Introduction to Random Graphs

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- World Wide Web
- Internet
- Social networks
- Journal citations

Statistical properties VS Exact answer to questions

The G(n, p) model

Properties of almost all graphs

Phase transition

G(n,p) Model

- G(n, p) Model [Erdös and Rényi1960]: |V| = n is the number of vertices, and for and different $u, v \in V$, $Pr(\{u, v\} \in E) = p$.
- **Example.** If $p = \frac{d}{n}$.

Then
$$E(\deg(v)) = \frac{d}{n}(n-1) \approx d$$

$$n \approx n-1$$

Example: G(n, 1/2)

$$K = \deg(v)$$

$$\Pr(K = k) = \binom{n-1}{k} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-k}$$

$$\approx \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n-k} = \frac{1}{2^n} \binom{n}{k}$$

$$E(K) = n/2$$
$$Var(K) = n/4$$

Independence!

Binomial Distribution

Recall: Central Limit Theorem

Normal distribution (Gauss Distribution): $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$, with density function: $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}, \quad -\infty < x < +\infty$

As long as $\{X_i\}$ is independent identically distributed with $E(X_i) = \mu$, $D(X_i) = \sigma^2$, then $\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ can be approximated by normal distribution $(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$ when *n* is large enough.

•
$$G(n, 1/2)$$

 $\mu = n\mu' = E(K) = \frac{n}{2},$
 $\sigma^2 = n(\sigma')^2 = Var(K) = n/4$

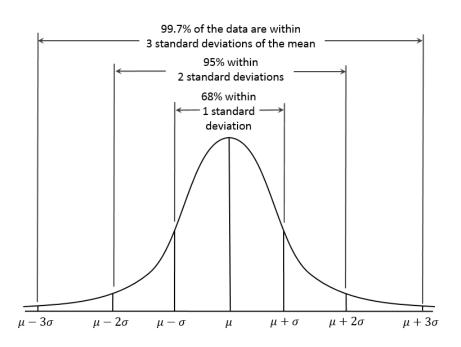
(CLT) Near the mean, the binomial distribution is well approximated by the normal distribution.

$$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{(k-n\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n/2}}e^{-\frac{(k-n/2)^2}{n/2}}$$

It works well when $k = \Theta(n)$.

• G(n, 1/2): for any $\epsilon > 0$, the degree of each vertex almost surely is within $(1 \pm \epsilon) \frac{n}{2}$.

Proof. As we can approximate the distribution by



$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n/2}} e^{-\frac{(k-n/2)^2}{n/2}}$$
$$\mu = \frac{n}{2}, \sigma = \frac{\sqrt{n}}{2}$$
$$\mu \pm c\sigma = \frac{n}{2} \pm c\frac{\sqrt{n}}{2} \approx$$
$$(1 \pm \epsilon)\frac{n}{2}$$

- G(n, p): for any $\epsilon > 0$, if p is $\Omega\left(\frac{\ln n}{n\epsilon^2}\right)$, then the degree of each vertex almost surely is within $(1 \pm \epsilon)np$.
 - Proof. Omitted

G(n, p) Model: independent set and clique

Lemma. For all integers n, k with $n \ge k \ge 2$; the probability that $G \in G(n, p)$ has a set of kindependent vertices is at most

$$\Pr(\alpha(G) \ge k) \le {\binom{n}{k}}(1-p)^{\binom{k}{2}}$$

the probability that $G \in G(n, p)$ has a set of k clique is at most

$$\Pr(\omega(G) \ge k) \le {\binom{n}{k}(p)}{\binom{k}{2}}$$

Lemma. The expected number of k –cycles in $G \in G(n, p)$ is $E(x) = \frac{(n)_k}{2k}p^k$.

Proof. The expectation of certain *n* vertices $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{k-1}, v_0$ form a length *k* cycle is: p^k

The possible ways to choose k vertices to form a cycle C is $\frac{(n)_k}{2k}$.

The expectation of the number of all cycles:

$$X = \sum_{C} X_{C} = \frac{(n)_{k}}{2k} p^{k}$$

The G(n, p) model

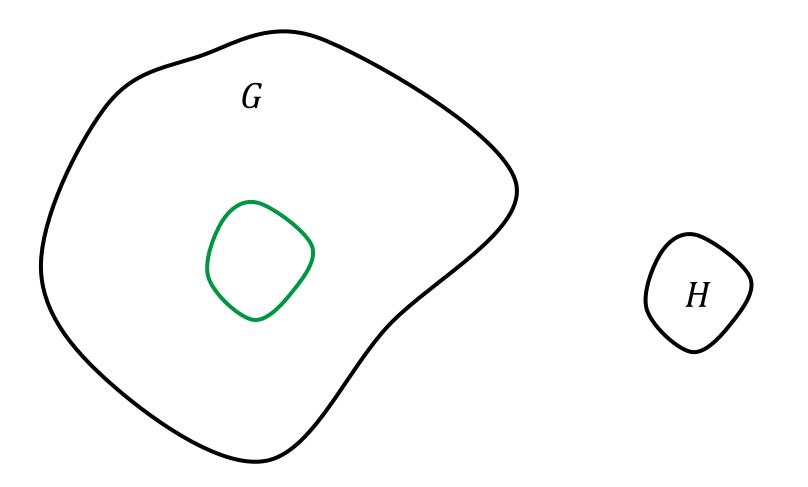
Properties of almost all graphs

Phase transition

Properties of almost all graphs

- For a graph property P, when $n \to \infty$, If the *limit* of the probability of $G \in G(n, p)$ having the property tends to
 - -1: we say than the property holds for almost all (almost every / almost surely) $G \in G(n, p)$.
 - **0**: we say than the property holds for almost no $G \in G(n, p)$.

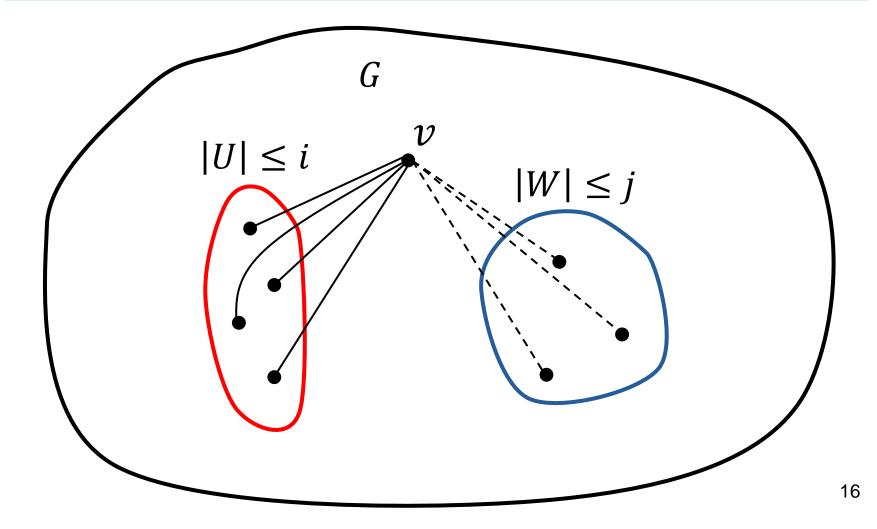
Proposition. For every constant $p \in (0,1)$ and every graph *H*, almost every $G \in G(n,p)$ contains an induced copy of H.



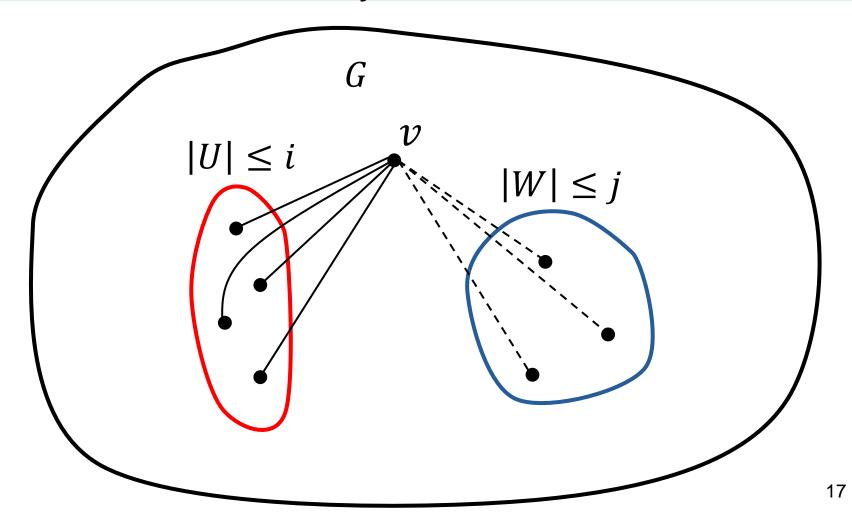
Proposition. For every constant $p \in (0,1)$ and every graph *H*, almost every $G \in G(n,p)$ contains an induced copy of H.

Proof. $V(G) = \{v_0, v_1, \dots, v_{n-1}\}, k = |H|$ Fix some $U \in \binom{V(G)}{k}$, then $\Pr(U \cong H) = r > 0$ r depends on p, k not on n. There are $\lfloor n/k \rfloor$ disjoint such U. The probability that none of the G[U] is isomorphic to H is: $= (1 - r)^{\lfloor n/k \rfloor}$ $\Pr[\neg(H \subseteq G \text{ induced})]: \leq (1 - r)^{\lfloor n/k \rfloor}$ $n \to \infty$

Property $P_{i,j}$: for any disjoint vertex set U, W with $|U| \le i, |W| \le j$; exists a vertex $v \notin U \cup W$; v is adjacent to all vertices in U but to none in W.



Proposition. For every constant $p \in (0,1)$ and $i, j \in N$, almost every graph $G \in G(n,p)$ has the property $P_{i,j}$.



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Proof. Fix U, W and $v \in G - (U \cup W)$, q = 1 - p,

The probability that $P_{i,j}$ holds for v: $p^{|U|}q^{|W|} \ge p^i q^j$

The probability there's no such v for chosen U, W:

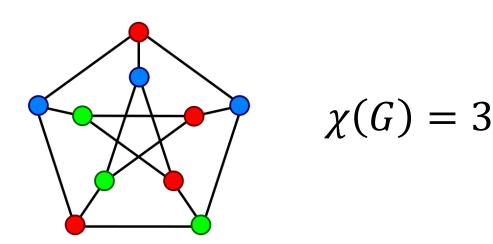
$$= \left(1 - p^{|U|} q^{|W|}\right)^{n - |U| - |W|} \le \left(1 - p^{i} q^{j}\right)^{n - i - j}$$

The upper bound for the number of different choice of $U, W: n^{i+j}$ The probability there exists some U, W without suitable v:

$$\leq n^{i+j} \left(1 - p^i q^j\right)^{n-i-j} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$$

Coloring

- Vertex coloring: to G = (V, E), a vertex coloring is a map $c: V \to S$ such that $c(v) \neq c(w)$ whenever v and w are adjacent.
- Chromatic number \(\chi(G)\): the smallest size of S.



Coloring

- Vertex coloring: to G = (V, E), a vertex coloring is a map $c: V \rightarrow S$ such that $c(v) \neq c(w)$ whenever v and w are adjacent.
- Chromatic number $\chi(G)$: the smallest size of S.

Some famous results:

- Whether $\chi(G) = k$ is NP-complete.
- Every Planar graph is 4-colourable.
- [Grtözsch 1959] Every Planar graph not containing a triangle is 3-colourable.

Proposition. For every constant $p \in (0,1)$ and every $\epsilon > 0$, almost every graph $G \in G(n,p)$ has chromatic number $\chi(G) > \frac{\log(1/q)}{2+\epsilon} \cdot \frac{n}{\log n}$.

Proof. The size of the maximum independent set in $G: \alpha(G)$ $\Pr(\alpha(G) \ge k) \le {\binom{n}{k}} q^{\binom{k}{2}} \le n^k q^{\binom{k}{2}}$ $= q^{k \frac{\log n}{\log q} + \frac{1}{2}k(k-1)} = q^{\frac{k}{2}\left(-\frac{2\log n}{\log(1/q)} + k - 1\right)}$ (*) Take $k = (2 + \epsilon) \frac{\log n}{\log(1/a)}$ then (*) tends to ∞ with n. $\therefore \Pr(\alpha(G) \ge k) \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0 \Rightarrow No k \text{ vertices can have the}$ same color. 1 (4 /)

$$\therefore \chi(G) > \frac{n}{k} = \frac{\log(1/q)}{2 + \epsilon} \cdot \frac{n}{\log n}$$

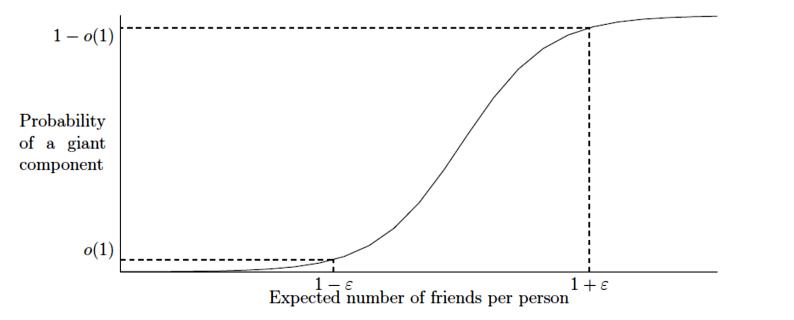
The G(n, p) model

Properties of almost all graphs

Phase transition

Phase transition

The interesting thing about the G(n, p)model is that even though edges are chosen independently, certain global properties of the graph emerge from the independent choice.



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Phase transition Definition. If there exists a function p(n)such that

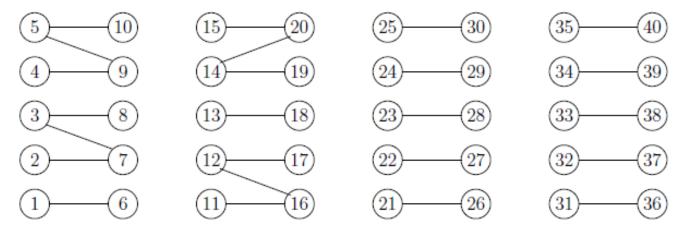
- when $\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{p_1(n)}{p(n)} \right) = 0$, $G(n, p_1(n))$ almost surely does not have the property.

- when $\lim_{n\to\infty} \left(\frac{p_2(n)}{p(n)}\right) = \infty$, $G(n, p_2(n))$ almost surely has the property.

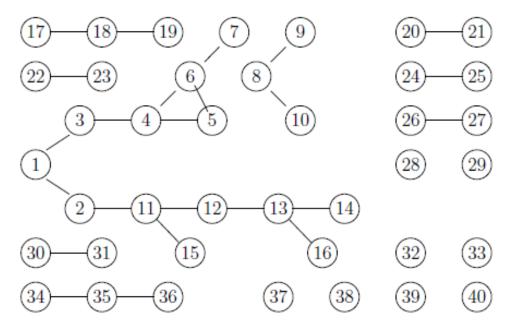
Then we say phase transition occurs and p(n) is the threshold.

Phase transition

Probability	Transition
$p = o(\frac{1}{n})$	Forest of trees, no component
	of size greater than $O(\log n)$
$p = \frac{d}{n}, d < 1$	All components of size $O(\log n)$
$p = \frac{d}{n}, d = 1$	Components of size $O(n^{\frac{2}{3}})$
$p = \frac{d}{n}, d < 1$ $p = \frac{d}{n}, d = 1$ $p = \frac{d}{n}, d > 1$	Giant component plus $O(\log n)$ components
$p = \sqrt{\frac{2\ln n}{n}}$	Diameter two
$p = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\ln n}{n}$	Giant component plus isolated vertices
	Disappearance of isolated vertices
$p = \frac{\ln n}{n}$	Appearance of Hamilton circuit
	Diameter $O(\log n)$
$p = \frac{1}{2}$	Clique of size $(2 - \epsilon) \ln n$



A graph with 40 vertices and 24 edges



A randomly generated G(n, p) graph with 40 vertices and 24 edges

John's book: Fig 8.2

First moment method

Markov's Inequality: Let x be a random variable that assumes only nonnegative values. Then for all a > 0

$$\Pr(x \ge a) \le \frac{E[x]}{a}$$

First moment method : for non-negative, integer valued variable x $Pr(x > 0) = Pr(x \ge 1) \le E(x)$ $\therefore Pr(x = 0) = 1 - Pr(x > 0) \ge 1 - E(x)$ First moment method : for non-negative , integer valued variable x $Pr(x > 0) = Pr(x \ge 1) \le E(x)$ $\therefore Pr(x = 0) = 1 - Pr(x > 0) \ge 1 - E(x)$

- If the expectation goes to 0: the property almost surely does not happen.
- If the expectation does not goes to 0:

e.g. Expectation =
$$\frac{1}{n} \times n^2 + \frac{n-1}{n} \times 0 = n$$

i.e., a <u>vanishingly small</u> fraction of the sample contribute <u>a lot</u> to the expectation.

Chebyshev's Inequality

• For any a > 0, $\Pr(|X - E(X)| \ge a) \le \frac{Var[X]}{a^2}$

Second moment method **Theorem.** Let x(n) be a random variable with E(x) > 0. If $Var(x) = o(E^2(x))$ Then x is almost surely greater than zero. **Proof.** If E(x) > 0, then for $x \le 0$, $\Pr(x \le 0) \le \Pr(|x - E(x)| \ge E(x))$ $\leq \frac{Var(x)}{E^2(x)} \to 0$

Probability	Transition
$p = o(\frac{1}{n})$	Forest of trees, no component
	of size greater than $O(\log n)$
$p = \frac{d}{n}, d < 1$	All components of size $O(\log n)$
$p = \frac{d}{n}, d = 1$	Components of size $O(n^{\frac{2}{3}})$
$p = \frac{d}{n}, d < 1$ $p = \frac{d}{n}, d = 1$ $p = \frac{d}{n}, d > 1$	Giant component plus $O(\log n)$ components
$p = \sqrt{\frac{2\ln n}{n}}$	Diameter two
$p = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\ln n}{n}$	Giant component plus isolated vertices
	Disappearance of isolated vertices
$p = \frac{\ln n}{n}$	Appearance of Hamilton circuit
	Diameter $O(\log n)$
$p = \frac{1}{2}$	Clique of size $(2 - \epsilon) \ln n$

- **Diameter:** the maximum length of the shortest path between a pair of nodes.
- **Theorem:** The property that G(n, p) has diameter two has a sharp threshold at p =

$$\sqrt{2}\sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}$$

Theorem. The property that G(n, p) has diameter two has a <u>sharp threshold</u> at $p = \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}$

Proof. For any two different vertices i < j, $I_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \{i,j\} \notin E, \text{ no other vertex is adjacent to both } i \text{ and } j \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$

$$x = \sum_{i < j} I_{ij}$$

If
$$E(x) \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} 0$$
, then for large *n*, almost surely the diameter is at most two.

Theorem. The property that G(n, p) has diameter two has a sharp threshold at $p = \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}$

Proof. For any two different vertices i < j, $I_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \{i,j\} \notin E, \text{ no other vertex is adjacent to both } i \text{ and } j \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$

$$x = \sum_{i < j} I_{ij} \qquad E(x) = {n \choose 2} (1-p)(1-p^2)^{n-2}$$

Take $p = c \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}, E(x) \cong \frac{n^2}{2} \left(1 - c \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}\right) \left(1 - c^2 \frac{\ln n}{n}\right)^n$
$$\cong \frac{n^2}{2} e^{-c^2 \ln n} = \frac{1}{2} n^{2-c^2}$$
³⁴

Theorem. The property that G(n, p) has diameter two has a sharp threshold at $p = \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}$

Proof. For any two different vertices i < j, $I_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \{i,j\} \notin E, \text{ no other vertex is adjacent to both } i \text{ and } j \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$

$$x = \sum_{i < j} I_{ij} \qquad E(x) = \binom{n}{2} (1-p)(1-p^2)^{n-2}$$

Take $p = c \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}, \ c > \sqrt{2}, \ \lim_{n \to \infty} E(x) = 0$

For large n, almost surely the diameter is at most two.

Theorem. The property that G(n, p) has diameter two has a sharp threshold at $p = \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}$

• Take
$$p = c_{\sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}}, c > \sqrt{2}, \lim_{n \to \infty} E(x) = 0$$

• Take
$$p = c \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}, c < \sqrt{2},$$

 $E(x^2) = E\left(\sum_{i < j} I_{ij}\right)^2$ If $Var(x) = o(E^2(x))$, then for large n , almost surely the diameter will be larger than two.

• Take
$$p = c \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}, c < \sqrt{2}$$

$$E(x^2) = E\left(\sum_{i < j} I_{ij}\right)^2 = E\left(\sum_{i < j} I_{ij} \sum_{k < l} I_{kl}\right) = E\left(\sum_{i < j} I_{ij} I_{kl}\right) = \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ k < l}} E\left(I_{ij} I_{kl}\right)$$

 $a = |\{i, j, k, l\}|$

$$E(x^{2}) = \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ k < l \\ a = 4}} E(I_{ij}I_{kl}) + \sum_{\substack{\{i, j, k\} \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(I_{ij}I_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 2}} E(I_{ij}^{2})$$

• Take
$$p = c\sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}, c < \sqrt{2}$$

$$E(x^{2}) = \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ k < l \\ a = 4}} E(I_{ij}I_{kl}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(I_{ij}I_{kl}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(I_{ij}I_{kl}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(I_{ij}I_{kl}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(I_{ij}I_{kl}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(I_{ij}I_{kl}) \leq (1 - p^{2})^{2(n-4)} \leq (1 - c^{2}\frac{\ln n}{n})^{2n} (1 + o(1)) \leq n^{-2c^{2}}(1 + o(1))$$

$$\sum_{\substack{i < j \\ k < l \\ u = 4}} E(I_{ij}I_{kl}) \leq \frac{1}{4}n^{4-2c^{2}}(1 + o(1))$$

• Take
$$p = c \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}, c < \sqrt{2}$$

 $E(x^2) = \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ k < l \\ a = 4}} E(I_{ij}I_{kl}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(I_{ij}I_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 2}} E(I_{ij}^2)$

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• Take
$$p = c \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}, c < \sqrt{2}$$

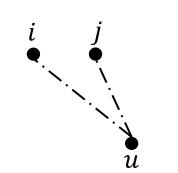
$$E(x^{2}) = \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ k < l \\ a = 4}} E(l_{ij}l_{kl}) + \sum_{\substack{\{i,j,k\} \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a = 3}} E(l_{ij}l_{ik}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ a =$$

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• Take
$$p = c \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}, c < \sqrt{2}$$

$$E(x^2) = \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ k < l \\ a = 4}} E(I_{ij}I_{kl}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ k < l \\ a = 3}} E(I_{ij}I_{kl}) + \sum_{\substack{i < j \\ k < l \\ a = 2}} E(I_{ij}^2)$$

$$E(I_{ij}^2) = E(I_{ij})$$
$$\sum_{ij} E(I_{ij}^2) = E(x) \cong \frac{1}{2}n^{2-c^2}$$



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• Take
$$p = c \sqrt{\frac{\ln n}{n}}, c < \sqrt{2}$$

$$E(x^2) \le E^2(x)(1 + o(1))$$

A graph almost surely has at least one bad pair of vertices and thus diameter greater than two.

Phase transition

Definition. If there exists a function p(n) such that

- when $\lim_{n\to\infty} \left(\frac{p_1(n)}{p(n)}\right) = 0$, $G(n, p_1(n))$ almost surely does not have the property.

- when $\lim_{n\to\infty} \left(\frac{p_2(n)}{p(n)}\right) = \infty$, $G(n, p_2(n))$ almost surely has the property.

Then we say phase transition occurs and p(n) is the threshold.

Every increasing property has a threshold.

Increasing property

- **Definition:** The probability of a graph having the property increases as edges are added to the graph.
- Example:
 - Connectivity
 - Having no isolated vertices
 - Having a cycle

—

Lemma: If *Q* is an increasing property of graphs and $0 \le p \le q \le 1$, then the probability that G(n, q)has property *Q* is greater than or equal to the probability that G(n, p) has property *Q*.

Proof:

Independently generate graph G(n, p) and $G(n, \frac{q-p}{1-p})$. $H = G(n, p) \cup G(n, \frac{q-p}{1-p})$ (the union of the edge set). Graph *H* has the same distribution as G(n, q): $\Pr(\{u, v\} \in E(H)) = p + (1-p)\frac{q-p}{1-p} = q.$

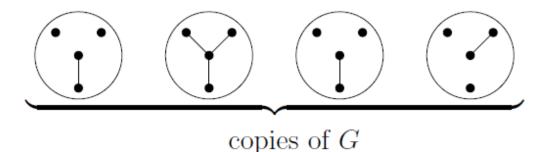
And edges in *H* are independent. The result follows naturally.

Replication

m-fold replication of G(n, p):

- Independently generate m copies of G(n, p) (on the same vertex set);
- Take the union of the m copies;

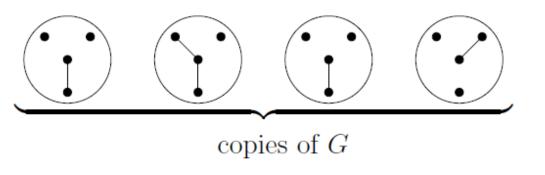
The result graph *H* has the same distribution as G(n, q), where $q = 1 - (1 - p)^m$.

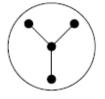


If any graph has three or more edges, then the m-fold replication has three or more edges.



The m-fold replication H





The m-fold replication H

Even if no graph has three or more edges, the m-fold replication might have three or more edges.

John's book: Figure 8.10

Replication

m-fold replication of G(n, p):

- Independently generate m copies of G(n, p) (on the same vertex set);
- Take the union of the m copies;

The result graph *H* has the same distribution as G(n, q), where $q = 1 - (1 - p)^m$.

One of the copies of G(n, p) has the increasing property \downarrow G(n, q) has the increasing property. As $q \leq 1 - (1 - mp) = mp$ $\therefore \Pr(G(n, mp)$ has $Q) \geq \Pr(G(n, q)$ has Q) **Theorem:** Every increasing property Q of G(n, p) has a phase transition at p(n), where for each n, p(n) is the minimum real number a_n for which the probability that $G(n, a_n)$ has property Q is $\frac{1}{2}$.

Proof:

First prove that for any function $p_0(n)$ with $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{p_0(n)}{p(n)} = 0$, almost surely $G(n, p_0)$ does not have the property Q.

Suppose otherwise: the probability that $G(n, p_0)$ has the property Q does not converge to Q.

Then there exists $\epsilon > 0$ for which the probability that $G(n, p_0)$ has the property Q is $\geq \epsilon$ on an infinite set I of n. Let $m = \lceil (1/\epsilon) \rceil$

First prove that for any function $p_0(n)$ with

 $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{p_0(n)}{p(n)}=0$, almost surely $G(n,p_0)$ does not have

the property Q.

Let G(n,q) be the *m*-fold replication of $G(n,p_0)$.

For all $n \in I$, the probability

that G(n,q) does not have $Q: \leq (1-\epsilon)^m \leq e^{-1} \leq 1/2$

 $Pr(\boldsymbol{G}(n, \boldsymbol{mp_0}) has Q) \ge Pr(\boldsymbol{G}(n, \boldsymbol{q}) has Q) \ge 1/2$

As p(n) is the minimum real number a_n for which $Pr(G(n, a_n)has Q) = \frac{1}{2}$, it follows that $mp_0(n) \ge p(n)$. $\therefore \frac{p_0(n)}{p(n)} \ge \frac{1}{m}$ infinitely often.

Contradict to the fact that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{p_0(n)}{p(n)} = 0$.

Theorem: Every increasing property Q of G(n, p) has a phase transition at p(n), where for each n, p(n) is the minimum real number a_n for which the probability that $G(n, a_n)$ has property Q is $\frac{1}{2}$.

Proof:

Secondly prove that for any function $p_1(n)$ with $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{p(n)}{p_1(n)} = 0$, almost surely $G(n, p_1)$ almost surely has the property Q.

Theorem: Every increasing property Q of G(n, p) has a phase transition at p(n), where for each n, p(n) is the minimum real number a_n for which the probability that $G(n, a_n)$ has property Q is $\frac{1}{2}$.

Another Proof:

 p^* is the probability that $Pr(\boldsymbol{G}(n, p^*) \text{ has } Q) = \frac{1}{2}$

As $Pr(\boldsymbol{G}(n, 1 - (1 - p)^k) \text{ has } Q) \leq Pr(\boldsymbol{G}(n, kp) \text{ has } Q)$

 $Pr(\boldsymbol{G}(n, kp) \text{ does not have } Q) \leq [Pr(\boldsymbol{G}(n, p) \text{ does not have } Q)]^k$

Take $k = \omega$ is a function of n that $\omega \to \infty$ arbitrarily slow as $n \to \infty$. $\triangleright \Pr(\mathbf{G}(n, \omega \cdot p^*) \text{ does not have } Q) \leq \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\omega} = o(1)$ $\triangleright \operatorname{Take} p = \frac{p^*}{\omega}$, $\frac{1}{2} = \Pr(\mathbf{G}(n, p^*) \text{ does not have } Q) \leq \left[\Pr\left(\mathbf{G}\left(n, \frac{p^*}{\omega}\right) \text{ does not have } Q\right)\right]^{\omega}$ Thus $\Pr\left(\mathbf{G}\left(n, \frac{p^*}{\omega}\right) \text{ does not have } Q\right) \geq \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{\omega}} = 1 - o(1).$

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