

Graph Models 2 and Random Walks

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Recap

- Basic Notations
- Type of graphs
- Paths/cycles/Connectivity/Giant component
- Centrality measures
- Metrics Comparison
- Clustering Coefficient
- Degree Distributions
- Real Networks
- **Graph Models:**
 - **Random Graph, Configuration, Pref. attachment, Watts-Strogatz Small-world, Navigable Networks**

Overview of the Results

Navigable

Search time T:

$$O((\log n)^\beta)$$

Kleinberg's model

$$O((\log n)^2)$$

Not navigable

Search time T:

$$O(n^\alpha)$$

Watts-Strogatz

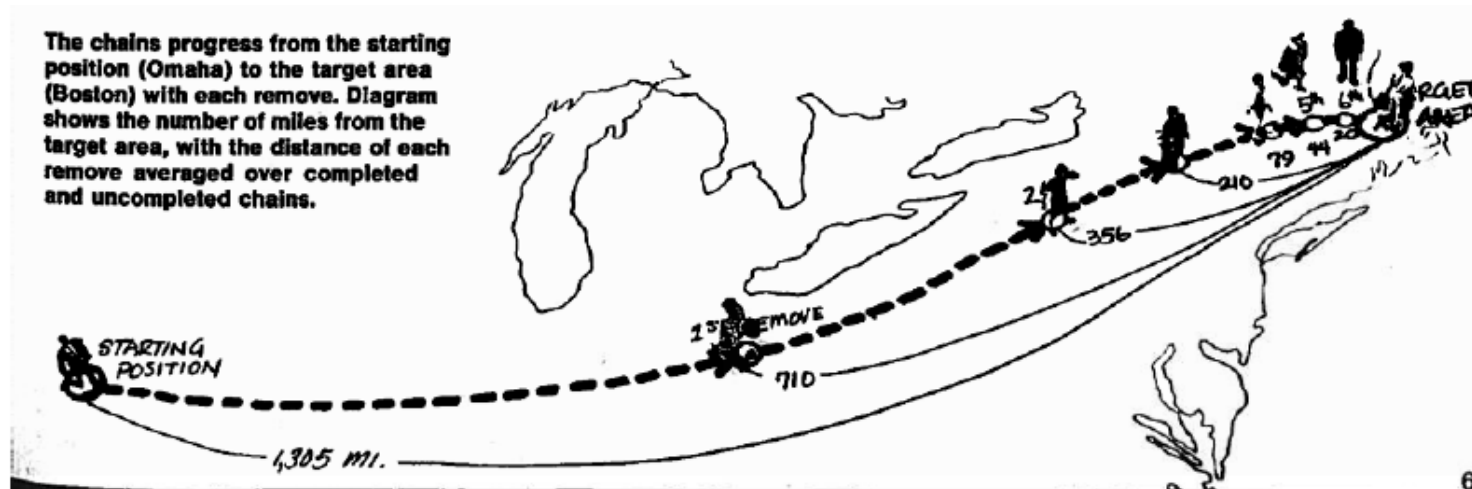
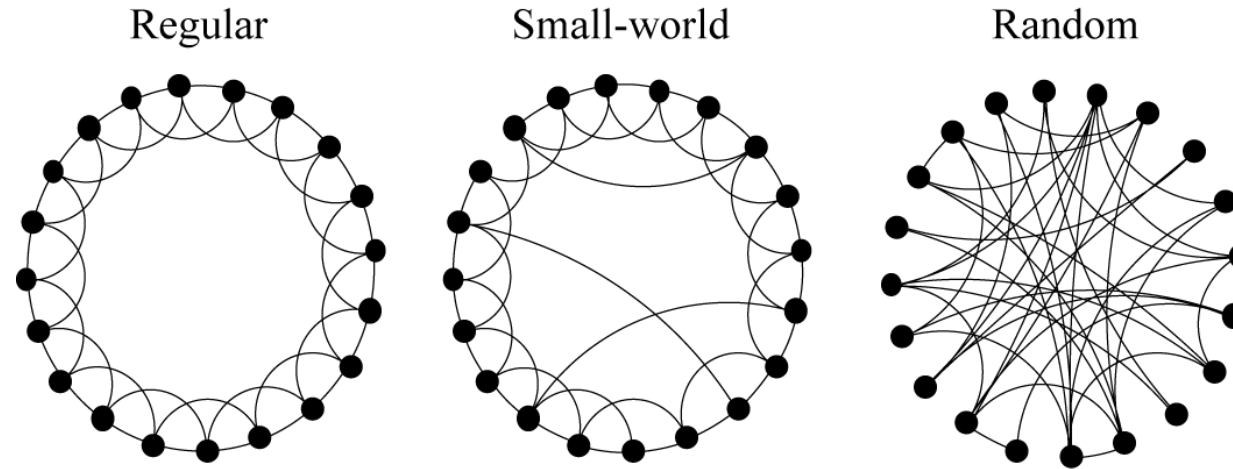
$$O(n^{\frac{2}{3}})$$

Erdős–Rényi

$$O(n)$$

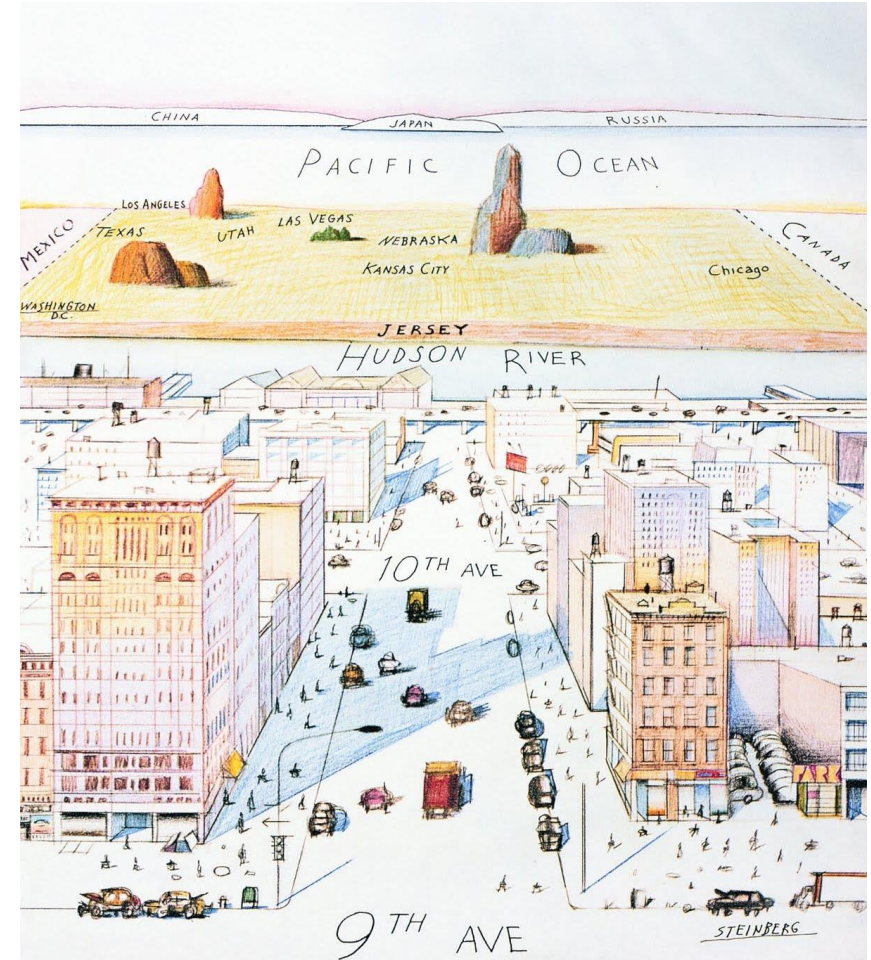
Note: We know these graphs have diameter $O(\log n)$.
So in Kleinberg's model search time is polynomial in $\log n$,
while in Watts-Strogatz it is exponential (in $\log n$).

How could we make Small-World Navigable?



Kleinberg's model of Small-Worlds

- Kleinberg claims that Watts and Strogatz model **is not effective** for decentralized search;
- presents the **infinite family of SW networks** that generalizes Watts and Strogatz model and shows that decentralized search algorithms can **find short paths** with high probability;
- proves that there exist only **one unique model** within that family for which decentralized algorithms **are effective**.
- **What's the intuition for his model?**
 - Links are not random, but inversely proportional to the distance



The New Yorker Cover March 29, 1976

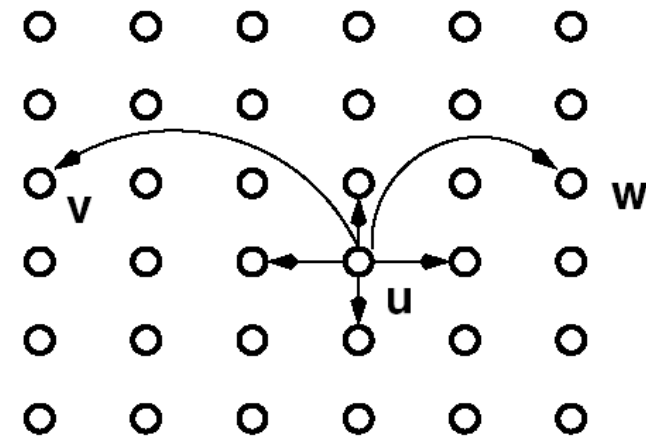
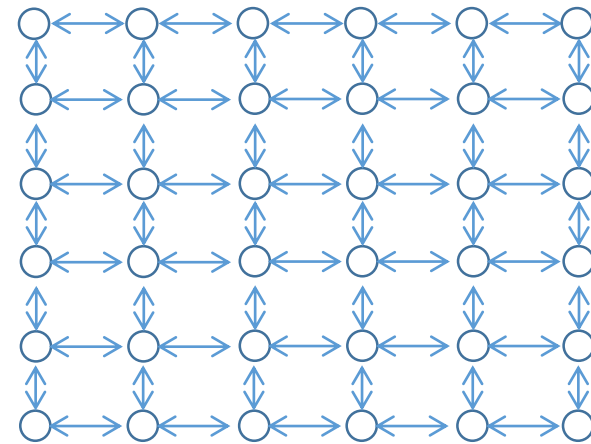
Saul Steinberg, "View of the World from 9th Avenue"

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/View_of_the_World_from_9th_Avenue

Navigable Small-World networks

- Kleinberg's Small-World's model
 - 2-dimensional lattice
 - Lattice (Manhattan) **distance**
 - Two type of links:
 - Short range (neighborhood lattice)
 - Long range
 - Probability for a node u to have a node v as a long range contact is proportional to

$$P(u \rightarrow v) \sim \frac{1}{d(u, v)^r}$$



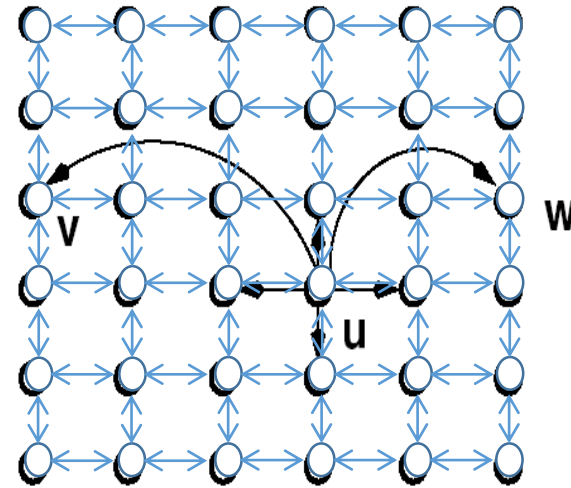
How does it work in practice?

$$P(u \rightarrow v) \sim \frac{1}{d(u, v)^r}$$

$$P(u \rightarrow v) = \frac{1}{d(u, v)^r} \cdot \frac{1}{Z}$$

- Normalization constant have to be calculated:

$$Z = \sum_{\forall i \neq u} \frac{1}{d(u, i)^r}$$



Example

- Choose among 3 friends (1-dimension)

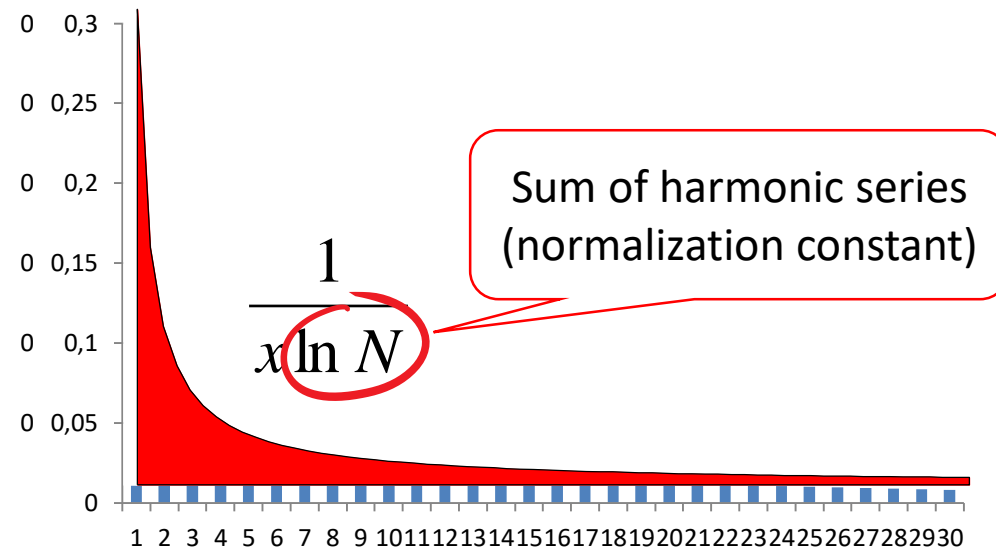
- A (1 mile away)
- B (2 miles away)
- C (3 miles away)

- Normalization constant $\sum_{\forall i \neq u} \frac{1}{d(u,i)} = \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{11}{6}$

$$P(\text{selecting } A) = \frac{\frac{1}{1}}{\frac{11}{6}} = \frac{6}{11}$$

$$P(\text{selecting } B) = \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{\frac{11}{6}} = \frac{3}{11}$$

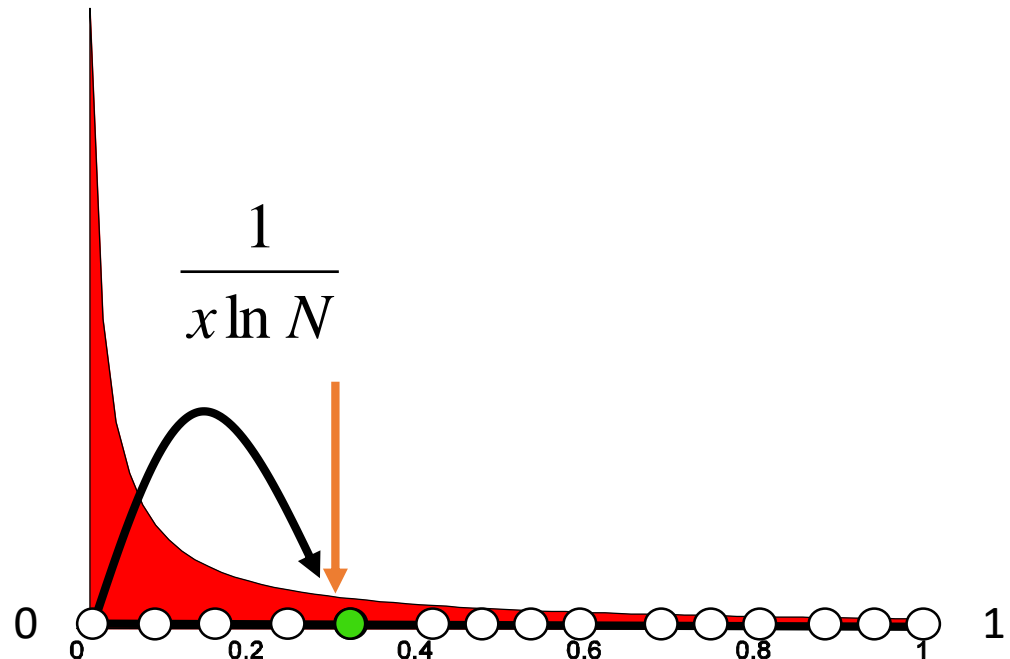
$$P(\text{selecting } C) = \frac{\frac{1}{3}}{\frac{11}{6}} = \frac{2}{11}$$



1-dimensional continuous case

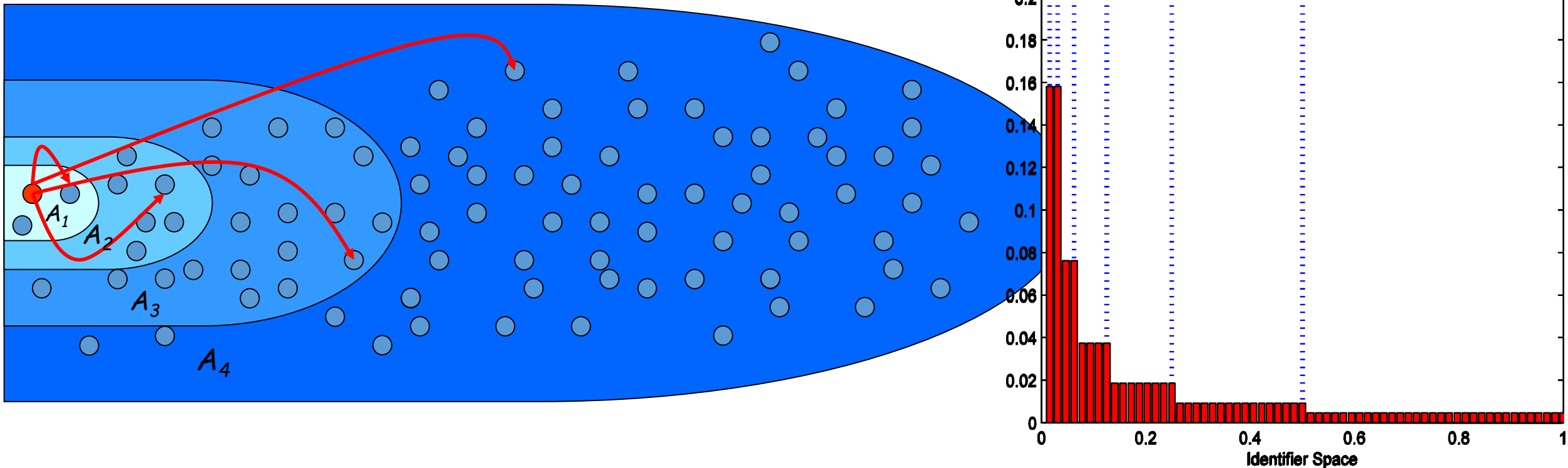
- Peers uniformly distributed on a unit interval (or a ring structure)
- Long range links chosen by Kleinberg's small-world principle

- Search cost
 $O(\log^2 N/k)$ with k long-range links
 $O(\log N)$ with $O(\log N)$ long-range links



Approximation of Kleinberg's model

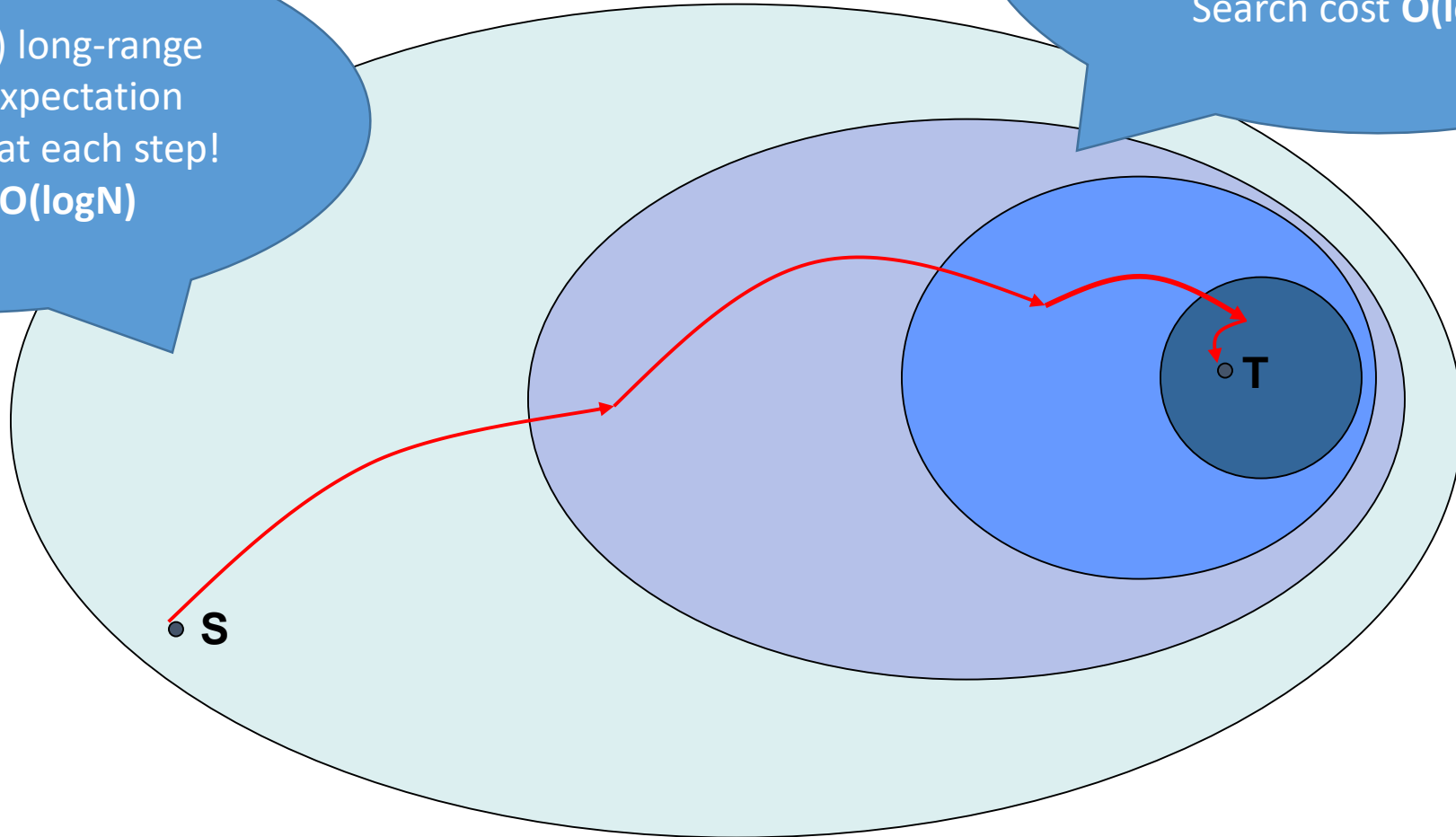
- Given node u if we can partition the remaining peers into sets $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots, A_{\log N}$, where A_i consists of all nodes whose distance from u is between 2^i and 2^{i+1} .
 - Then given $r=\dim$ each long range contact of u is nearly equally likely to belong to any of the sets A_i
 - When $q=\log N$ – on average each node will have link in each set of A_i



Why Does it Work?

If I have $O(\log N)$ long-range links I can on expectation halve a distance at each step!
Search cost **$O(\log N)$**

If I have $O(1)$ long-range links will have to spend $O(\log N)$ time at each stage until I can halve a distance at each step!
Search cost **$O(\log^2 N)$**



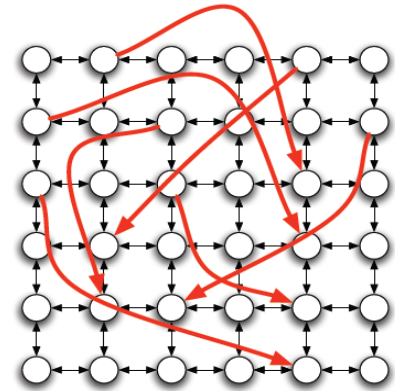
Influence of “r”

- Each peer u has link to the peer v with probability proportional to $\frac{1}{d(u,v)^r}$ where $d(u,v)$ is the distance between u and v .

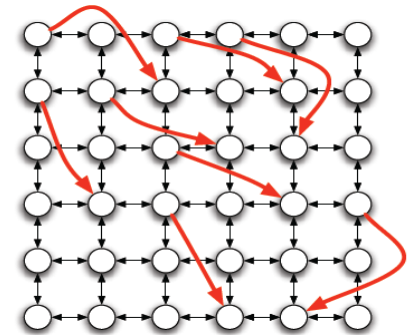
$$\frac{1}{d(u,v)^r}$$

- Tuning “r”

- When $r=0$ – long range contacts are chosen uniformly (Similar to Watts-Strogatz). The short paths exist between every pair of vertices, **BUT there is no decentralized algorithm capable finding these paths** efficiently.
- When $r < \text{dim}$ we tend to choose more far away neighbors (decentralized algorithm can quickly approach the neighborhood of target, but then slows down till finally reaches target itself).
- When $r > \text{dim}$ we tend to choose more close neighbors (algorithm finds q target in it's neighborhood, but reaches it slowly if it is far away).
- When $r = \text{dim}$ (dimension of the space), the algorithm exhibits optimal performance.

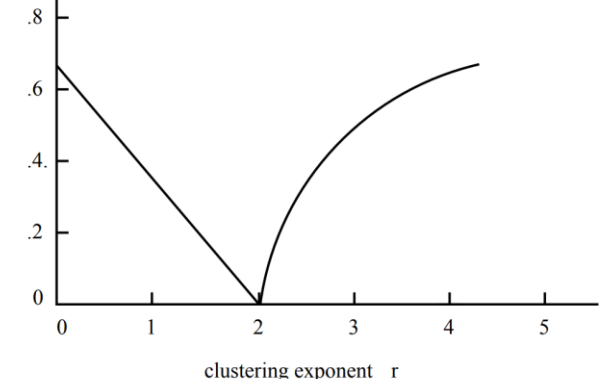


Small r: too many long links



Big r: too many short links

lower bound T
on delivery time
(given as $\log_n T$)



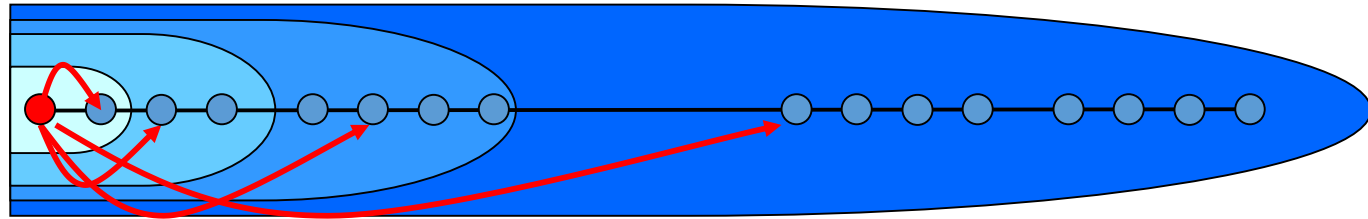
Performance with $r=\text{dim}$

- When there is one long range link ($q = 1$):
 - The expected search cost is bounded **by $O(\log^2 N)$**
- When there are constant number of long range links ($q = k \leq \log N$):
 - The expected search cost is bounded by
 $O(\log^2 N)/k$
- When $q = \log N$:
 - The expected search cost is bounded **by $O(\log N)$**
 - Notice similarity with P2P systems!

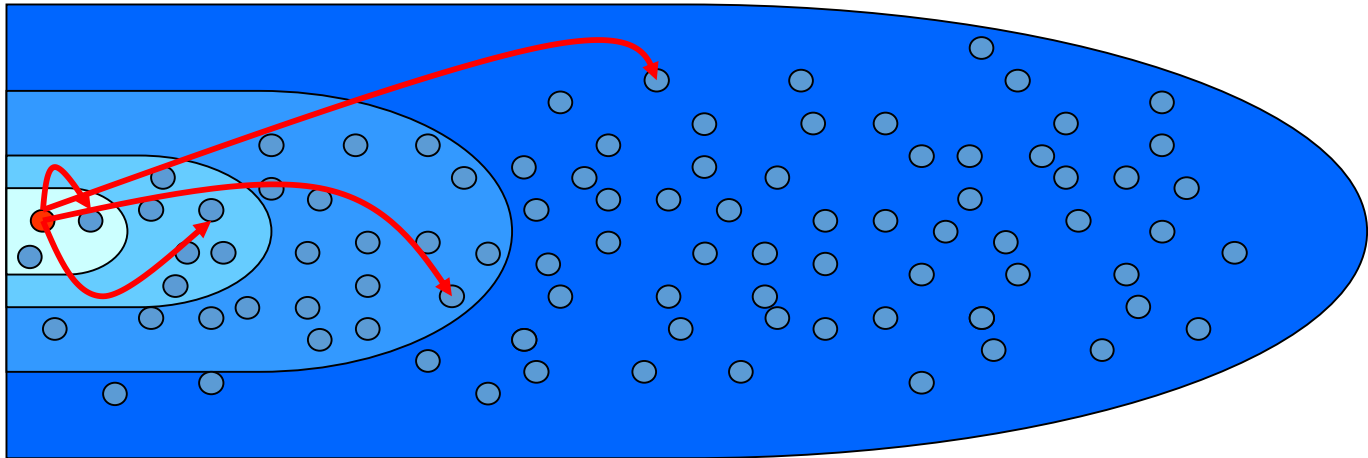
Traditional DHTs and Kleinberg model

- Most of the structured P2P systems are similar to Kleinberg's model and are called logarithmic-like approaches. E.g.
 - Chord (randomized version) $q=\log N$, $r=1$
 - When q is $O(\log N)$, then “ring-link” is expected to appear from long-range link process.

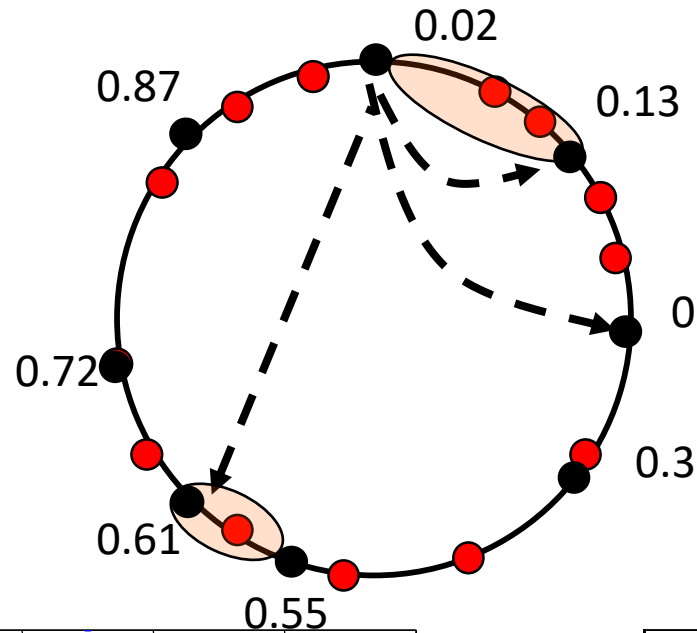
- Randomized Chord's model



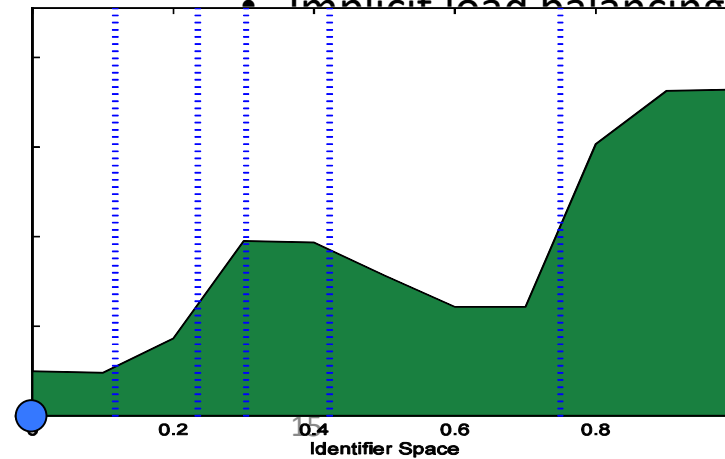
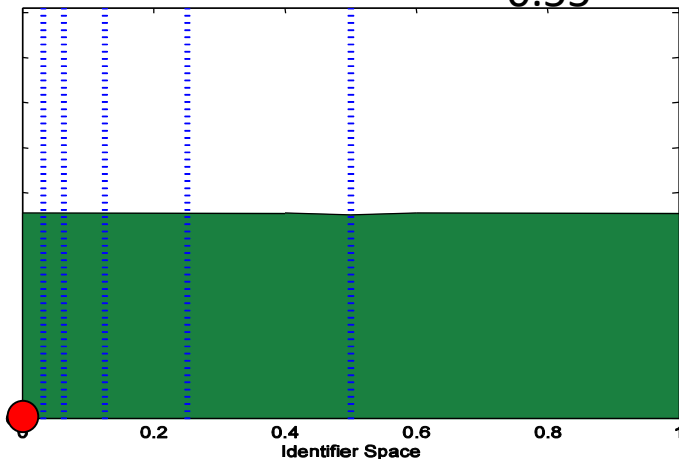
- Kleinberg's model



Data on the Overlay



- **Peers** mapped on the ring
 - Uniform hash function (e.g., SHA-1)
- **Resources** mapped on the ring
 - Uniform hash function
- **Connectivity establishment**
 - Based on Kleinbergian Principles
 - E.g., Chord, Symphony etc.
- **Uniform peer key (id) distribution**
- **Implicit load balancing**

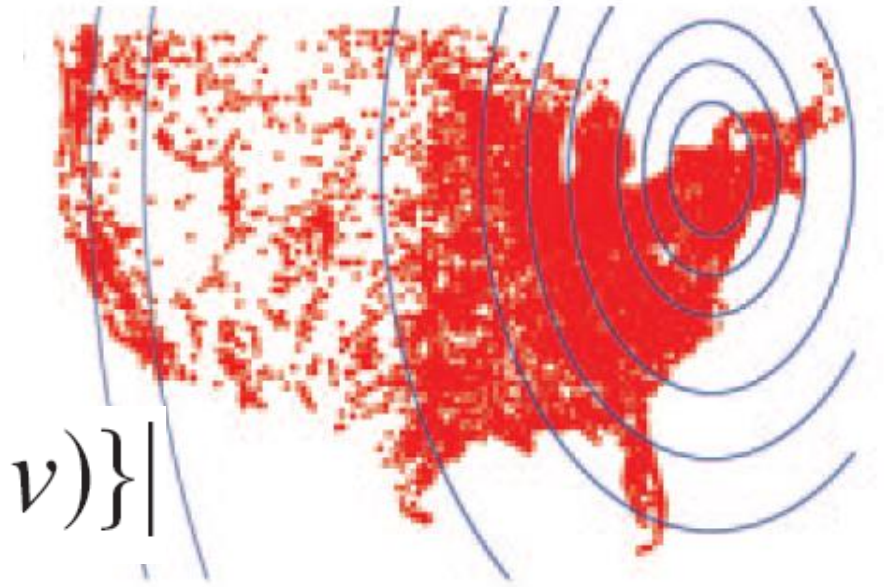


are distributed non-
in real world networks?

Liben-Nowell et al. “Geographic routing in social networks” 2005

- LiveJournal Data
 - Bloggers + Zip Codes

$$\text{rank}_u(v) := |\{w : d(u, w) < d(u, v)\}|$$



- $P(u \rightarrow v) = \text{rank}_u(v)^{-\alpha}$
- **What is best α ?**
 - For equally spaced pairs: $\alpha = \text{dim. of the space}$
 - In this special case $\alpha = 1$ is best for search

Basic Navigation Principles

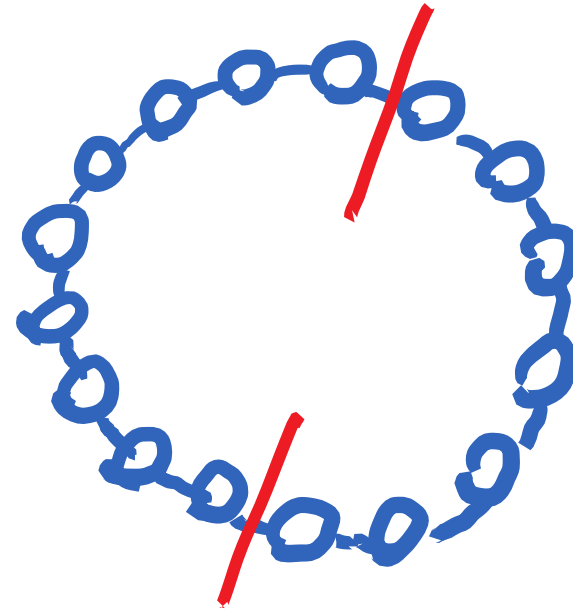
- So **why** can we navigate in the network and **find short paths** without **any global view** of the system?
 - We have **globally agreed ID space**, with a distance function →
 - Allows us to make local decisions on minimizing distance to the target
 - (Implicit) Existence of the **underlying lattice** (i.e., ring) →
 - Assures us to always be able to make progress navigating towards the target, i.e.,
 - Target will always be reached!
 - Existence of **Kleinbergian long-range links** →
 - Allows us to progress towards the target rapidly (in polylog steps)
 - Why is it so in "real-world" it is still an open question...

Recap: Network properties

- Each network is unique “*microscopically*”, but in large scale networks one can observe *macroscopic* properties:
 - **Diameter** (six-degrees of separation);
 - **Clustering coefficient** (triangles, friends-of-friends are also friends);
 - **Degree distribution** (are there many “hubs” in the network?);
 - **Largest Component** (how many “islands” and how big?)
 - **Navigability** (can you do efficient routing?)
- Network models:
 - Erdos-Renyi
 - Configuration
 - Preferential attachment
 - Watts-Strogatz
 - Kleinberg

Expanders

- ***Expanders are graphs with very strong connectivity properties.***
 - sparse yet very well-connected
- Example
 - N nodes, E edges $N=E$
 - ***Does this graph have good connectivity properties?***
 - 2 edges fail ->
isolates up to $N/2$ nodes



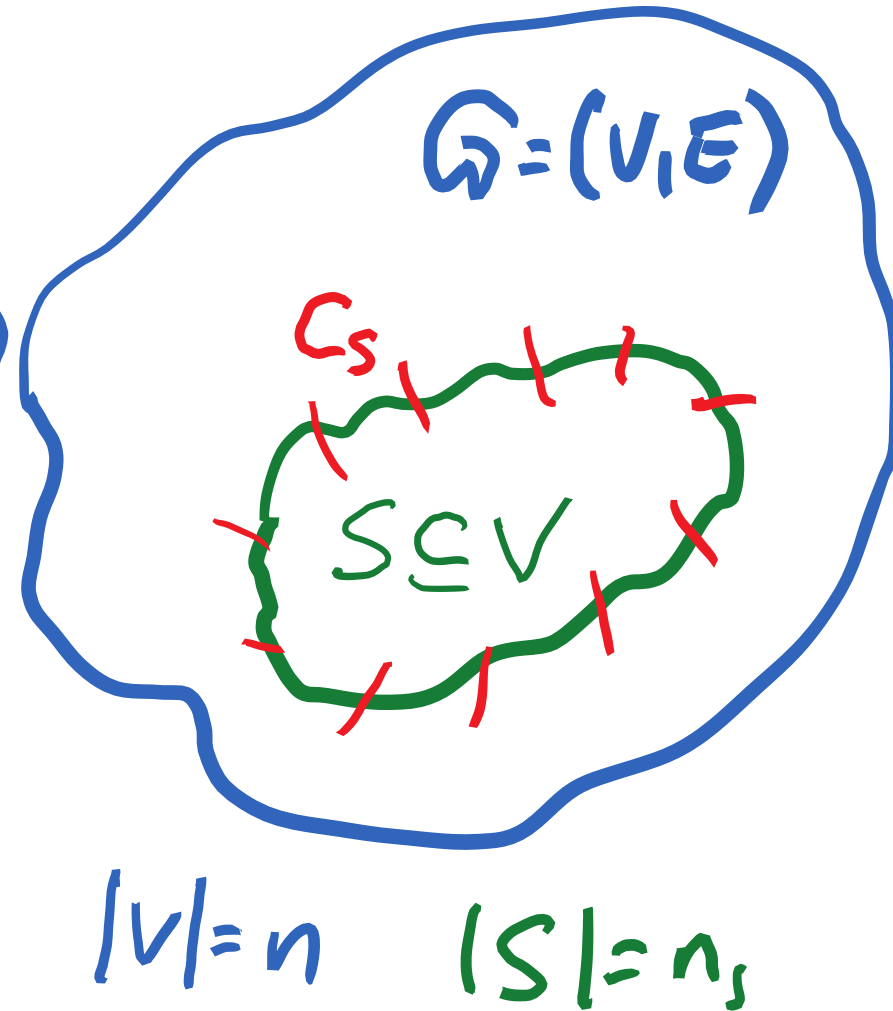
Can one isolate large number of nodes by removing small number of edges?

Expansion

- Expansion α :

$$\alpha = \min_{S \subseteq V} \frac{C_S}{\min(n_s, n - n_s)}$$

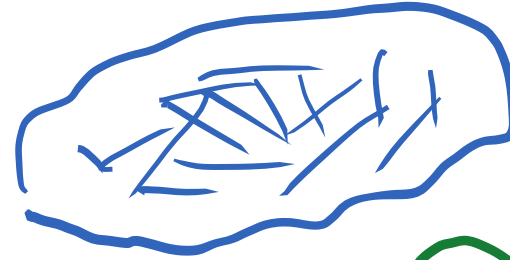
- How robust are your graphs?
- *To isolate k nodes one needs to remove at least $\alpha * k$ edges*



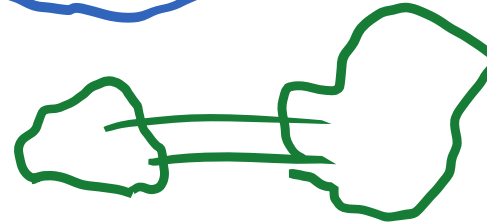
Examples

- Which networks do you think have good expansion (random graph, tree, grid)?

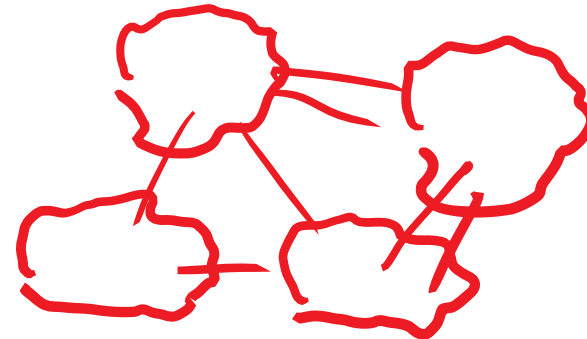
High expansion



Low expansion



Social networks

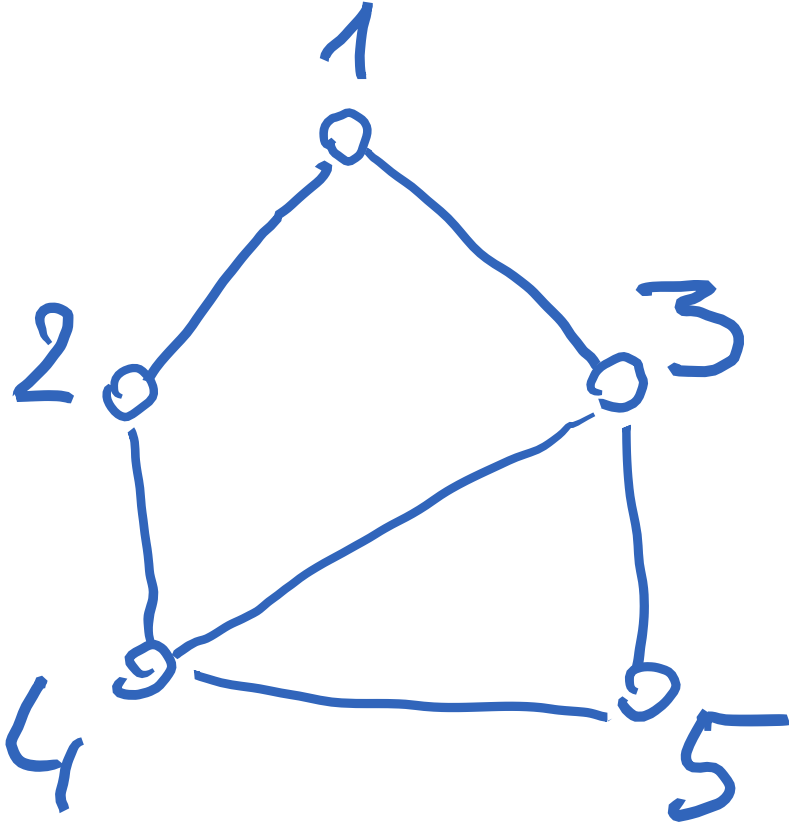


Properties of Expander Graphs

- A graph **is an expander** if the number of edges originating from every subset of vertices is larger than the number of vertices at least by a constant factor (more than 1).
 - Sparse yet very well-connected (no small cuts, no bottlenecks)
 - Small second eigenvalue λ_2 (we will talk about it later)
 - Rapid convergence of random walk
- For all practical reasons, random walk of $TTL = O(\log N)$ on an expander graph with fixed node degree gives a uniform random node from the population

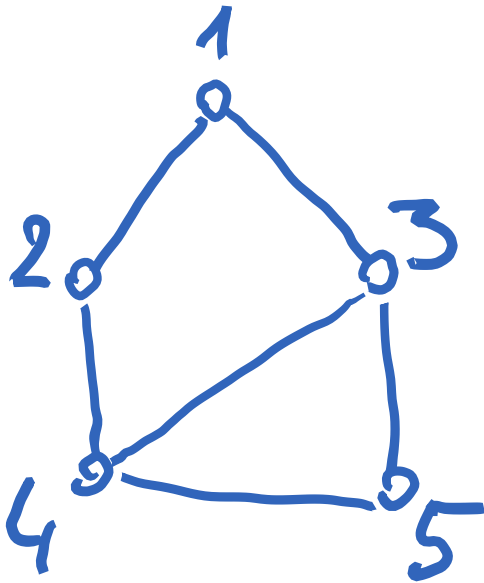
Random Walks on Graphs

Random Walks



- Let $G(V,E)$ be connected graph.
- Consider random walk on G from node v .
 - We move to a neighboring node with probability $1/d(v)$
 - The sequence of random walks is Markov chain

Random Walks



- The initial node can be fixed, but also can be drawn from some initial distribution P_0

	Node 1	Node 2	Node 3	Node 4	Node 5
Time					
0	1	0	0	0	0
1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					
8					
9					
10					
11					
12					

Convergence?

- For any *connected non-bipartite* bidirectional graph, and any starting point, the random walk converges
 - Converges to **unique** stationary distribution
 - **Power Iteration**

t	1	0	0	0	0
1	0.00	0.50	0.50	0.00	0.00
2	0.42	0.00	0.00	0.42	0.17
3	0.00	0.35	0.43	0.08	0.14
4	0.32	0.03	0.10	0.39	0.17
5	0.05	0.29	0.37	0.13	0.16
6	0.27	0.07	0.15	0.35	0.17
7	0.08	0.25	0.33	0.17	0.17
8	0.24	0.10	0.18	0.32	0.17
9	0.11	0.22	0.31	0.19	0.17
10	0.22	0.12	0.20	0.30	0.17
11	0.13	0.21	0.29	0.21	0.17
12	0.20	0.13	0.22	0.28	0.17
13	0.14	0.19	0.28	0.22	0.17
14	0.19	0.14	0.23	0.27	0.17
15	0.15	0.19	0.27	0.23	0.17
16	0.18	0.15	0.23	0.27	0.17
17	0.15	0.18	0.26	0.24	0.17
18	0.18	0.16	0.24	0.26	0.17
19	0.16	0.18	0.26	0.24	0.17
20	0.17	0.16	0.24	0.26	0.17
21	0.16	0.17	0.26	0.24	0.17
22	0.17	0.16	0.24	0.26	0.17
23	0.16	0.17	0.25	0.25	0.17
24	0.17	0.16	0.25	0.25	0.17
25	0.16	0.17	0.25	0.25	0.17
26	0.17	0.16	0.25	0.25	0.17
27	0.16	0.17	0.25	0.25	0.17
28	0.17	0.16	0.25	0.25	0.17
29	0.17	0.17	0.25	0.25	0.17
30	0.17	0.17	0.25	0.25	0.17

Stationary Distribution

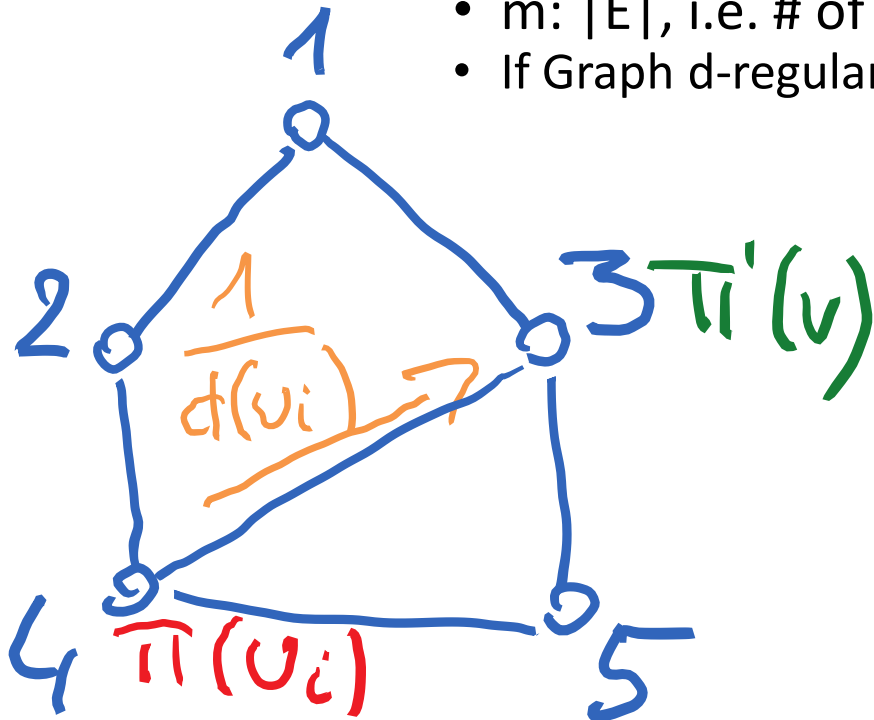
- Which distribution does the random walk converge in our graph?

π	0.17	0.17	0.25	0.25	0.17
π'	0.17	0.17	0.25	0.25	0.17

- Random walk converges to the stationary distribution:

$$\pi(v) = d(v)/2m$$

- $d(v)$ = degree of v , i.e. # of neighbors.
- m : $|E|$, i.e. # of edges.
- If Graph d -regular then to uniform distribution



$$\begin{aligned}
 \pi'(v) &= \sum_{u: (u,v) \in E} \pi(u) \frac{1}{d(u)} \\
 &= \sum_{u: (u,v) \in E} \frac{d(u)}{2m} \cdot \frac{1}{d(u)} \\
 &= \sum_{u: (u,v) \in E} \frac{1}{2m} \\
 &= \frac{d(v)}{2m} \\
 &= \pi(v)
 \end{aligned}$$

Implications

- The stationary distribution

$$\pi(v) = d(v)/2m$$

is **proportional to the degree of v.**

- What's the intuition?
- The more neighbors you have, the more chance you'll be visited.
 - We'll talk about it later in ID2222 Data Mining course

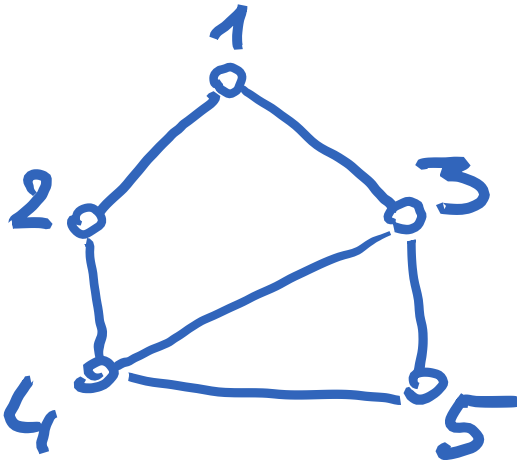
Definitions

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Adjacency Matrix

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Diagonal matrix with $D_{i,i} = 1/d(i)$



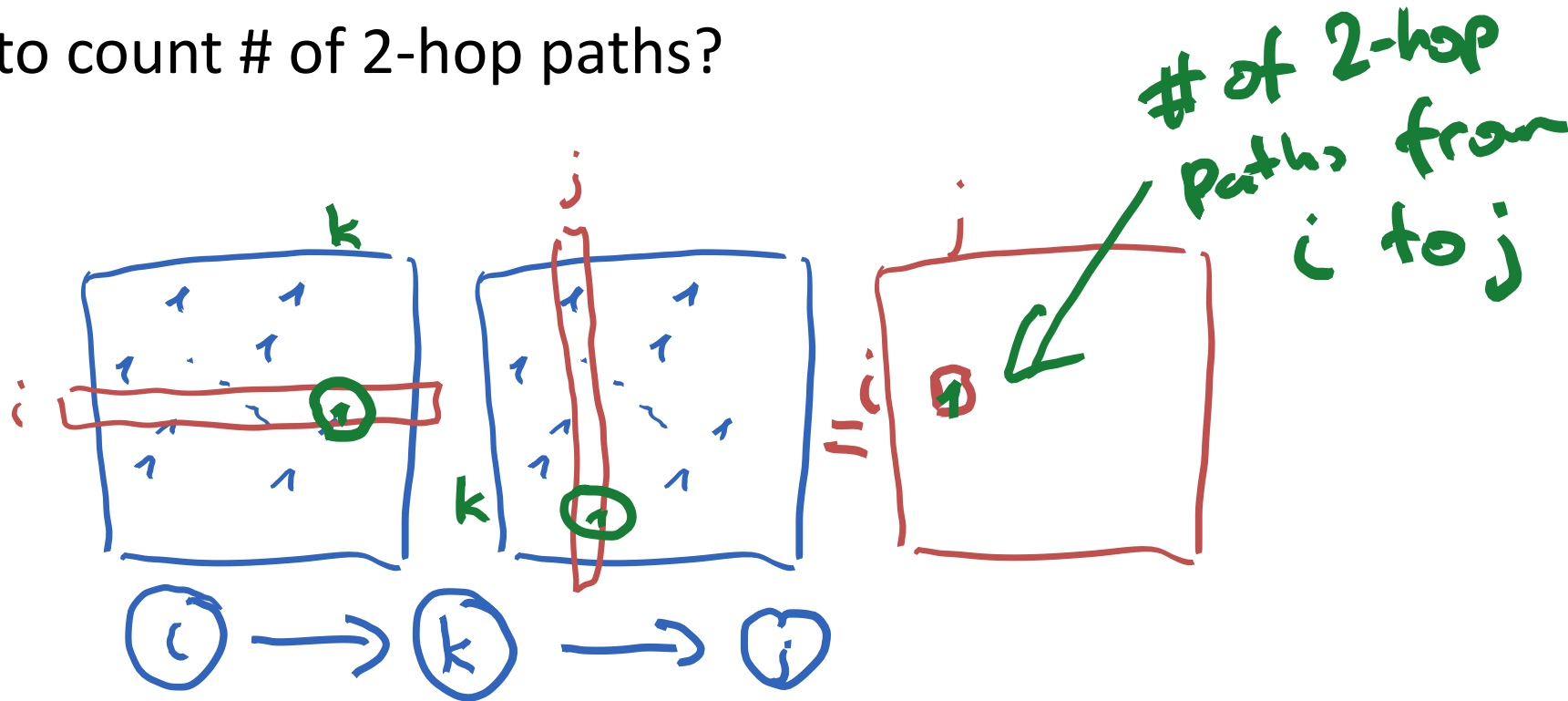
$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 & 0 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Transition (random walk) Matrix

$$M=DA$$

Adjacency Matrix

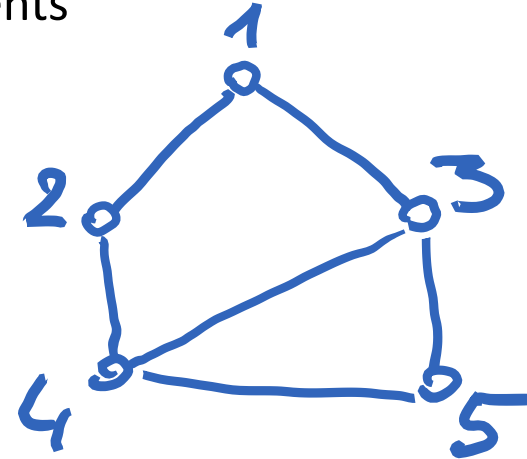
- A is $n \times n$ adjacency matrix of $G=(V,E)$
 - A_{ij} is 1 if there is a link between i and j nodes and 0 otherwise
- Gives us all 1-hop paths.
- How to count # of 2-hop paths?
 - A^2



Matrix manipulations

- A^2 gives us # of 2-hop paths
- A^3 gives us ?
 - # of 3-hop paths, etc.
 - Technically it is not a path, but a walk (not simple paths, you can visit the same node several times).
- What about taking a vector $v=(1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0)$ that represents a message at the first node and multiplying it by A ?

$$vA = (1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 0) \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



- $vA=(0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0)$
 - indicates how many walks of length 1 from node 1 end up in node i.
- $vA^2 = (2\ 0\ 0\ 2\ 1)$
 - Indicates how many walks of length 2 from node 1 end up in node i.
- $vA^3 = (0\ 4\ 5\ 1\ 2)$
 - Indicates how many walks of length 3 from node 1 end up in node i.

Matrix manipulations (cont.)

- What about multiplying by a Random Walk Matrix?

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 & 0 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Transition (random walk) Matrix
M=DA

$$(1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 & 0 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = (0 \ 1/2 \ 1/2 \ 0 \ 0)$$

$$(0 \ 1/2 \ 1/2 \ 0 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 & 0 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = (0.42 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0.42 \ 0.17)$$

What about Random Walk Matrix M ? (cont.)

- Recap: Random walk on a graph G : we start at a node v_0 and at the t -th step we are at a node v_t . We move to a neighbor of v_t with probability $1/d(v_t)$.
 - The sequence of random nodes $(v_t : t=0,1,2\dots)$ is a Markov chain
- We start from the initial state of the system, e.g. P_0 : $[1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0]$;
 - Can also be drawn from some initial distribution
- **$P_t = P_0 M^t$**
 - Or can be written as $P_t = (M^T)^t P_0$ if we represent P as a column vector

Again the same Example

$$\mathbf{P}_t = \mathbf{P}_0 \mathbf{M}^t$$

$$(1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 & 0 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = (0 \ 1/2 \ 1/2 \ 0 \ 0)$$

$$(0 \ 1/2 \ 1/2 \ 0 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/2 & 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 & 0 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/2 & 1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = (0.42 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0.42 \ 0.17)$$

- When $\mathbf{P}_{t+1} = \mathbf{P}_t = \pi$, we have reached stationary distribution, i.e. $\pi \mathbf{M} = \pi$
- Recall: that \mathbf{v} is **eigenvector** of matrix \mathbf{M} and λ its eigenvalue if $\mathbf{v} \mathbf{M} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$
 - so π is eigenvector of \mathbf{M} with eigenvalue $\lambda=1$