



Aalto University
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CS-E5745

Mathematical Methods for Network Science

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This lecture

1. Basic concepts and notation (remind CS-E5740)
2. Basic network models (remind CS-E5740)
3. Common approximations:
 - ▶ Tree-like approximations
 - ▶ “Thermodynamic limit”

Basic definitions and notation (1/8)

- ▶ Graph $G = (V, E)$, where V is the set of nodes and $E \subseteq V \times V$ is the set of edges
 - ▶ Usually no self-edges: $(v, v) \notin E$ for any $v \in V$.
 - ▶ In this course: undirected networks, no multiedges or weighted edges (unless otherwise mentioned)
 - ▶ We will use both vertices/edges and nodes/links.
 - ▶ $N = |V|$ and $L = |E|$

Basic definitions and notation (2/8)

- ▶ Two nodes v, u are *adjacent* or *neighbors* if there is a link $(v, u) \in E$, and (v, u) is *incident* to v and u .
- ▶ *Neighborhood* of node v is the set of nodes adjacent it:
 $\Gamma(v) = \{u | (v, u) \in E\}$
- ▶ *Degree* of node v is the number of adjacent nodes:
 $k_v = |\Gamma(v)|$

Basic definitions and notation (3/8)

- ▶ *Walk* is a sequence of nodes and connected by links $(v_0, e_1, v_1, e_2, \dots, e_l, v_l)$, where $e_i = (v_{i-1}, v_i) \in E$
 - ▶ Length of the walk is the **number of edges** in it
- ▶ *Path* is a walk where all nodes are distinct, with the exception that the first and the last node can be the same.
- ▶ *Cycle* is a path where the first and the last node are the same
- ▶ *Distance* between two nodes is the length of the shortest path between those nodes
- ▶ Note! Some sources might have different definitions for walk and path! Always define these concept (outside of this course) for clarity.

Basic definitions and notation (4/8)

- ▶ Two nodes are *connected* if there is a path between them
- ▶ *Component* is a maximal set of nodes that are connected
 - ▶ Connectivity partitions an undirected graph into components (i.e., each node is in exactly one component)
 - ▶ The *size of the component* is the number of nodes in it
 - ▶ The *largest component* is the one with largest size
- ▶ *Connected graph* is a graph with a single component
- ▶ *Giant component* is the component that spans non-zero fraction of an infinitely large network

Basic definitions and notation (5/8)

- ▶ *Percolation* theory in networks describes the properties of connected components
 - ▶ *Site percolation*: paths are allowed only through *occupied* nodes
 - ▶ *Bond percolation*: paths are allowed only through *occupied* edges
 - ▶ Identical to removing nodes/edges
- ▶ Physics: regular lattices, nodes or edges set independently and uniformly occupied with *occupation probability*

Basic definitions and notation (6/8)

- ▶ We assume that the nodes are (or are implicitly mapped to) numbers from 0 to $N - 1$
- ▶ *Adjacency matrix*:

$$A_{uv} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } (u, v) \in E \\ 0, & \text{if } (u, v) \notin E. \end{cases}$$

- ▶ Useful when working with networks, e.g.,
 - ▶ Degree: $k_v = \sum_u A_{uv}$
 - ▶ Number of walks of length n starting at v and ending at u : $(A^n)_{uv}$
 - ▶ ...

Basic definitions and notation (7/8)

- ▶ *Global clustering coefficient or transitivity* is

$$C = \frac{\text{\# of triangles}}{\text{\# connected triplets}} = \frac{\sum_{uvh} A_{uv} A_{vh} A_{hu}}{\sum_{uvh} A_{uv} A_{hu}} = \frac{\text{Tr}(A^3)}{\text{Tr}(AFA)}$$

- ▶ Tr is the trace operator and F is the adjacency matrix of a full graph
- ▶ *Local clustering coefficient* for node u is

$$c_u = \frac{\sum_{vh} A_{uv} A_{vh} A_{hu}}{\sum_{vh} A_{uv} A_{hu}} = \frac{(A^3)_{uu}}{(AFA)_{uu}} = \frac{(A^3)_{uu}}{k_u(k_u - 1)/2}$$

Basic definitions and notation (8/8)

- ▶ *Tree* is a connected graph with no loops
 - ▶ Equivalently, a connected graph with $N - 1$ edges
- ▶ *Forest* is a graph that consists of trees

Random graph models

- ▶ Create an artificial random network with desired properties
 - ▶ = probability distributions over all graphs $P(G)$
 - ▶ (*Physicist jargon*: probability distribution is an “ensemble”)
- ▶ Can be roughly divided to two categories:
 1. Null models that have some set of structural properties but otherwise maximally random: Usually closed form formula for $P(G)$
 2. Stylised models to analyse particular microscopic generation rules: No closed form formula for $P(G)$, only algorithm for sampling

Erdős-Rényi random graphs

- ▶ “soft” and “hard” versions:
 - ▶ $G(N, p)$: N nodes, each link exists with probability p
 - ▶ $G(N, L)$: N nodes and L links distributed uniformly randomly between the nodes
 - ▶ (*Physicist jargon*: These are some times called “canonical ensemble” and “microcanonical ensemble”)
- ▶ $G(N, p = \frac{L}{N(N-1)/2}) \approx G(N, L)$, because $\langle L \rangle = pN(N-1)/2$
 - ▶ Often used interchangeably for large networks
 - ▶ Differences in these two discussed later in the course
- ▶ $G(N, p)$ AKA *Bernoulli random graphs*

Configuration model (1/6)

- ▶ *Configuration model*: a completely random graph with given degree sequence $\{k_u\}_u$
- ▶ Again “soft” and “hard” variants can be constructed:
 - ▶ Each graph with the **exactly** the given degree sequence is sampled uniformly randomly
 - ▶ The **expected value** of degrees is given by the degree sequence, but there can be slight deviations
 - ▶ More on these on the 5th lecture
- ▶ In practise also other variants and complications, see a recent review article: <https://arxiv.org/abs/1608.00607>
- ▶ Note: Often only the “hard” variant is said to be a configuration model, and “soft” variants have different names (e.g., Chung-Lu model)

Configuration model (2/6)

- ▶ The “hard” variant of the configuration:

$$P(G|\{k_u\}) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\Omega(\{k_u\})}, & \text{if } k(G) = \{k_u\} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

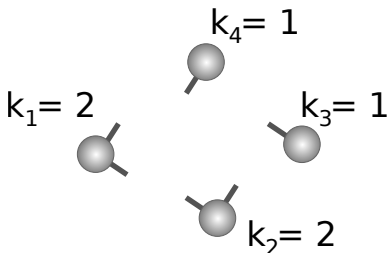
- ▶ The sequence $\{k_u\}$ is a *graphic sequence* iff
 - ▶ $\sum_u k_u$ is even, and
 - ▶ $\sum_{u=0}^r k_u \leq r(r-1) + \sum_{i=r+1}^{N-1} \min(r, k_u)$, for all $r \leq N-2$
(where in the sums $\{k_u\}$ ordered such that $k_u \geq k_{u+1}$)

Configuration model (3/6)

- ▶ The configuration model can be relaxed by allowing multi-links and self-loops
 - ▶ Only requirement is that $\sum_u k_u$ is even
 - ▶ Large sparse networks will have small number of multi-links and loops
- ▶ Easy generation algorithm based on *stubs*
 - ▶ Node u has k_u stubs
 - ▶ Select two stubs uniformly randomly and connect

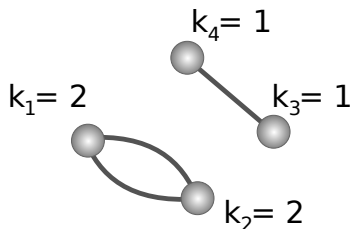
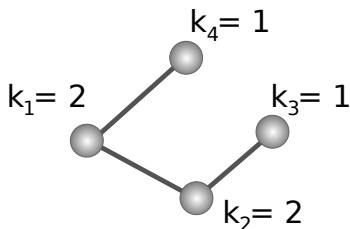
Configuration model (4/6)

- Example: $\{k_u\} = \{2, 2, 1, 1\}$. Stubs:



Configuration model (5/6)

- Example: $\{k_u\} = \{2, 2, 1, 1\}$. Two of the possible solutions:



Configuration model (6/6)

- ▶ A “soft configuration model”: each edge (u, v) (including $u = v$) is present independently with probability

$$P((u, v) \in G | \{k_u\}) = \begin{cases} \frac{k_u k_v}{\sum_u k_u}, & \text{if } u \neq v \\ \frac{k_u k_v}{2 \sum_u k_u}, & \text{if } u = v. \end{cases}$$

- ▶ This leads to the expected value of the degree of each node to follow the given sequence $\langle k(G) \rangle = \{k_u\}$
- ▶ Very similar formula can be derived for the expected number of edges between two nodes in the “hard” configuration model variant with multiedges
 - ▶ ... but the edges do not appear independently of each other
- ▶ Few variants exist (see Hofstad: inhomogeneous random graphs, Chung-Lu model, Norros-Reittu model)

Assumption and approximations

- ▶ Analytical calculations are often impossible if you want to do them *precisely* for finite networks
- ▶ We want the *big picture*, and don't care about minor details or extreme accuracy of our calculations
- ▶ We do simplifying assumptions and approximations, such as
 - ▶ Concentrate on what happens at the infinite network size
 - ▶ Assume that we can disregard some aspects of the network structure
 - ▶ Leave out higher order terms in series expansions
 - ▶ ...

Infinitely large networks

- ▶ **Assumption:** Network is big enough that it behaves like an infinitely large system
- ▶ It is often convenient to study some class of networks when $N \rightarrow \infty$
 - ▶ (*Physicist jargon:* Taking infinite limit on a size of the system keeping some other variables constant is called the “thermodynamic limit”)
- ▶ Calculations and results often become simpler: only the largest effects matters, details and higher order effects can be omitted
- ▶ Example: $G(N, p)$ and $G(N, L)$ become in effect the same ensemble at the thermodynamic limit
 - ▶ Warning: it is often assumed that all “soft” and “hard” distributions become the same, but this is not necessarily true, see Squartini et al. “Breaking of Ensemble Equivalence in Networks” PRL (2015)

Tree-like approximations

- ▶ **Assumption:** Network doesn't have any loops, or the loops only have a minor effect to the phenomena that is studied
- ▶ Many calculations for trees are often easier than for general graphs
 - ▶ Example: Calculate the number of nodes that can be reached from a node
- ▶ Sparse random networks are locally tree-like [Exercise 1.3]
 - ▶ Many results can be shown to be precise for infinitely large networks using this idea (see Hofstad)
- ▶ The tree-like assumption is very common in networks literature and often implicit
- ▶ Real networks have high clustering coefficient but the theory still seems to work, see Melnik et al. "The unreasonable effectiveness of tree-based theory for networks with clustering" PRE (2011)

Mean-field-type approximations

- ▶ **Assumption: Parts of the network can be grouped together in a way that we can concentrate on the average behavior of each group**
 - ▶ Example: All nodes of the same degree have the same probability of being infected in epidemics
- ▶ Calculations relying on this assumption are called “mean field theory”
- ▶ Very common approach in network science

Does my theory work for real networks?

- ▶ Often in the literature no formal tools are given to determine if the theory works for particular network
 - ▶ Example: How much fluctuations from the theory I should expect to have when my network has N nodes?
- ▶ Typical approach: compare analytical results to example data or detailed simulations

Does my theory work for real networks?

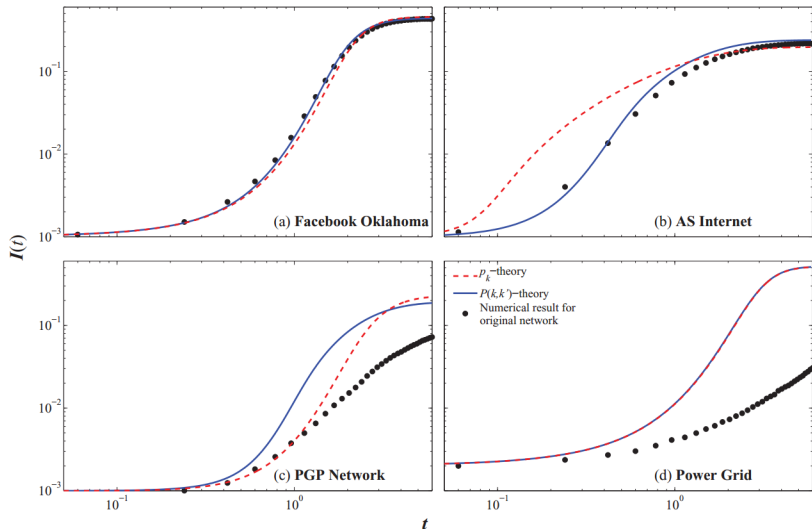


Figure from: Melnik et al. "The unreasonable effectiveness of tree-based theory for networks with clustering" PRE (2011)

Following a link leads to high degree nodes

- ▶ A node with degree k has probability proportional to k of being reached when a link is followed
 - ▶ Selecting a random link, and one of its endpoints
 - ▶ Selecting a random node and one of its neighbors

$$p'(k) \propto kp(k)$$

- ▶ Recurring theme in calculations
 - ▶ Spreading process is more likely to reach high degree nodes, high degree nodes are more effective spreaders ...
 - ▶ Neighboring nodes have higher degree than uniformly random nodes, high degree nodes are more likely to belong to the giant component ...
- ▶ Your friends have more friends than you do

Following a link leads to high degree nodes

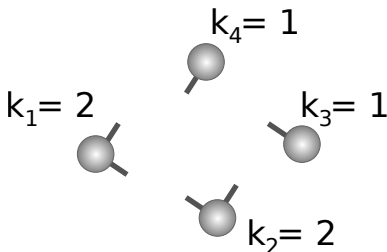
- ▶ Selecting a random link and following one of its neighbors, the degree of the node is always distributed according to:

$$p'(k) \propto kp(k)$$

- ▶ Selecting a random node and one of its neighbors differs from above in the real world since the degrees of adjacent nodes are often correlated.

Following a link leads to high degree nodes

- Example: $\{k_u\} = \{2, 2, 1, 1\}$. Probabilities to reach node when following a link $\{\frac{2}{6}, \frac{2}{6}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{6}\}$.



Excess degrees

- ▶ Follow a link, how many new links does the node have (i.e., not counting the link used to come to the node)

$$q(k) \propto (k+1)p(k+1)$$

- ▶ Network is a forest, start breadth first search from any node...
 - ▶ Excess degree is the branching factor
 - ▶ Tree can be infinitely large iff avg. excess degree larger than one

Excess degrees

- Example: $\{k_u\} = \{2, 2, 1, 1\}$. Excess degree sequence (one element for each stub) $\{1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0\}$.

