Random Networks

Principles of Complex Systems | @pocsvox CSYS/MATH 300, Fall, 2015 | #FallPoCS2015

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Models

Some important models:

- 1. Generalized random networks;
- 2. Small-world networks;
- 3. Generalized affiliation networks;
- 4. Scale-free networks;
- 5. Statistical generative models (p^*).

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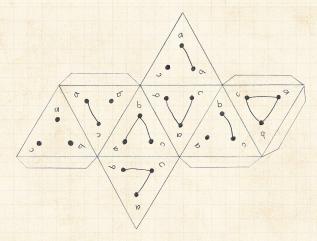
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Random network generator for N=3:



- ► Get your own exciting generator here .
- As $N \nearrow$, polyhedral die rapidly becomes a ball...

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Pure, abstract random networks:

- Consider set of all networks with N labelled nodes and m edges.
- Standard random network = one randomly chosen network from this set.
- ▶ To be clear: each network is equally probable.
- Sometimes equiprobability is a good assumption, but it is always an assumption.
- Known as Erdős-Rényi random networks or ER graphs.

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Random networks—basic features:

Number of possible edges:

$$0 \le m \le {N \choose 2} = \frac{N(N-1)}{2}$$

- \blacktriangleright Limit of m=0: empty graph.
- ▶ Limit of $m = \binom{N}{2}$: complete or fully-connected graph.
- ▶ Number of possible networks with N labelled nodes:

$$2^{\binom{N}{2}} \sim e^{\frac{\ln 2}{2}N^2}.$$

- Given m edges, there are $\binom{\binom{N}{2}}{m}$ different possible networks.
- ▶ Crazy factorial explosion for $1 \ll m \ll \binom{N}{2}$.
- ▶ Real world: links are usually costly so real networks are almost always sparse.

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How to build standard random networks:

- ightharpoonup Given N and m.
- Two probablistic methods (we'll see a third later on)
- 1. Connect each of the $\binom{N}{2}$ pairs with appropriate probability p.
 - Useful for theoretical work.
- 2. Take N nodes and add exactly m links by selecting edges without replacement.
 - ▶ Algorithm: Randomly choose a pair of nodes i and j, $i \neq j$, and connect if unconnected; repeat until all m edges are allocated.
 - Best for adding relatively small numbers of links (most cases).
 - ▶ 1 and 2 are effectively equivalent for large *N*.

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A few more things:

For method 1, # links is probablistic:

$$\langle m \rangle = p {N \choose 2} = p \frac{1}{2} N(N-1)$$

▶ So the expected or average degree is

$$\langle k \rangle = \frac{2 \langle m \rangle}{N}$$

$$= \frac{2}{N} p \frac{1}{2} N(N-1) = \frac{2}{\mathcal{M}} p \frac{1}{2} \mathcal{N}(N-1) = p(N-1).$$

- Which is what it should be...
- ▶ If we keep $\langle k \rangle$ constant then $p \propto 1/N \to 0$ as $N \to \infty$.

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Random networks: examples

Next slides:

Example realizations of random networks

- N = 500
- \triangleright Vary m, the number of edges from 100 to 1000.
- ▶ Average degree $\langle k \rangle$ runs from 0.4 to 4.
- ▶ Look at full network plus the largest component.

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Random networks: examples for N=500

m = 200m = 230 $\langle k \rangle = 0.8$ (k) = 0.92m = 250 $\langle k \rangle = 1$ m = 100m = 240(k) = 0.4 $\langle k \rangle = 0.96$ m = 260 $\langle k \rangle = 1.04$ m = 500m = 1000m = 300m = 280 $\langle k \rangle = 2$

 $\langle k \rangle = 1.2$

 $\langle k \rangle$ = 1.12

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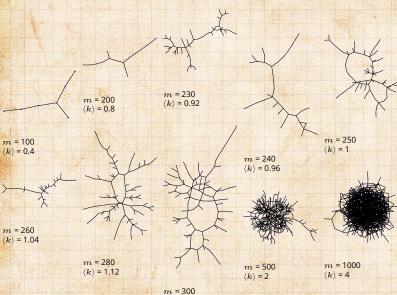




 $\langle k \rangle = 4$



Random networks: largest components



 $\langle k \rangle = 1.2$

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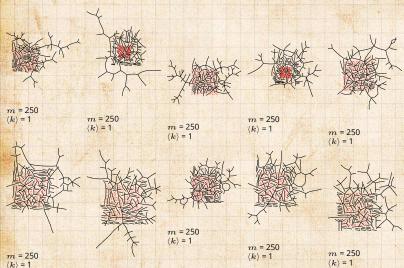








Random networks: examples for N=500



m = 250

 $\langle k \rangle = 1$

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Random networks: largest components



$$m = 250$$
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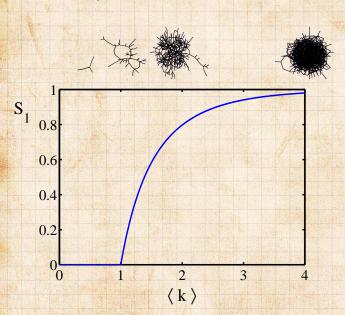
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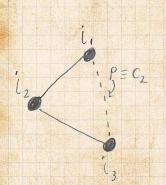




Clustering in random networks:

- For construction method 1, what is the clustering coefficient for a finite network?
- Consider triangle/triple clustering coefficient: [5]

$$C_2 = \frac{3 \times \text{\#triangles}}{\text{\#triples}}$$



- ▶ Recall: C₂ = probability that two friends of a node are also friends.
- ▶ Or: C_2 = probability that a triple is part of a triangle.
- For standard random networks, we have simply that

$$C_2 = p$$
.

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Clustering in random networks:



- So for large random networks $(N \to \infty)$, clustering drops to zero.
- Key structural feature of random networks is that they locally look like pure branching networks
- ▶ No small loops.

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Degree distribution:

- Recall P_k = probability that a randomly selected node has degree k.
- Consider method 1 for constructing random networks: each possible link is realized with probability p.
- Now consider one node: there are N-1 choose k'ways the node can be connected to k of the other N-1 nodes.
- \blacktriangleright Each connection occurs with probability p, each non-connection with probability (1-p).
- ▶ Therefore have a binomial distribution <a>C:

$$P(k;p,N)={N-1\choose k}p^k(1-p)^{N-1-k}.$$

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Limiting form of P(k; p, N):

- Our degree distribution: $P(k; p, N) = {\binom{N-1}{k}} p^k (1-p)^{N-1-k}.$
- ▶ What happens as $N \to \infty$?
- We must end up with the normal distribution right?
- \blacktriangleright If p is fixed, then we would end up with a Gaussian with average degree $\langle k \rangle \simeq pN \to \infty$.
- ▶ But we want to keep $\langle k \rangle$ fixed...
- ▶ So examine limit of P(k; p, N) when $p \to 0$ and $N \to \infty$ with $\langle k \rangle = p(N-1)$ = constant.

$$P(k;p,N) \simeq \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} \left(1 - \frac{\langle k \rangle}{N-1}\right)^{N-1-k} \to \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle}$$

▶ This is a Poisson distribution \square with mean $\langle k \rangle$.

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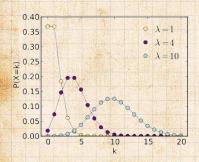
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$$P(k;\lambda) = \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}$$





- $\lambda > 0$
- k = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...
- Classic use: probability that an event occurs k times in a given time period, given an average rate of occurrence.
- e.g.: phone calls/minute, horse-kick deaths.
- 'Law of small numbers'

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Normalization: we must have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P(k; \langle k \rangle) = 1$$

Checking:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P(k; \langle k \rangle) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle}$$
$$= e^{-\langle k \rangle} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!}$$
$$= e^{-\langle k \rangle} e^{\langle k \rangle} = 1$$

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Mean degree: we must have

$$\langle k \rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P(k; \langle k \rangle).$$

Checking:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P(k;\langle k \rangle) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle}$$

$$= e^{-\langle k \rangle} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{(k-1)!}$$

$$= \langle k \rangle e^{-\langle k \rangle} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\langle k \rangle^{k-1}}{(k-1)!}$$

$$= \langle k \rangle e^{-\langle k \rangle} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\langle k \rangle^i}{i!} = \langle k \rangle e^{-\langle k \rangle} e^{\langle k \rangle} = \langle k \rangle$$

► In CoNKs, we get to a better and crazier way of doing this...

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- The variance of degree distributions for random networks turns out to be very important.
- ▶ Using calculation similar to one for finding $\langle k \rangle$ we find the second moment to be:

$$\langle k^2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle^2 + \langle k \rangle.$$

▶ Variance is then

$$\sigma^2 = \langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle^2 = \langle k \rangle^2 + \langle k \rangle - \langle k \rangle^2 = \langle k \rangle.$$

- ▶ So standard deviation σ is equal to $\sqrt{\langle k \rangle}$.
- Note: This is a special property of Poisson distribution and can trip us up...

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General random networks

- So... standard random networks have a Poisson degree distribution
- ▶ Generalize to arbitrary degree distribution P_k .
- ► Also known as the configuration model. [5]
- Can generalize construction method from ER random networks.
- Assign each node a weight w from some distribution P_w and form links with probability

 $P(\text{link between } i \text{ and } j) \propto w_i w_j.$

- But we'll be more interested in
 - Randomly wiring up (and rewiring) already existing nodes with fixed degrees.
 - 2. Examining mechanisms that lead to networks with certain degree distributions.

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Random networks: examples

Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

- N = 1000.
- $P_k \propto k^{-\gamma}$ for $k \geq 1$.
- ightharpoonup Set $P_0 = 0$ (no isolated nodes).
- \triangleright Vary exponent γ between 2.10 and 2.91.
- Again, look at full network plus the largest component.
- ▶ Apart from degree distribution, wiring is random.

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Random networks: examples for N=1000

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 $\gamma = 2.19$ $\langle k \rangle = 2.986$

 γ = 2.28 $\langle k \rangle$ = 2.306

 γ = 2.37 $\langle k \rangle$ = 2.504

 γ = 2.46 $\langle k \rangle$ = 1.856



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 $\gamma = 2.55$ $\langle k \rangle = 1.712$

 γ = 2.64 $\langle k \rangle$ = 1.6

 γ = 2.73 $\langle k \rangle$ = 1.862

 γ = 2.82 $\langle k \rangle$ = 1.386

 γ = 2.91 $\langle k \rangle$ = 1.49



Random networks: largest components

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 $\gamma = 2.28$

 $\langle k \rangle = 2.306$





 $\gamma = 2.37$ $\langle k \rangle = 2.504$

 $\gamma = 2.46$ $\langle k \rangle = 1.856$



 $\gamma = 2.1$ $\langle k \rangle = 3.448$



 $\gamma = 2.19$

 $\langle k \rangle = 2.986$









 $\gamma = 2.55$ $\gamma = 2.64$ $\langle k \rangle = 1.712$ $\langle k \rangle = 1.6$

 $\gamma = 2.73$ $\langle k \rangle = 1.862$

 $\gamma = 2.82$ $\langle k \rangle = 1.386$

 $\langle k \rangle = 1.49$



Models

Generalized random networks:

- \blacktriangleright Arbitrary degree distribution P_k .
- ► Create (unconnected) nodes with degrees sampled from P_k .
- Wire nodes together randomly.
- Create ensemble to test deviations from randomness.

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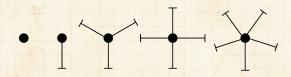


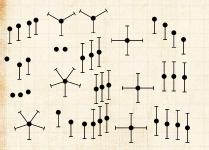


Building random networks: Stubs

Phase 1:

Idea: start with a soup of unconnected nodes with stubs (half-edges):





- Randomly select stubs (not nodes!) and connect them.
- Must have an even number of stubs.
- Initially allow self- and repeat connections.

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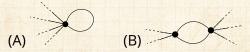


Building random networks: First rewiring

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Phase 2:

Now find any (A) self-loops and (B) repeat edges and randomly rewire them.



- ▶ Being careful: we can't change the degree of any node, so we can't simply move links around.
- Simplest solution: randomly rewire two edges at a time.

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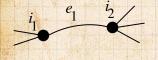
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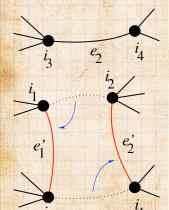
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General random rewiring algorithm





- Randomly choose two edges.
 (Or choose problem edge and a random edge)
- Check to make sure edges are disjoint.

- ► Rewire one end of each edge.
- ▶ Node degrees do not change.
- Norks if e_1 is a self-loop or repeated edge.
- ➤ Same as finding on/off/on/off 4-cycles. and rotating them.

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Sampling random networks

Phase 2:

Use rewiring algorithm to remove all self and repeat loops.

Phase 3:

- Randomize network wiring by applying rewiring algorithm liberally.
- ▶ Rule of thumb: # Rewirings $\simeq 10 \times \text{# edges}^{[3]}$.

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The edge-degree distribution:

- The degree distribution P_k is fundamental for our description of many complex networks
- ightharpoonup Again: P_k is the degree of randomly chosen node.
- A second very important distribution arises from choosing randomly on edges rather than on nodes.
- Define Q_k to be the probability the node at a random end of a randomly chosen edge has degree k.
- Now choosing nodes based on their degree (i.e., size):

 $Q_k \propto k P_k$

Normalized form:

$$Q_k = \frac{kP_k}{\sum_{k'=0}^{\infty} k' P_{k'}} = \frac{kP_k}{\langle k \rangle}.$$

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- Probability of randomly selecting a node of degree k by choosing from nodes: $P_1 = 3/7$, $P_2 = 2/7$, $P_3 = 1/7$, $P_6 = 1/7$.
- Probability of landing on a node of degree k after randomly selecting an edge and then randomly choosing one direction to travel:

$$Q_1 = 3/16, Q_2 = 4/16, \ Q_3 = 3/16, Q_6 = 6/16.$$

Probability of finding # outgoing edges = k after randomly selecting an edge and then randomly choosing one direction to travel:

$$R_0 = 3/16 \ R_1 = 4/16,$$

 $R_2 = 3/16, R_5 = 6/16.$

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The edge-degree distribution:

- For random networks, Q_k is also the probability that a friend (neighbor) of a random node has k friends.
- ightharpoonup Useful variant on Q_k :

 R_k = probability that a friend of a random node has k other friends.

$$R_k = \frac{(k+1)P_{k+1}}{\sum_{k'=0} (k'+1)P_{k'+1}} = \frac{(k+1)P_{k+1}}{\langle k \rangle}$$

- ▶ Equivalent to friend having degree k + 1.
- Natural question: what's the expected number of other friends that one friend has?

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The edge-degree distribution:

Given R_k is the probability that a friend has k other friends, then the average number of friends' other friends is

$$\begin{split} \left\langle k \right\rangle_R &= \sum_{k=0}^\infty k R_k = \sum_{k=0}^\infty k \frac{(k+1)P_{k+1}}{\left\langle k \right\rangle} \\ &= \frac{1}{\left\langle k \right\rangle} \sum_{k=1}^\infty k(k+1)P_{k+1} \\ &= \frac{1}{\left\langle k \right\rangle} \sum_{k=1}^\infty \left((k+1)^2 - (k+1)\right) P_{k+1} \end{split}$$

(where we have sneakily matched up indices)

$$=\frac{1}{\langle k\rangle}\sum_{j=0}^{\infty}(j^2-j)P_j\quad \text{(using j = k+1)}$$

$$=\frac{1}{\langle k\rangle}\left(\langle k^2\rangle-\langle k\rangle\right)$$

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The edge-degree distribution:

- Note: our result, $\langle k \rangle_R = \frac{1}{\langle k \rangle} \left(\langle k^2 \rangle \langle k \rangle \right)$, is true for all random networks, independent of degree distribution.
- ► For standard random networks, recall

$$\langle k^2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle^2 + \langle k \rangle.$$

▶ Therefore:

$$\langle k \rangle_R = \frac{1}{\langle k \rangle} \left(\langle k \rangle^2 + \langle k \rangle - \langle k \rangle \right) = \langle k \rangle$$

- Again, neatness of results is a special property of the Poisson distribution.
- So friends on average have $\langle k \rangle$ other friends, and $\langle k \rangle + 1$ total friends...

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The edge-degree distribution:

- \triangleright In fact, R_{k} is rather special for pure random networks ...
- Substituting

$$P_k = \frac{\langle k \rangle^{\kappa}}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle}$$

into

$$R_k = \frac{(k+1)P_{k+1}}{\langle k \rangle}$$

we have

$$R_k = \frac{(k+1)}{\langle k \rangle} \frac{\langle k \rangle^{(k+1)}}{(k+1)!} e^{-\langle k \rangle} = \frac{(k+1)}{\langle k \rangle} \frac{\langle k \rangle^{(k+1)}}{(k+1)k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle}$$

$$=\frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!}e^{-\langle k \rangle} \equiv P_k.$$

#samesies.

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Two reasons why this matters

Reason #1:

Average # friends of friends per node is

$$\langle k_2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle \times \langle k \rangle_R = \langle k \rangle \frac{1}{\langle k \rangle} \left(\langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle \right) = \langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle.$$

- Key: Average depends on the 1st and 2nd moments of P_k and not just the 1st moment.
- ▶ Three peculiarities:
 - 1. We might guess $\langle k_2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle (\langle k \rangle -1)$ but it's actually $\langle k(k-1) \rangle$.
 - 2. If P_k has a large second moment, then $\langle k_2 \rangle$ will be big. (e.g., in the case of a power-law distribution)
 - 3. Your friends really are different from you... [2, 4]
 - 4. See also: class size paradoxes (nod to: Gelman)

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Two reasons why this matters

More on peculiarity #3:

- \blacktriangleright A node's average # of friends: $\langle k \rangle$
- Friend's average # of friends: $\frac{\langle k^2 \rangle}{\langle k \rangle}$
- ▶ Comparison:

$$\frac{\langle k^2 \rangle}{\langle k \rangle} = \langle k \rangle \frac{\langle k^2 \rangle}{\langle k \rangle^2} = \langle k \rangle \frac{\sigma^2 + \langle k \rangle^2}{\langle k \rangle^2} = \langle k \rangle \left(1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{\langle k \rangle^2} \right) \ge \langle k \rangle$$

- So only if everyone has the same degree (variance= $\sigma^2 = 0$) can a node be the same as its friends.
- Intuition: for random networks, the more connected a node, the more likely it is to be chosen as a friend.

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"Generalized friendship paradox in complex networks: The case of scientific collaboration"

Eom and Jo, Nature Scientific Reports, 4, 4603, 2014. [1]

Your friends really are monsters #winners:1

- Go on, hurt me: Friends have more coauthors, citations, and publications.
- Other horrific studies: your connections on Twitter have more followers than you, your sexual partners more partners than you, ...
- ▶ The hope: Maybe they have more enemies and diseases too.

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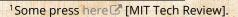
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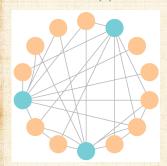






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Related disappointment:



- Nodes see their friends' color choices.
- Which color is more popular?1
- Again: thinking in edge space changes everything.

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Two reasons why this matters

(Big) Reason #2:

- $ightharpoonup \langle k
 angle_R$ is key to understanding how well random networks are connected together.
- e.g., we'd like to know what's the size of the largest component within a network.
- As $N \to \infty$, does our network have a giant component?
- Defn: Component = connected subnetwork of nodes such that ∃ path between each pair of nodes in the subnetwork, and no node outside of the subnetwork is connected to it.
- ▶ Defn: Giant component = component that comprises a non-zero fraction of a network as $N \to \infty$.
- ► Note: Component = Cluster

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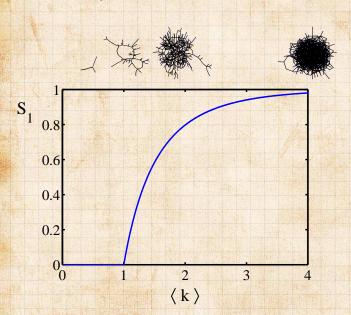
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Giant component



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Structure of random networks

Giant component:

- A giant component exists if when we follow a random edge, we are likely to hit a node with at least 1 other outgoing edge.
- Equivalently, expect exponential growth in node number as we move out from a random node.
- ▶ All of this is the same as requiring $\langle k \rangle_R > 1$.
- Giant component condition (or percolation condition):

$$\langle k \rangle_R = \frac{\langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle}{\langle k \rangle} > 1$$

- Again, see that the second moment is an essential part of the story.
- ▶ Equivalent statement: $\langle k^2 \rangle > 2 \langle k \rangle$

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Giant component for standard random networks:

- $\blacktriangleright \text{ Recall } \langle k^2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle^2 + \langle k \rangle.$
- ▶ Determine condition for giant component:

$$\langle k \rangle_R = \frac{\langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle}{\langle k \rangle} = \frac{\langle k \rangle^2 + \langle k \rangle - \langle k \rangle}{\langle k \rangle} = \langle k \rangle$$

- ▶ Therefore when $\langle k \rangle > 1$, standard random networks have a giant component.
- ▶ When $\langle k \rangle$ < 1, all components are finite.
- ▶ Fine example of a continuous phase transition ☑.
- We say $\langle k \rangle = 1$ marks the critical point of the system.

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Random networks with skewed P_k :

lacktriangle e.g, if $P_k=ck^{-\gamma}$ with $2<\gamma<3$, $k\geq 1$, then

$$\begin{split} \langle k^2 \rangle &= c \sum_{k=1}^\infty k^2 k^{-\gamma} \\ &\sim \int_{x=1}^\infty x^{2-\gamma} \mathrm{d}x \\ &\propto \left. x^{3-\gamma} \right|_{x=1}^\infty = \infty \quad (\gg \langle k \rangle). \end{split}$$

- So giant component always exists for these kinds of networks.
- ▶ Cutoff scaling is k^{-3} : if $\gamma > 3$ then we have to look harder at $\langle k \rangle_B$.
- \blacktriangleright How about $P_k = \delta_{kk_0}$?
- ► CoNKs: We figure out the final size and complete dynamics.

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Neural reboot (NR):

Falling maple leaf

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