

$$
\begin{align*}
& \Sigma_{2}=\frac{1}{12}\left(\begin{array}{rr}
1 & -1 \\
-1 & 1
\end{array}\right)  \tag{2.5}\\
& \Sigma_{3}=\frac{1}{18}\left(\begin{array}{rrr}
2 & -1 & -1 \\
-1 & 2 & -1 \\
-1 & -1 & 2
\end{array}\right)  \tag{2.6}\\
& \Sigma_{4}=\frac{1}{48}\left(\begin{array}{rrrr}
7 & -1 & -5 & -1 \\
-1 & 7 & -1 & -5 \\
-5 & -1 & 7 & -1 \\
-1 & -5 & -1 & 7
\end{array}\right)  \tag{2.7}\\
& \Sigma_{5}=\frac{1}{25}\left(\begin{array}{rrrrr}
6 & 1 & -4 & -4 & 1 \\
1 & 6 & 1 & -4 & -4 \\
-4 & 1 & 6 & 1 & -4 \\
-4 & -4 & 1 & 6 & 1 \\
1 & -4 & -4 & 1 & 6
\end{array}\right)  \tag{2.8}\\
& \Sigma_{6}=\frac{1}{36}\left(\begin{array}{rrrrrr}
2 & 1 & -1 & -2 & -1 & 1 \\
1 & 2 & 1 & -1 & -2 & -1 \\
-1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & -1 & -2 \\
-2 & -1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & -1 \\
-1 & -2 & -1 & 1 & 2 & 1 \\
1 & -1 & -2 & -1 & 1 & 2
\end{array}\right) \tag{2.9}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that the matrices $\Sigma_{m}$ are circulant, i.e. invariant under a cyclic shift of both rows and columns. In particular, $X_{j}^{(m)}$ has the same asymptotic distribution for every $j$ (when $m \leq 6$ ).

Remark 2.3. The distribution of $\widetilde{Z}_{m}=\widetilde{Z}$ in (iii) is determined by the equalities in distribution

$$
\begin{align*}
& Z \stackrel{\mathrm{~d}}{=} \frac{m}{2} W^{\omega} \widetilde{Z}  \tag{2.10}\\
& Z \stackrel{\mathrm{~d}}{=} U^{\omega}\left(Z+\omega Z^{\prime}\right) \tag{2.11}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\omega=\alpha+\beta \mathrm{i}=e^{2 \pi \mathrm{i} / m}, Z^{\prime} \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} Z, W \sim \operatorname{Exp}(1), U \sim U(0,1)$, and $W, \widetilde{Z}$, $U, Z, Z^{\prime}$ are independent, together with $\mathbb{E} Z=1$.

The moments of $Z$ and $\widetilde{Z}$ are all finite, and can be obtained recursively from (2.11) and (2.10) together with $\mathbb{E} Z=1$. In particular,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E} Z & =1, & \mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z} & =\frac{2}{m \Gamma(1+\omega)} \\
\mathbb{E} Z^{2} & =\frac{2}{2-\omega}, & \mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z}^{2} & =\frac{8}{m^{2}(2-\omega) \Gamma(1+2 \omega)}, \\
\mathbb{E}|Z|^{2} & =\frac{2 \alpha}{2 \alpha-1}, & \mathbb{E}|\widetilde{Z}|^{2} & =\frac{8 \alpha}{m^{2}(2 \alpha-1) \Gamma(1+2 \alpha)} \\
\mathbb{E} Z^{3} & =\frac{6(1+\omega)}{\left(3-\omega^{2}\right)(2-\omega)}, & \mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z}^{3} & =\frac{48(1+\omega)}{m^{3}\left(3-\omega^{2}\right)(2-\omega) \Gamma(1+3 \omega)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Remark 2.4. It follows from [23, Section 2] that all moments of the variables in Theorem 2.1 stay bounded as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and thus moment convergence holds in (i) and (ii) and for convergent subsequences in (iii). In particular, the variance of each $X_{j}^{(m)}$ is of order $n$ for $m \leq 5$, but larger for $m \geq 6$.
Remark 2.5. The covariance matrix $\Sigma_{m}$ has rank $m-1$ when $m \leq 5$, while $\Sigma_{6}$ has rank 2 only. (Full rank is impossible because all row sums are 0 , reflecting the fact that the total number of vertices is non-random.)

Remark 2.6. The results for the RRT $T_{n}$ become simpler if we state them in terms of the discrete Fourier transform $\widehat{\mathbf{X}}^{(m)}=\left(\widehat{X}^{(m)}(k)\right)_{0}^{m-1}$ defined by (2.1). (See also [23], where the proof is based on this Fourier transform.) Clearly, $\widehat{X}^{(m)}(0)=\sum_{j} X_{j}^{(m)}=\left|T_{n}\right|=n$ is deterministic.

For $2 \leq m \leq 5$, Theorem 2.1 implies (and is equivalent to) the joint convergence

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{-1 / 2} \widehat{X}^{(m)}(k) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} V_{k}, \quad k=1, \ldots, m-1, \tag{2.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $V_{k}$ are complex (jointly) Gaussian variables such that, for $k, l \in$ $\{1, \ldots, m-1\}$, using (3.1) below,
(i) $V_{m-k}=\bar{V}_{k}$,
(ii) $\mathbb{E} V_{k}=0$,
(iii) $\mathbb{E}\left(V_{k} V_{l}\right)=0$ when $l \neq m-k$,
(iv) $\mathbb{E}\left|V_{k}\right|^{2}=\frac{1}{1-2 \operatorname{Re} \omega_{m}^{k}}=\frac{1}{1-2 \cos (2 \pi k / m)}$.

It follows that further:
(v) If $k=m / 2$ (and thus $\omega_{m}^{k}=-1$ ), then $V_{k}=\bar{V}_{k}$ is a symmetric real Gaussian variable.
(vi) If $k \neq m / 2$, then $\mathbb{E} V_{k}^{2}=0$ and thus $V_{k}$ is a symmetric complex Gaussian variable.
(vii) The Gaussian variables $V_{k}, 1 \leq k \leq m / 2$, are independent.

Note that the joint distribution of $V_{1}, \ldots, V_{m-1}$ is determined by (iv)-(vii) together with (i).

Similarly, for $m=6$,

$$
(n \ln n)^{-1 / 2} \widehat{X}^{(m)}(k) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} V_{k}, \quad k=1, \ldots, 5,
$$

where now, however, only $V_{1}$ and $V_{5}=\overline{V_{1}}$ are non-zero; $V_{1}$ is a symmetric complex Gaussian variable with $\mathbb{E}\left|V_{1}\right|^{2}=1$.

Finally, for $m \geq 7$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{-\omega_{m}} \widehat{X}^{(m)}(1) \xrightarrow{\text { a.s. }} \frac{m}{2} \widetilde{Z}_{m} \tag{2.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

while $n^{-\omega_{m}} \widehat{X}^{(m)}(k) \xrightarrow{\text { a.s. }} 0$ for $k=2, \ldots, m-2$.
2.2. Binary search trees. A binary search tree ( $B S T$ ) is constructed from a sequence $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ of distinct real numbers as follows, see e.g. [28, Section $6.2 .2]$. If $n=0$, the tree is empty. Otherwise, start with a root. (In computer applications, $x_{1}$ is stored in the root.) Then construct recursively two subtrees of the root by the same procedure applied to two subsequences of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ : the left subtree from the $x_{i}$ with $x_{i}<x_{1}$ and the right subtree from the $x_{i}$ with $x_{i}>x_{1}$. The number of vertices in the tree is thus $n$, and each vertex corresponds to an $x_{i}$.

A random BST is obtained by this construction applied to a sequence $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ in random order. (Since only the order properties of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ matter, we can let them be, for example, either a random permutation of $1, \ldots, n$ or $n$ i.i.d. random variables with a common continuous distribution.)

It is easily seen that a random BST can be grown by adding vertices one by one according to a Markov process similar to the definition of the RRT: Given a binary tree with $n$ vertices, there are $n+1$ possible positions for a new vertex, and we choose one of them at random (uniformly).

Theorem 2.7. Let $T_{n}$ be a random binary search tree with $n$ vertices. Then, the following holds for $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}=\mathbf{X}^{(m)}\left(T_{n}\right)$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
(i) If $2 \leq m \leq 8$, then

$$
n^{-1 / 2}\left(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m} \mathbf{1}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} N\left(0, \Sigma_{m}\right)
$$

for a covariance matrix $\Sigma_{m}$ given explicitly in Remark 2.8.
(ii) For $m \geq 9$, let $\alpha=2 \cos (2 \pi / m)-1>1 / 2$ and $\beta=2 \sin (2 \pi / m)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{-\alpha}\left(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m} \mathbf{1}\right)-\operatorname{Re}\left(n^{\mathrm{i} \beta} \widetilde{W}_{m}\right) \xrightarrow{\text { a.s. }} 0, \tag{2.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some complex random vector $\widetilde{W}_{m}=\left(\widetilde{Z}_{m} e^{-2 \pi j i / m}\right)_{j=0}^{m-1}$, where $\widetilde{Z}_{m}$ is a complex random variable. In particular, along any subsequence such that $\beta \ln n \bmod 2 \pi \rightarrow \gamma$ for some $\gamma \in[0,2 \pi]$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{-\alpha}\left(X_{j}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} \operatorname{Re}\left(e^{\mathrm{i}(\gamma-2 \pi j / m)} \widetilde{Z}_{m}\right), \tag{2.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

jointly in $j=0, \ldots, m-1$.

Remark 2.8. The covariance matrices $\Sigma_{m}$ in (i) are circulant and explicitly given by the following first rows:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
m=2: & \frac{1}{28}(1,-1) \\
m=3: & \frac{1}{45}(2,-1,-1) \\
m=4: & \frac{1}{336}(17,-3,-11,-3) \\
m=5: & \frac{1}{275}(16,1,-9,-9,1) \\
m=6: & \frac{1}{1260}(89,23,-37,-61,-37,23), \\
m=7: & \frac{1}{637}(62,27,-15,-43,-43,-15,27) \\
m=8: & \frac{1}{1344}(269,165,-11,-171,-235,-171,-11,165) .
\end{array}
$$

Remark 2.9. The distribution of $\widetilde{Z}_{m}=\widetilde{Z}$ in (ii) is determined by the equalities in distribution

$$
\begin{align*}
& Z \stackrel{\mathrm{~d}}{=} \frac{m}{2}(2 \omega-1) W^{2 \omega-1} \widetilde{Z},  \tag{2.16}\\
& Z \stackrel{\mathrm{~d}}{=} \omega U^{2 \omega-1}\left(Z+Z^{\prime}\right), \tag{2.17}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\omega=\omega_{m}=e^{2 \pi \mathrm{i} / m}, Z^{\prime} \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} Z, W \sim \operatorname{Exp}(1), U \sim U(0,1)$, and $W, \widetilde{Z}, U$, $Z, Z^{\prime}$ are independent, together with $\mathbb{E} Z=1$.

Again, the moments of $Z$ and $\widetilde{Z}$ are all finite, and can be obtained recursively from (2.17) and (2.16) together with $\mathbb{E} Z=1$. In particular,

$$
\begin{array}{rlrl}
\mathbb{E} Z & =1, & \mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z}=\frac{2}{m(2 \omega-1) \Gamma(2 \omega)}, \\
\mathbb{E} Z^{2} & =\frac{2 \omega^{2}}{4 \omega-1-2 \omega^{2}}, & \mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z}^{2} & =\frac{4}{m^{2}(2 \omega-1)^{2} \Gamma(4 \omega-1)} \mathbb{E} Z^{2}, \\
\mathbb{E}|Z|^{2} & =\frac{2}{4 \alpha-3}, & \mathbb{E}|\widetilde{Z}|^{2} & =\frac{4}{m^{2}(5-4 \alpha) \Gamma(4 \alpha-1)} \mathbb{E}|Z|^{2}, \\
\mathbb{E} Z^{3} & =\frac{8}{\left(3 \omega-1-\omega^{3}\right)\left(4 \omega-1-\omega^{2}\right)}, & \mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z}^{3}=\frac{8}{m^{3}(2 \omega-1)^{3} \Gamma(6 \omega-2)} \mathbb{E} Z^{3} .
\end{array}
$$

Remark 2.10. The proofs in [23, Section 2] apply to this situation too and show that all moments of the variables in Theorem 2.7 stay bounded as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and thus moment convergence holds in (i) and for convergent subsequences in (ii). In particular, the variance of each $X_{j}^{(m)}$ is of order $n$ for $m \leq 8$, but larger for $m \geq 9$.

Remark 2.11. Just as for the RRT case in Remark 2.6, the results become simpler if we state them in terms of the Fourier transform $\widehat{\mathbf{X}}^{(m)}$. Clearly, again $\widehat{X}^{(m)}(0)=\left|T_{n}\right|=n$.

Further, for $2 \leq m \leq 8$, (2.12) holds, where $V_{k}$ are complex Gaussian variables satisfying (i)-(iii) and (v)-(vii) in Remark 2.6 together with

$$
\left(\mathrm{iv}^{\prime}\right) \mathbb{E}\left|V_{k}\right|^{2}=\frac{1}{3-4 \cos (2 \pi k / m)}
$$

Finally, for $m \geq 9$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{-\left(2 \omega_{m}-1\right)} \widehat{X}^{(m)}(1) \xrightarrow{\text { a.s. }} \frac{m}{2} \widetilde{Z}_{m}, \tag{2.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

while $n^{-\left(2 \omega_{m}-1\right)} \widehat{X}^{(m)}(k) \xrightarrow{\text { a.s. }} 0$ for $k=2, \ldots, m-2$.
2.3. Conditioned Galton-Watson trees. A conditioned Galton-Watson tree ( $C G W T$ ) with $n$ vertices is a random tree obtained as the family tree of a Galton-Watson process conditioned on a given total population of $n$. (See e.g. $[1,13]$ for details.) The Galton-Watson process is defined using an offspring distribution; let $\xi$ denote a random variable with this distribution. We assume, as usual, $\mathbb{E} \xi=1$ (the Galton-Watson process is critical) and $0<\sigma^{2}=\operatorname{Var} \xi<\infty$. We assume further, for technical reasons, that $\mathbb{E} e^{a \xi}<\infty$ for some $a>0$. (Equivalently, the probability generating function $\varphi(z):=\mathbb{E} z^{\xi}$ is analytic in a disc with radius greater than 1.)

It is well-known [1] that the conditioned Galton-Watson trees are the same as the simply generated trees [32]. Many combinatorially interesting random trees are of this type, with different choices of $\xi$, for example labelled trees $\left(\xi \sim \operatorname{Po}(1), \sigma^{2}=1\right)$; ordered ( $=$ plane) trees $\left(\mathbb{P}(\xi=k)=2^{-k-1}\right.$, $\left.\sigma^{2}=2\right)$; binary trees $\left(\xi \sim \operatorname{Bi}(2,1 / 2), \sigma^{2}=1 / 2\right)$; complete binary trees $\left(\mathbb{P}(\xi=0)=\mathbb{P}(\xi=2)=1 / 2, \sigma^{2}=1\right)$.

It has been shown by Drmota and Gittenberger [14] that the profile of a CGWT converges, after normalization, to the local time of a Brownian excursion. For the congruence classes we have a simpler result. As in many other results, see e.g. [1, 14], different choices of $\xi$ only affects a scaling factor in the limit result.

Theorem 2.12. Let $T_{n}$ be a random conditioned Galton-Watson tree with $n$ vertices, with the offspring distribution given by a random variable $\xi$ such that $\mathbb{E} \xi=1, \sigma^{2}:=\operatorname{Var} \xi>0$ and $\mathbb{E} e^{a \xi}<\infty$ for some $a>0$. Then, for any fixed $m \geq 2$, the following holds for $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}=\mathbf{X}^{(m)}\left(T_{n}\right)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$
n^{-1 / 2}\left(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m} \mathbf{1}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} N\left(0, \Sigma_{m}\right)
$$

for a covariance matrix $\Sigma_{m}=\left(\sigma_{i j}\right)$ given explicitly by

$$
\sigma_{i, i+k}=\frac{\sigma^{2}}{12 m^{2}}\left(m^{2}-1-6 k(m-k)\right)
$$

for $0 \leq i \leq m-1,0 \leq k \leq m$ and $i+k$ taken modulo $m$.

Remark 2.13. The covariance matrices $\Sigma_{m}$ are circulant. For small $m$, they are explicitly given by the following first rows:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
m=2: & \frac{\sigma^{2}}{16}(1,-1) \\
m=3: & \frac{\sigma^{2}}{27}(2,-1,-1) \\
m=4: & \frac{\sigma^{2}}{64}(5,-1,-3,-1) \\
m=5: & \frac{\sigma^{2}}{25}(2,0,-1,-1,0) \\
m=6: & \frac{\sigma^{2}}{432}(35,5,-13,-19,-13,5)
\end{array}
$$

Remark 2.14. It follows from the proof in Section 5 that moment convergence holds in Theorem 2.12. In particular, the variance of each $X_{j}^{(m)}$ is of order $n$ for every $m$.
Remark 2.15. Note the curious fact that the asymptotic variance of $X_{j}^{(m)}$, $n \sigma^{2}\left(1-m^{-2}\right) / 12$, is almost independent of $m$.
Remark 2.16. For the Fourier transform $\widehat{\mathbf{X}}^{(m)}$, we again have $\widehat{X}^{(m)}(0)=$ $\left|T_{n}\right|=n$. Further, for any $m \geq 2$, (2.12) holds, where $V_{k}$ are complex Gaussian variables satisfying (i)-(iii) and (v)-(vii) in Remark 2.6 together with

$$
\left(\mathrm{iv}^{\prime \prime}\right) \mathbb{E}\left|V_{k}\right|^{2}=\frac{1}{\left|1-\omega_{m}^{k}\right|^{2}}=\frac{1}{2-2 \cos (2 \pi k / m)}
$$

Remark 2.17. As a comparison to the results above, suppose that we instead of considering depths modulo $m$ give each vertex a random label $0, \ldots, m-1$. Equivalently, we construct $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}=\left(X_{0}^{(m)}, \ldots, X_{m-1}^{(m)}\right)$ by randomly throwing $n$ balls into $m$ urns $0, \ldots, m-1$, letting $X_{j}^{(m)}$ be the number of balls in urn $j$. Then $X_{j}^{(m)} \sim \operatorname{Bi}(n, 1 / m)$, and the central limit theorem shows that $n^{-1 / 2}\left(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m} \mathbf{1}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} N\left(0, \Sigma_{m}\right)$ with $\Sigma=\left(m^{-1} \delta_{i j}-m^{-2}\right)_{i j}$. Moreover, the Fourier transform $\widehat{\mathbf{X}}^{(m)}$ is a sum of $n$ i.i.d. complex random variables and the central limit theorem shows that (2.12) holds, where now $V_{k}$ are complex Gaussian variables satisfying (i)-(iii) and (v)-(vii) in Remark 2.6 together with

$$
\left(\mathrm{iv}^{\prime \prime \prime}\right) \mathbb{E}\left|V_{k}\right|^{2}=1
$$

It follows from the formulas above that the asymptotic variance of $X_{j}^{(m)}\left(T_{n}\right)$ (for any $j$ ) for one of the random trees $T_{n}$ that we consider above is smaller the asymptotic variance of $X_{j}^{(m)}$ for a random labelling when $m$ is small, but not when $m$ is large. More precisely, it is smaller for RRT when $m \leq 5$ and for BST when $m \leq 7$; for CGWT, it is smaller when $m<12 / \sigma^{2}-1$. (Thus, if $\sigma^{2}>4$, then the asymptotic variance for the CGWT is always larger than for a random labelling.) For these values of $m$, and only these, we thus find less randomness in the collection of depths modulo $m$ than for a random labelling.

## 3. RANDOM RECURSIVE TREES

The definition of RRT in Section 2 shows immediately that the distribution of depths modulo $m$ is given by the following generalized Pólya urn: The urn contains balls with labels $0, \ldots, m-1$, representing the depths modulo $m$ of the vertices. Start with a single ball with label 0 in the urn. Then, repeatedly, draw a ball (at random) from the urn, replace it, and if the drawn ball had label $j$, add a new ball with label $j+1(\bmod m)$.

This urn was studied briefly in [25, Example 7.9], see also [23, Example 6.3]. We repeat the analysis in [25] with more details. Using the notation there we have, with the indices in $\{0, \ldots, m-1\}$ and addition taken modulo $m$,

$$
\xi_{i j}=\delta_{i+1, j}, \quad a_{j}=1, \quad A=\left(\xi_{j i}\right)_{i, j=0}^{m-1}=\left(\delta_{i, j+1}\right)_{i, j=0}^{m-1}
$$

(Here, $\xi_{i j}$ is the number of balls of type $j$ added when a ball of type $i$ is drawn; in this case, these are deterministic numbers. The matrix $A=\left(\xi_{j i}\right)$ describes the evolution.) The matrix $A$ is circulant and corresponds to a convolution operator in $\ell^{2}\left(\mathbb{Z}_{m}\right)$; hence, $A$ is diagonalized by the characters of the group $\mathbb{Z}_{m}$. More precisely, let $\omega=\omega_{m}:=e^{2 \pi \mathrm{i} / m}$. Then $A$ has left eigenvectors $u_{j}=\left(\omega^{j k}\right)_{k=0}^{m-1}$ and right eigenvectors $v_{j}=\left(m^{-1} \omega^{-j k}\right)_{k=0}^{m-1}$ with eigenvalues $\omega^{j}$, for $j=0, \ldots, m-1$. Thus, $A$ has $m$ simple eigenvalues, and the dominant eigenvalue $\lambda_{1}$ is $\omega^{0}=1$. (Note that the corresponding eigenvectors $u_{0}=\mathbf{1}$ and $v_{0}=m^{-1} \mathbf{1}$ are denoted $u_{1}$ and $v_{1}$ in [25].) We have chosen the normalizations such that $\left(u_{j}\right)_{j}$ and $\left(v_{j}\right)_{j}$ are dual bases; moreover $u_{0}$ and $v_{0}$ satisfy the normalizations in $[25,(2.2)-(2.3)]$.

The eigenvalues with second largest real part are $\lambda_{2}=\omega$ and $\lambda_{3}=\bar{\omega}$. Since $\operatorname{Re} \lambda_{2}=\cos (2 \pi / m)<1 / 2$ when $m \leq 5, \operatorname{Re} \lambda_{2}=\cos (2 \pi / m)=1 / 2$ when $m=6$, and $\operatorname{Re} \lambda_{2}=\cos (2 \pi / m)>1 / 2$ when $m \geq 7$, the trichotomy in Theorem 2.1 follows from [25, Theorems 3.22-3.24]. (The conditions (A1)(A6) there are easily verified, see [25, pp. 180-181].)

More precisely, in Case (i), the convergence to a normal distribution follows by [25, Theorems 3.22]. To find the covariance matrices $\Sigma_{m}$, we use [25, Lemma 5.3(iii)] (or [25, Lemma 5.3(i) or (ii), Lemma 5.4 and Lemma 5.5]). We have $D=m^{-1} I$ and thus $u_{j}^{\prime} D u_{k}=m^{-1} u_{j} \cdot u_{k}=0$ unless $j \equiv-k$ $(\bmod m)$, while $u_{m-k}^{\prime} D u_{k}=u_{k}^{*} D u_{k}=1$. (We use the notation in [25] that $u \cdot v:=u^{t} v$, without complex conjugation.) Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Sigma_{m}=\sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \frac{1}{1-2 \operatorname{Re} \omega_{m}^{j}} v_{j} v_{j}^{*} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and a straightforward evaluation yields the matrices (2.5)-(2.8). (Note that $\Sigma_{m}$ is rational also for $m=5$, although $\operatorname{Re} \omega_{5}=(\sqrt{5}-1) / 4$ is not. This is easily explained by Galois theory.)

The case $m=2$, with $A=\left(\begin{array}{ll}0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0\end{array}\right)$, is a special case of the so-called Friedman's urn [20] (studied already by Bernstein [4]), and the result follows
alternatively directly from Bernstein [4], [5] or Freedman [19]; see also [25, Example 3.27].

In Case (ii), $m=6$, we similarly find by [25, Lemma 5.3(iv)]

$$
\Sigma_{6}=v_{1} v_{1}^{*}+v_{5} v_{5}^{*}=6^{-2}\left(2 \operatorname{Re} \omega_{6}^{j-k}\right)_{j, k}
$$

which yields (2.9).
In Case (iii), (2.3) follows from [25, Theorem 3.24], with $d=0$ and $\lambda_{2}=\omega_{m}=\alpha+\mathrm{i} \beta$. Let us now denote the eigenvectors $u_{j}$ and $v_{j}$ belonging to $\omega^{j}$ by $u_{\omega^{j}}$ and $v_{\omega^{j}}$. Then [25, Theorem 3.24] further shows that $\widetilde{W}_{m}$ belongs to the linear span $E_{\omega}$ of $v_{\omega}=\left(m^{-1} \omega^{-j}\right)_{j}$; hence $\widetilde{W}_{m}=\left(\widetilde{Z}_{m} \omega^{-j}\right)_{j=0}^{m-1}$ as asserted for some complex random $\widetilde{Z}_{m}:=m^{-1} u_{\omega} \cdot \widetilde{W}_{m}$. By [25, Theorem 3.26], (2.10) holds with $Z=u_{\omega} \cdot W_{\omega}$, and $W_{\omega}$ as in [25, Theorem 3.1].

Recall that we start the urn with a single ball with label 0 . Let, as in [25, Theorem 3.9], $W_{\omega, i}$ be the limit random variable corresponding to $W_{\omega}$ if we instead start with a single ball of type $i$. By symmetry, $W_{\omega, i}$ is obtained from $W_{\omega, 0}=W_{\omega}$ by a cyclic shift of the components, and thus $Z_{i}:=u_{\omega} \cdot W_{\omega, i}=\omega^{i} Z$. By [25, Theorem 3.9(ii)],

$$
\begin{equation*}
W_{\omega, i} \stackrel{\mathrm{~d}}{=} U^{\omega}\left(W_{\omega, i}+\omega W_{\omega, i+1}^{\prime}\right) \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $W_{\omega, i+1}^{\prime}$ distributed as $W_{\omega, i+1}$ and independent of $W_{\omega, i}^{\prime}$. Consequently,

$$
Z_{i} \stackrel{\mathrm{~d}}{=} U^{\omega}\left(Z_{i}+Z_{i+1}^{\prime}\right) \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} U^{\omega}\left(Z_{i}+\omega Z_{i}^{\prime}\right)
$$

with $Z_{i}, Z_{i+1}^{\prime}, Z_{i}^{\prime}$ independent, and taking $i=0$ we obtain (2.11). Moreover, $\mathbb{E} Z=u_{\omega 0}=1$ by [25, Theorem 3.10].

Conversely, (2.11) implies (3.2) with $W_{\omega, i}=\omega^{i} Z v_{\omega}$, and thus [25, Theorem 3.9(iii)] implies that the distribution of $Z$ is determined by (2.11) and $\mathbb{E} Z$. The distribution of $\widetilde{Z}$ then is determined by (2.10).

For higher moments of $Z$, we take moments in (2.11). For example,

$$
\mathbb{E} Z^{2}=\mathbb{E} U^{2 \omega} \mathbb{E}\left(Z+\omega Z^{\prime}\right)^{2}=(1+2 \omega)^{-1}\left(\left(1+\omega^{2}\right) \mathbb{E} Z^{2}+2 \omega(\mathbb{E} Z)^{2}\right)
$$

which, using $\mathbb{E} Z=1$, gives $\mathbb{E} Z^{2}=2 /(2-\omega)$ after rearrangement. We leave the corresponding calculations for $\mathbb{E}|Z|^{2}$ and $\mathbb{E} Z^{3}$ to the reader. See also [25, Theorem 3.10].

The formulas for moments of $\widetilde{Z}$ then follow from (2.10), using $\mathbb{E} W^{z}=$ $\Gamma(1+z)$ when $\operatorname{Re} z>-1$; see also [25, Theorem 3.26] and [23, Section 2].

## 4. Binary search trees

To describe the profile of the random BST in terms of an urn model, we make a simple transformation. A BST with $n$ vertices has $n+1$ possible positions for a new vertex. We augment the tree by adding $n+1$ new vertices at these positions; the $n+1$ new vertices are called external and the $n$ original vertices are called internal. Thus every internal vertex has two children, and every external vertex has none.

Thus, $\left(X_{j}\right)_{j=0}^{\infty}$ is now the profile of the internal vertices. We similarly define $\left(Y_{j}\right)_{j=0}^{\infty}$ as the profile of the external vertices, and note that, since every internal vertex has exactly two children,

$$
2 X_{j-1}=X_{j}+Y_{j}, \quad j \geq 1
$$

For $j=0$ we instead have $X_{0}+Y_{0}=X_{0}=1$. (Recall that the root has no parent.) Passing to congruence classes modulo $m$ we thus have, for every $j$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 X_{j-1}^{(m)}-X_{j}^{(m)}=Y_{j}^{(m)}-\delta_{j 0} \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The growth of the augmented tree can be described as follows: Choose an external vertex at random, convert it to an internal vertex and add two new external vertices as its children. The distribution of depths for external vertices modulo $m$ is thus given by a generalized Pólya urn similar to the one in Section 3, with the difference that when we draw a ball with label $j$, we remove it and add two balls with label $j+1$. (We start with 2 balls with label 1; alternatively, we start with a single ball with label 0 and make one more draw.)

The matrix $A$ is now $\left(2 \delta_{i, j+1}-\delta_{i, j}\right)_{i, j=0}^{m-1}$, again with index addition modulo $m$. The eigenvectors are the same $u_{j}$ and $v_{j}$ as in Section 3, but the corresponding eigenvalue is now $2 \omega^{j}-1$. In particular, the largest eigenvalue (i.e., the one with largest real part) is $\lambda_{1}=1$ (as before), and the second largest are $\lambda_{2}=2 \omega-1$ and $\overline{\lambda_{2}}$, with real part $\operatorname{Re} \lambda_{2}=2 \cos (2 \pi / m)-1$.

Hence, the condition $\operatorname{Re} \lambda_{2}<1 / 2$ becomes $\cos (2 \pi / m)<3 / 4$, which holds for $m \leq 8$, while for $m \geq 9$ we have $\cos (2 \pi / m)>3 / 4$ and thus Re $\lambda_{2}>1 / 2$.

We now obtain, exactly as in Section 3, normal convergence of $\mathbf{Y}^{(m)}=$ $\left(Y_{0}^{(m)}, \ldots, Y_{m-1}^{(m)}\right)$ when $m \leq 8$. More precisely, by [25, Theorem 3.22 and Lemma 5.3(iii) or Lemmas 5.3(ii) and 5.4], (2.2) holds for $\mathbf{Y}^{(m)}$ with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Sigma_{m}=\sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \frac{\left|2 \omega^{j}-1\right|^{2}}{3-4 \operatorname{Re} \omega^{j}} v_{j} v_{j}^{*}=\sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \frac{5-4 \operatorname{Re} \omega^{j}}{3-4 \operatorname{Re} \omega^{j}} v_{j} v_{j}^{*} \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, by [25, Theorem 3.24], when $m \geq 9,(2.3)$ and (2.4) hold for $\mathbf{Y}^{(m)}$, for some $\widetilde{Z}_{m}$ and $\widetilde{W}_{m}=\left(\widetilde{Z}_{m} \omega^{-j}\right)_{j=0}^{m-1}$. Further, by $[25$, Theorems 3.26, 3.9 and 3.10],

$$
\begin{equation*}
Z \stackrel{\mathrm{~d}}{=} \frac{m}{2} W^{2 \omega-1} \widetilde{Z}_{m} \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Z$ satisfies (2.17) and $\mathbb{E} Z=1$.
To obtain the results for $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}$, we use (4.1). It is convenient to solve this convolution equation by taking the Fourier transform, which yields, for all $k$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(2 \omega^{k}-1\right) \widehat{X}^{(m)}(k)=\widehat{Y}^{(m)}(k)-1 \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the case $m \leq 8$, we have in analogy with Remark $2.6, \widehat{Y}^{(m)}(0)=n+1$ and the joint convergence

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{-1 / 2} \widehat{Y}^{(m)}(k) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} V_{k}, \quad k=1, \ldots, m-1, \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $V_{k}$ are complex Gaussian variables satisfying (i)-(iii) and (v)-(vii) in
Remark 2.6 together with

$$
\left(\mathrm{iv}{ }^{\prime \prime \prime \prime}\right) \mathbb{E}\left|V_{k}\right|^{2}=\frac{\left|2 \omega_{m}^{k}-1\right|^{2}}{3-4 \operatorname{Re} \omega_{m}^{k}}=\frac{5-4 \operatorname{Re} \omega_{m}^{k}}{3-4 \operatorname{Re} \omega_{m}^{k}}=\frac{5-4 \cos (2 \pi k / m)}{3-4 \cos (2 \pi k / m)}
$$

It follows immediately from (4.4) and (4.5) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
n^{-1 / 2} \widehat{X}^{(m)}(k) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}}\left(2 \omega^{k}-1\right)^{-1} V_{k}, \quad k=1, \ldots, m-1, \tag{4.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

which yields the statement in Remark 2.11 (for $m \leq 8$ ), with the meaning of $V_{k}$ changed.

Similarly, for $m \geq 9$, we have, with $\lambda:=2 \omega-1$, in analogy with (2.13), $n^{-\lambda} \widehat{Y}^{(m)}(1) \xrightarrow{\text { a.s. }} \frac{m}{2} \widetilde{Z}_{m}$, and thus

$$
n^{-\lambda} \widehat{X}^{(m)}(1)=n^{-\lambda} \lambda^{-1} \widehat{Y}^{(m)}(1)+o(1) \xrightarrow{\text { a.s. }} \lambda^{-1} \frac{m}{2} \widetilde{Z}_{m},
$$

while $n^{-\lambda} \widehat{X}^{(m)}(k) \xrightarrow{\text { a.s. }} 0$ for $k=2, \ldots, m-2$. We change the meaning of $\widetilde{Z}_{m}$ (replacing $\widetilde{Z}_{m}$ by $\lambda \widetilde{Z}_{m}$ ) and write this as (2.18), simultaneously changing (4.3) to (2.16).

Theorem 2.7 now follows by taking the inverse Fourier transform. When $m \leq 8$, we obtain (2.2) with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Sigma_{m}=\sum_{j=1}^{m-1} \frac{1}{3-4 \operatorname{Re} \omega_{m}^{j}} v_{j} v_{j}^{*} \tag{4.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

which gives the explicit values in Remark 2.8 (with some help of Maple).
Remark 4.1. The covariance matrices in (4.2) for the case of external vertices are circulant and explicitly given by the following first rows:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
m=2: & \frac{1}{28}(9,-9) \\
m=3: & \frac{1}{45}(14,-7,-7), \\
m=4: & \frac{1}{336}(97,-27,-43,-27), \\
m=5: & \frac{1}{275}(76,-9,-29,-29,-9), \\
m=6: & \frac{1}{1260}(353,11,-109,-157,-109,11), \\
m=7: & \frac{1}{637}(202,41,-43,-99,-99,-43,41), \\
m=8: & \frac{1}{1344}(685,309,-43,-363,-491,-363,-43,309) .
\end{array}
$$

## 5. Conditioned Galton-Watson trees

For Galton-Watson trees, we use generating functions and singularity analysis. See [6] for similar arguments. Given a tree $T$, we define its profile polynomial by

$$
\begin{equation*}
S(x)=S(x ; T):=\sum_{v \in T} x^{d(v)}=\sum_{j} x^{j} X_{j}(T) \tag{5.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

We will first find the asymptotic distribution of $S\left(x ; T_{n}\right)$ for $x$ on the unit circle (excluding the trivial case $x=1$ ). Note that $S(x)$ for $|x|=1$ is the Fourier transform of the sequence $\left(X_{j}\right)$ as a function on $\mathbb{Z}$.

Letting $\mathcal{T}$ be a random Galton-Watson tree, we define the generating functions, for $k \geq 0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{k}\left(t ; x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right):=\mathbb{E}\left(t^{|\mathcal{T}|} \prod_{i=1}^{k} S\left(x_{i} ; \mathcal{T}\right)\right) \tag{5.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $t$ and $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ are complex numbers. (It is also possible to regard $F_{k}$ as a formal power series, but we will need analytic functions.) We regard $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ as fixed and consider $F_{k}$ as a function of $t$. We consider only $x_{i}$ with $\left|x_{i}\right| \leq 1$; then $\left|S\left(x_{i} ; \mathcal{T}\right)\right| \leq|\mathcal{T}|$ and the expectation in (5.2) exists at least for $|t|<1$. Thus (5.2) defines $F_{k}$ as an analytic function of $t$ in the unit disc $|t|<1$. We will soon see that it can be continued to a larger domain.

Let $D_{0}$ be the degree of the root. If we condition on $D_{0}=q \geq 0$, then the random tree $\mathcal{T}$ consists of the root plus $q$ branches $T_{1}, \ldots, T_{q}$ that are independent and have the same distribution as $\mathcal{T}$. Further, $|\mathcal{T}|=1+\sum_{1}^{q}\left|T_{j}\right|$ and $S(x ; \mathcal{T})=1+\sum_{j=1}^{q} x S\left(x ; T_{j}\right)$, and thus, summing over all sequences $I_{0}, \ldots, I_{q}$ of disjoint (possibly empty) subsets of $\{1, \ldots, k\}$ with $\bigcup_{1}^{q} I_{j}=$ $\{1, \ldots, k\}$,

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{k} S\left(x_{i} ; \mathcal{T}\right)=\sum_{I_{0}, \ldots, I_{q}} \prod_{j=1}^{q} \prod_{i \in I_{j}} x_{i} S\left(x_{i} ; T_{j}\right)
$$

Consequently,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left(t^{|\mathcal{T}|} \prod_{i=1}^{k} S\left(x_{i} ; \mathcal{T}\right) \mid D_{0}=q\right) & =\mathbb{E} \sum_{I_{0}, \ldots, I_{q}} t \prod_{j=1}^{q}\left(t^{\left|T_{j}\right|} \prod_{i \in I_{j}} x_{i} S\left(x_{i} ; T_{j}\right)\right) \\
& =t \sum_{I_{0}, \ldots, I_{q}}\left(\prod_{i \notin I_{0}} x_{i}\right) \prod_{j=1}^{q} F_{\left|I_{j}\right|}\left(t ;\left\{x_{i}, i \in I_{j}\right\}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The terms in the latter sum do not depend on the order of $I_{1}, \ldots, I_{q}$. Thus, if $\sum_{I_{0}, \ldots, I_{l}}^{*}$ denotes the sum over such sequences $I_{0}, \ldots, I_{l}$ with $I_{1}, \ldots, I_{l}$ nonempty and in, say, lexicographic order, then, with $q^{\underline{l}}:=q(q-1) \cdots(q-l+1)$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathbb{E}\left(t^{|\mathcal{T}|} \prod_{i=1}^{k} S\left(x_{i} ; \mathcal{T}\right) \mid D_{0}=q\right) \\
& \quad=t \sum_{l=0}^{k} \sum_{I_{0}, \ldots, I_{l}}^{*} q^{l}\left(\prod_{i \notin I_{0}} x_{i}\right) \prod_{j=1}^{l} F_{\left|I_{j}\right|}\left(t ;\left\{x_{i}, i \in I_{j}\right\}\right) F_{0}(t)^{q-l} \tag{5.3}
\end{align*}
$$

Now take the expectation, i.e. multiply by $\mathbb{P}\left(D_{0}=q\right)$ and sum over $q$. We have, for $|z|<1$ at least, since $D_{0} \stackrel{\mathrm{~d}}{=} \xi$ and thus $\mathbb{E} z^{D_{0}}=\varphi(z)$,

$$
\sum_{q \geq l} q^{\underline{l}} z^{q-l} \mathbb{P}\left(D_{0}=q\right)=\mathbb{E}\left(D_{\overline{0}}^{\underline{l}} z^{D_{0}-l}\right)=\varphi^{(l)}(z)
$$

and thus (5.3) yields

$$
F_{k}\left(t ; x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=t \sum_{l=0}^{k} \sum_{I_{0}, \ldots, I_{l}}^{*} \varphi^{(l)}\left(F_{0}(t)\right)\left(\prod_{i \notin I_{0}} x_{i}\right) \prod_{j=1}^{l} F_{\left|I_{j}\right|}\left(t ;\left\{x_{i}, i \in I_{j}\right\}\right) .
$$

In particular, $k=0$ yields the well-known formula $F_{0}(t)=t \varphi\left(F_{0}(t)\right)$. The next two cases are

$$
\begin{aligned}
F_{1}(t ; x)= & t \varphi\left(F_{0}(t)\right)+t \varphi^{\prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right) x F_{1}(t ; x) \\
F_{2}(t ; x, y)=t \varphi\left(F_{0}(t)\right) & +t \varphi^{\prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right)\left(x F_{1}(t ; x)+y F_{1}(t ; y)+x y F_{2}(t ; x, y)\right) \\
& +t \varphi^{\prime \prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right) x y F_{1}(t ; x) F_{1}(t ; y)
\end{aligned}
$$

We thus have, recalling $t \varphi\left(F_{0}(t)\right)=F_{0}(t)$,

$$
\begin{align*}
& F_{1}(t ; x)=\frac{F_{0}(t)}{1-x t \varphi^{\prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right)},  \tag{5.4}\\
& F_{2}(t ; x, y)=\left(1-x y t \varphi^{\prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right)\right)^{-1}\left(F_{0}(t)+\right. \\
& t \varphi^{\prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right)\left(x F_{1}(t ; x)+y F_{1}(t ; y)\right)  \tag{5.5}\\
&\left.+t \varphi^{\prime \prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right) x y F_{1}(t ; x) F_{1}(t ; y)\right),
\end{align*}
$$

and in general

$$
\begin{align*}
F_{k}\left(t ; x_{1}, \ldots,\right. & \left.x_{k}\right)=\left(1-t\left(\prod_{i=1}^{k} x_{i}\right) \varphi^{\prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right)\right)^{-1} \\
& \times t \sum_{l=0}^{k} \sum_{I_{0}, \ldots, I_{l}}^{* *} \varphi^{(l)}\left(F_{0}(t)\right)\left(\prod_{i \notin I_{0}} x_{i}\right) \prod_{j=1}^{l} F_{\left|I_{j}\right|}\left(t ;\left\{x_{i}, i \in I_{j}\right\}\right) \tag{5.6}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\sum^{* *}$ means $\sum^{*}$ with the single term with $l=1$ and $\left|I_{1}\right|=k$ omitted. This gives recursively an explicit formula for each $F_{k}\left(t ; x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ as a rational function of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ and $t \varphi^{(l)}\left(F_{0}(t)\right), 0 \leq l \leq k$.

We say, see $[18$, Chapter VI], that a $\Delta$-domain is a domain of the type $\{z:|z|<1+\varepsilon,|\arg (z-1)|>\pi / 2-\delta\}$ for some (small) positive $\varepsilon$ and $\delta$, and that a function is $\Delta$-analytic if it is analytic in some $\Delta$-domain, or can be extended to such a function.

Suppose for simplicity in the sequel that $\xi$ is aperiodic. (The periodic case is similar with standard modifications as in [18, Chapter VI.7]; we omit the details.) Then, by a standard result in singularity analysis, see e.g. [18, Proposition VI.1], $F_{0}(t)$ is $\Delta$-analytic, with

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{0}(t)=1-\sqrt{2 / \sigma^{2}}(1-t)^{1 / 2}+O(1-t) \quad \text { as } t \rightarrow 1 \tag{5.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

(Here and below, we consider only $t$ in a suitable $\Delta$-domain.) It follows that in a (possibly smaller) $\Delta$-domain, $\left|F_{0}(t)\right|<1$ and hence $\left|\varphi^{\prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right)\right|<$ $\varphi^{\prime}(1)=1$. Further,

$$
\begin{align*}
\varphi^{\prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right) & =1+\varphi^{\prime \prime}(1)\left(F_{0}(t)-1\right)+O\left(F_{0}(t)-1\right)^{2} \\
& =1-\sqrt{2} \sigma(1-t)^{1 / 2}+O(1-t) \tag{5.8}
\end{align*}
$$

and it follows easily that $\left|t \varphi^{\prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right)\right|<1$ in a $\Delta$-domain. Hence, for every fixed $x$ with $|x| \leq 1,\left(1-x t \varphi^{\prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right)\right)^{-1}$ is $\Delta$-analytic, with

$$
\left(1-x t \varphi^{\prime}\left(F_{0}(t)\right)\right)^{-1}= \begin{cases}2^{-1 / 2} \sigma^{-1}(1-t)^{-1 / 2}+O(1), & \text { if } x=1  \tag{5.9}\\ O(1), & \text { if } x \neq 1\end{cases}
$$

Lemma 5.1. For $k \geq 1$ and any complex $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ with $\left|x_{i}\right| \leq 1$ and $x_{i} \neq 1, F_{k}\left(t ; x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ is $\Delta$-analytic (as a function of $t$ ), with

$$
\begin{equation*}
F_{k}\left(t ; x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=a_{k}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)(1-t)^{-(k-1) / 2}+O\left((1-t)^{-(k-2) / 2}\right) \tag{5.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a_{1}(x)=1 /(1-x)$, and for $k \geq 2, a_{k}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=0$ if $x_{1} \cdots x_{k} \neq 1$, while if $x_{1} \cdots x_{k}=1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{k}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=2^{-3 / 2} \sigma \sum_{\emptyset \subsetneq I \subsetneq\{1, \ldots, k\}} a_{|I|}\left(x_{i}: i \in I\right) a_{k-|I|}\left(x_{i}: i \notin I\right) . \tag{5.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, when $|x|=1, a_{2}(x, \bar{x})=2^{-1 / 2} \sigma|1-x|^{-2}$.
Proof. The $\Delta$-analyticity follows by (5.6) and induction, using the results just shown.

For $k=1$, the expansion (5.10) follows from (5.4), (5.7) and (5.8).
Similarly, (5.10) for $k=2$ follows from (5.5) together with (5.7), (5.8) and (5.9); this also yields $a_{2}(x, y)=0$ if $x y \neq 1$ and for $x y=1$, using also $\varphi^{\prime \prime}(1)=\sigma^{2}$,

$$
a_{2}(x, y)=2^{-1 / 2} \sigma^{-1}\left(F_{0}(1)+x a_{1}(x)+y a_{1}(y)+\sigma^{2} x y a_{1}(x) a_{1}(y)\right)
$$

which equals $2^{-1 / 2} \sigma|1-x|^{-2}$ because now $|x|=|y|=1$ and $y=\bar{x}$ and thus

$$
x a_{1}(x)+y a_{1}(y)=\frac{x}{1-x}+\frac{y}{1-y}=2 \operatorname{Re}\left(\frac{x}{1-x}\right)=-1
$$

For $k \geq 3$ we argue similarly. By induction, all terms in the sum in (5.6) are $O\left((1-t)^{-(k-2) / 2}\right)$. The result when $x_{1} \cdots x_{k} \neq 1$ follows immediately by (5.9).

Assume now $x_{1} \cdots x_{k}=1$. If $\left|I_{1}\right|=k-1$, then $I_{1}=\{1, \ldots, k\} \backslash x_{p}$ for some $p$, and thus $\prod_{i \in I_{1}} x_{i}=x_{p}^{-1} \neq 1$; hence by induction $F_{k-1}\left(t ;\left\{x_{i}: i \in I_{1}\right\}\right)=$ $O\left((1-t)^{-(k-3) / 2}\right)$. The leading terms in (5.6) are thus those with $l=2$ and $I_{0}=\emptyset, I_{2}=\{1, \ldots, k\} \backslash I_{1}$, which proves the claim, including (5.11), by another application of (5.9). (Note the factor $1 / 2$ because we assume that $I_{1}$ and $I_{2}$ are in order, but not necessarily $I$ and its complement.)

We next solve the recursion (5.11). Let $N\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ be the number of pairings of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ into $k / 2$ pairs of the type $\{x, \bar{x}\}$. (Thus $N\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=$ 0 if $k$ is odd.)

Lemma 5.2. Let $k \geq 2$. Suppose that $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k} \in\{x \in \mathbb{C}:|x|=1$ but $x \neq$ 1\}. Then

$$
a_{k}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=\frac{\Gamma((k-1) / 2)}{\sqrt{2 \pi} \sigma} N\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right) \prod_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\sigma}{1-x_{i}}
$$

Proof. For $k=2$, the result follows directly from Lemma 5.1.
For $k \geq 3$, we use induction. The result is trivial if $x_{1} \cdots x_{k} \neq 1$. Hence, we assume $x_{1} \cdots x_{k}=1$ and use (5.11). First, note that it suffices to consider $I$ with $|I|$ even. In fact, if $|I|$ is odd and $|I| \geq 3$, then $N_{|I|}\left(x_{i}: i \in I\right)=0$, and thus $a_{|I|}\left(x_{i}: i \in I\right)=0$ by induction. If $|I|=1$, then $I=\left\{x_{p}\right\}$ for some $p$. Since $\prod_{i \notin I_{1}} x_{i}=x_{p}^{-1} \neq 1$, we have $N_{k-|I|}\left(x_{i}: i \notin I\right)=0$, and thus by induction $a_{k-|I|}\left(x_{i}: i \notin I\right)=0$. Similarly, we may assume that $k-|I|$ is even.

The result thus holds when $k$ is odd (with $a_{k}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=0$ ).
Now let $k$ be even, $k=2 l$ with $l \geq 2$. We use induction on the right hand side of (5.11). Say that a pairing of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ is good if each pair consist of two conjugate numbers. Note that $N_{|I|}\left(x_{i}: i \in I\right) N_{k-|I|}\left(x_{i}: i \notin I\right)$ equals the number of pairs $(\alpha, \beta)$ where $\alpha$ is a good pairing of $\left(x_{i}: i \in I\right)$ and $\beta$ is a good pairing of $\left(x_{i}: i \notin I\right)$. Each such pair $(\alpha, \beta)$ defines a good pairing of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$, and conversely, each good pairing of $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ splits into good pairings $\alpha$ and $\beta$ in $2^{l}-2$ ways: $\binom{l}{j}$ ways with $|I|=2 j$ for each $j=1, \ldots, l-1$. Consequently, (5.11) yields,

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{k}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=2^{-3 / 2} \sigma \sum_{j=1}^{l-1}\binom{l}{j} & N\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right) \\
& \times \frac{\Gamma(j-1 / 2) \Gamma(l-j-1 / 2)}{2 \pi \sigma^{2}} \prod_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\sigma}{1-x_{i}}
\end{aligned}
$$

To complete the induction step, it is now sufficient to verify

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{l-1}\binom{l}{j} \Gamma(j-1 / 2) \Gamma(l-j-1 / 2)=4 \sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(l-1 / 2)
$$

for $l \geq 2$. This is an immediate consequence of the binomial convolution

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{j=0}^{l}\binom{l}{j} \Gamma(j-1 / 2) \Gamma(l-j-1 / 2)=l!\sum_{j=0}^{l} \frac{\Gamma(j-1 / 2)}{j!} \frac{\Gamma(l-j-1 / 2)}{(l-j)!} \\
& =l!\sum_{j=0}^{l}(-1)^{l} \Gamma(-1 / 2)^{2}\binom{1 / 2}{j}\binom{1 / 2}{l-j}=l!(-1)^{l} \Gamma(-1 / 2)^{2}\binom{1}{l}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

when $l \geq 2$, since the terms with $j=0$ and $j=l$ both are $\Gamma(-1 / 2) \Gamma(l-$ $1 / 2)=-2 \sqrt{\pi} \Gamma(l-1 / 2)$.
Lemma 5.3. Let $k \geq 1$. Suppose that $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k} \in\{x \in \mathbb{C}:|x|=1$ but $x \neq$ 1\}. Then

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(S\left(x_{1} ; T_{n}\right) \cdots S\left(x_{k} ; T_{n}\right)\right)=N\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)\left(\prod_{i=1}^{k} \frac{\sigma}{1-x_{i}}\right) n^{k / 2}+O\left(n^{(k-1) / 2}\right)
$$

Proof. By (5.4),

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(S\left(x_{1} ; T_{n}\right) \cdots S\left(x_{k} ; T_{n}\right)\right)=\frac{\left[t^{n}\right] F_{k}\left(t ; x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)}{\mathbb{P}(|\mathcal{T}|=n)}=\frac{\left[t^{n}\right] F_{k}\left(t ; x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)}{\left[t^{n}\right] F_{0}(t)} .
$$

We obtain from (5.10) by standard singularity analysis, see e.g. [18, Chapter VI ], that for $k \geq 2$,

$$
\left[t^{n}\right] F_{k}\left(t ; x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)=\frac{a_{k}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)}{\Gamma((k-1) / 2)} n^{(k-3) / 2}+O\left(n^{(k-4) / 2}\right)
$$

while for $k=1$,

$$
\left[t^{n}\right] F_{1}(t ; x)=O\left(n^{-3 / 2}\right)
$$

Similarly, (5.7) yields, as is well-known,

$$
\left[t^{n}\right] F_{0}(t)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2 \pi} \sigma} n^{-3 / 2}+O\left(n^{-5 / 2}\right)
$$

The result follows from these formulas and Lemma 5.2.
We can now identify the asymptotic moments and thus the asymptotic distribution of $S\left(x ; T_{n}\right)$.
Theorem 5.4. Let $U(x)$ be a family of complex Gaussian random variables, defined for $|x|=1$ but $x \neq 1$, such that
(i) $U(x)$ is symmetric complex Gaussian when $\operatorname{Im} x \neq 0$,
with $\mathbb{E}|U(x)|^{2}=1 /|1-x|^{2}$;
(ii) $U(x)$ is symmetric real Gaussian when $\operatorname{Im} x=0$ (i.e., when $x=-1$ ), with $\mathbb{E}|U(x)|^{2}=1 /|1-x|^{2}$;
(iii) $U(\bar{x})=\overline{U(x)}$;
(iv) the variables $U(x), \operatorname{Im} x \geq 0$, are independent.

Then, for the CGWT, $S\left(x ; T_{n}\right) / \sqrt{n} \xrightarrow{\mathrm{~d}} \sigma U(x)$, jointly for all such $x$.
Proof. Note that the assumptions imply that $\mathbb{E} U(x) U(y)=1 /|1-x|^{2}$ if $x y=1$ (and thus $y=\bar{x}$ ), but $\mathbb{E} U(x) U(y)=0$ otherwise. By Lemma 5.3 and the formula [24, Theorem 1.28] for joint moments of Gaussian variables (known as Wick's theorem),

$$
n^{-k / 2} \mathbb{E}\left(S\left(x_{1} ; T_{n}\right) \cdots S\left(x_{k} ; T_{n}\right)\right) \rightarrow \sigma^{k} \mathbb{E}\left(U\left(x_{1}\right) \cdots U\left(x_{k}\right)\right)
$$

Replacing one or several $x_{i}$ by their conjugates, we see that the same holds if we replace some $S$ and $U$ by their conjugates. Hence the result holds by the method of moments (applied to the real and imaginary parts).

Proof of Theorem 2.12. As remarked above, for any tree $T$, the numbers $S(x ; T)$ for $|x|=1$ form the Fourier transform of the sequence $\left(X_{j}(T)\right)$. It follows that the discrete Fourier transform $\widehat{\mathbf{X}}^{(m)}$ of $\mathbf{X}^{(m)}(T)$ equals the vector $\left(S\left(\omega^{k} ; T\right)\right)_{k=0}^{m-1}$, where $\omega=\omega_{m}$, cf. (2.1) and (5.1). Hence, by Fourier inversion,

$$
X_{j}(T)=\frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \omega^{-j k} S\left(\omega^{k} ; T\right)
$$

Theorem 5.4 thus implies, since trivially $S\left(1 ; T_{n}\right)=n$,

$$
n^{-1 / 2}\left(X_{j}\left(T_{n}\right)-\frac{n}{m}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} Z_{j}:=\frac{\sigma}{m} \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \omega^{-j k} U\left(\omega^{k}\right),
$$

jointly for all $j$. Since the variables $U\left(\omega^{k}\right)$ are jointly (complex) Gaussian, the variables $Z_{j}$ are too; moreover, each $Z_{j}$ is real. Clearly, $\mathbb{E} Z_{j}=0$, and the covariance matrix is given by

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}\left(Z_{i} Z_{j}\right)=\mathbb{E}\left(Z_{i} \overline{Z_{j}}\right) & =\frac{\sigma^{2}}{m^{2}} \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \omega^{(j-i) k} \mathbb{E}\left|U\left(\omega^{k}\right)\right|^{2} \\
& =\frac{\sigma^{2}}{m^{2}} \sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \omega^{(j-i) k}\left|1-\omega^{k}\right|^{-2} \tag{5.12}
\end{align*}
$$

To evaluate this sum, define a function $f$ on the group $\mathbb{Z}_{m}=\{0, \ldots, m-1\}$ by $f(j)=j-(m-1) / 2$. Then its Fourier transform is

$$
\widehat{f}(k)=\sum_{j=0}^{m-1}\left(j-\frac{m-1}{2}\right) \omega^{j k}=\frac{m}{\omega^{k}-1}, \quad k \neq 0
$$

while $\widehat{f}(0)=0$.
Let further $g:=f * \check{f}$ on $\mathbb{Z}_{m}$, where $\check{f}(i)=f(-i)=f(m-i)$, i.e. $g(j)=\sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{m}} f(j+i) f(i)$, with $j+i$ taken modulo $m$. Then $\widehat{g}(k)=$ $|\widehat{f}(k)|^{2}=m^{2}\left|\omega^{k}-1\right|^{-2}, k \neq 0$, and thus, by Fourier inversion again,

$$
\sum_{k=1}^{m-1} \omega^{(j-i) k}\left|1-\omega^{k}\right|^{-2}=m^{-2} \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} \omega^{(j-i) k} \widehat{g}(k)=m^{-1} g(i-j)
$$

Hence, by (5.12), $\mathbb{E}\left(Z_{i} Z_{j}\right)=\sigma^{2} m^{-3} g(i-j)$. It remains only to evaluate $g$. For $0 \leq j<m$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(j) & =\sum_{i=0}^{m-1-j}(j+i) i+\sum_{i=m-j}^{m-1}(j+i-m) i-m\left(\frac{m-1}{2}\right)^{2} \\
& =m \frac{m^{2}-1}{12}-m \frac{j(m-j)}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## 6. Oscillations

In Case (iii) of Theorem $2.1(m \geq 7)$, we do not have convergence in distribution: the sequence of random vectors $n^{-\alpha}\left(\mathbf{X}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m} \mathbf{1}\right), n=$ $1,2, \ldots$, is tight and thus suitable subsequences converge as is shown explicitly in (2.4), but different subsequences may have different limits, and thus $n^{-\alpha}\left(X_{0}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m} \mathbf{1}\right)$, for example, does not have a limit distribution. Indeed, suppose that $n^{-\alpha}\left(X_{0}^{(m)}-\frac{n}{m} \mathbf{1}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} V$, say. Then, by $(2.4), \operatorname{Re}\left(e^{\mathrm{i} \gamma} \widetilde{Z}_{m}\right) \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} V$ for every $\gamma \in[0,2 \pi]$. In particular, $\operatorname{Re}\left(e^{\mathrm{i} \gamma} \mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z}_{m}\right)=\mathbb{E} \operatorname{Re}\left(e^{\mathrm{i} \gamma} \widetilde{Z}_{m}\right)=\mathbb{E} V$ is independent of $\gamma \in[0,2 \pi]$, which is a contradicion because $\mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z}_{m} \neq 0$ by Remark 2.3.

Nevertheless, it is conceivable (although implausible) that $X_{0}^{(m)}$ has a limit distribution if we choose the norming constants carefully, i.e. that $a_{n}\left(X_{0}^{(m)}-b_{n}\right) \xrightarrow{\mathrm{d}} V$ for some non-degenerate $V$ and real constants $a_{n}>0$ and $b_{n}$. It then would follow from (2.4) that $\operatorname{Re}\left(e^{\mathrm{i} \gamma} \widetilde{Z}_{m}\right) \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} a_{\gamma} V+b_{\gamma}$ for every $\gamma \in[0,2 \pi]$ and some real constants $a_{\gamma} \geq 0$ and $b_{\gamma}$, see e.g. [22, Section 9.2]. In other words, $\operatorname{Re}\left(e^{\mathrm{i} \gamma} \widetilde{Z}_{m}\right)$ would have a distribution of the same type for every $\gamma$, except when it is degenerate. We conjecture that this does not happen.

Conjecture 6.1. For $R R T$ and every $m \geq 7$, there are oscillations in Theorem 2.1 (iii); $a_{n}\left(X_{0}^{(m)}-b_{n}\right)$ does not have a non-degenerate limit distribution for any sequence of norming constants $a_{n} \geq 0$ and $b_{n}$. The same holds for $B S T$ and every $m \geq 9$.

We can verify this conjecture in many cases by a general result.
Proposition 6.2. Let $Z$ be a complex random variable such that $\mathbb{E}|Z|^{3}<$ $\infty$. Suppose that there exists a random variable $V$ and, for every $\gamma \in[0,2 \pi]$, some real constants $a_{\gamma} \geq 0$ and $b_{\gamma}$ such that $\operatorname{Re}\left(e^{\mathrm{i} \gamma} Z\right) \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} a_{\gamma} V+b_{\gamma}$. Then either
(i) $Z \stackrel{\mathrm{~d}}{=} a W+b$ for some real random variable $W$ and some complex constants a and $b$, and thus $\left|\mathbb{E}(Z-\mathbb{E} Z)^{2}\right|=\mathbb{E}|Z-\mathbb{E} Z|^{2}$; or
(ii) $\mathbb{E}(Z-\mathbb{E} Z)^{3}=\mathbb{E}(Z-\mathbb{E} Z)^{2} \overline{(Z-\mathbb{E} Z)}=0$.

Proof. If all $a_{\gamma}=0$, then $\operatorname{Re}\left(e^{\mathrm{i} \gamma}(Z-\mathbb{E} Z)\right)=0$ a.s. for every $\gamma$, and it follows by the Cramér-Wold device that $Z=\mathbb{E} Z$ a.s., a special case of (i).

Thus assume that some $a_{\gamma}>0$. Then $\mathbb{E}|V|^{3}<\infty$. By replacing $Z$ by $Z-\mathbb{E} Z$ and $V$ by $V-\mathbb{E} V$ (changing $b_{\gamma}$ accordingly), we may assume that $\mathbb{E} Z=\mathbb{E} V=0$, and thus $b_{\gamma}=0$. If $V=0$ a.s., then, by the Cramér-Wold device again, $Z=0$ a.s., and (i) holds. Assume thus $\mathbb{E} V^{2}>0$; rescaling $V$ we may assume $\mathbb{E} V^{2}=1$. Define

$$
\begin{aligned}
X_{\gamma} & :=\operatorname{Re}\left(e^{\mathrm{i} \gamma} Z\right) \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{=} a_{\gamma} V \\
Z_{\gamma} & :=2 e^{\mathrm{i} \gamma} X_{\gamma}=e^{2 \mathrm{i} \gamma} Z+\bar{Z}
\end{aligned}
$$

We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{E} Z_{\gamma}^{2}=4 e^{2 \mathrm{i} \gamma} \mathbb{E} X_{\gamma}^{2}=4 e^{2 \mathrm{i} \gamma} a_{\gamma}^{2} \\
& \mathbb{E} Z_{\gamma}^{3}=8 e^{3 \mathrm{i} \gamma} \mathbb{E} X_{\gamma}^{3}=8 e^{3 \mathrm{i} \gamma} a_{\gamma}^{3} \mathbb{E} V^{3}
\end{aligned}
$$

and thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\mathbb{E} Z_{\gamma}^{3}\right)^{2}=\left(\mathbb{E} V^{3}\right)^{2}\left(\mathbb{E} Z_{\gamma}^{2}\right)^{3} \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathbb{E} Z_{\gamma}^{2}=\mathbb{E}\left(e^{2 \mathrm{i} \gamma} Z+\bar{Z}\right)^{2}=e^{4 \mathrm{i} \gamma} \mathbb{E} Z^{2}+2 e^{2 \mathrm{i} \gamma} \mathbb{E}|Z|^{2}+\mathbb{E} \bar{Z}^{2},  \tag{6.2}\\
& \mathbb{E} Z_{\gamma}^{3}=e^{6 \mathrm{i} \gamma} \mathbb{E} Z^{3}+3 e^{4 \mathrm{i} \gamma} \mathbb{E}\left(Z^{2} \bar{Z}\right)+3 e^{2 \mathrm{i} \gamma} \mathbb{E}\left(Z \bar{Z}^{2}\right)+\mathbb{E} \bar{Z}^{3} \tag{6.3}
\end{align*}
$$

Hence, $\mathbb{E} Z_{\gamma}^{2}$ and $\mathbb{E} Z_{\gamma}^{3}$ are polynomials $p_{2}\left(e^{2 \mathrm{i} \gamma}\right)$ and $p_{3}\left(e^{2 \mathrm{i} \gamma}\right)$ in $e^{2 \mathrm{i} \gamma}$ of degrees at most 2 and 3 . By (6.1),

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{3}(z)^{2}=\left(\mathbb{E} V^{3}\right)^{2} p_{2}(z)^{3} \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $z$ with $|z|=1$, and thus for every complex $z$.
If $\mathbb{E} V^{3}=0$, then $\mathbb{E} Z_{\gamma}^{3}=0$ by (6.1) and thus (ii) holds by (6.3).
Suppose now $\mathbb{E} V^{3} \neq 0$. If $\mathbb{E} Z^{2}=0$, then $p_{2}(z)$ has degree 1 or 0 by (6.2). Degree 1 is impossible by (6.4), and thus $\mathbb{E}|Z|^{2}=0$ by ( 6.2 ) so $Z=0$ a.s., and both (i) and (ii) hold.

Finally, if $\mathbb{E} V^{3} \neq 0$ and $\mathbb{E} Z^{2} \neq 0$, then (6.4) implies that $p_{2}$ has a double root, so its discriminant $\left(\mathbb{E}|Z|^{2}\right)^{2}-\mathbb{E} Z^{2} \mathbb{E} \bar{Z}^{2}=0$, and $\left|\mathbb{E} Z^{2}\right|=\mathbb{E}|Z|^{2}$. It follows that the argument of $Z^{2}$ is constant a.s., and thus (i) holds.

Returning to Theorem 2.1(iii), we can use the moments computed in Remark 2.3. Problem 6.2 shows that there really are oscillations as conjectured in Conjecture 6.1 , as soon as $\left|\mathbb{E}\left(\widetilde{Z}_{m}-\mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z}_{m}\right)^{2}\right|<\mathbb{E}\left|\widetilde{Z}_{m}-\mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z}_{m}\right|^{2}$ and $\mathbb{E}\left(\widetilde{Z}_{m}-\mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z}_{m}\right)^{3} \neq 0$.

It should be possible to verify this for all $m \geq 7$, perhaps using asymptotic expansions for large $m$, but for simplicity we have resorted to numerical verification (by Maple) for $m \leq 100$. We have also done the same for BST and Theorem 2.7(ii), using the moments given in Remark 2.9. We thus conclude that Conjecture 6.1 holds for RRT at least for $7 \leq m \leq 100$, and for BST at least for $9 \leq m \leq 100$.

Remark 6.3. The fact that $\mathbb{E}\left(\widetilde{Z}_{m}-\mathbb{E} \widetilde{Z}_{m}\right)^{3} \neq 0$ also implies by (6.3) that the subsequence limit $X_{\gamma}:=\operatorname{Re}\left(e^{\mathrm{i} \gamma} Z\right)$ has a non-zero third central moment, except for at most 6 values of $\gamma \in[0,2 \pi)$; in particular, $X_{\gamma}$ is not normal except possibly for a few exceptional $\gamma$. Presumably, these too could be eliminated by considering fourth or fifth moments, but we have not pursued that.

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[^0]:    Date: September 21, 2005; revised June 15, 2006.
    2000 Mathematics Subject Classification. 60C05; 05C05.
    Key words and phrases. random recursive tree, random, binary search tree, conditioned Galton-Watson tree, generalized Polya urn, depths of vertices.

