Random Graphs

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Choosing a graph at random

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Choosing a graph at random

 $G_{n,p}$: Each edge *e* of the complete graph K_n is included independently with probability p = p(n).

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 $G_{n,p}$: Each edge *e* of the complete graph K_n is included independently with probability p = p(n).

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p = 1/2, each subgraph of K_n is equally likely.

 $G_{n,m}$: Vertex set [n] and m random edges.

If $m \sim \binom{n}{2}p$ then $G_{n,p}$ and $G_{n,m}$ have "similar" properties.

Random graphs first used to prove existence of graphs with certain properties:

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Random graphs first used to prove existence of graphs with certain properties:

Erdős (1947): Whp the maximum size of a clique or independent set in $G_{n,1/2}$ is $\leq 2 \log_2 n$.

Therefore

 $R(k,k)\geq 2^{k/2}.$



Random graphs first used to prove existence of graphs with certain properties:

Mantel (1907): There exist triangle free graphs with arbitrarily large chromatic number.

Erdős (1959): There exist graphs of arbitrarily large girth and chromatic number.

m = cn, c > 0 is a large constant. Whp $G_{n,m}$ has o(n) vertices on cycles of length $\leq \log \log n$ and no independent set of size more than $\frac{2\log c}{c}n$.

So removing the vertices on small cycles gives us a graph with girth $\geq \log \log n$ and chromatic number $\geq \frac{c+o(1)}{2\log c}$.

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Erdős and Rényi began the study of random graphs in their own right.

On Random Graphs I (1959): $m = \frac{1}{2}n(\log n + c_n)$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \Pr(G_{n,m} \text{ is connected}) = \begin{cases} 0 & c_n \to -\infty \\ e^{-e^{-c}} & c_n \to c \\ 1 & c_n \to +\infty \end{cases}$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \Pr(\delta(G_{n,m}) > 1)$$



 $n \rightarrow \infty$

- *m* Structure of *G*_{*n*,*m*} **whp**
- $o(n^{1/2})$ Isolated edges and vertices



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- $n^{1/2} \log n$ Isolated edges and vertices and paths of length 2

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- *m* Structure of *G_{n,m}* **whp**
- $o(n^{1/2})$ Isolated edges and vertices
- $n^{1/2} \log n$ Isolated edges and vertices and paths of length 2
- $n^{2/3}\log n$ Components are of the form
- $n^{\frac{k-1}{k}}\log n$ Components are trees of vertex size 1, 2, ..., k + 1. Each possible such tree appears.

 $\frac{1}{2}cn$ Mainly trees. Some unicyclic components. Maximum c < 1 component size $O(\log n)$

- $\frac{1}{2}n$ Complicated. Maximum component size order $n^{2/3}$. Has subsequently been the subject of moreintensive study e.g. Janson, Knuth, Łuczak and Pittel (1993).
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- $\frac{1}{2}cn$ Unique giant component of size G(c)n. Remainder c > 1 almost all trees. Second largest component of size $O(\log n)$

Only very simple probabilistic tools needed. Mainly first and second moment method.

Connectivity threshold

$$p = (1 + \epsilon) \frac{\log n}{n}$$

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 X_k = number of *k*-components, $1 \le k \le n/2$. $X = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_{n/2}$ $G_{n,p}$ is connected iff X = 0.

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$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Pr}(X \neq 0) &\leq & \mathsf{E}(X) \\ &\leq & \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} \binom{n}{k} k^{k-2} p^{k-1} (1-p)^{k(n-k)} \\ &\leq & \frac{n}{\log n} \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} \left(\frac{e \log n}{n^{(1+\epsilon)(1-k/n)}} \right)^k \\ &\to & 0. \end{aligned}$$

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• Whp m_1 is the "time" when G_m first becomes connected.

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- Whp At time m₂ there are (log n)^{n-o(n)} distinct Hamilton cycles.
 Cooper and Frieze (1989).

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Whp m_k is the "time" when G_m first has k/2 edge disjoint Hamilton cycles.
 Bollobás and Frieze (1985).

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Is it true that **whp** G_m has $\delta(G_m)/2$ Hamilton cycles, for $m = 1, 2, ..., \binom{n}{2}$?

It is known to be true as long as $\delta(G_m) = o(average \ degree)$.

It is known that $G_{n,1/2}$ has $\sim n/4$ edge disjoint Hamilton cycles, Frieze and Krivelevich (2005).

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Is it true that if we include the edges of the *n*-cube, Q^n with constant probability p > 1/2 then the resulting random subgraph is Hamiltonian **whp**?

It is known to have a perfect matching whp - Bollobás (1999).



If we randomly color the edges of $G_{n,Kn\log n}$ with Kn colors and K is sufficiently large, then **whp** there exists a Hamilton cycle with every edge a different color – Cooper and Frieze (2002).

If we only have $\sim \frac{1}{2}n\log n$ random edges, then how many colors do we need to get such a cycle **whp**?

If we only have *n* colors then how many edges do we need to get such a cycle **whp**?

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If we replace Hamilton Cycle by Spanning Tree then the problem is solved: The hitting time for a multi-colored spanning tree is the maximum of the hitting time for connectivity and the appearance of n - 1 colors – Frieze and McKay (1994).

If we consider digraphs and ask for a multi-colored Hamilton cycle or spanning arborescence then nothing(?) is known.

Is it true that if *T* is a degree bounded tree with *n* vertices then whp $G_{n,Kn\log n}$ contains a **spanning** copy of *T*, for sufficiently large K = K(T). Problem posed by Jeff Kahn.

True if *T* has a linear number of leaves.

The tree below seems to be a difficult one:

 $n^{1/2}$ paths of length $n^{1/2}$

Small Subgraphs

Given a **fixed** graph *H*, one can ask when does $G_{n,p}$ contain a copy of *H*.

If X_H is the number of copies of *H* in $G_{n,p}$ then

 $\mathbf{E}(X_H) \sim C_H n^{v_H} p^{e_H}$

where C_H is a constant, v_H , e_H are the number of vertices and edges in H.

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Does $E(X_H) \rightarrow \infty$ imply that there is a copy of *H* whp?





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What we need is that $\mathbf{E}(X_{H'}) \to \infty$ for all subgraphs $H' \subseteq H$.

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What we need is that $E(X_{H'}) \to \infty$ for all subgraphs $H' \subseteq H$. Bollobás (1981), Karoński and Ruciński (1983). Study of this problem has led to important probabilistic tools: Suen's inequality (1980), Janson's Inequality (1990) and the concentration inequality for multivariate polynomials by Kim and Vu (2004).


Matula (1970) showed using the second moment method that whp the maximum size $\alpha(G_{n,1/2})$ of an independent set is

 $2\log_2 n - 2\log_2 \log_2 n + O(1).$

Thus, **whp** $\chi(G_{n,1/2}) \ge \sim \frac{n}{2 \log_2 n}$

Bollobás and Erdős (1976) and Grimmett and McDiarmid (1975) showed that **whp** a simple greedy algorithm uses $\sim \frac{n}{\log_2 n}$ colors.

A simple first moment calculation shows that whp $\alpha(G_{n,d/n})$ is

$$\leq 2 \frac{\log d}{d} n$$

for *d* sufficiently large.

Thus, whp

$$\chi(G_{n,d/n}) \geq \sim \frac{d}{2\log d}$$

Shamir and Upfal (1984) showed that a slight modification of the greedy algorithm uses $\sim \frac{d}{\log d}$ colors.

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Martingale Tail Inequalities

Azuma/Hoeffding



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Let $Z = Z(X_1, ..., X_N)$ where $X_1, ..., X_N$ are independent. Suppose that changing one X_i only changes Z by ≤ 1 . Then

$$\Pr(|Z - E(Z)| \ge t) \le e^{-t^2/(2n)}.$$

"Discovered" by Shamir and Spencer (1987) and by Rhee and Talagrand (1988).

Bollobás (1988) showed that $\chi(G_{n,1/2}) \sim \frac{n}{2\log_2 n}$.

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Bollobás (1988) showed that $\chi(\mathbf{G}_{n,1/2}) \sim \frac{n}{2\log_2 n}$.

Let *Z* be the maximum number of independent sets in a collection S_1, \ldots, S_Z where each $|S_i| \sim 2 \log_2 n$ and $|S_i \cap S_j| \leq 1$.

 $\mathbf{E}(Z) = n^{2-o(1)}$ and changing one edge changes Z by ≤ 1 So,

 $\Pr(\exists S \subseteq [n]: |S| \ge \frac{n}{(\log_2 n)^2} \text{ and } S \text{ doesn't contain a}$ $(2 - o(1)) \log_2 n \text{ independent set}) \le 2^n e^{-n^{2-o(1)}} = o(1).$

So, we color $G_{n,1/2}$ with color classes of size $\sim 2 \log_2 n$ until there are $\leq n/(\log_2 n)^2$ vertices uncolored and then give each remaining vertex a new color.

$$\alpha(\mathbf{G}_{n,d/n}) = \frac{(2 \pm \epsilon) \log d}{d} n$$

for large *d*, Frieze (1990).

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Suppose $k \sim \frac{2 \log d}{d} n$ and X_k is the number of independent *k*-sets in $G_{n,d/n}$

$$\operatorname{Pr}(X_k \neq 0) \geq rac{\operatorname{\mathsf{E}}(X_k)^2}{\operatorname{\mathsf{E}}(X_k^2)} \geq e^{-a_1 n}.$$

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$$\operatorname{Pr}(X_k \neq 0) \geq rac{\operatorname{\mathsf{E}}(X_k)^2}{\operatorname{\mathsf{E}}(X_k^2)} \geq e^{-a_1 n}.$$

But Azuma-Hoeffding gives

 $\Pr(|\alpha(G_{n,d/n}) - \mathbf{E}(\alpha)| \ge \epsilon_1 n) \le e^{-a_2 n}.$

Here $a_2 > a_1$ and so $\mathbf{E}(\alpha) \geq \frac{(2-\epsilon_2)\log d}{d}n$ and ...

Taking a similar (but much more computationally challenging) approach Łuczak (1991) showed that

 $\chi(\mathbf{G}_{n,d/n})\sim \frac{d}{2\log d}.$



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$$\chi(\mathbf{G}_{n,d/n}) \sim \frac{d}{2\log d}$$

Then Łuczak (1991) proved that **whp** there was a two point concentration for $\chi(G_{n,d/n})$ i.e. $\exists k_d$ such that **whp**

 $\chi(\mathbf{G}_{n,d/n}) \in \{\mathbf{k}_d, \mathbf{k}_d + \mathbf{1}\}.$



Achlioptas and Naor (2005) showed that k_d is the smallest integer ≥ 2 such that $d < d_k = 2k \log k$.

If $d > d_k$ and X_k is the number of *k*-colorings of $G_{n,d/n}$ then $E(X_k) \rightarrow 0$.

If $d \le d_{k-1}$ then $\Pr(G_{n,d/n} \text{ is } k - \text{colorable}) \ge \mathbb{E}(X_k)^2 / \mathbb{E}(X_k^2) \ge \xi > 0.$

Using the results of Friedgut (1999) and Achlioptas and Friedgut (1999) we see that this implies $G_{n,d/n}$ is k – colorable whp for $d \le d_{k-1}$.

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Is it the case that there exist $d_3 < d_4 < \cdots < d_k < \cdots$ such that $d_k < d < d_{k+1}$ implies that **whp** $\chi(G_{n,d/n}) = k$?

The results of Friedgut (1999) and Achlioptas and Friedgut (1999) suggests strongly that this is true.

What is the Chromatic number of a random *r*-regular graph $G_{n,r}$?

Achlioptas and Moore (2005) show that provided r = O(1) the chromatic number is 3 point concentrated around the smallest integer *k* such that $r < 2k \log k$.

Shi and Wormald (2005) show that **whp** a random 4-regular graph has chromatic number 3 and a random 6-regular graph has chromatic number 4.

Cooper, Frieze, Reed and Riordan (2002) show that if $r \to \infty$ then **whp**

$$\chi(\mathbf{G}_{n,r})\sim \frac{r}{2\log r}.$$

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Is there a polynomial time algorithm that **whp** can color $G_{n,1/2}$ with $\frac{(1-\epsilon)n}{\log_2 n}$ colors?

Randomly generated *k*-colorable graphs, k = O(1), with O(n) edges can be colored quickly, Alon and Kahale (1994).

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What is the game chromatic number χ_g of the random graph $G_{n,1/2}$?

There are two players: A and B who alternately *properly* color the vertices of **G**. A tries to color the whole graph and B tries to force a situation where some vertex cannot be colored. χ_g is the minimum number of colors which guarantees a win for A.

Bohman, Frieze and Sudakov (2005) show that whp

$$(1-\epsilon)\frac{n}{\log_2 n} \leq \chi_g(\mathbf{G}_{n,1/2}) \leq (2+\epsilon)\frac{n}{\log_2 n}.$$

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The diameter of random graphs



The diameter of random graphs

Suppose $d \ge 2$ is a positive integer and $p^d n^{d-1} = \log(n^2/c)$ so that average degree is $\tilde{\Theta}(n^{1/d})$. Then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \Pr(\text{diameter } G_{n,p} = d + \delta) = \begin{cases} e^{-c/2} & \delta = 0\\ 1 - e^{-c/2} & \delta = 1 \end{cases}$$

Bollobás (1981).

Basically, there are $\tilde{\Theta}(n^{k/d})$ vertices at distance $\leq k$ from a fixed vertex *v*.

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The diameter of random graphs

Diameter of the Giant Component of $G_{n,c/n}$: Fernholz and Ramachandran (2005).

One would expect this to be $\sim A(c) \log n$ whp. They show that

$$A(c) = \frac{2}{-\log W} + \frac{1}{\log c}$$

where *W* is the solution in (0, 1) of $We^{-W} = ce^{-c}$.

Here $W \to 0$ as $c \to \infty$, so the diameter is "like" $\log_c n$ for large c, as one would expect.

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Algorithms and Differential Equations

Karp and Sipser (1981) described a simple greedy matching algorithm for finding a large matching in the random graph $G_{n,c/n}$.

If there is a vertex v of degree one, choose a random degree one vertex and the edge incident to it; otherwise choose a random edge.

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If there is a vertex v of degree one, choose a random degree one vertex and the edge incident to it; otherwise choose a random edge.

They show that the algorithm is asymptotically optimal i.e. the matching it produces is within 1 - o(1) of optimal.

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Aronson, Frieze and Pittel (1998) showed that **whp** this algorithm only makes $\tilde{\Theta}(n^{1/5})$ "mistakes".

The proof of the above results rests on the fact that the progress of the algorithm can **whp** be tracked by the solution of a differential equation.

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The proof of the above results rests on the fact that the progress of the algorithm can **whp** be tracked by the solution of a differential equation.

Karp and Sipser introduced this approach (via Kurtz theorem) to the "CS/Probabilistic Combinatorics" community and Wormald has "championed" its applications.

Toy Example: Number of isolated vertices in G_m .

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Let $X_0(m)$ be the number of isolated vertices in G_m . Then

$$\mathsf{E}(X_0(m+1) - X_0(m) \mid G_m) = -2\frac{X_0(m)}{n}. \tag{1}$$

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$$\mathbf{E}(X_0(m+1) - X_0(m) \mid G_m) = -2\frac{X_0(m)}{n}.$$
 (1)

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Let $x_0(t) = X_0(tn)/n$ for t > 0. Then (1) suggests the equation $x'_0 = -2x_0$

which has the solution

$$x_0 = e^{-2t}$$

or

 $X_0(m) \sim n e^{-2m/n}$.

More typical example: From "Hamilton Cycles in 3-Out" – Bohman and Frieze (2006).

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$$\begin{split} \mathsf{E}(y'_{i,j,0} - y_{i,j,0}) &= -\frac{\dot{y}_{i,j,0}}{\mu} - \sum_{a,b} \frac{by_{a,b,1}}{\mu} \left((b-1) \frac{\dot{y}_{i,j,0}}{\mu-1} + \hat{a} \frac{\dot{y}_{i,j,0}}{\mu-1} \right) \\ &+ \sum_{a,b} \frac{by_{a,b,1}}{\mu} \left((b-1) \frac{(i+1)y_{i+1,j,0}}{\mu-1} + \hat{a} \frac{(j+1)y_{i,j+1,0}}{\mu-1} \right) + \tilde{O}(\mu^{-1}) \\ \mathsf{E}(y'_{i,j,1} - y_{i,j,1}) &= -\frac{\dot{y}_{i,j,1}}{\mu} + \frac{(j+1)y_{i,j+1,0}}{\mu} - \sum_{a,b} \frac{by_{a,b,1}}{\mu} \left((b-1) \frac{\dot{y}_{i,j,1}}{\mu-1} + \hat{a} \frac{\dot{y}_{i,j,1}}{\mu-1} \right) \\ &+ \sum_{a,b} \frac{by_{a,b,1}}{\mu} \left((b-1) \frac{(i+1)y_{i+1,j,1}}{\mu-1} + \hat{a} \frac{(j+1)y_{i,j+1,1}}{\mu-1} \right) + \tilde{O}(\mu^{-1}) \\ \mathsf{E}(y'_{L,j,0} - y_{L,j,0}) &= -\frac{\dot{y}_{L,j,0}}{\mu} - \sum_{a,b} \frac{by_{a,b,1}}{\mu} \left((b-1) \frac{3y_{3,j,0}}{\mu-1} + \hat{a} \frac{\dot{y}_{L,j,0}}{\mu-1} \right) \\ &+ \sum_{a,b} \frac{by_{a,b,1}}{\mu} \cdot \hat{a} \frac{(j+1)y_{L,j+1,0}}{\mu-1} + \tilde{O}(\mu^{-1}). \\ &= -\frac{\dot{y}_{L,j,1}}{\mu} + \frac{(j+1)y_{L,j+1,0}}{\mu} - \sum_{a,b} \frac{by_{a,b,1}}{\mu} \left((b-1) \frac{3y_{3,j,1}}{\mu-1} + \hat{a} \frac{\dot{y}_{L,j,1}}{\mu-1} \right) \\ &+ \sum_{a,b} \frac{by_{a,b,1}}{\mu} \cdot \hat{a} \frac{(j+1)y_{L,j+1,1}}{\mu-1} + \hat{O}(\mu^{-1}). \end{split}$$

Eigenvalues of Random Graphs



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Let A be the adjacency matrix of $G_{n,p}$. Then whp

 $\lambda_1(A) = (1 + o(1)) \max\{\sqrt{\Delta}, np\}.$

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Krivelevich and Sudakov (2003)

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Krivelevich and Sudakov (2003)

Now let *A* be the adjacency matrix of a random *d*-regular graph, $d \ge 3$. $\lambda_1(A) = d$ and **whp**, for any constant $\epsilon > 0$,

$$|\lambda_i(A)| \le 2\sqrt{d-1} + \epsilon$$
 $2 \le i \le n$

Friedman (2004)


Unstructured, randomly generated(?) real world graphs like the **WWW** seem to have a different distribution to $G_{n,p}$, e.g. the number of vertices of degree *k* drops off like $k^{-\alpha}$ instead of $e^{-\alpha k}$.

Albert, Barabási and Jeong (1999), Faloutsos, Faloutsos and Faloutsos (1999), Broder, Kumar, Maghoul, Raghavan, Rajagopalan, Stata, Tomkins and Wiener (2002)

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Modelling Choices:

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Modelling Choices:

Fix a degree sequence and make each graph with this degree sequence equally likely: Bender and Canfield (1978), Bollobás (1980), Molloy and Reed (1995) and Cooper and Frieze(digraphs) (2004).

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Modelling Choices:

Fix a degree sequence $d_1, d_2, ..., d_n$ and make edge (i, j) occur independently with probability proportional to $d_i d_j$: Chung and Lu (2002), Mihail and Papadimitriou (2002)

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Modelling Choices:

Preferential Attachment Model: Vertex set $v_1, v_2, ..., v_n, ...$; Vertex v_{n+1} chooses *m* random neighbours in $v_1, ..., v_n$ with probability proportional to their degree.

Introduced as a model of the web by Barabási and Albert (1999).

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 Power Law Degree Distribution: Bollobás, Riordan, Spencer and Tusanády (2001).

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- Spread of viruses: Berger, Borgs, Chayes and Saberi (2005).
- Classifying special interest groups in web graphs: Cooper (2002)

Power Law: Let $d_k(t)$ denote the expected number of vertices of degree k at time t.

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 $d_k(t+1) = d_k(t) + m \frac{(k-1)d_{k-1}(t)}{2mt} - m \frac{kd_k(t)}{2mt} + 1_{k=m} + error \ terms.$

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$$d_k \sim rac{2m(m+1)}{(k+2)(k+1)k}t$$
 for $k \geq m_k$

What is the second eigenvalue of the transition matrix of a random walk on PAM?

```
It should be O(1/m).
```



What is the size of the smallest dominating set in PAM?



What is the expected time to for a random walk to get within distance d of every vertex?

d = 0 is Cover Time and is understood.

Should be o(n) for $d \ge 2$.



Forest Fire Model Leskovec, Kleinberg and Faloutsos (2005).

 v_{t+1} randomly chooses an ambassador node *w* from $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_{t+1}$ and we get the edge (v, x). Then a random process constructs a tree rooted at *w*, all of whose nodes are joined to v_{t+1} .

The graph produced is difficult to analyse rigorously.

How many edges? What is the diameter? ...

Suppose that $e_1, f_1, e_2, f_2, ...$, is a random sequence of pairs of edges e_i, f_i . You have to choose, on-line, one of e_i, f_i for i = 1, 2, ... Can you avoid creating a giant component for significantly beyond n/2 choices?

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Bohman and Frieze (2001): If one of e_i , f_i is disjoint from e_1 , f_1 , ..., e_{i-1} , f_{i-1} then choose this edge, otherwise just take e_i .

Whp one can choose .544*n* edges before creating a giant.

Suppose that $e_1, f_1, e_2, f_2, ...$, is a random sequence of pairs of edges e_i, f_i . You have to choose, on-line, one of e_i, f_i for i = 1, 2, ... Can you avoid creating a giant component for significantly beyond n/2 choices?

Subsequently several authors: Bohman and Kravitz (2005), Spencer and Wormald (2005) and Flaxman, Gamarnik and Sorkin (2004) studied algorithms for delaying and/or speeding up the emergence of a giant component.

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In particular, .544n can been significantly improved. SW improve it to .829n and it is know Bohman, Frieze and Wormald that .983n is an upper bound for the delay.

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Related off-line problems were considered in Bohman, Frieze and Wormald, Bohman and Kim. In particular, the BK and SW papers show that for a restricted class of algorithm, differential equations can be used to accurately predict the emergence of a giant, by tracking the parameter

$$Z=\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i}|C_{i}|^{2}.$$

Where C_1, C_2, \ldots are the components of the graph induced by the edges selected so far.

The giant should appear when this parameter becomes unbounded.



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Open Questions

Analyze the algorithm that always chooses the edge which produces the smallest increase in Z. When does a giant component appear?

The differential equations method has problems here, because the natural system of equations is infinite.

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Open Questions

Consider speeding up or delaying the occurrence of other graph properties e.g. avoid 3-colorability.

Game Version

Suppose there are two players, Creator and Destroyer. Creator plays on odd rounds and Destroyer plays on even rounds. Creator wants to construct a giant component as soon as possible and Destroyer wants to delay the occurrence for as long as possible.

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Beveridge, Bohman, Frieze and Pikhurko (2006) show that the best strategy for Creator is to try to maximize the increase in Z and the best strategy for Destroyer is to try to minimize the increase in Z.

If they both play optimally, then it takes roughly n/2 rounds to create a giant, since they tend to cancel each others advantage over just choosing randomly.

Random Geometric Graphs

Choose points $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ randomly from the unit square $[0, 1]^2$ and then join X_i, X_j by an edge if $|X_i - X_j| \le r$. Lets call the graph $X_{n,r}$.

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Model for Ad-Hoc/Sensor Networks.


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If $\pi r^2 n = (1 + \epsilon) \log n$ then $X_{n,r}$ is Hamiltonian **whp**. Díaz, Mitsche and Pérez (2006)

Open Question

Given $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ and an integer k, we can define the *k*-nearest neighbour graph, where each X_i is joined by an edge to its *k* nearest points.

Open Question

Given $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ and an integer k, we can define the k-nearest neighbour graph, where each X_i is joined by an edge to its k nearest points.

For what value of k does the graph have a giant component **whp**?

Teng and Yao show that k > 1 is necessary and $k \ge 212$ is sufficient.

Experiments "suggest" k = 3 is the right answer.

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