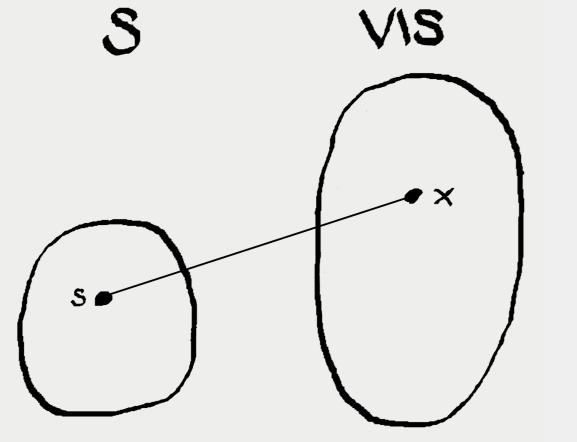
Concentration of the Domination number of $\mathcal{G}(n, p)$

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For a graph **G**, we call $S \in V(G)$ a *dominating set* if for all $x \in V \setminus S$ there is an $s \in S$ such that $xs \in E(G)$. We denote by D(G) the domination number of G, the smallest possible size of a dominating set.



 \blacktriangleright Throughout, we work in the random graph model $\mathcal{G}(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{p})$, that is, in the space of all graphs where edges are inserted with probability **p**, all choices being made independently. We show that for $\mathbf{G} \sim \mathcal{G}(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{p})$, $\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{G})$ is sharply concentrated for a certain range of **p**. \blacktriangleright Notation. We denote by **In n** the natural logarithm, and for $\mathbf{p} \in [0, 1)$, set **q** = $\frac{1}{1-p}$.

- **Theorem 2.** Let 1/2 < K < 1 be a constant, let $p = n^{-K}$, and $G_n \sim \mathcal{G}(n,p)$. Then there exists $r = r(n) \in \mathbb{R}$ such that a.a.s. $D(G_n) = r + O^*(r \exp(n^{K-1}))$. As in Theorem 1, r is of the form $\mathbf{r} = \log_{\mathbf{q}} \mathbf{n} - \log_{\mathbf{q}} \left(\log_{\mathbf{q}} \mathbf{n} \cdot \ln \mathbf{n} \cdot (1 - \mathsf{K})^2 (1 + \mathbf{o}(1)) \right).$
- ► The proof essentially uses Talagrands inequality and was inspired by the concentration results for the independence number, as it has been done in Random graphs by Janson, Łuczak and Ruciński.

▶ In the article On the Domination Number of a Random Graph (2001) B. Wieland and A.P. Godbole prove that the domination number is concentrated on two points asymptotically almost surely (a.a.s.): let $p_0(n)$ be the smallest **p** for which

$$\frac{p^2}{40} \ge \frac{\ln \left(\ln^2 n / p \right)}{\ln n}$$

Let $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{n})$ be either constant, or tend to 0 with $\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{n}) \ge \mathbf{p}_0(\mathbf{n})$. For $G_n \sim \mathcal{G}(n,p)$, a.a.s.

> $D(G_n) = \lfloor \log_q n - \log_q (\log_q n \cdot \ln n) \rfloor + 1 \text{ or }$ $\mathsf{D}(\mathsf{G}_{\mathsf{n}}) = \lfloor \log_{\mathsf{q}} \mathsf{n} - \log_{\mathsf{q}} (\log_{\mathsf{q}} \mathsf{n} \cdot \ln \mathsf{n}) \rfloor + 2.$

Theorem 3. Let 2/3 < K < 1 be a constant, let $p = n^{-K}$, and $G_n \sim \mathcal{G}(n,p)$. Then for all (constants) $C \in \mathbb{R}$, there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for any interval I of length C and for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ large enough:

 $\Pr(\mathsf{D}(\mathsf{G}_{\mathsf{n}}) \in \mathsf{I}) < 1 - \varepsilon.$

 \triangleright *Proof sketch.* Assume the opposite and suppose that a.a.s. $\mathbf{d} := \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{G}_n)$ lies in an interval I of constant length C. From Theorem 2 we know that I must lie in $\mathbf{r} + \mathcal{O}^*(\mathbf{r} \exp(\mathbf{n}^{K-1}))$. For a dominating set **S** of size **d**, we call $e = xs \in E(G_n)$ (for $x \in V \setminus S$, $s \in S$) crucial w.r.t. S if for all $s' \in S - s$, $xs' \notin E(G_n)$. That is, in $G_n - e$, S is not dominating anymore.

Consider the graph $F_n \sim \mathcal{G}(n, p')$, where $p' = p - \sqrt{p}/n$. Note that we obtain the same distribution if in G_n , we delete every edge with probability $\frac{1}{\sqrt{pn}}$. It can be shown that under those assumptions, a.a.s. $D(F_n)$ lies in I, as well. Hence, our strategy is to delete edges in G_n with probability $\frac{1}{\sqrt{pn}}$, and to show that with (at least) constant positive probability a crucial edge has been destroyed for every dominating set of size **d**. That is, with positive probability, the domination number has gone up. We repeat the process **C** times, and finally get

We extend the result of Wieland and Godbole to a wider range of **p**: We show a 2-point-concentration of the domination number even if **p** tends to **0** almost as fast as $n^{-1/2}$.

Theorem 1. Let K < 1/2 be a constant, $p = n^{-K}$, and let $G_n \sim \mathcal{G}(n,p)$. Then there exists $r = r(n) \in \mathbb{R}$ such that a.a.s. $D(G_n) = \lfloor r \rfloor + 1$ or $D(G_n) = \lfloor r \rfloor + 2$. One can check that r is of the form

 $\mathbf{r} = \log_{\mathbf{q}} \mathbf{n} - \log_{\mathbf{q}} \left(\log_{\mathbf{q}} \mathbf{n} \cdot \ln \mathbf{n} \cdot (1 - \mathsf{K})^2 (1 + \mathbf{o}(1)) \right).$

 \blacktriangleright Proof (sketch). For $\mathbf{r} \in \mathbb{N}$, consider the expected number of dominating sets of size **r** and form its continuous extension to \mathbb{R} . That is, consider the function $\mathcal{E}(x) := \binom{n}{x} \cdot (1 - (1 - p)^x)^{n-x}$. Set r to be the unique positive solution of $\mathcal{E}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{1}$ (\mathcal{E} is inreasing). It follows by standard first moment arguments that a.a.s. $D(G_n) \ge |r| + 1$. Second moment methods and careful analysis of the asymptotics yield that a.a.s. $D(G_n) \leq \lfloor r \rfloor + 2$.

 $Pr(D(F_n) \notin I) > \varepsilon$

for some absolute constant $\varepsilon > 0$.

- For $\mathbf{p} = \frac{\mathbf{n}^{-4/3}}{\ln n}$, there is a simpler argument on concentration. Now, $\mathbf{G}_{\mathbf{n}}$ is a.a.s. a collection of stars (since a.a.s. no triangles and no paths of length 3). In that case, $D(G_n) = n - e(G_n)$. But $e(G_n)$ enjoys a binomial distribution, and so its variance is $\frac{n^{1/3}}{\sqrt{2 \ln n}}$.
- There is still an enormous gap between the values of p where we can show a 2-point-concentration, and where we can show 'non-concentration' (on an interval of constant length). It is desirable to close this gap. We conjecture that for $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{o}(\mathbf{n}^{-1/2})$, the domination number is not concentrated on two values anymore.

 \blacktriangleright The calculations carry through even when K tends to 1/2 from below sufficiently slowly. That is, we can actually push **p** down to $p(n) = \frac{\ln^{c} n}{\sqrt{n}}$, or $K(n) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{c \cdot \ln \ln n}{\ln n}$ respectively, where c is some small constant. \blacktriangleright When **p** tends to **1**, then the asymptotics of $\log_q n$ change drastically. However, adjusting the estimates to this case, we get the same result: Let $\mathbf{p}(\mathbf{n}) = \mathbf{1} - \mathbf{o}(\mathbf{1})$ and $\mathbf{G}_{\mathbf{n}} \sim \mathcal{G}(\mathbf{n}, \mathbf{p})$. Then a.a.s.

 $D(G_n) = \lfloor \log_a n - \log_a (\log_a n \cdot \ln n) \rfloor + 1 \text{ or }$ $\mathsf{D}(\mathsf{G}_{\mathsf{n}}) = \lfloor \log_{\mathsf{q}} \mathsf{n} - \log_{\mathsf{q}} (\log_{\mathsf{q}} \mathsf{n} \cdot \ln \mathsf{n}) \rfloor + 2.$

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