

Random Graphs

CptS 591: Elements of Network Science



Outline

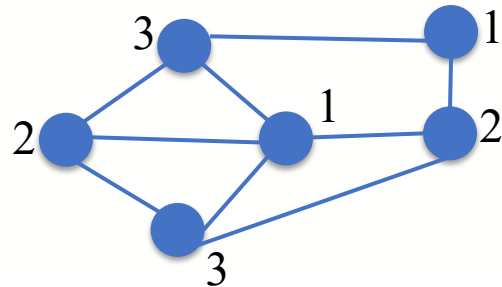
- Random graph as a concept
- Random variables and Expectation
- Graph invariants in random graphs
- Phase transition
- Random graphs vs real-world networks (subject of next lecture)



Motivation

(from graph theoretic perspective)

- Given a graph G ,
 - the minimum length of a cycle contained in G is the *girth* $g(G)$ of G
 - the maximum length of a cycle in G is its *circumference*
 - the smallest number of colors required to color G is the *chromatic number* $x(G)$ of G
- Example:



- $g(G) = 3$
- $\text{circumference}(G) = 6$
- $x(G) = 3$
(in general NP-hard to compute)



Motivation (cont'd): Paraphrased Erdos theorem

- There exist graphs whose
 1. girth is arbitrarily large, and
 2. chromatic number is arbitrarily large
- These requirements work against each other:
A graph with a large girth is tree-like (acyclic) and hence is expected to have small chromatic number
- → a *constructive proof* for Erdos theorem is difficult (if not impossible) to come by
- Instead, Erdos used *Random Graphs* and the “*Probabilistic Method*” to prove such *existence theorems*



What is a random graph?

- Let V be a fixed set of n elements, say $V = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.
Let \hat{G} be the set of all possible graphs on V .
(Note: there are 2^N possible graphs $N = (n:2)$, where $(n:k)$ denotes n choose k)
- We would like to turn \hat{G} into a probability space and be able to answer such questions as
 - What is the probability that a graph G in \hat{G} has a certain property?
 - What is the expected value of a given invariant on G ?
- Consider the following random process of generating G .
 - Let $[V]^2$ denote the set of all pairs of elements drawn from V
(There are $(n:2)$ possible pairs)
 - For each e in $[V]^2$ decide using a random expt whether or not e shall be an edge of G
 - Perform the expts independently, each time accepting e to be an edge with a fixed probability p , $0 \leq p \leq 1$
- Now let G_0 be some fixed graph on V with m edges.
- Then,

$$P[G=G_0] = p^m q^{(N-m)}, \text{ where } q = 1-p \text{ and } N = (n:2)$$



What is random graph (cont'd)

- One can continue in this way to determine probabilities of all possible elementary events (all m)
→ the probability measure of the desired space \hat{G} is determined
- One can formally show (as in Diestel) that a probability measure on \hat{G} where all individual edges occur *independently* with *probability* p exists.
- With these two assumptions, we can now calculate probabilities in the space $\hat{G} = \hat{G}(n,p)$.



Examples

- Let G in \hat{G} , and H be a fixed graph on a subset U of V . Let the number of vertices in H be k , and the number of edges be l .
- Q1: What is $P[H \text{ is a subgraph of } G]$?
- Soln 1: Each edge of H occurs independently with a probability of p . Hence the required probability is p^l .
- Q2: What is $P[H \text{ is an induced subgraph of } G]$?
- Soln2: This time, in addition to that in Q1, the $r = \binom{k}{2} - l$ edges missing from H are required to be missing from G too, independently with probability $q = 1-p$.
Hence the required probability is $p^l q^r$



More interesting examples

- First we define a few notions
 - **Independent Set**: a set of pairwise non-adjacent vertices
 - **Clique**: a set of pairwise adjacent vertices
 - The size of the largest IS in a graph G is its **independence number** $\alpha(G)$
 - The size of the largest clique in a graph is its **clique number** $\omega(G)$
- Lemma 1: For all integers n, k with $n \geq k \geq 2$, the probability that G in $\hat{G}(n,p)$ has an IS of size k is at most
 - $P[\alpha(G) \geq k] \leq (n:k)q^{(k:2)}$
- Lemma 2: For all integers n, k with $n \geq k \geq 2$, the probability that G in $\hat{G}(n,p)$ contains a clique of size k is at most
 - $P[\omega(G) \geq k] \leq (n:k)p^{(k:2)}$



Random variables and Expectation

- Let X be a random variable. Let the possible values X can assume be x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .
- The expected (or mean) value of X is then
$$E(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n P[X = x_i] \cdot x_i$$
- Example: die tossing.
(Let X be a toss. Convince yourself that $E(X) = 3.5$)
- The operator E , expectation, is linear
 - $E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$ and
 - $E(aX) = a E(X)$For any random variables X, Y and real number a
- In the context of random graphs, a graph invariant may be interpreted as a nonnegative random variable on $\hat{G}(n,p)$, i.e., as a function $X: \hat{G}(n,p) \rightarrow [0, \infty]$



Graph invariants in random graphs

- The expected value of X is then
 - $E(x) = \sum P(\{G\}) X(G)$ (sum over all G in \hat{G})
- Computing the mean of a random variable X can be an effective way to compute the existence of a graph G s.t.
 - (i) $X(G) < a$ for some fixed $a > 0$, and
 - (ii) G has some desired property
- Idea: if $E(X)$ is small, $X(G)$ is small for many of the graphs in $\hat{G}(n,p)$, since $X(G) \geq 0$ for all G in \hat{G} . It is then reasonable to expect to find a graph with the desired property among these.
- This idea lies at the heart of many non-constructive existence proofs using random graphs.



Markov's Inequality

- Lemma 3: Let $X \geq 0$ be a random variable on $\hat{G}(n,p)$ and $a > 0$. Then,
 $P[X \geq a] \leq E(X)/a$

- Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} E(X) &= \sum P(\{G\}) X(G) && \text{(sum over } G \text{ in } \hat{G}(n,p)) \\ &\geq \sum P(\{G\}) X(G) && \text{(sum over } G \text{ in } \hat{G}(n,p) \text{ s.t. } X(G) \geq a) \\ &\geq \sum P(\{G\}) a && \text{(since } X(G) \geq a) \\ &= P[X \geq a] a && \text{(since } a \text{ is constant)} \end{aligned}$$

Rewriting,

$$P[X \geq a] \leq E(X)/a$$



The Probabilistic Method

- Basic Idea:
 - To prove the existence of an object with some desired property, define a probability space on some larger class of objects, and then show that an element of this larger space has the desired property
- Illustrate using proof of Erdos's theorem



Properties of almost all graphs and Phase transition

- Many results concerning “almost all graphs” have the common feature that the value of p (in the space $\hat{G}(n,p)$) plays no role.
- How could this happen?
- Then, what happens if p is allowed to vary with n ?



Phase transition

$G \text{ in } \hat{G}(n,p)$

$p = p(n)$



Phase transition

$G \text{ in } \hat{G}(n,p)$

G a.s. has no edges

n^{-2}



$p = p(n)$



Phase transition

G in $\hat{G}(n,p)$

n^{-2}



G a.s. has no edges

.

G acquires more and more edges

$n^{-3/2}$



Every component in G a.s. has at least two vertices

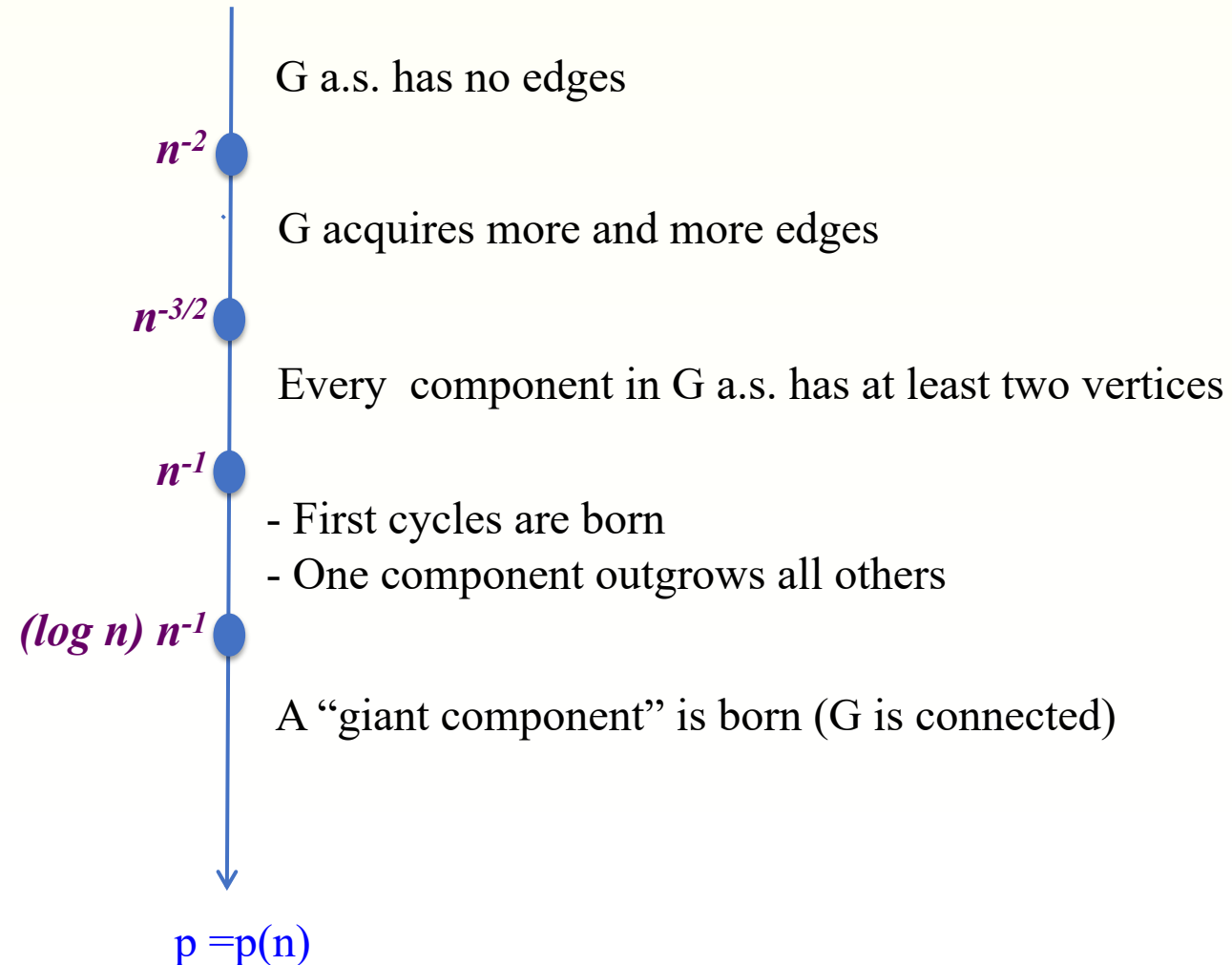


$p = p(n)$



Phase transition

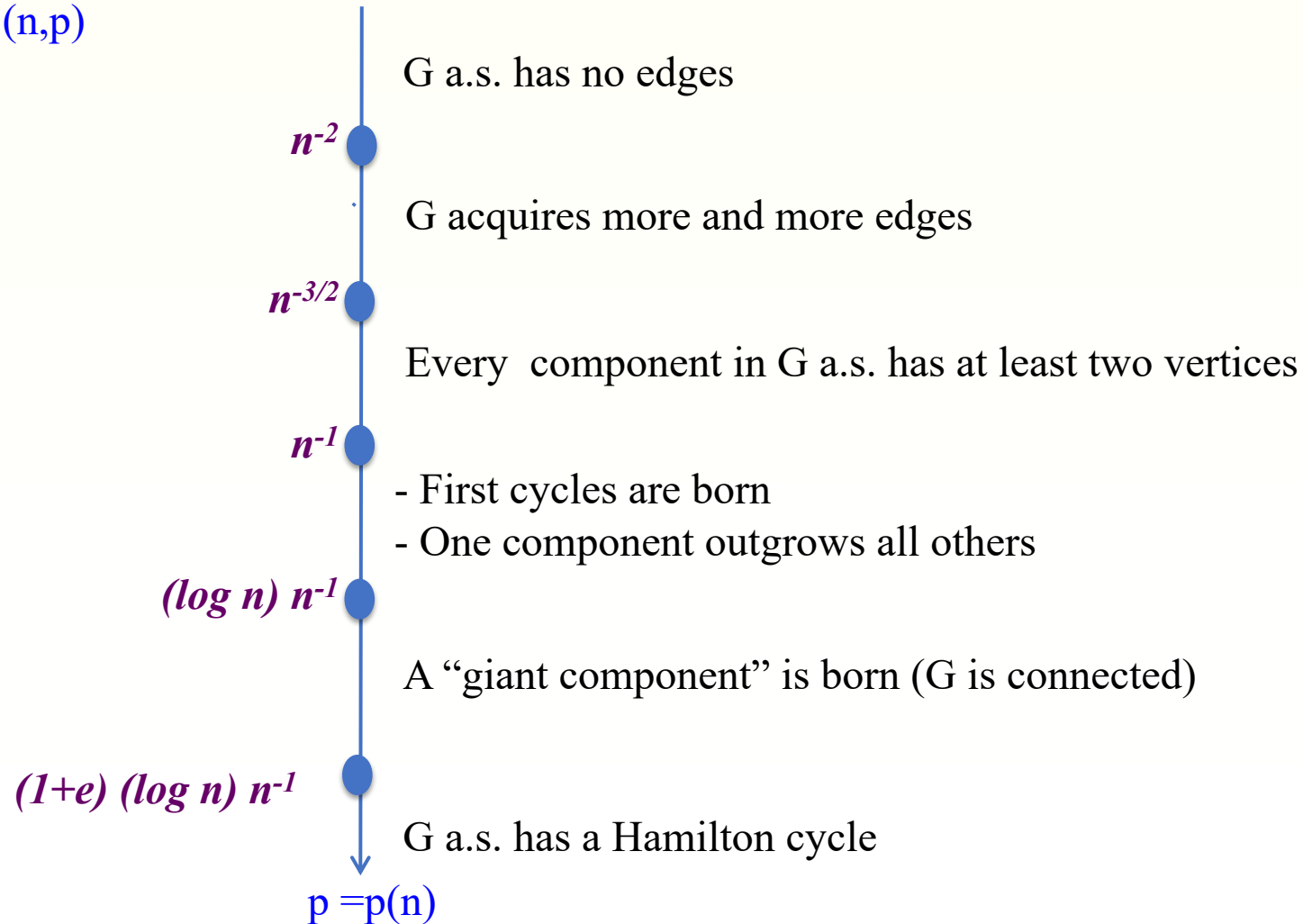
G in $\hat{G}(n,p)$





Phase transition

G in $\hat{G}(n,p)$





Random graphs vs real-world networks

- Degree Distribution
- Average Path Length
- Clustering Coefficient

We will look at these in next lecture