# The ( $k, \ell$ )-rainbow index of random graphs* 

Qingqiong Cai, Xueliang Li, Jiangli Song<br>Center for Combinatorics and LPMC-TJKLC<br>Nankai University<br>Tianjin 300071, China

Email: cqqnjnu620@163.com, lxl@nankai.edu.cn, songjiangli@mail.nankai.edu.cn


#### Abstract

A tree in an edge-colored graph $G$ is said to be a rainbow tree if no two edges on the tree share the same color. Given two positive integers $k$, $\ell$ with $k \geq 3$, the $(k, \ell)$-rainbow index $r x_{k, \ell}(G)$ of $G$ is the minimum number of colors needed in an edge-coloring of $G$ such that for any set $S$ of $k$ vertices of $G$, there exist $\ell$ internally disjoint rainbow trees connecting $S$. This concept was introduced by Chartrand et. al., and there have been very few known results about it. In this paper, we establish a sharp threshold function for $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, p}\right) \leq k$ and $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, M}\right) \leq k$, respectively, where $G_{n, p}$ and $G_{n, M}$ are the usually defined random graphs.


Keywords: rainbow index, random graphs, threshold function
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## 1 Introduction

All graphs in this paper are undirected, finite and simple. We follow [3] for graph theoretical notation and terminology not defined here. Let $G$ be a nontrivial connected graph with an edge-coloring $c: E(G) \rightarrow\{1,2, \cdots, t\}, t \in \mathbb{N}$, where adjacent edges may be colored the same. A path of $G$ is said to be a rainbow path if no two edges on the path have the same color. An edge-colored graph $G$ is called rainbow connected if for every pair of distinct vertices of $G$ there exists a rainbow path connecting them. The rainbow

[^0]connection number of a graph $G$, denoted by $r c(G)$, is defined as the minimum number of colors that are needed in order to make $G$ rainbow connected. For any two vertices $u$ and $v$ of $G$, a rainbow $u-v$ geodesic in $G$ is a rainbow $u-v$ path of length $d(u, v)$, where $d(u, v)$ is the distance between $u$ and $v$. The graph $G$ is strongly rainbow connected if there exists a rainbow $u-v$ geodesic for any pair of vertices $u$ and $v$ in $G$. Similarly, we define the strong rainbow connection number of a connected graph $G$, denoted by $\operatorname{src}(G)$, as the smallest number of colors that are needed in order to make $G$ strongly rainbow connected. Clearly, we have $\operatorname{diam}(G) \leq r c(G) \leq \operatorname{src}(G) \leq m$, where $\operatorname{diam}(G)$ denotes the diameter of $G$ and $m$ is the number of edges of $G$. The rainbow $k$-connectivity of $G$, denoted by $r c_{k}(G)$, is defined as the minimum number of colors in an edge-coloring of $G$ such that every two distinct vertices of $G$ are connected by $k$ internally disjoint rainbow paths. These concepts were introduced by Chartrand et al. in $[7,8]$. Recently, a lot of relevant results have been published; see $[5,6,10,11,12,18]$. The interested readers can see $[16,17]$ for a survey on this topic.

Here we recall the concept of generalized connectivity. Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and size $m$. For $S \subseteq V(G)$, an $S$-tree is a tree connecting the vertices of $S$. Suppose that $\left\{T_{1}, T_{2}, \cdots, T_{\ell}\right\}$ is a set of $S$-trees. They are called internally disjoint if $E\left(T_{i}\right) \cap E\left(T_{j}\right)=\emptyset$ and $V\left(T_{i}\right) \cap V\left(T_{j}\right)=S$ for every pair of distinct integers $i, j$ with $1 \leq i, j \leq \ell$ (note that the trees are vertex-disjoint in $G \backslash S$ ). For a set $S$ of $k$ vertices of $G$, let $\kappa(S)$ denote the maximum number of internally disjoint $S$-trees in $G$. The $k$ connectivity $\kappa_{k}(G)$ of $G$ is defined by $\kappa_{k}(G)=\min \{\kappa(S)\}$, where the minimum is taken over all $k$-element subsets $S$ of $V(G)$. We refer to $[9,13,14,15]$ for more details about the generalized connectivity.

A tree $T$ in an edge-colored graph $G$ is called a rainbow tree if no two edges of $T$ have the same color. Given two positive integers $k, \ell$ with $2 \leq k \leq n$ and $1 \leq \ell \leq \kappa_{k}(G)$, the ( $k, \ell$ )-rainbow index $r x_{k, \ell}(G)$ of $G$ is the minimum number of colors needed in an edgecoloring of $G$ such that for any set $S$ of $k$ vertices of $G$, there exist $\ell$ internally disjoint rainbow $S$-trees. In particular, for $\ell=1$, we often write $r x_{k}(G)$ rather than $r x_{k, 1}(G)$ and call it the $k$-rainbow index. It is easy to see that $r x_{2, \ell}(G)=r c_{\ell}(G)$. So the ( $k, \ell$ )-rainbow index can be viewed as a generalization of the rainbow connectivity. In the sequel, we always assume $k \geq 3$.

The concept of $(k, \ell)$-rainbow index was also introduced by Chartrand et al.; see [9]. They determined the $k$-rainbow index of all unicyclic graphs and the $(3, \ell)$-rainbow index of complete graphs for $\ell=1,2$. In [4], we investigated the $(k, \ell)$-rainbow index of complete graphs for every pair of integers $k, \ell$. We proved that for every pair of positive integers $k, \ell$ with $k \geq 3$, there exists a positive integer $N=N(k, \ell)$ such that $r x_{k, \ell}\left(K_{n}\right)=k$ for
every integer $n \geq N$, which settled down the two conjectures in [9].
In this paper, we study the $(k, \ell)$-rainbow index of random graphs and establish a sharp threshold function for the property $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, p}\right) \leq k$ and $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, M}\right) \leq k$, respectively, where $G_{n, p}$ and $G_{n, M}$ are defined as usual; see [2].

## 2 Basic notation on random graphs

The two most frequently occurring probability models of random graphs are $\mathcal{G}(n, p)$ and $\mathcal{G}(n, M)$. The model $\mathcal{G}(n, p)$ consists of all graphs on $n$ vertices, in which the edges are chosen independently and randomly with probability $p$; whereas the model $\mathcal{G}(n, M)$ consists of all graphs on $n$ vertices and $M$ edges, in which each graph has the same probability. Let $G_{n, p}, G_{n, M}$ stand for random graphs from the models $\mathcal{G}(n, p)$ and $\mathcal{G}(n, M)$. We say that an event $E=E(n)$ happens almost surely (or a.s. for short) if $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{Pr}[E(n)]=1$. Let $K, G, H$ be three graphs on $n$ vertices. A property $Q$ is said to be monotone if whenever $G \subseteq H$ and $G$ satisfies $Q$, then $H$ also satisfies $Q$. Moreover, We call a property $Q$ convex if whenever $K \subset G \subset H$, and $K$ satisfies $Q$ and $H$ satisfies $Q$, then $G$ also satisfies $Q$. For a graph property $Q$, a function $p(n)$ is called a threshold function of $Q$ if

- $\frac{p^{\prime}(n)}{p(n)} \rightarrow 0$, then $G_{n, p^{\prime}(n)}$ almost surely does not satisfy $Q$; and
- $\frac{p^{\prime \prime}(n)}{p(n)} \rightarrow \infty$, then $G_{n, p^{\prime \prime}(n)}$ almost surely satisfies $Q$.

Furthermore, $p(n)$ is called a sharp threshold function of $Q$ if there are two positive constants $c$ and $C$ such that

- for every $p^{\prime}(n) \leq c p(n), G_{n, p^{\prime}(n)}$ almost surely does not satisfy $Q$; and
- for every $p^{\prime \prime}(n) \geq C p(n), G_{n, p^{\prime \prime}(n)}$ almost surely satisfies $Q$.

Similarly, we can define $M(n)$ as a threshold function of $Q$ in the model $\mathcal{G}(n, M)$; see [2].

It is well known that all monotone graph properties have a threshold function [2]. Obviously, for every pair of positive integers $k, \ell$, the property that the $(k, \ell)$-rainbow index is at most $k$ is monotone, and thus has a threshold.

## 3 Main results

As Caro et al. pointed out, the random graph setting poses several intriguing questions. In [5], Caro et al. proved that $p=\sqrt{\log n / n}$ is a sharp threshold for the property $r c\left(G_{n, p}\right) \leq 2$. This was generalized by Fujita et al. [10], who obtained that $p=\sqrt{\log n / n}$
is a sharp threshold for the property $r c_{k}\left(G_{n, p}\right) \leq 2$ and $M=\sqrt{n^{3} \log n}$ is a sharp threshold for the property $r c_{k}\left(G_{n, M}\right) \leq 2$ for all integer $k \geq 1$. In this section, we employ similar methods to study the $(k, \ell)$-rainbow index of random graphs $G_{n, p}$ and $G_{n, M}$.

Theorem 1. For every pair of positive integers $k, \ell$ with $k \geq 3, \sqrt[k]{\frac{\log _{a} n}{n}}$ is a sharp threshold function for the property $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, p}\right) \leq k$, where $a=\frac{k^{k}}{k^{k}-k!}$.

Proof. The proof will be two-fold. For the first part, we show that there exists a positive constant $c_{1}$ such that for every $p \geq c_{1} \sqrt[k]{\frac{\log _{a} n}{n}}$, almost surely $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, p}\right) \leq k$, which can be derived from the following two claims.
$\boldsymbol{C l a i m}$ 1: For any $c_{1} \geq 3$, if $p \geq c_{1} \sqrt[k]{\frac{\log _{a} n}{n}}$, then almost surely any $k$ vertices in $G_{n, p}$ have at least $2 k \log _{a} n$ common neighbors.

For any $S \subseteq V\left(G_{n, p}\right)$ with $|S|=k$, let $D(S)$ denote the event that the vertices in $S$ have at least $2 k \log _{a} n$ common neighbors. Then it suffices to prove that, for $p=c_{1} \sqrt[k]{\frac{\log _{a} n}{n}}$, $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bigcap_{S} D(S)\right] \rightarrow 1$, as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Define $X$ as the number of common neighbors of all the vertices in $S$. Then $X \sim \operatorname{Bin}\left(n-k,\left(c_{1} \sqrt[k]{\frac{\log _{a} n}{n}}\right)^{k}\right)$ and $E(X)=\frac{n-k}{n} c_{1}^{k} \log _{a} n$. Assume that $n>\frac{c_{1}^{k} k}{c_{1}^{k}-2 k}$. Using the Chernoff Bound [1], we get that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}[\overline{D(S)}] & =\operatorname{Pr}\left[X<2 k \log _{a} n\right] \\
& =\operatorname{Pr}\left[X<\frac{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}{n} \log _{a} n\left(1-\frac{\left(c_{1}^{k}-2 k\right) n-c_{1}^{k} k}{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}\right)\right] \\
& \leq e^{-\frac{-c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}{2 n} \log _{a} n\left(\frac{\left(c_{1}^{k}-2 k\right) n-c_{1}^{k} k}{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}\right)^{2}} \\
& <n^{-\frac{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}{2 n}\left(\frac{\left(c_{1}^{k}-2 k\right) n-c_{1}^{k} k}{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}\right)^{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that the assumption $n>\frac{c_{1}^{k} k}{c_{1}^{k}-2 k}$ ensures $\frac{\left(c_{1}^{k}-2 k\right) n-c_{1}^{k} k}{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}>0$. So we can apply the Chernoff Bound to scaling the above inequalities. The last inequality holds, since $1<a=\frac{k^{k}}{k^{k}-k!}<e$ and then $\log _{a} n>\ln n$.

It follows from the union bound that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bigcap_{S} D(S)\right] & =1-\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bigcup_{S} \overline{D(S)}\right] \\
& \geq 1-\sum_{S} \operatorname{Pr}[\overline{D(S)}]
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& >1-\binom{n}{k} n^{-\frac{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}{2 n}\left(\frac{\left(c_{1}^{k}-2 k\right) n-k_{1}^{k} k}{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}\right)^{2}} \\
& >1-n^{k-\frac{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}{2 n}\left(\frac{\left(c_{1}^{k}-2 k\right) n-c_{1}^{k} k}{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}\right)^{2}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is not hard to see that $c_{1}>3$ can guarantee $k-\frac{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}{2 n}\left(\frac{\left(c_{1}^{k}-2 k\right) n-c_{1}^{k} k}{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}\right)^{2}<0$ for sufficiently large $n$. Then $\left.\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} 1-n^{k-\frac{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}{2 n}\left(\frac{\left(c_{1}^{k}-2 k\right) n-c_{1}^{k} k}{1}\right.} \frac{c_{1}^{k}(n-k)}{}\right)^{2}=1$, which implies that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\bigcap_{S} D(S)\right]=$ 1 as desired.

Claim 2: If any $k$ vertices in $G_{n, p}$ have at least $2 k \log _{a} n$ common neighbors, then there exists a positive integer $N=N(k)$ such that $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, p}\right) \leq k$ for every integer $n \geq N$.

Let $C=\{1,2, \cdots, k\}$ be a set of $k$ different colors. We color the edges of $G_{n, p}$ with the colors from $C$ randomly and independently. For $S \subseteq V\left(G_{n, p}\right)$ with $|S|=k$, define $F(S)$ as the event that there exist at least $\ell$ internally disjoint rainbow $S$-trees. It suffices to prove that $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bigcap_{S} F(S)\right]>0$.

Suppose $S=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{k}\right\}$. For any common neighbor $u$ of the vertices in $S$, let $T(u)$ denote the star with $V(T(u))=\left\{u, v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{k}\right\}$ and $E(T(u))=\left\{u v_{1}, u v_{2}, \cdots, u v_{k}\right\}$. Set $\mathcal{T}=\{T(u) \mid u$ is a common neighbor of the vertices in $S\}$. Then $\mathcal{T}$ is a set of at least $2 k \log _{a} n$ internally disjoint $S$-trees. It is easy to see that $q:=\operatorname{Pr}[\mathrm{T} \in \mathcal{T}$ is a rainbow tree] $=\frac{k!}{k^{k}}<\frac{1}{2}$. So $1-q>q$. Define $Y$ as the number of rainbow S-trees in $\mathcal{T}$. Then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}[\overline{F(S)}] & \leq \operatorname{Pr}[Y \leq \ell-1] \\
& \leq \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1}\binom{2 k \log _{a} n}{i} q^{i}(1-q)^{2 k \log _{a} n-i} \\
& \leq(1-q)^{2 k \log _{a} n} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1}\binom{2 k \log _{a} n}{i} \\
& \leq(1-q)^{2 k \log _{a} n}\left(1+2 k \log _{a} n\right)^{\ell-1} \\
& =\frac{\left(1+2 k \log _{a} n\right)^{\ell-1}}{n^{2 k}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It yields that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bigcap_{S} F(S)\right] & =1-\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bigcup_{S} \overline{F(S)}\right] \\
& \geq 1-\sum_{S} \operatorname{Pr}[\overline{F(S)}] \\
& \geq 1-\binom{n}{k} \frac{\left(1+2 k \log _{a} n\right)^{\ell-1}}{n^{2 k}} \\
& >1-\frac{\left(1+2 k l o g_{a} n\right)^{\ell-1}}{n^{k}} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Obviously, $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} 1-\frac{\left(1+2 k l o g_{a} n\right)^{\ell-1}}{n^{k}}=1$, and then $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{Pr}\left[\bigcap_{S} F(S)\right]=1$. Thus there exists a positive integer $N=N(k)$ such that $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\bigcap_{S} F(S)\right]>0$ for every integer $n \geq N$.

For the other direction, we show that there exists a positive constant $c_{2}$ such that for every $p \leq c_{2} \sqrt[k]{\frac{\log _{a} n}{n}}$, almost surely $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, p}\right) \geq k+1$.

It suffices to prove that for a sufficiently small constant $c_{2}$, the random graph $G_{n, p}$ with $p=c_{2} \sqrt[k]{\frac{\log _{a} n}{n}}$ almost surely contains a set $S$ of $k$ vertices satisfying
(i) $S$ is an independent set;
(ii) the vertices in $S$ have no common neighbors.

Clearly, for such $S$ there exists no rainbow $S$-trees in any $k$-edge-coloring, which implies that $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, p}\right) \geq k+1$.

Fix a set $H$ of $n^{1 /(2 k+1)}$ vertices in $G_{n, p}$ (we may and will assume that $n^{1 /(2 k+1)} / k$ is an integer). Let $E_{1}$ be the event that $H$ is an independent set. Then

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{1}\right]=\left(1-c_{2} \sqrt[k]{\frac{\log _{a} n}{n}}\right)\left(\left(^{n^{1 /(2 k+1)}} 2\right)=1-o(1)\right.
$$

where $o(1)$ denotes a function tending to 0 as $n$ tends to infinity.
Partition $H$ into $t$ subsets $H_{1}, H_{2} \ldots, H_{t}$ arbitrarily, where $t=n^{1 /(2 k+1)} / k$ and $\left|H_{1}\right|=$ $\left|H_{2}\right|=\ldots=\left|H_{t}\right|=k$. Let $E_{2}$ be the event that there exists some $H_{i}$ without common neighbors in $V\left(G_{n, p}\right) \backslash H$. Then, for sufficiently small $c_{2}$,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[E_{2}\right]=1-\left(1-\left(1-c_{2}^{k} \frac{\log _{a} n}{n}\right)^{n-n^{1 /(2 k+1)}}\right)^{n^{1 /(2 k+1)} / k}=1-o(1) .
$$

So, almost surely there exists some set $H_{i}$ of $k$ vertices satisfying properties (i) and (ii). Thus, for sufficiently small $c_{2}$ and every $p \leq c_{2} \sqrt[k]{\frac{\log _{a} n}{n}}$, almost surely $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, p}\right) \geq k+1$. The proof is thus complete.

Next we will turn to another well-known random graph model $\mathcal{G}(n, M)$. We start with a useful lemma which reveals the relationship between $\mathcal{G}(n, p)$ and $\mathcal{G}(n, M)$. Set $N=\binom{n}{2}$.

Lemma 2. [2] If $Q$ is a convex property and $p(1-p) N \rightarrow \infty$, then $G_{n, p}$ almost surely has $Q$ if and only if for every fixed $x, G_{n, M}$ almost surely has $Q$, where $M=\lfloor p N+$ $\left.x(p(1-p) N)^{1 / 2}\right\rfloor$.

Clearly, the property that the $(k, \ell)$-rainbow index of a given graph is at most $k$, is a convex property. By Theorem 1 and Lemma 2, we get the following result.

Corollary 3. For every pair of positive integers $k, \ell$ with $k \geq 3, M(n)=\sqrt[k]{n^{2 k-1} \log _{a} n}$ is $a$ sharp threshold function for the property $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, M}\right) \leq k$, where $a=\frac{k^{k}}{k^{k}-k!}$.

Remark: If $p$ is a threshold function for a given property $Q$, then so is $\lambda p$ for any positive constant $\lambda$. It follows that $p(n)=\sqrt[k]{\frac{\operatorname{logn}}{n}}\left(M(n)=\sqrt[k]{n^{2 k-1} \log n}\right)$ is also a sharp threshold function for the property $r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, p}\right) \leq k\left(r x_{k, \ell}\left(G_{n, M}\right) \leq k\right)$, which corresponds to the results in [10].
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