

Random Graphs

We first need to define what we mean by a random graph. We will do so with an algorithm. To get a random graph $G(n, m)$ with m edges and n vertices, we do the following:

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Algorithm RandG1(n, m)
  for i = 1 to m do
    pick i, j in {1, ..., n} at random until {i, j} is not in E
    add edge {i, j} to E

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This process also allows us to think of building a random graph one edge at a time. We can ask a variety of questions about random graphs. Is G connected? Does G have a k -clique? A hamiltonian path? etc. In the probabilistic case, the sample space is the set of possible graphs, and an experiment is generating a graph from this space. Each of the questions above is an event (subset of the sample space), and the answer to those questions the probability of that event.

Is G connected?

We now have a full bag of tools to approach this problem. To get the probability that the random graph $G(n, m)$ is connected, we first find the expected value of m that makes the graph connected, and then apply tail bounds to compute the probability of this happening for particular m . We assume an incremental model of adding one edge at a time.

First notice that $m \geq n - 1$ for a connected graph (a tree is a minimally-connected graph). But we use one of the results we already know to get a much stronger bound for random graphs. Hint: Try thinking of choosing random edges as a form of coupon collecting.

As we add edges, we watch the number of connected components of the graph. Initially, the graph has n vertices and no edges, so there are n connected components. The first edge always connects two points, and gives us $n - 1$ connected components. The second edge also reduces the number of connected components to $n - 2$. The third may or may not reduce the number. We use epochs to model the different phases of the process. Let X_k be the number of random edges added while there are k connected components, until there are $k - 1$ connected components. We have shown that $X_n = 1$, and $X_{n-1} = 1$. If we define

$$X = \sum_{k=2}^n X_k$$

then X counts the total number of edges that we add until the graph is connected. Our goal then, is to compute $E(X)$.

Now define p_k to be the probability that an edge added while there are k components reduces the number of components. We can't compute p_k exactly, but we can give a lower bound. Assume

v is one endpoint of the edge we are adding. Then there are at least $k - 1$ other vertices to which we can connect v and reduce the number of components (these other vertices lie on the other components). In total there are $n - 1$ other vertices to which we can connect v . So the probability that this edge reduces the number of components is $\geq (k - 1)/(n - 1)$. But this bound holds for any choice of v , so it also bounds p_k :

$$p_k \geq \frac{k - 1}{n - 1}$$

Now observe that X_k is a geometric random variable with success probability p_k . Its expected value is $1/p_k \leq (n - 1)/(k - 1)$. So we have

$$\mathbb{E}(X) = \sum_{k=2}^n \mathbb{E}(X_k) \leq \sum_{k=2}^n \frac{n - 1}{k - 1} = (n - 1)H_{n-1}$$

where H_{n-1} is the $(n - 1)^{st}$ harmonic number. In other words, an upper bound on $\mathbb{E}(X)$ is about $n \ln n$.

The next step is to apply tail bounds on the probability of m being much larger than its mean. To get a useful bound, we need to apply Chebyshev. Since X is a sum of independent R.V.'s (strictly speaking they are not independent, but their probability bounds are independent), we can add up their variances. Each X_k is a geometric random variable with success probability p_k . So its variance (lecture 8) is $(1 - p_k)/p_k^2$. Then

$$\text{Var}[X] = \sum_{k=2}^n \text{Var}[X_k] = \sum_{k=2}^n \frac{1 - p_k}{p_k^2} \leq \sum_{k=2}^n \frac{(n - k)(n - 1)}{(k - 1)^2}$$

and we can split up this sum:

$$\sum_{k=2}^n \frac{(n - k)(n - 1)}{(k - 1)^2} = (n - 1)^2 \sum_{k=2}^n \frac{1}{(k - 1)^2} - (n - 1) \sum_{k=2}^n \frac{1}{(k - 1)}$$

We have seen both kinds of sums on the RHS before (lecture 8), and they can be approximated respectively as:

$$n^2 \pi^2 / 6 - n \ln n$$

and therefore σ_X is at most $\approx n\pi/\sqrt{6}$.

To apply Chebyshev, we set the probability of exceeding the mean at 0.01, then $t = 10$ in the Chebyshev formula:

$$\Pr[|X - \bar{X}| \geq t\sigma_X] \leq \frac{1}{t^2}$$

which requires that $X - \bar{X} \geq t\sigma_X$ or

$$X \geq n \ln n + 10n\pi/\sqrt{6}$$

So just as we saw for coupon collecting, we have very high probability of connecting up the graph (better than 0.99) when the number of edges m is a linear multiple of n bigger than \bar{X} which is $n \ln n$.

Does G have a k -clique?

Definition: A clique in an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ is a subset of vertices $U \subset V$ such that every pair of vertices in U is connected by an edge of G (i.e., for all $i \neq j \in U$, we have $\{i, j\} \in E$). If U has k vertices, we call it a k -clique.

Finding cliques in graphs, and in particular large cliques, is an important problem that shows up in many applications. Given G and k , the problem of deciding whether G contains a k -clique is NP-complete. Here we investigate the problem for random graphs. We'll use a different model called the $G_{n,p}$ model for random graphs. Rather than fixing the number of edges, we fix the probability of each edge being included in the graph. To generate a $G_{n,p}$ graph, we do the following:

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Algorithm RandG2(n, p)
  for every pair {i < j} in {1, ..., n}, do
    toss a coin with Pr[Heads] = p
    if heads, add edge {i, j} to E
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Notice that the expected number of edges in such a random graph is $\binom{n}{2}p$, which is the number of possible edges times p . So by varying p , we get more or less dense graphs. The following question is typical in the fields of random graphs and average-case analysis of algorithms:

- How large does p have to be before a random graph G is very likely to contain a 4-clique?

We approach this problem in the usual way, define indicator random variables for each subset of 4 vertices that indicate the presence of a clique. That is, define X_S for each subset $S \subset V$ of 4 vertices as:

$$X_S = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } S \text{ are the vertices of a 4-clique} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and then $X = \sum X_S$ is the total number of 4-cliques in the graph. We will first estimate $E(X)$ as a function of p . Then we will compute the variance of X and use the Chebyshev bound to show that p is a “threshold parameter”. That is, there is a value p_0 such that for $p > p_0$ there almost certainly is a 4-clique, while for $p < p_0$ there is almost certainly not a 4-clique in G .

First of all, since a 4-clique has 6 edges, it is easy to see that $\Pr[X_S = 1] = p^6$. Since X_S is an indicator r.v., we also have that $E(X_S) = \Pr[X_S = 1] = p^6$. The total number of subsets of 4 vertices is $\binom{n}{4}$, so

$$E(X) = \sum E(X_S) = \binom{n}{4} p^6$$

It's tempting to infer that if $E(X) > 1$ then G is very likely to contain a clique (this happens for $p > 1.7n^{-2/3}$). But that is not necessarily true. It's possible that the distribution of G has a “long tail” of low total probability that inflates the expected value, but has low total probability for $X > 0$. To prove that we have high probability of a clique, we need to compute the variance and apply Chebyshev. Now we know that

$$\text{Var}(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2 = \sum_S E(X_S^2) - \sum_S E(X_S)^2 + \sum_{S \neq T} E(X_S X_T) - \sum_{S \neq T} E(X_S)E(X_T)$$

Definition: The covariance $\text{Cov}(X_S, X_T)$ of two random variables is defined as $E(X_S X_T) - E(X_S)E(X_T)$.

For independent random variables X_S and X_T , the covariance is zero. With this definition, the variance of X can be written:

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sum_S \text{Var}(X_S) + \sum_{S \neq T} \text{Cov}(X_S, X_T)$$

Now the variance of X_S is simple, because it represents a Bernoulli trial with success probability p^6 . From the earlier formula for variance of a Bernoulli trial (lecture 6), we have:

$$\text{Var}(X_S) = p^6(1 - p^6)$$

The covariances are tricky, and they vary depending on the degree of similarity between S and T . So we consider three cases:

S and T have 0 or 1 vertices in common. In this case, there are no edges in common in the (possible) 4-cliques on S and T . Then X_S and X_T are independent, so the covariance $\text{Cov}(X_S, X_T)$ is zero.

S and T have 2 vertices in common. In this case, there is one edge in common in the (possible) 4-cliques on S and T . If $X_S X_T = 1$ then a total of 11 edges (6 each for S and T , less the common edge) must be present. So $E(X_S X_T) = \Pr[X_S X_T = 1] = p^{11}$. Then

$$\text{Cov}(X_S, X_T) = E(X_S X_T) - E(X_S)E(X_T) = p^{11} - p^{12}$$

S and T have 3 vertices in common. In this case, there are 3 edges in common in the (possible) 4-cliques on S and T . If $X_S X_T = 1$ then a total of 9 edges (6 each for S and T , less the 3 common edges) must be present. So $E(X_S X_T) = \Pr[X_S X_T = 1] = p^9$. Then

$$\text{Cov}(X_S, X_T) = E(X_S X_T) - E(X_S)E(X_T) = p^9 - p^{12}$$

Since the first case had zero covariance, we only need to consider the last two cases. To evaluate the sums $\sum \text{Cov}(X_S, X_T)$ we need to count the number of pairs S, T . In the case of two vertices in common, we can choose S first, then the two vertices in common, then the other two vertices in T . The number of ways of doing that is

$$\binom{n}{4} \binom{4}{2} \binom{n-4}{2} \approx \frac{n^6}{8}$$

In the case of three vertices in common, we can choose S first, then the three in common, then the one other vertex of T . The number of pairs is

$$\binom{n}{4} \binom{4}{3} \binom{n-4}{1} \approx \frac{n^5}{6}$$

The number of sets of S alone is $\binom{n}{4} \approx n^4/24$. Now we can substitute into the formula for variance of X :

$$\text{Var}(X) = \sum_S \text{Var}(X_S) + \sum_{S \neq T} \text{Cov}(X_S, X_T) \approx \frac{n^4}{24} p^6(1 - p^6) + \frac{n^6}{8} (p^{11} - p^{12}) + \frac{n^5}{6} (p^9 - p^{12})$$

Earlier, we noted that $p = 1.7n^{-2/3}$ gives $E(X)$ of about 1. We introduce a constant c , and plug $p = cn^{-2/3}$ into the variance formula:

$$\text{Var}(X) = \frac{c^6}{24} + O(n^{-1})$$

and the standard deviation is:

$$\sigma_X \approx \frac{c^3}{2\sqrt{3}}$$

Substituting $p = cn^{-2/3}$ into the expected value formula gives:

$$E(X) = \binom{n}{4} p^4 \approx \frac{c^4}{24}$$

Now we can see that the distribution of X “converges” as c increases. That is, the expected value grows as c^4 , while the standard deviation (the width of the distribution) grows as c^3 .

To apply Chebyshev, pick say $t = 10$. We choose $\bar{X} = 101$, and solving for c gives $c = 2424^{1/4} \approx 3.665$. Then $\sigma_X \approx 10.0$, and Chebyshev gives

$$\Pr[X < 1] = \Pr[X - \bar{X} < -t\sigma_X] \leq \Pr[|X - \bar{X}| > t\sigma_X] \leq \frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{100}$$

So there is almost certainly (prob > 0.99) a 4-clique if $p = 3.665n^{-2/3}$.

On the other hand, if we pick $t = 10$ and $\bar{X} = 0.009$, solving for c gives $c = 0.776$. The standard deviation is $\sigma_X \approx 0.095$. Then

$$\Pr[X > 0.959] = \Pr[X - 0.009 > 0.95] \leq \Pr[|X - \bar{X}| > t\sigma_X] \leq \frac{1}{t^2} = \frac{1}{100}$$

So there is almost certainly not (prob < 0.01) a 4-clique if $p = 0.776n^{-2/3}$.

This is what we mean by $p_0 = 1.667n^{-2/3}$ is a “threshold value”. There is almost certainly a clique for p larger than p_0 , and almost certainly no clique for values of p less than p_0 .