

ON GENERAL SUBTREES OF A CONDITIONED GALTON–WATSON TREE

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ABSTRACT. We show that the number of copies of a given rooted tree in a conditioned Galton–Watson tree satisfies a law of large numbers under a minimal moment condition on the offspring distribution.

1. INTRODUCTION

Let \mathcal{T}_n be a random conditioned Galton–Watson tree with n nodes, defined by an offspring distribution ξ with mean $\mathbb{E}\xi = 1$, and let \mathbf{t} be a fixed ordered rooted tree. We are interested in the number of copies of \mathbf{t} as a (general) subtree of \mathcal{T}_n , which we denote by $N_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)$. For details of these and other definitions, see Section 2. Note that we consider subtrees in a general sense. (Thus, e.g., not just fringe trees; for them, see similar results in [9].)

The purpose of the present paper is to show the following law of large numbers under minimal moment assumptions. Let $n_{\mathbf{t}}(T)$ be the number of rooted copies of \mathbf{t} in a tree T , i.e., copies with the root at the root of T . Further, let $\Delta(\mathbf{t})$ be the maximum outdegree in \mathbf{t} .

Theorem 1.1. *Let \mathbf{t} be a fixed ordered tree, and let \mathcal{T}_n be a conditioned Galton–Watson tree defined by an offspring distribution ξ with $\mathbb{E}\xi = 1$ and $\mathbb{E}\xi^{\Delta(\mathbf{t})} < \infty$. Also, let \mathcal{T} be a Galton–Watson tree with the same offspring distribution. Then, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,*

$$N_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)/n \xrightarrow{L^1} \mathbb{E}n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}), \tag{1.1}$$

where the limit is finite and given explicitly by (3.2) below.

Equivalently,

$$N_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)/n \xrightarrow{p} \mathbb{E}n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}), \tag{1.2}$$

and

$$\mathbb{E}N_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)/n \rightarrow \mathbb{E}n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}). \tag{1.3}$$

The fact that (1.1) is equivalent to (1.2)–(1.3) is an instance of the general fact that for any random variables, convergence in L^1 is equivalent to convergence in probability together with convergence of the means of the absolute values (i.e., in this case, with non-negative variables, the means); see e.g. [6, Theorem 5.5.4]. We nevertheless state both versions for convenience.

Chyzak, Drmota, Klausner and Kok [1] (see also [2, Section 3.3]) considered patterns in random trees; their patterns differ from the subgraph counts above in that some external vertices are added to \mathbf{t} , and that one only considers copies

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of \mathbf{t} in a tree T such that each internal vertex in the copy has the same degree in T as in \mathbf{t} (counting also edges to external vertices); equivalently, each vertex in \mathbf{t} is equipped with a number, and one considers only copies of \mathbf{t} where the vertex degrees match these numbers. (Another difference is that [1] consider unrooted trees, but the proof proceeds by first considering rooted [planted] trees. Furthermore, only uniformly random labelled trees are considered in [1], but the proofs extend to suitable more general conditioned Galton–Watson trees, as remarked in [1] and shown explicitly in [11; 12].) It was shown in Chyzak, Drmota, Klausner and Kok [1] that the number of occurrences of such a pattern is asymptotically normal, with asymptotic mean and variance both of the order n (except that the variance might be smaller in at least one exceptional degenerate case), which of course entails a law of large numbers. Moreover, [1] discuss briefly generalizations, including subtrees without further degree conditions as in the present paper; they expect asymptotic normality to hold in this case too, but it seems that their method, which is based on setting up and analyzing a system of functional equations for generating functions, in general would require extensions to infinite systems, which as far as we know has not been pursued. (See [4] for a related problem.) See further Section 5.

Our method is probabilistic, and quite different from the analysis of generating functions in [1].

2. NOTATION

All trees are rooted and ordered. The root of a tree T is denoted $o = o_T$. The size $|T|$ of a tree T is defined as the number of vertices in T .

The *degree* $d(v)$ of a vertex $v \in T$ always means the outdegree, i.e., the number of children of v . The *degree sequence* of T is the sequence of all degrees $d(v)$, $v \in T$, for definiteness in depth first order. Let $\Delta(T) := \max_{v \in T} d(v)$ be the maximum (out)degree in T .

A (general) *subtree* T' of a tree T is a non-empty connected subgraph of T ; we regard a subtree as a rooted tree in the obvious way, with the root being the vertex in T' that is closest to the root in T . Note that for any vertex $v \in T'$, its set of children in T' is a subset of its set of children in T ; the order of the children of v in T' is (by definition) the same as their relative order in T .

If $v \in T$, the *fringe subtree* T^v is the subtree of T consisting of v and all its descendants; this is thus a subtree with root v .

If \mathbf{t} and T are ordered rooted tree, let $N_{\mathbf{t}}(T)$ be the number of (general) subtrees of T that are isomorphic to \mathbf{t} (as ordered trees), and let $n_{\mathbf{t}}(T)$ be the number of such subtrees that furthermore have root o_T . Then $n_{\mathbf{t}}(T^v)$ is the number of subtrees with root v isomorphic to \mathbf{t} , and thus

$$N_{\mathbf{t}}(T) = \sum_{v \in T} n_{\mathbf{t}}(T^v). \quad (2.1)$$

In other words, $N_{\mathbf{t}}(T)$ is an additive functional with toll function $n_{\mathbf{t}}(T)$, see e.g. [9].

Let \mathcal{T} be a random Galton–Watson tree defined by an offspring distribution $(p_i)_0^\infty$, and let \mathcal{T}_n be the conditioned Galton–Watson tree defined as \mathcal{T} conditioned on $|\mathcal{T}| = n$ (tacitly considering only n such that $\mathbb{P}(|\mathcal{T}| = n) > 0$); see e.g. [8] for a survey. We let ξ be a random variable with the distribution $(p_i)_0^\infty$; we call both $(p_i)_0^\infty$ and (with a minor abuse) ξ the *offspring distribution*. We will only

consider offspring distributions with $\mathbb{E}\xi = 1$ (i.e., ξ is *critical*). (We often repeat this for emphasis.) Let $\sigma^2 := \text{Var}\xi \leq \infty$; we tacitly assume $\sigma^2 > 0$, but do not require $\sigma^2 < \infty$ unless we say so.

C and c denote unspecified constants that may vary from one occurrence to the next. They may depend on parameters such as the offspring distribution or the fixed tree \mathbf{t} , but they never depend on n .

Convergence in probability and distribution is denoted $\xrightarrow{\text{p}}$ and $\xrightarrow{\text{d}}$, respectively. Unspecified limits are as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

3. PROOF

We begin by finding the expectation of $n_{\mathbf{t}}$ for both unconditioned and conditioned Galton–Watson trees. Let

$$S_n := \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i, \quad (3.1)$$

where ξ_1, ξ_2, \dots are i.i.d. copies of ξ .

Lemma 3.1. *Let \mathbf{t} be a fixed ordered tree with degree sequence d_1, \dots, d_k , where thus $k = |\mathbf{T}|$.*

(i) *Then*

$$\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}) = \prod_{i=1}^k \mathbb{E} \binom{\xi}{d_i} = \prod_{i=1}^k \sum_{m_i=d_i}^{\infty} p_{m_i} \binom{m_i}{d_i}. \quad (3.2)$$

(ii) *If $n > k$, then, with $m := \sum_{i=1}^k m_i$,*

$$\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) = \frac{n}{n-k} \sum_{m_1, \dots, m_k \geq 0} \prod_{i=1}^k p_{m_i} \binom{m_i}{d_i} \cdot \frac{(m-k+1) \mathbb{P}(S_{n-k} = n-m-1)}{\mathbb{P}(S_n = n-1)}. \quad (3.3)$$

Proof. (i): We try to construct a copy t' of \mathbf{t} in \mathcal{T} , with the given root o . Let m_1 be the root degree of \mathcal{T} . Then there are $\binom{m_1}{d_1}$ ways to choose the d_1 children of the root that belong to t' . Fix one of these choices, say v_{11}, \dots, v_{1d_1} .

Next, let m_2 be the number of children of v_{11} in \mathcal{T} . Given m_2 , there are $\binom{m_2}{d_2}$ ways to choose the d_2 children of v_{11} that belong to t' . Fix one of these choices.

Continuing in the same way, taking the vertices of t' in depth first order, we find for every sequence m_1, \dots, m_k of non-negative integers, a total of $\prod_{i=1}^k \binom{m_i}{d_i}$ choices, and each of these gives a tree $t' \cong t$ provided the selected vertices in \mathcal{T} have degrees m_1, \dots, m_k , which occurs with probability $\prod_{i=1}^k p_{m_i}$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}) &= \sum_{m_1, \dots, m_k \geq 0} \prod_{i=1}^k p_{m_i} \prod_{i=1}^k \binom{m_i}{d_i} = \sum_{m_1, \dots, m_k \geq 0} \prod_{i=1}^k \left(p_{m_i} \binom{m_i}{d_i} \right) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^k \sum_{m_i=0}^{\infty} p_{m_i} \binom{m_i}{d_i}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.4)$$

and (3.2) follows.

(ii): Consider again \mathcal{T} . We have just shown that each sequence m_1, \dots, m_k gives $\prod_{i=1}^k \binom{m_i}{d_i}$ choices of possible subtrees $t' \cong t$ in \mathcal{T} , where the vertices of t'

are supposed to have degrees m_1, \dots, m_k in \mathcal{T} . This gives a total of $m = \sum_{i=1}^k m_i$ children, of which $k - 1$ are the non-root vertices in t' , and thus $m - (k - 1)$ are unaccounted children. Then, $|\mathcal{T}| = n$ if and only if these $m - k + 1$ children and their descendants yield exactly $n - k$ vertices.

Condition on m_1, \dots, m_k and one of the corresponding choices of t' . The probability that the $m - k + 1$ children above and their descendants are $n - k$ vertices is the probability that a Galton–Watson process (with offspring distribution ξ) started with $m - k + 1$ individuals has total progeny $n - k$, which by the Otter–Dwass formula [5] (see also [17] and the further references there) is given by

$$\frac{m - k + 1}{n - k} \mathbb{P}(S_{n-k} = n - k - (m - k + 1)). \quad (3.5)$$

Multiplying with $\prod_{i=1}^k p_{m_i}$, the probability that the vertices in t' have the right degrees in \mathcal{T} , and summing over all possibilities, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)] \mathbb{P}(|\mathcal{T}| = n) &= \mathbb{E}[n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}) \mid |\mathcal{T}| = n] \mathbb{P}(|\mathcal{T}| = n) = \mathbb{E}[n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}) \mathbf{1}\{|\mathcal{T}| = n\}] \\ &= \sum_{m_1, \dots, m_k \geq 0} \prod_{i=1}^k p_{m_i} \binom{m_i}{d_i} \cdot \frac{m - k + 1}{n - k} \mathbb{P}(S_{n-k} = n - m - 1). \end{aligned} \quad (3.6)$$

By the Otter–Dwass formula again (this time the original case in [15]),

$$\mathbb{P}(|\mathcal{T}| = n) = \frac{1}{n} P(S_n = n - 1) \quad (3.7)$$

and (3.3) follows. (Cf. [8, Lemma 15.9] for a related result.) \square

We need estimates of the probabilities $\mathbb{P}(S_n = n - m)$. The estimate (3.8) below is standard; we expect that also (3.9) is known, but we have not found a reference, so we give a proof. (It is related to more difficult estimates in e.g. [16] assuming more moments, see Remark 3.3 below.)

Lemma 3.2. *Suppose that $\mathbb{E} \xi = 1$ and $\mathbb{E} \xi^2 < \infty$. Then, uniformly for all $n \geq 1$ and $m \in \mathbb{Z}$,*

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n = n - m) \leq C n^{-1/2}, \quad (3.8)$$

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n = n - m) \leq C |m|^{-1}. \quad (3.9)$$

Proof. (3.8): This is well-known. In fact, the classical local limit theorem, see e.g. [16, Theorem VII.1], gives the much more precise result that, uniformly in $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n = n - m) = \frac{h}{\sigma \sqrt{n}} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-m^2/2\sigma^2 n} + o(1) \right). \quad (3.10)$$

where h is the span of the offspring distribution. (Provided $h|(n - m)$; otherwise the probability is 0.)

(3.9): Let $\varphi(t) := \mathbb{E} e^{it(\xi-1)}$ be the characteristic function of $\xi - 1 = \xi - \mathbb{E} \xi$; note that $\varphi(t)$ is twice differentiable because $\mathbb{E} \xi^2 < \infty$. Then, by Fourier inversion,

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n = n - m) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{imt} \varphi(t)^n dt. \quad (3.11)$$

Hence, using an integration by parts,

$$2\pi im \mathbb{P}(S_n = n - m) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left(\frac{d}{dt} e^{imt} \right) \varphi(t)^n dt = - \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{imt} \frac{d}{dt} (\varphi(t)^n) dt \quad (3.12)$$

and thus

$$|m| \mathbb{P}(S_n = n - m) \leq \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left| \frac{d}{dt} (\varphi(t)^n) \right| dt = n \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |\varphi'(t)| |\varphi(t)|^{n-1} dt. \quad (3.13)$$

The assumptions yield $\varphi'(0) = \mathbb{E}(\xi - 1) = 0$ and $\sup |\varphi''(t)| = |\varphi''(0)| = \text{Var } \xi = C < \infty$, and thus

$$|\varphi'(t)| \leq Ct. \quad (3.14)$$

Assume for simplicity that the span of ξ is 1 (the general case is similar, with standard modifications). Then, as is well-known, it is easy to see that there exist $c > 0$ such that

$$|\varphi(t)| \leq e^{-ct^2}, \quad |t| \leq \pi. \quad (3.15)$$

Using (3.14) and (3.15) in (3.13) we obtain

$$|m| \mathbb{P}(S_n = n - m) \leq nC \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} |t| e^{-c(n-1)t^2} dt \leq Cn \int_0^{\infty} t e^{-cnt^2} dt = C, \quad (3.16)$$

which proves (3.9). \square

Remark 3.3. In the same way, taking two derivatives inside (3.11), one obtains

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n = n - m) \leq Cn^{1/2}m^{-2}, \quad (3.17)$$

which is stronger for large m ; note that (3.8) and (3.17) imply (3.9). Furthermore, even stronger estimates hold if we assume more moments; see [16, Theorem VII.16] for a precise asymptotic estimate assuming $\mathbb{E} \xi^k < \infty$ for some $k \geq 3$. In fact, [16, Theorem VII.16] holds for $k = 2$ too, which can be seen by refining the argument above; this is an asymptotic estimate that is more precise than (3.17) (and implies it). \square

Lemma 3.4. *Let \mathbf{t} be a fixed ordered tree and suppose that $\mathbb{E} \xi = 1$, $\mathbb{E} \xi^2 < \infty$ and $\mathbb{E} \xi^{\Delta(\mathbf{t})} < \infty$. Then $\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) = o(n^{1/2})$.*

Proof. Let again the degree sequence of \mathbf{t} be d_1, \dots, d_k . For a vector $\mathbf{m} = (m_1, \dots, m_k) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^k$, let

$$a_{\mathbf{m}} := \prod_{i=1}^k p_{m_i} \binom{m_i}{d_i}. \quad (3.18)$$

Then, (3.2)–(3.3) and the assumption $\mathbb{E} \xi^{\Delta(\mathbf{t})} < \infty$ yield

$$\sum_{\mathbf{m}} a_{\mathbf{m}} = \mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}) < \infty \quad (3.19)$$

and for $n > k$, with as above $m := \sum_i m_i =: |\mathbf{m}|$ (and $C = 1$, actually),

$$\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) \leq C \sum_{\mathbf{m}} a_{\mathbf{m}} \cdot \frac{m \mathbb{P}(S_{n-k} = n - m - 1)}{\mathbb{P}(S_n = n - 1)}. \quad (3.20)$$

Denote the summand in (3.20) by $b_{\mathbf{m},n}$. By the local limit theorem (3.10), as is well-known,

$$\mathbb{P}(S_n = n - 1) \sim cn^{-1/2}, \quad (3.21)$$

and thus

$$b_{\mathbf{m},n}/n^{1/2} \leq C m a_{\mathbf{m}} \mathbb{P}(S_{n-k} = n - m - 1). \quad (3.22)$$

Hence, (3.8) implies that for every fixed \mathbf{m} , as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$b_{\mathbf{m},n}/n^{1/2} \leq C m a_{\mathbf{m}} n^{-1/2} \rightarrow 0. \quad (3.23)$$

Furthermore, (3.22) and (3.9) yield

$$b_{\mathbf{m},n}/n^{1/2} \leq C a_{\mathbf{m}}, \quad (3.24)$$

which is summable by (3.19). Consequently, dominated convergence shows that

$$n^{-1/2} \sum_{\mathbf{m}} b_{\mathbf{m},n} = \sum_{\mathbf{m}} b_{\mathbf{m},n}/n^{1/2} \rightarrow 0, \quad (3.25)$$

which together with (3.20) yields the result $n^{-1/2} \mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) \rightarrow 0$. \square

We will see in Example 4.4 below, that the estimate $o(n^{1/2})$ in Lemma 3.4 is best possible in general. However, if we assume another moment on ξ , we can improve the estimate to $O(1)$, and furthermore show that $\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)$ converges. We next show this, although it is not required for our main result.

Lemma 3.5. *Let \mathbf{t} be a fixed tree with degree sequence d_1, \dots, d_k , and suppose that $\mathbb{E} \xi = 1$. Then, as $n \rightarrow \infty$,*

$$\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) \rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^k (d_i + 1) \mathbb{E} \binom{\xi}{d_i + 1} \prod_{j \neq i} \mathbb{E} \binom{\xi}{d_j}. \quad (3.26)$$

In particular, $\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) = O(1)$ if $\mathbb{E} \xi^{\Delta(\mathbf{t})+1} < \infty$, while $\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) \rightarrow \infty$ if $\mathbb{E} \xi^{\Delta(\mathbf{t})+1} = \infty$.

Proof. Define again $a_{\mathbf{m}}$ by (3.18), and denote the summand in (3.3) by $b'_{\mathbf{m},n}$, where as above $\mathbf{m} = (m_1, \dots, m_k) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}^k$. It follows from the local limit theorem (3.10) that for every fixed \mathbf{m} , as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(S_{n-k} = n - m - 1)}{\mathbb{P}(S_n = n - 1)} = \frac{h(2\pi\sigma^2(n-k))^{-1/2}(1+o(1))}{h(2\pi\sigma^2n)^{-1/2}(1+o(1))} \rightarrow 1. \quad (3.27)$$

(This holds also if the span $h > 1$, assuming as we may that all $p_{m_i} > 0$, so $h|m$.) Hence,

$$b'_{\mathbf{m},n} \rightarrow a_{\mathbf{m}}(m - k + 1). \quad (3.28)$$

Furthermore, by (3.8) and (3.21),

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(S_{n-k} = n - m - 1)}{\mathbb{P}(S_n = n - 1)} \leq \frac{C n^{-1/2}}{c n^{-1/2}} = C, \quad (3.29)$$

and thus

$$b'_{\mathbf{m},n} \leq C a_{\mathbf{m}}(m - k + 1). \quad (3.30)$$

Consequently, if $\sum_{\mathbf{m}} a_{\mathbf{m}}(m - k + 1) < \infty$, then

$$\sum_{\mathbf{m}} b'_{\mathbf{m},n} \rightarrow \sum_{\mathbf{m}} a_{\mathbf{m}}(m - k + 1) \quad (3.31)$$

by (3.28), (3.30) and dominated convergence. On the other hand, if $\sum_{\mathbf{m}} a_{\mathbf{m}}(m - k + 1) = \infty$, then $\sum_{\mathbf{m}} b'_{\mathbf{m},n} \rightarrow \infty$ by (3.28) and Fatou's lemma, and thus (3.31) holds in this case too. Recalling (3.3), this shows that in any case,

$$\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) \rightarrow \sum_{\mathbf{m}} a_{\mathbf{m}}(m - k + 1), \quad (3.32)$$

and it remains only to evaluate the limit.

Since \mathbf{t} is a tree, we have $\sum_{i=1}^k d_i = k - 1$, and thus $m - k + 1 = \sum_{i=1}^k (m_i - d_i)$. Recalling the definition (3.18) of $a_{\mathbf{m}}$, we thus have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\mathbf{m}} a_{\mathbf{m}}(m - k + 1) &= \sum_{\mathbf{m}} \sum_{i=1}^k (m_i - d_i) p_{m_i} \binom{m_i}{d_i} \prod_{j \neq i} p_{m_j} \binom{m_j}{d_j} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{m_i=0}^{\infty} p_{m_i}(m_i - d_i) \binom{m_i}{d_i} \prod_{j \neq i} \sum_{m_j=0}^{\infty} p_{m_j} \binom{m_j}{d_j}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.33)$$

which equals the right-hand side of (3.26) because $(m_i - d_i) \binom{m_i}{d_i} = (d_i + 1) \binom{m_i}{d_i + 1}$. This completes the proof by (3.32). \square

Remark 3.6. Assume only $\mathbb{E}\xi = 1$. If \widehat{T} is the infinite size-biased Galton-Watson tree defined by Kesten [10], see also [8, Section 5], then $\mathcal{T}_n \xrightarrow{d} \widehat{T}$ in a local topology (i.e., close to the root), see [8, Theorem 7.1], and it follows that

$$n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) \xrightarrow{d} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\widehat{T}). \quad (3.34)$$

It is not difficult to see that $\mathbb{E}n_{\mathbf{t}}(\widehat{T})$ equals the right-hand side of (3.26), which thus says that $\mathbb{E}n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) \rightarrow \mathbb{E}n_{\mathbf{t}}(\widehat{T})$. (This could presumably be used to give an alternative proof of Lemma 3.5, but we prefer the direct proof above.)

In particular, if $\mathbb{E}\xi^{\Delta(\mathbf{t})+1} = \infty$, then $\mathbb{E}n_{\mathbf{t}}(\widehat{T}) = \infty$, and thus (3.34) and Fatou's lemma yield $\mathbb{E}n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) \rightarrow \infty$. Hence, the last sentence in Lemma 3.5 holds also without the assumption $\mathbb{E}\xi^2 < \infty$. \square

We proceed to the proof of Theorem 1.1. The case $\Delta(\mathbf{t}) \leq 1$ is special, since we then do not assume $\mathbb{E}\xi^2 < \infty$, but on the other hand this case is simple and rather trivial, so we discuss it separately in the following example.

Example 3.7. Consider the case $\Delta(\mathbf{t}) \leq 1$. This means that \mathbf{t} is a path P_k with $k \geq 1$ vertices, and thus length $k - 1$. A copy of \mathbf{t} in a tree T is thus a path consisting of k vertices v_1, \dots, v_k such that v_{i+1} is a child of v_i ; such a path is determined by its endpoint v_k , and every vertex of depth (= distance from the root) at least $k - 1$ is the endpoint of a copy of \mathbf{t} . Hence, if $\nu_i(T)$ is the number of vertices in T of depth i , then

$$N_{P_k}(T) = \sum_{i \geq k-1} \nu_i(T) = |T| - \sum_{i=0}^{k-2} \nu_i(T). \quad (3.35)$$

In particular, $N_{P_1}(\mathcal{T}_n) = n$ and $N_{P_2}(\mathcal{T}_n) = n - 1$ are deterministic; these are trivially just the numbers of vertices and edges.

Moreover, as said in Remark 3.6, assuming $\mathbb{E}\xi = 1$, the random tree \mathcal{T}_n converges locally in distribution as $n \rightarrow \infty$, see [8, Theorem 7.1]; in particular each $\nu_i(\mathcal{T}_n)$ converges in distribution (to $\nu_i(\widehat{T})$) and thus $\nu_i(\mathcal{T}_n) = O_p(1)$ (i.e., is bounded in probability). Hence, for every $k \geq 1$, (3.35) implies

$$N_{P_k}(\mathcal{T}_n) = n + O_p(1). \quad (3.36)$$

In particular, $N_{P_k}(\mathcal{T}_n)$ is more strongly concentrated than the dispersion of order $n^{1/2}$ typically seen in similar statistics, see e.g. Example 4.2 and Section 5. \square

Proof of Theorem 1.1. Suppose first $\Delta(\mathbf{t}) \leq 1$. Then $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{P}_k$ for some $k \geq 1$ and Example 3.7 shows that (3.36) holds, and thus $N_{\mathbf{P}_k}(\mathcal{T}_n)/n \xrightarrow{\mathbf{P}} 1$. Furthermore, (3.2) yields

$$\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{P}_k}(\mathcal{T}) = (\mathbb{E} \xi)^{k-1} = 1, \quad (3.37)$$

and thus (1.2) holds. Moreover, $N_{\mathbf{P}_k}(\mathcal{T}_n)/n \leq 1$ by (3.35), and thus dominated convergence applies to (1.2) and yields (1.3) and (1.1), see e.g. [6, Theorems 5.5.4 and 5.5.5].

In the remainder of the proof we may thus assume $\Delta(\mathbf{t}) \geq 2$, and thus, in particular, $\mathbb{E} \xi^2 < \infty$. (The arguments below use $\mathbb{E} \xi^2 < \infty$, but apply to any $\Delta(\mathbf{t})$.)

Lemma 3.1(i) and the assumption $\mathbb{E} \xi^{\Delta(\mathbf{t})} < \infty$ show that $\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}) < \infty$, and Lemma 3.4 shows $\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) = o(n^{1/2})$. Hence (1.2) and (1.3) follow by [9, Remark 5.3]. However, since only a sketch of the proof is given in that remark, let us add some details.

First, (1.3) follows by the argument in the proof of [9, Theorem 1.5(i)], adding the factor $n^{1/2}$ at some places.

Next, define for $M > 0$ the truncation $\nu_{\mathbf{t}}^M(T) := n_{\mathbf{t}}(T) \wedge M$ and let $N_{\mathbf{t}}^M(T) := \sum_{v \in T} \nu_{\mathbf{t}}^M(T^v)$ be the corresponding additive functional, cf. (2.1). Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Since $\nu_{\mathbf{t}}^M(\mathcal{T}) \nearrow n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T})$ as $M \rightarrow \infty$, we can by monotone convergence, and $\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}) < \infty$, choose M such that

$$\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}) - \mathbb{E} \nu_{\mathbf{t}}^M(\mathcal{T}) < \varepsilon^2. \quad (3.38)$$

We have proved (1.3), and similarly $\mathbb{E} N_{\mathbf{t}}^M(\mathcal{T}_n)/n \rightarrow \mathbb{E} \nu_{\mathbf{t}}^M(\mathcal{T})$ by [9, Theorem 1.3], since $\nu_{\mathbf{t}}^M$ is bounded. Hence, (3.38) implies that for all sufficiently large n ,

$$\mathbb{E} |N_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)/n - N_{\mathbf{t}}^M(\mathcal{T}_n)/n| = \mathbb{E} N_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)/n - \mathbb{E} N_{\mathbf{t}}^M(\mathcal{T}_n)/n < \varepsilon^2. \quad (3.39)$$

Furthermore, [9, Theorem 1.3] also yields $N_{\mathbf{t}}^M(\mathcal{T}_n)/n \xrightarrow{\mathbf{P}} \mathbb{E} \nu_{\mathbf{t}}^M(\mathcal{T})$. Consequently, using also (3.38) again, (3.39) and Markov's inequality, if n is large,

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{P}(|N_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)/n - \mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T})| > 3\varepsilon) \\ & \leq \mathbb{P}(|N_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)/n - N_{\mathbf{t}}^M(\mathcal{T}_n)/n| > \varepsilon) + \mathbb{P}(|N_{\mathbf{t}}^M(\mathcal{T}_n)/n - \mathbb{E} \nu_{\mathbf{t}}^M(\mathcal{T})| > \varepsilon) \\ & \leq 2\varepsilon. \end{aligned} \quad (3.40)$$

Hence, (1.2) holds.

Finally, as said earlier, (1.2) and (1.3) are together equivalent to the L^1 convergence (1.1). \square

4. EXAMPLES

We give some simple but illuminating examples. Recall also Example 3.7.

Example 4.1. Let $t = t_{q,r}$ consist of two paths with $q+1$ and $r+1$ vertices, joined at the root; here $q, r \geq 1$. We have $k = 1 + q + r$ and $d_1 = 2$ while $d_i = 1$ for $i > 1$; thus $\Delta(\mathbf{t}) = 2$. Since $\mathbb{E} \xi = 1$, (3.2) yields

$$\mathbb{E} n_{t_{q,r}}(\mathcal{T}) = \mathbb{E} \binom{\xi}{2} = \frac{\mathbb{E} \xi^2 - 1}{2} = \frac{\sigma^2}{2}. \quad (4.1)$$

Hence, Theorem 1.1 yields, for any $q, r \geq 1$,

$$N_{t_{q,r}}(\mathcal{T}_n)/n \xrightarrow{L^1} \sigma^2/2. \quad (4.2)$$

□

Example 4.2. Consider the special case $q = r = 1$ of Example 4.1. Then $t_{1,1}$ is a cherry, i.e., a root with two children. If a vertex v in a tree T has degree $d(v)$, then the number of cherries rooted at v is $\binom{d(v)}{2}$, and thus

$$N_{t_{1,1}}(T) = \sum_{v \in T} \binom{d(v)}{2} = \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} \binom{r}{2} X_r(T), \quad (4.3)$$

where $X_r(T)$ is the number of vertices of degree r in T .

It is known that $X_r(\mathcal{T}_n)/n \xrightarrow{P} p_r$, see e.g. [8, Theorem 7.11]. Hence, (4.2) (with $q = r = 1$) is what we would get by dividing (4.3) by n and taking the limit inside the sum; if the degree distribution is bounded, the sum is finite so this is rigorous and (4.2) (still with $q = r = 1$) follows from (4.3).

In this case we can say much more than (4.2). It was proved in [13], see also [3], that $X_r(\mathcal{T}_n)$ is asymptotically normal, with

$$\frac{X_r(\mathcal{T}_n) - np_r}{\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \gamma_r^2) \quad (4.4)$$

for some explicit γ_r^2 . This was extended to joint convergence for all r in [7], provided $\mathbb{E} \xi^3 < \infty$. Hence, at least if ξ is bounded, it follows from (4.3) that $N_{t_{1,1}}(\mathcal{T}_n)$ is asymptotically normal, with

$$\frac{N_{t_{1,1}}(\mathcal{T}_n) - n\sigma^2/2}{\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \gamma^2) \quad (4.5)$$

for some explicit $\gamma^2 \geq 0$. There are degenerate cases where $\gamma^2 = 0$. For example, for full binary trees ($\mathbb{P}(\xi = 2) = \mathbb{P}(\xi = 0) = \frac{1}{2}$), all degrees are 0 or 2, and then each $X_r(T)$ is a deterministic function of $|T|$; hence (4.3) shows that $N_{t_{1,1}}(\mathcal{T}_n)$ is deterministic. More generally, the same happens for full m -ary trees, with $\xi \in \{0, m\}$ a.s., for any $m \geq 2$. But it can be seen from the covariances given in [7] that $\gamma^2 > 0$ in all other cases with bounded ξ . See further Section 5. □

Example 4.3. Let $\ell \geq 1$, and let $\varpi_\ell(T)$ be the number of (undirected) paths of length ℓ in T . For definiteness, we count undirected paths, so this equals the number of unordered pairs (v, w) of vertices of distance ℓ . There are two cases:

- (i) v is an ancestor of w , or conversely; the number of such pairs is $N_{\mathbb{P}_\ell}(T)$.
- (ii) Neither v nor w is an ancestor of the other. Then v and w are the two leaves in a copy of $t_{q,r}$ with $q, r \geq 1$ and $q + r = \ell$. For given q and r , the number of such pairs equals $N_{t_{q,r}}(T)$

Consequently,

$$\varpi_\ell(T) = n_{\mathbb{P}_\ell}(T) + \sum_{q=1}^{\ell-1} N_{t_{q,\ell-q}}(T). \quad (4.6)$$

Hence, Examples 3.7 and 4.1 yield

$$\varpi_\ell(\mathcal{T}_n)/n \xrightarrow{L^1} 1 + (\ell - 1) \frac{\sigma^2}{2}. \quad (4.7)$$

For example, taking $\xi \sim \text{Po}(1)$ we obtain (forgetting the ordering) a uniformly random unordered labelled tree; we have $\sigma^2 = 1$ and thus (4.7) yields

$$\varpi_\ell(\mathcal{T}_n) \xrightarrow{L^1} (\ell + 1)/2. \quad (4.8)$$

Similarly, taking $\xi \sim \text{Ge}(1/2)$ we obtain a uniformly random ordered tree; we have $\sigma^2 = 2$ and thus (4.7) then yields

$$\varpi_\ell(\mathcal{T}_n) \xrightarrow{L^1} \ell. \quad (4.9)$$

Taking $\xi \sim \text{Bi}(2, 1/2)$ we obtain a uniformly random binary tree; we have $\sigma^2 = 1/2$ and thus (4.7) now yields

$$\varpi_\ell(\mathcal{T}_n) \xrightarrow{L^1} (\ell + 3)/4. \quad (4.10)$$

□

The following example shows that the estimate $o(n^{1/2})$ in Lemma 3.4 is best possible.

Example 4.4. For simplicity, let the tree \mathbf{t} be a star, where the root has degree $\Delta \geq 2$ and its children are leaves with degree 0. (The argument is easily modified to any tree \mathbf{t} with $\Delta(\mathbf{t}) \geq 2$.) Thus $k := |\mathbf{t}| = \Delta + 1$. Assume that the span of ξ is 1.

The local limit theorem (3.10) implies that if n is large and $m \leq n^{1/2}$, then

$$\mathbb{P}(S_{n-k} = n - m - 1) \geq cn^{-1/2}, \quad (4.11)$$

and thus, using (3.21),

$$\mathbb{P}(S_{n-k} = n - m - 1) / \mathbb{P}(S_n = n - 1) \geq c. \quad (4.12)$$

Hence, by (3.3) and considering there only terms with $m_2 = \dots = m_k = 0$,

$$\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) \geq c \sum_{\Delta < m_1 \leq n^{1/2}} p_{m_1} \binom{m_1}{\Delta} m_1 \geq c \sum_{\Delta < m \leq n^{1/2}} p_m m^{\Delta+1}. \quad (4.13)$$

If $\varepsilon > 0$, and we let $p_m = m^{-\Delta-1-\varepsilon}$ for large m , then $\mathbb{E} \xi^\Delta < \infty$, and (4.13) yields, for large n ,

$$\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) \geq c \sum_{\Delta < m \leq n^{1/2}} m^{-\varepsilon} \geq cn^{(1-\varepsilon)/2}. \quad (4.14)$$

Hence, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, $\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)$ can grow faster than $n^{1/2-\varepsilon}$.

Similarly, we can find an offspring distribution $(p_m)_0^\infty$ satisfying the conditions such that $\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) = n^{1/2-o(1)}$; we omit the details. Moreover, for any given sequence $\delta(n) \searrow 0$, we can find $(p_m)_0^\infty$ such that $\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) \geq \delta(n)n^{1/2}$, at least for a subsequence. To see this, take an increasing sequence $(m_j)_1^\infty$ with $\sum_{j=1}^\infty j\delta(m_j^2) < 1$. Let $p_{m_j} := j\delta(m_j^2)m_j^{-\Delta}$, and $p_m = 0$ for all other $m \geq 2$, choosing p_0 and p_1 such that $\sum_i p_i = \sum_i ip_i = 1$. Also, let $n_j := m_j^2$. Then (4.13) implies that, for large j ,

$$\mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_{n_j}) \geq cp_{m_j} m_j^{\Delta+1} = cj m_j \delta(m_j^2) \geq m_j \delta(m_j^2) = n_j^{1/2} \delta(n_j). \quad (4.15)$$

□

5. ASYMPTOTIC NORMALITY?

We showed in Example 4.2 that if ξ is bounded, then $N_{t_{1,1}}(\mathcal{T}_n)$ is asymptotically normal in the sense that (4.5) holds (although $\gamma^2 = 0$ is possible). In fact, this holds for any fixed tree \mathbf{t} .

Proposition 5.1. *Assume that ξ is bounded. Then, for any fixed tree \mathbf{t} ,*

$$\frac{N_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n) - n\mu_{\mathbf{t}}}{\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} N(0, \gamma_{\mathbf{t}}^2), \quad (5.1)$$

for $\mu_{\mathbf{t}} := \mathbb{E} n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T})$ and some $\gamma_{\mathbf{t}}^2 \geq 0$.

Proof. This follows from the result by Chyzak, Drmota, Klausner and Kok [1] on patterns discussed in Section 1 (extended to conditioned Galton–Watson trees [1; 11; 12]); the assumption on ξ means that vertex degrees are bounded by some constant, and thus there is a finite number of patterns that correspond to subtrees isomorphic to \mathbf{t} ; hence $N_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)$ is a linear combination of pattern counts, and the result follows from the joint asymptotic normality of the latter. (See also [14] for a special case.)

Alternatively, this is an application of [9, Theorem 1.13]: the functional $n_{\mathbf{t}}$ is local (as defined in [9]) and for trees with degrees bounded by some constant K , $n_{\mathbf{t}}$ is bounded. Hence (5.1) follows from [9, Theorem 1.13]. \square

We conjecture that this behaviour is typical, and that Proposition 5.1 holds for every ξ with $\mathbb{E}\xi = 1$ that satisfies a suitable moment condition. However, it seems that substantial additional work would be required to show this. As said in the introduction, this was briefly discussed in [1], but it seems that the method there requires extensions to infinite systems of functional equations. Similarly, the application of [9, Theorem 1.13] requires $n_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathcal{T}_n)$ to be bounded, which is not the case when ξ is unbounded. It is possible that this may be overcome by truncations and some variance estimates, but again more work is needed. (The extension in [18] applies to the case when \mathbf{t} is a star with root degree Δ (including Example 4.2 with $\Delta = 2$) and $\mathbb{E}\xi^{2\Delta+1} < \infty$; this might suggest further extensions.) This problem is thus left for future research.

Note also that there are degenerate cases when the asymptotic variance in (5.1) $\gamma_{\mathbf{t}}^2 = 0$; see Examples 3.7 and 4.2. (Then (5.1) does not give asymptotic normality; only a concentration result.) However, we conjecture that this is an exception, occurring only in a few special cases.

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