

Topic Course on Probabilistic Methods (Week 11) Random Graphs (I)

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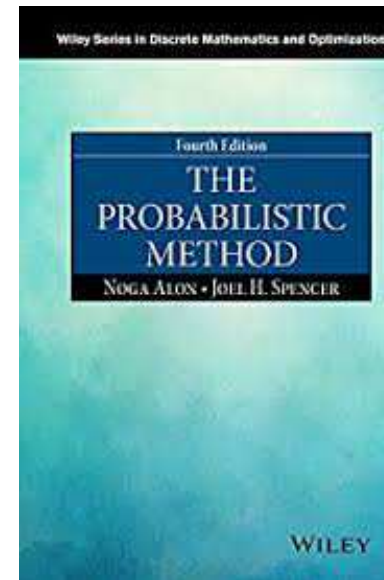
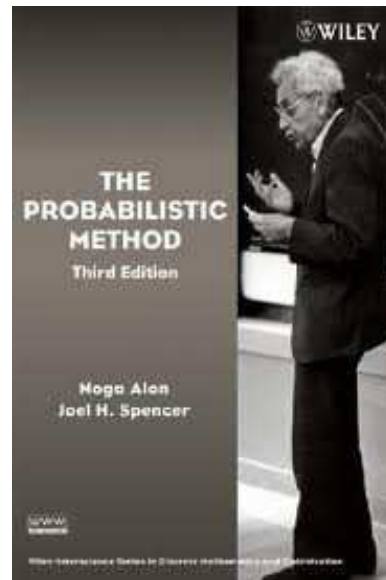


Univeristy of South Carolina, Spring, 2019



Introduction

The topic course is mostly based the textbook “The probabilistic Method” by Noga Alon and Joel Spencer (third edition 2008, John Wiley & Sons, Inc. ISBN 9780470170205 or fourth edition ISBN-13: 978-1119061953.)



Selected topics

- Linearity of Expectation (2 weeks)
- Alterations (1 week)
- The second moment method (1 week)
- The Local Lemma (1-2 weeks)
- Correlation Inequalities (1 week)
- Large deviation inequalities (3 weeks)
- Poisson Paradigm (1 week)
- Random graphs (2 weeks)
- Discrepancy (1 week)
- Entropy (1 week)



Subtopics

Random graphs

- Erdős-Rényi model
- Evolution of $G(n, p)$
- Galton-Watson process
- Graph branching process
- Barely subcritical regimes



Erdős-Rényi model

$G(n, p)$: Erdős-Rényi random graphs

- n nodes



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- n nodes
- For each pair of vertices, create an edge independently with probability p .

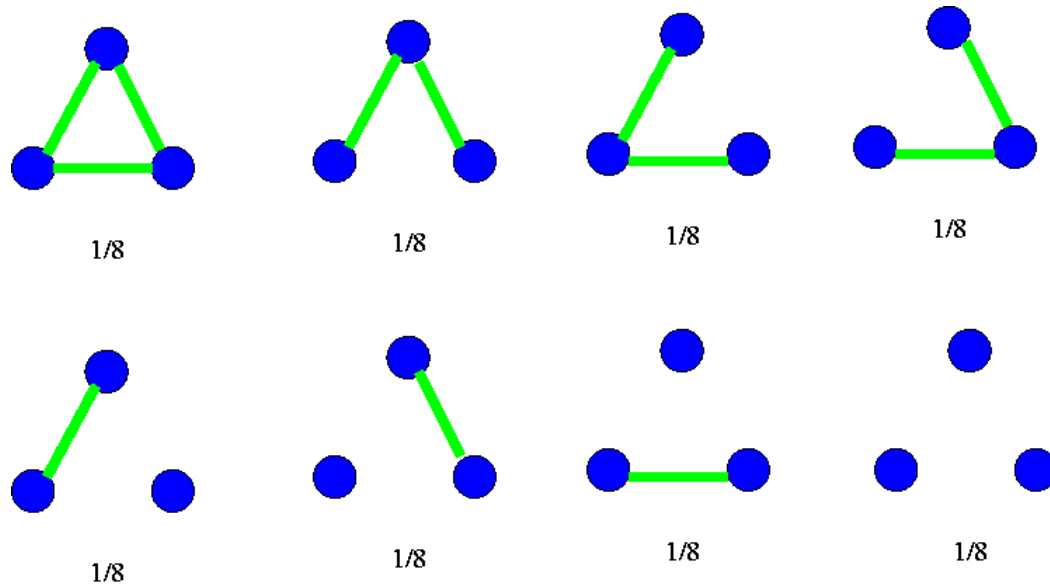


Erdős-Rényi model

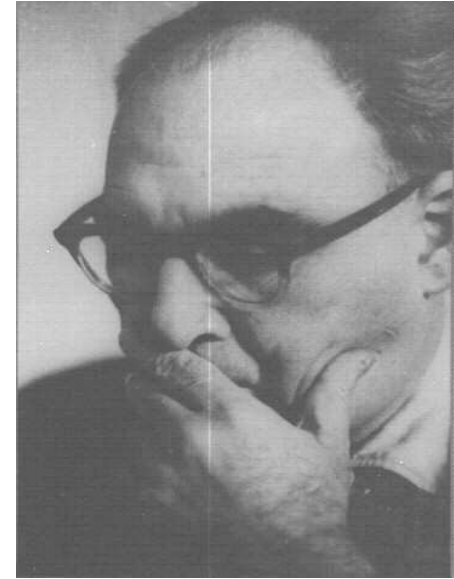
$G(n, p)$: Erdős-Rényi random graphs

- n nodes
- For each pair of vertices, create an edge independently with probability p .

An example $G(3, \frac{1}{2})$:



The birth of random graph theory



Paul Erdős and A. Rényi, On the evolution of random graphs
Magyar Tud. Akad. Mat. Kut. Int. Kozl. **5** (1960) 17-61.



The birth of random graph theory

ON THE EVOLUTION OF RANDOM GRAPHS

by

P. ERDÖS and A. RÉNYI

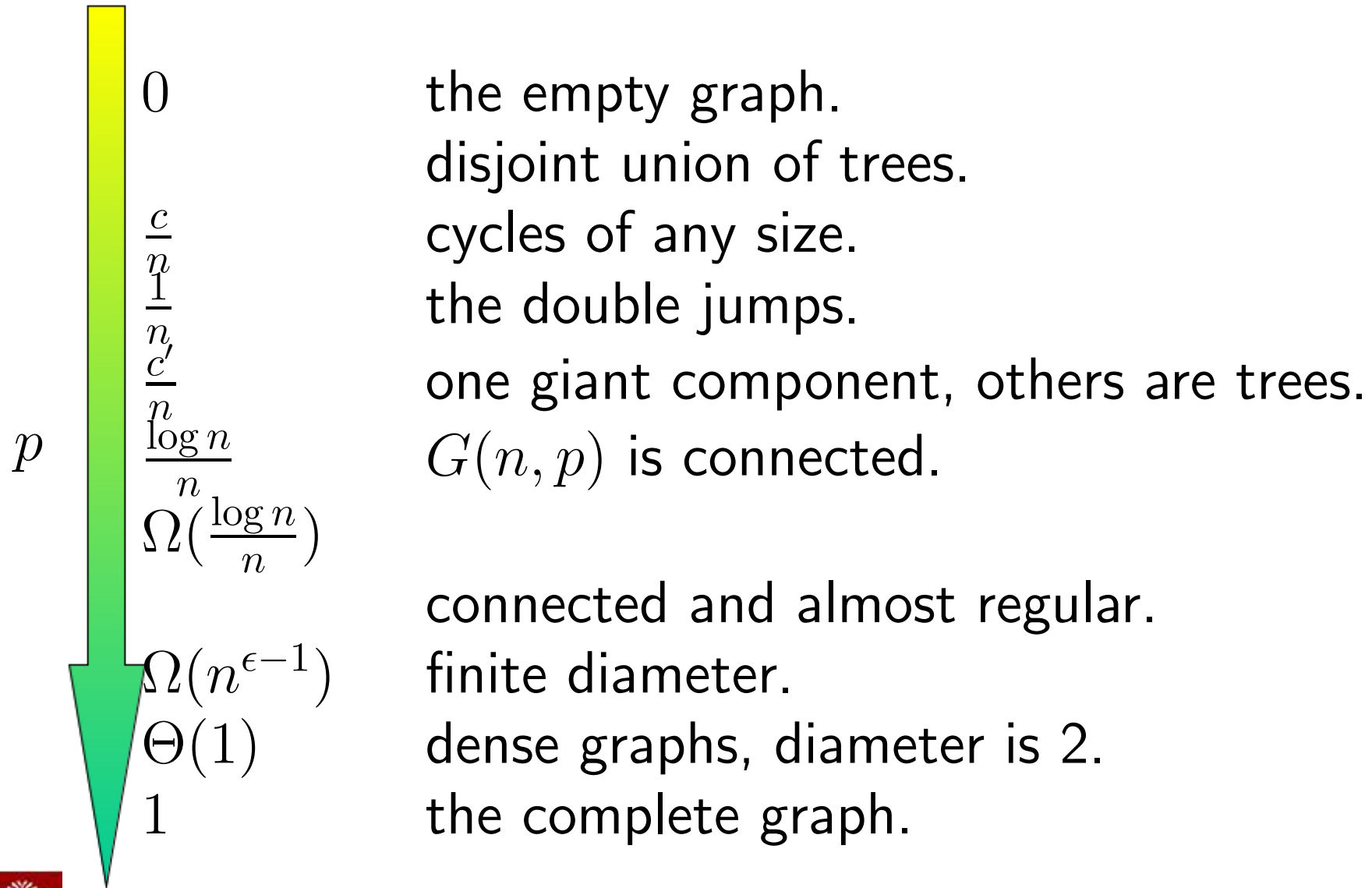
*Institute of Mathematics
Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Hungary*

1. Definition of a random graph

Let $E_{n, N}$ denote the set of all graphs having n given labelled vertices V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n and N edges. The graphs considered are supposed to be not oriented, without parallel edges and without slings (such graphs are sometimes called linear graphs). Thus a graph belonging to the set $E_{n, N}$ is obtained by choosing N out of the possible $\binom{n}{2}$ edges between the points V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n , and therefore the number of elements of $E_{n, N}$ is equal to $\binom{\binom{n}{2}}{N}$. A random graph $\Gamma_{n, N}$ can be defined as an element of $E_{n, N}$ chosen at random, so that each of the elements of $E_{n, N}$ have the same probability to be chosen, namely $1/\binom{\binom{n}{2}}{N}$. There is however an other slightly



Evolution of $G(n, p)$



Evolution of $G(n, p)$

Range I $p = o(1/n)$

The random graph $G_{n,p}$ is the disjoint union of trees. In fact, trees on k vertices, for $k = 3, 4, \dots$ only appear when p is of the order $n^{-k/(k-1)}$.



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Furthermore, for $p = cn^{-k/(k-1)}$ and $c > 0$, let $\tau_k(G)$ denote the number of connected components of G formed by trees on k vertices and $\lambda = c^{k-1}k^{k-2}/k!$. Then,

$$\Pr(\tau_k(G_{n,p}) = j) \rightarrow \frac{\lambda^j e^{-\lambda}}{j!}$$

for $j = 0, 1, \dots$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.



Evolution of $G(n, p)$

Range II $p \sim c/n$ for $0 < c < 1$

- In this range of p , $G_{n,p}$ contains cycles of any given size with probability tending to a positive limit.



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- In this range of p , $G_{n,p}$ contains cycles of any given size with probability tending to a positive limit.
- All connected components of $G_{n,p}$ are either trees or unicyclic components. Almost all (i.e., $n - o(n)$) vertices are in components which are trees.



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- All connected components of $G_{n,p}$ are either trees or unicyclic components. Almost all (i.e., $n - o(n)$) vertices are in components which are trees.
- The largest connected component of $G_{n,p}$ is a tree and has about $\frac{1}{\alpha}(\log n - \frac{5}{2} \log \log n)$ vertices, where $\alpha = c - 1 - \log c$.



Evolution of $G(n, p)$

Range III $p \sim 1/n + \mu/n$, the double jump

- If $\mu < 0$, the largest component has size $(\mu - \log(1 + \mu))^{-1} \log n + O(\log \log n)$.



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- If $\mu = 0$, the largest component has size of order $n^{2/3}$.



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- If $\mu = 0$, the largest component has size of order $n^{2/3}$.
- If $\mu > 0$, there is a unique giant component of size αn where $\mu = -\alpha^{-1} \log(1 - \alpha) - 1$.



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- If $\mu = 0$, the largest component has size of order $n^{2/3}$.
- If $\mu > 0$, there is a unique giant component of size αn where $\mu = -\alpha^{-1} \log(1 - \alpha) - 1$.
- Bollobás showed that a component of size at least $n^{2/3}$ in $G_{n,p}$ is almost always unique if p exceeds $1/n + 4(\log n)^{1/2}n^{-4/3}$.



Evolution of $G(n, p)$

Range IV $p \sim c/n$ for $c > 1$

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- Except for one “giant” component, all the other components are relatively small, and most of them are trees.
- The total number of vertices in components which are trees is approximately $n - f(c)n + o(n)$.
- The largest connected component of $G_{n,p}$ has approximately $f(c)n$ vertices, where

$$f(c) = 1 - \frac{1}{c} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!} (ce^{-c})^k.$$



Evolution of $G(n, p)$

Range V $p = c \log n/n$ with $c \geq 1$

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- The graph $G_{n,p}$ almost surely becomes connected.
- If

$$p = \frac{\log n}{kn} + \frac{(k-1) \log \log n}{kn} + \frac{y}{n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right),$$

then there are only trees of size at most k except for the giant component. The distribution of the number of trees of k vertices again has a Poisson distribution with mean value $\frac{e^{-ky}}{k \cdot k!}$.



Evolution of $G(n, p)$

Range VI $p \sim \omega(n) \log n/n$ where $\omega(n) \rightarrow \infty$.

In this range, $G_{n,p}$ is not only almost surely connected, but the degrees of almost all vertices are asymptotically equal.



Galton-Watson process

Galton-Watson branching process: Let Z be a distribution over the non-negative integers. Starting with a single node, it gives Z children nodes. Each of children nodes have Z children independently. The process continues, each new offspring having an independent number Z of children.



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- $Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_t, \dots$: a countable sequence of independent identically distributed variables, each have distribution Z .
- Y_t : the number of living children at time t .

$$Y_0 = 1$$

$$Y_t = Y_{t-1} + Z_t - 1.$$



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Let T be the total number of nodes in Galton-Watson process. There are two essentially different cases.

- $Y_t > 0$ for all $t \geq 0$. In this case the Galton-Watson process goes on forever and $T = \infty$.



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- $Y_t > 0$ for all $t \geq 0$. In this case the Galton-Watson process goes on forever and $T = \infty$.
- $Y_t = 0$ for some $t \geq 0$. In this case, T is the least integer for which $Y_T = 0$. The Galton-Watson process stops with T nodes.



Poisson branching process

Let Z be the Poisson distribution with the expectation c .

Write $T = T_c^{po}$.

Theorem: If $c \leq 1$, then T is finite with probability one. If $c > 1$, then T is infinite with probability $y = y(c)$, where y is the unique positive real satisfying

$$e^{-cy} = 1 - y.$$



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Proof: Suppose $c < 1$.

$$\Pr(T > t) \leq \Pr\left(\sum_{i=1}^t Z_i \geq t\right) < e^{-kt},$$

for some constant k . $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(T > t) = 0$.



Continue

Suppose $c \geq 1$. Let $z = 1 - y = \Pr(T < \infty)$. Then

$$z = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \Pr(Z_1 = i) z^i = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} e^{-c} \frac{c^i}{z^i} i! = e^{c(z-1)}.$$



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Hence $1 - y = e^{-cy}$. When $c = 1$, this equation has a unique solution $y = 0$. When $c > 1$, there are two solutions 1 and $y(c)$. By Chernoff's equality, for any t

$$\Pr\left(\sum_{i=1}^t Z_i \leq t\right) < e^{-\frac{(c-1)^2 t}{2c}}.$$

There is a t_0 so that $\sum_{t \geq t_0} e^{-\frac{(c-1)^2 t}{2c}} < 1$. Thus,
 $y > \Pr(T = \infty \mid T \geq t_0) \Pr(T \geq t_0) > 0$. □



Graph branching process



Graph branching process

Let $C(v)$ denote the component of $G(n, p)$, containing a vertex v . Explore $C(v)$ using Breadth First Search (BFS). In this procedure all vertices will be live, dead, or neutral. The live vertices will be contained in a queue Q .



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Algorithm for computing $C(v)$:

Push v into Q . Mark all vertices but v neutral.

while(Q is not empty){

 Pop Q and get w , mark w dead

foreach(w' neutral){

if (ww' is an edge of $G(n, p)$){

 mark w' live and push it into Q

 }

 }

} Return the set of all dead vertices.



Analysis

In the graph branching process, let Y_t be the size of the queue at time t and N_t be the set of neutral vertices. Let N_t be the set of neutral vertices.

$$Z_t \sim B(N_{t-1}, p).$$

$$N_t \sim B(n - 1, (1 - p)^t).$$

If $T = t$ it is necessary that $N_t = n - t$. We have

$$\Pr(|C(v)| = t) \leq \Pr(B(n - 1, (1 - p)^t) = n - t).$$

Or, equivalently,

$$\Pr(|C(v)| = t) \leq \Pr(B(n - 1, 1 - (1 - p)^t) = t - 1).$$



Comparison

Theorem: For any positive real c and any fixed integer k

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(|C(v)| = k \text{ in } G(n, \frac{c}{n})) = \Pr(T_c^{po} = k).$$



Comparison

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Proof: Let Γ be the set of k -tuples $\vec{z} = (z_1, z_2, \dots, z_k)$ of nonnegative integers such that the recursion $y_0 = 1$, $y_t = y_{t-1} + z_t - 1$ has $y_t > 0$ for $t < k$ and $y_k = 0$.

$$\Pr(T^{gr} = k) = \sum \Pr(Z_i^{gr} = z_i, 1 \leq i \leq k)$$

$$\Pr(T^{po} = k) = \sum \Pr(Z_i^{po} = z_i, 1 \leq i \leq k).$$

Here both sums are over $\vec{z} \in \Gamma$.



Continue

Since $Z_{i-1} = n - O(1)$ and $B(Z_i, p)$ approaches the Poisson distribution, we have

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$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(T^{gr} = k) &= \sum \Pr(Z_i^{gr} = z_i, 1 \leq i \leq k) \\ &= \sum \prod_{i=1}^k \Pr(B(N_{i-1}^{gr}, p) = z_i) \\ &\rightarrow \sum \prod_{i=1}^k \Pr(B(Z_i^{po} = z_i)) \\ &= \Pr(T^{po} = k). \quad \square \end{aligned}$$



Poisson branching process

Theorem: For any positive real c and any integer k ,

$$\Pr(T_c^{po} = k) = e^{-ck} \frac{(ck)^{k-1}}{k!}.$$



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Proof: We have $\Pr(T_c^{po} = k) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr(|C(v)| = k)$ in $G(n, p)$ with $p = c/n$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(C(v) = k) &\approx \binom{n}{k-1} k^{k-2} p^{k-1} (1-p)^{k(n-k)} \\ &\rightarrow \frac{e^{-ck} (ck)^{k-1}}{k!}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$






$$p = \frac{c}{n}, \quad 0 \leq c < 1$$


With Poisson approximation,

$$\Pr(|C(v)| \geq u) \leq (1 + o(1)) \Pr(T_c^{po} \geq u) \approx \sum_{k=u}^{\infty} e^{-ck} \frac{(ck)^{k-1}}{k!}.$$






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Setting $u = (c - 1 - \ln c)^{-1} \ln n + C \ln \ln n$, we have
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Thus, the size of largest component in $G(n, p)$ is at most $(c - 1 - \ln c)^{-1} \ln n + O(\ln \ln n)$.

Most of them are trees. Then number of trees of size k is

$$(1 + o(1))e^{-ck} \frac{(ck)^{k-1}}{k!} n.$$



Barely subcritical regimes

Let $p = (1 - \epsilon)/n$ with $\epsilon = \lambda n^{-1/3}$.



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$$\begin{aligned}(c - 1 - \ln c)^{-1} &= (-\epsilon - \ln(1 - \epsilon))^{-1} \\ &\approx \frac{2}{\epsilon^2} \\ &= 2n^{2/3} \lambda^{-2}.\end{aligned}$$



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The size of the largest component approaches $K n^{2/3} \lambda^{-2} \ln n$.

