Random Networks Nutshell

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Principles of Complex Systems, Vols. 1, 2, & 3D CSYS/MATH 6701, 6713, & a pretend number, 2023-2024 | @pocsvox

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The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 1 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random

Networks Configuration model

How to build in practice

Strange friends Largest component



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The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 2 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

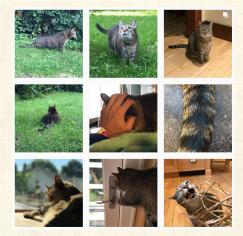
Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



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The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 3 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions
How to build theoretically

Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model
How to build in practice
Motifs
Strange friends

Largest component



Outline

Pure random networks

Definitions
How to build theoretically
Some visual examples
Clustering
Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model
How to build in practice
Motifs
Strange friends
Largest component

References

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 4 of 74

Pure random networks

Defini

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering
Degree distributions

Degree distribution

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

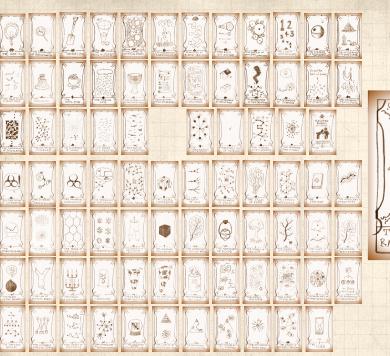
How to build in practice

Motifs

Strange friends Largest component

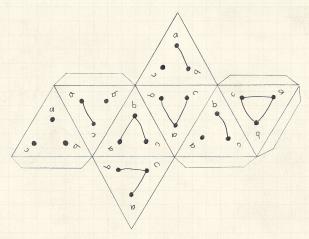
References







Random network generator for N=3:



Get your own exciting generator here .

 \mathbb{A} As $N \nearrow$, polyhedral die rapidly becomes a ball...

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 6 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically

Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Random networks

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.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 8 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice

Strange friends Largest component



Random networks—basic features:

Number of possible edges:

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

- \clubsuit Limit of m=0: empty graph.
- Number of possible networks with N labelled nodes:

 $2^{\binom{N}{2}} \sim e^{\frac{\ln 2}{2}N(N-1)}.$

- \Re 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.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 9 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Random networks

How to build standard random networks:

- \clubsuit 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).
 - \bigcirc 1 and 2 are effectively equivalent for large N.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 11 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically

Some visual examples
Clustering
Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model
How to build in practice
Motifs
Strange friends

Largest component



Random networks

A few more things:



For method 1, # links is probablistic:

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



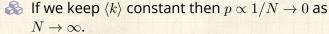
So the expected or average degree is

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

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



Which is what it should be...



The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 12 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Random networks: examples

Next slides:

Example realizations of random networks



N = 500



 \aleph Vary m, the number of edges from 100 to 1000.



 \clubsuit Average degree $\langle k \rangle$ runs from 0.4 to 4.



Look at full network plus the largest component.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 14 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random

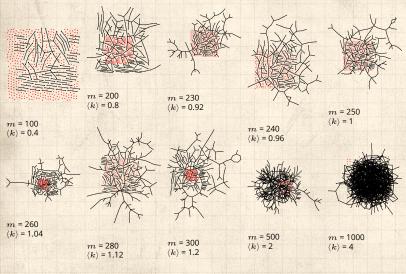
Networks Configuration model

How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Random networks: examples for N=500



The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 15 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

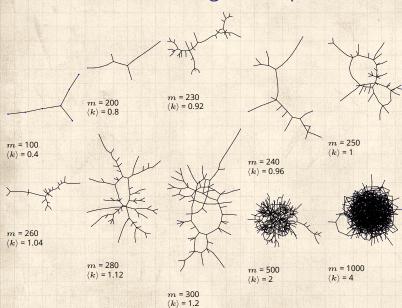
Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Random networks: largest components



The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 16 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions How to build theoretically

Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

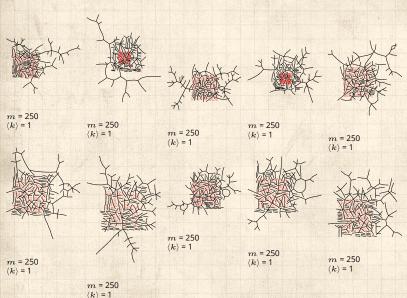
Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Random networks: examples for N=500



The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 17 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Random networks: largest components



 $\langle k \rangle = 1$

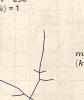
m = 250 $\langle k \rangle = 1$

m = 250

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

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 = 250 $\langle k \rangle$ = 1



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The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 18 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component

References

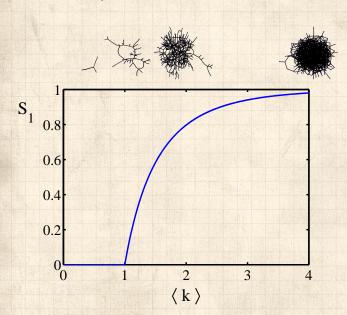


m = 250/L\ - 1

m = 250

 $\langle k \rangle = 1$

Giant component



The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 19 of 74

Pure random networks

Definition

How to build theoretically

Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs Strange friends

Largest component
References

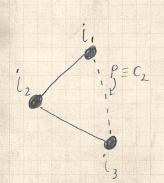


Clustering in random networks:

For construction method 1, what is the clustering coefficient for a finite network?

Consider triangle/triple clustering coefficient: [6]

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



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

$$C_2 = p.$$

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 21 of 74

Pure random networks

Definition

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



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.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 22 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Degree distribution:

- Recall P_k = probability that a randomly selected node has degree k.
- Now consider one node: there are 'N-1 choose k' ways the node can be connected to k of the other N-1 nodes.
- \Leftrightarrow Each connection occurs with probability p, each non-connection with probability (1-p).

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

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 24 of 74

Pure random networks

Definit

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model
How to build in practice
Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



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

- Our degree distribution: $P(k;p,N) = \binom{N-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-1-k}.$
- We must end up with the normal distribution right?
- All If p is fixed, then we would end up with a Gaussian with average degree $\langle k \rangle \simeq pN \to \infty$.
- \clubsuit 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.

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

 $\mbox{\&}$ This is a Poisson distribution $\mbox{\&}$ with mean $\langle k \rangle$.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 25 of 74

Pure random networks

Definition

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized

Random Networks

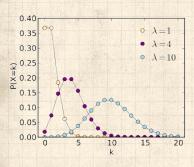
How to build in practice
Motifs
Strange friends

Largest component



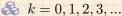
Poisson basics:

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





 $\lambda > 0$





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'

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 26 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Poisson basics:

- The variance of degree distributions for random networks turns out to be very important.
- \clubsuit 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

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

- Note: This is a special property of Poisson distribution and can trip us up...

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 27 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized

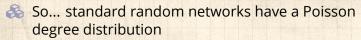
Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



General random networks



 \clubsuit Generalize to arbitrary degree distribution P_k .

Also known as the configuration model. [6]

Can generalize construction method from ER random networks.

 \triangle Assign each node a weight w from some distribution P_{uv} and form links with probability

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

But we'll be more interested in

1. Randomly wiring up (and rewiring) already existing nodes with fixed degrees.

2. Examining mechanisms that lead to networks with certain degree distributions.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 29 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice

Strange friends Largest component



Random networks: examples

Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

- $Rrac{4}{4}$ $P_k \propto k^{-\gamma}$ for $k \geq 1$.
- Set $P_0 = 0$ (no isolated nodes).
- \Leftrightarrow 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.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 30 of 74

Pure random networks

Definition

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random

Networks
Configuration model

How to build in practice Motifs Strange friends

Strange friends Largest component

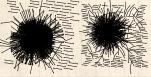


Random networks: examples for N=1000



 $\gamma = 2.19$

 $\langle k \rangle = 2.986$









Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice

Strange friends

Largest component



References





 $\gamma = 2.1$

 $\langle k \rangle = 3.448$





 $\gamma = 2.28$

 $\langle k \rangle = 2.306$

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

 $\gamma = 2.37$

 $\langle k \rangle = 2.504$

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

 $\gamma = 2.46$

 $\langle k \rangle = 1.856$



Random networks: largest components













6

 $\begin{array}{l} \gamma = 2.28 \\ \langle k \rangle = 2.306 \end{array}$

 $\begin{array}{l} \gamma = 2.37 \\ \langle k \rangle = 2.504 \end{array}$

 $\begin{array}{l} \gamma = 2.46 \\ \langle k \rangle = 1.856 \end{array}$







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



 γ = 2.73 $\langle k \rangle$ = 1.862



 γ = 2.82 $\langle k \rangle$ = 1.386



The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell

Pure random networks

Definitions

32 of 74

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice

Strange friends Largest component

Motifs



Models

Generalized random networks:

- & Arbitrary degree distribution P_k .
- Wire nodes together randomly.
- Create ensemble to test deviations from randomness.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 34 of 74

Pure random networks

Definit

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs Strange friends

Strange friends

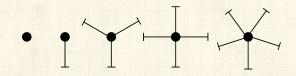
Largest component

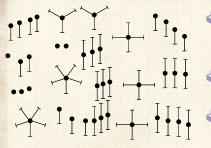


Building random networks: Stubs

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.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 35 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitio

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random

Networks
Configuration model

How to build in practice Motifs

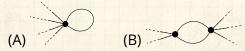
Strange friends Largest component

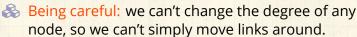


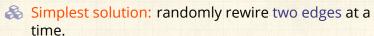
Building random networks: First rewiring

Phase 2:

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







The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 36 of 74

Pure random networks

Definition

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

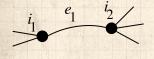
Configuration model

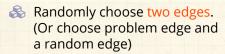
How to build in practice

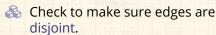
Motifs
Strange friends
Largest component



General random rewiring algorithm









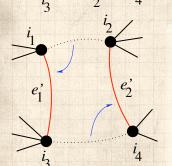
Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice

Strange friends Largest component



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



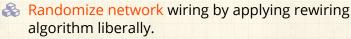
Sampling random networks

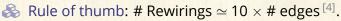
Phase 2:



Use rewiring algorithm to remove all self and repeat loops.

Phase 3:





The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 38 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random

Networks Configuration model

How to build in practice

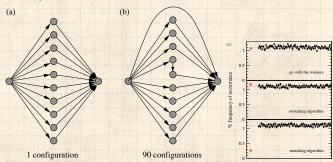
Strange friends Largest component



Random sampling

Problem with only joining up stubs is failure to randomly sample from all possible networks.

🚓 Example from Milo et al. (2003) [4]:



The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 39 of 74

Pure random networks

Definit

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized

Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs
Strange friends

Strange friends

Largest component



Sampling random networks

- \mathbb{R} 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.
- \mathbb{A} Note: not all P_{k} will always give nodes that can be wired together.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 40 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice

> Strange friends Largest component



Network motifs

- Idea of motifs [7] 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).
- Looked for certain subnetworks (motifs) that appeared more or less often than expected

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 42 of 74

Pure random networks

Definition

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Chistering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random

Networks
Configuration model

How to build in practice

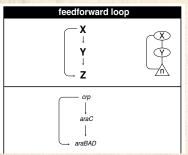
Motifs

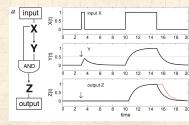
Strange friends

Largest component



Network motifs





The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 43 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice

Strange friends Largest component

References

Motifs

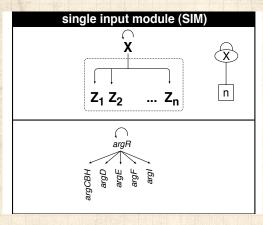


 \mathbb{R} Z only turns on in response to sustained activity in X.

 \mathbb{R} Turning off X rapidly turns off Z.

Analogy to elevator doors.

Network motifs





Master switch.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 44 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

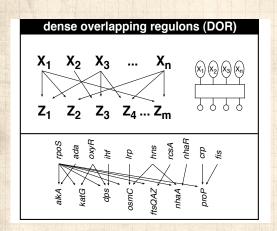
Configuration model How to build in practice

Motifs Strange friends

Largest component



Network motifs



The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 45 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering
Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs Strange friends

Strange friends Largest component



Network motifs

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

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 46 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions Generalized

Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice

Motifs Strange friends

Largest component



- $\ref{eq:constraint}$ The degree distribution P_k is fundamental for our description of many complex networks
- \clubsuit 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:

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

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

The PoCsverse Random Networks Nutshell 48 of 74

Pure random networks

Definit

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component









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:

$$\begin{split} R_0 &= 3/16 \; R_1 = 4/16, \\ R_2 &= 3/16, \, R_5 = 6/16. \end{split}$$



Pure random networks

Definitio

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model
How to build in practice
Motifs

Strange friends

Largest component



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

 $\red { } ext{ } ext{Useful variant on } Q_k ext{:}$

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



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

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

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 50 of 74

Pure random networks

Definit

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random

Networks
Configuration model

How to build in practice Motifs Strange friends

Largest component



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)

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

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

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 51 of 74

Pure random networks

Defini

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



- 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:

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

- 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...

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 52 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends





 \mathbb{A} In fact, R_k is rather special for pure random networks ...



Substituting

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

into

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

we have

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

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

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 53 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice

Motifs Strange friends

References





#samesies.

Two reasons why this matters

Reason #1:

Average # friends of friends per node is

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

- \Leftrightarrow 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... [3, 5]
 - 4. See also: class size paradoxes (nod to: Gelman)

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 54 of 74

Pure random networks

Definition

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs

Strange friends

Largest component



Two reasons why this matters

More on peculiarity #3:

 \clubsuit A node's average # of friends: $\langle k \rangle$

 \Leftrightarrow 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.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 55 of 74

Pure random networks

Definiti

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions
Generalized

Random Networks

How to build in practice
Motifs
Strange friends

Largest component

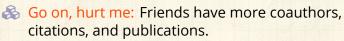


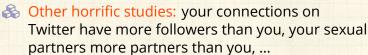


"Generalized friendship paradox in complex networks: The case of scientific collaboration"

Eom and Jo, Nature Scientific Reports, **4**, 4603, 2014. [2]

Your friends really are monsters #winners:1





The hope: Maybe they have more enemies and diseases too.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 56 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



¹Some press here [MIT Tech Review].

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 $N \to \infty$, 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

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 57 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically

Some visual examples

Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

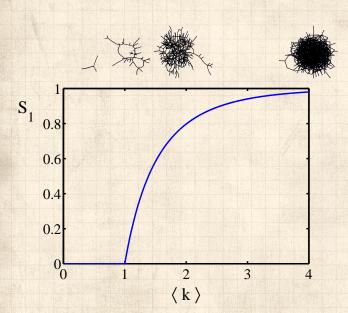
Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs

Strange friends Largest component





The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 59 of 74

Pure random networks

Defin

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering
Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs Strange friends

Largest component



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.
- $\red {\Bbb R}$ All of this is the same as requiring $\langle k
 angle_R > 1.$
- 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.
- \clubsuit Equivalent statement: $\langle k^2 \rangle > 2 \langle k \rangle$

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 60 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically

Some visual examples
Clustering
Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs

Strange friends Largest component

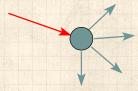


Spreading on Random Networks

- For random networks, we know local structure is pure branching.
- Successful spreading is a contingent on single edges infecting nodes.

Success Failure:





- Focus on binary case with edges and nodes either infected or not.
- First big question: for a given network and contagion process, can global spreading from a single seed occur?

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 61 of 74

Pure random networks

Defini

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering
Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Global spreading condition

We need to find: [1]

R = the average # of infected edges that one random infected edge brings about.

& Call **R** the gain ratio.

Define B_{k1} as the probability that a node of degree k is infected by a single infected edge.



$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\frac{kP_k}{\langle k \rangle}}{\text{prob. of } \atop \text{connecting to } \atop \text{a degree } k \text{ node}}$$

$$\underbrace{(k-1)}_{\mbox{$\#$ outgoing infected edges}} \bullet \underbrace{\underbrace{B_{k1}}_{\mbox{p rob. of infection}}}_{\mbox{p prob. of infection}}$$

$$+\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\frac{\widehat{kP_k}}{\langle k\rangle} \bullet \underbrace{0}_{\begin{subarray}{c} \# \mbox{ outgoing infected} \\ \mbox{ edges} \end{subarray}} \bullet \underbrace{(1-B_{k1})}_{\begin{subarray}{c} \mbox{ Prob. of } \\ \mbox{ no infection} \end{subarray}}$$

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 62 of 74

Pure random networks

Definit

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Global spreading condition

Our global spreading condition is then:

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet B_{k1} > 1.$$

& Case 1–Rampant spreading: If $B_{k1} = 1$ then

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) = \frac{\langle k(k-1) \rangle}{\langle k \rangle} > 1.$$

Good: This is just our giant component condition again.

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 63 of 74

Pure random networks

Definition

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice

Motifs Strange friends

References



Global spreading condition

& Case 2—Simple disease-like: If $B_{k1} = \beta < 1$ then

$$\mathbf{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k P_k}{\langle k \rangle} \bullet (k-1) \bullet \beta > 1.$$

- & A fraction (1- β) of edges do not transmit infection.
- Analogous phase transition to giant component case but critical value of $\langle k \rangle$ is increased.
- Aka bond percolation .
- $\red Resulting degree distribution <math>\tilde{P}_k$:

$$\tilde{P}_k = \beta^k \sum_{i=k}^{\infty} \binom{i}{k} (1-\beta)^{i-k} P_i.$$

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 64 of 74

Pure random networks

Definit

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Giant component for standard random networks:

- Determine condition for giant component:

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

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

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 65 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically

Some visual examples
Clustering
Degree distributions

Generalized

Random Networks Configuration model

How to build in practice
Motifs
Strange friends

Largest component



Random networks with skewed P_{ν} :

 \Leftrightarrow e.g, if $P_k = ck^{-\gamma}$ with $2 < \gamma < 3$, $k \ge 1$, 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 $\langle k \rangle_B$.
- $Arr How about P_k = \delta_{kk_0}$?

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 66 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random

Networks Configuration model

How to build in practice Motifs Strange friends

Largest component



And how big is the largest component?

- \clubsuit Define S_1 as the size of the largest component.
- \Leftrightarrow 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 δ as the probability that a randomly chosen node does not belong to the largest component.
- $\mbox{\&}$ 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.
- 备 So

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

Substitute in Poisson distribution...

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 67 of 74

Pure random networks

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Some visual examples Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model

How to build in practice

Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



Carrying on:

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

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

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

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 68 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



- We can figure out some limits and details for $S_1 = 1 e^{-\langle k \rangle S_1}.$
- \clubsuit First, we can write $\langle k \rangle$ in terms of S_1 :

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

- \clubsuit As $\langle k \rangle \to 0$, $S_1 \to 0$.
- $\red{ }$ Notice that at $\langle k \rangle = 1$, the critical point, $S_1 = 0$.
- $\red solvable for <math>S_1>0$ when $\langle k
 angle >1.$
- Really a transcritical bifurcation. [8]

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 69 of 74

Pure random networks

Definit

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

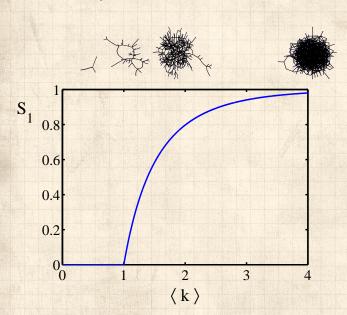
Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model
How to build in practice
Motifs

Strange friends Largest component

References





The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 70 of 74

Pure random networks

Defin

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Clustering
Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends

Largest 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 δ of belonging to the largest component.
- But we know our friends are different from us...
- $\ \ \,$ Works for ER random networks because $\langle k \rangle = \langle k \rangle_R.$
- We need a separate probability δ' for the chance that an edge leads to the giant (infinite) component.
- We can sort many things out with sensible probabilistic arguments...
- More detailed investigations will profit from a spot of Generatingfunctionology. [9]

The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 71 of 74

Pure random networks

Definition

How to build theoretically
Some visual examples
Clustering
Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model
How to build in practice
Motifs

Strange friends Largest component



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The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 72 of 74

Pure random networks

Definiti

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model
How to build in practice

Motifs
Strange friends
Largest component

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The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 73 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitio

How to build theoretically Some visual examples Clustering

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model
How to build in practice
Motifs
Strange friends

Strange friends Largest component



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The PoCSverse Random Networks Nutshell 74 of 74

Pure random networks

Definitions

How to build theoretically Some visual examples

Degree distributions

Generalized Random Networks

Configuration model How to build in practice Motifs

Strange friends Largest component

