

# Random Networks Nutshell

## Complex Networks | @networksvox

### CSYS/MATH 303, Spring, 2016

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## Sealie & Lambie Productions



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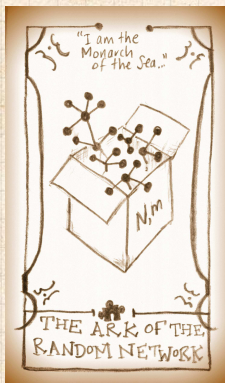
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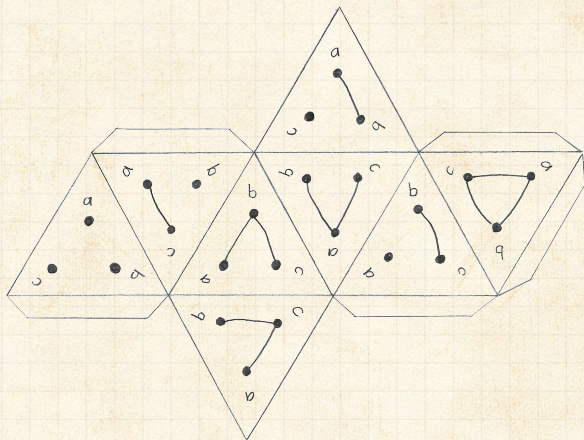
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# Random network generator for $N = 3$ :



- ▶ 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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- ▶ Number of possible edges:

$$0 \leq m \leq \binom{N}{2} = \frac{N(N-1)}{2}$$

- ▶ 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:

- ▶ Given  $N$  and  $m$ .
- ▶ Two probabilistic methods (we'll see a third one)

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 pick a pair of nodes (and check if they are connected); 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 probabilistic:

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

- ▶ So the expected or **average degree** is

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

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

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## A few more things:

- ▶ For method 1, # links is probabilistic:

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

- ▶ So the expected or **average degree** is

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

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

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

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Next slides:

Example realizations of random networks

- ▶  $N = 500$
- ▶ 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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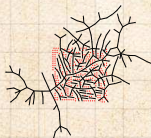
# Random networks: examples for $N=500$



$m = 100$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 0.4$



$m = 200$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 0.8$



$m = 230$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 0.92$



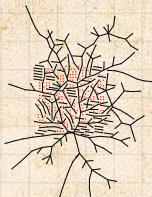
$m = 240$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 0.96$



$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



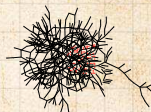
$m = 260$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.04$



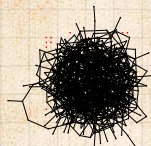
$m = 280$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.12$



$m = 300$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.2$



$m = 500$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 2$



$m = 1000$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 4$

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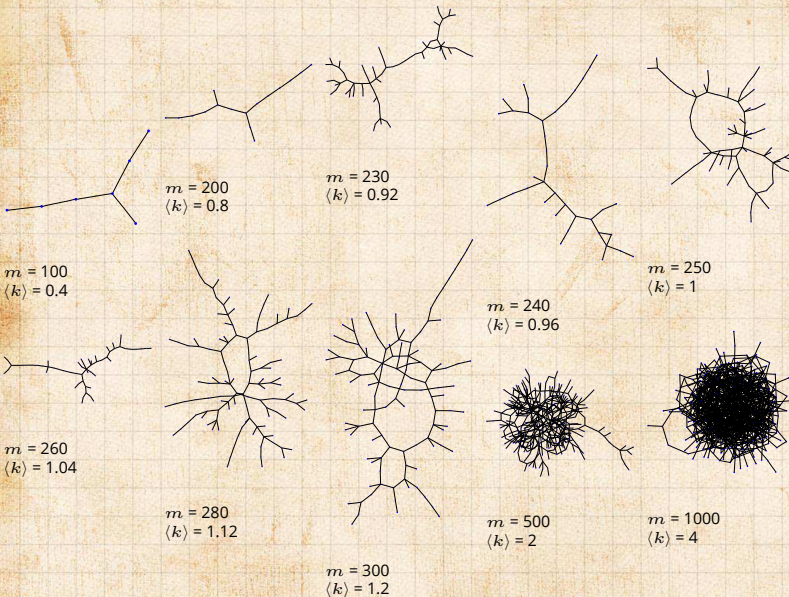
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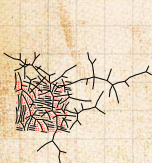
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$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



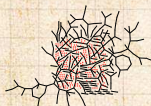
$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



$m = 250$   
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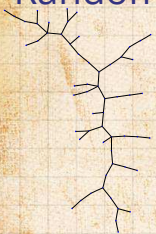
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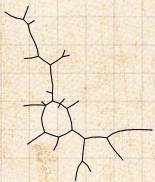
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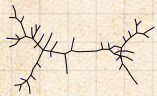
## References



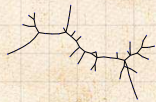
$m = 250$   
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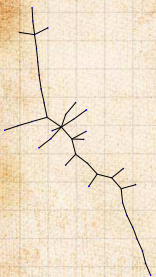
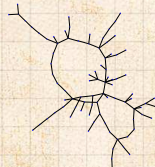
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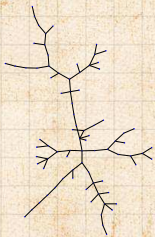
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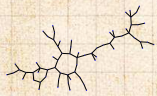
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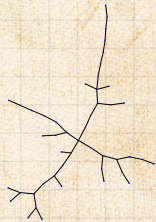
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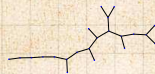
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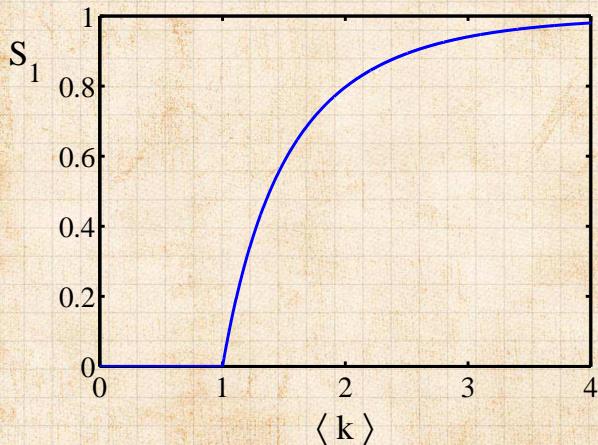
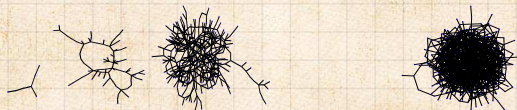


$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$



$m = 250$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1$

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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:

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

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# Clustering in random networks:

- ▶ For construction method 1, what is the clustering coefficient for a finite network?
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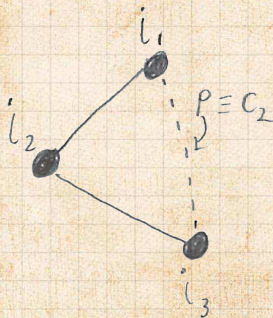
$$C_2 = \frac{3 \times \# \text{triangles}}{\# \text{triples}}$$

- ▶ Recall:  $C_2$  = 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

$$C_2 \approx 0$$



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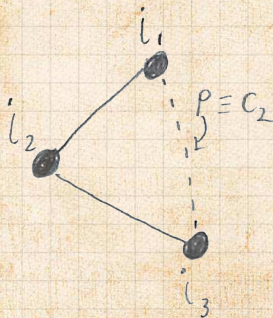
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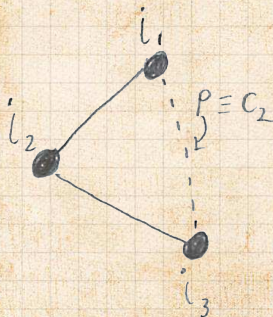
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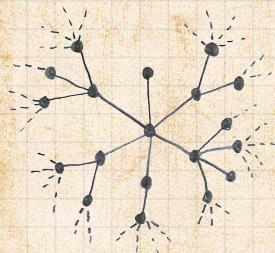
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- ▶ So for large random networks ( $N \rightarrow \infty$ ), clustering drops to zero.
- ▶ Key structural feature of random networks is that they locally look like pure branching networks
- ▶ No small loops.

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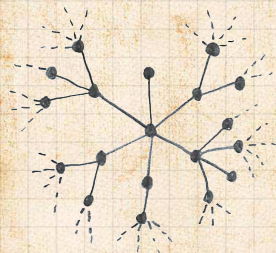
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## Degree distribution:

- ▶ 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.
- ▶ Each connection occurs with probability  $p$ , each non-connection with probability  $(1 - p)$ .
- ▶ Therefore have a binomial distribution  $\nearrow$ :

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

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

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

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

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- ▶ What happens as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ ?

- ▶ We must end up with the normal distribution right?

- ▶ If  $p$  is fixed, then we would end up with a Gaussian with average degree  $\langle k \rangle \simeq pN \rightarrow \infty$ .

- ▶ But we want to keep  $\langle k \rangle$  fixed...

- ▶ So examine limit of  $P(k; p, N)$  when  $p \rightarrow 0$  and  $N \rightarrow \infty$  with  $\langle k \rangle = p(N-1) = \text{constant}$ .

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

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

- ▶ Our degree distribution:

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- ▶ What happens as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ ?

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- ▶ If  $p$  is fixed, then we would end up with a Gaussian with average degree  $\langle k \rangle \simeq pN \rightarrow \infty$ .

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- ▶ So examine limit of  $P(k; p, N)$  when  $p \rightarrow 0$  and  $N \rightarrow \infty$  with  $\langle k \rangle = p(N-1) = \text{constant}$ .

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

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

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

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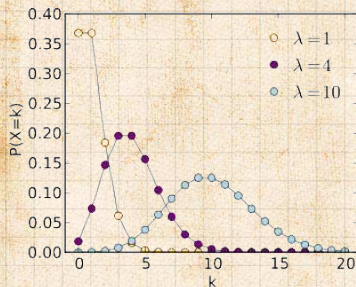
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# Poisson basics:

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



- ▶  $\lambda > 0$
- ▶  $k = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$
- ▶ 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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# Poisson basics:

- ▶ 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  $\sigma$  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. [1]
- ▶ Can generalize construction method from ER random networks.
- ▶ Assign each node a weight  $w_i$  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
  1. Randomly wiring up (and rewiring) already existing nodes with fixed degrees.
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Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

- ▶  $N = 1000$ .
- ▶  $P_k \propto k^{-\gamma}$  for  $k \geq 1$ .
- ▶ Set  $P_0 = 0$  (no isolated nodes).
- ▶ Vary exponent  $\gamma$  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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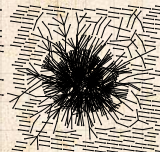
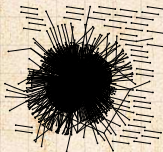
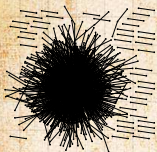
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# Random networks: examples for $N=1000$



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

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

$\gamma = 2.28$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 2.306$

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

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



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

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

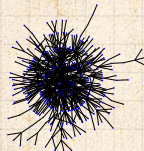
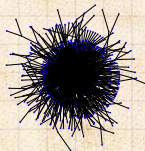
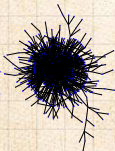
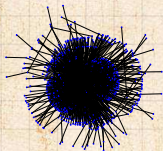
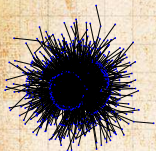
$\gamma = 2.73$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.862$

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

$\gamma = 2.91$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 1.49$



# Random networks: largest components



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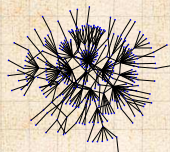
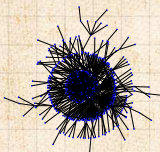
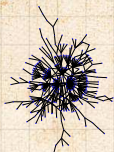
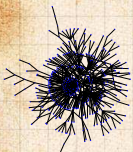
$\gamma = 2.1$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 3.448$

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

$\gamma = 2.28$   
 $\langle k \rangle = 2.306$

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

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



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

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

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

$\gamma = 2.82$   
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## Generalized random networks:

- ▶ 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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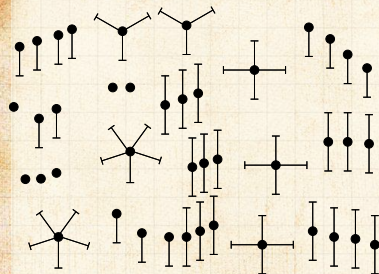
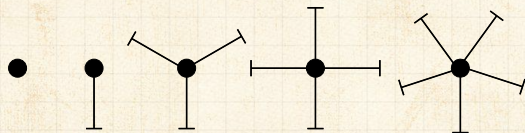
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# Building random networks: Stubs

## Phase 1:

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



- ▶ Randomly select stubs (or nodes) and connect them.
- ▶ Must have an even number of stubs.
- ▶ Initially allow self- and repeat connections

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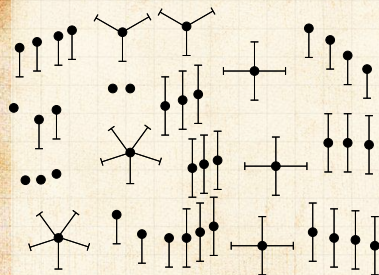
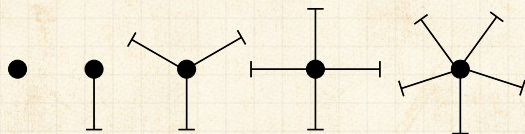




# Building random networks: Stubs

## 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.
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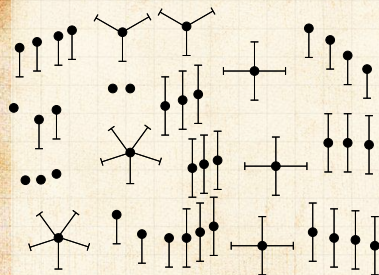
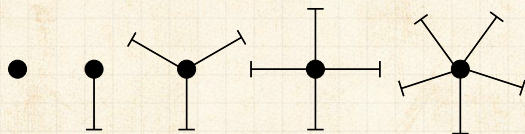
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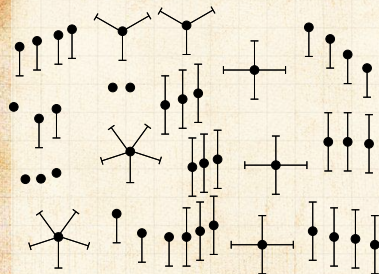
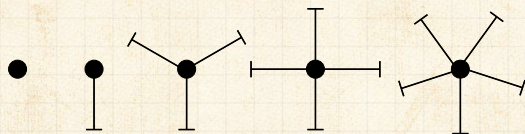
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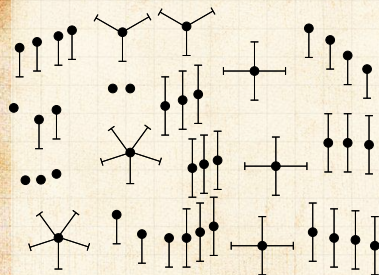
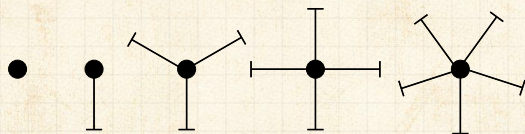
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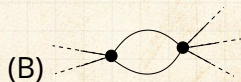
## References



# Building random networks: First rewiring

## 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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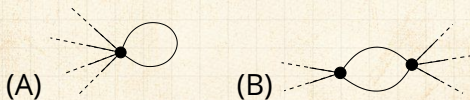
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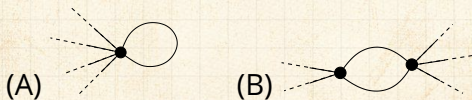
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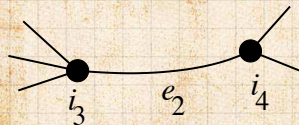
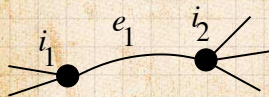
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# General random rewiring algorithm



- ▶ 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.
- ▶ Works if  $i_1 = i_2$  is a self-loop or repeated edge.
- ▶ Same as finding on/off/on/off 4-cycles, and rotating them.

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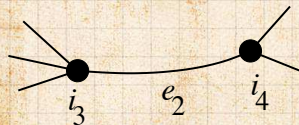
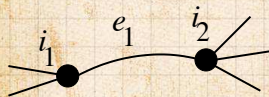
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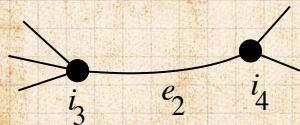
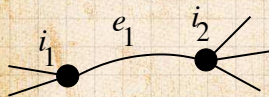
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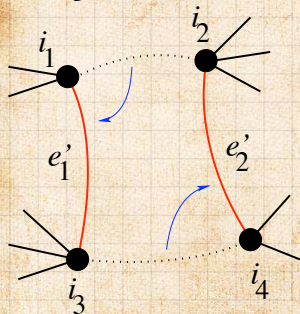
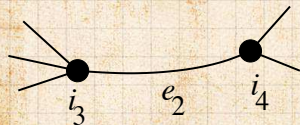
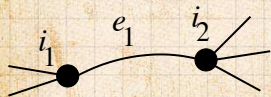
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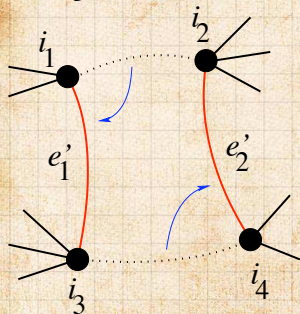
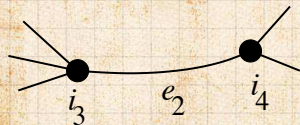
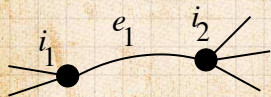
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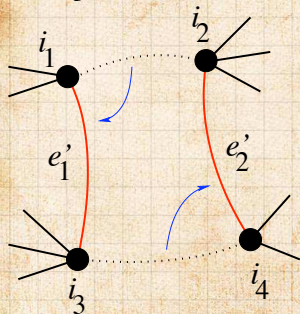
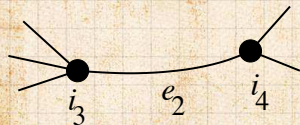
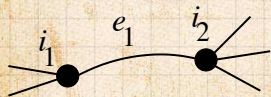
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## Phase 2:

- ▶ Use rewiring algorithm to remove all self and repeat loops.

## Phase 3:

- ▶ Randomize network wiring by applying rewiring algorithm liberally.
- ▶ Rule of thumb: # Rewirings  $\sim 10 \times$  # edges<sup>[3]</sup>

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- ▶ Problem with only joining up stubs is **failure** to randomly sample from all possible networks.
- ▶ Example from Milo et al. (2003) [\[5\]](#)

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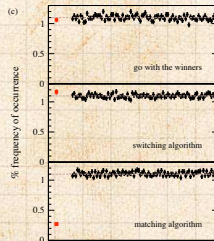
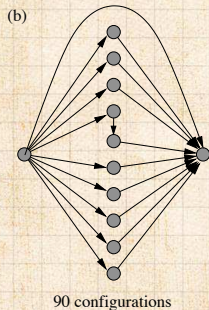
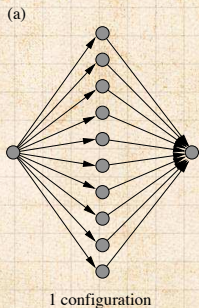
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# Sampling random networks

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- ▶ What if we have  $P_k$  instead of  $N_k$ ?
- ▶ Must now create nodes before start of the construction algorithm.
- ▶ Generate  $N$  nodes by sampling from degree distribution  $P_k$ .
- ▶ Easy to do exactly numerically since  $k$  is discrete.
- ▶ **Note:** not all  $P_k$  will always give nodes that can be wired together.

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- ▶ Easy to do exactly numerically since  $k$  is discrete.
- ▶ **Note:** not all  $P_k$  will always give nodes that can be wired together.

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- ▶ What if we have  $P_k$  instead of  $N_k$ ?
- ▶ Must now create nodes before start of the construction algorithm.
- ▶ Generate  $N$  nodes by sampling from degree distribution  $P_k$ .
- ▶ Easy to do exactly numerically since  $k$  is discrete.
- ▶ **Note:** not all  $P_k$  will always give nodes that can be wired together.

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- ▶ Idea of **motifs**<sup>[6]</sup> introduced by Shen-Orr, Alon et al. in 2002.
- ▶ Looked at gene expression within full context of transcriptional regulation networks.
- ▶ Specific example of *Escherichia coli*.
- ▶ Directed network with 577 interactions (edges) and 424 operons (nodes).
- ▶ Used network randomization to produce ensemble of alternate networks with same degree frequency  $N_k$ .
- ▶ Looked for **certain subnetworks** (motifs) that appeared more or less often than expected

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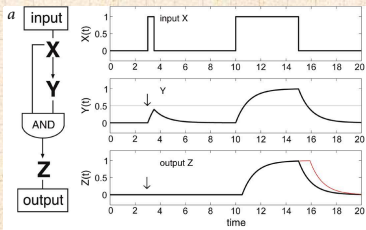
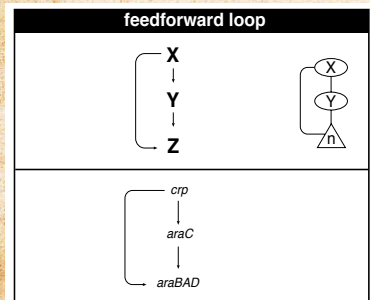
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- ▶  $Z$  only turns on in response to sustained activity in  $X$ .
- ▶ Turning off  $X$  rapidly turns off  $Z$ .
- ▶ Analogy to elevator doors.

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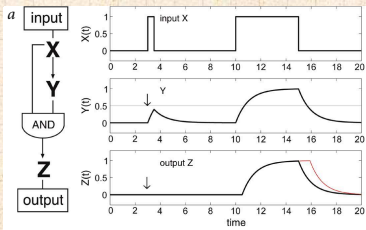
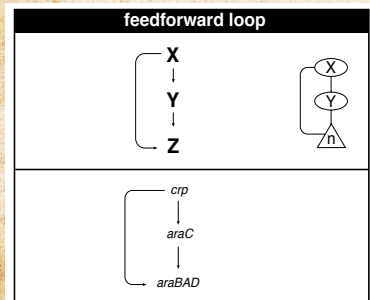
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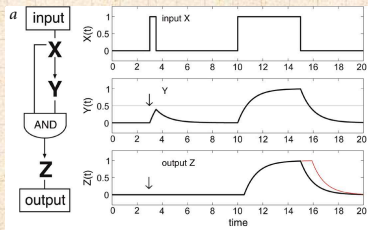
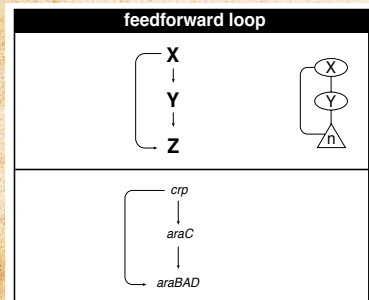
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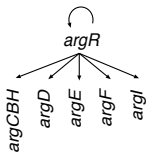
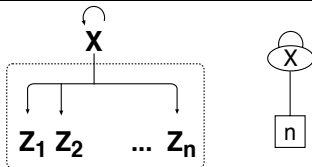
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## single input module (SIM)



- ▶ Master switch.

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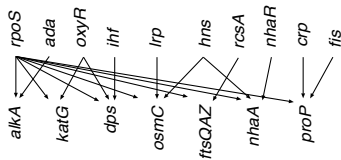
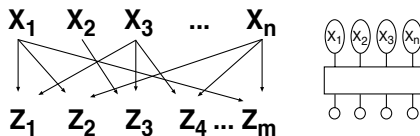
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## dense overlapping regulons (DOR)



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- ▶ **Note: selection of motifs to test is reasonable but nevertheless ad-hoc.**
- ▶ For more, see work carried out by Wiggins *et al.* at Columbia.

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- ▶ 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:

$$Q_k = \frac{k P_k}{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P_k} = \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle}$$

- ▶ **Rich-get-richer** mechanism is built into this selection process.

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- ▶ **Big deal:** Rich-get-richer mechanism is built into this selection process.

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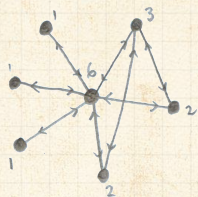
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- ▶ Probability of randomly selecting a node of degree  $k$  by choosing from nodes:

$$P_1 = 3/7, P_2 = 2/7, P_3 = 1/7, P_6 = 1/7.$$

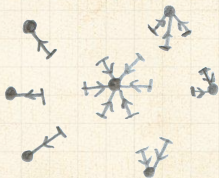


- ▶ Probability of landing on a node of degree  $k$  after randomly selecting an edge and then randomly choosing one direction to travel:

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

- ▶ 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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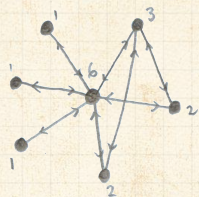
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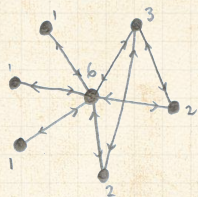
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# The edge-degree distribution:

- ▶ For random networks,  $Q_k$  is also the probability that a friend (neighbor) of a random node has  $k$  friends.

- ▶ Useful variant on  $Q_k$ :

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

- ▶

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

- ▶ 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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- ▶ Natural question: what's the expected number of other friends that one friend has?

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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.
- ▶ 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  $k+1$ .
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# The edge-degree distribution:

- ▶ Note: our result,  $\langle k \rangle_R = \frac{1}{\langle k \rangle} (\langle k^2 \rangle - \langle k \rangle)$ , 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:

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

- ▶ 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:

- ▶ In fact,  $R_k$  is rather special for pure random networks ...
- ▶ Substituting

$$P_k = \frac{(k)^k}{k!} e^{-k}$$

into

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

we have

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

$$= \frac{(k)^k}{k!} e^{-k} \equiv P_k$$

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# Two reasons why this matters

## Reason #1:

- ▶ Average # friends of friends per node is

$$\langle k_2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle \times \langle k \rangle_R$$

- ▶ Key: Average depends on the **1st and 2nd moments** of  $P_k$  and not just the 1st moment.
- ▶ Three peculiarities:

1. we might guess  $\langle k_2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle^2$  but it's actually  $\langle k \rangle \times \langle k \rangle_R$
2. if  $P_k$  has a large second moment,  $\langle k_2 \rangle$  will be big (e.g., in the case of a power-law distribution)
3. Your friends' friends are different from you... [2, 4]
4. See also: class size paradoxes (nod to: German)

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  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.
  3. In the case of a **power-law distribution**, your friends really are different from you...
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# Two reasons why this matters

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- ▶ Average # friends of friends per node is

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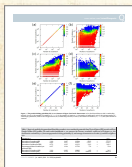
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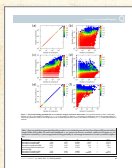
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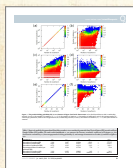
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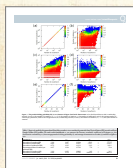
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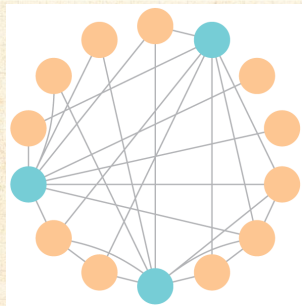
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## Related disappointment:



- ▶ Nodes see their friends' color choices.
- ▶ Which color is more popular?<sup>1</sup>

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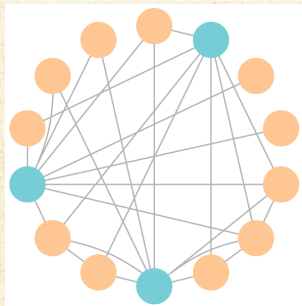
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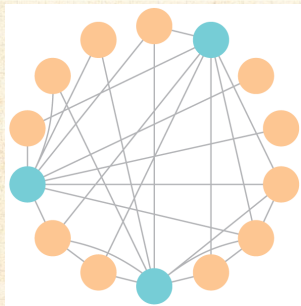
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## Related disappointment:



- ▶ Nodes see their friends' color choices.
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- ▶ Again: thinking in edge space changes everything.

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# Two reasons why this matters

## (Big) Reason #2:

- ▶  $\langle k \rangle_R$  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  $N \rightarrow \infty$ , does our network have a **giant component**?
- ▶ **Defn:** Component = connected subnetwork of nodes such that  $\exists$  path between each pair of nodes in the subnetwork, and no node outside of the subnetwork is connected to it.
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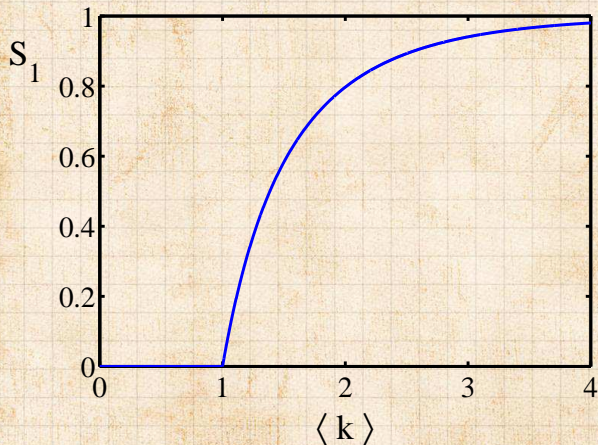
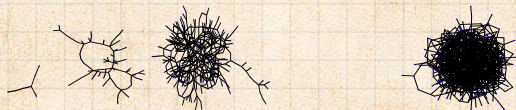
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# Structure of random networks

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

- ▶ 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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# 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.
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## Giant component for standard random networks:

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

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

- ▶ 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 $P_k$ :

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

$$\langle k^2 \rangle = c \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k^2 k^{-\gamma}$$

$$\sim \int_{x=1}^{\infty} x^{2-\gamma} dx$$

$$\propto x^{3-\gamma} \Big|_{x=1}^{\infty}$$

- ▶ 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  $\langle k \rangle_R$ .
- ▶ How about  $P_k = \delta_{kk_0}$ ?

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# Giant component

And how big is the largest component?

- ▶ Define  $S_1$  as the **size of the largest component**.
- ▶ Consider an infinite ER random network with average degree  $\langle k \rangle$ .
- ▶ Let's find  $S_1$  with a back-of-the-envelope argument.
- ▶ Define  $\delta$  as the probability that a randomly chosen node **does not** belong to the largest component.
- ▶ Simple connection:  $\delta = 1 - S_1$ .
- ▶ Dirty trick: If a randomly chosen node is not part of the largest component, then none of its neighbors are.
- ▶ So

$$\delta = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \delta^k$$

- ▶ Substitute in Poisson distribution...

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# Giant component

## ► Carrying on:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \delta^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(k)^k}{k!} e^{-k} \delta^k \\ &= e^{-\delta} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\delta)^k}{k!} \\ &= e^{-\delta} e^{\delta} = 1\end{aligned}$$

## ► Now substitute in $\delta = 1 - S_1$ and rearrange to obtain:

$$S_1 = 1 - e^{-(1-S_1)S_1}$$

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## ► Carrying on:

$$\delta = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \delta^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle} \delta^k$$

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

$$= e^{-\langle k \rangle} e^{\langle k \rangle \delta} = e^{-\langle k \rangle(1-\delta)}$$

## ► Now substitute in $\delta = 1 - S_1$ and rearrange to obtain:

$$S_1 = 1 - e^{-\langle k \rangle S_1}$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\delta &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \delta^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle} \delta^k \\ &= e^{-\langle k \rangle} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\langle k \rangle \delta)^k}{k!} \\ &= e^{-\langle k \rangle} e^{\langle k \rangle \delta} = e^{\langle k \rangle (\delta - 1)}\end{aligned}$$

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# Giant component

## ► Carrying on:

$$\begin{aligned}\delta &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \delta^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!} e^{-\langle k \rangle} \delta^k \\ &= e^{-\langle k \rangle} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\langle k \rangle \delta)^k}{k!} \\ &= e^{-\langle k \rangle} e^{\langle k \rangle \delta} = e^{\langle k \rangle (\delta - 1)}\end{aligned}$$

## ► Now substitute in $\delta = 1 - S_1$ and rearrange to obtain:

$$S_1 = 1 - e^{-\langle k \rangle S_1}$$

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- ▶ We can figure out some limits and details for

$$S_1 = 1 - e^{-\langle k \rangle S_1}.$$

- ▶ First, we can write  $\langle k \rangle$  in terms of  $S_1$ .

$$\langle k \rangle = \frac{1}{S_1} \ln \frac{1}{1 - S_1}.$$

- ▶ As  $\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 0$ ,  $S_1 \rightarrow 0$ .
- ▶ As  $\langle k \rangle \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $S_1 \rightarrow 1$ .
- ▶ Notice that at  $\langle k \rangle = 1$ , the critical point,  $S_1 = 0$ .
- ▶ Only solvable for  $S_1 > 0$  when  $\langle k \rangle > 1$ .
- ▶ Really a transcritical bifurcation. <sup>[1]</sup>

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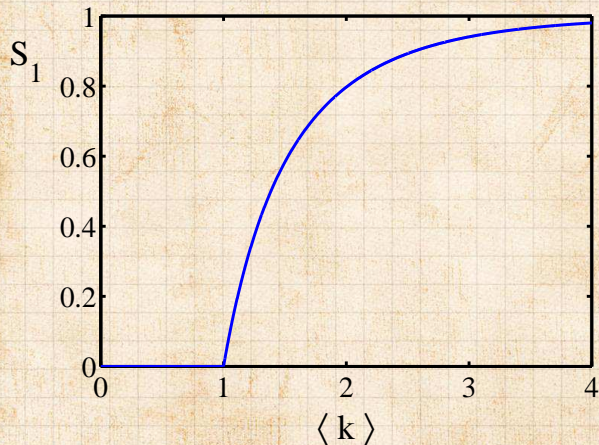
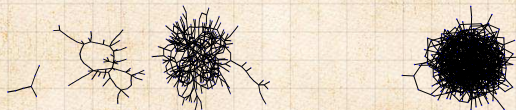
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# Giant component

Turns out we were lucky...

- ▶ Our dirty trick **only works for** ER random networks.
- ▶ **The problem:** We assumed that neighbors have the same probability  $\delta$  of belonging to the largest component.
- ▶ But we know our friends are different from us...
- ▶ Works for ER random networks because  $\langle k \rangle = \langle k \rangle_{ER}$ .
- ▶ We need a separate probability  $\delta'$  for the chance that an edge **leads to** the giant (infinite) component.
- ▶ We can sort many things out with sensible probabilistic arguments...
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