SUSCEPTIBILITY IN INHOMOGENEOUS RANDOM GRAPHS

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Abstract. We study the susceptibility, i.e., the mean size of the component containing a random vertex, in a general model of inhomogeneous random graphs. This is one of the fundamental quantities associated to (percolation) phase transitions; in practice one of its main uses is that it often gives a way of determining the critical point by solving certain linear equations. Here we relate the susceptibility of suitable random graphs to a quantity associated to the corresponding branching process, and study both quantities in various natural examples.

1. Introduction

The susceptibility $\chi(G)$ of a (deterministic or random) graph $G$ is defined as the mean size of the component containing a random vertex:

$$\chi(G) = |G|^{-1} \sum_{v \in V(G)} |C(v)|,$$

(1.1)

where $C(v)$ denotes the component of $G$ containing the vertex $v$. Thus, if $G$ has $n = |G|$ vertices and components $C_i = C_i(G)$, $i = 1, \ldots, K$, where $K = K(G)$ is the number of components, then

$$\chi(G) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{K} |C_i| = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{K} |C_i|^2.$$

(1.2)

Later we shall order the components, assuming as usual that $|C_1| \geq |C_2| \geq \cdots$.

When the graph $G$ is itself random, in some contexts (such as percolation) it is usual to take the expectation over $G$ as well as over $v$. Here we do not do so: when $G$ is random, $\chi(G)$ is a random variable.

Remark 1.1. The term susceptibility comes from physics. (We therefore use the notation $\chi$, which is standard in physics, although it usually means something else in graph theory.) The connection with the graph version is through (e.g.) the Ising model for magnetism and the corresponding random-cluster model, which is a random graph where the susceptibility (1.2), or rather its expectation, corresponds to the magnetic susceptibility.

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The susceptibility has been much studied for certain models in mathematical physics. Similarly, in percolation theory, which deals with certain random infinite graphs, the corresponding quantity is the (mean) size of the open cluster containing a given vertex, and this has been extensively studied; see e.g. Bollobás and Riordan [7]. In contrast, not much rigorous work has been done for finite random graphs. Some results for the Erdős–Rényi random graphs \( G(n,p) \) and \( G(n,m) \) can be regarded as folk theorems that have been known to experts for a long time. Durrett [17] proves that the expectation \( \mathbb{E} \chi(G(n,p)) = (1 - \lambda)^{-1} + O(1/n) \) if \( p = \lambda/n \) with \( \lambda < 1 \) fixed.

The susceptibility of \( G(n,p) \) and \( G(n,m) \) is studied in detail by Janson and Luczak [22]. For other graphs, one rigorous treatment is by Spencer and Wormald [31], who study a class of random graph processes (including the Erdős–Rényi graph process) and use the susceptibility to study the phase transition in them.

The purpose of the present paper is to study \( \chi(G^V(n,\kappa)) \) for the inhomogeneous random graph \( G^V(n,\kappa) \) introduced in Bollobás, Janson and Riordan [4]; this is a rather general model that includes \( G(n,p) \) as a special case. In fact, much of the time we shall consider the more general setting of [6]. We review the fundamental definitions from [4; 6] in Section 2 below.

We consider asymptotics as \( n \to \infty \) and use standard notation such as \( o_p \), see e.g. [4]. All unspecified limits are as \( n \to \infty \).

**Remark 1.2.** We obtain results for \( G(n,p) \) as corollaries to our general results, but note that these results are not (and cannot be, because of the generality of the model \( G^V(n,\kappa) \)) as precise as the results obtained by Janson and Luczak [22]. The proofs in the two papers are quite different; the proofs in [22] are based on studying the evolution of the susceptibility for the random graph process obtained by adding random edges one by one, using methods from stochastic process theory, while the present paper is based on the standard branching process approximation of the neighbourhood of a given vertex. It seems likely that this method too can be used to give more precise results in the special case of \( G(n,p) \), but we have not attempted that. (Durrett [17] uses this method for the expectation \( \mathbb{E} \chi(G(n,p)) \).)

The definition (1.2) is mainly interesting in the subcritical case, when all components are rather small. In the supercritical case, there is typically one giant component that is so large that it dominates the sum in (1.2), and thus \( \chi(G) \sim |C_1|^2/n \). In fact, in the supercritical case of [4, Theorem 3.1], \( |C_1| = \Theta_p(n) \) and \( |C_2| = o_p(n) \), and thus

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{K} |C_i|^2 = |C_1|^2 + O\left( |C_2| \sum_{i=2}^{K} |C_i| \right) = |C_1|^2 + O(|C_2|n) = (1 + o_p(1))|C_1|^2.
\]

(See also [22, Appendix A] for \( G(n,p) \).) In this case, it makes sense to exclude the largest component from the definition; this is in analogy with percolation theory, where one studies the mean size of the open cluster.
containing, say, vertex 0, given that this cluster is finite. We thus define the modified susceptibility  \( \hat{\chi}(G) \) of a finite graph \( G \) by

\[
\hat{\chi}(G) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=2}^{K} |C_i|^2.
\]

Note that we divide by \( n \) rather than by \( n - |C_1| \), which would also make sense.

In the uniform case, one interpretation of \( \hat{\chi}(G) \) is that it gives the rate of growth of the giant component above the critical point. More generally, if we add a single new edge chosen uniformly at random to a graph \( G \), then the probability that \( C_i \) becomes joined to \( C_1 \) is asymptotically \( 2 |C_i||C_1|/n^2 \), and when this happens \( |C_1| \) increases by \( |C_i| \). Thus (under suitable assumptions), the expected increase in \( |C_1| \) is asymptotically \( 2 |C_1| \sum |C_i|^2/n = 2 |C_1| \hat{\chi}(G) \).

The results in [4] on components of \( G^V(n, \kappa) \) are based on approximation by a branching process \( X_\kappa \), see Section 2. We define (at least when \( \mu(S) = 1 \), see Section 2)

\[
\chi(\kappa) := E[|X_\kappa|] \in [0, \infty], \quad \hat{\chi}(\kappa) := E(|X_\kappa|; |X_\kappa| < \infty) \in [0, \infty].
\]

Thus, \( \chi(\kappa) = \hat{\chi}(\kappa) \) when the survival probability \( \rho(\kappa) := P(|X_\kappa| = \infty) = 0 \) (the subcritical or critical case), while \( \chi(\kappa) = \infty \geq \hat{\chi}(\kappa) \) when \( \rho(\kappa) > 0 \) (the supercritical case).

Our main result is that under some extra conditions, the [modified] susceptibility of \( G^V(n, \kappa) \) converges to \( \chi(\kappa) [\hat{\chi}(\kappa)] \), see Section 4 and in particular Theorems 4.7 and 4.8.

We also study the behaviour of \( \chi(\lambda \kappa) \) and \( \hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) \) as functions of the parameter \( \lambda \in (0, \infty) \), and in particular the behaviour at the threshold for existence of a giant component, see Section 5; this provides a way to use the susceptibility to find the threshold for the random graphs treated here. (See, e.g., Durrett [17] and Spencer and Wormald [31] for earlier uses of this method.)

Finally, we consider some explicit examples and counterexamples in Section 6.

**Remark 1.3.** We believe that similar results hold for the ‘higher order susceptibilities’

\[
\chi_m(G) := \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{v \in V(G)} |\mathcal{C}(v)|^m = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{i} |C_i|^{m+1},
\]

but we have not pursued this. (For \( G(n, p) \), see [22].)

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2. Preliminaries

We review the fundamental definitions from [4, 6], but refer to those papers for details, as well as for references to previous work. In terms of motivation and applications, our main interest is the model \(G(n, \kappa)\) of [4], but for the proofs we sometimes need (or can handle) different generality.

2.1. The random graph models. In all variations we start with a measure space \((S, \mu)\) with \(0 < \mu(S) < \infty\) (usually, but not always, \(\mu\) is a probability measure, i.e., \(\mu(S) = 1\)), and a kernel on it, i.e., a symmetric non-negative measurable function \(\kappa : S \times S \to [0, \infty)\). We assume throughout that \(\kappa\) is integrable: \(\int_S \int_S \kappa(x,y) \, d\mu(x) \, d\mu(y) < \infty\).

2.1.1. The general inhomogenous model. To define \(G(n, \kappa)\), we assume that we are given, for each \(n \geq 1\) (or perhaps for \(n\) in another suitable index set \(I \subseteq (0, \infty)\)), a random or deterministic finite sequence \(x_n = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{v_n})\) of points in \(S\). (For simplicity we write \(x_i\) instead of \(x_i^{(n)}\).) We denote the triple \((S, \mu, (x_n)_{n \geq 1})\) by \(V\) and define the random graph \(G = G(n, \kappa)\) by first sampling \(x_n = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{v_n})\) and then, given \(x_n\), taking the graph with vertex set \(\{1, \ldots, v_n\}\) and random edges, with edge \(ij\) present with probability \(\min(\kappa(x_i, x_j)/n, 1)\), independently of all other edges. (Alternatively, and almost equivalently, see [4] and [20], we may use the probability \(1 - \exp(-\kappa(x_i, x_j)/n)\).) We interpret \(x_i\) as the type of vertex \(i\), and call \((S, \mu)\) the type space.

We need some technical conditions. In [4], we assume that \(S\) is a separable metric space and \(\mu\) a Borel measure; we further assume that if \(\nu_n\) is the (random) measure \(n^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{v_n} \delta_{x_i}\), then \(\nu_n \stackrel{p}{\to} \mu\) (with weak convergence of measures); in this case \(V\) is called a generalized vertex space. In the standard special case when \(v_n = n\) and \(\mu(S) = 1\), \(V\) is called a vertex space. Furthermore, in [4] it is assumed that the kernel \(\kappa\) is graphical on \(V\), which means that \(\kappa\) is integrable and a.e. continuous, and that the expected number of edges is as expected, i.e., that \(\mathbb{E} e(G(n, \kappa))/n \to \frac{1}{2} \int_S \int_S \kappa\).

Many of the results in [4] extend to sequences \(G(n, \kappa_n)\), where \((\kappa_n)\) is a sequence of kernels on \(V\) that is graphical on \(V\) with limit \(\kappa\); see [4] for the definition and note that this includes the case when all \(\kappa_n = \kappa\) for some graphical kernel \(\kappa\).

As shown in [4, Section 8.1], if \(V\) is a generalized vertex space, we may condition on \((x_n)_{n \geq 1}\), and may thus assume that the \(x_n\) and, in particular, \(v_n\) are deterministic. Replacing the index \(n\) by \(v_n\), and renormalizing appropriately (see Remark 2.1 below), we may reduce to the case of a vertex space.
2.1.2. The i.i.d. case. Another, often simpler, case of the general model is when \((S, \mu)\) is an arbitrary probability space and \((x_1, \ldots, x_n)\) are \(n\) i.i.d. points with distribution \(\mu\); in this case \(\kappa\) can be any integrable kernel. This case was unfortunately not treated in [4], but corresponding results are shown for this case (and in greater generality) in [5]. In this case we call \(V = (S, \mu, (x_n)_{n \geq 1})\) an i.i.d. vertex space. In this case, to unify the notation, a graphical kernel is thus any integrable kernel. Many results for this case extend to suitable sequences of kernels, for example assuming that \(\|\kappa_n - \kappa\|_1 \to 0\), as then the general setting below applies.

2.1.3. Cut-convergent sequences. To define the final variant we shall consider, we briefly recall some definitions. (A variant of) the Frieze–Kannan [19] cut norm of an integrable function \(W : S^2 \to \mathbb{R}\) is simply

\[
\sup_{\|f\|_\infty, \|g\|_\infty \leq 1} \int_{S^2} f(x)W(x, y)g(y) \, d\mu(x) \, d\mu(y).
\]

Given an integrable kernel \(\kappa\) and a measure-preserving bijection \(\tau : S \to S\), let \(\kappa^{(\tau)}\) be the corresponding rearrangement of \(\kappa\), defined by

\[
\kappa^{(\tau)}(x, y) = \kappa(\tau(x), \tau(y)).
\]

We write \(\kappa \sim \kappa'\) if \(\kappa'\) is a rearrangement of \(\kappa\). Given two kernels \(\kappa, \kappa'\) on \([0, 1]\), the cut metric of Borgs, Chayes, Lovász, Sós and Vesztergombi [10] may be defined by

\[
\delta_{\square}(\kappa, \kappa') = \inf_{\kappa'' \sim \kappa'} \|\kappa - \kappa''\|_{\square}.
\]  

(2.1)

There is also an alternative definition via couplings, which also applies to kernels defined on two different probability spaces; see [10, 8].

Suppose that \(A_n = (a_{ij})\) is an \(n\)-by-\(n\) symmetric matrix with non-negative entries; from now on any matrix denoted \(A_n\) is assumed to be of this form. Then there is a random graph \(G_n = G(A_n)\) naturally associated to \(A_n\): the vertex set is \(\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}\), edges are present independently, and the probability that \(ij\) is an edge is \(\min\{a_{ij}/n, 1\}\). Given \(A_n\), there is a corresponding kernel \(\kappa_{A_n}\) on \([0, 1]\) with Lebesgue measure: divide \([0, 1]^2\) into \(n^2\) squares of side \(1/n\) in the obvious way, and take the value of \(\kappa_{A_n}\) on the \((i, j)\)th square to be \(a_{ij}\). Identifying \(A_n\) and the corresponding kernel, as shown in [6], many of the results of [4] apply to \(G_n = G(A_n)\) whenever \(\delta_{\square}(A_n, \kappa) \to 0\) for some kernel \(\kappa\) on \([0, 1]\) (or, more generally, on some probability space \(S\)).

If \(A_n\) is itself random, then \(G(A_n)\) is defined to have the conditional distribution just described, given \(A_n\). Any results stating that if \(\delta_{\square}(A_n, \kappa) \to 0\) then \(G(A_n)\) has some property with probability tending to 1 apply also if \((A_n)\) is random with \(\delta_{\square}(A_n, \kappa) \to 0\) a.s. and we may then condition on \((A_n)\).

Moreover, as shown in [6, Sections 1.2 and 1.3], such results apply to the models described in the previous subsections, since in each case the
(random) matrices of edge probabilities obtained after conditioning on the vertex types converge in probability to $\kappa$ in $\delta$. 

2.2. The corresponding branching process. Given an integrable kernel $\kappa$ on a measure space $(S, \mu)$, let $X_{\kappa}(x), x \in S$, be the multi-type Galton–Watson branching process defined as follows. We start with a single particle of type $x$ in generation 0. A particle in generation $t$ of type $y$ gives rise to children in generation $t+1$ whose types form a Poisson process on $S$ with intensity $\kappa(y, z) \, \text{d}\mu(z)$. The children of different particles are independent (given the types of their parents).

If $\mu$ is a probability measure, we also consider the branching process $X_{\kappa}$ defined as above but starting with a single particle whose type has the distribution $\mu$.

Let $|X_{\kappa}(x)|$ denote the total population of $X_{\kappa}(x)$, and let

$$
\rho_k(\kappa; x) := \mathbb{P}(|X_{\kappa}(x)| = k), \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, \infty,
$$

and

$$
\rho_k(\kappa) := \int_S \rho_k(\kappa; x) \, \text{d}\mu(x), \quad k = 1, 2, \ldots, \infty.
$$

Thus, when $\mu(S) = 1$, $\rho_k(\kappa)$ is the probability $\mathbb{P}(|X_{\kappa}| = k)$.

For convenience we assume that

$$
\int_S \kappa(x, y) \, \text{d}\mu(y) < \infty
$$

for all $x \in S$; this implies that all sets of children are finite a.s. This is no real restriction, since our assumption that $\int_S \kappa < \infty$ implies that (2.4) holds for a.e. $x$, and we may impose (2.4) by changing $\kappa$ on a null set, which will a.s. not affect $X_{\kappa}$. (Alternatively, we could work without (2.4), adding the qualifier “for a.e. $x$” at some places below.)

Since a.s. all generations of $X_{\kappa}(x)$ are finite, it follows that $\rho_\infty(\kappa; x)$, the probability that the branching process is infinite, equals the survival probability of $X_{\kappa}(x)$, i.e., the probability that all generations are non-empty. We use the notation $\rho(\kappa; x) := \rho_\infty(\kappa; x)$; for typographical reasons we sometimes also write $\rho_\kappa(x) = \rho(\kappa; x)$. Similarly, we write $\rho(\kappa) := \rho_\infty(\kappa)$; if $\mu(S) = 1$, this is the survival probability of $X_{\kappa}$.

We are interested in the analogue of the mean cluster size for the branching processes. For $X_{\kappa}(x)$, we define

$$
\chi(\kappa; x) := \mathbb{E}(|X_{\kappa}(x)|) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq \infty} k \rho_k(\kappa; x),
$$

and

$$
\hat{\chi}(\kappa; x) := \mathbb{E}(|X_{\kappa}(x)|; |X_{\kappa}(x)| < \infty) = \sum_{1 \leq k < \infty} k \rho_k(\kappa; x); \quad (2.6)
$$

$$
\hat{\chi}(\kappa) := \mathbb{E}(|X_{\kappa}|; |X_{\kappa}| < \infty) = \sum_{1 \leq k < \infty} k \rho_k(\kappa); \quad (2.6)
$$
thus \( \chi(\kappa; x) = \hat{\chi}(\kappa; x) \leq \infty \) if \( \rho(\kappa; x) = 0 \), and \( \hat{\chi}(\kappa; x) \leq \chi(\kappa; x) = \infty \) if \( \rho(\kappa; x) > 0 \). Further, let

\[
\chi(\kappa) := \mu(S)^{-1} \int_S \chi(\kappa; x) \, d\mu(x) = \mu(S)^{-1} \sum_{1 \leq k \leq \infty} kp_k(\kappa), \tag{2.7}
\]

\[
\hat{\chi}(\kappa) := \mu(S)^{-1} \int_S \hat{\chi}(\kappa; x) \, d\mu(x) = \mu(S)^{-1} \sum_{1 \leq k < \infty} kp_k(\kappa). \tag{2.8}
\]

Thus, if \( \mu(S) = 1 \),

\[
\chi(\kappa) = \mathbb{E}(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa|), \tag{2.9}
\]

\[
\hat{\chi}(\kappa) = \mathbb{E}(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa|; |\mathcal{X}_\kappa| < \infty). \tag{2.10}
\]

**Remark 2.1.** For a generalized vertex space, where \( \mu(S) \) may differ from 1, we may renormalize by replacing \( \mu \) and \( \kappa \) by

\[
\mu' := \mu(S)^{-1} \mu \quad \text{and} \quad \kappa' := \mu(S) \kappa. \tag{2.11}
\]

This will not affect \( \mathcal{X}_\kappa(x) \), and thus not \( \chi(\kappa; x) \) and \( \hat{\chi}(\kappa; x) \); further, because of our choice of normalization in (2.7) and (2.8), \( \chi(\kappa) \) and \( \hat{\chi}(\kappa) \) also remain unchanged. Hence, results for generalized vertex spaces follow from the case when \( \mu(S) = 1 \).

2.3. **Integral operators.** Given a kernel \( \kappa \) on a measure space \( (S, \mu) \), let \( T_\kappa \) be the integral operator on \( (S, \mu) \) with kernel \( \kappa \), defined by

\[
(T_\kappa f)(x) := \int_S \kappa(x, y) f(y) \, d\mu(y), \tag{2.12}
\]

for any (measurable) function \( f \) such that this integral is defined (finite or \( +\infty \)) for a.e. \( x \). (As usual, we shall assume without comment that all functions considered are measurable.) Note that \( T_\kappa f \) is defined for every \( f \geq 0 \), with \( 0 \leq T_\kappa f \leq \infty \).

We define

\[
\|T_\kappa\| := \sup\{\|T_\kappa f\|_2 : f \geq 0, \|f\|_2 \leq 1\} \leq \infty. \tag{2.13}
\]

When finite, \( \|T_\kappa\| \) is the norm of \( T_\kappa \) as an operator in \( L^2(S, \mu) \). We denote the inner product in (real) \( L^2(\mu) \) by \( \langle f, g \rangle = \langle f, g \rangle_\mu := \int_S fg \, d\mu \), and the norm by \( \|f\|_2 := \langle f, f \rangle^{1/2}_\mu \).

One of the results of [4] is that the function \( \rho_\kappa(x) = \rho(\kappa; x) \) is the unique maximal solution to the non-linear functional equation

\[
f = 1 - e^{-T_\kappa f}, \quad f \geq 0. \tag{2.14}
\]

Moreover, if \( \|T_\kappa\| \leq 1 \), then \( \rho_\kappa = 0 \) and thus \( \rho(\kappa) = 0 \), while if \( \|T_\kappa\| > 1 \), then \( \rho_\kappa > 0 \) on a set of positive measure and thus \( \rho(\kappa) > 0 \). (This extends to generalized vertex spaces by the renormalization in Remark 2.1, note that \( \rho_\kappa, T_\kappa \) and \( \|T_\kappa\| \) are not changed by the renormalization.) The three cases \( \|T_\kappa\| < 1 \), \( \|T_\kappa\| = 1 \) and \( \|T_\kappa\| > 1 \), are called **subcritical**, **critical** and **supercritical**, respectively.
Given a kernel $\kappa$ on a type space $(\mathcal{S}, \mu)$, let $\hat{\mu}$ be the measure on $\mathcal{S}$ defined by
\[
d\hat{\mu}(x) := (1 - \rho(\kappa; x)) \, d\mu(x).
\] (2.15)
(This is interesting mainly when $\kappa$ is supercritical, since otherwise $\hat{\mu} = \mu$.)

The dual kernel $\hat{\kappa}$ is the kernel on $(\mathcal{S}, \hat{\mu})$ that is equal to $\kappa$ as a function. We regard $T_\kappa$ as an operator acting on the corresponding space $L^2(\hat{\mu})$. Then
\[
\|T_\kappa\| \leq 1; \text{ typically } \|T_\kappa\| < 1 \text{ when } \kappa \text{ is supercritical, but equality is possible, see } [4, \text{ Theorem 6.7 and Example 12.4}].
\]

Note the explicit formula
\[
(T_\kappa f)(x) := \int_{\mathcal{S}} \hat{\kappa}(x,y)f(y) \, d\hat{\mu}(y) = \int_{\mathcal{S}} \kappa(x,y)f(y)(1 - \rho(\kappa; y)) \, d\mu(y),
\] (2.16)
i.e., $T_\kappa f = T_\kappa(f(1 - \rho_\kappa))$. Note also that
\[
\hat{\mu}(\mathcal{S}) = \int_{\mathcal{S}} (1 - \rho(\kappa; x)) \, d\mu(x) = \mu(\mathcal{S}) - \rho(\kappa); \quad (2.17)
\]
if $\mu(\mathcal{S}) = 1$, this is the extinction probability of $X_\kappa$.

2.4. Small components. Let $N_k(G)$ denote the number of vertices in components of order $k$ in a graph $G$. (Thus the number of such components is $N_k(G)/k$.) We can write the definition (1.2) as
\[
\chi(G) = \frac{1}{|G|} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{N_k(G)}{k} k^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \frac{N_k(G)}{|G|}.
\] (2.18)

By [4, Theorem 9.1], if $(\kappa_n)$ is a graphical sequence of kernels on a vertex space $\mathcal{V}$ with limit $\kappa$ and $G_n = G(\mathcal{V}, \kappa_n)$, then, for every fixed $k \geq 1$, with $N_{\geq k} := \sum_{j \geq k} N_j$ and $\rho_{\geq k} := \sum_{k \leq j \leq \infty} \rho_j$, we have
\[
N_{\geq k}(G_n)/n \xrightarrow{p} \rho_{\geq k}(\kappa),
\] (2.19)
and thus
\[
N_k(G_n)/n \xrightarrow{p} \rho_k(\kappa).
\] (2.20)
This extends to generalized vertex spaces by normalization (if necessary first conditioning on $(x_n)_{n \geq 1}$) as discussed in [4, Subsection 8.1]. Furthermore, (2.20) holds also on an i.i.d. vertex space for a constant sequence $\kappa_n = \kappa$, with $\kappa$ integrable, by [5, Lemma 21].

Even more generally, by [6, Lemma 2.11], the same conclusions hold when $G_n = G(A_n)$ with $\delta_\square(A_n, \kappa) \to 0$, and hence when $G_n = G(A_n)$ with $\delta_\square(A_n, \kappa) \xrightarrow{p} 0$; this implies the two special cases above.

2.5. The giant component. If $\kappa$ is irreducible (see [3] for the definition), then under any of our assumptions we have
\[
|\mathcal{C}_1(G_n)|/n \xrightarrow{p} \rho(\kappa)
\] (2.21)
and
\[
|\mathcal{C}_2(G_n)|/n \xrightarrow{p} 0;
\] (2.22)

2.6. **Monotonicity.** We note a simple monotonicity for $\chi$; there is no corresponding result for $\hat{\chi}$.

**Lemma 2.2.** If $H$ is a subgraph of $G$ with the same vertex set, then $\chi(H) \leq \chi(G)$.

**Proof.** Immediate from the definition (1.1). □

3. **Branching processes**

For branching processes, as is well-known, the mean cluster size can be expressed in terms of the operators $T_\kappa$ and $T_\hat{\kappa}$. We write 1 for the constant function 1 on $\mathcal{S}$.

**Lemma 3.1.** For any integrable kernel $\kappa$ on a type space $(\mathcal{S}, \mu)$ we have

\[
\chi(\kappa; x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} T_\kappa^j 1(x),
\]

\[
\chi(\kappa) = \mu(\mathcal{S})^{-1} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \int_{\mathcal{S}} T_\kappa^j 1(x) \, d\mu(x) = \mu(\mathcal{S})^{-1} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \langle T_\kappa^j 1, 1 \rangle_\mu,
\]

\[
\hat{\chi}(\kappa; x) = (1 - \rho(\kappa; x)) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} T_\hat{\kappa}^j 1(x),
\]

\[
\hat{\chi}(\kappa) = \mu(\mathcal{S})^{-1} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \int_{\mathcal{S}} T_\hat{\kappa}^j 1(x) \, d\hat{\mu}(x) = \mu(\mathcal{S})^{-1} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \langle T_\hat{\kappa}^j 1, 1 \rangle_{\hat{\mu}}.
\]

**Proof.** Let $f_j(x)$ be the expected size of generation $j$ in $X_\kappa(x)$. Then, for every $j \geq 0$, by conditioning on the first generation,

\[
f_{j+1}(x) = \int_{\mathcal{S}} f_j(y) \kappa(x, y) \, d\mu(y) = T_\kappa f_j(x),
\]

and thus, by induction, $f_j = T_\kappa^j f_0 = T_\kappa^j 1$. Hence, (3.1) follows by summing. Recalling the definition (2.7), relation (3.2) follows immediately.

It is easy to see that if we condition $X_\kappa(x)$ on extinction, we obtain another similar branching process $\hat{X}_\kappa(x)$ with $\mu$ replaced by $\hat{\mu}$. Hence, $T_\kappa$ is replaced by $T_\hat{\kappa}$, and (3.3) follows from

\[
\mathbb{E}(|X_\kappa(x)|; |X_\kappa(x)| < \infty) = (1 - \rho(\kappa; x)) \mathbb{E}(|X_\kappa(x)|; |X_\kappa(x)| < \infty)
\]

\[
= (1 - \rho(\kappa; x)) \mathbb{E}(|\hat{X}_\kappa(x)|)
\]

and (3.1). Finally, (3.4) follows by (2.8) and integration, recalling (2.15). □

Often, it is convenient to assume for simplicity that $\mu(\mathcal{S}) = 1$. 

see [4, Theorems 3.1 and 3.6] or [6, Theorem 1.1].
Lemma 3.2. Let $\kappa$ be an integrable kernel on a type space $(\mathcal{S}, \mu)$ with $\mu(\mathcal{S}) = 1$. Then
\[
\hat{\chi}(\kappa) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \langle T_{\kappa}^j 1, 1 \rangle_{\tilde{\mu}} = \tilde{\mu}(\mathcal{S}) \chi(\kappa) = (1 - \rho(\kappa)) \chi(\kappa).
\]

Proof. Use (3.4) for $\kappa$ and $\mu$ and (3.2) for $\tilde{\kappa}$ and $\tilde{\mu}$, together with (2.17). □

Theorem 3.3. Let $\kappa$ be an integrable kernel on a type space $(\mathcal{S}, \mu)$ with $\mu(\mathcal{S}) = 1$.

(i) If $\kappa$ is subcritical, i.e., $\|T_{\kappa}\| < 1$, then $\chi(\kappa; x) = (I - T_{\kappa})^{-1} 1$ a.e., and $\chi(\kappa) = \langle (I - T_{\kappa})^{-1} 1, 1 \rangle_{\mu} < \infty$.

(ii) Suppose that $\kappa$ is supercritical, i.e., $\|T_{\kappa}\| > 1$, and also that $\|T_{\tilde{\kappa}}\| < 1$.
Then $\hat{\chi}(\kappa; x) = (1 - \rho_{\kappa})(I - T_{\tilde{\kappa}})^{-1} 1$ a.e., and $\hat{\chi}(\kappa) = \langle (I - T_{\tilde{\kappa}})^{-1} 1, 1 \rangle_{\tilde{\mu}} < \infty$.

The conditions of (ii) hold whenever $\|T_{\kappa}\| > 1$, $\kappa$ is irreducible, and $\int_{\mathcal{S}} \kappa^2 < \infty$.

Proof. An immediate consequence of Lemma 3.1, since in these cases the sums $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} T_{\kappa}^j = (I - T_{\kappa})^{-1}$ and $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} T_{\tilde{\kappa}}^j = (I - T_{\tilde{\kappa}})^{-1}$, respectively, converge as operators on $L^2(\mu)$ and $L^2(\tilde{\mu})$. For the final statement we use [4, Theorem 6.7], which yields $\|T_{\tilde{\kappa}}\| < 1$. □

In fact, for the last part one can replace the assumption that $\int_{\mathcal{S}} \kappa^2 < \infty$ by the weaker assumption that $T_{\kappa}$ is compact; this is all that is used in the proof of [4, Theorem 6.7].

In the critical case, when $\|T_{\kappa}\| = 1$, we have $\chi(\kappa) = \hat{\chi}(\kappa)$. We typically expect the common value to be infinite, but there are exceptions; see Section 6.3.

Theorem 3.4. (i) If $\kappa$ is critical and $T_{\kappa}$ is a compact operator on $L^2(\mu)$, then $\chi(\kappa) = \infty$. In particular, this applies if $\int_{\mathcal{S}} \kappa(x, y)^2 \, d\mu(x) \, d\mu(y) < \infty$.

(ii) If $\kappa$ is supercritical, then $\chi(\kappa) = \infty$.

Proof. (i): If $\int_{\mathcal{S}} \kappa^2 < \infty$, then $T_{\kappa}$ is a Hilbert–Schmidt operator and thus compact.

$T_{\kappa}$ is always self-adjoint (when it is bounded), so if $T_{\kappa}$ is compact and critical, then it has an eigenfunction $\psi$ with eigenvalue $\|T_{\kappa}\| = 1$; moreover, the eigenspace has finite dimension and there is at least one such eigenfunction $\psi_1 \geq 0$ (with $\|\psi_1\|_2 = 1$, say), see Lemma 5.15 in [4] and its proof, where only compactness is used. There may also be eigenfunctions with eigenvalue $-1$, so we consider the positive compact operator $T_{\kappa}^2$ and let $\psi_1, \ldots, \psi_m$ be an orthonormal basis of the eigenspace for the eigenvalue $1$ of $T_{\kappa}^2$. The orthogonal complement is also invariant, and $T_{\kappa}^2$ acts there with norm $R < 1$. Hence,

\[
\langle T_{\kappa}^{2n} 1, 1 \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \langle 1, \psi_i \rangle^2 + O(R^n) \to \sum_{i=1}^{m} \langle 1, \psi_i \rangle^2. \]
Since the terms in the sum are non-negative and \( \langle 1, \psi_1 \rangle = \int \psi_1 \, d\mu > 0 \), the limit is strictly positive and thus \( \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (T_\kappa^j 1, 1) \) cannot converge. Since the terms in this sum are non-negative, (3.2) yields \( \chi(\kappa) = \mu(S)^{-1} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (T_\kappa^j 1, 1) = \infty \).

(ii): By [4, Theorem 6.1] we have \( \mathbb{P}(|X_\kappa| = \infty) = \rho(\kappa) > 0 \), so \( \chi(\kappa) = \infty \).

In the subcritical case, we can find \( \chi(\kappa) \) by finding \( (I - T_\kappa)^{-1} \), i.e., by solving the integral equation \( f = T_\kappa f + 1 \). Actually, we can do this for any \( \kappa \), and can use this as a test of whether \( \chi(\kappa) < \infty \).

**Theorem 3.5.** Let \( \kappa \) be a kernel on a type space \( (S, \mu) \). Then the following are equivalent:

(i) \( \chi(\kappa) < \infty \).

(ii) There exists a function \( f \geq 0 \) in \( L^1(\mu) \) such that (a.e.)

\[
    f = T_\kappa f + 1. \tag{3.5}
\]

(iii) There exists a function \( f \geq 0 \) in \( L^1(\mu) \) such that (a.e.)

\[
    f \geq T_\kappa f + 1. \tag{3.6}
\]

When the above conditions hold, there is a smallest non-negative solution \( f \) to (3.5), that is also a smallest non-negative solution to (3.6); this minimal solution \( f \) equals \( \chi(\kappa; x) \), and thus \( \chi(\kappa) = \mu(S)^{-1} \int_S f \, d\mu \).

**Proof.** Recalling (3.1), let \( g(x) := \chi(\kappa; x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} T_\kappa^j 1(x) \); this is a function \( S \rightarrow [0, \infty] \) with \( T_\kappa g = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} T_\kappa^j 1 = g - 1 \), so \( g \) satisfies both (3.5) and (3.6). Further, \( \int_S g \, d\mu = \mu(S) \chi(\kappa) \) by (3.2). Hence, if (i) holds, then \( g \in L^1(\mu) \); consequently, \( g \) satisfies (ii) and (iii). (Note that then \( g \) is finite a.e.)

Conversely, if \( f \geq 0 \) solves (3.5) or (3.6), then, by induction,

\[
    f \geq \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} T_\kappa^j 1 + T_\kappa^n f
\]

for every \( n \geq 1 \). Thus \( f \geq \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} T_\kappa^j 1 \), and letting \( n \to \infty \) yields \( f \geq g \). Hence, if (ii) or (iii) holds, then \( g \in L^1(\mu) \), and (i) holds. Further, in this case, \( f \geq g \), which shows that \( g \) is the smallest solution in both (ii) and (iii), completing the proof. \( \square \)

Note that in the subcritical case, (3.5) always has a solution in \( L^2(\mu) \); cf. Theorem 3.3. In Section 6.3 we give an example where \( \kappa \) is critical and (3.5) has a solution that belongs to \( L^1(\mu) \), but not to \( L^2(\mu) \). (We do not know whether there can be a non-negative solution in \( L^2(\mu) \) with \( \kappa \) critical.) Moreover, in this example, both in subcritical and critical cases, there is more than one non-negative solution in \( L^1(\mu) \). However, we can show that there is never more than one non-negative solution in \( L^2(\mu) \).
Corollary 3.6. Suppose that there exists a function $f \geq 0$ in $L^2(\mu)$ such that (3.5) holds. Then $f$ is the unique non-negative solution to (3.5) in $L^2(\mu)$, $\chi(\kappa; x) = f(x)$ and $\chi(\kappa) = \mu(S)^{-1} \int_S f \, d\mu$.

Proof. Let $g$ be the smallest non-negative solution, guaranteed to exist by Theorem 3.5, and let $h = f - g \geq 0$. Since $0 \leq h \leq f$, $h \in L^2(\mu)$. Then $Th = Tf - Tg = (f - 1) - (g - 1) = h$, and

$$\langle f, h \rangle = \langle Tf, h \rangle = \langle f, h \rangle.$$ 

Hence $0 = \langle 1, h \rangle = \int h \, d\mu$, so $h = 0$ a.e., and $f = g$. □

4. Main results

We begin with a general asymptotic lower bound for the susceptibility. This bound depends only on convergence of the number of vertices in components of each fixed size, so it applies under any of the assumptions described above. More precisely, we state the results in the setting of Subsection 2.1.3; as noted there they then apply (by conditioning) to $G^V(n, \kappa_n)$ under the assumptions in Subsection 2.1.1 or Subsection 2.1.2. As usual, we say that $G_n$ has a certain property with high probability, or whp, if the probability that $G_n$ has this property tends to 1 as $n \to \infty$.

Recall that a matrix denoted $A_n$ is assumed to be symmetric, $n$-by-$n$ and to have non-negative entries.

Theorem 4.1. Let $\kappa$ be a kernel and $(A_n)$ a sequence of (random) matrices with $\delta(\square; A_n, \kappa) \xrightarrow{p} 0$, and set $G_n = G(A_n)$. Alternatively, let $G_n = G^V(n, \kappa_n)$ satisfy the assumptions of Subsection 2.1.1 or Subsection 2.1.2. Then,

(i) for every $b < \chi(\kappa)$, whp $\chi(G_n) > b$, and

(ii) for every $b < \hat{\chi}(\kappa)$, whp $\hat{\chi}(G_n) > b$.

Moreover, $\liminf \mathbb{E} \chi(G_n) \geq \chi(\kappa)$ and $\liminf \mathbb{E} \hat{\chi}(G_n) \geq \hat{\chi}(\kappa)$.

Proof. As noted in Subsection 2.1.3 after reducing to the vertex space case if necessary (and so assuming without loss of generality that $\mu(S) = 1$) it suffices to consider the case $G_n = G(A_n)$.

(i): Let $K$ be a fixed positive integer. Then, by (2.18), (2.19) and (2.20),

$$\chi(G_n) \geq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (k \wedge K) \frac{N_k(G_n)}{n}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} k \frac{N_k(G_n)}{n} + K \frac{N_{\geq K}(G_n)}{n}$$

$$\xrightarrow{p} \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} k \rho_k(\kappa) + K \rho_{\geq K}(\kappa) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq \infty} (k \wedge K) \rho_k(\kappa).$$
As $K \to \infty$, the right-hand side tends to $\chi(\kappa)$ by monotone convergence and (2.7); hence we can choose a finite $K$ such that the right-hand side is greater than $b$, and (i) follows.

(ii): By (1.2) and (1.3), if $C_1$ is the largest component of $G_n$ and $|C_1| > K$, then

$$\widehat{\chi}(G_n) \geq \sum_{k=1}^{K} k \frac{N_k(G_n)}{n}.$$

On the other hand, if $|C_1| \leq K$, then

$$\widehat{\chi}(G_n) = \chi(G_n) - |C_1|^2/n \geq \chi(G_n) - K^2/n.$$

Hence, in both cases, using (2.20) again,

$$\widehat{\chi}(G_n) \geq \sum_{k=1}^{K} k \frac{N_k(G_n)}{n} - \frac{K^2}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{K} k \rho_k(\kappa).$$

(4.1)

As $K \to \infty$, the right-hand side tends to $\widehat{\chi}(\kappa)$, and thus we can choose $K$ such that it exceeds $b$, and (ii) follows.

(iii): An immediate consequence of (i) and (ii).

□

We continue with a simple general probability exercise.

**Lemma 4.2.** Let $X_n$ be a sequence of non-negative random variables and suppose that $a \in [0, \infty]$ is such that

(i) for every real $b < a$, whp $X_n \geq b$, and

(ii) $\limsup \mathbb{E} X_n \leq a$.

Then $X_n \xrightarrow{p} a$ and $\mathbb{E} X_n \rightarrow a$. Furthermore, if $a < \infty$, then $X_n \overset{L^1}{\longrightarrow} a$, i.e., $\mathbb{E} |X_n - a| \rightarrow 0$.

**Proof.** If $a = \infty$, (i) says that $X_n \xrightarrow{p} \infty$; this implies $\liminf \mathbb{E} X_n \geq b$ for every $b < \infty$, and thus $\mathbb{E} X_n \rightarrow \infty$.

Assume now that $a < \infty$, and let $\varepsilon \geq 0$. Then, for every $b < a$, by (i),

$$\mathbb{E}(X_n - a) \geq \varepsilon \mathbb{P}(X_n \geq a + \varepsilon) - (a - b) \mathbb{P}(a + \varepsilon > X_n \geq b) - a \mathbb{P}(X_n < b) \geq \varepsilon \mathbb{P}(X_n \geq a + \varepsilon) - (a - b) - o(1).$$

Hence

$$\limsup \mathbb{E}(X_n - a) \geq \varepsilon \limsup \mathbb{P}(X_n \geq a + \varepsilon) - (a - b)$$

and thus, since $b < a$ is arbitrary,

$$\limsup \mathbb{E}(X_n - a) \geq \varepsilon \limsup \mathbb{P}(X_n \geq a + \varepsilon).$$

Since $\limsup \mathbb{E}(X_n - a) \leq 0$ by (ii), this yields $\limsup \mathbb{P}(X_n \geq a + \varepsilon) = 0$ for every $\varepsilon > 0$, which together with (i) yields $X_n \xrightarrow{p} a$.

Moreover, the same argument yields, for every $\varepsilon \geq 0$,

$$\liminf \mathbb{E}(X_n - a) \geq \varepsilon \liminf \mathbb{P}(X_n \geq a + \varepsilon).$$

Taking $\varepsilon = 0$ we obtain $\liminf \mathbb{E} X_n \geq a$, which together with (ii) yields $\mathbb{E} X_n \rightarrow a$. □
The idea is to use Lemma 4.2 with $X_n = \chi(G_n)$ and $a = \chi(\kappa)$ or $X_n = \widehat{\chi}(G_n)$ and $a = \widehat{\chi}(\kappa)$; then condition (i) is satisfied by Theorem 4.1, and we only have to verify the upper bound (ii) for the expected susceptibility. For convenience, we state this explicitly.

**Lemma 4.3.** Let $\kappa$ and $G_n$ be as in Theorem 4.1.

(i) If $\limsup \mathbb{E} \chi(G_n) \leq \chi(\kappa)$, then $\chi(G_n) \xrightarrow{p} \chi(\kappa)$.

(ii) If $\limsup \mathbb{E} \widehat{\chi}(G_n) \leq \widehat{\chi}(\kappa)$, then $\widehat{\chi}(G_n) \xrightarrow{p} \widehat{\chi}(\kappa)$ and $\mathbb{E} \widehat{\chi}(G_n) \to \widehat{\chi}(\kappa)$.

**Proof.** By Theorem 4.1 and Lemma 4.2 as discussed above. \qed

Sometimes we can control the expectation only after conditioning on some (very likely) event. This still gives convergence in probability.

**Lemma 4.4.** Let $\kappa$ and $G_n$ be as in Theorem 4.1, and let $\mathcal{E}_n$ be an event (depending on $G_n$) such that $\mathcal{E}_n$ holds whp.

(i) If $\limsup \mathbb{E} (\chi(G_n) | \mathcal{E}_n) \leq \chi(\kappa)$, then $\chi(G_n) \xrightarrow{p} \chi(\kappa)$.

(ii) If $\limsup \mathbb{E} (\widehat{\chi}(G_n) | \mathcal{E}_n) \leq \widehat{\chi}(\kappa)$, then $\widehat{\chi}(G_n) \xrightarrow{p} \widehat{\chi}(\kappa)$.

**Proof.** After conditioning on $\mathcal{E}_n$, we still have $N_k(G_n)/n \xrightarrow{p} \rho_k(\kappa)$ for each fixed $k$, which is all that was needed in the proof of Theorem 4.1. Letting $\varphi = \chi$ or $\widehat{\chi}$, since $\mathbb{E}(\varphi(G_n) | \mathcal{E}_n) \sim \mathbb{E}(\varphi(G_n); \mathcal{E}_n)$, under the relevant assumption Lemma 4.2 tells us that the distribution of $\varphi(G_n)$ conditioned on $\mathcal{E}_n$ converges in probability to $\varphi(\kappa)$. But then the unconditional distribution converges in probability. \qed

We begin with a trivial case, which follows immediately from Lemma 4.3.

**Theorem 4.5.** Let $\kappa$ and $G_n$ be as in Theorem 4.1.

(i) If $\chi(\kappa) = \infty$, then $\chi(G_n) \xrightarrow{p} \infty$ and $\mathbb{E} \chi(G_n) \to \infty$. In particular, this holds if $\kappa$ is critical and $T_\kappa$ is compact, or if $\kappa$ is supercritical.

(ii) If $\widehat{\chi}(\kappa) = \infty$, then $\widehat{\chi}(G_n) \xrightarrow{p} \infty$ and $\mathbb{E} \widehat{\chi}(G_n) \to \infty$.

**Proof.** The extra conditions in Lemma 4.3 are vacuous. For (i), we use also Theorem 3.4. \qed

One way to obtain the required upper bound on the susceptibility is by counting paths. Let $P_\ell = P_\ell(G)$ denote the number of paths $v_0v_1 \ldots v_\ell$ of length $\ell$ in the graph $G$.

**Lemma 4.6.** Let $G$ be a graph with $n$ vertices. Then $\chi(G) \leq \sum_{\ell=0}^\infty P_\ell(G)/n$.

**Proof.** For each ordered pair $(v, v')$ of vertices of $G$ with $v$ and $v'$ in the same component, there is at least one path (of length $\geq 0$) starting at $v$ and ending at $v'$. Thus, counting all such pairs, $\sum_i |C_i|^2 \leq \sum_{\ell=0}^\infty P_\ell$. \qed
So far our arguments relied only on convergence of the number of vertices in components of a fixed size $k$, and so apply in very great generality. Unfortunately, bounding $\chi(G)$ from above, via Lemma 4.6 or otherwise, involves proving bounds for all $k$ simultaneously. These bounds do not hold in general; we study two special cases where they do in the next two subsections.

4.1. Bounded kernels on general vertex spaces. In this section we consider $G_n = G^V(n, \kappa_n)$, where $(\kappa_n)$ is any uniformly bounded graphical sequence of kernels on a (generalized) vertex space $\mathcal{V}$ with limit $\kappa$. In fact, we shall be consider the more general situation where $G_n = G(A_n)$ for some sequence $(A_n)$ of uniformly bounded (random) matrices with $\delta_{\boxtimes}(A_n, \kappa) \to 0$. From the remarks in [6], the graphs $G^V(n, \kappa_n)$ are of this form. Note that this is the setting in which the component sizes were studied by Bollobás, Borgs, Chayes and Riordan [2].

**Theorem 4.7.** Let $\kappa$ be a kernel and $(A_n)$ a sequence of uniformly bounded matrices with $\delta_{\boxtimes}(A_n, \kappa) \to 0$, and set $G_n = G(A_n)$. Alternatively, let $G_n = G^V(n, \kappa_n)$ satisfy the assumptions of Subsection 2.1.1 or Subsection 2.1.2, with the $\kappa_n$ uniformly bounded.

(i) We have $\chi(G_n) \to \chi(\kappa)$.

(ii) If $\kappa$ is irreducible, then $\hat{\chi}(G_n) \to \hat{\chi}(\kappa)$.

The boundedness assumption is essential unless further conditions are imposed; see Example 6.9. The extra assumption in (ii) is needed to rule out the possibility that there are two or more giant components, living in different parts of the type space.

**Proof.** As noted above, the case of a generalized vertex space $\mathcal{V}$ may be reduced to the case of a vertex space by conditioning and renormalization, see Subsection 2.1.1 and Remark 2.1, and the vertex space case in Subsection 2.1.1 or Subsection 2.1.2 is a special case of the version with matrices $A_n$, so it suffices to consider the latter version. In particular, we may assume that $\mu(S) = 1$.

Coupling appropriately, we may and shall assume that $\delta_{\boxtimes}(A_n, \kappa) \to 0$. It is easily seen that this and the uniform boundedness of the $A_n$ imply that $\kappa$ is bounded.

For (i), suppose first that $\|T_\kappa\| \geq 1$. Then, since $T_\kappa$ is compact, by Theorem 3.4 we have $\chi(\kappa) = \infty$, and by Theorem 4.5 we have $\chi(G_n) \to \infty$ as required.

Suppose then that $\|T_\kappa\| < 1$. Let $\kappa_n = \kappa_{A_n}$ denote the piecewise constant kernel corresponding to $A_n$. Then, letting 1 denote the vector $(1, \ldots, 1)$,
and writing \( A_n = (a_{ij}^{(n)}) \), we have

\[
\mathbb{E} P_{\ell}(G_n) \leq \mathbb{E} \sum_{j_0, \ldots, j_{\ell}} \frac{1}{n} \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} a_{j_{i-1}, j_i}^{(n)} \\
= n \mathbb{E} \int \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} \kappa_n(x_{i-1}, x_i) \, d\mu(x_0) \cdots d\mu(x_\ell) \\
= n \langle T_{\kappa_n}^{\ell}, 1, 1 \rangle_\mu. \tag{4.2}
\]

Recall that \( \kappa_n \) and \( \kappa \) are uniformly bounded, and \( \delta(\kappa_n, \kappa) \to 0 \). As noted in [2], or by the Riesz-Thorin interpolation theorem [15, Theorem VI.10.11] (for operators \( L^\infty \to L^1 \) and \( L^1 \to L^\infty \)), it is easy to check that this implies \( \| T_{\kappa_n} \| \to \| T_\kappa \| \). (In fact, the normalized spectra converge; see [11].) Since \( \| T_{\kappa_n} \| < 1 \), it follows that for some \( \delta > 0 \) we have \( \| T_{\kappa_n} \| < 1 - \delta \) for \( n \) large enough, so \( \sum_{\ell} \| T_{\kappa_n}^{\ell}, 1, 1 \rangle_\mu \leq \sum_{\ell} \| T_{\kappa_n} \|^{\ell} \) converges geometrically.

For a fixed \( \ell \), and kernels \( \kappa, \kappa' \) bounded by \( M \), say, it is easy to check that

\[
| \langle T_{\kappa_n}^{\ell}, 1, 1 \rangle_\mu - \langle T_{\kappa_n}^{\ell}, 1, 1 \rangle_\mu' | \leq \ell M^{\ell-1} \| \kappa' - \kappa \| \quad \text{(see, for example, [6, Lemma 2.7])}.
\]

Since \( \langle T_{\kappa_n}^{\ell}, 1, 1 \rangle_\mu \) is preserved by rearrangement, we may replace \( \| \kappa' - \kappa \| \) by \( \delta(\kappa', \kappa) \) in this bound. Hence, for each \( \ell \), we have \( \langle T_{\kappa_n}^{\ell}, 1, 1 \rangle_\mu \to \langle T_{\kappa}^{\ell}, 1, 1 \rangle_\mu \). Combined with the geometric decay established above, it follows that

\[
\sum_{\ell=0}^\infty \langle T_{\kappa_n}^{\ell}, 1, 1 \rangle_\mu \to \sum_{\ell=0}^\infty \langle T_{\kappa}^{\ell}, 1, 1 \rangle_\mu = \chi(\kappa).
\]

By Lemma 4.6 and (4.2) we thus have

\[
\limsup \mathbb{E} \chi(G_n) \leq \limsup \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\ell=0}^\infty \mathbb{E} P_{\ell}(G_n) \leq \limsup \sum_{\ell=0}^\infty \langle T_{\kappa_n}^{\ell}, 1, 1 \rangle_\mu = \chi(\kappa),
\]

which with Lemma 4.3(i) gives \( \chi(G_n) \xrightarrow{p} \chi(\kappa) \) as required.

We now turn to \( \tilde{\chi} \), i.e., to the proof of (ii). If \( \| T_{\kappa} \| \leq 1 \), then \( \rho(\kappa) = 0 \) and \( \tilde{\chi}(\kappa) = \chi(\kappa) \). On the other hand, \( \tilde{\chi}(\kappa) < \chi(\kappa) \), so the bound above gives \( \limsup \mathbb{E} \tilde{\chi}(G_n) \leq \chi(\kappa) = \tilde{\chi}(\kappa) \), and Lemma 4.3(ii) gives the result.

Now suppose that \( \| T_{\kappa} \| > 1 \). Let \( \tilde{G}_n \) be the graph obtained from \( G_n \) by deleting all vertices in the largest component \( C_1 \), and let \( \tilde{n} \) be the number of vertices of \( \tilde{G}_n \). By the duality result of [23] (see also [4, Theorem 12.1] for the case \( G_n = G^\nu(n, \nu_n) \)), there is a random sequence \( (B_n) \) of matrices (of random size \( \tilde{n} \times \tilde{n} \)) with \( \delta(\tilde{B}_n, \tilde{\kappa}) \xrightarrow{p} 0 \), such that \( \tilde{G}_n \) may be coupled to agree whp with \( G(B_n) \); here \( \tilde{\kappa} := \tilde{\kappa}' \) is \( \tilde{\kappa} \) renormalized as in (2.11). (Recall that \( \tilde{\kappa} \) is regarded as a kernel on \( (S, \tilde{\mu}) \), where \( \tilde{\mu} \) defined by (2.15) is not a probability measure.) By Remark 2.1 \( \chi(\tilde{\kappa}) = \chi(\kappa) \).

Note that

\[
\frac{|\tilde{G}_n|}{n} \geq \frac{n - |C_1|}{n} \xrightarrow{p} 1 - \rho(\kappa) \tag{4.3}
\]
by (2.21). After conditioning on the number of vertices of $\tilde{G}_n$ and the matrices $B_n$, we can apply part (i) to conclude that

$$\chi(\tilde{G}_n) = \chi(G(B_n)) + o_p(1) \xrightarrow{p} \chi(\tilde{\kappa}).$$  \hspace{1cm} (4.4)

Finally, if $\{C_i\}_{i \geq 1}$ are the components of $G_n$, then $\{C_i\}_{i \geq 2}$ are the components of $\tilde{G}_n$, and thus by (1.3), (1.2), (4.3), (4.4) and Lemma 3.2

$$\hat{\chi}(G_n) = \sum_{j \geq 2} |C_i|^2 \xrightarrow{p} (1 - \rho(\kappa))\chi(\tilde{\kappa}) = \hat{\chi}(\kappa). \hspace{1cm} \Box$$

4.2. The i.i.d. case.

**Theorem 4.8.** Let $\kappa$ be an integrable kernel on an i.i.d. vertex space $\mathcal{V}$. Then $\chi(G^\mathcal{V}(n,\kappa)) \xrightarrow{p} \chi(\kappa)$ and $\mathbb{E} \chi(G^\mathcal{V}(n,\kappa)) \rightarrow \chi(\kappa)$.

**Proof.** Similarly to the estimate in the proof of Theorem 4.7, for any $\ell$, the expected number $\mathbb{E} P_\ell$ of paths of length $\ell$ is

$$n \cdots (n - \ell) \int_{S^{\ell+1}} \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} \min \left( \frac{\kappa(x_{i-1}, x_i)}{n}, 1 \right) \mu(x_0) \cdots \mu(x_\ell)$$

$$\leq n \int_{S^{\ell+1}} \prod_{i=1}^{\ell} \kappa(x_{i-1}, x_i) \mu(x_0) \cdots \mu(x_\ell) = n\langle T_\kappa^\ell 1, 1 \rangle_\mu.$$

Summing over all $\ell \geq 0$, we see by (3.2) that the expected total number of paths is at most $n\chi(\kappa)$. Hence, by Lemma 4.6

$$\mathbb{E} \chi(G^\mathcal{V}(n,\kappa)) \leq \mathbb{E} \sum_{\ell=0}^\infty P_\ell/n \leq \chi(\kappa). \hspace{1cm} (4.5)$$

The result follows by Lemma 4.3. \hspace{1cm} \Box

Our next aim is to prove a similar result for $\hat{\chi}$. Unfortunately, we need an extra assumption. We shall assume that $T_\kappa$ is compact, though any condition guaranteeing (4.23) below will do.

**Theorem 4.9.** Let $\kappa$ be an irreducible, integrable kernel on an i.i.d. vertex space $\mathcal{V}$ with $\|T_\kappa\| > 1$, and let $G_n = G^\mathcal{V}(n,\kappa)$. If $T_\kappa$ is compact, then $\hat{\chi}(G_n) \xrightarrow{p} \hat{\chi}(\kappa)$.

We do not know whether compactness, or some similar assumption, is necessary for this result.

The main idea of the proof is to count the expected number of paths $P$ such that $P$ is not joined to a large component of $G_n - P$. We start with a few preparatory lemmas that hold under more general conditions than Theorem 4.9 itself.

Recall that $C_1 = C_1(G_n) \subseteq [n]$ denotes the (vertex set of) the largest component of $G_n$. As in [4], given $G_n$, let $\nu_n^1$ denote the empirical distribution of the types of the vertices in $C_1(G_n)$, so for $A \subset S$ we have

$$\nu_n^1(A) = n^{-1} |\{ i \in C_1(G_n) : x_i \in A \}|.$$
Lemma 4.10. Let $\kappa$ be an irreducible, integrable kernel on an i.i.d. vertex space $V = (S, \mu, (x_n)_{n \geq 1})$, and let $A$ be a measurable subset of $S$. Then

$$\nu_n(A) \xrightarrow{p} \mu_\kappa(A) := \int_A \rho(\kappa; x) \, d\mu(x).$$

More precisely, the convergence is uniform in $A$: given any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is an $n_0$ such that for all $n \geq n_0$ and all measurable $A$ we have

$$\mathbb{P}\left(|\nu_n(A) - \mu_\kappa(A)| \geq \varepsilon\right) \leq \varepsilon.$$

Note that the first statement corresponds to Theorem 9.10 of [4], but, due to the different conditions, is not implied by it.

Proof. It suffices to prove the second statement. Fix $\varepsilon > 0$ once and for all, and choose $k_0$ so that $\rho_{\geq k_0}(\kappa) \leq \rho(\kappa) + \varepsilon/6$; this is possible since $\rho_{\geq k}(\kappa) \searrow \rho(\kappa)$ as $k \to \infty$.

We start by considering components of a fixed size. Let $N_k(A)$ denote the number of vertices of $G_n$ such that $i$ is in a component of order $k$ and $x_i \in A$. If $\kappa$ is bounded, then using the local coupling argument in [5, Section 3] it is easy to check that for each $k$ we have $N_k(A)/n \xrightarrow{p} \rho_k(A) := \int_A \rho_k(x) \, d\mu(x)$, uniformly in $A$. Using the fact that adding or deleting an edge from a graph $G$ changes the set of vertices in components of size $k$ in at most $2k$ places, and arguing as in [4], the same statement for general $\kappa$ follows easily.

Summing over $k \leq k_0$, we thus have $N_{\leq k_0}(A)/n \xrightarrow{p} \rho_{\leq k_0}(A)$. In particular,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(|N_{\leq k_0}(A)/n - \rho_{\leq k_0}(A)| \geq \varepsilon/5\right) \leq \varepsilon/3$$

(4.6)

for all large enough $n$ and all measurable $A$.

By a medium component of $G_n$ we mean any component of size greater than $k_0$ other than $C_1(G_n)$. Let $M$ denote the number of vertices in medium components, and $M(A)$ the number with types in $A$. Since $N_k(G_n)/n \xrightarrow{p} \rho_k$ for each $k$ and $|C_1(G_n)|/n \xrightarrow{p} \rho(\kappa)$, we have $M(G_n)/n \xrightarrow{p} \rho_{\geq k_0+1}(\kappa) - \rho(\kappa) \leq \varepsilon/6$. Hence, whp

$$\sup_A M(A) = M(G_n) \leq \varepsilon n/5.$$  \hfill (4.7)

Let $\#(A)$ denote the number of vertices with types in $A$. Then $\#(A)$ has a binomial distribution with parameters $n$ and $\mu(A)$, so for $n$ large enough we have

$$\mathbb{P}\left(|\#(A)/n - \mu(A)| \geq \varepsilon/5\right) \leq \varepsilon/3$$

(4.8)

for all $A$. Finally, let $C_1(A) = n\nu_n(A)$ denote the number of vertices in $C_1(G_n)$ with types in $A$. Then

$$C_1(A) = \#(A) - N_{\leq k_0}(A) - M(A) + O(1),$$

(4.9)

with the final $O(1)$ correction term accounting for the possibility that $|C_1(G_n)| \leq k_0$, so the ‘giant’ component is ‘small’.
Combining equations (4.6)–(4.9), we see that
\[ P\left( \left| C_1(A)/n - (\mu(A) - \rho_{\leq k_0}(A)) \right| \geq 4\varepsilon/5 \right) \leq \varepsilon \]
for all large enough \( n \) and all \( A \). But
\[ \mu(A) - \rho_{\leq k_0}(A) = \mu_\kappa(A) + \sum_{k=k_0+1}^\infty \rho_k(A). \]
The sum above is at least 0 but, by choice of \( k_0 \), at most \( \varepsilon/6 \), so
\[ \mu(A) - \rho_{\leq k_0}(A) \] is within \( \varepsilon/6 \) of \( \mu_\kappa(A) \) and the result follows. \( \square \)

In [6, Theorem 1.4], it was shown (in a slightly different setting) that stability of the giant component under deletion of vertices implies that the distribution of the size of the giant component has an exponential tail. Parts of this argument adapt easily to the present setting.

First, Lemma 1.7 of [6] shows that if \( \kappa \) is a kernel, then the \( n \)-by-\( n \) matrices obtained by sampling \( \kappa \) at i.i.d. points \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \) converge in probability to \( \kappa \), with respect to the cut norm. This implies that all results of [6] asserting that a certain conclusion holds whp apply to the corresponding random graphs (see [6, Remark 1.5]). In particular, Theorem 1.3 of [6] implies the following result.

**Theorem 4.11.** Let \( \kappa \) be an irreducible, integrable kernel on an i.i.d. vertex space \( \mathcal{V} \), and let \( G_n = G^n(V,n) \). For every \( \varepsilon > 0 \) there is a \( \delta > 0 \) such that whp we have
\[ \rho(\kappa) - \varepsilon \leq |C_1(G'_n)|/n \leq \rho(\kappa) + \varepsilon \]
for every graph \( G'_n \) that may be obtained from \( G_n \) by deleting at most \( \delta n \) vertices and their incident edges, and then adding or deleting at most \( \delta n \) edges. \( \square \)

Using this result, it is easy to get our exponential lower tail bound. Unfortunately, there is a minor complication, due to the possible (but very unlikely) non-uniqueness of the giant component.

Let \( \tilde{C}_1(A) = \tilde{C}_1(A;G_n) \) denote the maximum over components \( C \) of \( G_n \) of the number of vertices of \( C \) with types in \( A \), so \( \tilde{C}_1(A) \) is within \( |C_2(G_n)| \) of \( C_1(A) = n\nu_1^k(A) \).

**Lemma 4.12.** Let \( \kappa \) be an irreducible, integrable kernel on an i.i.d. vertex space \( \mathcal{V} = (\mathcal{S},\mu,(x_n)_{n \geq 1}) \) with \( \|T_\kappa\| > 1 \), and let \( \varepsilon > 0 \). Then there is a \( c = c(\kappa,\varepsilon) > 0 \) such that for all large enough \( n \), for every subset \( A \) of \( \mathcal{S} \) we have
\[ P\left( \left| \tilde{C}_1(A;G_n) - (\mu_\kappa(A) - \varepsilon)n \right| \leq e^{-cn}. \right) \leq \varepsilon 
\]

**Proof.** Fix \( A \). Given a graph \( G \) on \( [n] \) where each vertex has a type in \( \mathcal{S} \), let \( D(G) = D_A(G) \) be the minimum number of vertices that must be deleted from \( G \) so that in the resulting graph \( G' \) we have
\[ \tilde{C}_1(A;G') \leq (\mu_\kappa(A) - \varepsilon)n, \]

(4.11)
so our aim is to bound $\mathbb{P}(D(G_n) = 0)$. By Lemma \ref{lem:clique-critical}, whp $C_1(G_n)$ has at least $(\mu_n(A) - \varepsilon/2)n$ vertices with types in $A$. Also, by Theorem \ref{thm:delta-n} there is some $\delta > 0$ such that whp deleting at most $\delta n$ vertices of $G_n$ removes less than $\varepsilon n/2$ vertices from the (whp unique) giant component. It follows that $\mathbb{E} D(G_n) \geq \delta n/2$ for $n$ large; moreover, this bound is uniform in $A$.

Since the condition \ref{cond:condition} is preserved by deleting vertices, if $G''$ is obtained from $G$ by adding and deleting edges all of which are incident with one vertex $i$, and also perhaps changing the type of $i$, then $|D(G) - D(G'')| \leq 1$. We may construct $G_n$ by taking independent variables $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ and $\{y_{ij} : 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}$ all of which are uniform on $[0,1]$, and joining $i$ to $j$ if and only if $y_{ij} \leq \kappa(x_i, x_j)/n$. Modifying the variables in $S_j = \{x_j\} \cup \{y_{ij} : i < j\}$ affects only edges incident with vertex $j$. Considering the values of all variables in $S_j$ as a single random variable $X_j$, we see that $D(G_n)$ is a Lipschitz function of $n$ independent variables, so by McDiarmid’s inequality \cite{McDiarmid}, we have

$$
\mathbb{P}(D(G_n) = 0) \leq e^{-2(\mathbb{E} D(G_n))^2/n} \leq e^{-\delta^2 n/2},
$$

completing the proof. \hfill \Box

It would be nice to have an exponential bound on the upper tail of the number of vertices in ‘large’ components. Unfortunately, the argument in \cite{Janson} does not seem to go through. Indeed, the corresponding result is false in this setting without an additional assumption: it is easy to find a $\kappa$ for which there is a small, but only polynomially small, chance that some vertex $v$ has degree of order $n$. In this way one can even arrange that $\mathbb{P}(|C_1(G_n)| = n)$ is only polynomially small in $n$.

The next lemma is the combinatorial heart of the proof of Theorem \ref{thm:main}. Unfortunately, we cannot bound the expectation of $\tilde{\chi}$ directly, only the contribution from components up to size some small constant times $n$. Formally, given a graph $G$ with $n$ vertices and a $\delta > 0$, let

$$
\tilde{\chi}_\delta(G) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{v \in V(G) : |C(v)| \leq \delta n} |C(v)| = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i : |C_i| \leq \delta n} |C_i|^2. \quad (4.12)
$$

Note that if $|C_2| \leq \delta n < |C_1|$, then $\tilde{\chi}_\delta(G) = \tilde{\chi}(G)$.

Given a kernel $\kappa$ and an $M > 0$, we write $\kappa^M$ for the pointwise minimum of $\kappa$ and $M$.

**Lemma 4.13.** Let $\kappa$ be an irreducible, integrable kernel on an i.i.d. vertex space $V$ with $\|T_\kappa\| > 1$, and let $\varepsilon > 0$ and $M > 0$. Then there is a $\delta = \delta(\varepsilon, M, \kappa) > 0$ such that

$$
\mathbb{E} \tilde{\chi}_\delta(G^V(n, \kappa)) \leq \mu(S)^{-1} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (T_\kappa^j 1, 1)_{\tilde{\mu}} + o(1),
$$

where $\tilde{\mu}$ is the measure on $S$ defined by $d\tilde{\mu}(x) = f(x) d\mu$ with

$$
f(x) = (1 - \rho((1 - \varepsilon)\kappa^M; x) + 5\varepsilon) \wedge 1, \quad (4.13)
$$

and $T_\kappa$ is the integral operator on $(S, \tilde{\mu})$ with kernel $\kappa$. 
Proof. As usual, we may and shall assume that $\mu(S) = 1$.

Note that the statement becomes stronger if we increase $M$ and/or decrease $\varepsilon$. Thus we may assume that $(1 - \varepsilon)\kappa^M$ is supercritical, and that $\rho((1 - \varepsilon)\kappa^M) > 2\varepsilon$. We also assume that $M > 1$ and $e^{4\varepsilon} < 1 + 5\varepsilon$.

Let $0 < \delta < \varepsilon/M$ be a small constant to be chosen later, depending only on $\kappa$, $\varepsilon$ and $M$, and let $N = n\hat{\chi}_\delta(G_n)$ denote the number of ordered pairs $(v, w)$ of vertices of $G_n = G^V(n, \kappa)$ such that $v$ and $w$ are in a common component of size at most $\delta n$. Also, let $N_j$ denote the number of such pairs joined by a path of length $j$. Since $N \leq \sum_{j=0}^{\delta n-1} N_j$, it suffices to show that for $0 \leq j < \delta n$ we have

$$\mathbb{E} N_j / n \leq \langle T_j^2 1, 1 \rangle_{\hat{\mu}} + o(1/n),$$

with the error bound uniform in $j$.

We may bound $N_j$ by the number of paths of length $j$ in $G_n$ lying in components with at most $\delta n$ vertices. Thus $\mathbb{E} N_j$ is at most $n^{j+1}$ times the probability that $12 \cdots (j + 1)$ forms such a path. Let $V'$ consist of the last $(1 - \varepsilon/M)n$ vertices of $G_n$. Coupling $G_n$ and $G^M_n = G^V(n, \kappa^M)$ in the usual way so that $G^M_n \subseteq G_n$, let $G'$ be the subgraph of $G^M_n$ induced by $V'$, noting that $G' \subset G_n$. Let $A = A_j$ be the event that $12 \cdots (j + 1)$ forms a path in $G_n$, and let $B = B_j$ be the event that some vertex in $[j + 1]$ is joined by an edge of $G^M_n$ to some component of $G'$ of order at least $\delta n$. Then

$$\mathbb{E} N_j \leq n^{j+1} \mathbb{P}(A \cap B^c).$$

Unfortunately, we cannot quite prove the estimate we need for the right hand side above, so instead we use the less natural but stronger bound

$$\mathbb{E} N_j \leq \left( \frac{n}{j + 1} \right) \mathbb{E}(N'_j 1_{B^c}),$$

where $N'_j$ is the number of ordered pairs $(v, w)$ of vertices in $V_0 = [j + 1]$ such that $v$ and $w$ are joined in $G_n$ by a path of length $j$ lying in $V_0$ (and thus visiting all vertices of $V_0$).

Roughly speaking, the idea is to show that with very high probability $C_1(G')$ will contain almost the ‘right’ number of vertices of each type, so that given the type $y$ of one of the first $j + 1$ vertices, its probability of sending an edge to $C_1(G')$ is almost what it should be, namely $\rho((1 - \varepsilon/M)\kappa^M; y)$. Unfortunately we cannot achieve this for all $y$, but we can achieve it for $\{x_1, \ldots, x_{j+1}\}$, which is all we need. Also, rather than working with $C_1(G')$, we work with the union of all components of order at least $\delta n$.

Let $n' = (1 - \varepsilon/M)n$. Ignoring the irrelevant rounding to integers, $G'$ has the distribution of $G^V(n', (1 - \varepsilon/M)\kappa^M)$, which dominates that of $G^V(n', (1 - \varepsilon)\kappa^M)$.

Recall that $(1 - \varepsilon)\kappa^M$ is supercritical and that $\rho((1 - \varepsilon)\kappa^M) > 2\varepsilon$. Applying Lemma 4.12 to $G' = G^V(n', (1 - \varepsilon)\kappa^M)$ we find that there is some $c > 0$
such that for any measurable \( A \subset \mathcal{S} \) we have

\[
\mathbb{P}(\tilde{C}_1(A; G') \leq (\mu'(A) - 2\varepsilon/M)n) \leq \mathbb{P}(\tilde{C}_1(A; G') \leq (\mu'(A) - \varepsilon/M)n') \leq e^{-cn},
\]

where \( \mu' = \mu(1 - \varepsilon)\kappa M \).

Let

\[
\delta_0 = \min\{\varepsilon/M, 1/10\} > 0,
\]

and fix \( 0 < \delta < \delta_0 \) chosen small enough that

\[
(e/\delta)^{\delta} < e^{\varepsilon/2}.
\]

Let \( L \) denote the union of all components of \( G' \) of order at least \( \delta n \), and let \( L(A) \) be the number of vertices in \( L \) with types in \( A \). If \( \mu'(A) \geq 3\varepsilon/M \) and \( \tilde{C}_1(A; G') \geq (\mu'(A) - 2\varepsilon/M)n \), then since the final quantity is at least \( \delta n \) we have \( L(A) \geq \tilde{C}_1(A; G') \). Using (4.18), it follows that

\[
\mathbb{P}(L(A) \leq (\mu'(A) - 3\varepsilon/M)n) \leq e^{-cn}
\]

for any \( A \); the condition is vacuous if \( \mu'(A) < 3\varepsilon/M \).

Given \( y \in \mathcal{S} \) and \( i \geq 0 \), let \( A_{y,i} = \{ x \in \mathcal{S} : \kappa M(x, y) \geq \varepsilon i \} \). Let \( \mathcal{E}_y \) be the event that \( L(A_{y,i})/n \geq \mu'(A_{y,i}) - 3\varepsilon/M \) holds for all \( i \) with \( 1 \leq i \leq M/\varepsilon \). Applying (4.18), \( M/\varepsilon = O(1) \) times, we see that

\[
\mathbb{P}(\mathcal{E}_y^c) \leq (M/\varepsilon)e^{-cn} = O(e^{-cn}).
\]

If \( \mathcal{E}_y \) holds, then

\[
\sum_{v \in L} \kappa M(x_v, y) \geq \sum_{i=1}^{M/\varepsilon} L(A_{y,i})\varepsilon \geq \sum_{i=1}^{M/\varepsilon} \varepsilon(\mu'(A_{y,i}) - 3\varepsilon/M)n \geq n \sum_{i=1}^{M/\varepsilon} \varepsilon \mu'(A_{y,i}) - 3\varepsilon n.
\]

Now \( A_{y,i} \) is empty for \( i > M/\varepsilon \), so we have

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{M/\varepsilon} \varepsilon \mu'(A_{y,i}) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \varepsilon \mu'(x : \kappa M(x, y) \geq \varepsilon i) = \int_{\mathcal{S}} \varepsilon \kappa M(x, y)/\varepsilon \, d\mu'(x)
\]

\[
\geq \int_{\mathcal{S}} \kappa M(x, y) \, d\mu'(x) - \varepsilon = \int_{\mathcal{S}} \kappa M(x, y)\rho((1 - \varepsilon)\kappa M; x) \, d\mu(x) - \varepsilon.
\]

Putting these bounds together, writing \( \kappa' \) for \( (1 - \varepsilon)\kappa M \), we have

\[
\sum_{v \in L} \kappa M(x_v, y_v)/n \geq \int_{\mathcal{S}} \kappa M(x, y)\rho(\kappa'; x) \, d\mu(x) - 4\varepsilon
\]

\[
= (T_{\kappa M} \rho_{\kappa})(y) - 4\varepsilon \geq (T_{\kappa M} \rho_{\kappa})(y) - 4\varepsilon.
\]

Recalling that \( \kappa' \) is supercritical, from (2.14) we have \( T_{\kappa'} \rho_{\kappa'} = -\log(1 - \rho_{\kappa'}) \), so when \( \mathcal{E}_y \) holds we have

\[
\sum_{v \in L} \kappa M(x_v, y_v)/n \geq -\log(1 - \rho(\kappa'; y)) - 4\varepsilon,
\]
and hence
\[
\prod_{v \in L} (1 - \kappa^M(y, x_v)/n) \leq (1 - \rho(\kappa'; y))e^{4\varepsilon} \leq 1 - \rho(\kappa'; y) + 5\varepsilon.
\]
Since \( \kappa^M \) is bounded by \( M \), and the product is always at most 1, it follows that if \( E_y \) holds and \( n \geq M \), then
\[
\prod_{v \in L} \left(1 - \frac{\kappa^M(y, x_v)}{n + 1}\right) \leq f(y).
\] (4.20)

Let \( E = E_{x_1} \cap \cdots \cap E_{x_{j+1}} \). Note that \( G' \) is independent of \( x_1, \ldots, x_{j+1} \). Given these types, from [4.19] we have \( P(E) = 1 - O(ne^{-cn}) = 1 - O(ne^{-cn}) \), with the implicit constant independent of the types. Hence, we have \( P(E) = 1 - O(ne^{-cn}) \) unconditionally. Then, for \( j \leq \delta n \),
\[
\left(\frac{n}{j + 1}\right) E(N'_j1_{E^c}) \leq \left(\frac{n}{j + 1}\right)(j + 1)^2 P(E^c) \leq (e/\delta)^{\delta n} n^2 P(E^c) = o(1),
\] (4.21)
using [4.17] in the last step.

Estimating \( N'_j \) by the number of paths of length \( j \) lying in \( V_0 \),
\[
\left(\frac{n}{j + 1}\right) E(N'_j1_{E^c}) \leq \left(\frac{n}{j + 1}\right)(j + 1)! P(A \cap B^c \cap E) \leq n^{j+1} P(A \cap B^c \cap E).
\] (4.22)

To estimate the final probability let us condition on \( G' \) and also on the vertex types \( x_1, \ldots, x_{j+1} \), assuming as we may that \( E \) holds. Note that we have not yet 'looked at' edges within \( V_0 \), or edges from \( V_0 \) to \( V' \). The conditional probability of \( A \) is then exactly
\[
\prod_{i=1}^{j} (\kappa(x_i, x_{i+1})/n) \leq n^{-j}\prod_{i=1}^{j} \kappa(x_i, x_{i+1}).
\]

For each \( i \leq j + 1 \), since \( E_{x_i} \) holds we have from [4.20] that the probability that \( i \) sends no edge to \( L \) is at most \( f(x_i) \). These events are (conditionally) independent for different \( i \), so
\[
P(A \cap B^c \cap E | x_1, \ldots, x_{j+1}) \leq n^{-j}\prod_{i=1}^{j} \kappa(x_i, x_{i+1}) \prod_{i=1}^{j+1} f(x_i).
\]

Integrating out we find that
\[
n^{j+1} P(A \cap B^c \cap E) \leq n \int_{S^{j+1}} \prod_{i=1}^{j} \kappa(x_i, x_{i+1}) \prod_{i=1}^{j+1} f(x_i) \mu(x_1) \cdots \mu(x_{j+1})
\]
\[
= n \langle T^{j+1}_x, 1 \rangle_{\mu}.
\]

From [4.22] it follows that \( \left(\frac{n}{j + 1}\right) E(N'_j1_{E^c}) \leq n \langle T^{j+1}_x, 1 \rangle_{\mu} \). Combined with [4.21] and [4.15] this establishes [4.14]; as noted earlier, the result follows. \( \square \)
Hence, if $\delta$ then gives $E\rho = 1$ also holds if $\delta > 0$, where $\v{1}$

Proof of Theorem 4.9. Suppose for the moment that (4.23) holds for some $L$ on $T$ and thus

Furthermore, if we have

Taking, say, $M = 1/\v{2}$ and defining $f_\v{x}(x)$ by \ref{1413}, as $\v{2} \to 0$ we have

Thus $f_\v{x}(x) \prec 1 - \rho(\v{2}; x)$ pointwise. If we know that $\langle T^j_\v{2}, 1 \rangle_\mu < \infty$ for some $\v{2} > 0$, then by dominated convergence it follows that $\langle T^j_\v{2}, 1 \rangle_\mu \prec \langle T^j_\v{2}, 1 \rangle_\mu$.

Furthermore, if we have

for some $\v{2} > 0$, then by dominated convergence, as $\v{2} \to 0$ we have

Ultimately we need some assumption on $\v{2}$ to establish \ref{423}.

Proof of Theorem 4.9. Suppose for the moment that (4.23) holds for some $\v{2} > 0$, where $\mu$ is defined using $f_\v{x}(x)$, which is in turn given by \ref{413} with $M = 1/\v{2}$, say.

By the comments above, it follows that, given any $\eta > 0$, choosing $\v{2}$ small enough and $M$ large enough we have $\sum_{j=0}^\infty \langle T^j_\v{2}, 1 \rangle_\mu \leq \v{1}_k + \eta$. Lemma \ref{413} then gives $E\v{x}_\delta(G_\eta) \leq \v{1}_k + 2\eta$ if $n$ is large enough, for some $\delta = \delta(\eta) > 0$.

Hence, if $\delta = \delta(n)$ tends to zero, we have

Since $\v{2}$ is supercritical we have $\rho(\v{2}) > 0$, and by \ref{221} we have $|C_1(G_\eta)| \geq \rho(\v{2})n/2$ whp. For any fixed $\delta > 0$, by \ref{222} we have $|C_2(G_\eta)| < \delta n$ whp; this also holds if $\delta = \delta(n)$ tends to zero sufficiently slowly. Given a function $\delta(n)$, let $E_n$ be the event that $|C_2(G_\eta)| \leq n\delta(n) < |C_1(G_\eta)|$. Then, provided $\delta(n)$ tends to zero slowly enough, $E_n$ holds whp. When $E_n$ holds we have $\v{x}_\delta(G_\eta) = \v{x}(G_\eta)$, so $E\v{x}(G_\eta); E_n \leq E\v{x}(G_\eta); E_n$, and \ref{424} gives $\limsup E\v{x}(G_\eta); E_n \leq \v{1}(\v{2})$. By Lemma \ref{41} this implies that $\v{1}(G_\eta) \overset{p}{\to} \v{1}(\v{2})$, which is our goal. It thus suffices to establish that (4.23) holds for some $\v{2} > 0$.

Recall that $f_\v{x}(x) = 1$ and $f_\v{x} \preceq f_0 = 1 - \rho_\v{2}$ as $\v{2} \to 0$. Recall also that $T_\v{2}$ is defined as the integral operator

on $L^2(\mu)$. The map $g(x) \mapsto g(x)f_\v{x}(x)^{1/2}$ is an isometry of $L^2(\mu)$ onto $L^2(\mu)$, and thus $T_\v{2}$ is unitarily equivalent to the integral operator $T_\v{x}$ on $L^2(\mu)$ with kernel $f_\v{x}(x)^{1/2}\v{x}(y)f_\v{x}(y)^{1/2}$. In particular, $\|T_\v{2}\| = \|T_\v{x}\|$, and for the special case $\v{2} = 0$, when $T_\v{2} = T_\v{x}$, $\|T_\v{2}\| = \|T_0\|$

Fix $\delta > 0$. Since $T_\v{2}$ is compact, there is a finite rank operator $F$ with $\|\Delta\| < \delta$, where $\Delta = T_\v{2} - F$. Let $F_\v{x}$ and $\Delta_\v{x}$ denote the operators obtained by multiplying the kernels of $F$ and $\Delta$ by $f_\v{x}(x)^{1/2}f_\v{x}(y)^{1/2}$. Since $f_\v{x} \leq 1$ holds pointwise, we have

$$\|\Delta_\v{x}\| \leq \|\Delta\| < \delta.$$
For any \( g \in L^2 \) the pointwise product \( f_\varepsilon g \) converges to \( f_0 g \) in \( L^2 \). Since \( F \) has finite rank, it follows that \( \|F_\varepsilon - F_0\| \to 0 \), and hence that
\[
\limsup_{\varepsilon \to 0} \|T_\varepsilon - T_0\| \leq \limsup_{\varepsilon \to 0} \|F_\varepsilon - F_0\| + \delta = \delta.
\]
Since \( \delta > 0 \) was arbitrary, we have \( \|T_\varepsilon - T_0\| \to 0 \), and in particular \( \|T_\hat{\kappa}\| = \|T_0\| = \|T_\hat{\kappa}\| < 1 \). Hence, there exists \( \varepsilon > 0 \) such that \( \|T_\varepsilon\| < 1 \).

Remark 4.14. Chayes and Smith \[13\] have recently proved a result related to Theorem 4.7(i) or Theorem 4.8, for the special case where the type space \( S \) is finite. Their model has a fixed number of vertices of each type, which makes essentially no difference in this finite-type case. Chayes and Smith consider (in effect) the number of ordered pairs \((v,w)\) of vertices with \( v \) of type \( i \), \( w \) of type \( j \), and \( v \) and \( w \) in the same component, normalized by dividing by \( n \), showing convergence to the relevant branching process quantity. These numbers sum to give the susceptibility, so such a result is more refined than the corresponding result for the susceptibility itself.

In our setting, the analogue is to fix arbitrary measurable subsets \( S \) and \( T \) of the type space, and consider \( \chi_{S,T}(G_n) \), which is \( 1/n \) times the number of pairs \((v,w)\) in the same component with the type of \( v \) lying in \( S \) and that of \( w \) in \( T \). The corresponding branching process quantity is just \( \chi_{S,T}(\kappa) \), i.e., the integral over \( x \in S \) of the expected number of particles in \( X_\kappa(x) \) with types in \( T \). In analogy with Theorem 3.3, in the subcritical case this quantity may be expressed as \( \chi_{S,T}(\kappa) = \langle (I - T_\kappa)^{-1} 1_S, 1_T \rangle_\mu < \infty \). It is not hard to see that the proof of Theorem 4.8 in fact shows that
\[
\chi_{S,T}(G_n) \xrightarrow{p} \chi_{S,T}(\kappa),
\]
where \( G_n = G^V(n,\kappa) \) is defined on an i.i.d. vertex space. The key point is that, in the light of Theorem 4.1 and its proof, it suffices to prove a convergence result for the contribution to \( \chi_{S,T}(G_n) \) from components of a fixed size \( k \). For all the models we consider here, this may be proved by adapting the methods used to prove convergence of \( N_k(G_n)/n \); we omit the details. Once we have such convergence, we also obtain the analogue of (4.23) for \( \hat{\chi} \), so all our results in this section may be extended in this way, with the proviso that when considering \( G^V(n,\kappa) \) with a general vertex space \( V \) as in [4], we must assume that \( S \) and \( T \) are \( \mu \)-continuity sets.

Remark 4.15. We believe that all the results in this section extend, with suitable modifications, to the random graphs with clustering introduced by Bollobás, Janson and Riordan [3], and generalized (to a form analogous to \( G(A_n) \)) in [6]; these may be seen as the simple graphs obtained from an appropriate random hypergraph by replacing each hyperedge by a complete graph on its vertex set. Note that in this case the appropriate limiting object is a hyerkernel (for the definitions see [3]), and the corresponding branching process is now a (multi-type, of course) compound Poisson one.
A key observation is that in such a graph, which is the union of certain complete graphs, two vertices are in the same component if and only if they are joined by a path which uses at most one edge from each of these complete graphs. Roughly speaking, this means that we need consider only the individual edge probabilities, and not their correlations, and then arguments such as the proof of Theorem 4.8 and (at least the first part of) Theorem 4.7 go through with little change. It also tells us that the susceptibility of a hyperkernel is simply that of the corresponding edge kernel; this is no surprise, since for the expected total size of the branching process all that matters is (informally) the expected number of type \( y \) children of each type \( x \) individual, not the details of the distribution. This does not extend to the modified susceptibility \( \hat{\chi} \), since this depends on the (type-dependent) survival probability \( \rho(\kappa; x) \), which certainly is sensitive to the details of the offspring distribution.

Adapting the proof of Theorem 4.9 needs more work, but we believe it should be possible. Most of the time, one can work with bounded hyperkernels, where not only are the individual (hyper)matrix entries uniformly bounded, but there is a maximum edge cardinality. Taking the \( r \)-uniform case for simplicity, one needs to show that the number of \( (r - 1) \)-tuples of vertices in the giant component in some subset of \( S^{r-1} \) is typically close to what it should be, since, in the proof of Lemma 4.13, the sets \( A_{y,i} \) should (presumably) be replaced by corresponding subsets of \( S^{r-1} \). For strong concentration, one argues as here but using the appropriate stability result from [6] in place of Theorem 4.11. Needless to say, since we have not checked the details, there is always the possibility of unseen complications!

5. Behaviour near the threshold

In this section we consider the behaviour of \( \chi \) and \( \hat{\chi} \) for a family \( \lambda\kappa \) of kernels, with \( \kappa \) fixed and \( \lambda \) ranging from 0 to \( \infty \). Since \( \|T_{\lambda\kappa}\| = \lambda\|T_\kappa\| \), then, as discussed in [4], \( \lambda\kappa \) is subcritical, critical and supercritical for \( \lambda < \lambda_{\text{cr}} \), \( \lambda = \lambda_{\text{cr}} \) and \( \lambda > \lambda_{\text{cr}} \), respectively, where \( \lambda_{\text{cr}} = \|T_\kappa\|^{-1} \). Note that if \( \|T_\kappa\| < \infty \), then \( \lambda_{\text{cr}} > 0 \), while if \( \|T_\kappa\| = \infty \), then \( \lambda_{\text{cr}} = 0 \), so \( \lambda\kappa \) is supercritical for any \( \lambda > 0 \).

Note also that Theorem 3.5 provides an alternative way of finding \( \lambda_{\text{cr}} \) (and thus \( \|T_\kappa\| \)): we can try to solve the integral equation \( f = 1 + T_{\lambda\kappa} f = 1 + \lambda T_\kappa f \) and see whether there exists any integrable positive solution. This tells us whether \( \chi(\lambda\kappa) \) is finite; since (by Theorems 3.3 and 3.4) the susceptibility is finite in the subcritical case and infinite in the supercritical case, this information determines \( \lambda_{\text{cr}} \). The advantage of this approach over attempting to solve (2.14) itself is that the equation is linear; this is one of the main motivations for studying \( \chi \). (Another is that it tends to evolve very simply in time in suitably parameterized models.)

In the subcritical case, \( \lambda < \lambda_{\text{cr}} \), we have the following simple result. (When we say that a function \( f \) defined on the reals is \textit{analytic} at a point \( x \),
we mean that there is a neighbourhood of \(x\) in which \(f\) is given by the sum of a convergent power series; equivalently, \(f\) extends to a complex analytic function in a complex neighbourhood of \(x\).

**Theorem 5.1.** Let \(\kappa\) be a kernel. Then \(\lambda \mapsto \chi(\lambda \kappa) = \overline{\chi}(\lambda \kappa)\) is an increasing, analytic function on \((0, \lambda_{cr})\), with a singularity at \(\lambda_{cr}\). Furthermore, \(\chi(\lambda \kappa) \nearrow \chi(\lambda_{cr} \kappa) = \overline{\chi}(\lambda_{cr} \kappa) \leq \infty\) as \(\lambda \nearrow \lambda_{cr}\), and \(\chi(\lambda \kappa; x) \nearrow \chi(\lambda_{cr} \kappa; x)\) pointwise.

**Proof.** By (3.2),

\[
\chi(\lambda \kappa) = \mu(S)^{-1} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \langle T_{\lambda}^j 1, 1 \rangle \lambda^j,
\]

which converges for \(0 < \lambda < \lambda_{cr}\) by Theorem 3.3. Hence, \(\chi(\lambda \kappa)\) is increasing and analytic on \((0, \lambda_{cr})\). Moreover, by Theorem 3.1(ii), the sum in (5.1) diverges for \(\lambda > \lambda_{cr}\); hence the radius of convergence of this power series is \(\lambda_{cr}\). Since the coefficients are non-negative, this implies that \(\chi(\lambda \kappa)\) is not analytic at \(\lambda_{cr}\).

Finally, \(\chi(\lambda \kappa) \nearrow \chi(\lambda_{cr} \kappa)\) as \(\lambda \nearrow \lambda_{cr}\) by (5.1) and monotone convergence. Similarly, \(\chi(\lambda \kappa; x) \nearrow \chi(\lambda_{cr} \kappa; x)\) by (5.1) and monotone convergence. \(\square\)

We shall see in Section 6.3 that it is possible to have \(\chi(\lambda_{cr} \kappa) < \infty\). As we shall now show, if \(T_{\kappa}\) is compact, then \(\chi(\lambda_{cr} \kappa) = \infty\), and the critical exponent of \(\chi\) is \(-1\), as \(\lambda \nearrow \lambda_{cr}\).

**Theorem 5.2.** Suppose that \(T_{\kappa}\) is compact (for example, that \(\int \kappa^2 < \infty\)). Then for some constant \(a\), \(0 < a \leq 1\), we have

\[
\chi(\lambda \kappa) = \overline{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{a \lambda_{cr}}{\lambda_{cr} - \lambda} + O(1), \quad 0 < \lambda < \lambda_{cr},
\]

and \(\chi(\lambda_{cr} \kappa) = \overline{\chi}(\lambda_{cr} \kappa) = \infty\).

If, in addition, \(\kappa\) is irreducible, then \(a = (\int_S \psi)^2 / \int_S \psi^2\), where \(\psi\) is any non-negative eigenfunction of \(T_{\kappa}\).

**Proof.** Since a compact operator is bounded, \(\lambda_{cr} > 0\). We may assume that \(\mu(S) = 1\) by Remark 2.1. Furthermore, we may replace \(\kappa\) by \(\lambda_{cr} \kappa\) and may thus assume, for convenience, that \(\|T_{\kappa}\| = 1\) and \(\lambda_{cr} = 1\).

Let \(E_1\) be the eigenspace \(\{ f \in L^2(\mu) : T_{\kappa} f = f \}\) of \(T_{\kappa}\), and \(P_1\) the orthogonal projection onto \(E_1\). Since \(T_{\kappa}\) is compact and self-adjoint, \(E_1\) and its orthogonal complement are invariant, \(1\) does not belong to the spectrum of \(T_{\kappa}\) restricted to \(E_1^\perp\), and, for \(\lambda < 1\), \(\|(I - \lambda T_{\kappa})^{-1}(I - P_1)\| = O(1)\), while \((I - \lambda T_{\kappa})^{-1}P_1 = (1 - \lambda)^{-1}P_1\). Consequently, by Theorem 3.3

\[
\chi(\lambda \kappa) = (1 - \lambda)^{-1} \langle P_1 1, 1 \rangle + O(1).
\]

Let \(a := \langle P_1 1, 1 \rangle = \|P_1 1\|^2 \geq 0\); then \(a \leq \|1\|^2 = 1\), so \(0 \leq a \leq 1\). If \(a = 0\), then \(P_1 1 = 0\), so the constant function 1 is orthogonal to \(E_1\). But this contradicts the fact that \(E_1\) always contains a non-zero eigenfunction \(\psi \geq 0\), see the proof of Theorem 3.3 and [4, Lemma 5.15]. Hence, \(a > 0\).
The fact that $\chi(\lambda_{cr}, \kappa) = \infty$ now follows from Theorem 5.1.

Furthermore, if $\kappa$ is irreducible, then $E_1$ is one-dimensional, see again [4, Lemma 5.15 and its proof], so $P_1 f = \|\psi\|^2 \langle f, \psi \rangle \psi$, and the formula for $a$ follows, noting that every non-negative eigenfunction is a multiple of this $\psi$. □

In the supercritical case, only $\hat{\chi}$ is of interest. If we allow reducible $\kappa$, we can have several singularities, coming from different parts of the type space, see Example 6.8. We therefore assume that $\kappa$ is irreducible. Even in that case, it is possible that the dual kernel $\hat{\kappa}$ is critical, see [4, Example 12.4]; in this example it is not hard to check that $\hat{\chi}(\kappa)$ is infinite.

We conjecture that when $\kappa$ is irreducible, $\hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa)$ is analytic for all $\lambda \neq \lambda_{cr}$ under very weak conditions, but we have only been able to show this under the rather stringent condition (5.2) below. (See also the examples in Section 6.) Under this condition, we can also show that the behaviour of $\hat{\chi}$ is symmetric at $\lambda_{cr}$ to the first order: the asymptotic behaviour is the same at the subcritical and supercritical sides. As seen in Examples 6.2 and 6.3, this does not hold for all $\kappa$, even if we assume the Hilbert–Schmidt condition $\int \kappa^2 < \infty$. (Furthermore, we shall see in Sections 6.1 and 6.2 that the second order terms generally differ between the two sides.)

**Theorem 5.3.** Suppose that $\kappa$ is irreducible, and that

$$\sup_x \int_S \kappa(x, y)^2 d\mu(y) < \infty. \quad (5.2)$$

(i) The function $\lambda \mapsto \hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa)$ is analytic except at $\lambda_{cr} := \|T_{\kappa}\|^{-1}$.

(ii) As $\lambda \to \lambda_{cr}$,

$$\hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{b\lambda_{cr}}{\lambda - \lambda_{cr}} + O(1),$$

with $b = (\int_S \psi)^2 / \int_S \psi^2 > 0$, where $\psi$ is any non-negative eigenfunction of $T_{\kappa}$.

**Proof.** The subcritical case $\lambda < \lambda_{cr}$ follows from Theorem 5.2, so we assume $\lambda > \lambda_{cr}$. (Note that (5.2) implies that $T_{\kappa}$ is Hilbert–Schmidt and thus compact.) We may further assume that $\mu(S) = 1$.

(i): Let $\lambda_0 > \lambda_{cr}$. By [4, Section 15], there exists an analytic function $z \mapsto \rho^+_z$ defined in a complex neighbourhood $U$ of $\lambda_0$ and with values in the Banach space $L^2(\mu)$ such that $\rho^+_z = \rho_{z\kappa}$ when $z$ is real, and (2.14) extends to

$$\rho^+_z = 1 - e^{-zT_{\kappa} \rho^+_z}. \quad (5.3)$$

We may further (by shrinking $U$) assume that $\|\rho^+_z\|_2$ is bounded in $U$. Then, by (5.2) and Cauchy–Schwartz, $\|T_{\kappa}(\rho^+_z)\|_\infty = O(1)$ in $U$, and thus, by (5.3), $|1 - \rho^+_z|$ is bounded above and below, uniformly for $z \in U$. In particular, for every $\lambda \kappa$ with real $\lambda \in U$, $L^2(\hat{\mu}) = L^2(\mu)$, with uniformly equivalent norms. We can therefore regard $T_{\lambda \kappa}$ as an operator in $L^2(\mu)$. 

We define, for \( z \in U \), \( \hat{T}_z f := zT_\kappa((1 - \rho_z^+)f) \); thus \( \hat{T}_\lambda = T_{\lambda}\kappa \) for real \( \lambda \in U \) by (2.16). Note that \( z \mapsto \hat{T}_z \) is an analytic map of \( U \) into the Banach space of bounded operators on \( L^2(\mu) \).

By Theorem 3.3, \( I - T_{\kappa}\lambda \) is invertible. By continuity, we may assume that \( I - \hat{T}_z \) is invertible in \( U \). Then \( f(z) := \langle (I - \hat{T}_z)^{-1}, 1 - \rho_z^+ \rangle_\mu \) is an analytic function in \( U \), and \( f(\lambda) = \hat{\chi}(\lambda\kappa) \) for real \( \lambda \in U \) by Theorem 3.3(ii). Hence \( \hat{\chi}(\lambda\kappa) \) is analytic at \( \lambda_0 \).

(ii): We use a result from perturbation theory, for convenience stated as Lemma 5.4 below in a form adapted to our purposes; see [15, Section VII.6] or [24] for similar arguments and many related results.

We may rescale and assume that \( \lambda_{cr} = \|T_\kappa\| = 1 \), i.e., \( \kappa \) is critical.

It will be convenient to use the fixed Hilbert space \( L^2(\mu) \) rather than \( L^2(\hat{\mu}) \); recall that \( \hat{\mu} \) depends on \( \lambda \). Define a self-adjoint operator \( \bar{T}_\lambda \) in \( L^2(\mu) \) by

\[
\bar{T}_\lambda f := (1 - \rho_\kappa)\lambda^{1/2}T_\kappa(f(1 - \rho_\kappa)^{1/2}),
\]

and note that if \( U_\lambda \) is the unitary mapping \( f \mapsto (1 - \rho_\kappa)\lambda^{1/2}f \) of \( L^2(\hat{\mu}) \) onto \( L^2(\mu) \), then \( \bar{T}_\lambda = U_\lambda T_{\kappa}\lambda U_\lambda^{-1} \) by (2.16). Hence, \( \bar{T}_\lambda \) in \( L^2(\mu) \) is unitarily equivalent to \( T_{\kappa}\lambda \) in \( L^2(\hat{\mu}) \). Further, by Theorem 3.3(ii),

\[
\hat{\chi}(\lambda\kappa) = \langle (I - T_{\kappa}\lambda)^{-1}, 1 \rangle_{\hat{\mu}} = \langle (I - \bar{T}_\lambda)^{-1}U_\lambda 1, U_\lambda 1 \rangle_\mu.
\]

Note that \( \rho_\kappa = 0 \), and thus \( \bar{T}_1 = T_\kappa \), which has a simple eigenvalue 1, with a positive eigenfunction \( \psi \) [4, Lemma 5.15], and all other eigenvalues strictly smaller. We may assume that \( \|\psi\|_2 = 1 \).

We apply Lemma 5.4 with \( T = \bar{T}_1 \) and \( T' = \bar{T}_\lambda \), with \( \lambda = 1 + \varepsilon \) for small \( \varepsilon > 0 \). By [4, Section 15], \( \|\rho_\kappa\|_\infty = O(\varepsilon) \), and more precisely, \( \rho_\kappa = a_\varepsilon \psi + \rho_\varepsilon^* \) with \( \|\rho_\varepsilon^*\|_2 = O(\varepsilon^2) \) and

\[
a_\varepsilon = \frac{2}{\int_S \psi^2 \frac{d\mu}{\mu}} + O(\varepsilon^2).
\]

It follows (recalling that \( \psi \) is bounded because \( \psi = T_\kappa\psi \) and (5.2) and (5.21)) that \( (1 - \rho_\kappa)^{1/2}\psi = \psi - \frac{1}{2}a_\varepsilon \psi^2 + r_\varepsilon \), with \( \|r_\varepsilon\|_2 = O(\varepsilon^2) \). Consequently, (5.4) implies that \( \|\bar{T}_\lambda - \bar{T}_1\| = O(\varepsilon) \) and, using \( \langle T_\kappa\psi^2, \psi \rangle = \langle \psi^2, T_\kappa\psi \rangle = \langle \psi^2, \psi \rangle = \int_S \psi^2 \frac{d\mu}{\mu} \) and (5.6),

\[
\langle \bar{T}_\lambda\psi, \psi \rangle = \lambda\langle T_\kappa((1 - \rho_\kappa)^{1/2}\psi), (1 - \rho_\kappa)^{1/2}\psi \rangle
\]

\[
= \lambda\langle T_\kappa\psi, \psi - \frac{1}{2}a_\varepsilon T_\kappa\psi, \psi^2 - \frac{1}{2}a_\varepsilon T_\kappa\psi^2, \psi \rangle + O(\varepsilon^2)
\]

\[
= (1 + \varepsilon)(1 - 2\varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2))
\]

\[
= 1 - \varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2).
\]

Further, \( U_\lambda 1 = (1 - \rho_\kappa)^{1/2} = 1 + O(\varepsilon) \). Hence, (5.5) and (5.7) yield

\[
\hat{\chi}((1 + \varepsilon)\kappa) = \frac{\langle 1, \psi \rangle^2 + O(\varepsilon)}{\varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2)} + O(1) = \frac{\langle 1, \psi \rangle^2}{\varepsilon} + O(1).
\]
which is the desired result.

Lemma 5.4. Let $T$ be a compact self-adjoint operator in a Hilbert space $H$, such that $T$ has a largest eigenvalue $1$ that is simple, with a corresponding normalized eigenvector $\psi$. Then there exists $\eta > 0$ such that if $T'$ is any self-adjoint operator with $\|T' - T\| < \eta$ such that $I - T'$ is invertible, then

$$\langle (I - T')^{-1} f, g \rangle = \frac{\langle f, \psi \rangle \langle \psi, g \rangle + O(\|T' - T\|)}{1 - \langle T' \psi, \psi \rangle + O(\|T' - T\|^2)} + O(1).$$

(5.7)

for any $f, g \in H$ with $\|f\|, \|g\| \leq 1$.

Proof. The spectrum $\sigma(T) \subset (-\infty, 1 - \delta] \cup \{1\}$ for some $\delta > 0$. Let $\gamma$ be the circle $\{z : |z - 1| = \delta/2\}$. Then, as is well known, the spectral projection

$$P_0 := \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\gamma} (zI - T)^{-1} \, dz$$

(5.8)

is the orthogonal projection onto the one-dimensional eigenspace spanned by $\psi$. Let $A = T' - T$. If $A$ is any self-adjoint operator with $\|A\| \leq \eta$, for some sufficiently small $\eta > 0$, then $zI - T - A$ is invertible for $z \in \gamma$, and we define

$$P_A := \frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\gamma} (zI - T - A)^{-1} \, dz.$$  

(5.9)

Thus $P_A$ is the spectral projection for $T + A$ associated to the interior of $\gamma$. It follows from (5.8) and (5.9) that $\|P_A - P_0\| = O(\|A\|)$, so if $\eta$ is small enough, $\|P_A - P_0\| < 1$, and it follows [13, Lemma VII.6.7] that $P_A$ too has rank 1; this must be the orthogonal projection onto a one-dimensional space spanned by an eigenfunction $\psi_A$ of $T + A$ with eigenvalue $\lambda_A$, with $|\lambda_A - 1| < \delta/2$. Moreover, if $\lambda_A \neq 1$, then since all other eigenvalues of $T + A$ then lie outside $\gamma$,

$$(I - (T + A))^{-1} = (1 - \lambda_A)^{-1} P_A + R_A,$$

(5.10)

with $\|R_A\| \leq 2/\delta = O(1)$.

Since $\|P_A \psi - \psi\| = \|\langle (P_A - P_0) \psi \rangle = O(\|A\|)$, $P_A \psi \neq 0$ (provided $\eta$ is small enough), and thus we can take $\psi_A = P_A \psi$. Hence $\|\psi_A - \psi\| = \|P_A \psi - \psi\| = O(\|A\|)$ and

$$\langle \psi_A, \psi \rangle = \langle \psi, \psi \rangle + O(\|A\|) = 1 + O(\|A\|),$$

$$\langle T \psi_A, \psi \rangle = \langle \psi_A, T \psi \rangle = \langle \psi_A, \psi \rangle = 1 + O(\|A\|),$$

$$\langle A \psi_A, \psi \rangle = \langle A \psi, \psi \rangle + O(\|A\|^2),$$

and thus

$$\lambda_A = \frac{\langle (T + A) \psi_A, \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi_A, \psi \rangle} = 1 + \frac{\langle A \psi_A, \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi_A, \psi \rangle} = 1 + \langle A \psi, \psi \rangle + O(\|A\|^2).$$

(5.11)

The result follows from (5.10) and (5.11), using $P_0 f = \langle f, \psi \rangle \psi$. □
6. Examples

In this section we give several examples illustrating the results above and their limits. We sometimes drop \( \kappa \) from the notation; we let \( \rho_k \) denote the function \( \rho_k(x) = \rho_k(\kappa; x) \). (But we continue to denote the number \( \int_S \rho_k \, d\mu \) by \( \rho_k(\kappa) \), in order to distinguish it from the function \( \rho_k \).

Note first that the probabilities \( \rho_k(x) \) can in principle be calculated by recursion and integration. The number of children of an individual of type \( x \) in the branching process is Poisson with mean \( \int \kappa(x, y) \, d\mu(y) = T_\kappa(1)(x) \), and thus (in somewhat informal language)

\[
\rho_1(x) = \mathbb{P}(x \text{ has no child}) = e^{-T_\kappa(1)(x)}.
\]

Next, \( |\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)| = 2 \) if and only if \( x \) has a single child, which is childless. Hence, by conditioning on the offspring of \( x \),

\[
\rho_2(x) = e^{-T_\kappa(1)(x)} \int_S \kappa(x, y) \mathbb{P}(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa(y)| = 1) \, d\mu(y) = e^{-T_\kappa(1)(x)} T_\kappa(\rho_1)(x)
\]

\[
= \rho_1(x) T_\kappa(\rho_1)(x). \tag{6.2}
\]

Similarly, considering the two ways to get \( |\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)| = 3 \),

\[
\rho_3(x) = e^{-T_\kappa(1)(x)} \int_S \kappa(x, y) \rho_2(y) \, d\mu(y) + e^{-T_\kappa(1)(x)} \frac{1}{2} \int_S \kappa(x, y) \rho_1(y) \, d\mu(y) \int_S \kappa(x, z) \rho_1(z) \, d\mu(z)
\]

\[
= \rho_1(x) T_\kappa(\rho_2)(x) + \frac{1}{2} \rho_1(x) (T_\kappa(\rho_1)(x))^2, \tag{6.3}
\]

and the three ways to get \( |\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)| = 4 \),

\[
\rho_4 = \rho_1 T(\rho_3) + \rho_1 T(\rho_1) T(\rho_2) + \frac{1}{6} \rho_1(T \rho_1)^3, \tag{6.4}
\]

and so on. In general, for \( \rho_k, \, k \geq 2 \), we get one term \( \rho_1 \prod_j T(\rho_j)^{m_j}/m_j! \) for each partition \( 1^{m_1}2^{m_2} \cdots \) of \( k - 1 \).

The numbers \( \rho_k(\kappa) \) are then obtained by integration. Alternatively, a similar recursion can be given for the probability that \( \mathcal{X}_\kappa(x) \) has the shape of a given tree; this can then be summed over all trees of a given size.

6.1. The Erdős–Rényi case. Let \( S \) consist of a single point, with \( \mu(S) = 1 \). Thus, \( \kappa \) is a positive number. (More generally, a constant \( \kappa \) on any probability space \((S, \mu)\) yields the same results.) We keep to more traditional notation by letting \( \kappa = \lambda > 0 \); then \( G(n, \kappa) = G(n, p) \) with \( p = \lambda/n \). See [4, Example 4.1].

Since \( T_\kappa \) is just multiplication by \( \lambda \), \( \|T_\kappa\| = \lambda \), and, as is well-known, \( \kappa \) is subcritical if \( \lambda < 1 \), critical if \( \lambda = 1 \), and supercritical if \( \lambda > 1 \).

In the subcritical case, by \([3.2]\) or Theorem \([3.3]\),

\[
\chi(\kappa) = \frac{1}{1 - \lambda}, \quad \lambda < 1. \tag{6.5}
\]
Theorem 4.7 or Theorem 4.8 shows that 
\[ \chi(G(n, \lambda/n)) \to (1 - \lambda)^{-1} \]
for every constant \( \lambda < 1 \). (This and more detailed results are shown by Janson and Luczak [22] by another method. See also Durrett [17, Section 2.2] for the expectation \( E\chi(G(n, \lambda/n)) \).)

Similarly, if \( \lambda \geq 1 \) then \( \chi(G(n, \lambda/n)) \to \infty \) by Theorem 3.4 and any of Theorems 4.5, 4.7 or 4.8.

For \( \hat{\chi} \), we have the same results for \( \lambda \leq 1 \). In the supercritical case \( \lambda > 1 \), \( T_\kappa \) is multiplication by \( \lambda(1 - \rho(\lambda)) < 1 \), where \( 1 - \rho(\lambda) = \exp(-\lambda\rho(\lambda)) \) by (2.14). Hence, by Theorems 4.7 and 3.3, or (3.4), for \( \lambda > 1 \),
\[ \hat{\chi}(G(n, \lambda/n)) \to \hat{\chi}(\kappa) = \frac{1}{1 - \lambda(1 - \rho(\lambda))} = 1 - \rho(\lambda) \]
(6.6)

More generally, Theorem 4.7 shows that \( \hat{\chi}(G(n, \lambda n/n)) \to \hat{\chi}(\lambda) \) for every sequence \( \lambda_n \to \lambda > 0 \).

For \( \lambda = 1 + \varepsilon, \varepsilon > 0 \), we have the Taylor expansion
\[ \rho(1 + \varepsilon) = 2\varepsilon - \frac{8}{3}\varepsilon^2 + \frac{28}{9}\varepsilon^3 - \frac{464}{135}\varepsilon^4 + \ldots \]
(6.7)

and thus
\[ \hat{\chi}(1 + \varepsilon) = \varepsilon^{-1} - \frac{4}{3} + \frac{4}{3}\varepsilon - \frac{176}{135}\varepsilon^2 + \ldots \]
(6.8)

Combining (6.5) and (6.8), we see that, as shown by Theorem 5.3, \( \hat{\chi}(\lambda) \sim 1/|\lambda - 1| \) for \( \lambda \) on both sides of 1, but the second order terms are different for \( \lambda \nearrow 1 \) and \( \lambda \searrow 1 \).

We can also obtain \( \chi(\lambda) \) and \( \hat{\chi}(\lambda) \) from \( \rho_k \) and the formulae (2.7) and (2.8). In this case, \( X_\kappa \) is an ordinary, single-type, Galton–Watson process with Poisson distributed offspring, and it is well-known, see e.g. [9, 27, 33, 18, 32, 28], that \( |X_\kappa| \) has a Borel distribution (degenerate if \( \lambda > 1 \)), i.e.,
\[ \rho_k(\kappa) = \rho_k(x) = \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!} \lambda^{k-1} e^{-k \lambda}, \quad k \geq 1. \]
(6.9)

Consequently, if \( T(z) := \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^{k-1}}{k!} z^k \) is the tree function, then
\[ \rho(\kappa) = 1 - \sum_{1 \leq k < \infty} \rho_k(\kappa) = 1 - \frac{T(\lambda e^{-\lambda})}{\lambda} \]
(6.10)

and, using the well-known identity \( zT'(z) = T(z)/(1 - T(z)) \), see e.g. [21],
\[ \hat{\chi}(\kappa) = \sum_{1 \leq k < \infty} k \rho_k(\kappa) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k^k}{k!} \lambda^{k-1} e^{-k \lambda} = \lambda^{-1} \frac{T(\lambda e^{-\lambda})}{1 - T(\lambda e^{-\lambda})}. \]
(6.11)

In the subcritical case, when \( \lambda < 1 \), we have \( T(\lambda e^{-\lambda}) = \lambda \), and we recover (6.5). In general, (6.10) and (6.11) yield (6.6).

Remark 6.1. Consider the random graph \( G(n, m) \) with a given number \( m \) of edges. In the subcritical case \( m \sim \lambda n/2 \) with \( 0 < \lambda < 1 \), we obtain
\[ \chi(G(n, m)) \xrightarrow{p} \frac{1}{1 - \lambda} \] by comparison with \( G(n, p) \) with \( p = \lambda n/n \) for \( \lambda_n = 2m/n \pm n^{-1/3} \), say, using Lemma 2.2. In the supercritical case \( \lambda > 1 \), one can use standard results on the numbers of vertices and edges in the giant component; conditioning on the giant component assuming typical values, the rest of the graph is essentially a subcritical instance of \( G(n, m) \) with different parameters; this may be compared with \( G(n, p) \) as above. Consequently, for \( m \sim \lambda n/2 \) with \( \lambda > \lambda_{cr} \), we have \( \hat{\chi}(G(n, m)) \xrightarrow{p} \hat{\chi}(\kappa) \), where \( \hat{\chi}(\kappa) \) is given by (6.6) and (6.11), just as for \( G(n, p) \) with \( p = \lambda/n \).

6.2. The rank 1 case. Suppose that \( \kappa(x, y) = \psi(x) \psi(y) \) for some positive integrable function \( \psi \) on \( S \). This is the rank 1 case studied in [4, Section 16.4]; note that \( T_{\kappa} \) is the rank 1 operator \( f \mapsto \langle f, \psi \rangle \psi \), with \( \psi \) as eigenfunction, provided \( \psi \in L^2(\mu) \).

We assume, for simplicity, that \( \mu(S) = 1 \). As in Section 5 we consider the family of kernels \( \lambda \kappa \), \( \lambda > 0 \). In this case, \( \| T_{\kappa} \| = \| \psi \|_2^2 = \int_S \psi^2 \), and thus \( \lambda_{cr} = \| \psi \|_2^2 \).

In the subcritical case, \( \lambda < \lambda_{cr} = (\int_S \psi^2)^{-1} \), which entails \( \int_S \psi^2 < \infty \), we have by induction
\[ T_{\lambda \kappa}^j 1(x) = \lambda^j \left( \int_S \psi^2 \, d\mu \right)^{j-1} \int_S \psi \, d\mu \cdot \psi(x), \quad j \geq 1, \]
and thus by (3.2) (or by solving (3.5))
\[ \chi(\lambda \kappa) = \hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) = 1 + \frac{\lambda \left( \int \psi^2 \right)}{1 - \lambda / \lambda_{cr}} = 1 + \frac{\lambda \left( \int \psi^2 \right)}{1 - \lambda / \lambda_{cr}}. \] (6.12)
In particular, this verifies the formula in Theorem 5.2.

In the supercritical case, we first note that the equation (2.14) for \( \rho = \rho_{\lambda \kappa} \) becomes
\[ \rho = 1 - e^{-\lambda T_{\kappa} \rho} = 1 - e^{-\lambda \langle \rho, \psi \rangle \psi}. \] (6.13)
We define \( \xi \in (0, \infty) \) by \( \xi := \lambda \langle \rho, \psi \rangle \), and thus have
\[ \rho = 1 - e^{-\xi \psi}, \] (6.14)
with \( \xi \) given by the implicit equation
\[ \xi = \lambda \int_S \rho(x) \psi(x) \, d\mu(x) = \lambda \int_S \psi(x) \left( 1 - e^{-\xi \psi(x)} \right) \, d\mu(x). \] (6.15)
(See [4, Section 16.4], where the notation is somewhat different.) We know, by results from [4], that (6.13) has a unique positive solution \( \rho \) for every \( \lambda > \lambda_{cr} \); thus (6.15) has a unique solution \( \xi = \xi(\lambda) > 0 \) for every \( \lambda > \lambda_{cr} \).

It is easier to use \( \xi \) as a parameter; by (6.15) we have
\[ \lambda = \frac{\xi}{\int (1 - e^{-\xi \psi}) \, \psi}. \] (6.16)
The denominator is finite for every $\xi > 0$ since $\psi \in L^1$; moreover, $\int (1 - e^{-\xi \psi}) \psi < \int \xi \psi^2$, and thus (6.16) yields $\lambda > 1 / \int \psi^2 = \lambda_{cr}$. Consequently, (6.15) and (6.16) give a bijection between $\lambda \in (\lambda_{cr}, \infty)$ and $\xi \in [0, \infty)$. Furthermore, differentiation of (6.16) shows that $\lambda = \lambda(\xi)$ is differentiable, and it follows easily from $\int (1 - e^{-\xi \psi}) \psi > \int \xi \psi^2 e^{-\xi \psi}$ that $d\lambda / d\xi > 0$. Hence, the function $\lambda(\xi)$ and its inverse $\xi(\lambda)$ are both strictly increasing and continuous. In particular, $\lambda \searrow \lambda_{cr} \iff \xi \nearrow 0$. Moreover, the denominator in (6.16) is an analytic function of complex $\xi$ with $\Re \xi > 0$; hence $\lambda(\xi)$ and its inverse $\xi(\lambda)$ are analytic, for $\xi > 0$ and $\lambda > \lambda_{cr}$, respectively.

We note also the following equivalent formula, provided $\int_S \psi^2 < \infty$:

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_{cr}} - \frac{1}{\lambda} = \xi^{-1} \int_S \left( e^{-\xi \psi} - 1 + \xi \psi \right) \psi. \tag{6.17}$$

By (2.16) and (6.14),

$$T_{\lambda_{cr}} f = T_{\lambda}(1 - \rho) f = \lambda \langle (1 - \rho) f, \psi \rangle \psi = \lambda \int_S e^{-\xi \psi(x)} \psi(x) f(x) \, d\mu(x) \psi. \tag{6.18}$$

Hence $T_{\lambda_{cr}}$ too is a rank 1 operator, with eigenfunction $\psi$ and eigenvalue (take $f = \psi$ in (6.18))

$$\gamma = \lambda \int_S e^{-\xi \psi(x)} \psi(x)^2 \, d\mu(x) = \frac{\xi \int e^{-\xi \psi} \psi^2}{\int (1 - e^{-\xi \psi}) \psi}. \tag{6.19}$$

Since $y^2 e^{-y} < y(1 - e^{-y})$ for $y > 0$, it follows that $0 < \gamma < 1$. (When $\int \psi^2 < \infty$, this follows also from the general result [4, Theorem 6.7], cf. Theorem 3.3) Hence $I - T_{\lambda_{cr}}$ is invertible (in, for example, $L^2(\mu)$), and by Theorem 3.3(ii),

$$\hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa; x) = (1 - \rho(x))(I - T_{\lambda_{cr}})^{-1}1(x) = e^{-\xi \psi(x)}(I - T_{\lambda_{cr}})^{-1}1(x). \tag{6.20}$$

Let us write $g := (I - T_{\lambda_{cr}})^{-1}1$. Then, by (6.18), $1 = (I - T_{\lambda_{cr}}) g = g - \zeta \psi$, with $\zeta = \lambda \int_S e^{-\xi \psi} \psi g$. Hence, $g = 1 + \zeta \psi$ and, using (6.19),

$$\zeta = \lambda \int_S e^{-\xi \psi} \psi g = \lambda \int_S e^{-\xi \psi} \psi + \lambda \int_S e^{-\xi \psi} \psi^2 = \lambda \int_S e^{-\xi \psi} \psi + \zeta \gamma. \tag{6.21}$$

Hence, using (6.16) and (6.19),

$$\zeta = \frac{\lambda \int e^{-\xi \psi} \psi}{1 - \gamma} = \frac{\xi \int e^{-\xi \psi} \psi}{\int (1 - e^{-\xi \psi}) \psi - \xi \int e^{-\xi \psi} \psi^2}. \tag{6.22}$$

Finally, by (6.20),

$$\hat{\chi} = \int_S \hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa; x) \, d\mu(x) = \int_S e^{-\xi \psi} g = \int_S e^{-\xi \psi} + \zeta \int_S e^{-\xi \psi} \psi$$

$$= \int_S e^{-\xi \psi} + \frac{\xi \left( \int e^{-\xi \psi} \psi \right)^2}{\int (1 - e^{-\xi \psi} (1 + \xi \psi)) \psi}. \tag{6.21}$$
We observe that (6.21) shows that \( \hat{\chi} \) is an analytic function of \( \xi \in (0, \infty) \), and thus of \( \lambda \in (\lambda_{cr}, \infty) \). (So in the rank 1 case, at least, the condition (5.2) is not required for Theorem 5.3(i).)

Next, suppose that \( \int_S \psi^3 < \infty \). In this case, we can differentiate twice under the integral signs in (6.16) and (6.21) using dominated convergence (comparing with \( \int_S \psi^3 \)), and taking Taylor expansions we see that as \( \xi \to 0 \) we have

\[
\lambda = \frac{\xi}{\xi \int \psi^2 - \frac{1}{2} \xi^2 \int \psi^3 + o(\xi^2)} = \lambda_{cr} + \frac{1}{2} \xi \frac{\int \psi^3}{(\int \psi^2)^2} + o(\xi) \tag{6.22}
\]

and

\[
\hat{\chi} = O(1) + \frac{\xi (\int \psi + O(\xi))^2}{\frac{1}{2} \xi^2 \int \psi^3 + o(\xi^2)} \sim \frac{2 (\int \psi)^2}{\int \psi^3} \xi^{-1} \sim \frac{(\int \psi)^2 / (\int \psi^2)^2}{\lambda - \lambda_{cr}}, \tag{6.23}
\]

where we used (6.22) in the last step.

Note that (6.12) and (6.23) show that the behaviour of \( \hat{\chi} \) at the critical point \( \lambda_{cr} \) is symmetrical to the first order:

\[
\hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) \sim \frac{(\int \psi)^2 / (\int \psi^2)^2}{|\lambda - \lambda_{cr}|} = \frac{(\int \psi)^2 / (\int \psi^2)^2}{|\lambda / \lambda_{cr} - 1|}, \quad \lambda \to \lambda_{cr}, \tag{6.24}
\]

at least when \( \int \psi^3 < \infty \). (This is the same first order asymptotics as given by Theorem 5.3(ii), but note that the latter applies only when \( \psi \) is bounded, since (5.2) fails otherwise.) The second order terms are different on the two sides of \( \lambda_{cr} \), though: if \( \int \psi^4 < \infty \), then carrying the Taylor expansions above one step further leads to

\[
\hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{(\int \psi)^2 / (\int \psi^2)^2}{\lambda / \lambda_{cr} - 1} + 1 + \frac{(\int \psi)^2}{\int \psi^2} - \frac{4 \int \psi \int \psi^2}{\int \psi^3} + \frac{2 (\int \psi)^2 \int \psi^4}{3 (\int \psi^3)^2}
+ o(1), \quad \lambda \searrow \lambda_{cr}, \tag{6.25}
\]

in contrast to (6.12) for \( \lambda < \lambda_{cr} \).

To see what may happen if \( \int_S \psi^3 = \infty \), we look at a few specific examples.

**Example 6.2.** Let \( 2 < q < 3 \) and take \( S = [1, \infty) \) with \( d\mu(x) = qx^{-q-1} \ dx \), and take \( \psi(x) = x \); note that \( \int_S \psi^p \) is \( < \infty \) if and only if \( p < q \); in particular \( \int_S \psi^2 \) is \( < \infty \) but \( \int_S \psi^3 = \infty \). By (6.17), and standard integration by parts of Gamma integrals, as \( \xi \to 0 \) we have

\[
\frac{1}{\lambda_{cr}} - \frac{1}{\lambda} = \xi^{-1} \int_1^\infty (e^{-\xi x} - 1 + \xi x) qx^{-q} \ dx = q^{\xi^q - 2} \int_{\xi}^{\infty} (e^{-y} - 1 + y) y^{-q} \ dy \sim q^{\xi^q - 2} \int_0^{\infty} (e^{-y} - 1 + y) y^{-q} \ dy = q^{\xi^q - 2} \Gamma(1 - q),
\]
or \( \lambda - \lambda_{\text{cr}} \sim q \Gamma(1 - q) \lambda_{\text{cr}}^2 \xi^{q - 2} \). Similarly, by another integration by parts,
\[
\int_{\mathcal{S}} (1 - e^{-\xi \psi}(1 + \xi \psi)) \psi \mu = \int_1^{\infty} (1 - e^{-\xi x}(1 + \xi x)) q x^{-q} \, dx
\]
\[
= q \xi^{q - 1} \int_{\xi}^{\infty} (1 - e^{-y}(1 + y)) y^{-q} \, dy \sim q \xi^{q - 1} \int_0^{\infty} (1 - e^{-y}(1 + y)) y^{-q} \, dy
\]
\[
= \frac{q \xi^{q - 1}}{q - 1} \Gamma(3 - q) = q(q - 2) \xi^{q - 1} \Gamma(1 - q),
\]
and thus by (6.21),
\[
\tilde{\chi} \sim \frac{\xi \left( \int \psi \right)^2}{(q - 2) \xi^{q - 1} \Gamma(1 - q)} \sim \frac{\left( \int \psi \right)^2 \lambda_{\text{cr}}^2}{(q - 2)(\lambda - \lambda_{\text{cr}})}, \quad \lambda \searrow \lambda_{\text{cr}},
\]
which still has power \(-1\), but differs by a factor \((q - 2)^{-1}\) from the subcritical asymptotics in (6.12) and Theorem 5.2. Hence, (6.24) does not hold in general without assuming \( \int_{\mathcal{S}} \psi^3 < \infty \). (Although this integral does not appear in the formula.)

**Example 6.3.** We see in Example 6.2 that \( \tilde{\chi} \) is relatively large in the barely supercritical phase when \( \psi \) is only a little more than square integrable.

We can pursue this further by taking the same \( \mathcal{S} \) and \( \psi \), and \( \mu(x) = c(\log x + 1)^{-q} x^{-3} \, dx \) with \( q > 1 \) and a normalization constant \( c \). Similar calculations using (6.17) and (6.23) (we omit the details) show that, letting \( c \) denote different positive constants (depending on \( q \)), as \( \xi \to 0 \) we have
\[
\lambda - \lambda_{\text{cr}} \sim c(\log(1/\xi))^{-q/(q - 1)} \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{\chi} \sim c(\log(1/\xi))^q,
\]
with an exponent \(-q/(q - 1)\), which can be any real number in \((-\infty, -1)\).

Taking instead \( \mathcal{S} = (0, 1] \) with Lebesgue measure \( \mu \). We thus have
\[
\tilde{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) \sim c(\lambda - \lambda_{\text{cr}})^{-q/(q - 1)}, \quad \lambda \searrow \lambda_{\text{cr}},
\]
with an even more dramatic singularity. Of course, this sequence of examples can be continued to yield towers of exponents.

### 6.3. The CHKNS model.

Consider the family of kernels \( \lambda \kappa, \lambda > 0 \), with
\[
\kappa(x, y) := \frac{1}{x \vee y} - 1 \quad (6.26)
\]
on \( \mathcal{S} = (0, 1] \) with Lebesgue measure \( \mu \). We thus have
\[
T_{\lambda \kappa} f(x) = \lambda \left( \frac{1}{x} - 1 \right) \int_0^x f(y) \, dy + \lambda \int_x^1 \left( \frac{1}{y} - 1 \right) f(y) \, dy
\]
\[
= \frac{\lambda}{x} \int_0^x f(y) \, dy + \lambda \int_x^1 \frac{f(y)}{y} \, dy - \lambda \int_0^1 f(y) \, dy. \quad (6.27)
\]
Remark 6.4. Equivalently, by a change of variable, we could consider the kernel \( \lambda(e^{x \lambda s} - 1) \) on \( S = [0, \infty) \) with \( d\mu = e^{-x} \, dx \); we leave it to the reader to reformulate results in this setting.

This kernel arises in connection with the CHKNS model of a random graph introduced by Callaway, Hopcroft, Kleinberg, Newman and Strogatz [12]. This graph grows from a single vertex; vertices are added one by one, and after each vertex is added, an edge is added with probability \( \delta \in (0, 1) \); the endpoints are chosen uniformly among all existing vertices. Following Durrett [16, 17], we consider a modification where at each step a Poisson \( \text{Po}(\delta) \) number of edges are added to the graph, again with endpoints chosen uniformly at random. As discussed in detail in [4, Section 16.3], this yields a random graph of the type \( G^\nu(n, \kappa_n) \) for a graphical sequence of kernels \( (\kappa_n) \) with limit \( \lambda \kappa \), where \( \lambda = 2 \delta \), on a suitable vertex space \( V \) (with \( S \) and \( \mu \) as above).

Let us begin by solving (3.5). If \( f = T_{\lambda \kappa} f + 1 \), then (6.27) implies first that \( f \in C(0, 1) \) and then \( f \in C^1(0, 1) \). Hence we can differentiate and find, using (6.27) again, that

\[
(f')' = (T_{\lambda \kappa} f)' = -\frac{\lambda}{x^2} \int_0^x f(y) \, dy.
\]

With \( F(x) := \int_0^x f(y) \, dy \), this yields \( F''(x) = -\lambda F(x)/x^2 \), with the solution \( F(x) = C_1 x^{\alpha_+} + C_2 x^{\alpha_-} \), where \( \alpha_\pm \) are the roots of \( \alpha(\alpha - 1) = -\lambda \), i.e., \( \alpha_\pm = \frac{1}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} - \lambda} \); if \( \lambda = 1/4 \) we have a double root \( \alpha_+ = \alpha_- = 1/2 \) and the solution is \( F(x) = C_1 x^{1/2} + C_2 x^{1/2} \log x \). Hence any integrable solution of (3.5) must be of the form \( f(x) = C_+ x^{\alpha_+ - 1} + C_- x^{\alpha_- - 1} \), or \( f(x) = C_+ x^{-1/2} + C_- x^{-1/2} \log x \) if \( \lambda = 1/4 \). Any such \( f \) satisfies (6.28), and since (6.27) yields \( T_{\lambda \kappa} f(1) = 0 \), it solves (3.5) if and only if \( f(1) = 1 \), i.e., if \( C_+ + C_- = 1 \). If \( C_+ + C_- = 1 \) then \( C_+ = 1 \) if \( \lambda = 1/4 \).

If \( 0 < \lambda < 1/4 \), then \( 0 < \alpha_- < 1/2 < \alpha_+ < 1 \), so the solution \( f(x) = x^{\alpha_+ - 1} \) is in \( L^2(0, 1) \) and non-negative; by Corollary 3.6 this is the unique non-negative solution in \( L^2 \), and

\[
\chi(\lambda \kappa) = \int_0^1 x^{\alpha_+ - 1} \, dx = \frac{1}{\alpha_+} = \frac{2}{1 + \sqrt{1 - 4\lambda}} = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4\lambda}}{2\lambda}.
\]

(If we are lucky, or with hindsight, we may observe directly that \( x^{\alpha_+ - 1} \) is a solution of (3.5) by (6.31) below, and apply Corollary 3.6 directly, eliminating most of the analysis above.)

For \( \lambda < 1/4 \), we have shown that \( \chi(\lambda \kappa) \) is finite, so \( \lambda \kappa \) is subcritical; thus \( \lambda_{cr} \geq 1/4 \). Since the right-hand side in (6.29) has a singularity at \( \lambda = 1/4 \), Theorem 5.1 shows that \( \lambda_{cr} > 1/4 \) is impossible, so we conclude that \( \lambda_{cr} = 1/4 \). (Equivalently, \( |T_\kappa| = 4 \).) This critical value for the CHKNS model has earlier been found by Callaway, Hopcroft, Kleinberg, Newman and Strogatz [12] by a non-rigorous method, also using (6.29) which they found in a different way; another non-rigorous proof was given by Dorogovtsev, Mendes
SVANTE JANSON AND OLIVER RIORDAN

and Samukhin [14], and the first rigorous proof was given by Durrett [16, 17]. See also Bollobás, Janson and Riordan [3–4], where different methods were used not involving the susceptibility. The argument above seems to be new.

By Theorem 5.1, we can let \( \lambda \to \lambda_{cr} \) in (6.29), and see that the equation holds for \( \lambda = \lambda_{cr} = 1/4 \) too; i.e., \( \chi(\lambda_{cr} \kappa) = 2 \).

We see also that in the (sub)critical case \( \lambda \leq 1/4 \), \( \chi(\lambda \kappa; x) = x^{\alpha_+-1} \).

We have no need for the other solutions of (3.5), but note that our analysis shows that for \( \lambda < \lambda_{cr} \), the other non-negative, integrable solutions of (3.5) are given by \( x^{\alpha_-+1} + C (x^{\alpha_--1} - x^{\alpha_+-1}) \), with \( C > 0 \). Similarly, although we have no need for the solutions of (3.5) for \( \lambda \geq \lambda_{cr} \), let us note that for the critical case \( \lambda = \lambda_{cr} \), the argument above shows that there is a minimal non-negative solution \( x^{-1/2} \), which belongs to \( L^1 \) but not to \( L^2 \); there are further solutions \( x^{-1/2} - C x^{-1/2} \log x, C > 0 \). For \( \lambda > 1/4 \), the roots \( \alpha_\pm \) are complex, and the only real integrable solution to (3.5) is \( \frac{1}{2} (x^{\alpha_++1} + x^{\alpha_-+1}) = \text{Re} \, x^{\alpha_+-1} = x^{-1/2} \cos (\lambda - \frac{1}{4}) \log x \), which oscillates; thus there is no finite non-negative solution at all.

Before proceeding to \( \hat{\chi} \) in the supercritical case, let us calculate \( \rho_k \) for small \( k \). We begin by observing, from (6.27), that \( T_{\lambda \kappa} 1(x) = -\lambda \log x \). Hence (6.1) yields

\[ \rho_1(\lambda \kappa; x) = e^{\lambda \log x} = x^\lambda. \]

Further, by (6.27), for every non-zero \( \gamma > -1 \),

\[ T_{\lambda \kappa}(x^{\gamma}) = \frac{\lambda}{\gamma(\gamma + 1)} (1 - x^{\gamma}). \]

Hence (6.2) yields

\[ \rho_2(\lambda \kappa; x) = x^{\lambda} T_{\lambda \kappa}(x^{\lambda}) = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda} (x^{\lambda} - x^{2\lambda}). \]

Similarly, (6.3) and (6.4) yield

\[ \rho_3(\lambda \kappa; x) = \frac{(2 + 3\lambda)x^{3\lambda} - 4(1 + 2\lambda)x^{2\lambda} + (2 + 5\lambda)x^{\lambda}}{2(1 + \lambda)^2(1 + 2\lambda)} \]

and a formula for \( \rho_4(\lambda \kappa; x) \) that we omit, and so on. By integration we then obtain

\[ \rho_1(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{1}{1 + \lambda}, \]

\[ \rho_2(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{\lambda}{(1 + \lambda)^2(1 + 2\lambda)}, \]

\[ \rho_3(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{3\lambda^2}{(1 + \lambda)^3(1 + 2\lambda)(1 + 3\lambda)}; \]

\[ \rho_4(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{2\lambda^3(7 + 15\lambda)}{(1 + \lambda)^4(1 + 2\lambda)^2(1 + 3\lambda)(1 + 4\lambda)}. \]
It is obvious that each $\rho_k(\lambda \kappa; x)$ is a polynomial in $x^\lambda$ with coefficients that are rational functions in $\lambda$, with only factors $1 + j\lambda$, $j = 1, \ldots, k$ in the denominator. Hence, each $\rho(\lambda \kappa)$ is a rational function of the same type.

There is no obvious general formula for the numbers $\rho_k(\lambda \kappa)$, but, surprisingly, they satisfy a simple quadratic recursion, given in the following theorem. This recursion was found by Callaway, Hopcroft, Kleinberg, Newman and Strogatz [12], using their recursive construction of the graph, see also [17], Chapter 7.1. (The argument in [12] is non-rigorous, but as pointed out by Durrett [16, 17], it is not hard to make it rigorous.) We give here a proof that instead uses the branching process, which gives more detailed information about the distribution of the ‘locations’ of the components.

**Theorem 6.5.** For the CHKNS kernel (6.26), $\rho_k(\lambda \kappa)$ satisfies the recursion

$$
\rho_k(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{k\lambda}{2(1 + k\lambda)} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \rho_{k-j}(\lambda \kappa) \rho_j(\lambda \kappa), \quad k \geq 2, \quad (6.38)
$$

with $\rho_1(\lambda \kappa) = 1/(1 + \lambda)$. Hence, for each $k \geq 1$, $\rho_k(\lambda \kappa)$ is a rational function of $\lambda$, with poles only at $-1/j$, $j = 1, \ldots, k$.

Moreover, each function $\rho_k(x) = \rho_k(\lambda \kappa; x)$ is a polynomial in $x^\lambda$, with coefficients that are rational functions of $\lambda$, which can be calculated recursively by

$$
x \frac{d}{dx} \rho_k(\lambda \kappa; x) = k\lambda \rho_k(\lambda \kappa; x) - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j\lambda \rho_{k-j}(\lambda \kappa) \rho_j(\lambda \kappa; x), \quad k \geq 1, \quad (6.39)
$$

together with the boundary conditions $\rho_1(\lambda \kappa; 1) = 1$ and $\rho_k(\lambda \kappa; 1) = 0$, $k \geq 2$.

**Proof.** Fix $\lambda > 0$. To simplify the notation, throughout this proof we write $\kappa$ for the kernel so far denoted $\lambda \kappa$. Let $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/2)$, say, and let $\mathcal{X}_\kappa^\prime$ be $\mathcal{X}_\kappa$ with all points scaled by the factor $(1 - \varepsilon)$; this is the branching process defined by $\mathcal{S}' := (0, 1 - \varepsilon)$, $d\mu' := (1 - \varepsilon)^{-1} dx$ and $\kappa'(x, y) := \lambda(1 - \varepsilon_x) - 1)$. In $\mathcal{X}_\kappa^\prime$, the offspring process of an individual of type $x$ has intensity

$$
\kappa'(x, y) d\mu'(y) = \lambda \left( \frac{1}{x + y} - \frac{1}{1 - \varepsilon} \right) dy = \kappa(x, y) dy - \frac{\varepsilon \lambda}{1 - \varepsilon} dy, \quad y \leq 1 - \varepsilon.
$$

This is less than the intensity in $\mathcal{X}_\kappa$. We let $\kappa'(x, y) = 0$ if $x > 1 - \varepsilon$ or $y > 1 - \varepsilon$, and define $\kappa''(x, y) = \kappa(x, y) - \kappa'(x, y) \geq 0$. More precisely, for $0 < x \leq 1 - \varepsilon$ and $0 < y \leq 1$,

$$
\kappa''(x, y) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{\varepsilon \lambda}{1 - \varepsilon}, & 0 < y \leq 1 - \varepsilon, \\
\lambda \left( \frac{x}{y} - 1 \right) \leq \frac{\varepsilon \lambda}{1 - \varepsilon}, & 1 - \varepsilon < y \leq 1.
\end{cases} \quad (6.40)
$$

Thus $\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)$ and $\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x)$ may be coupled in the natural way so that $\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x) \subseteq \mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)$ in the sense that an individual in $\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x)$, of type $z$ say, also belongs to $\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)$, and its children in $\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)$ are its children in $\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x)$ plus some children born according to an independent Poisson process with intensity $\kappa''(z, y) dy$;
we call the latter children (if any) adopted. An adopted child of type \(y\) gets children and further descendants according to a copy of \(\mathcal{X}_\kappa(y)\), independent of everything else. Note that this adoption intensity \(\kappa''(x, y)\) is independent of \(x \in \mathcal{S}'\), and that the total adoption intensity is \(\int_0^1 \kappa''(x, y) \, dy = \varepsilon \lambda + O(\varepsilon^2)\). Fix \(k \geq 1\). If \(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)| = k\), then either \(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x)| = k\) and there are no adoptions, or \(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x)| = j\) for some \(j < k\) and there are one or more adoptions, with a total family size of \(k - j\). If \(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x)| = k\), then the probability of some adoption is \(k \varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2)\), and thus

\[
\mathbb{P}(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)| = k \mid |\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x)| = k) = 1 - k \varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2) .
\]  

(6.41)

Now, suppose that \(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x)| = j < k\). The probability of two or more adoptions is \(O(\varepsilon^2)\). Suppose that there is a single adoption. If the adopted child has type \(y\), the probability that this leads to an adopted branch of size \(k - j\), and thus to \(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)| = k\), is \(\rho_{k-j}(\kappa; y)\). By (6.40), the adoption intensity \(\kappa''(z, y)\) is independent of \(z\) as remarked above, and is almost uniform on \((0, 1]\); it follows that the probability that \(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)| = k\), given \(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x)| = j\) and that there is a single adoption, by some individual of type \(z\) in \(\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x)\), equals

\[
\frac{\int_0^1 \kappa''(z, y) \rho_{k-j}(\kappa; y) \, dy}{\int_0^1 \kappa''(z, y) \, dy} = \int_0^1 \rho_{k-j}(\kappa; y) \, dy + O(\varepsilon) = \rho_{k-j}(\kappa) + O(\varepsilon) .
\]  

(6.42)

Since the probability of an adoption at all is \(j \varepsilon \lambda + O(\varepsilon^2)\), we obtain

\[
\mathbb{P}(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)| = k \mid |\mathcal{X}_\kappa'(x)| = j) = j \lambda \rho_{k-j}(\kappa) \varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2) .
\]  

(6.43)

Consequently, for every \(k \geq 1\) and \(x \in (0, 1 - \varepsilon]\),

\[
\rho_k(\kappa; x) = (1 - k \varepsilon) \rho_k(\kappa'; x) + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j \lambda \rho_{k-j}(\kappa) \rho_j(\kappa'; x) \varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2) .
\]  

(6.44)

(The implicit constant in \(O\) here and below may depend on \(k\) but not on \(x\) or \(\varepsilon\)). Replace \(x\) by \((1 - \varepsilon)x\) and observe that, by definition, \(|\mathcal{X}_\kappa'((1 - \varepsilon)x)| = |\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)| \) and thus \(\rho_j(\kappa'; (1 - \varepsilon)x) = \rho_j(\kappa; x)\). This yields

\[
\rho_k(\kappa; (1 - \varepsilon)x) = (1 - k \varepsilon) \rho_k(\kappa; x) + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j \lambda \rho_{k-j}(\kappa) \rho_j(\kappa; x) \varepsilon + O(\varepsilon^2) .
\]  

(6.45)

Letting \(\varepsilon \searrow 0\) we see first that \(\rho_k(\kappa; x)\) is Lipschitz continuous in \((0, 1)\), and then that it is differentiable with

\[
x \frac{d}{dx} \rho_k(\kappa; x) = k \lambda \rho_k(\kappa; x) - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j \lambda \rho_{k-j}(\kappa) \rho_j(\kappa; x), \quad k \geq 1,
\]  

(6.46)

which is (6.39) in the present notation.

For \(k = 1\), (6.46) gives \(\rho_1(\kappa; x) = C x^\lambda\), for some constant \(C\). For \(x = 1\) we have \(\kappa(1, y) = 0\), so the branching process \(\mathcal{X}_\kappa(x)\) dies immediately, and \(\rho_1(\kappa; x) = 1\). Thus \(\rho_1(\kappa; x) = x^\lambda\) as shown in (6.31). For \(k \geq 2\), we note that
Durrett [16; 17]. We repeat their argument for completeness.

In the supercritical case, the susceptibility $\hat{\chi}$ was calculated for all $\lambda$ by Callaway, Hopcroft, Kleinberg, Newman and Strogatz [12] using the recursion formula (6.38), see also Durrett [16; 17]. We repeat their argument for completeness.

Let $G(z) := \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \rho_{\kappa}(\lambda \kappa) z^k$ be the probability generating function of $|X_{\lambda \kappa}|$, defined at least for $|z| \leq 1$. Note that in the supercritical case, $|X_{\lambda \kappa}|$ is a defective random variable which may be infinite; we have $G(1) = 1 - P(|X_{\lambda \kappa}| = \infty) = 1 - \rho(\lambda \kappa)$. Further, $G'(1) = \hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) \leq \infty$.

The recursion (6.38) yields, most easily from the version (6.47),

$$G(z) + \lambda z G'(z) = \lambda z G'(z) G(z) + (1 + \lambda) \rho_1(\lambda \kappa) z = \lambda z G'(z) G(z) + z,$$  

and thus

$$G'(z) = \frac{z - G(z)}{\lambda z (1 - G(z))}, \quad |z| < 1.$$  

In the supercritical case, $G(1) < 1$, and we can let $z \not\to 1$ in (6.50), yielding $\hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) = G'(1) = 1/\lambda$. (In the subcritical case, l'Hôpital’s rule, or differentiation of (6.49), yields a quadratic equation for $G'(1)$, with (6.29) as a solution; this is the method by which (6.29) was found in [12].)

Summarizing, we have rigorously verified the explicit formula by Callaway, Hopcroft, Kleinberg, Newman and Strogatz [12]:

$$\hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) = \begin{cases} \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - 4\lambda}}{2\lambda}, & \lambda \leq \frac{1}{4}, \\ \frac{1}{\lambda}, & \lambda > \frac{1}{4}. \end{cases}$$

(6.51)

Note that there is a singularity at $\lambda = 1/4$ with a finite jump from 2 to 4, with infinite derivative on the left side and finite derivative on the right side. It is striking that there is a simple explicit formula for $\hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) = G'(1)$, while no formula is known for $G(1) = 1 - \rho(\lambda \kappa)$. This is presumably related to the fact that $\hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa)$ may be found by solving the linear equation (3.5), whereas $\rho(\lambda \kappa)$ is related to the non-linear equation (2.14). As $\lambda = 1/4 + \varepsilon \searrow 1/4$, $\rho(\lambda \kappa)$ approaches 0 extremely rapidly, as $\exp\left(-\frac{\pi}{2\sqrt{2}}\varepsilon^{-1/2} + O(\log \varepsilon)\right)$. 

$x \rho_k(\kappa; x) \to 0$ as $x \to 0$ or $x \to 1$, because $\rho_k(\kappa; x) \leq 1 - \rho_1(\kappa; x) = 1 - x^\lambda$, and thus, integrating by parts,

$$\int_0^1 x \frac{d}{dx} \rho_k(\kappa; x) = [x \rho_k(\kappa; x)]_0^1 - \int_0^1 \rho_k(\kappa; x) \, dx = 0 - \rho_k(\kappa).$$

Hence, integration of (6.46) yields the recursion formula

$$(1 + k \lambda) \rho_k(\kappa) = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j \lambda \rho_{k-j}(\kappa) \rho_j(\kappa), \quad k \geq 2.$$  

(6.47)

Replacing $j$ by $k - j$ in the right-hand side of (6.47) and summing the two equations, we find that

$$2(1 + k \lambda) \rho_k(\kappa) = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} (j + k - j) \lambda \rho_{k-j}(\kappa) \rho_j(\kappa), \quad k \geq 2,$$  

(6.48)

which is (6.38).
the behaviour at the singularity is thus very different for $G(1)$ and $G'(1)$.

Note also that, by (2.5), the discontinuous function $\hat{\chi}(\Lambda\kappa)$ is the pointwise sum of the analytic functions $k\rho_k(\kappa)$.

**Remark 6.6.** We can obtain higher moments of the distribution $(\rho_k(\Lambda\kappa))_{k\geq 1}$ of $|X_{\Lambda\kappa}|$ by repeatedly differentiating the differential equation (6.50) for its probability generating function and then letting $z \rightarrow 1$. In the supercritical case, this yields the moments of $|X_{\Lambda\kappa}|1[|X_{\Lambda\kappa}| < \infty]$ (or, equivalently, the moments of $|X_{\Lambda\kappa}|$ conditioned on $|X_{\Lambda\kappa}| < \infty$); it follows that all these moments are finite, and we can obtain explicit formulæ for them one by one. For example, with $\lambda = \rho(\Lambda\kappa)$,

$$
\mathbb{E}(|X_{\Lambda\kappa}|^2; |X_{\Lambda\kappa}| < \infty) = G''(1) + G'(1) = 1 - \frac{1}{\lambda} + \frac{1}{\lambda^2},
$$

(6.52)

$$
\mathbb{E}(|X_{\Lambda\kappa}|^3; |X_{\Lambda\kappa}| < \infty) = 3G''(1) + 3G'(1) = 2 - \frac{1}{\lambda^2} + \frac{1}{\lambda^3} + \frac{1}{\lambda^4}.
$$

(6.53)

It can be seen that for each $m \geq 1$, as $\lambda \rightarrow \lambda_{cr}$, and thus $\rho \rightarrow 0$, we have

$$
\mathbb{E}(|X_{\Lambda\kappa}|^m; |X_{\Lambda\kappa}| < \infty) \sim c_m\rho^{1-m}
$$

(6.54)

for some constant $c_m > 0$; we do not know any general formula for $c_m$. For any $\lambda > \lambda_{cr} = \frac{1}{4}$ and $a, b > 0$, writing $\hat{X} := |X_{\Lambda\kappa}|1[|X_{\Lambda\kappa}| < \infty]$, from (6.51) and (6.52)–(6.53) we obtain

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(\hat{X}^2; \hat{X} \leq \frac{a}{\rho}\right) \leq \frac{a}{\rho} \mathbb{E}\hat{X} = \frac{a}{\rho} \hat{\chi}(\Lambda\kappa) = \frac{a}{\lambda^2},
$$

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(\hat{X}^2; \hat{X} \geq \frac{b}{\rho}\right) \leq \frac{b}{\rho} \mathbb{E}\hat{X} = \frac{2}{b\lambda^2} + \frac{1}{b\lambda},
$$

and hence

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(\hat{X}^2; \frac{a}{\rho} \leq \hat{X} \leq \frac{b}{\rho}\right) \geq \frac{1}{\lambda^2} - \frac{a}{\lambda^2} - \frac{2}{b\lambda^2} - \frac{1}{b\lambda} = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}\left(1 - a - \frac{2}{b\lambda} - \frac{\rho}{b}\right).
$$

Choosing, for example, $a = 1/4$ and $b = 32$, so $b\lambda > 8$, the last quantity is at least $1/(3\lambda\rho) > 1.3/\rho$ if $\lambda$ is close to $\lambda_{cr}$, and thus, for such $\lambda$ at least,

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\frac{1}{4\rho} \leq |X_{\Lambda\kappa}| \leq \frac{32}{\rho}\right) \geq \frac{1.3}{\rho} \left(\frac{\rho}{b}\right)^2 > \frac{\rho}{1000}.
$$

Hence, $|X_{\Lambda\kappa}|$ may be as large as about $\rho^{-1}$ with probability about $\rho$, as suggested by (6.51).

Note that each $\rho_k(\Lambda\kappa)$ is a continuous function of $\lambda$, so as $\lambda \rightarrow \lambda_{cr}$, the (defective) distribution of $|X_{\Lambda\kappa}|$ converges to the distribution of the critical $|X_{\lambda_{cr}}|$, which has mean $\chi(\lambda_{cr}\kappa) = 2$ and $\mathbb{P}(|X_{\lambda_{cr}}| = k) \sim 2/(k^2 \log k)$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, see [17, Section 7.3].

In the subcritical case, $\rho_k(\Lambda\kappa)$ decreases as a power of $k$, see [17, Section 7.3] for details.
We have so far studied $\chi(\lambda \kappa)$ and $\hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa)$, or, equivalently, the cluster size in the branching process $\tau_{\lambda \kappa}$. Let us now return to the random graphs; we then have to be careful with the precise definitions. The Poisson version of the CHKNS model mentioned above can be described as the random multigraph where the number of edges between vertices $i$ and $j$ is $\text{Po}(\lambda_{ij})$ with intensity $\lambda_{ij} := \lambda(1/(j-1)-1/n)$, for $1 \leq i < j \leq n$, independently for all such pairs $i,j$, see \cite{16,17,4}. For the moment, let us call this random graph $G_n^I$. Let $G_n^{II}$ be defined similarly, but with $\lambda_{ij} := \lambda(1/j-1/n)$, and let $G_n^{III}$ be defined similarly with $\lambda_{ij} := \lambda(1/j - 1/(n+1))$, for $1 \leq i < j \leq n$. Since multiple edges do not matter for the components, we may as well consider the corresponding simple graphs with multiple edges coalesced; then the probability of an edge between $i$ and $j$, $i < j$, is $p_{ij} := 1 - \exp(-\lambda_{ij})$. (If, for simplicity, we consider $\lambda \leq 1$ only, it is easy to see that the results below hold also if we instead let the edges appear with probabilities $p_{ij} = \lambda_{ij}$; this follows by the same arguments or by contiguity and \cite[Corollary 2.12(iii)]{20}.)

We first consider $G_n^{II}$; note that this is exactly (the Poisson version of) $G^V(n, \lambda \kappa)$ with $\kappa$ defined in \eqref{6.26} and the vertex space $V$ given by $S = (0, 1]$ with $\mu$ Lebesgue measure as above, and the deterministic sequence $x_n = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ with $x_i = i/n$. Arguing as in the proof of Theorem \ref{4.7} summing over distinct indices only, and using the fact that $\kappa$ is non-increasing in each variable, we find that the expected number $\mathbb{E} P_{\ell}(G_n^{II})$ of paths of length $\ell$ is

$$
\mathbb{E} P_{\ell}(G_n^{II}) \leq \sum_{j_0, \ldots, j_\ell = 1}^n \prod_{i=1}^\ell \frac{\lambda \kappa(j_{i-1}, j_i)}{n} \int_{[0, 1]^{[0, 1]}} \prod_{i=1}^\ell \lambda \kappa(x_{i-1}, x_i) \, dx_0 \cdots dx_\ell
\leq n \int_{[0, 1]^{[0, 1]}} \prod_{i=1}^\ell \lambda \kappa(x_{i-1}, x_i) \, dx_0 \cdots dx_\ell = n(T_{\lambda \kappa}^\ell 1, 1).
$$

Hence Lemmas \ref{4.6} and \ref{4.3} imply that \eqref{4.5} holds and $\chi(G_n^{II}) \to P \chi(\lambda \kappa)$.

For $G_n^{III}$, we observe that $G_n^{III}$ can be seen as an induced subgraph of $G_{n+1}^{II}$, and thus

$$
\mathbb{E} \sum_{\ell} P_{\ell}(G_n^{III}) \leq \mathbb{E} \sum_{\ell} P_{\ell}(G_{n+1}^{II}) \leq (n + 1) \chi(\lambda \kappa).
$$

Hence Lemma \ref{4.3} implies that $\chi(G_n^{III}) \to P \chi(\lambda \kappa)$.

Finally, it is easily checked that $G_n^I$ and $G_n^{III}$ satisfy the conditions of \cite[Corollary 2.12(iii)]{20}, and thus are contiguous. Hence $\chi(G_n^I) \to P \chi(\lambda \kappa)$ too. (One can also compare $G_n^I$ and $G_n^{III}$ as in \cite[Lemma 11]{3}.) It turns out that in probability bounds such as the one we have just proved do not obviously transfer from $G_n^I$ to the original CHKNS model. On the other hand (as we shall see below), bounds on the expected number of paths
do. Hence, in order to analyze the original CHKNS model, we shall need to show that
\[ \limsup \mathbb{E} n^{-1} \sum_{\ell} P_\ell(G_n^I) \leq \chi(\lambda \kappa). \] (6.56)

If \( \lambda > 1/4 \), then \( \lambda \kappa \) supercritical, so \( \chi(\lambda \kappa) = \infty \) and there is nothing to prove. Suppose then that \( \lambda \leq 1/4 \). We may regard \( G_n^I \) with the vertex 1 deleted as \( G_{n-1}^{III} \). Writing \( P(G) \) for the total number of paths in a graph \( G \), and \( P^* \) for the number involving the vertex 1, by (6.55) we thus have
\[ \mathbb{E} P(G_n^I) - \mathbb{E} P^*(G_n^I) = \mathbb{E} P(G_{n-1}^{III}) \leq n \chi(\lambda \kappa), \]
so to prove (6.56) it suffices to show that \( \mathbb{E} P^*(G_n^I) = o(n) \).

Let \( S(G_n^I) \) denote the number of paths in \( G_n^I \) starting at vertex 1. Since a path visiting vertex 1 may be viewed as the edge disjoint union of two paths starting there, and edges are present independently, we have \( \mathbb{E} P^*(G_n^I) \leq (\mathbb{E} S(G_n^I))^2 \). Now \( \mathbb{E} S(G_n^I) \) is given by 1 plus the sum over \( i \) of \( 1/i \) times the expected number of paths in \( G_{n-1}^{III} \) starting at vertex \( i \). Durrett [16, Theorem 6] proved the upper bound
\[ 3 \frac{1}{8} \frac{(\log i + 2)(\log n - \log j + 2)}{\log n + 4}, \]
on the expected number of paths between vertices \( i \) and \( j \) in the graph \( H \) on \( [n] \) in which edges are present independently and the probability of an edge \( ij \), \( i < j \), is \( 1/(4j) \) (a form of Dubin’s model; see the next section). In fact, his result is stated for the probability that a path is present, but the proof bounds the expected number of paths. (The factor \( 1/\sqrt{ij} \) is omitted in [16, Theorem 6]; this is simply a typographical error.) This bound carries over to \( G_{n-1}^{III} \), which we may regard as a subgraph of \( H \). Multiplying by \( 1/i \) and summing, a little calculation shows that this bound implies that \( \mathbb{E} S(G_n^I) = O(n^{1/2}/\log n) \) for \( \lambda = 1/4 \), and hence for any \( \lambda \leq 1/4 \). From the comments above, (6.56) follows, and for any \( \lambda > 0 \) we have \( \chi(G_n^I) \to P \chi(\lambda \kappa). \)

Recall that the original CHKNS model \( G_n \) has the same expected edge densities as \( G_n^I \), but the mode of addition is slightly different, with 0 or 1 edges added at each step, rather than a Poisson number; this introduces some dependence between edges. However, as noted in [3], the form of this dependence is such that conditioning on a certain set of edges being present can only reduce the probability that another given edge is present. Thus, any given path is at most as likely in \( G_n \) as in \( G_n^I \), and (6.56) carries over to the CHKNS model. On the other hand, the effect of this dependence is small except for the first few vertices, and it is easy to see that \( N_k(G_n) \) has almost the same distribution as \( N_k(G_n^I) \). In particular, \( N_k(G_n)/n \to P_k(\lambda \kappa) \), so the proof of Theorem 4.1 goes through. Using Lemma 4.2 it follows that \( \chi(G_n) \to P \chi(\lambda \kappa). \)

Turning to the supercritical case, let \( M_k(G) \) denote the number of components of a graph \( G \), other than \( C_1 \), that have order \( k \). We claim that, in all variants \( G_n^I, G_n^{III}, G_{n-1}^{III} \) or the original CHKNS model, for fixed \( \lambda > \lambda_{cr} \)
there is some sequence of events $\mathcal{E}_n$ that holds whp, and some $\eta > 0$ such that

$$n^{-1} \mathbb{E}(M_k(G_n) \mid \mathcal{E}_n) \leq 100e^{-\eta k^{1/5}},$$

say, for all $n, k \geq 1$. Suppose for the moment that (6.57) holds. Then

$$\mathbb{E} \tilde{\chi}(G_n \mid \mathcal{E}_n) = n^{-1} \sum_{k \geq 1} k^2 \mathbb{E}(M_k(G_n) \mid \mathcal{E}_n) \leq \sum_k 100k^2e^{-\eta k^{1/5}} < \infty.$$

For each fixed $k$ we have $n^{-1}\mathbb{E}k^2M_k(G_n) = n^{-1}\mathbb{E}(kN_k(G_n) - O(k)) \rightarrow k\rho_k(\lambda\kappa)$. Since $\mathcal{E}_n$ holds whp and $n^{-1}k^2M_k(G_n)$ is bounded it follows that $n^{-1}k^2\mathbb{E}(M_k(G_n) \mid \mathcal{E}_n) \rightarrow k\rho_k(\lambda\kappa)$. Hence, by dominated convergence, $\mathbb{E}(\tilde{\chi}(G_n) \mid \mathcal{E}_n) \rightarrow \sum k\rho_k(\lambda\kappa) = \tilde{\chi}(\lambda\kappa)$, and (which we know already in this case), $\tilde{\chi}(\lambda\kappa)$ is finite. By Lemma 3.4(ii), it then follows that $\tilde{\chi}(G_n) \xrightarrow{p} \tilde{\chi}(\lambda\kappa)$.

To prove (6.57) we use an idea from [3]; with an eye to the next subsection, in the proof we shall not rely on the exact values of the edge probabilities, only on certain bounds. Fix $\lambda > \lambda_{cr}$. Choosing $\eta$ small, in proving (6.57) we may and shall assume that $k$ is at least some constant that may depend on $\lambda$. Set $\delta = k^{-1/100}$, and let $G'_n$ be the subgraph of $G_n$ induced by the first $n' = (1 - \delta)n$ vertices. (We ignore the irrelevant rounding to integers.) In all variants $G'_n, G''_n, G'''_n$, the distribution of $G'_n$ stochastically dominates that of $G''_n$, so whp $G'_n$ contains a component $C$ of order at least $3\rho(\lambda\kappa)n'/4 \geq \rho(\lambda\kappa)n/2$. Let us condition on $G'_n$, assuming that this holds. Note that whp the largest component of $G_n$ will contain $C$, so it suffices to bound the expectation of $M'_k$, the number of $k$-vertex components of $G'_n$ not containing $C$. To adapt what follows to the original CHKNS model, we should instead condition on the edges added by time $n'$ as the graph grows; we omit the details.

Suppose that $C'$ is a component of $G'_n$ other than $C$. Consider some vertex $v$, $n' < v \leq (1 - \delta/2)n$. Then $v$ has probability at least $\lambda(1/v - 1/n) \geq \lambda\delta/(2n) \geq \delta/(8n)$ of sending an edge to any given vertex, and hence probability at least $\delta|S|/(9n)$ of sending at least one edge to any given set $S$ of vertices. Hence with probability at least $\delta^2\rho(\lambda\kappa)|C'|/(200n)$, $v$ sends an edge to both $C$ and $C'$. Since these events are independent for different $v$, the probability that $C'$ is not part of the same component of $G_n$ as $C$ is at most

$$(1 - \delta^2\rho(\lambda\kappa)|C'|/(200n))^{\delta n/2} \leq \exp(-\delta^3\rho(\lambda\kappa)|C'|/400) = \exp(-a\delta^3|C'|),$$

for some $a > 0$ independent of $k$.

Let $A$ be the number of components of $G'_n$ of size at least $k^{1/4}$ that are not joined to $C$ in $G_n$. Then it follows that $\mathbb{E}A \leq ne^{-ak^{1/5}}$.

For any $v \leq n'$, the expected number of edges from ‘late’ vertices $w > n'$ to $v$ is at most $1/2$, say. (We may assume $\delta$ is small if $\lambda$ is large.) Let $B$ be the number of vertices receiving at least $k^{1/4}$ edges from late vertices. Then it is easy to check (using a Chernoff bound or directly) that $\mathbb{E}B \leq ne^{-bk^{1/4}}$ for
some $b > 0$. The subgraph of $G_n$ induced by the late vertices is dominated by an Erdős–Rényi random graph with average degree at most $1/2$. Let $N$ be the number of components of this subgraph with size at least $k^{1/4}$. Then, since the component exploration process is dominated by a subcritical branching process, we have $\mathbb{E}N \leq ne^{-ck^{1/4}}$ for some $c > 0$.

Let $M''_k$ be the number of $k$-vertex components of $G_n$ other than that containing $C$ that do not contain any of the components/vertices counted by $A$, $B$ or $N$. Since $\mathbb{E}(M_k' - M_k'') \leq \mathbb{E}(A + B + N) \leq ne^{-dk^{1/5}}$ for some $d > 0$, it suffices to bound $\mathbb{E}M''_k$. Condition on $G''_n$ and explore from some vertex not in $C$. To uncover a component counted by $M''_k$, this exploration must cross from late to early vertices at least $k^{1/4}$ times – each time we reach a component of size at most $k^{1/4}$, and from each of these vertices we get back to at most $k^{1/4}$ late vertices, and from each of these to at most $k^{1/4}$ other late vertices before we next cross over to early vertices. However, every time we find an edge from a late to an early vertex (conditioning on the presence of such an edge but not its destination early vertex), we have probability at least $\rho(\lambda \kappa)/2$ of hitting $C$. It follows that $\mathbb{E}M''_k \leq n(1 - \rho(\lambda \kappa)/2)^{k^{1/4}}$, and (6.57) follows.

Note that since $\tilde{\chi}(\lambda \kappa)$ is a discontinuous function of $\lambda$, we cannot obtain convergence to $\tilde{\chi}(\lambda \kappa)$ for an arbitrary sequence $\lambda_n \to \lambda$, as in Theorem 4.7 and Section 6.1. In fact, it follows easily from Theorem 4.1 that if $\lambda_n \searrow \lambda_{cr}$ slowly enough, then $\chi(G^V(n, \lambda_n \kappa)) \xrightarrow{p} \infty > \tilde{\chi}(\lambda_{cr} \kappa)$ and $\tilde{\chi}(G^V(n, \lambda_n \kappa)) > \lim_{\lambda \searrow \lambda_{cr}} \tilde{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) - \varepsilon = 4 - \varepsilon > \tilde{\chi}(\lambda_{cr} \kappa)$ whp for every $\varepsilon \in (0, 2)$, for any vertex space $V$ (with $S$ and $\mu$ as above), and thus in particular for $G''_n$.

6.4. Dubins’ model. A random graph closely related to the CHKNS model is the graph $G^V(n, \lambda \kappa)$ with kernel

$$\kappa(x, y) := \frac{1}{x \lor y}$$

(6.58)
on $S = (0, 1]$, where the vertex space $V$ is as in Section 6.3 so $x_n = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$. In this case, the probability $p_{ij}$ of an edge between $i$ and $j$ is given (for $\lambda \leq 1$) by $p_{ij} = \lambda \kappa(i/n, j/n)/n = \lambda/(i \lor j)$. Note that this is independent of $n$, so we may regard $G^V(n, \lambda \kappa)$ as an induced subgraph of an infinite random graph with vertex set $\mathbb{N}$ and these edge probabilities, with independent edges.

This infinite random graph was introduced by Dubins, who asked when it is a.s. connected. Shepp [30] proved that this holds if and only if $\lambda > 1/4$. The finite random graph $G^V(n, \lambda \kappa)$ was studied by Durrett [16, 17], who showed that $\lambda_{cr} = 1/4$; thus the critical value for the emergence of a giant component in the finite version coincides with the critical value for connectedness of the infinite version. See also [3, 29, 4].

We have

$$T_{\lambda \kappa} f(x) = \frac{\lambda}{x} \int_0^x f(y) \, dy + \lambda \int_x^1 \frac{f(y)}{y} \, dy.$$ 

(6.59)
We can solve (3.5) as in Section 6.3; we get the same equation (6.28) and thus the same solutions $f(x) = C_+ x^{\alpha_+ - 1} + C_- x^{\alpha_- - 1}$ (unless $\lambda = 1/4$ when we also get a logarithmic term), and substitution into (6.59) shows that this is a solution of (3.5) if and only if
\[
C_+ + \frac{x^{\alpha_+ - 1}}{2} + C_- = 1, \quad \text{see (6.62) below.}
\]
If $0 < \lambda < 1/4$, so $\alpha_+ > 1/2$, there is thus a positive solution $f(x) = \alpha_+^{-1} x^{\alpha_+ - 1}$ in $L^2$. (This is the unique solution in $L^2$, by a direct check or by Corollary 3.6.) Hence, Corollary 3.6 yields
\[
\chi(\lambda \kappa) = \int_0^1 f(x) \, dx = \alpha_+^{-2} = \frac{1 - 2\lambda - \sqrt{1 - 4\lambda}}{2\lambda^2}, \quad 0 < \lambda < 1/4. \quad (6.60)
\]
Since this function is analytic on $(0, 1/4)$ but has a singularity at $\lambda = 1/4$, Theorem 5.1 shows that $\lambda_{cr} = 1/4$, which gives a new proof of this result by Durrett [16]. Note that $\chi(\lambda_{cr} \kappa) = 4$ is finite.

We can estimate the expected number of paths as in Section 6.3, and show by Lemmas 4.6 and 4.3 that $\chi(G_V(n, \lambda \kappa))^p \to \chi(\lambda \kappa)$ for any $\lambda > 0$.

In the supercritical case, the tail bound (6.59) goes through, showing that for any $\lambda > \lambda_{cr}$ we have $\tilde{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) < \infty$, and $\tilde{\chi}(G_V(n, \lambda \kappa))^p \to \tilde{\chi}(\lambda \kappa)$. Unfortunately, while the argument gives a tail bound on the sum $\sum_k k \rho_k(\lambda \kappa)$ for each fixed $\lambda > \lambda_{cr}$, the dependence on $\lambda$ is rather bad, so it does not seem to tell us anything about the behaviour of $\tilde{\chi}(\lambda \kappa)$ as $\lambda$ approaches the critical point.

We can easily calculate $\rho_k$ for small $k$. First, by (6.59), $T_{\lambda \kappa} 1(x) = \lambda - \lambda \log x$. Hence (6.1) yields
\[
\rho_1(\lambda \kappa; x) = e^{-\lambda + \lambda \log x} = e^{-\lambda} x^\lambda.
\]
Further, instead of (6.31) we now have, for every non-zero $\gamma > -1$,
\[
T_{\lambda \kappa}(x^\gamma) = \frac{\lambda}{\gamma} - \frac{\lambda}{\gamma(\gamma + 1)} x^\gamma.
\]
Hence (6.2) yields
\[
\rho_2(\lambda \kappa; x) = e^{-\lambda} x^\lambda T_{\lambda \kappa}(e^{-\lambda} x^\lambda) = e^{-\lambda} x^{2\lambda} \left( 1 - \frac{x^{\lambda}}{\lambda + 1} \right).
\]
Similarly, by (6.3) and some calculations,
\[
\rho_3(\lambda \kappa; x) = \frac{e^{-3\lambda}}{2(1 + \lambda)^2(1 + 2\lambda)(1 + \lambda)(1 + 2\lambda)(1 + 3\lambda)(1 + 2\lambda)(1 + 3\lambda)}
\]
and so on. By integration we then obtain
\[
\rho_1(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}}{1 + \lambda}, \quad \rho_2(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{2\lambda e^{-2\lambda}}{(1 + \lambda)(1 + 2\lambda)},
\]
\[
(2 + 3\lambda)x^{3\lambda} - 4(1 + 2\lambda)(1 + \lambda)x^{2\lambda} + (2 + 3\lambda)(1 + 2\lambda)(1 + \lambda)x^{\lambda},
\]
and so on. By integration we then obtain
\[
(2 + 3\lambda)x^{3\lambda} - 4(1 + 2\lambda)(1 + \lambda)x^{2\lambda} + (2 + 3\lambda)(1 + 2\lambda)(1 + \lambda)x^{\lambda},
\]
and so on. By integration we then obtain
\[
\rho_1(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{e^{-\lambda}}{1 + \lambda},
\]
\[
\rho_2(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{2\lambda e^{-2\lambda}}{(1 + \lambda)(1 + 2\lambda)},
\]
\[ \rho_3(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{(15 \lambda^2 + 18 \lambda^3) e^{-3\lambda}}{2(1 + \lambda)^2(1 + 2\lambda)(1 + 3\lambda)}. \] (6.66)

It is clear that each \( \rho_k(\lambda \kappa) \) is \( e^{-k\lambda} \) times a rational function of \( \lambda \), but we do not know any general formula or a recursion that enables us to calculate \( \hat{\chi}(\lambda \kappa) \) in the supercritical case as in Section 6.3.

6.5. Functions of \( \max\{x, y\} \). The examples in Sections 6.3 and 6.4 are both of the type \( \kappa(x, y) = \varphi(x \vee y) \) for some function \( \varphi \) on \((0, 1]\). It is known that if, for example, \( \varphi(x) = O(1/x) \), then \( T_\kappa \) is bounded on \( L^2 \), and thus there exists a positive \( \lambda_{\text{cr}} > 0 \); see [25, 1] and [4, Section 16.6].

We have

\[ T_{\lambda \kappa} f(x) = \lambda \varphi(x) \int_0^x f(y) \, dy + \lambda \int_x^1 \varphi(y) f(y) \, dy. \] (6.67)

If \( \varphi \in C^1(0, 1] \), then any integrable solution of (3.5) must be in \( C^1(0, 1] \) too, and differentiation yields \( f' = \lambda \varphi' F \), where \( F(x) := \int_0^x f(y) \, dy \) is the primitive function of \( f \); furthermore, we have \( f(1) = 1 + T_{\lambda \kappa} f(1) = 1 + \lambda \varphi(1) F(1) \). Hence, solving (3.5) is equivalent to solving the Sturm–Liouville problem

\[ F''(x) = \lambda \varphi'(x) F(x) \] (6.68)

with the boundary conditions

\[ F(0) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad F'(1) = \lambda \varphi(1) F(1) + 1. \] (6.69)

If there is a solution to (6.68) and (6.69) with \( F' \geq 0 \) and \( F' \in L^2 \), then Corollary 3.6 shows that

\[ \chi(\lambda \kappa) = \int_0^1 F'(x) \, dx = F(1). \] (6.70)

The examples in Sections 6.3 and 6.4 are examples of this, as is the Erdős–Rényi case in Section 6.1 (\( \varphi = 1 \)). We consider one more simple explicit example.

Example 6.7. Let \( \varphi(x) = 1 - x \). Then (6.68) becomes \( F'' = -\lambda F \), with the solution, using (6.69), \( F(x) = A \sin(\sqrt{\lambda} x) \) with \( A \sqrt{\lambda} \cos(\sqrt{\lambda} x) = 1 \). This solution satisfies \( F' \geq 0 \) if \( \sqrt{\lambda} < \pi/2 \), so we find \( \lambda_{\text{cr}} = \pi^2/4 \) and, by (6.70),

\[ \chi(\lambda \kappa) = \frac{\tan(\sqrt{\lambda})}{\sqrt{\lambda}}, \quad \lambda < \lambda_{\text{cr}} = \pi^2/4. \] (6.71)

6.6. Further examples. We give also a couple of counterexamples.

Example 6.8. Let \( S = \{1, 2\} \), with \( \mu \{1\} = \mu \{2\} = 1/2 \), and let \( \kappa_\varepsilon(1, 1) = 2 \), \( \kappa_\varepsilon(2, 2) = 1 \) and \( \kappa_\varepsilon(1, 2) = \kappa_\varepsilon(2, 1) = \varepsilon \) for \( \varepsilon \geq 0 \).

For \( \varepsilon = 0 \), \( \kappa_0 \) is reducible; given the numbers \( n_1 \) and \( n_2 \) of vertices of the two types, the random graph \( G^\gamma(n, \lambda \kappa_0) \) consists of two disjoint independent random graphs \( G(n_1, 2\lambda/n) \) and \( G(n_2, \lambda/n) \); since \( n_1/n, n_2/n \xrightarrow{p} 1/2 \), the
first part has a threshold at $\lambda = 1$ and the second a threshold at $\lambda = 2$. Similarly, the branching process $X_{\lambda\kappa_0}(x)$ is a single-type Galton–Watson process with offspring distribution $Po(\lambda)$ if $x = 1$ and $Po(\lambda/2)$ if $x = 2$, so $X_{\lambda\kappa_0}$ is a mixture of these. Hence, if $\hat{\chi}(\lambda)$ denotes the (modified) susceptibility in the Erdős–Rényi case, given by (6.5) for $\lambda < 1$ and (6.6) for $\lambda \geq 1$, then

$$\hat{\chi}(\lambda\kappa_0) = \frac{1}{2} \hat{\chi}_1(\lambda) + \frac{1}{2} \hat{\chi}_1(\lambda/2),$$

(6.72)

so $\hat{\chi}(\lambda\kappa_0)$ has two singularities, at $\lambda = 1$ and $\lambda = 2$. Clearly, $\lambda_{cr} = 1$.

Now consider $\varepsilon > 0$ and let $\varepsilon \searrow 0$. Then $\lambda_{cr}(\kappa\varepsilon) < \lambda_{cr}(\kappa_0) = 1$. Furthermore, for any fixed $\lambda$, $\rho(\lambda\kappa_\varepsilon, x) \to \rho(\lambda\kappa_0, x)$ by [4, Theorem 6.4(ii)], and hence $T_{\lambda\kappa_\varepsilon} \to T_{\lambda\kappa_0}$ (we may regard the operators as $2 \times 2$ matrices). Consequently, if $\lambda > 1$ with $\lambda \neq 2$ and thus $\|T_{\lambda\kappa_0}\| < 1$, then

$$(I - T_{\lambda\kappa_0})^{-1} \to (I - T_{\lambda\kappa_0})^{-1},$$

and thus $\hat{\chi}(\lambda\kappa_\varepsilon) \to \hat{\chi}(\lambda\kappa_0)$ by Theorem 3.3. This holds for $\lambda = 2$ also, with the limit $\hat{\chi}(2\kappa_0) = \infty$, for example by (5.4) and Fatou’s lemma.

Since $\hat{\chi}(\lambda\kappa_0)$ has singularities both at 1 and 2, we may choose $\delta \in (0, 1/2)$ such that $\hat{\chi}((1 + \delta)\kappa_0) > \hat{\chi}(2\kappa_0)$ and $\hat{\chi}((2 - \delta)\kappa_0) > \hat{\chi}(2\kappa_0)$, and then choose $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $\hat{\chi}((1 + \delta)\kappa_\varepsilon) > \hat{\chi}(2\kappa_\varepsilon)$ and $\hat{\chi}((2 - \delta)\kappa_\varepsilon) > \hat{\chi}(2\kappa_\varepsilon)$. This yields an example of an irreducible kernel $\kappa$ such that $\hat{\chi}(\lambda\kappa)$ is not monotone decreasing on $(\lambda_{cr}, \infty)$.

**Example 6.9.** Theorem 4.7 shows convergence of $\chi(G^V(n, \kappa))$ to $\chi(\kappa)$ for any vertex space $V$ when $\kappa$ is bounded. For unbounded $\kappa$, some restriction on the vertex space is necessary. ( Cf. Theorem 4.8 with a very strong condition on $V$ and none on $\kappa$.) The reason is that our conditions on $V$ are weak and do not notice sets of vertices of order $o(n)$, but such sets can mess up $\chi$.

In fact, assume that $\kappa$ is unbounded. For each $n \geq 16$, find $(a_n, b_n) \in S^2$ with $\kappa(a_n, b_n) > n$. Define $\kappa_0$ by taking $\lfloor n^{3/4} \rfloor$ points $x_i = a_n$, $\lfloor n^{3/4} \rfloor$ points $x_i = b_n$, and the remaining $n - 2\lfloor n^{3/4} \rfloor$ points i.i.d. at random with distribution $\mu$. It is easily seen that this yields a vertex space $V$, and that we have created a component with at least $2\lfloor n^{3/4} \rfloor$ vertices. Consequently, $|C_1| > n^{3/4}$, and by (1.2), $\chi(G^V(n, \kappa)) \geq |C_1|^2/n > n^{1/2}$, so $\chi(G^V(n, \kappa)) \to \infty$, even if $\kappa$ is subcritical and thus $\chi(\kappa) < \infty$.

Using a similar construction (but this time for more specific kernels $\kappa$), it is easy to give examples of unbounded supercritical $\kappa$ with $\hat{\chi}(\kappa) < \infty$ but $\hat{\chi}(G^V(n, \kappa)) \to \infty$ for suitable vertex spaces $V$.

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