## Watts-Strogatz Model

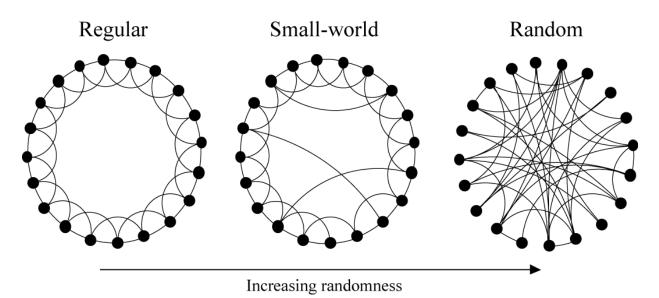
Regular graph with degree k connected to nearest neighbors

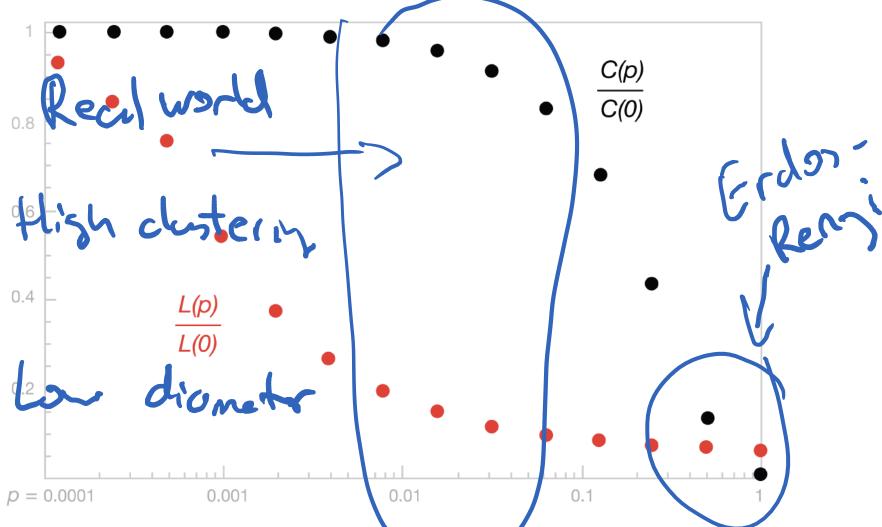
We start with a where each vertex ring of n vertices is connected to its k nearest neighbors k = 4

- Can be also a grid, torus, or any other "geographical" structure which has high clusterisation and high diameter
- With probability p rewire each edge in the network to a random node.
  - Q: What happens when p=1?

## Watts-Strogatz Model (cont.)

- When p=1 we have ~Erdos-Renyi network
- There is a range of p values where the network exhibits properties of both: random and regular graphs:
  - High clusterisation;
  - Short path length.





The data shown in the figure are averages over 20 random realizations of the rewiring process, and have been normalized by the values L(0), C(0) for a egular lattice. All the graphs have n = 1000 vertices and an average degree of k = 10 edges per vertex. We note that a logarithmic horizontal scale has been used to resolve the rapid drop in L(p), corresponding to the onset of the small-world phenomenon. During this drop, C(p) remains almost constant at its value for the regular lattice, indicating that the transition to a small world is almost undetectable at the local level.

#### **Demo Small Worlds**

 http://ccl.northwestern.edu/netlogo/models/ SmallWorlds

#### Small Worlds and Real Networks

- More realistic than Erdos-Renyi
  - Low path length
  - High clusterisation
- What other properties of real world networks are missing?
- Degree distribution
  - Watts-Strogatz model might be good for certain applications (e.g., P2P networks)
  - But can not model real world networks where degree distributions are usually power law.

#### Preferential attachment Model

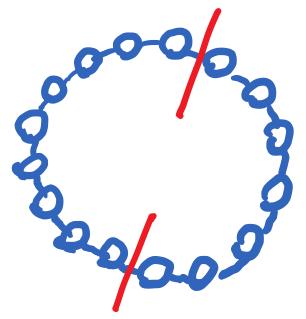
- Start with Two connected nodes
  - Add a new node v
  - Create a link between v and one of the existing nodes with probability proportional to the degree of the that node
    - P(u,v) = d(u)/Total\_network\_degree
- Rich get richer phenomenon!
- Exhibits power-law distributions
- Can be extended to m links (Barabasi-Albert model)
  - Start with connected network of m<sub>0</sub> nodes
  - Each new node connects to m nodes (m  $\leq$  m<sub>0</sub>) with aforedescribed pref. attachment principle.
- http://ccl.northwestern.edu/netlogo/models/PreferentialAttachment
   nt

## 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?);

## **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

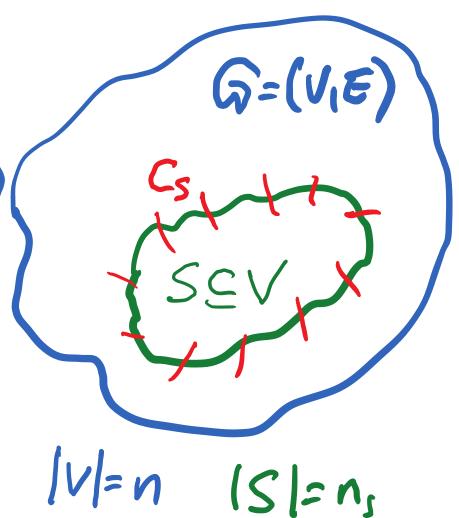


Can one isolate large number of nodes by removing small number of edges?

## Expansion

• Expansion  $\alpha$ :

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



## Examples

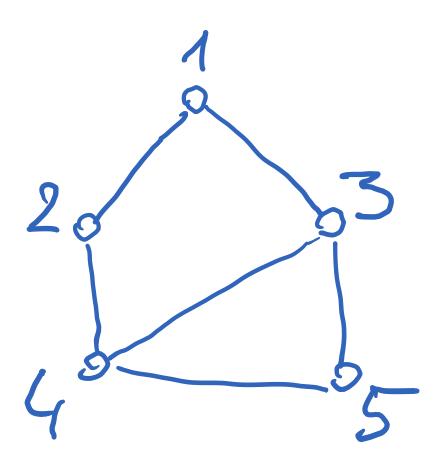
 Which networks do you think have good expansion (random graph, tree, grid)?

High exponsion Low expansion Social networks

## Properties of Expander Graphs

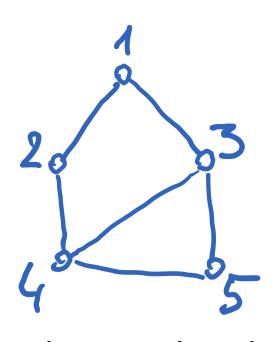
- A graph is an expander if the number of edges originating from every subset of vertices is larger than the number of vertices at least by a constant factor (more than 1).
  - Sparse yet very well-connected (no small cuts, no bottlenecks)
  - Small second eigenvalue  $\lambda_2$  (we will talk about it later)
  - Rapid convergence of random walk
- For all practical reasons, random walk of TTL = O(logN) on an expander graph with fixed node degree gives an uniform random node from the population

#### 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<sub>0</sub>

|      | Node 1 | Node 2 | Node 3 | Nok4 | 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

|    | . 90 |      |      |      |      |
|----|------|------|------|------|------|
| t  |      | 1 (  |      | ) C  | 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?

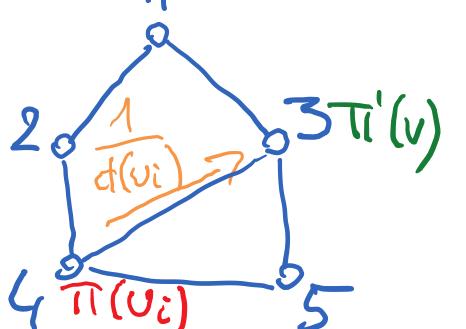
| π  | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.17 |
|----|------|------|------|------|------|
| π' | 0.17 | 0.17 | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.17 |

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



$$= \sum_{u: (u,v) \in E} \frac{d(u)}{2m} \cdot \frac{1}{d(u)}$$

$$= \sum_{u: (u,v) \in E} \frac{1}{2m}$$

$$= \frac{d(v)}{2m}$$

$$= \pi(v)$$

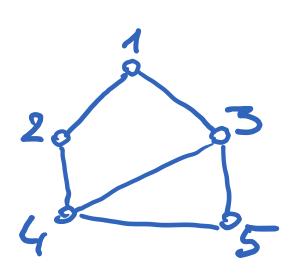
## **Implications**

- 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

#### **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  $D_{i,i} = 1/d(i)$ 

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

Transition (random walk) Matrix M=DA

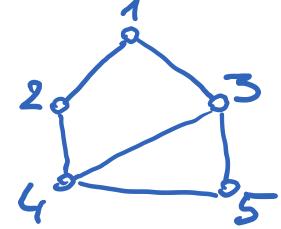
## Adjacency Matrix

- A is n x n adjacency matrix of G=(V,E)
  - A<sub>ij</sub> is 1 if there is a link between i and j nodes and 0 otherwise
- Gives us all 1-hop paths. # of 2-hop
  , peths from How to count # of 2-hop paths?  $-A^2$

## Matrix manipulations

- A<sup>2</sup> gives us # of 2-hop paths
- A<sup>3</sup> gives us?
  - # of 3-hop paths, etc.
  - not simple paths! Can refer as walks.
- What about taking a vector v=(1 0 0 0 0) that represents a message at the first node and multiplying it by A?

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



- 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.
- $vA^3 = (0.4512)$ 
  - 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

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

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

# 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<sub>t</sub>:t=0,1,2...) is a Markov chain
- We start from the initial state of the system, e.g. P<sub>0</sub>: [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<sub>t</sub>= (M<sup>T</sup>)<sup>t</sup>P<sub>0</sub> if we represent P as a column vector

## Again the same Example

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

- When  $P_{t+1} = P_t = \pi$ , we have reached stationary distribution, i.e.  $\pi M = \pi$
- Recall: that v is **eigenvector** of matrix M and  $\lambda$  its eigenvalue if **vM=\lambdav** 
  - so  $\pi$  is eigenvector of M with eigenvalue  $\lambda=1$