## Random Networks Complex Networks, Course 295A, Spring, 2008

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Department of Mathematics & Statistics University of Vermont



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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 1/88

### Basics

Definitions How to build Some visual examples

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 2/88

**日** りへで

### Basics

Definitions How to build Some visual examples

### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 2/88

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### Basics

Definitions How to build Some visual examples

### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### **Generating Functions**

Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 2/88

### Basics

Definitions How to build Some visual examples

### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### **Generating Functions**

Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size References

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 2/88

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### Basics

### Definitions

- How to build Some visual examples
- Structure
  - Clustering
  - Degree distributions
  - Configuration model
  - Largest component
- **Generating Functions** 
  - Definitions
  - Basic Properties
  - **Giant Component Condition**
  - Component sizes
  - Useful results
  - Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size
- References

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 3/88

Pure, abstract random networks:

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 4/88

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### Pure, abstract random networks:

 Consider set of all networks with N labelled nodes and m edges.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 4/88

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### Pure, abstract random networks:

- Consider set of all networks with N labelled nodes and m edges.
- Standard random network = randomly chosen network from this set.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 4/88

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### Pure, abstract random networks:

- Consider set of all networks with N labelled nodes and m edges.
- Standard random network = randomly chosen network from this set.
- To be clear: each network is equally probable.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 4/88

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### Pure, abstract random networks:

- Consider set of all networks with N labelled nodes and m edges.
- Standard random network = 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.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size References

Frame 4/88

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### Pure, abstract random networks:

- Consider set of all networks with N labelled nodes and m edges.
- Standard random network = 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 Erdös-Rényi random networks or ER graphs.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 4/88

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### Some features:

Number of possible edges:

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

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 5/88

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### Some features:

Number of possible edges:

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

Given *m* edges, there are 
 <sup>(N)</sup>
 <sub>m</sub>) different possible networks.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 5/88

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Number of possible edges:

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

- Given *m* edges, there are 
   <sup>N</sup>
   <sup>(N)</sup>
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- Crazy factorial explosion for  $1 \ll m \ll \binom{N}{2}$ .

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 5/88

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- Limit of m = 0: empty graph.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 5/88

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### Some features:

Number of possible edges:

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

- Given *m* edges, there are 
   <sup>N</sup>
   <sup>2</sup>
   <sup>N</sup>
   <sup>N</sup>
- Crazy factorial explosion for  $1 \ll m \ll \binom{N}{2}$ .
- Limit of m = 0: empty graph.
- Limit of  $m = \binom{N}{2}$ : complete or fully-connected graph.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 5/88

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Number of possible edges:

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- Crazy factorial explosion for  $1 \ll m \ll \binom{N}{2}$ .
- Limit of m = 0: empty graph.
- Limit of  $m = \binom{N}{2}$ : complete or fully-connected graph.
- Real world: links are usually costly so real networks are almost always sparse.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 5/88

### Outline Basics

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### How to build

Some visual examples

Structure

Clustering

Degree distributions

Configuration mode

Largest component

**Generating Functions** 

Definitions

Basic Properties

**Giant Component Condition** 

Component sizes

Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 6/88

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### How to build standard random networks:

▶ Given *N* and *m*.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 7/88

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### How to build standard random networks:

- ▶ Given *N* and *m*.
- Two probablistic methods

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 7/88

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### How to build standard random networks:

- ▶ Given *N* and *m*.
- Two probablistic methods (we'll see a third later on)

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 7/88

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### How to build standard random networks:

- ▶ 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*.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 7/88

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- ▶ Given *N* and *m*.
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- 1. Connect each of the  $\binom{N}{2}$  pairs with appropriate probability *p*.
- 2. Take *N* nodes and add exactly *m* links by selecting edges without replacement.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 7/88

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- ▶ Given *N* and *m*.
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#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 7/88

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- 1. Connect each of the  $\binom{N}{2}$  pairs with appropriate probability *p*.
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- Take N nodes and add exactly m links by selecting edges without replacement.
  - ► Algorithm: Randomly choose a pair of nodes *i* and *j*, *i* ≠ *j*, and connect if unconnected; repeat until all *m* edges are allocated.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 7/88

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  - Best for adding small numbers of links (most cases).

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 7/88

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- Take N nodes and add exactly m links by selecting edges without replacement.
  - ► Algorithm: Randomly choose a pair of nodes *i* and *j*, *i* ≠ *j*, and connect if unconnected; repeat until all *m* edges are allocated.
  - Best for adding small numbers of links (most cases).
  - 1 and 2 are effectively equivalent for large N.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

### A few more things:

► For method 1, # links is probablistic:

$$\langle m \rangle = p \binom{N}{2}$$

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 8/88

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### A few more things:

► For method 1, # links is probablistic:

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 8/88

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### 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

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 8/88

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

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 8/88

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### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 8/88

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### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 8/88

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

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...

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Jenerating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 8/88

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

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  $N \rightarrow \infty$ .

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 8/88

### Outline Basics

# Definitions How to build

### Some visual examples

Structure

Clustering

Degree distributions Configuration mode

Largest component

Generating Functions

Definitions

Basic Properties

**Giant Component Condition** 

Component sizes

Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 9/88

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### Next slides:

Example realizations of random networks

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Functions Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 10/88

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### Next slides:

### Example realizations of random networks

► *N* = 500

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 10/88

5 ver

### Next slides:

Example realizations of random networks

- ► *N* = 500
- ► Vary *m*, the number of edges from 100 to 1000.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 10/88

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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.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 10/88

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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.

#### Random Networks

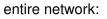
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Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

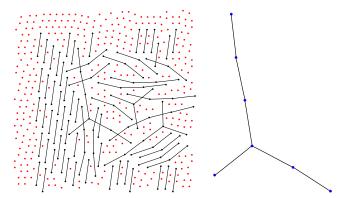
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References

Frame 10/88







N = 500, number of edges m = 100average degree  $\langle k \rangle = 0.4$ 

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

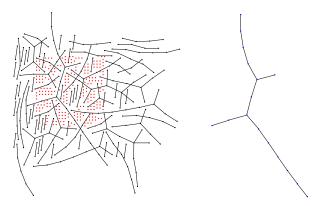
Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 11/88

entire network:



N = 500, number of edges m = 200average degree  $\langle k \rangle = 0.8$ 

largest component:

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

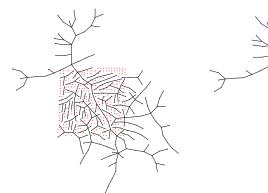
Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 12/88

entire network:



largest component:

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

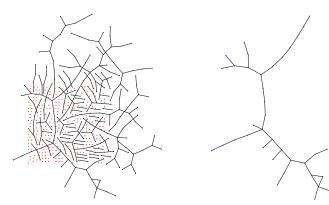
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References

N = 500, number of edges m = 230average degree  $\langle k \rangle = 0.92$ 

Frame 13/88

entire network:



N = 500, number of edges m = 240average degree  $\langle k \rangle = 0.96$ 

largest component:

#### Random Networks

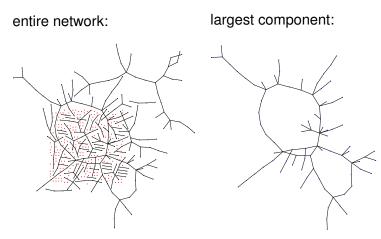
Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 14/88



N = 500, number of edges m = 250average degree  $\langle k \rangle = 1$ 

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

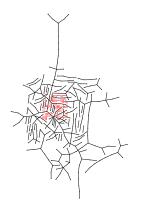
Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 15/88

entire network:



largest component:

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N = 500, number of edges m = 260average degree  $\langle k \rangle = 1.04$  Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

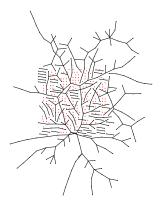
Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

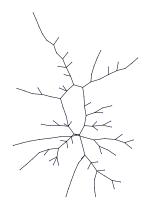
References

Frame 16/88

entire network:



largest component:



N = 500, number of edges m = 280average degree  $\langle k \rangle = 1.12$ 

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

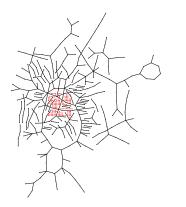
Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 17/88

entire network:



N = 500, number of edges m = 300average degree  $\langle k \rangle = 1.2$ 

largest component:

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

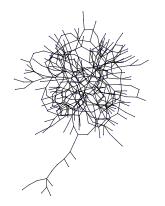
References

Frame 18/88

entire network:



largest component:



N = 500, number of edges m = 500average degree  $\langle k \rangle = 2$ 

#### Random Networks

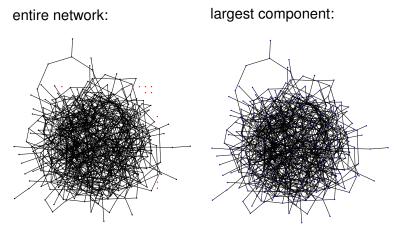
Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 19/88



N = 500, number of edges m = 1000average degree  $\langle k \rangle = 4$ 

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 20/88

## Random networks: examples for N=500











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



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 = 200

m = 280

 $\langle k \rangle = 1.12$ 

 $\langle k \rangle = 0.8$ 



m = 300

 $\langle k \rangle = 1.2$ 



m = 500

 $\langle k \rangle = 2$ 

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating unctions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 21/88

## Random networks: largest components







m = 260

 $\langle k \rangle = 1.04$ 



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



m = 240 $\langle k \rangle = 0.96$  *m* = 250  $\langle k \rangle = 1$ 

m = 1000

 $\langle k \rangle = 4$ 



m = 280

 $\langle k \rangle = 1.12$ 



m = 300

 $\langle k \rangle = 1.2$ 



m = 500

 $\langle k \rangle = 2$ 





Random Networks

Basics Some visual examples

Frame 22/88 5900 P

## Random networks: examples for N=500







m = 250

 $\langle k \rangle = 1$ 



 $\langle k \rangle = 1$ 

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 $\langle k \rangle = 1$ 



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

#### Random Networks

Basics Some visual examples

Frame 23/88 500

## Random networks: largest components





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 $\langle k \rangle = 1$ 





 $\langle k \rangle = 1$ 

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

*m* = 250

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



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

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Some visual examples

Frame 24/88  $\mathcal{O} \mathcal{O} \mathcal{O}$ P

# Outline

Definitions How to build Some visual examples

### Structure

### Clustering

Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### **Generating Functions**

Definitions

Basic Properties

**Giant Component Condition** 

Component sizes

Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 25/88

Sac

### Clustering:

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

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 26/88

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### **Clustering:**

- For method 1, what is the clustering coefficient for a finite network?
- Consider triangle/triple clustering coefficient (Newman<sup>[1]</sup>):

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

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure

#### Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condit

Giant Component Conditio Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 26/88

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- For method 1, what is the clustering coefficient for a finite network?
- Consider triangle/triple clustering coefficient (Newman<sup>[1]</sup>):

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

Recall: C<sub>2</sub> = probability that two nodes are connected given they have a friend in common.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 26/88

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### **Clustering:**

- For method 1, what is the clustering coefficient for a finite network?
- Consider triangle/triple clustering coefficient (Newman<sup>[1]</sup>):

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

- Recall: C<sub>2</sub> = probability that two nodes are connected given they have a friend in common.
- For standard random networks, we have simply that

 $C_2 = p.$ 

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering

Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 26/88

### Clustering:

So for large random networks (N → ∞), clustering drops to zero.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 27/88

### **Clustering:**

- So for large random networks (N → ∞), clustering drops to zero.
- Key structural feature of random networks is that they locally look like branching networks (no loops).

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 27/88

# Outline

Definitions How to build Some visual examples

### Structure

Clustering

### Degree distributions

Configuration model Largest component

**Generating Functions** 

Definitions

Basic Properties

**Giant Component Condition** 

Component sizes

Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 28/88

Sac

### Degree distribution:

Recall p<sub>k</sub> = probability that a randomly selected node has degree k.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Soundition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 29/88

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Degree distribution:

- Recall p<sub>k</sub> = probability that a randomly selected node has degree k.
- Consider method 1 for constructing random networks: each possible link is realized with probability p.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 29/88

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Degree distribution:

- Recall p<sub>k</sub> = probability that a randomly selected node has degree k.
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- Now consider one node: there are 'N choose k' ways the node can be connected to k of the other N − 1 nodes.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 29/88

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Degree distribution:

- Recall p<sub>k</sub> = 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 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*).

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 29/88

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Degree distribution:

- Recall p<sub>k</sub> = 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 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:

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

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 29/88

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 30/88

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

• Our degree distribution:  $P(k; p, N) = {\binom{N-1}{k}}p^k(1-p)^{N-1-k}.$ 



Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 30/88

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

- Our degree distribution:  $P(k; p, N) = {\binom{N-1}{k}}p^k(1-p)^{N-1-k}.$
- What happens as  $N \to \infty$ ?

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 30/88

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# Random networks

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

- Our degree distribution:  $P(k; p, N) = {\binom{N-1}{k}}p^k(1-p)^{N-1-k}.$
- What happens as  $N \to \infty$ ?

### We must end up with the normal distribution right?

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 30/88

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# Random networks

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

- Our degree distribution:  $P(k; p, N) = \binom{N-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-1-k}.$
- What happens as  $N \to \infty$ ?
- We must end up with the normal distribution right?
- If p is fixed, then we would end up with a Gaussian with average degree ⟨k⟩ ≃ pN → ∞.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 30/88

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# Random networks

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

- Our degree distribution:  $P(k; p, N) = \binom{N-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-1-k}.$
- What happens as  $N \to \infty$ ?
- We must end up with the normal distribution right?
- If p is fixed, then we would end up with a Gaussian with average degree ⟨k⟩ ≃ pN → ∞.
- 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  $\langle k \rangle = p(N-1) = \text{constant.}$

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 30/88

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Substitute  $p = \frac{\langle k \rangle}{N-1}$  into P(k; p, N) and hold k fixed:

$$P(k; p, N) = \binom{N-1}{k} \left(\frac{\langle k \rangle}{N-1}\right)^k \left(1 - \frac{\langle k \rangle}{N-1}\right)^{N-1-k}$$

Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Avarage Component Size

References

Frame 31/88

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$$P(k; p, N) = \binom{N-1}{k} \left(\frac{\langle k \rangle}{N-1}\right)^k \left(1 - \frac{\langle k \rangle}{N-1}\right)^{N-1-k}$$

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

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating "unctions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 31/88

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

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

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

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

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

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

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

$$=\frac{\mathcal{M}^{k}(1-\frac{1}{N})\cdots(1-\frac{k}{N})}{k!\mathcal{M}^{k}}\frac{\langle k\rangle^{k}}{(1-\frac{1}{N})^{k}}\left(1-\frac{\langle k\rangle}{N-1}\right)^{N-1-k}$$

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

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

$$=\frac{\cancel{k}}{\cancel{k!}}\left(1-\frac{\cancel{k}}{\cancel{N}}\right)\cdots\left(1-\frac{\cancel{k}}{\cancel{N}}\right)}{\cancel{k!}}\frac{\cancel{k}}{\cancel{k}}\left(1-\frac{\cancel{k}}{\cancel{N}}\right)^{\cancel{k}}\left(1-\frac{\cancel{k}}{\cancel{N}}\right)^{\cancel{k}}$$

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

We are now here:

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 32/88

We are now here:

$$P(k; p, N) \simeq rac{\langle k 
angle^k}{k!} \left(1 - rac{\langle k 
angle}{N-1}
ight)^{N-1-k}$$

Now use the excellent result:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\left(1+\frac{x}{n}\right)^n=e^x.$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 32/88

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ight)^{N-1-k}$$

Now use the excellent result:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\left(1+\frac{x}{n}\right)^n=e^x$$

(Use l'Hôpital's rule to prove.)

• Identifying n = N - 1 and  $x = -\langle k \rangle$ :

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

Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Datinitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 32/88

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• Identifying n = N - 1 and  $x = -\langle k \rangle$ :

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

▶ This is a Poisson distribution ( $\boxplus$ ) with mean  $\langle k \rangle$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Source Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

# Outline

Definitions How to build Some visual examples

### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

## Configuration model

Largest component

Generating Functions

Definitions

Basic Properties

**Giant Component Condition** 

Component sizes

Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 33/88

 So... standard random networks have a Poisson degree distribution Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 34/88

- So... standard random networks have a Poisson degree distribution
- Generalize to arbitrary degree distribution  $P_k$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 34/88

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- So... standard random networks have a Poisson degree distribution
- Generalize to arbitrary degree distribution  $P_k$ .
- Also known as the configuration model<sup>[1]</sup>.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 34/88

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- So... standard random networks have a Poisson degree distribution
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- Can generalize construction method from ER random networks.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 34/88

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- So... standard random networks have a Poisson degree distribution
- Generalize to arbitrary degree distribution  $P_k$ .
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- Can generalize construction method from ER random networks.
- Assign each node a weight w from some distribution P<sub>w</sub> and form links with probability

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 34/88

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

But we'll be more interested in

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 34/88

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- But we'll be more interested in
  - 1. Randomly wiring up (and rewiring) already existing nodes with fixed degrees.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 34/88

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- Assign each node a weight w from some distribution P<sub>w</sub> 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.
  - Examining mechanisms that lead to networks with certain degree distributions.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 34/88

## Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 35/88

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## Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

► *N* = 1000.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 35/88

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## Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

- ► *N* = 1000.
- $P_k \propto k^{-\gamma}$  for  $k \ge 1$ .

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 35/88

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## Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

- ► *N* = 1000.
- $P_k \propto k^{-\gamma}$  for  $k \ge 1$ .
- Set  $P_0 = 0$  (no isolated nodes).

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

- Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component
- Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 35/88

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## Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

- ► *N* = 1000.
- $P_k \propto k^{-\gamma}$  for  $k \ge 1$ .
- Set  $P_0 = 0$  (no isolated nodes).
- Vary exponent  $\gamma$  between 2.10 and 2.91.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 35/88

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- Again, look at full network plus the largest component.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 35/88

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## Coming up:

Example realizations of random networks with power law degree distributions:

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- 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.

### Random Networks

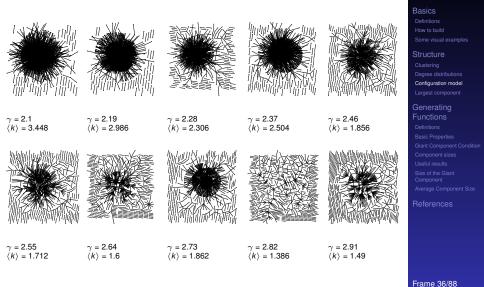
#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 35/88

# Random networks: examples for N=1000



### Random Networks

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# Random networks: largest components





 $\gamma = 2.19$ 







 $\gamma = 2.1$ (k) = 3.448

 $\langle k \rangle = 2.986$ 

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

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

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













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

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

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

### Random Networks

Basics

Configuration model

Frame 37/88 Sac

Normalization: we must have

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 38/88

Normalization: we must have

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

► Checking:

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

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Frame 38/88

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 38/88

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Random Networks

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Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 38/88

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Random Networks

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Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 38/88

Mean degree: we must have

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 39/88

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Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

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Frame 39/88

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

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Frame 39/88

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 39/88

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

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

Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 39/88

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 39/88

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### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

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We'll get to a better way of doing this...

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 40/88

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- The variance of degree distributions for random networks turns out to be very important.
- Use calculation similar to one for finding (k) to find the second moment:

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 40/88

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- The variance of degree distributions for random networks turns out to be very important.
- Use calculation similar to one for finding (k) to find the second moment:

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

Variance is then

 $\sigma^2 = \langle \mathbf{k}^2 \rangle - \langle \mathbf{k} \rangle^2$ 

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 40/88

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#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 40/88

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#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 40/88

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So standard deviation  $\sigma$  is equal to  $\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{k} \rangle}$ .

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

Frame 40/88

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Variance is then

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

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Scatter Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 40/88

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 41/88

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The degree distribution P<sub>k</sub> is fundamental for our description of many complex networks

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 41/88

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- The degree distribution P<sub>k</sub> is fundamental for our description of many complex networks
- Again:  $P_k$  is the degree of randomly chosen node.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 41/88

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- The degree distribution P<sub>k</sub> is fundamental for our description of many complex networks
- 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.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 41/88

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- The degree distribution P<sub>k</sub> is fundamental for our description of many complex networks
- 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<sub>k</sub> to be the probability the node at a random end of a randomly chosen edge has degree k.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 41/88

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- Now choosing nodes based on their degree (i.e., size):



### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful rosults Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 41/88

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- Define Q<sub>k</sub> to be the probability the node at a random end of a randomly chosen edge has degree k.

 $Q_k \propto k P_k$ 

Now choosing nodes based on their degree (i.e., size):

Normalized form:

$$\mathbf{Q}_{k} = \frac{k\mathbf{P}_{k}}{\sum_{k'=0}^{\infty} k'\mathbf{P}_{k'}}$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 41/88

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#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

For random networks, Q<sub>k</sub> is also the probability that a friend (neighbor) of a random node has k friends.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 42/88

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- For random networks, Q<sub>k</sub> is also the probability that a friend (neighbor) of a random node has k friends.
- Useful variant on Q<sub>k</sub>:

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

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 42/88

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- Useful variant on Q<sub>k</sub>:

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

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

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 42/88

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#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component dates Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 42/88

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

• Equivalent to friend having degree k + 1.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 42/88

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- For random networks, Q<sub>k</sub> is also the probability that a friend (neighbor) of a random node has k friends.
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 $R_k$  = probability that a friend of a random node has *k* other friends.

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

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

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size References

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 Given R<sub>k</sub> is the probability that a friend has k other friends, then the average number of friends' other friends is

$$\langle k \rangle_R = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k R_k$$

Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 43/88

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Given R<sub>k</sub> is the probability that a friend has k other friends, then the average number of friends' other friends is

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 43/88

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$$egin{aligned} &\langle k 
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angle} \ &= rac{1}{\langle k 
angle} \sum_{k=1}^\infty k (k+1) P_{k+1} \end{aligned}$$

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 43/88

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Given R<sub>k</sub> is the probability that a friend has k other friends, then the average number of friends' other friends is

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

(where we have sneakily matched up indices)

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 43/88

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Given R<sub>k</sub> is the probability that a friend has k other friends, then the average number of friends' other friends is

$$\langle k \rangle_{R} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kR_{k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k \frac{(k+1)P_{k+1}}{\langle k \rangle}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\langle k \rangle} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k(k+1)P_{k+1}$$

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

(where we have sneakily matched up indices)

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 43/88

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component taizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 43/88

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure

Configuration model Largest component Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Gazes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Size of the Giant Size of the

References

Frame 44/88

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 44/88

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

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 44/88

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 44/88

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 Again, neatness of results is a special property of the Poisson distribution.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 44/88

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- 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...

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 44/88

SQC~

Reason #1:

Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 45/88

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Reason #1:

Average # friends of friends per node is

$$\langle {\it k}_2 
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### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 45/88

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## Reason #1:

Average # friends of friends per node is

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

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Soundition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 45/88

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### Random Networks

### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 45/88

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Key: Average depends on the 1st and 2nd moments of P<sub>k</sub> and not just the 1st moment.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 45/88

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- Key: Average depends on the 1st and 2nd moments of P<sub>k</sub> 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  $\langle k(k-1) \rangle$ .

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 45/88

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  - 2. If  $P_k$  has a large second moment, then  $\langle k_2 \rangle$  will be big.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 45/88

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  - If *P<sub>k</sub>* has a large second moment, then ⟨*k*<sub>2</sub>⟩ will be big. (e.g., in the case of a power-law distribution)

## Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 45/88

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  - 2. If *P<sub>k</sub>* has a large second moment, then ⟨*k*<sub>2</sub>⟩ will be big.
    (e.g., in the case of a power-law distribution)
  - 3. Your friends are different to you...

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 45/88

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More on peculiarity #3:

A node's average # of friends: (k)

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 46/88

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## More on peculiarity #3:

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

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 46/88

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- A node's average # of friends: (k)
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- Comparison:

$$\frac{\langle \boldsymbol{k}^2 \rangle}{\langle \boldsymbol{k} \rangle} = \langle \boldsymbol{k} \rangle \frac{\langle \boldsymbol{k}^2 \rangle}{\langle \boldsymbol{k} \rangle^2}$$

Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 46/88

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Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 46/88

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### Random Networks

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Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 46/88

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### Random Networks

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Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 46/88

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So only if everyone has the same degree (variance= σ<sup>2</sup> = 0) can a node be the same as its friends.

## Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 46/88

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- So only if everyone has the same degree (variance= σ<sup>2</sup> = 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.

## Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 46/88

## (Big) Reason #2:

► ⟨k⟩<sub>R</sub> is key to understanding how well random networks are connected together.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 47/88

## (Big) Reason #2:

- ⟨k⟩<sub>R</sub> 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.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 47/88

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- As N → ∞, does our network have a giant component?

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 47/88

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- Defn: Component = connected subnetwork of nodes such that ∃ path between each pair of nodes in the subnetwork, and no node out side of the subnetwork is connected to it.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size Baferences

Frame 47/88

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- ▶ Defn: Giant component = component that comprises a non-zero fraction of a network as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ .

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size References

Frame 47/88

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- Note: Component = Cluster

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size Baferences

# Outline

Definitions How to build Some visual examples

## Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

## Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size References

## Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 48/88

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## 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.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 49/88

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## 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.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 49/88

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- All of this is the same as requiring  $\langle k \rangle_R > 1$ .

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 49/88

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- Giant component condition (or percolation condition):

$$\langle k 
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## Random Networks

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- Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component
- Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Usefur results Size of the Giant Component Size Average Component Size References

Frame 49/88

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 Again, see that the second moment is an essential part of the story.

### Random Networks

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- Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component
- Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Size References

Frame 49/88

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- Again, see that the second moment is an essential part of the story.
- Equivalent statement: (k<sup>2</sup>) > 2(k)

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

- Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component
- Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Size References

Frame 49/88

# Giant component

## Standard random networks:

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

Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 50/88

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### Standard random networks:

• Recall 
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.

Condition for giant component:

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

Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

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Condition for giant component:

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

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

### Standard random networks:

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

Condition for giant component:

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

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

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► Therefore when ⟨k⟩ > 1, standard random networks have a giant component.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

Frame 50/88

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Standard random networks:

• Recall 
$$\langle k^2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle^2 + \langle k \rangle$$
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- Therefore when (k) > 1, standard random networks have a giant component.
- When  $\langle k \rangle < 1$ , all components are finite.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Size References

Frame 50/88

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Condition for giant component:

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- Therefore when (k) > 1, standard random networks have a giant component.
- When  $\langle k \rangle < 1$ , all components are finite.
- ► Fine example of a continuous phase transition (⊞).

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Scottion Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size References

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- Therefore when (k) > 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.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Source Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size References

### Random networks with skewed $P_k$ :

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

$$\langle k^2 \rangle = c \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 k^{-\gamma}$$

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 51/88

### Random networks with skewed $P_k$ :

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

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$$\sim \int_{x=0}^{\infty} x^{2-\gamma} \mathrm{d}x$$

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

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$$\sim \int_{x=0}^{\infty} x^{2-\gamma} \mathrm{d}x$$

$$\propto x^{3-\gamma}\Big|_{x=0}^{\infty}$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

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$$\propto x^{3-\gamma}\Big|_{x=0}^{\infty} = \infty$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

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$$\propto x^{3-\gamma}\Big|_{x=0}^{\infty} = \infty \quad (>\langle k \rangle).$$

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

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### Random networks with skewed $P_k$ :

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

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$$\propto x^{3-\gamma} \Big|_{x=0}^{\infty} = \infty \quad (> \langle k \rangle).$$

 So giant component always exists for these kinds of networks.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

### Random networks with skewed $P_k$ :

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

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$$\sim \int_{x=0}^{\infty} x^{2-\gamma} \mathrm{d}x$$
$$\propto x^{3-\gamma} \Big|_{x=0}^{\infty} = \infty \quad (> \langle k \rangle).$$

.....

- So giant component always exists for these kinds of networks.
- ► Cutoff scaling is k<sup>-3</sup>: if γ > 3 then we have to look harder at ⟨k⟩<sub>R</sub>.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 51/88

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And how big is the largest component?

• Define  $S_1$  as the size of the largest component.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 52/88

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And how big is the largest component?

- Define S<sub>1</sub> as the size of the largest component.
- ► Consider an infinite ER random network with average degree (k).

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 52/88

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And how big is the largest component?

- Define S<sub>1</sub> as the size of the largest component.
- ► Consider an infinite ER random network with average degree (k).
- Let's find S<sub>1</sub> with a back-of-the-envelope argument.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 52/88

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- Define S<sub>1</sub> as the size of the largest component.
- Consider an infinite ER random network with average degree (k).
- ▶ Let's find S<sub>1</sub> with a back-of-the-envelope argument.
- Define δ as the probability that a randomly chosen node does not belong to the largest component.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 52/88

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- Simple connection:  $\delta = 1 S_1$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 52/88

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- Define δ 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.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 52/88

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- 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

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 52/88

### And how big is the largest component?

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- Define δ 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.

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

Substitute in Poisson distribution...

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component isses Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 52/88

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### Carrying on:

$$\boldsymbol{\delta} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \boldsymbol{P}_k \boldsymbol{\delta}^k$$

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 53/88

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Carrying on:

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condit

Giant Component Sizes Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 53/88

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Carrying on:

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

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

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

$$= e^{-\langle k 
angle} e^{\langle k 
angle \delta}$$

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

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

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Carrying on:

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

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

.

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

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

# • We can figure out some limits and details for $S_1 = 1 - e^{-\langle k \rangle S_1}$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 54/88

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- We can figure out some limits and details for S<sub>1</sub> = 1 − e<sup>-⟨k⟩S<sub>1</sub></sup>.
- First, we can write  $\langle k \rangle$  in terms of  $S_1$ :

$$\langle k 
angle = rac{1}{S_1} \ln rac{1}{1-S_1}$$

.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component Generating Functions

FURCIONS Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

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• As 
$$\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 0$$
,  $S_1 \rightarrow 0$ .

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Avarage Component Size

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

As 
$$\langle k \rangle$$
 → 0, S<sub>1</sub> → 0.
As  $\langle k \rangle$  → ∞, S<sub>1</sub> → 1.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

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

• As 
$$\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 0$$
,  $S_1 \rightarrow 0$ .

• As  $\langle k \rangle \to \infty$ ,  $S_1 \to 1$ .

• Notice that at  $\langle k \rangle = 1$ , the critical point,  $S_1 = 0$ .

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 54/88

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

- As  $\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 0$ ,  $S_1 \rightarrow 0$ .
- As  $\langle k \rangle \to \infty$ ,  $S_1 \to 1$ .
- Notice that at  $\langle k \rangle = 1$ , the critical point,  $S_1 = 0$ .
- Only solvable for S > 0 when  $\langle k \rangle > 1$ .

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

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- As  $\langle k \rangle \to \infty$ ,  $S_1 \to 1$ .
- Notice that at  $\langle k \rangle = 1$ , the critical point,  $S_1 = 0$ .
- Only solvable for S > 0 when  $\langle k \rangle > 1$ .
- Really a transcritical bifurcation<sup>[2]</sup>.

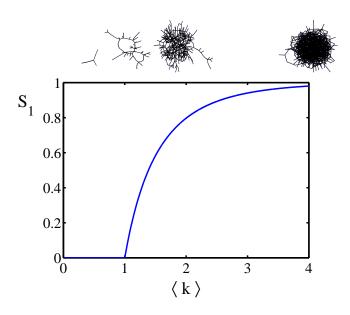
#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References



#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 55/88

Turns out we were lucky...

Our dirty trick only works for ER random networks.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 56/88

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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.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 56/88

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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...

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 56/88

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### 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  $\langle k \rangle = \langle k \rangle_R$ .

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 56/88

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### 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 a node at the end of a random edge is part of the largest component.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Scatt Useful results Size of the Giant Component Size Average Component Size References

Frame 56/88

### 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 a node at the end of a random edge is part of the largest component.
- ► We can do this but we need to enhance our toolkit with Generatingfunctionology...<sup>[3]</sup>

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size Baferences

Frame 56/88

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# Outline

Basics

Definitions How to build Some visual example

Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

# Generating Functions

### Definitions

Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating

Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Conditio Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 57/88

Idea: Given a sequence a<sub>0</sub>, a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>,..., associate each element with a distinct function or other mathematical object.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode Largest component

Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Conditio Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 58/88

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- Idea: Given a sequence a<sub>0</sub>, a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>,..., associate each element with a distinct function or other mathematical object.
- Well-chosen functions allow us to manipulate sequences and retrieve sequence elements.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode

Generating

Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Conditio Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 58/88

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- Idea: Given a sequence a<sub>0</sub>, a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>,..., associate each element with a distinct function or other mathematical object.
- Well-chosen functions allow us to manipulate sequences and retrieve sequence elements.

## Definition:

• The generating function (g.f.) for a sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is

$$F(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 58/88

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- Idea: Given a sequence a<sub>0</sub>, a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>,..., associate each element with a distinct function or other mathematical object.
- Well-chosen functions allow us to manipulate sequences and retrieve sequence elements.

## Definition:

• The generating function (g.f.) for a sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is

$$F(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

► Roughly: transforms a vector in R<sup>∞</sup> into a function defined on R<sup>1</sup>.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 58/88

- Idea: Given a sequence a<sub>0</sub>, a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>2</sub>,..., associate each element with a distinct function or other mathematical object.
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- ► Roughly: transforms a vector in R<sup>∞</sup> into a function defined on R<sup>1</sup>.
- Related to Fourier, Laplace, Mellin, ...

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condi Component sizes

Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 58/88 日 のへへ

Take a degree distribution with exponential decay:

 $P_k = ce^{-\lambda k}$ 

where  $c = 1 - e^{-\lambda}$ .

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distribution: Configuration mode

Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 59/88

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

CUTCIONS Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 59/88

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 59/88

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode

Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 59/88

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• Notice that 
$$F(1) = c/(1 - e^{-\lambda}) = 1$$
.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

### Structure

Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions

Definitions

Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 59/88

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• Notice that  $F(1) = c/(1 - e^{-\lambda}) = 1$ .

For probability distributions, we must always have F(1) = 1 since

$$F(1) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k 1^k$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode

Largest component

Generating Functions

Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 59/88

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode

Eunctions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

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### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 59/88

# Outline

### Basics

Definitions How to build Some visual example

### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

## **Generating Functions**

Definitions

### **Basic Properties**

Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size ferences

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 60/88

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Average degree:

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

Random Networks

Basics Definitions

low to build come visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basie Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 61/88

Average degree:

$$\langle k \rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P_k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P_k x^{k-1} \bigg|_{x=1}$$

Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Conditio Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 61/88

Average degree:

$$\langle k \rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P_k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P_k x^{k-1} \bigg|_{x=1}$$
$$= \frac{d}{dx} F(x) \bigg|_{x=1}$$

Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 61/88

Average degree:

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Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Stass Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 61/88

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 In general, many calculations become simple, if a little abstract.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 61/88

Average degree:

$$\langle k \rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P_k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P_k x^{k-1} \bigg|_{x=1}$$
$$= \frac{d}{dx} F(x) \bigg|_{x=1} = F'(1)$$

- In general, many calculations become simple, if a little abstract.
- For our exponential example:

$$F'(x)=\frac{(1-e^{-\lambda})e^{-\lambda}}{(1-xe^{-\lambda})^2}.$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 61/88

Average degree:

$$\langle k \rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P_k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k P_k x^{k-1} \bigg|_{x=1}$$
$$= \frac{d}{dx} F(x) \bigg|_{x=1} = F'(1)$$

- In general, many calculations become simple, if a little abstract.
- For our exponential example:

$$F'(x)=rac{(1-e^{-\lambda})e^{-\lambda}}{(1-xe^{-\lambda})^2}.$$

So:

$$\langle k 
angle = F'(1) = rac{e^{-\lambda}}{(1-e^{-\lambda})}.$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Datinitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 61/88

Useful pieces for probability distributions:

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Conditio Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 62/88

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Useful pieces for probability distributions:

F(1) = 1

Normalization:



Random Networks

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 62/88

লি ৩৫৫

## Useful pieces for probability distributions:

Normalization:

First moment:

 $\langle k \rangle = F'(1)$ 

F(1) = 1

Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 62/88

লি ৩৫৫

## Useful pieces for probability distributions:

Normalization:

First moment:

 $\langle k \rangle = F'(1)$ 

F(1) = 1

Higher moments:

 $\langle k^n \rangle = \left( x \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \right)^n F(x) \Big|_{x=1}$ 

Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Score Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 62/88

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## Useful pieces for probability distributions:

Normalization:

F(1) = 1

First moment:

 $\langle k \rangle = F'(1)$ 

Higher moments:

 $\langle k^n \rangle = \left( x \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \right)^n F(x) \Big|_{x=1}$ 

kth element of sequence (general):

$$P_k = \frac{1}{k!} \frac{\mathrm{d}^k}{\mathrm{d}x^k} F(x) \bigg|_{x=0}$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 62/88

# Outline

### Basics

Definitions How to build Some visual example

### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

## **Generating Functions**

Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes

Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 63/88

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# Edge-degree distribution

Recall our condition for a giant component:

$$\langle k \rangle_{R} = rac{\langle k^{2} \rangle - \langle k \rangle}{\langle k \rangle} > 1.$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Definitions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 64/88

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#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 64/88

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Recall our condition for a giant component:

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

- We first need the g.f. for  $R_k$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 64/88

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- We'll now use this notation:

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 64/88

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#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 64/88

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- We'll now use this notation:

 $F_P(x)$  is the g.f. for  $P_k$ .  $F_R(x)$  is the g.f. for  $R_k$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 64/88

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- Condition in terms of g.f. is:

 $\langle k \rangle_R = F'_R(1) > 1.$ 

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 64/88

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- Condition in terms of g.f. is:

 $\langle k \rangle_R = F'_R(1) > 1.$ 

Now find how F<sub>R</sub> is related to F<sub>P</sub>...

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Gant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size References

Frame 64/88

► We have

$$F_R(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{R_k}{k} x^k$$

Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 65/88

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We have

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

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 65/88

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

Shift index to j = k + 1 and pull out  $\frac{1}{\langle k \rangle}$ :

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 65/88

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#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 65/88

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#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 65/88

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#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 65/88

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$$= \frac{1}{\langle k \rangle} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} P_j x^j = \frac{1}{\langle k \rangle} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \left( F_P(x) - P_0 \right)$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 65/88

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$$=\frac{1}{\langle k\rangle}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}P_{j}x^{j}=\frac{1}{\langle k\rangle}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left(F_{P}(x)-P_{0}\right)=\frac{1}{\langle k\rangle}F_{P}'(x).$$

#### Random Networks

# Basics

# Giant Component Condition

Frame 65/88 P

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We have

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

Shift index to j = k + 1 and pull out  $\frac{1}{\langle k \rangle}$ :

$$F_R(x) = \frac{1}{\langle k \rangle} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j P_j x^{j-1} = \frac{1}{\langle k \rangle} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} P_j \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} x^j$$

$$=\frac{1}{\langle k\rangle}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}P_{j}x^{j}=\frac{1}{\langle k\rangle}\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\left(F_{P}(x)-P_{0}\right)=\frac{1}{\langle k\rangle}F_{P}'(x).$$

Finally, since  $\langle k \rangle = F'_P(1)$ ,

$$F_R(x) = \frac{F'_P(x)}{F'_P(1)}$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 65/88

# • Recall giant component condition is $\langle k \rangle_R = F'_R(1) > 1.$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 66/88

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- Recall giant component condition is  $\langle k \rangle_R = F'_R(1) > 1.$
- Since we have  $F_R(x) = F'_P(x)/F'_P(1)$ ,

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 66/88

- Recall giant component condition is  $\langle k \rangle_R = F'_R(1) > 1.$
- Since we have  $F_R(x) = F'_P(x)/F'_P(1)$ ,

$$F'_{R}(x) = rac{F''_{P}(x)}{F'_{P}(1)}$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 66/88

- Recall giant component condition is  $\langle k \rangle_R = F'_R(1) > 1.$
- Since we have  $F_R(x) = F'_P(x)/F'_P(1)$ ,

$$F'_{R}(x) = rac{F''_{P}(x)}{F'_{P}(1)}$$

Setting x = 1, our condition becomes



#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition

Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 66/88

৽৵৻৻৽

### Outline

### Basics

Definitions How to build Some visual example

### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### **Generating Functions**

Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition

### Component sizes

Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size eferences

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 67/88

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To figure out the size of the largest component  $(S_1)$ , we need more resolution on component sizes.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Conditio Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 68/88

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To figure out the size of the largest component  $(S_1)$ , we need more resolution on component sizes.

### Definitions:

*π<sub>n</sub>* = probability that a random node belongs to a finite component of size *n* < ∞.</p>

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Conditio Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Awarase Component Size.

References

Frame 68/88

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To figure out the size of the largest component  $(S_1)$ , we need more resolution on component sizes.

### Definitions:

- *π<sub>n</sub>* = probability that a random node belongs to a finite component of size *n* < ∞.</p>
- *ρ<sub>n</sub>* = probability a random link leads to a finite subcomponent of size *n* < ∞.</p>

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Conditio Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 68/88

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To figure out the size of the largest component  $(S_1)$ , we need more resolution on component sizes.

### Definitions:

- *π<sub>n</sub>* = probability that a random node belongs to a finite component of size *n* < ∞.</p>

Local-global connection:

 $P_k, R_k \Leftrightarrow \pi_n, \rho_n$ neighbors  $\Leftrightarrow$  components

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 68/88

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G.f.'s for component size distributions:

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Conditio Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component

References

Frame 69/88

**日** りへで

G.f.'s for component size distributions:

$$F_{\pi}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \pi_n x^n$$
 and  $F_{\rho}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \rho_n x^n$ 

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 69/88

**日** りへで

G.f.'s for component size distributions:

$$F_{\pi}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \pi_n x^n$$
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### The largest component:

Subtle key: F<sub>π</sub>(1) is the probability that a node belongs to a finite component.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component South Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 69/88

G.f.'s for component size distributions:

$$F_{\pi}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \pi_n x^n$$
 and  $F_{\rho}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \rho_n x^n$ 

### The largest component:

- Subtle key: F<sub>π</sub>(1) is the probability that a node belongs to a finite component.
- Therefore:  $S_1 = 1 F_{\pi}(1)$ .

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 69/88

G.f.'s for component size distributions:

$$F_{\pi}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \pi_n x^n$$
 and  $F_{\rho}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \rho_n x^n$ 

### The largest component:

- Subtle key: F<sub>π</sub>(1) is the probability that a node belongs to a finite component.
- Therefore:  $S_1 = 1 F_{\pi}(1)$ .

### Our mission, which we accept:

Find the four generating functions

$$F_P, F_R, F_\pi$$
, and  $F_\rho$ 

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 69/88

### Outline

### Basics

Definitions How to build Some visual example

### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### **Generating Functions**

Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes

### Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size eferences

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 70/88

Sneaky Result 1:

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build

Some visual examples Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 71/88

**日** うへで

### Sneaky Result 1:

Consider two random variables U and V whose values may be 0, 1, 2, ...

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions

low to build Some visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 71/88

P

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### Sneaky Result 1:

- Consider two random variables U and V whose values may be 0, 1, 2, ...
- Write probability distributions as U<sub>k</sub> and V<sub>k</sub> and g.f.'s as F<sub>U</sub> and F<sub>V</sub>.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 71/88

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### Sneaky Result 1:

- Consider two random variables U and V whose values may be 0, 1, 2, ...
- ► Write probability distributions as U<sub>k</sub> and V<sub>k</sub> and g.f.'s as F<sub>U</sub> and F<sub>V</sub>.
- SR1: If a third random variable is defined as

$$W = \sum_{i=1}^{V} U^{(i)}$$
 with each  $U^{(i)} \stackrel{d}{=} U$ 

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Awarase Component Size

References

Frame 71/88

### Sneaky Result 1:

- Consider two random variables U and V whose values may be 0, 1, 2, ...
- ► Write probability distributions as U<sub>k</sub> and V<sub>k</sub> and g.f.'s as F<sub>U</sub> and F<sub>V</sub>.
- SR1: If a third random variable is defined as

$$W = \sum_{i=1}^{V} U^{(i)}$$
 with each  $U^{(i)} \stackrel{d}{=} U$ 

then

$$F_W(x)=F_V(F_U(x))$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 71/88

### Proof of SN1:

#### Write probability that variable *W* has value *k* as $W_k$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 72/88

**日** りへで

## Write probability that variable *W* has value *k* as $W_k$ .

$$W_k = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_j \times \Pr(\text{sum of } j \text{ draws of variable } U = k)$$

## Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 72/88

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Write probability that variable *W* has value *k* as  $W_k$ .

$$W_k = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_j imes ext{Pr}( ext{sum of } j ext{ draws of variable } U = k)$$

$$=\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_{j} \sum_{\substack{\{i_{1},i_{2},\ldots,i_{j}\} \mid \\ i_{1}+i_{2}+\ldots+i_{j}=k}} U_{i_{1}} U_{i_{2}} \cdots U_{i_{j}}$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 72/88

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Write probability that variable *W* has value *k* as  $W_k$ .

$$W_k = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_j imes$$
 Pr(sum of  $j$  draws of variable  $U$  =  $k$ )

$$=\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_j \sum_{\substack{\{i_1,i_2,...,i_j\} \mid \\ i_1+i_2+...+i_j=k}} U_{i_1} U_{i_2} \cdots U_{i_j}$$

$$\therefore F_W(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} W_k x^k$$

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### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant

Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 72/88

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Write probability that variable *W* has value *k* as  $W_k$ .

 $\sim$ 

$$W_k = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_j imes ext{Pr}( ext{sum of } j ext{ draws of variable } U = k)$$

$$=\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_{j} \sum_{\substack{\{i_{1},i_{2},\ldots,i_{j}\} \mid \\ i_{1}+i_{2}+\ldots+i_{j}=k}} U_{i_{1}} U_{i_{2}} \cdots U_{i_{j}}$$

$$\therefore F_{W}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} W_{k} x^{k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_{j} \sum_{\substack{\{i_{1}, i_{2}, \dots, i_{j}\} \mid \\ i_{1}+i_{2}+\dots+i_{j}=k}} U_{i_{1}} U_{i_{2}} \cdots U_{i_{j}} x^{k}$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 72/88

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$$W_k = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_j imes ext{Pr}( ext{sum of } j ext{ draws of variable } U = k)$$

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$$\therefore F_{W}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} W_{k} x^{k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_{j} \sum_{\substack{\{i_{1}, i_{2}, \dots, i_{j}\} \mid \\ i_{1}+i_{2}+\dots+i_{j}=k}} U_{i_{1}} U_{i_{2}} \cdots U_{i_{j}} x^{k}$$

$$=\sum_{j=0}^{\infty}V_{j}\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}$$

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### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 72/88

Write probability that variable *W* has value *k* as  $W_k$ .

 $\infty$ 

$$W_k = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_j imes ext{Pr}( ext{sum of } j ext{ draws of variable } U = k)$$

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$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_j \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{\substack{\{i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_j\} \mid \\ i_1+i_2+\ldots+i_j=k}} U_{i_1} x^{i_1} U_{i_2} x^{i_2} \cdots U_{i_j} x^{i_j}$$

## Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

With some concentration, observe:

$$F_{W}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_{j} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \underbrace{\sum_{\substack{\{i_{1},i_{2},\dots,i_{k}\} \mid \\ i_{1}+i_{2}+\dots+i_{k}=j \\ x^{k} \text{ piece of } \left(\sum_{i'=0}^{\infty} U_{i'} x^{i'}\right)^{j}}_{x^{k} \text{ piece of } \left(\sum_{i'=0}^{\infty} U_{i'} x^{i'}\right)^{j}}$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant

References

Frame 73/88

**日** りへで

With some concentration, observe:

$$F_{W}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_{j} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{\substack{\{i_{1}, i_{2}, \dots, i_{k}\} \mid \\ i_{1}+i_{2}+\dots+i_{k}=j}} U_{i_{1}} x^{i_{1}} U_{i_{2}} x^{i_{2}} \dots U_{i_{j}} x^{i_{j}}}{x^{k} \text{ piece of } \left(\sum_{i'=0}^{\infty} U_{i'} x^{i'}\right)^{j}} \left(\sum_{i'=0}^{\infty} U_{i'} x^{i'}\right)^{j} = (F_{U}(x))^{j}}$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

With some concentration, observe:

$$F_{W}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_{j} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{\substack{\{i_{1},i_{2},...,i_{k}\} \mid \\ i_{1}+i_{2}+...+i_{k}=j}} U_{i_{1}} x^{i_{1}} U_{i_{2}} x^{i_{2}} \cdots U_{i_{j}} x^{i_{j}}} \underbrace{x^{k} \text{ piece of } \left(\sum_{i'=0}^{\infty} U_{i'} x^{i'}\right)^{j}}_{\left(\sum_{i'=0}^{\infty} U_{i'} x^{i'}\right)^{j} = (F_{U}(x))^{j}} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} V_{j} (F_{U}(x))^{j}$$

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

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## Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

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## Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Sneaky Result 2:

## Random Networks

## Basics Definitions How to build

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 74/88

**日** りへで

# Sneaky Result 2:

Start with a random variable U with distribution  $U_k$  (k = 0, 1, 2, ...)

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Conditio Component sizes Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 74/88

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# Sneaky Result 2:

- Start with a random variable U with distribution  $U_k$  (k = 0, 1, 2, ...)
- SNR2: If a second random variable is defined as

*V* = *U* + 1

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 74/88

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# Sneaky Result 2:

Start with a random variable U with distribution  $U_k$  (k = 0, 1, 2, ...)

## SNR2: If a second random variable is defined as

$$V = U + 1$$
 then  $|F_V(x) = xF_U(x)|$ 

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant

Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 74/88

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Start with a random variable U with distribution  $U_k$  (k = 0, 1, 2, ...)

## SNR2: If a second random variable is defined as

$$V = U + 1$$
 then  $|F_V(x) = xF_U(x)|$ 

• Reason: 
$$V_k = U_{k-1}$$
 for  $k \ge 1$  and  $V_0 = 0$ .

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Componen

References

Frame 74/88

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Start with a random variable U with distribution  $U_k$  (k = 0, 1, 2, ...)

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$$V_k = U_{k-1}$$
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$$\therefore F_V(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} V_k x^k$$

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 74/88

୍ର୍ବ୍ର୍

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## SNR2: If a second random variable is defined as

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$$\therefore F_V(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} V_k x^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} U_{k-1} x^k$$

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 74/88

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$$\therefore F_V(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} V_k x^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} U_{k-1} x^k$$
$$= x \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} U_j x^j$$

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 74/88

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$$\therefore F_V(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} V_k x^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} U_{k-1} x^k$$
$$= x \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} U_j x^j = x F_U(x).$$

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

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## SNR2: If a second random variable is defined as

$$V = U + 1$$
 then  $F_V(x) = xF_U(x)$ 

• Reason: 
$$V_k = U_{k-1}$$
 for  $k \ge 1$  and  $V_0 = 0$ .

$$\therefore F_V(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} V_k x^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} U_{k-1} x^k$$
$$= x \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} U_j x^j = x F_U(x) \cdot \checkmark$$

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Generalization of SN2:

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 75/88

**日** りへで

## Generalization of SN2:

(1) If 
$$V = U + i$$
 then

 $F_V(x) = x^i F_U(x).$ 

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Conditior Component sizes Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 75/88

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## Generalization of SN2:

• (1) If 
$$V = U + i$$
 then

 $F_V(x) = x^i F_U(x).$ 

• (2) If V = U - i then

$$F_V(x) = x^{-i} \left( F_U(x) - U_0 - U_1 x - \ldots - U_{i-1} x^{i-1} \right)$$

Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions

low to build come visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condi

Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 75/88

## Generalization of SN2:

• (1) If 
$$V = U + i$$
 then

 $F_V(x) = x^i F_U(x).$ 

• (2) If V = U - i then

$$F_V(x) = x^{-i} \left( F_U(x) - U_0 - U_1 x - \dots - U_{i-1} x^{i-1} \right)$$

$$=x^{-i}\sum_{k=i}^{\infty}U_kx^k$$

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 75/88

# Outline

## Basics

Definitions How to build Some visual example

## Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

# **Generating Functions**

Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results

## Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Size References

## Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 76/88

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 Goal: figure out forms of the component generating functions, *F<sub>π</sub>* and *F<sub>ρ</sub>*.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distribution Configuration mode

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Si

References

Frame 77/88

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- Goal: figure out forms of the component generating functions, *F<sub>π</sub>* and *F<sub>ρ</sub>*.
- $\pi_n$  = probability that a random node belongs to a finite component of size *n*

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component

References

Frame 77/88

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- Goal: figure out forms of the component generating functions, *F<sub>π</sub>* and *F<sub>ρ</sub>*.
- $\pi_n$  = probability that a random node belongs to a finite component of size *n*

 $= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \times \Pr\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{sum of sizes of subcomponents} \\ \text{at end of } k \text{ random links} = n-1 \end{array}\right)$ 

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 77/88

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Therefore:

$$F_{\pi}(x) = \underbrace{F_{P}(F_{
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Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering

Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

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 $= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k \times \Pr\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{sum of sizes of subcomponents} \\ \text{at end of } k \text{ random links} = n-1 \end{array}\right)$ 

Therefore:

$$F_{\pi}(x) = \underbrace{x}_{SN2} \underbrace{F_{P}(F_{\rho}(x))}_{SN1}$$

Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

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Therefore: 
$$F_{\pi}(x) = \underbrace{x}_{SN2} \underbrace{F_{P}(F_{\rho}(x))}_{SN1}$$

Extra factor of x accounts for random node itself.

### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

*ρ<sub>n</sub>* = probability that a random link leads to a finite subcomponent of size *n*.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Siz

References

Frame 78/88

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- *ρ<sub>n</sub>* = probability that a random link leads to a finite subcomponent of size *n*.
- Invoke one step of recursion: ρ<sub>n</sub> = probability that a random node arrived along a random edge is part of a finite subcomponent of size n.

### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 78/88

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- Invoke one step of recursion: ρ<sub>n</sub> = probability that a random node arrived along a random edge is part of a finite subcomponent of size n.

 $= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} R_k \times \Pr\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{sum of sizes of subcomponents} \\ \text{at end of } k \text{ random links} = n-1 \end{array}\right)$ 

## Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 78/88

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## Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

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Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

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Therefore: 
$$F_{\rho}(x) = \underbrace{x}_{SN2} \underbrace{F_R(F_{\rho}(x))}_{SN1}$$

 Again, extra factor of x accounts for random node itself.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

We now have two functional equations connecting our generating functions:

 $F_{\pi}(x) = xF_{P}(F_{\rho}(x))$  and  $F_{\rho}(x) = xF_{R}(F_{\rho}(x))$ 

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Size

References

Frame 79/88

We now have two functional equations connecting our generating functions:

 $F_{\pi}(x) = xF_{P}(F_{\rho}(x))$  and  $F_{\rho}(x) = xF_{R}(F_{\rho}(x))$ 

► Taking stock: We know  $F_P(x)$  and  $F_R(x) = F'_P(x)/F'_P(1)$ .

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Size

References

Frame 79/88

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We now have two functional equations connecting our generating functions:

 $F_{\pi}(x) = xF_{P}(F_{\rho}(x))$  and  $F_{\rho}(x) = xF_{R}(F_{\rho}(x))$ 

- ► Taking stock: We know  $F_P(x)$  and  $F_R(x) = F'_P(x)/F'_P(1)$ .
- We first untangle the second equation to find F<sub>ρ</sub>

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 79/88

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We now have two functional equations connecting our generating functions:

 $F_{\pi}(x) = xF_{P}(F_{\rho}(x))$  and  $F_{\rho}(x) = xF_{R}(F_{\rho}(x))$ 

- ► Taking stock: We know  $F_P(x)$  and  $F_R(x) = F'_P(x)/F'_P(1)$ .
- We first untangle the second equation to find F<sub>ρ</sub>
- We can do this because it only involves  $F_{\rho}$  and  $F_{R}$ .

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 79/88

We now have two functional equations connecting our generating functions:

 $F_{\pi}(x) = xF_{P}(F_{\rho}(x))$  and  $F_{\rho}(x) = xF_{R}(F_{\rho}(x))$ 

- ► Taking stock: We know  $F_P(x)$  and  $F_R(x) = F'_P(x)/F'_P(1)$ .
- We first untangle the second equation to find F<sub>ρ</sub>
- We can do this because it only involves  $F_{\rho}$  and  $F_{R}$ .
- The first equation then immediately gives us F<sub>π</sub> in terms of F<sub>ρ</sub> and F<sub>R</sub>.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 79/88

Remembering vaguely what we are doing:

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Size

References

Frame 80/88

Remembering vaguely what we are doing:
 Finding *F<sub>P</sub>* to obtain the size of the largest component *S*<sub>1</sub> = 1 - *F*<sub>π</sub>(1).

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Siz

References

Frame 80/88

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Remembering vaguely what we are doing:
 Finding *F<sub>P</sub>* to obtain the size of the largest component *S*<sub>1</sub> = 1 - *F*<sub>π</sub>(1).

Set x = 1 in our two equations:

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component

Average Component Size

References

Frame 80/88

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Remembering vaguely what we are doing:
 Finding *F<sub>P</sub>* to obtain the size of the largest component *S*<sub>1</sub> = 1 - *F*<sub>π</sub>(1).

Set x = 1 in our two equations:

 $F_{\pi}(1) = F_{P}(F_{\rho}(1))$  and  $F_{\rho}(1) = F_{R}(F_{\rho}(1))$ 

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Size

References

Frame 80/88

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Remembering vaguely what we are doing:
 Finding *F<sub>P</sub>* to obtain the size of the largest component *S*<sub>1</sub> = 1 - *F*<sub>π</sub>(1).

Set x = 1 in our two equations:

 $F_{\pi}(1) = F_{P}(F_{\rho}(1))$  and  $F_{\rho}(1) = F_{R}(F_{\rho}(1))$ 

Solve second equation numerically for  $F_{\rho}(1)$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 80/88

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 Finding *F<sub>P</sub>* to obtain the size of the largest component *S*<sub>1</sub> = 1 - *F*<sub>π</sub>(1).

Set x = 1 in our two equations:

 $F_{\pi}(1) = F_{P}(F_{\rho}(1))$  and  $F_{\rho}(1) = F_{R}(F_{\rho}(1))$ 

- Solve second equation numerically for  $F_{\rho}(1)$ .
- Plug  $F_{\rho}(1)$  into first equation to obtain  $F_{\pi}(1)$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 80/88

### Example: Standard random graphs.

• We can show 
$$F_P(x) = e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)}$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Size

References

Frame 81/88

### Example: Standard random graphs.

• We can show 
$$F_P(x) = e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)}$$

$$\therefore F_R(x) = F'_P(x)/F'_P(1)$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

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Frame 81/88

### Example: Standard random graphs.

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

$$\therefore F_R(x) = F'_P(x)/F'_P(1) = e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)}/e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x')}|_{x'=1}$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 81/88

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

#### Random Networks

#### BASICS Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

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References

Frame 81/88

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$$= e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)} = F_P(x)$$
 ...aha!

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 81/88

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$$= e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)} = F_P(x)$$
 ...aha!

RHS's of our two equations are the same.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 81/88

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### Example: Standard random graphs.

• We can show 
$$F_P(x) = e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)}$$

$$\therefore F_R(x) = F'_P(x)/F'_P(1) = e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)}/e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x')}|_{x'=1}$$

$$=e^{-\langle k \rangle(1-x)}=F_P(x)$$
 ...aha!

RHS's of our two equations are the same.

• So  $F_{\pi}(x) = F_{\rho}(x) = xF_{R}(F_{\rho}(x)) = xF_{R}(F_{\pi}(x))$ 

#### Random Networks

# **Basics**

Size of the Giant Component

Frame 81/88 P

Sac.

### Example: Standard random graphs.

• We can show 
$$F_P(x) = e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)}$$

$$\therefore F_R(x) = F'_P(x)/F'_P(1) = e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)}/e^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x')}|_{x'=1}$$

$$=e^{-\langle k\rangle(1-x)}=F_P(x)$$
 ...aha!

- RHS's of our two equations are the same.
- ► So  $F_{\pi}(x) = F_{\rho}(x) = xF_R(F_{\rho}(x)) = xF_R(F_{\pi}(x))$
- Why our dirty (but wrong) trick worked earlier...

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Component sizes Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 81/88

# • We are down to $F_{\pi}(x) = xF_{R}(F_{\pi}(x))$ and $F_{R}(x) = xe^{-\langle k \rangle(1-x)}$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Size

References

Frame 82/88

• We are down to 
$$F_{\pi}(x) = xF_R(F_{\pi}(x))$$
 and  $F_R(x) = xe^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)}$ .

$$\therefore$$
  $F_{\pi}(x) = xe^{-\langle k \rangle (1-F_{\pi}(x))}$ 

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Size

References

Frame 82/88

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• We are down to 
$$F_{\pi}(x) = xF_R(F_{\pi}(x))$$
 and  $F_R(x) = xe^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)}$ .

$$\therefore$$
  $F_{\pi}(x) = xe^{-\langle k \rangle (1-F_{\pi}(x))}$ 

We're first after S<sub>1</sub> = 1 − F<sub>π</sub>(1) so set x = 1 and replace F<sub>π</sub>(1) by 1 − S<sub>1</sub>:

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

Average Component Size

References

Frame 82/88

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We're first after S<sub>1</sub> = 1 − F<sub>π</sub>(1) so set x = 1 and replace F<sub>π</sub>(1) by 1 − S<sub>1</sub>:

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

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component

References

Frame 82/88

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We're first after S<sub>1</sub> = 1 − F<sub>π</sub>(1) so set x = 1 and replace F<sub>π</sub>(1) by 1 − S<sub>1</sub>:

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

Just as we found with our dirty trick...

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component

References

Frame 82/88

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• We are down to 
$$F_{\pi}(x) = xF_R(F_{\pi}(x))$$
 and  $F_R(x) = xe^{-\langle k \rangle (1-x)}$ .

$$\therefore$$
  $F_{\pi}(x) = xe^{-\langle k \rangle (1-F_{\pi}(x))}$ 

• We're first after  $S_1 = 1 - F_{\pi}(1)$  so set x = 1 and replace  $F_{\pi}(1)$  by  $1 - S_1$ :

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

- Just as we found with our dirty trick...
- Again, have to resort to numerics at this point.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 82/88

# Outline

### Basics

Definitions How to build Some visual example

### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

### **Generating Functions**

Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 83/88

P

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• Next: find average size of finite components  $\langle n \rangle$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Size of the Glant Component Size

References

Frame 84/88

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- Next: find average size of finite components  $\langle n \rangle$ .
- Using standard G.F. result:  $\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1)$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure

Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component Generating Functions Datinitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Component sizes

Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 84/88

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- Next: find average size of finite components  $\langle n \rangle$ .
- Using standard G.F. result:  $\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1)$ .
- Try to avoid finding  $F_{\pi}(x)$ ...

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Structure

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 84/88

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- Next: find average size of finite components  $\langle n \rangle$ .
- Using standard G.F. result:  $\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1)$ .
- Try to avoid finding  $F_{\pi}(x)$ ...
- Starting from  $F_{\pi}(x) = xF_{P}(F_{\rho}(x))$ , we differentiate:

 $F_{\pi}'(x)=F_{\mathcal{P}}\left(F_{
ho}(x)
ight)+xF_{
ho}'(x)F_{\mathcal{P}}'\left(F_{
ho}(x)
ight)$ 

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 84/88

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ho}(x)
ight)$ 

• While 
$$F_{\rho}(x) = xF_{R}(F_{\rho}(x))$$
 gives

 $F_{
ho}'(x)=F_R(F_{
ho}(x))+xF_{
ho}'(x)F_R'(F_{
ho}(x))$ 

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 84/88

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- Next: find average size of finite components  $\langle n \rangle$ .
- Using standard G.F. result:  $\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1)$ .
- Try to avoid finding  $F_{\pi}(x)$ ...
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• While 
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 gives

$$F'_{\rho}(x) = F_{R}(F_{\rho}(x)) + xF'_{\rho}(x)F'_{R}(F_{\rho}(x))$$

Now set x = 1 in both equations.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 84/88

- Next: find average size of finite components  $\langle n \rangle$ .
- Using standard G.F. result:  $\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1)$ .
- Try to avoid finding  $F_{\pi}(x)$ ...
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• While 
$$F_{\rho}(x) = xF_{R}(F_{\rho}(x))$$
 gives

 $F'_{\rho}(x) = F_{R}\left(F_{\rho}(x)\right) + xF'_{\rho}(x)F'_{R}\left(F_{\rho}(x)\right)$ 

- Now set x = 1 in both equations.
- We solve the second equation for F'<sub>ρ</sub>(1) (we must already have F<sub>ρ</sub>(1)).

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 84/88

- Next: find average size of finite components  $\langle n \rangle$ .
- Using standard G.F. result:  $\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1)$ .
- Try to avoid finding  $F_{\pi}(x)$ ...
- Starting from  $F_{\pi}(x) = xF_{P}(F_{\rho}(x))$ , we differentiate:

 $F_{\pi}'(x) = F_{\mathcal{P}}\left(F_{\rho}(x)
ight) + xF_{\rho}'(x)F_{\mathcal{P}}'\left(F_{\rho}(x)
ight)$ 

• While 
$$F_{\rho}(x) = xF_{R}(F_{\rho}(x))$$
 gives

 $F'_{\rho}(x) = F_{R}\left(F_{\rho}(x)\right) + xF'_{\rho}(x)F'_{R}\left(F_{\rho}(x)\right)$ 

- Now set x = 1 in both equations.
- We solve the second equation for F'<sub>ρ</sub>(1) (we must already have F<sub>ρ</sub>(1)).
- Plug  $F'_{\rho}(1)$  and  $F_{\rho}(1)$  into first equation to find  $F'_{\pi}(1)$ .

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 84/88

Example: Standard random graphs.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 85/88

Example: Standard random graphs.

• Use fact that  $F_P = F_R$  and  $F_{\pi} = F_{\rho}$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant

Average Component Size

References

Frame 85/88

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Example: Standard random graphs.

- Use fact that  $F_P = F_R$  and  $F_{\pi} = F_{\rho}$ .
- Two differentiated equations reduce to only one:

$$F'_{\pi}(x) = F_{\mathcal{P}}\left(F_{\pi}(x)\right) + xF'_{\pi}(x)F'_{\mathcal{P}}\left(F_{\pi}(x)\right)$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distribution Configuration mode

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 85/88

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Example: Standard random graphs.

• Use fact that  $F_P = F_R$  and  $F_{\pi} = F_{\rho}$ .

Two differentiated equations reduce to only one:

$$F'_{\pi}(x) = F_{P}(F_{\pi}(x)) + xF'_{\pi}(x)F'_{P}(F_{\pi}(x))$$
  
Rearrange:  $F'_{\pi}(x) = \frac{F_{P}(F_{\pi}(x))}{1 - xF'_{P}(F_{\pi}(x))}$ 

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 85/88

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Example: Standard random graphs.

- Use fact that  $F_P = F_R$  and  $F_{\pi} = F_{\rho}$ .
- Two differentiated equations reduce to only one:

$$F'_{\pi}(x) = F_{\mathcal{P}}\left(F_{\pi}(x)\right) + xF'_{\pi}(x)F'_{\mathcal{P}}\left(F_{\pi}(x)\right)$$

Rearrange: 
$$F'_{\pi}(x) = \frac{F_P(F_{\pi}(x))}{1 - xF'_P(F_{\pi}(x))}$$

Simplify denominator using  $F'_{\pi}(x) = \langle k \rangle F_{\pi}(x)$ 

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 85/88

Example: Standard random graphs.

- Use fact that  $F_P = F_R$  and  $F_{\pi} = F_{\rho}$ .
- Two differentiated equations reduce to only one:

$$F_{\pi}'(x) = F_{\mathcal{P}}\left(F_{\pi}(x)
ight) + xF_{\pi}'(x)F_{\mathcal{P}}'\left(F_{\pi}(x)
ight)$$

Rearrange: 
$$F'_{\pi}(x) = \frac{F_P(F_{\pi}(x))}{1 - xF'_P(F_{\pi}(x))}$$

- Simplify denominator using  $F'_{\pi}(x) = \langle k \rangle F_{\pi}(x)$
- Replace  $F_P(F_\pi(x))$  using  $F_\pi(x) = xF_P(F_\pi(x))$ .

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 85/88

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- Use fact that  $F_P = F_R$  and  $F_{\pi} = F_{\rho}$ .
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$$F_{\pi}'(x) = F_{\mathcal{P}}\left(F_{\pi}(x)
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Rearrange: 
$$F'_{\pi}(x) = \frac{F_P(F_{\pi}(x))}{1 - xF'_P(F_{\pi}(x))}$$

- Simplify denominator using  $F'_{\pi}(x) = \langle k \rangle F_{\pi}(x)$
- Replace  $F_P(F_\pi(x))$  using  $F_\pi(x) = xF_P(F_\pi(x))$ .
- Set x = 1 and replace  $F_{\pi}(1)$  with  $1 S_1$ .

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

Frame 85/88

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ight)$$

Rearrange: 
$$F'_{\pi}(x) = \frac{F_P(F_{\pi}(x))}{1 - xF'_P(F_{\pi}(x))}$$

- Simplify denominator using  $F'_{\pi}(x) = \langle k \rangle F_{\pi}(x)$
- Replace  $F_P(F_\pi(x))$  using  $F_\pi(x) = xF_P(F_\pi(x))$ .
- Set x = 1 and replace  $F_{\pi}(1)$  with  $1 S_1$ .

End result: 
$$\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1) = \frac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k \rangle(1-S_1)}$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 85/88

Our result for standard random networks:

$$\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1) = rac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k \rangle(1-S_1)}$$

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component Generating

Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 86/88

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Our result for standard random networks:

$$\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1) = rac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k 
angle(1-S_1)}$$

Recall that (k) = 1 is the critical value of average degree for standard random networks.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Definitions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 86/88

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Our result for standard random networks:

$$\langle n 
angle = F'_{\pi}(1) = rac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k 
angle(1-S_1)}$$

- Recall that (k) = 1 is the critical value of average degree for standard random networks.
- Look at what happens when we increase (k) to 1 from below.

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 86/88

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Our result for standard random networks:

$$\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1) = rac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k \rangle(1-S_1)}$$

- Recall that (k) = 1 is the critical value of average degree for standard random networks.
- Look at what happens when we increase (k) to 1 from below.
- We have  $S_1 = 0$  for all  $\langle k \rangle < 1$

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 86/88

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Our result for standard random networks:

$$\langle n 
angle = F'_{\pi}(1) = rac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k 
angle(1-S_1)}$$

- Recall that (k) = 1 is the critical value of average degree for standard random networks.
- Look at what happens when we increase (k) to 1 from below.
- We have  $S_1 = 0$  for all  $\langle k \rangle < 1$  so

$$\langle n \rangle = \frac{1}{1 - \langle k \rangle}$$

• This blows up as  $\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 1$ .

#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 86/88

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Our result for standard random networks:

$$\langle n 
angle = F'_{\pi}(1) = rac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k 
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- Recall that (k) = 1 is the critical value of average degree for standard random networks.
- Look at what happens when we increase (k) to 1 from below.
- We have  $S_1 = 0$  for all  $\langle k \rangle < 1$  so

$$\langle n \rangle = \frac{1}{1 - \langle k \rangle}$$

- This blows up as  $\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 1$ .
- ► Reason: we have a power law distribution of component sizes at ⟨k⟩ = 1.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration mode

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Glant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Glant Component Average Component Size

Frame 86/88

Our result for standard random networks:

$$\langle n 
angle = F'_{\pi}(1) = rac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k 
angle(1-S_1)}$$

- Recall that (k) = 1 is the critical value of average degree for standard random networks.
- Look at what happens when we increase (k) to 1 from below.
- We have  $S_1 = 0$  for all  $\langle k \rangle < 1$  so

$$\langle n \rangle = \frac{1}{1 - \langle k \rangle}$$

- This blows up as  $\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 1$ .
- Reason: we have a power law distribution of component sizes at (k) = 1.
- Typical critical point behavior....

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

#### Structure Clustering Degree distribution

Configuration model \_argest component

#### Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 86/88

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### • Limits of $\langle k \rangle = 0$ and $\infty$ make sense for

$$\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1) = \frac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k \rangle(1-S_1)}$$

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 87/88

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• Limits of  $\langle k \rangle = 0$  and  $\infty$  make sense for

$$\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1) = \frac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k \rangle(1-S_1)}$$

• As 
$$\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 0$$
,  $S_1 = 0$ , and  $\langle n \rangle \rightarrow 1$ .

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 87/88

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• Limits of  $\langle k \rangle = 0$  and  $\infty$  make sense for

$$\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1) = \frac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k \rangle(1-S_1)}$$

• As 
$$\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 0$$
,  $S_1 = 0$ , and  $\langle n \rangle \rightarrow 1$ .

All nodes are isolated.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 87/88

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• Limits of  $\langle k \rangle = 0$  and  $\infty$  make sense for

$$\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1) = \frac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k \rangle(1-S_1)}$$

• As 
$$\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 0$$
,  $S_1 = 0$ , and  $\langle n \rangle \rightarrow 1$ .

All nodes are isolated.

• As 
$$\langle k \rangle \to \infty$$
,  $S_1 \to 1$  and  $\langle n \rangle \to 0$ .

#### Random Networks

# Basics

Average Component Size

Frame 87/88 Sac.

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• Limits of  $\langle k \rangle = 0$  and  $\infty$  make sense for

$$\langle n \rangle = F'_{\pi}(1) = \frac{(1-S_1)}{1-\langle k \rangle(1-S_1)}$$

• As 
$$\langle k \rangle \rightarrow 0$$
,  $S_1 = 0$ , and  $\langle n \rangle \rightarrow 1$ .

- All nodes are isolated.
- As  $\langle k \rangle \to \infty$ ,  $S_1 \to 1$  and  $\langle n \rangle \to 0$ .
- No nodes are outside of the giant component.

#### Random Networks

#### Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component Sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 87/88

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#### Random Networks

Basics Definitions How to build Some visual examples

Structure Clustering Degree distributions Configuration model Largest component

Generating Functions Definitions Basic Properties Giant Component condition Component sizes Useful results Size of the Giant Component Average Component Size

References

Frame 88/88

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