

# Asymptotic Cost of Cutting Down Random Free Trees

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**Abstract.** In this work, we calculate the limit distribution of the total cost incurred by splitting a tree selected at random from the set of all finite free trees. This total cost is considered to be an additive functional induced by a toll equal to the square of the size of tree. The main tools used are the recent results connecting the asymptotics of generating functions with the asymptotics of their Hadamard product, and the method of moments.

**Keywords.** Additive functionals on trees, Cayley trees, Hadamard product of generating functions, limit law, method of moments, recurrence.

**MSC:** 60C05, 60J55, 68P10, 68R05.

## 1 Introduction

Trees are structures suitable for data storage and for supporting computer algorithms, two fundamental aspects of data processing, with applications in many fields. The cost of “divide-and-conquer” algorithms can be represented as an additive functional of trees. While there has been much research on additive functionals (see, for example, [11, 7, 12]), not enough attention has been paid to the distributions of functionals

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defined on trees under the assumption of a uniform model.

In this paper, we consider the additive functional defined on trees uniformly selected from the set of all the free trees of a given size  $n$ , induced by the toll sequence  $(n^2)_{n \geq 0}$  (see [2] for more discussion on such trees by Cayley). However, the main motivation for this investigation is that it is key to analyzing a special type of a Drop-Push model of percolation and coagulation (see [15]). Our main result, Theorem 1.1, provides the limit distribution for a suitably normalized version of this functional.

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $X_n$  be the additive functional defined on the uniform free trees of size  $n$ , induced by the toll  $(n^2)_{n \geq 0}$ . Then,*

$$n^{-5/2} X_n \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} \sqrt{2} \xi,$$

where  $\xi$  is a random variable whose distribution is characterized by its moments.:

$$\mathbb{E}(\xi^k) = \frac{k! \sqrt{\pi}}{2^{(7k-2)/2} \Gamma(\frac{5k-1}{2})} \bar{a}_k,$$

where<sup>1</sup>

$$\bar{a}_k = 2(5k-6)(5k-4)\bar{a}_{k-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \bar{a}_j \bar{a}_{k-j} \quad k \geq 2; \quad \bar{a}_1 = \sqrt{2}.$$

Curiously, the moments of our limit distribution are proportional to the moments of the distribution of the average of the minimum of a normalized Brownian Excursion [8, Theorem 3.3].

In what follows,  $e = (e(t))_{0 \leq t \leq 1}$  will denote a normalized Brownian Excursion.

**Theorem 1.2** (Janson([8] Th.3.3)). *The moments of the random variable  $\eta$ , defined by*

$$\eta = 4 \int \int_{0 < s < t < 1} \min_{s \leq u \leq t} e(u) ds dt,$$

<sup>1</sup>One can see that the  $\bar{a}_k$  grow fairly rapidly. For example  $\bar{a}_2 \simeq 70$  and  $\bar{a}_3 \simeq 14033$ . The formula for the moments can be written in several ways. For example, we may obtain a recursion formula for the moments directly, without the need for the constants  $\bar{a}_k$ . However, this recursion formula is somewhat more complicated, whereas ours is fairly simple. Janson, [8, Section 3], leads us to suggest  $\bar{a}_k \sim C 50^k (k-1)!^2$  with  $C$  a constant, but we have no proof of this, nor an identification of  $C$  (if it exists).

are given by the formula

$$\mathbb{E}(\eta^k) = \frac{k! \sqrt{\pi}}{2^{(7k-4)/2} \Gamma(\frac{5k-1}{2})} \omega_k,$$

where

$$\omega_k = 2(5k-6)(5k-4)\omega_{k-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \omega_j \omega_{k-j} \quad k \geq 2; \quad \omega_1 = 1.$$

It is not unusual in this kind of problem to have more than one characterization of a limit distribution. For instance, the *Wiener index* of certain trees is given by its moments involving *Airy* functions, and is alternatively characterized in terms of a Brownian.

For the proof of Theorem 1.1, we apply the strategy used in [4] to obtain the limiting distributions of the additive functionals defined on Catalan trees. We give an outline of a special additive functional on the random tree which satisfies a recurrence (Recurrence 1 in Section 2). In view of certain properties of this functional, we can construct differential recurrence equations for the generating functions of the moments of this functional. Then, the singularity analysis of the generating series (discussed completely in [6]), accompanying the Hadamard products (see Definition 2.2 in the Section 2), enables us to analyze the moments of the additive functional. The asymptotic behavior of the first moment, has been treated by Fill *et al.* [5, Section 5.3], and Theorem 1.1 of this paper extends his techniques to moments of all orders. Briefly, our procedure allows a rather mechanical calculation of asymptotic moments of each order, thus facilitating the application of the method of moments.

## 2 Generating Functions

We first introduce some notation. If  $T$  is a tree, then  $|T|$  will denote the number of its nodes. Moreover,  $L(T)$  and  $R(T)$  respectively will denote the left and right subtrees obtained by cutting the tree at some edge.

**Definition 2.1.** *A functional  $f$  defined on a tree is called additive if it satisfies the recurrence*

$$f(T) = f(L(T)) + f(R(T)) + b_{|T|},$$

for any tree  $T$  with  $|T| \geq 1$ . Here  $(b_n)_{n \geq 1}$  is a given sequence, henceforth called the toll function.

We analyze here the additive functional on the trees, which is uniformly distributed on  $\{T : |T| = n\}$ , for given  $n$ . By a result attributed to Cayley [2], there are  $U_n = n^{n-2}$  free trees ( $U_n$  connected acyclic labelled graphs) on  $n$  nodes and accordingly, there are  $T_n = n^{n-1}$  rooted trees (in which a labelled node, is called *root* of tree). Consider the model in which initially each free tree of size  $n$  is chosen uniformly at random. Now choose an edge at random among the  $n - 1$  edges of the tree, orient it randomly and then cut it. This separates the tree into an ordered pair of smaller trees, called the left and right subtrees, that are now rooted. Continue the process with each of the resulting subtrees, discarding the root. Assume<sup>2</sup> that the cost incurred by selecting the edge and splitting the tree in a tree of size  $n$  is  $n^2$ . Then for  $n \geq 1$ ,  $X_n$ , the total cost incurred for splitting a random tree of size  $n$ , satisfies the recurrence

$$X_n = X_{L_n} + X_{R_n} + n^2, \quad (1)$$

where the indexes  $L_n$  and  $R_n$  are, respectively, the sizes of left and right subtrees, obtained by division of the initial tree of size  $n$ . So  $X_n$  appears as the additive functional induced by the toll sequence  $(n^2)_{n \geq 1}$ . Moreover, as the procedure of selecting and cutting trees is random and, for any integer  $n$ ,  $X_n$  is a sum of random number of random variables, it is trivial that different  $X_n$ 's, particularly those corresponding to subtrees, are independent when conditioned on size.

If time is reversed, this model describes the evolution of a random graph from a graph completely disconnected to a tree and used to analyze *union-find* algorithms [3, 13, 14]. Knuth and Schönhage [10] were the first to analyze this model for different tolls.

Let  $p_{n,k}$  be the probability for a tree of size  $n$  to have the left and

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<sup>2</sup>See [15, Proposition 1] for the main motivation for this assumption. Briefly, [15] analyzes a Drop-Push model of coagulation in which particles are dropped onto a one dimensional lattice and carry out a random walk until they encounter an empty site where they become stuck. In such a model, the movements of the particles on the lattice form an additive coalescence process is the algorithmic reason for considering the recurrence (1). In fact, in the Drop-Push model, the cost of coalescence of two clusters of particles, at the dropping moment of a particle, is given as the number of steps of the particle until it sticks in an empty site and it is proven, [15, relation (8)], that the expected cost of coalescence of two clusters is proportional to the square of the length of the cluster on which a particle drops.

right subtrees of sizes  $k$  and  $n - k$  respectively. Then

$$p_{n,k} = \binom{n}{k} \frac{k^{k-1}(n-k)^{n-k-1}}{2(n-1)n^{n-2}}. \quad (2)$$

The binomial coefficient  $\binom{n}{k}$  takes into account the labelling of the left and right subtrees, and the quantity  $k^{k-1}(n-k)^{n-k-1}$  equals the number of rooted trees of sizes  $k$  and  $n - k$ . In the denominator,  $n^{n-2}$  is the number of free trees,  $n - 1$  is the number of the edges of the initial tree, and, finally, the coefficient 2 corresponds to the random orientation of the selected edge. It is convenient to write this probability in the form:

$$p_{n,k} = \frac{n}{2(n-1)} \frac{c_k c_{n-k}}{c_n},$$

where,  $\forall k \geq 1$ ,

$$c_k = \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!}.$$

The average of the cost function,  $a_n := \mathbb{E}(X_n)$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , is obtained recursively by conditioning on the size of  $L_n$ :

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \mathbb{E} [\mathbb{E}_L(X_L + X_{n-L} + n^2)] \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} p_{n,j} (a_j + a_{n-j}) + n^2 \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{n}{2(n-1)} \frac{c_j c_{n-j}}{c_n} (a_j + a_{n-j}) + n^2. \end{aligned}$$

This recurrence can be rewritten as

$$\frac{n-1}{n} c_n a_n = \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} c_j a_j c_{n-j} + \frac{n-1}{n} c_n b_n, \quad (3)$$

where  $b_n = n^2$ .

**Remark.** In fact, one can always consider any toll function  $b_n$  in place of  $n^2$ .

**Definition 2.2.** The Hadamard product of two entire series  $F(z) = \sum_n f_n z^n$  and  $G(z) = \sum_n g_n z^n$ , denoted  $F(z) \odot G(z)$ , is the entire series defined by

$$(F \odot G)(z) \equiv F(z) \odot G(z) := \sum_n f_n g_n z^n.$$

Multiplying equality (3) by  $z^n/e^n$  and summing over  $n \geq 1$ , we get

$$A(z) \odot C(z/e) - \int_0^z \sum_n a_n c_n \frac{\omega^n}{e^n} \frac{d\omega}{\omega} \quad (4)$$

$$= (A(z) \odot C(z/e))C(z/e) + \sum_n \frac{n-1}{n} c_n b_n \frac{z^n}{e^n}, \quad (5)$$

where  $A(z)$  and  $C(z)$  respectively denote the ordinary generating function of  $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$  and  $(c_n)_{n \geq 1}$ .

From a result of Knuth and Pittel, [9], the singular expansion of  $C(z)$  at the dominant singularity  $z = e^{-1}$  is

$$C(z) = 1 - \sqrt{2}(1 - ez)^{1/2} + O(|1 - ez|). \quad (6)$$

Moreover,  $C$  satisfies the functional relation  $C(z) = ze^{C(z)}$ .

By differentiation, the relation (5) transforms into a linear differential equation of the first order, which can be readily solved by the variation-of-constants method. Briefly, putting  $f(z) := A(z) \odot C(z/e)$  and  $t(z) := \sum_n \frac{n-1}{n} c_n b_n e^{-n} z^n$ , the relation (5) takes the form

$$\int_0^z f(\omega) \frac{d\omega}{\omega} = f(z)(1 - C(z/e)) - t(z). \quad (7)$$

Taking derivatives, we obtain

$$\frac{df(z)}{dz} + f(z) \left( \frac{-1/z - \frac{dC(z/e)}{dz}}{1 - C(z/e)} \right) = \left( \frac{1}{1 - C(z/e)} \right) \frac{dt(z)}{dz}.$$

On the other hand, the equality  $C(z/e) = \frac{z}{e} e^{C(z/e)}$  implies

$$\frac{dC(z/e)}{dz} = C(z/e) \left( \frac{1}{z} + \frac{dC(z/e)}{dz} \right).$$

Assuming (without loss of generality) the initial condition  $a_1 c_1 = b_1 = 0$ , the solution found is of the form

$$A(z) \odot C(z/e) = \frac{C(z/e)}{1 - C(z/e)} \int_0^z \partial_\omega \left( \sum_n \frac{n-1}{n} c_n b_n \frac{\omega^n}{e^n} \right) \frac{d\omega}{C(\omega/e)}. \quad (8)$$

And finally, since  $\frac{n-1}{n}c_n = \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{2}c_j c_{n-j}$ , we have

$$A(z) \odot C(z/e) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{C(z/e)}{1 - C(z/e)} \int_0^z \partial_\omega [B(\omega) \odot C(\omega/e)^2] \frac{d\omega}{C(\omega/e)}, \quad (9)$$

where  $B(\omega)$  denotes the ordinary generating function of  $(b_n)_{n \geq 1}$ .

### 3 Moments by Singularity Analysis

Thanks to the singularity analysis technique, we can derive the asymptotics of moments of each order. Singularity analysis is a systematic *complex-analytic* technique that relates the asymptotic behavior of sequences in the proximity of their singularities, to the behavior of their generating functions. The applicability of singular analysis rests on a technical condition: the  $\Delta$ -regularity. See [5, 6] for more details.

**Definition 3.1.** *A function defined by a Taylor series about the origin with radius of convergence equal to 1 is  $\Delta$ -regular if it can be analytically continued in a domain of form*

$$\Delta(\phi, \eta) := \{z : |z| < 1 + \eta, |\arg(z - 1)| > \phi\},$$

for some  $\eta > 0$  and  $0 < \phi < \pi/2$ . A function  $f$  is said to admit a singular expansion at  $z = 1$ , if it is  $\Delta$ -regular and if one can find a sequence of complex numbers  $(c_j)_{0 \leq j \leq J}$ , and an increasing sequence of real numbers  $(\alpha_j)_{0 \leq j \leq J}$ , satisfying  $\alpha_j < A$ , where  $A$  is a real number, such that the relation

$$f(z) = \sum_{j=0}^J c_j (1 - z)^{\alpha_j} + O(|1 - z|^A)$$

holds uniformly in  $z \in \Delta(\phi, \eta)$ . It is said to satisfy a singular expansion with logarithmic terms if,

$$f(z) = \sum_{j=0}^J c_j(L(z))(1 - z)^{\alpha_j} + O(|1 - z|^A), \quad L(z) := \log \frac{1}{1 - z},$$

where each  $c_j(\cdot)$  is a polynomial.

Let us now recall the definition of the generalized polylogarithm.

**Definition 3.2.** For  $\alpha$  an arbitrary complex number and  $r$  a nonnegative integer, the generalized polylogarithm function  $Li_{\alpha,r}$  is defined for  $|z| < 1$ , by

$$Li_{\alpha,r}(z) := \sum_{n \geq 1} \frac{(\log n)^r}{n^\alpha} z^n.$$

In particular,  $Li_{1,0}(z) = L(z)$ . Moreover, we have

$$Li_{\alpha,r} \odot Li_{\beta,s} = Li_{\alpha+\beta,r+s}.$$

The singular expansion of the polylogarithm involves the Riemann zeta function (see for example [5, Theorem 4]).

**Lemma 3.1.** The function  $Li_{\alpha,r}(z)$  is  $\Delta$ -regular, and for  $\alpha \notin \{1, 2, \dots\}$  it satisfies the singular expansion

$$Li_{\alpha,0}(z) \sim \Gamma(1-\alpha)t^{\alpha-1} + \sum_{j \geq 0} \frac{(-1)^j}{j!} \zeta(\alpha-j)t^j, \quad (10)$$

where

$$t = -\log z = \sum_{l \geq 1} \frac{(1-z)^l}{l}.$$

For  $r > 0$ , the singular expansion of  $Li_{\alpha,r}$  is obtained using formal derivations:

$$Li_{\alpha,r}(z) = (-1)^r \frac{\partial^r}{\partial \alpha^r} Li_{\alpha,0}(z).$$

A natural consequence of this lemma (which is a particular case of [4, Lemma 2.6]), is that

$$Li_{\alpha,0}(z) = \Gamma(1-\alpha)(1-z)^{\alpha-1} + O(|1-z|^\alpha) + \zeta(\alpha) \mathbf{1}_{\alpha > 0}; \quad \alpha < 1. \quad (11)$$

Another result, which is very useful in what follows, is the decomposition of the Hadamard product of  $(1-z)^a \odot (1-z)^b$  (cf. [5, Proposition 8]).

**Lemma 3.2.** For real numbers  $a$  and  $b$ ,

$$(1-z)^a \odot (1-z)^b \sim \sum_{k \geq 0} \lambda_k^{(a,b)} \frac{(1-z)^k}{k!} + \sum_{k \geq 0} \mu_k^{(a,b)} \frac{(1-z)^{a+b+1+k}}{k!},$$

where the coefficients  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  are given by

$$\lambda_k^{(a,b)} = \frac{\Gamma(1+a+b)}{\Gamma(1+a)\Gamma(1+b)} \frac{(-a)^{\bar{k}}(-b)^{\bar{k}}}{(-a-b)^{\bar{k}}},$$



$$\mu_k^{(a,b)} = \frac{\Gamma(-1-a-b) (1+a)^{\bar{k}}(1+b)^{\bar{k}}}{\Gamma(-a)\Gamma(-b) (2+a+b)^{\bar{k}}},$$

where  $x^{\bar{k}}$  is defined as  $x(x+1)\dots(x+k-1)$ , for  $k$  a nonnegative integer.

Now equipped with the singularity analysis toolkit, we are ready to find the asymptotic average from the relation (9).

**Lemma 3.3.** *The expected value of the total cost induced by the toll  $n^2$  in the model of random free trees defined in Section 2 is*

$$a_n = \sqrt{\pi/8} n^{5/2} + O(n^{3/2}). \quad (12)$$

*Proof.* Since  $b_n = n^2$ , we have  $B(z) = Li_{-2,0}(z)$  and the equality (11) implies

$$B(z) = 2(1-z)^{-3} + O(|1-z|^{-2}). \quad (13)$$

Using the singular expansion (6) of the generating function of the tree, we have by Lemma 3.2

$$B(z) \odot C(z/e)^2 = 2^{-1/2}(1-z)^{-3/2} + O(|1-z|^{-1}).$$

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^z \frac{\partial_\omega [B(\omega) \odot C(\omega/e)^2]}{C(\omega/e)} d\omega &= \int_0^z \left[ \frac{3(1-\omega)^{-5/2}}{2\sqrt{2}} + O(|1-\omega|^{-2}) \right] d\omega \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1-z)^{-3/2} + O(|1-z|^{-1}). \end{aligned}$$

Finally by the relation (9) we obtain

$$A(z) \odot C(z/e) = \frac{1}{4}(1-z)^{-2} + O(|1-z|^{-3/2}). \quad (14)$$

Moreover, for  $\alpha$  positive, we have (see [6], for example)

$$\begin{aligned} [z^n](1-z)^{-\alpha} &= \binom{n+\alpha-1}{n} \frac{\Gamma(n+\alpha)}{\Gamma(\alpha)\Gamma(n+1)} \\ &= \frac{n^{\alpha-1}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} (1 + O(1/n)), \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

where  $[z^n](1-z)^{-\alpha}$  denotes the  $n$ -th coefficient of  $z^n$  in the expansion of  $(1-z)^{-\alpha}$  in entire series. The last equality is obtained applying Stirling's

formula. Then, by the expansion of (14) and singularity analysis, it follows that

$$a_n c_n e^{-n} = \frac{n}{4\Gamma(2)}(1 + O(1/n)) + O(n^{1/2}).$$

Finally, (12) follows by setting  $c_n = \frac{n^{-3/2}e^n}{\sqrt{2\pi}}(1 + O(1/n))$ .  $\square$

To estimate the moments of higher order, we return to the recurrence (1). For  $k \geq 0, n \geq 1$ , put

$$\mu_n(k) := \mathbb{E}(X_n^k),$$

and

$$\tilde{\mu}_n(k) := c_n e^{-n} \mu_n(k).$$

Let  $M_k(z)$  denote the ordinary generating function of  $\tilde{\mu}_n(k)$ , with  $z$  marking  $n$ . For  $k = 1$ ,

$$\tilde{\mu}_n(1) := c_n e^{-n} a_n \quad \text{and} \quad M_1(z) = A(z) \odot C(z/e).$$

For  $k \geq 2$ , we have

$$X_n^k = \sum_{k_1+k_2+k_3=k} \binom{k}{k_1, k_2, k_3} X_{L_n}^{k_1} X_{n-L_n}^{k_2} b_n^{k_3},$$

or

$$X_n^k = X_{L_n}^k + X_{n-L_n}^k + \sum_{\substack{k_1+k_2+k_3=k \\ k_1, k_2 < k}} \binom{k}{k_1, k_2, k_3} X_{L_n}^{k_1} X_{n-L_n}^{k_2} b_n^{k_3}.$$

Conditioning on the size of  $L_n$ , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_n(k) &= \sum_{\substack{k_1+k_2+k_3=k \\ k_1, k_2 < k}} \binom{k}{k_1, k_2, k_3} n^{2k_3} \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{n}{2(n-1)} \frac{c_j c_{n-j}}{c_n} \mu_j(k_1) \mu_{n-j}(k_2) \\ &+ \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{n}{2(n-1)} \frac{c_j c_{n-j}}{c_n} (\mu_j(k) + \mu_{n-j}(k)). \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying both sides by  $\frac{n-1}{ne^n} c_n$ , we obtain

$$\frac{n-1}{n} \tilde{\mu}_n(k) = \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{c_{n-j}}{e^{n-j}} \tilde{\mu}_j(k) + r_n(k), \quad (16)$$

where

$$r_n(k) = \sum_{\substack{k_1+k_2+k_3=k \\ k_1, k_2 < k}} \binom{k}{k_1, k_2, k_3} b_n^{k_3} \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{2} \tilde{\mu}_j(k_1) \tilde{\mu}_{n-j}(k_2).$$

Let  $R_k(z)$  denote the ordinary generating function of  $r_n(k)$ , with  $z$  marking  $n$ . Therefore

$$R_k(z) = \sum_{\substack{k_1+k_2+k_3=k \\ k_1, k_2 < k}} \binom{k}{k_1, k_2, k_3} (B(z)^{\odot k_3}) \odot [1/2 M_{k_1}(z) M_{k_2}(z)], \quad (17)$$

where

$$B(z)^{\odot k_3} := \underbrace{B(z) \odot \cdots \odot B(z)}_{k_3 \text{ time}}.$$

Multiplying (16) by  $z^n$  and summing over  $n \geq 1$ , we obtain

$$M_k(z) = \int_0^z M_k(\omega) \frac{d\omega}{\omega} M_k(z) C(z/e) + R_k(z),$$

which is the equality (7) with  $f(z) = M_k(z)$  and  $t(z) = R_k(z)$ . The solution of this equation is

$$M_k(z) = \frac{C(z/e)}{1 - C(z/e)} \int_0^z \partial_\omega R_k(\omega) \frac{d\omega}{C(\omega/e)}. \quad (18)$$

**Proposition 3.1.** *For  $k \geq 1$ , the generating function  $M_k(z)$  of  $\tilde{\mu}_n(k)$  satisfies*

$$M_k(z) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} A_k (1 - z)^{-5k/2 + \frac{1}{2}} + O(|1 - z|^{-5k/2 + 1}), \quad (19)$$

where the coefficients  $A_k$  are defined by the recurrence

$$A_k = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \binom{k}{j} \frac{A_j A_{k-j}}{2} + k A_{k-1} \frac{\Gamma(5k/2 - 1)}{\Gamma(5k/2 - 3)}, \quad k \geq 2; \quad A_1 = 2^{-3/2}. \quad (20)$$

*Proof.* The proof is inductive. By (14), the proposition is true for  $k = 1$ .

For  $k \geq 2$ , we prove that  $R_k(z)$  has a singular expansion in the form

$$R_k(z) = A_k (1 - z)^{-5k/2 + 1} + O(|1 - z|^{-5k/2 + \frac{3}{2}}). \quad (21)$$

Analyzing the various terms on the right hand side of (17), we observe that  $A_k$  are defined by the recurrence (20):

- (I) By the induction hypothesis, when  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are both nonzero, and  $k_3 = 0$ , the contribution to  $R_k(z)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2}M_{k_1}(z)M_{k_2}(z) &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ A_{k_1}(1-z)^{\frac{-5k_1}{2}+\frac{1}{2}} + O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5k_1}{2}+1}) \right] \\ &\times \left[ A_{k_2}(1-z)^{\frac{-5k_2}{2}+\frac{1}{2}} + O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5k_2}{2}+1}) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2}A_{k_1}A_{k_2}(1-z)^{\frac{-5k}{2}+1} + O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5k}{2}+3/2}). \end{aligned}$$

- (II) We have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2}M_{k_1}(z)M_{k_2}(z) &= \frac{A_{k_1}A_{k_2}}{2\Gamma(\frac{5(k_1+k_2)}{2}-1)} Li_{\frac{-5k}{2}+\frac{5k_3}{2}+2,0}(z) \\ &+ O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5(k_1+k_2)}{2}+3/2}), \end{aligned}$$

Hence, since  $B(z)^{\odot k_3} = Li_{-2k_3,0}(z)$ , when  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$  and  $k_3$  are all nonzero, by relation (11) the contribution to  $R_k(z)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} Li_{-2k_3,0}(z) \odot \left[ \frac{1}{2}M_{k_1}(z)M_{k_2}(z) \right] \\ &= \frac{A_{k_1}A_{k_2}}{2\Gamma(\frac{5(k_1+k_2)}{2}-1)} Li_{\frac{-5k}{2}+\frac{k_3}{2}+2,0}(z) \\ &+ Li_{-2k_3,0}(z) \odot O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5(k_1+k_2)}{2}+3/2}) \\ &= O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5k}{2}+3/2}). \end{aligned}$$

- (III) Consider now the case where  $k_1$  is nonzero and  $k_2 = 0$ . We have  $M_0(z) = C(z/e)$ . The contribution to  $R_k(z)$  is the  $\binom{k}{k_1}$  times

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2}M_{k_1}(z)M_{k_2}(z) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ A_{k_1}(1-z)^{\frac{-5k_1}{2}+\frac{1}{2}} + O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5k_1}{2}+1}) \right] \\ &\times \left[ 1 - \sqrt{2}(1-z)^{\frac{1}{2}} + O(|1-z|) \right] \\ &= \frac{A_{k_1}}{2\Gamma(\frac{5k_1}{2}-1/2)} Li_{\frac{-5k_1}{2}+\frac{3}{2},0}(z) + O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5k_1}{2}+1}). \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} Li_{-2k_3,0}(z) \odot \left[ \frac{1}{2} M_{k_1}(z) M_{k_2}(z) \right] &= \frac{A_{k_1}}{2\Gamma(\frac{5k_1}{2} - 1/2)} Li_{-\frac{5k}{2} + \frac{k_3}{2} + \frac{3}{2},0}(z) \\ &+ Li_{-2k_3,0}(z) \odot O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5k_1}{2}+1}), \end{aligned}$$

the contribution to  $R_k(z)$ , for  $k_3 \geq 2$ , is

$$O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5k}{2} + k_3/2 + 1/2}) = O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5k}{2} + 3/2}).$$

- (IV) In the case where  $k_1$  is nonzero,  $k_2 = 0$  and  $k_3 = 1$ , the contribution to  $R_k(z)$  is  $\binom{k}{k-1} = k$  times

$$\frac{A_{k-1}\Gamma(\frac{5k}{2} - 1)}{2\Gamma(\frac{5k}{2} - 3)} = (1-z)^{\frac{-5k}{2}+1} + O(|1-z|^{\frac{-5k}{2}+3/2}).$$

- (V) The case where  $k_2$  is nonzero and  $k_1 = 0$  is identical to the two preceding cases.

- (VI) The last contribution comes from the single term when both  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are zero. In this case, the contribution to  $R_k(z)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} B(z)^{\odot k} \odot \left[ \frac{1}{2} C\left(\frac{z}{e}\right)^2 \right] &= Li_{-2k,0}(z) \odot \left( 1/2 - \sqrt{2}(1-z)^{\frac{1}{2}} + O(|1-z|) \right) \\ &= Li_{-2k,0}(z) \odot \left( -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{\Gamma(-1/2)} Li_{3/2,0}(z) + O(1) \right) \\ &= O(|1-z|^{-2k+3/2-1}) = O(|1-z|^{-5k/2+3/2}). \end{aligned}$$

Adding all these six contributions yields the expansion (21), as well as the recurrence formula (20). Putting (21) in (18), we finally obtain the expansion (19).  $\square$

## 4 Proof of Theorem 1.1

According to Proposition 3.1, the generating function  $M_k(z)$  of  $(c_n e^{-n} \mu_n(k))_{k \geq 1}$  has the singular expansion

$$M_k(z) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} A_k (1-z)^{-5k/2 + \frac{1}{2}} + O(|1-z|^{-5k/2+1}),$$

where the  $A_k$ s satisfy the recurrence (20). Thus, since

$$\frac{c_n}{e^n} = \frac{n^{-3/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} (1 + O(1/n)),$$

by (15) and the techniques of singularity analysis, we obtain

$$\mu_n(k) = \frac{A_k \sqrt{\pi}}{\Gamma(\frac{5k-1}{2})} n^{5k/2} + O(n^{5k/2-1/2}). \quad (22)$$

It follows from (22) that for  $k \geq 1$ ,

$$\mathbb{E} \left[ \left( n^{-5/2} X_n \right)^k \right] = \frac{A_k \sqrt{\pi}}{\Gamma(\frac{5k-1}{2})} + O(n^{-1/2}). \quad (23)$$

In order to use the moments method (see for instance [1, Theorem 30.1]) we first prove that the sequence  $\frac{A_k \sqrt{\pi}}{\Gamma(\frac{5k-1}{2})}$  characterizes a probability distribution.

**Lemma 4.1.** *There exists a constant  $C < \infty$  such that*

$$\left| \frac{A_k}{k!} \right| \leq C^k k^{5k/2},$$

for all  $k \geq 1$ .

*Proof.* The proof will follow by induction. For  $k \geq 2$ , putting  $s_k := \frac{A_k}{k!}$  and dividing the recurrence (20) by  $k!$ , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} s_k &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} s_j s_{k-j} + s_{k-1} (5k/2 - 2)(5k/2 - 3) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} s_j s_{k-j} + \gamma s_{k-1} k^2, \end{aligned}$$

for  $\gamma = 25/4$ . By the induction hypothesis,

$$|s_k| \leq \frac{C^k}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} |j^j (k-j)^{k-j}|^{5/2} + \gamma C^{k-1} (k-1)^{\frac{5(k-1)}{2}} k^2.$$

When  $1 < j < k-1$  one can bound  $j^j (k-j)^{k-j}$  by  $2^2(k-2)^{k-2}$ . Then, for  $k \geq 3$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} |s_k| &\leq \frac{C^k}{2} [(k-1)^{k-1} + 2(k-2)^{k-1}]^{5/2} + \gamma C^{k-1} k^{\frac{5(k-1)}{2}} \\ &\leq \frac{C^k}{2} (3k^{k-1})^{5/2} + C^k \frac{\gamma}{C} k^{\frac{5(k-1)}{2}} \\ &\leq C^k k^{\frac{5k}{2}}, \end{aligned}$$

if we choose  $C \geq 2\gamma 3^{-5/2}$ . □

It follows from Lemma 4.1 that, for  $B$  sufficiently large,

$$\left| \frac{A_k \sqrt{\pi}}{k! \Gamma(\frac{5k-1}{2})} \right| \leq B^k, \tag{24}$$

and by [1, Theorem 30.1], there exists a unique probability distribution having the moments  $\frac{A_k \sqrt{\pi}}{k! \Gamma(\frac{5k-1}{2})}$ . Let  $Y$  be a random variable having such a probability distribution. We deduce that

$$n^{-5/2} X_n \xrightarrow{\mathcal{L}} Y.$$

Putting  $\xi = \frac{Y}{\sqrt{2}}$  and  $\bar{a}_k = \frac{2^{3k-1}}{k!} A_k$ , we obtain

$$\mathbb{E}(\xi^k) = \frac{k! \sqrt{\pi}}{2^{(7k-2)/2} \Gamma(\frac{5k-1}{2})} \bar{a}_k,$$

and

$$\bar{a}_k = 2(5k-6)(5k-4)\bar{a}_{k-1} + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \bar{a}_j \bar{a}_{k-j} \quad k \geq 2; \quad \bar{a}_1 = \sqrt{2},$$

which is the statement of Theorem 1.1.

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