

Random Graphs

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1 Random Graphs

An Erdős-Renyi random graph $G_{n,p}$ is defined as a graph on n vertices where each edge (out of the possible $\binom{n}{2}$ edges) is in the graph independently with probability p . This is a simple model for generating a graph randomly. Even though this model may not resemble real-life examples, it can be useful for analyzing computational complexity. Random graphs can indicate an type of average case performance for algorithms of this particular distribution of graphs.

A monotone property P of a $G_{n,p}$ is one such that if P holds with asymptotically almost surely for G_{n,p_1} , then P also holds a.a.s. for G_{n,p_2} . One example of a monotone property is the property of having a Hamiltonian cycle.

A value p^* is a sharp threshold for a graph property P if for any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\mathbb{P}(P) \rightarrow \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \frac{p}{p^*} < 1 - \epsilon \\ 1 & \text{if } \frac{p}{p^*} > 1 + \epsilon \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Theorem 1.1. *Every monotone graph property has a sharp threshold.*

We will not prove this sharp threshold theorem, but we will prove that graph connectivity in an Erdős-Renyi random graph has a type of threshold in the following sense:

Theorem 1.2. (Connectivity threshold). *Let $p = \frac{\ln n + c}{n}$. Then,*

$$\mathbb{P}(G_{n,p} \text{ is connected}) \rightarrow \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } c \rightarrow -\infty \\ e^{-e^{-c}} & \text{for } c \text{ fixed w.r.t. } n \\ 1 & \text{if } c \rightarrow \infty \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Proof. We will prove that $\mathbb{P}(G_{n,p} \text{ is connected}) \rightarrow 1$ if $c \rightarrow \infty$. To begin, we will use the following:

$$\mathbb{P}(\exists \text{ isolated vertex}) \leq \mathbb{P}(G_{n,p} \text{ is not connected}) \quad (3)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(\exists \text{ isolated component of size } k, 1 \leq k \leq n/2) \quad (4)$$

$$\leq \mathbb{P}(\exists \text{ isolated vertex}) + o(1) \quad (5)$$

The first inequality follows because if G has an isolated vertex, G must be disconnected. Clearly, a graph is connected iff it has no isolated components of size less than n , which occurs iff there are no isolated components of size less than $n/2$. We will now prove the inequality in the third line.

Let X_k be a random variable equal to the number of isolated components of size k in $G_{n,p}$ for $1 \leq k \leq n/2$. By a union bound, we get:

$$\mathbb{P}(\exists \text{ isolated component of size } k, 1 \leq k \leq n/2) \leq \sum_{k=1}^{n/2} \mathbb{P}(X_k = 0) \quad (6)$$

Let us evaluate $\mathbb{E}(X_k)$, the expected number of isolated components of size k . We use a union bound to argue that $\mathbb{E}(X_k)$ is at most $\binom{n}{k}$ times the probability that any given set of k vertices forms an isolated component.

We look at the cases where $k \geq 2$. In order for a given set of k vertices to form an isolated component, those k vertices must form a connected component and the vertices must have no edges to the rest of the graph. For the vertices to form a connected component, there must be a tree with $k - 1$ edges connecting the vertices. Any given tree will appear with probability p^{k-1} , and the total number of spanning trees on k vertices is k^{k-2} . The probability that no edges go from the k vertices to the rest of the graph is just $(1 - p)^{k(n-k)}$. Then in total, we have

$$\mathbb{E}(X_k) \leq \binom{n}{k} k^{k-2} p^{k-1} (1 - p)^{k(n-k)} \quad (7)$$

$$\leq \left(\frac{ne}{k}\right)^k k^{k-2} \left(\frac{\ln n + c}{n}\right)^{k-1} e^{-\left(\frac{\ln n + c}{n}\right)k(n-k)} \quad (8)$$

$$= \frac{ne^k}{k^2} (\ln n + c)^{k-1} e^{-(\ln n + c)k} \quad (9)$$

For $2 \leq k \leq 5$,

$$(9) \leq c_0 n (\ln n + c)^4 e^{-2 \ln n - 2c} \quad (10)$$

$$= \frac{(\ln n + c)^4}{n} e^k < \frac{1}{n^{1-o(1)}} \quad (11)$$

For $k > 5$,

$$(9) \leq \tilde{c} n \frac{(\ln n + c)^{k-1}}{n^k} e^k < \frac{1}{n^{1-o(1)}} \quad (12)$$

Thus, we have:

$$\mathbb{P}(\exists \text{ isolated component of size } k, 1 \leq k \leq n/2) \leq \mathbb{P}(X_1 = 0) + \sum_{k=2}^{n/2} \mathbb{P}(X_k = 0) \quad (13)$$

$$\leq \mathbb{P}(\exists \text{ isolated vertex}) + \frac{1}{n^{1-o(1)}} \quad (14)$$

$$= \mathbb{P}(\exists \text{ isolated vertex}) + o(1) \quad (15)$$

Next, we want to argue that the probability that there are isolated vertices in G goes to 0 as n increases. Let X be a random variable equal to the number of isolated vertices in G . Then,

$$\mathbb{P}(X > 0) \leq \mathbb{E}(X) = n(1 - p)^{n-1} = ne^{(n-1)\ln(1-p)} = ne^{(n-1)\left(-\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{p^j}{j!}\right)} \quad (16)$$

where the first equality is due to linearity of expectation and the fact that a given vertex is isolated with probability $(1-p)^{n-1}$.

$$= ne^{-(n-1)p} + O(np^2) \approx ne^{-\ln n + c}(1 + o(1)) \approx e^{-c} \quad (17)$$

As $c \rightarrow \infty$, $P(X > 0) \rightarrow 0$, so the probability that G is connected goes to 1. The case for $c \rightarrow -\infty$ can be achieved using similar arguments.

Next, we sketch the proof for when c is fixed. First, we recall the definition of a Poisson distribution. A Poisson random variable Z takes integer values, and we have $P(Z = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!}$ for some $\lambda > 0$ and $E(Z) = \lambda$. We will prove the following lemma:

Lemma 1.3. *X has an asymptotically Poisson distribution with parameter $\lambda = e^{-c}$.*

Then we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X = 0) = e^{-\lambda} = e^{-e^{-c}}$. □

Proof. (Proof of Lemma 1.3) We use the proof from [1]. We want to show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X = k) = \frac{e^{-c} e^{-c}}{k!}$ for all k . Write X as the sum of indicator variables I_v , where for each vertex v , I_v is 1 if v is isolated in $G_{n,p}$ and 0 otherwise. Then we can get an expression for $E(X)$,

$$E(X) = \sum_v I_v = n(1-p)^{n-1} = ne^{(n-1)\ln(1-p)} = ne^{-(n-1)\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{p^k}{k}} \quad (18)$$

$$= ne^{-(n-1)p + O(np^2)} = ne^{-(\log n + c) + O\left(\frac{(\log n)^2}{n}\right)} \approx e^{-c} \quad (19)$$

where we used $p = \frac{\log n + c}{n}$ in the last equality.

We use without proof a theorem from [1]:

Theorem 1.4. *Let $S_n = \sum_{i \geq 1} I_i$ be a sequence of random variables, $n \geq 1$, and let $B_k^{(n)} = E\left(\binom{S_n}{k}\right)$. Suppose that there exists $\lambda \geq 0$ such that for every fixed $k \geq 1$,*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B_k^{(n)} = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} \quad (20)$$

Then for every $j \geq 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(S_n = j) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^j}{j!}, \quad (21)$$

i.e., S_n converges in distribution to the Poisson distributed random variable with expectation λ .

We claim that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E\left(\binom{X}{k}\right) = \frac{e^{-c} e^{-c}}{k!}$. This is left as an exercise to the reader. This claim allows us to use Theorem 1.4 to conclude that X is asymptotically Poisson. □

2 Largest clique in $G_{n,p}$

Theorem 2.1. *Let p be a fixed constant. Then,*

- (a) *If $k = \lceil 2 \log_{1/p} n \rceil$, then whp, $G_{n,p}$ has no clique of size k .*
- (b) *If $k \geq \lceil 2 \log_{1/p} n - 3 \log_{1/p} \log_{1/p} n \rceil$, then whp, $G_{n,p}$ has a clique of size k .*

Proof of (a). Let X_k be the number of cliques of size k in $G_{n,p}$. Then $\mathbb{E}(X_k) = \binom{n}{k} p^{\binom{k}{2}} \leq \left(\frac{ne}{k} p^{\frac{k-1}{2}}\right)^k \leq \left(\frac{e}{k\sqrt{p}}\right)^k$, where we used the fact that $p^{k/2} \leq 1/n$. Thus, $\mathbb{E}(X_k) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ because p is constant. \square

Proof of (b). Let $k_1 = k - t$.

$$\mathbb{E}(X_{k_1}) \approx \left(\frac{ne}{k_1} p^{\frac{k_1-1}{2}}\right)^{k_1} = \left(\frac{ne}{k-t} p^{\frac{k-t-1}{2}}\right)^{k_1} \quad (22)$$

$$\approx \frac{e}{(k-t)p^{\frac{t+1}{2}}} \quad (23)$$

If we let $t > 2 \log_{1/p} k$, this expression is greater than 1, which means that in expectation there will be a clique of size k_1 . Now we need to show that this occurs with high probability for $k \geq \lceil 2 \log_{1/p} n - 3 \log_{1/p} \log_{1/p} n \rceil$. We first get a bound on the variance. Let $X_k = \sum_{S \subseteq V: |S|=k} X_S$, where X_S is an indicator random variable that is 1 when S is a clique. Then,

$$\text{Var}(X_k) = \mathbb{E}(X_k^2) - \mathbb{E}(X_k)^2 = \mathbb{E}\left(\left(\sum X_S\right)^2\right) - \mathbb{E}(X_k)^2 \quad (24)$$

$$= \sum_{S,T} \mathbb{E}(X_S X_T) - \mathbb{E}(X_S) \mathbb{E}(X_T) \quad (25)$$

$$\leq \sum_{S,T: |S \cap T| \geq 2} \mathbb{E}(X_S X_T) \quad (26)$$

where in the last line, we used the fact that for S and T such that $|S \cap T| \leq 1$, X_S and X_T are independent. Now we write $\sum_{S,T: |S \cap T| \geq 2} \mathbb{E}(X_S X_T)$ as a sum over the size of $S \cap T$. We choose k vertices to form S , then we choose j of those k vertices to form the intersection. Finally, we choose $k-j$ vertices from the remaining $n-k$ vertices to form the rest of T . The probability that k -sets S and T with intersection of size j form cliques is $p^{\binom{k}{2}} p^{\binom{k}{2} - \binom{j}{2}}$. We use this to evaluate the following:

$$\frac{\sum_{S,T: |S \cap T| \geq 2} \mathbb{E}(X_S X_T)}{\mathbb{E}(X_k)^2} = \frac{\sum_{j=2}^k \binom{n}{k} \binom{k}{j} \binom{n-k}{k-j} p^{\binom{k}{2}} p^{\binom{k}{2} - \binom{j}{2}}}{\mathbb{E}(X_k)^2} \quad (27)$$

$$= \sum_{j=2}^k \frac{\binom{n}{k} \binom{k}{j} \binom{n-k}{k-j} p^{\binom{k}{2}} p^{\binom{k}{2} - \binom{j}{2}}}{\left(\binom{n}{k} p^{\binom{k}{2}}\right)^2} \quad (28)$$

$$= \sum_{j=2}^k \frac{\binom{k}{j} \binom{n-k}{k-j}}{\binom{n}{k} p^{\binom{j}{2}}} = \sum_{j=2}^k a_j \quad (29)$$

Let us evaluate the a_j terms.

$$a_2 = \frac{k(k-1)}{2} \frac{\binom{n-k}{k-2}}{\binom{n}{k} p} \leq \frac{k^2 \cdot k(k-1)}{n^2 p} \ll 1 \quad (30)$$

$$\frac{a_{j+1}}{a_j} = \frac{\binom{k}{j+1} \binom{n-k}{k-j-1}}{\binom{k}{j} \binom{n-k}{k-j} p^j} = \frac{(k-j)(k-j)}{(j+1)(n-2k+j+1)p^j} \leq \frac{k^2}{(j+1)(n-k)p^j} \quad (31)$$

We know that $j \leq k = \lceil 2 \log_{1/p} n - 2 \log_{1/p} k \rceil$. Then $a_{j+1}/a_j < 1$, so all a_j can be bounded by a_2 . Then $\sum_j a_j \leq k a_2 \leq \frac{k^5}{n^2 p} = o(1)$. Thus, we have shown $\frac{\text{Var}(X_k)}{\mathbb{E}(X_k)^2} \leq \frac{k^5}{n^2 p}$. We will use the 1-sided Chebyshev bound:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_k \leq \mathbb{E}(X_k) - t\sqrt{\text{Var}(X_k)}) \leq \frac{1}{1+t^2} \quad (32)$$

Letting $t = \frac{\mathbb{E}(X_k)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X_k)}}$ gives:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_k \leq \mathbb{E}(X_k) - \frac{\mathbb{E}(X_k)}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X_k)}}\sqrt{\text{Var}(X_k)}) = \mathbb{P}(X_k \leq 0) \quad (33)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\mathbb{E}(X_k)^2}{\text{Var}(X_k)}} \quad (34)$$

$$= \frac{\text{Var}(X_k)}{\mathbb{E}(X_k^2)} \quad (35)$$

Then $\mathbb{P}(X_k = 0) \leq \frac{k^5}{n^2 p} \rightarrow 0$. So with high probability, the desired result holds. \square

We can actually get an even stronger bound on $\mathbb{P}(X_k = 0)$ using the following theorem:

Theorem 2.2. (*Janson*) Let \mathbb{X} be a discrete, finite set. Let X be a random subset of \mathbb{X} , where each $a \in \mathbb{X}$ is included in X independently with probability p_a . Let S_1, \dots, S_M be subsets of \mathbb{X} , and let $Y = |\{i : S_i \subseteq X\}|$. Let $\Delta = \sum_{i,j:S_i \cap S_j \neq \emptyset} \mathbb{P}(S_i, S_j \subseteq X)$. Then,

$$\mathbb{P}(Y \leq \mathbb{E}(Y) - t) \leq e^{-t^2/\Delta} \quad (36)$$

Namely, we can prove this corollary:

Corollary 2.3. For $k \geq \lceil 2 \log_{1/p} n - 3 \log_{1/p} \log_{1/p} n \rceil$, we have $\mathbb{P}(X_k = 0) \leq e^{-\frac{n^2 p}{k^5}}$

Proof. We will use Janson's inequality where \mathbb{X} is the set of all edges in a graph on n vertices, and the random variable X is the edge set of $G_{n,p}$. S_1, \dots, S_M are all of the subsets of V of size k . Then Y is the number of cliques of size k . Then $\Delta = \sum_{\substack{S,T:|S \cap T| \geq 2 \\ |S|=|T|=k}} \mathbb{E}(X_S X_T)$.

Setting $t = \mathbb{E}(Y)$ and using the bound derived earlier gives $\mathbb{P}(Y \leq 0) \leq e^{-\frac{n^2 p}{k^5}}$. \square

3 Chromatic number of $G_{n,p}$

Let $\chi(G_{n,p})$ be a random variable equal to the chromatic number of a graph chosen from $G_{n,p}$. We can get the following rough bound on the chromatic number of $G_{n,p}$.

Theorem 3.1. With high probability,

$$\frac{n}{\lceil 2 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n \rceil} \leq \chi(G_{n,p}) \leq \frac{n}{\lceil 2 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n - 3 \log \log n \rceil} + \frac{n}{(2 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}})^2} \quad (37)$$

$$= \frac{n}{2 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n} (1 + o(1)) \quad (38)$$

Proof. Let $\alpha(G)$ be the size of the largest independent set in a graph G . Note that the size of the largest clique in G is equal to the size of the largest independent set in the complement of G . Then our bounds on the size of the largest clique in $G_{n,p}$ give us bounds on $\alpha(G_{n,1-p})$. Thus, we get the following lemma:

Lemma 3.2. *For a random graph $G_{n,p}$, we have*

$$\lceil 2 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n - 3 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n \rceil \leq \alpha(G_{n,p}) \leq \lceil 2 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n \rceil \quad (39)$$

with high probability.

From the upper bound in the lemma, we can get the lower bound on $\chi(G_{n,p})$. Each color in a coloring forms an independent set. The lemma shows that no more than $\lceil 2 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n \rceil$ vertices can have the same color. Then in total, we have $\chi(G_{n,p}) \geq \frac{n}{\lceil 2 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n \rceil}$.

Next, we get the upper bound on $\chi(G_{n,p})$. Note that the Lemma 3.2 holds for random graphs of any size. Let $f(n) = \lceil 2 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n - 3 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n \rceil$. Let ν be some parameter we will fix later. We will show the following lemma.

Lemma 3.3. *For $\nu \geq \log^c n$ for some suitable constant c , every subset of $G_{n,p}$ of size at least ν will contain an independent set of size $f(\nu)$ whp as $n \rightarrow \infty$.*

Proof. From Corollary 2.3, we have that $\mathbb{P}(X_k = 0) \leq e^{-n^2 p/k^5}$ for suitable k . Let Y_k be the number of independent sets of size k in $G_{n,p}$. Since cliques are independent sets in a graph's complement we immediately get $\mathbb{P}(Y_k = 0) \leq e^{-n^2(1-p)/k^5}$ (since $G_{n,1-p}$ is distributed like the complement of $G_{n,p}$). For each $S \subseteq V$ of size ν , let E_S be the event that S does not contain an independent set of size $f(\nu)$. Then,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcup_{S \subseteq V, |S|=\nu} E_S\right) \leq \binom{n}{\nu} \mathbb{P}(Y_{f(\nu)} = 0) \quad (40)$$

$$\leq \binom{n}{\nu} e^{-\nu^2(1-p)/f(\nu)^5} \ll 1 \quad (\text{for } \nu \geq \log^c n) \quad (41)$$

Then whp every subset S of size ν will have an independent set of size $f(\nu)$. \square

Given an instance of $G_{n,p}$ we pick a subset of ν vertices and remove an independent set S of size $f(\nu)$ from it. We pick another subset from $V \setminus S$ and remove an independent set of size $f(\nu)$ from it. We can keep picking subsets of size ν from the remaining vertices and removing independent sets of size $f(\nu)$ from each of those subsets until there are fewer than ν vertices left. Note that Lemma 3.3 implies that whp all of the subsets of size ν that we picked will contain independent sets of size $f(\nu)$. Call the set of remaining vertices T . We assign one color to each independent set and one color for each vertex in T . This gives an upper bound on $\chi(G_{n,p})$.

In particular, we could have removed as many as $\frac{n}{f(\nu)}$ independent sets, so $\chi(G_{n,p}) \leq \frac{n}{f(\nu)} + \nu$ with high probability (the high probability ensures that each subset had a suitably-sized independent set). If we set $\nu = \frac{n}{\log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n}$, we get $\chi(G_{n,p}) \leq \frac{n}{2 \log_{\frac{1}{1-p}} n} (1 + o(1))$. \square

4 Sharper bounds on $\chi(G_{n,p})$

We use the following concentration inequality:

Theorem 4.1. (*McDiarmid's inequality*) Let x_1, \dots, x_n be independent random variables such that each x_i belongs to the set A_i . Let $f : A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be some function. Let $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ signify a vector of x_i 's. Assume that if \vec{x} and \vec{x}' differ only in the i^{th} coordinate, then $|f(\vec{x}) - f(\vec{x}')| \leq c_i$. Then,

$$\mathbb{P}(|f(x_1, \dots, x_n) - \mathbb{E}(f(\vec{x}))| > t) \leq 2e^{-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_i c_i^2}} \quad (42)$$

Now we prove the following claim:

Claim 4.2. $\mathbb{P}(|\chi(G_{n,p}) - \mathbb{E}(\chi(G_{n,p}))| > \sqrt{n}w(1)) \rightarrow 0$

where $w(1)$ signifies any function that goes to infinity as n goes to infinity.

We prove this using a corollary of McDiarmid's inequality.

Corollary 4.3. If A_1, \dots, A_m is a partition of the edges of the complete graph K_n and $f(G)$ is such that $|f(G) - f(G')| \leq 1$ if $E(G) \Delta E(G') \subseteq A_i$, where $A \Delta B = (A \setminus B) \cup (B \setminus A)$, then $\mathbb{P}(|f(G) - \mathbb{E}(f(G))| > t) \leq 2e^{-\frac{2t^2}{m}}$.

To prove the claim, let $\chi(G) = f(G)$ and number the vertices 1 through n . Then let $A_i = \{(j, i) : j < i\}$ for some arbitrary orientation of the edges. Note that if we change edges in only one A_i , we only affect edges adjacent to vertex i . Removing or adding edges connected to vertex i can only change the chromatic number by at most 1, so we can use the corollary, which immediately gives $\mathbb{P}(|\chi(G_{n,p}) - \mathbb{E}(\chi(G_{n,p}))| > \sqrt{n}w(1)) \leq 2e^{-2w(1)^2} \rightarrow 0$.

We will move onto an even stronger statement about the chromatic number of a random graph. First, we have this theorem:

Theorem 4.4. (*Alon-Krivelevich*) Let $p = n^{-\alpha}$ for $\alpha \in (1/2, 1)$. Then with high probability $\chi(G_{n,p})$ takes one of two consecutive integer values.

We will not prove this result, but instead will prove the following weaker result:

Theorem 4.5. Let $p = n^{-\alpha}$, $\alpha \in (5/6, 1)$. Then with high probability, $\chi(G_{n,p})$ takes one of four consecutive integer values.

Proof. Let $u(n)$ be the least integer such that $\mathbb{P}(\chi(G_{n,p}) \leq u(n)) \geq \frac{1}{\log n}$. Let Y be the size of the smallest set W such that $G \setminus W$ is $u(n)$ colorable.

We will number the vertices from 1 to n and use the same partition of A_i 's as before, namely letting $A_i = \{(j, i) : j < i\}$ for some arbitrary orientation of the edges. Then by Corollary 4.3, we have $\mathbb{P}(|Y - \mathbb{E}(Y)| > \sqrt{n}w(1)) \leq e^{-w(1)^2} \rightarrow 0$. When $Y = 0$, by definition this means that G is $u(n)$ colorable. This happens with probability at least $\frac{1}{\log n}$. Thus, $\mathbb{P}(Y = 0) \geq \frac{1}{\log n}$.

We know that Y is exponentially concentrated around its expectation. In particular, we can use Corollary 4.3 to get $\mathbb{P}(|Y - \mathbb{E}(Y)| > \sqrt{n \log n}) < 2n^{-2}$. For sufficiently large n , $2n^{-2} < \frac{1}{\log n}$, so we must have $\mathbb{E}(Y) \leq \sqrt{n \log n}$ or else we wouldn't be able to have $\mathbb{P}(Y = 0) \geq \frac{1}{\log n}$.

Moreover, we've shown that $\mathbb{P}(|Y - \mathbb{E}(Y)| > \sqrt{n \log n}) < 2n^{-2} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then since $\mathbb{P}(Y > 2\sqrt{n \log n}) \leq \mathbb{P}(|Y - \mathbb{E}(Y)| > \sqrt{n \log n})$, we have $\mathbb{P}(Y > 2\sqrt{n \log n}) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Then for sufficiently large n , $Y \leq 2\sqrt{n \log n}$ with high probability. By the definition of Y this means that there is some set W of vertices of size $\leq 2\sqrt{n \log n}$ such that $G \setminus W$ is $u(n)$ colorable.

To color G , we will remove such a set W and color $G \setminus W$ with $u(n)$ colors. Then we will use the following lemma:

Lemma 4.6. *Let α and c be fixed constants, with $\alpha \in [\frac{5}{6}, 1]$, $p = n^{-\alpha}$, then asymptotically almost surely, every $S \subseteq V$ of size $\leq C\sqrt{n \log n}$ is 3-colorable.*

Lemma 4.6 shows that W is 3-colorable with high probability for large n , so we will need at most 3 additional colors to color W . Then in total, $\chi(G_{n,p}) \in \{u(n), u(n) + 1, u(n) + 2, u(n) + 3\}$. \square

Proof of Lemma 4.6. Let T be a minimal subset of V that is not 3-colorable. For the sake of contradiction, assume $|T| \leq C\sqrt{n \log n}$. By minimality of T , removing any vertex from T will cause it to be 3-colorable. Thus, all vertices in T must have degree at least 3 in the subgraph induced by T . If a vertex v had degree 2 or less, we could get a 3-coloring for $T \setminus \{v\}$ and then use that 3-coloring for T by coloring v with a color not used in by one of v 's neighbors in T .

Therefore, the number of edges in T is at least $\frac{3|T|}{2}$. Then let E_t be the event that there exists a non-3-colorable $T \subseteq V$ of size t . The probability that any given set of t vertices forms a non-3-colorable graph is at most the probability that there exists a subset of t vertices with at least $\frac{3t}{2}$ edges.

$$\mathbb{P}(\cup_{t=1, \dots, C\sqrt{n \log n}} E_t) \leq \sum_{t=1}^{C\sqrt{n \log n}} \binom{n}{t} \binom{\binom{t}{2}}{\frac{3t}{2}} p^{\frac{3t}{2}} \rightarrow 0 \quad (43)$$

where we have used a union bound over all possible sizes of T . For each value of t , there are $\binom{n}{t}$ possible subsets of t vertices and each subset has $\binom{\binom{t}{2}}{\frac{3t}{2}}$ possible ways to choose $\frac{3t}{2}$ edges. Thus, we have shown that as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the number of subsets of V of size at most $2\sqrt{n \log n}$ that are not 3-colorable goes to 0. \square

References

- [1] Alan Frieze and Michał Karoński. *Introduction to Random Graphs*. Cambridge University Press, 2015.