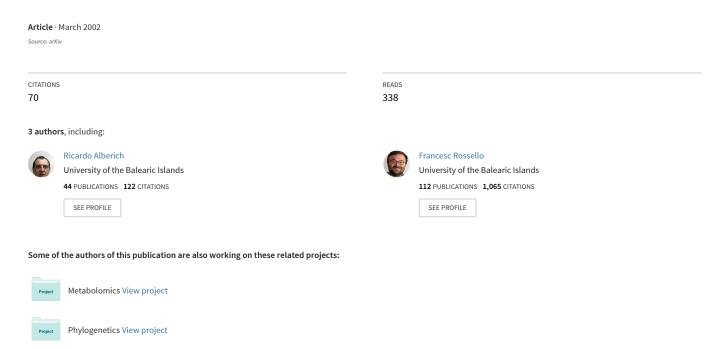
Marvel Universe looks almost like a real social network



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Abstract

We investigate the structure of the Marvel Universe collaboration network, where two Marvel characters are considered linked if they jointly appear in the same Marvel comic book. We show that this network is clearly not a random network, and that it has most, but not all, characteristics of "real-life" collaboration networks, such as movie actors or scientific collaboration networks. The study of this artificial universe that tries to look like a real one, helps to understand that there are underlying principles that make real-life networks have definite characteristics.

1 Introduction

A recent popular topic of research in social networks has been the study of collaboration networks. In these, the vertexes (or nodes) represent people and the edges that link pairs of nodes denote the existence of some kind of collaboration between them. Their popularity stems mainly from two factors. First, they are more objective than other social networks like friendship or first-name-knowledge networks. Their links have a definite meaning, while, for instance, the meaning of links in friendship networks is subjective and thus possibly non-homogeneous throughout. And second, the existence and availability of large databases containing all information concerning movies, baseball teams, scientific papers, and other large fields of collaboration, makes it easier to create and study these networks, while reliable friendship networks can only be raised through the intensive gathering of information by means of interviews. Furthermore, the databases from which collaboration networks are extracted usually contain information about the time when each collaboration has taken place. This information can be used to describe the evolution of the network and then to extract properties about how social networks grow [3,15].

A well-known collaboration network is the *Movie Actors network*, also dubbed the *Hollywood network*. In it, nodes represent actors and actresses, and a link is added between two nodes when they have jointly appeared in the same film. All information concerning this network is

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accessible at the *Internet Movie Database* [10], and it has been studied from a mathematical point of view [1,16,18,19]. This is the basis of the popular *Kevin Bacon game* [17], which consists of trying to connect any given actor or actress to Kevin Bacon through the shortest possible path of collaborations in films.

Scientific collaboration networks have also been thoroughly studied in the last years. In such a network, nodes represent scientists and links denote the coauthorship of a scientific piece of work contained in some database. For instance, there is the so-called Erdös collaboration graph. Paul Erdös was a Hungarian mathematician, dead in 1996, who published over 1500 papers with 492 coauthors, more than any other mathematician in history. The Erdös collaboration graph is the mathematicians' collaboration network around Erdös himself [5,6], built up through data collected by Grossman [9]. Also, Newman [12–15] has studied in detail the scientific collaboration networks corresponding to several databases, namely MEDLINE (biomedical research papers in refereed journals), SPIRES (preprints and published papers in high-energy physics), NCSTRL (preprints in computer science), and Los Alamos e-Print Archive (preprints in physics). Barábasi et al. [3] have studied the networks based on two databases containing articles on mathematics and neuro-science, respectively, published in relevant journals.

Newman [12] argues that scientific collaboration networks are true social networks, since most pairs of scientists that have written a paper together are genuinely acquainted with one another. The social meaning of the Hollywood network is, in this sense, weaker, because it has been built up mainly through the decisions of cast directors, producers and agents, rather than the voluntary collaboration of actors. Despite these, and other, differences, all collaboration networks studied so far present the same basic features: (a) on average, every pair of nodes can be connected through a short path within the network; (b) the probability that two nodes are linked is greater if they share a neighbor; and (c) the fraction of nodes with k neighbors decays roughly as a function of the form $k^{-\tau}$ for some positive exponent τ , with perhaps a cutoff for large values of k. A network satisfying properties (a) and (b) is called a small world [18,19], and if it satisfies (c) then it is called scale-free [1,2].

Does this similarity in features represent some profound principle in human interaction? Or, on the contrary, does any large network with some "collaboration" between nodes present these characteristics? A first, theoretical, step in this direction has been recently made by Newman et al. [16], who have developed a theory of random collaboration networks and have shown that some statistical data of most "real-life" collaboration networks differ substantially from the data obtained from random models.

In this paper we want to contribute to a possible answer to these questions by analyzing a new collaboration network, that is artificial, but mimics real-life networks: the *Marvel Universe* collaboration network. In it, the nodes correspond to Marvel Comics characters, and two nodes are linked when the corresponding characters have jointly appeared in the same Marvel comic book.

Marvel Comics, together with DC Comics, have been for many decades the two main comic book publishing companies in the world [8,11]. It was founded in 1939 by M. Goodman, under the name of Timely Comics Inc.; it changed its name in the early 1960s to Marvel Comics, which was also the name of the first comic book published by Timely. After a first decade of popularity, known as the Golden Age of comics (1939-49), and a later period of

general waning of interest in super-hero stories, Marvel relaunched in 1961 its super-hero comic books publishing line, starting what has been known as the *Marvel Age of Comics*. Some of the characters created in this period, like Spider-Man, the Fantastic Four, the X-Men, together with other characters rescued from the Golden Age, like Captain America, are world-wide known and have become cultural icons of the western society of the last forty years.

One of the main features of Marvel Comics from the sixties to our days has been the creation and development, under the leading pen of Stan Lee, of the so-called Marvel Universe. Although crossovers (a hero with its own title series appears in an issue of another hero's series) were not uncommon in the Golden Age period, the nature and span of the crossovers in the books from the Marvel Age led to the perception that all Marvel characters lived their adventures in the same fictional cosmos, called the Marvel Universe, where they interacted like real actors. This concept was helped by the interrelation of all titles that were being created, which made characters and even plots cross over on a regular basis, by the appearance of the same villains and secondary characters in comic books of different titles, and by continuous references to events that were simultaneously happening, or had happened, in other books. A paradigm of the Marvel Universe could be Quicksilver, who appeared first as a member of Magneto's Brotherhood of Evil Mutants in the early issues of Uncanny X-Men, then he became a member of the Avengers and later of X-Factor, to end as the leader of the Knights of Wundagore; he is also the son of Magneto, the twin brother of the Scarlet Witch, and he married Crystal, a former fiancée of Fantastic Four's Human Torch and a member of the Inhumans (as well as of the Fantastic Four as a substitute of the Invisible Woman when she took her "maternal leave").

The Marvel Universe network captures the social structure of this Marvel Universe, because most pairs of characters that have jointly appeared in the same comic book have fought shoulder to shoulder or each other, or have had some other strong relationship, like family ties or kidnapping. Thus, it shares, in its artificial way, the true social nature of scientific collaboration networks, while the way it has grown has echoes of the Hollywood network, as writers, directors and producers create their characters and assign them to actors in a way that somewhat resembles the way Marvel writers make characters appear in comic books.

Thus, besides any sentimental or cultural motive, this is where the main reason for studying the properties of the Marvel Universe lies: it is a purely artificial social network, whose nodes correspond to invented entities and whose links have been raised by a team of writers without any preconception for a period of forty years. We considered therefore interesting to know if the Marvel Universe network's artificial nature would resemble real-life collaboration networks, or, on the contrary, would rather look like a random collaboration network. As we shall see, the first is essentially the case: most statistical data of the Marvel Universe differ from the random model in a way reminiscent of real-life collaboration networks. Nevertheless, we must mention that there is one particular value, the clustering coefficient, that also greatly differs from what one would expect in a real-life collaboration network. We shall argue that this difference stems from the way how characters were distributed among books by Marvel writers, which is different from the way how real-life scientists join to write scientific papers. After all, men, even Stan Lee (The Man himself) cannot imitate society.

2 The Marvel Universe network

We define the $Marvel\ Universe\ network\ (MU)$ as the network whose nodes are significant Marvel characters and where two characters are linked when they jointly appear in a significant way in the same comic book. We only consider here comics published after Issue 1 of Fantastic Four (dated November 1961), which is understood as the point of departure of the Marvel Age of Comics.

Any study like this one must be based on a database, which puts the main restriction to its scope. In this case, the database we have used is the Marvel Chronology Project (MCP), which, according to its creator, R. Chappell [7], catalogs every canonical appearance by every significant Marvel character. Thus, the "significant characters" represented by nodes in our network and the "significant appearances" that yield the links in it are, actually, nothing but those characters and appearances currently included in the MCP database. Nevertheless, all in all, this database collects over 96 000 appearances by more than 6 500 characters in about 13 000 comic books, and thus yields quite a complete picture of the Marvel Universe. Although the MCP database is not finished (it has a main gap, as it does not include comic books published between early 1993 and mid 1994, as well as some other minor ones) we believe that this does not affect in a significant way the results obtained in our analysis.

It is necessary to clarify what we understood by a character when building up MU. On the one hand, it is quite common for the same person in the Marvel Universe to take different personalities. As an example, recall Hank Pym, one of the original and most popular Avengers: it has been known, in different periods, as the Ant-Man, the Giant-Man, Goliath, Yellow Jacket, and has even appeared simply as the world's greatest biochemist Dr. Henry Pym in many books. On the other hand, from time to time different characters may assume the same personality: for instance, besides Hank Pym, there have been at least two more Goliath's: Clint Barton (who changed from Hawkeye to Goliath, before returning back to Hawkeye) and Erik Josten (who was Power Man before becoming the third Goliath, and after that he took the name of Atlas, being actually the second character with this nickname). In fact, these problems with the identification of nodes are not specific to MU, but they are shared by all collaboration networks: different authors can appear under the same name in a scientific collaboration network, and an actress could use a nickname during her period as prodigy child, then use her maiden name after adolescence, and then take her husbands' name after every wedding, coming back to her maiden name in every period between marriages. Fortunately, and contrary to scientific databases or the Internet Movie Database, the MCP database takes care of most vicissitudes concerning name changes. We decided then to assign a node to every "person" (or, more in accordance with the nature of some characters, "entity"), independently of the nickname or personality under which it appears in each comic book. In this way we have obtained 6486 nodes, appearing in 12942 comic books.

3 Analysis of the network

From the data contained in the MCP database, we have built up a bipartite graph (also known as *mode 2 graph*), with nodes corresponding to either Marvel characters or comic

books, and edges from every character to all the books where it has appeared. We have extracted then from this bipartite graph the MU network, as its projection on its set of characters, and we have used PAJEK, a program for large network analysis [4], to compute most of the key values in our study of MU. In this section we discuss in some detail the results we have obtained, which are numerically summarized in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1
Basic data on appearances of characters in comic books.

Number of characters: 6 486

Number of books: 12 942

Mean books per character: 14.9

Mean characters per book: 7.47

Distribution of characters per book: $P_b(k) \sim k^{-3.12}$

Distribution of books per character: $P_c(k) \sim k^{-0.66} 10^{-k/1895}$

3.1 The bipartite graph

The bipartite graph summarizing the MCP database contains 6 486 nodes corresponding to characters and 12 942 nodes corresponding to comic books, and 96 662 edges going from the characters to the books where they appear.

A Marvel character appears typically in about 14.9 comic books. The number of appearances spans from 1 to 1625: this greatest value corresponds to Spider-Man. The average number of characters per comic book is 7.47 with a range spanning from 1 to 111: this last value is achieved by Issue 1 of *Contest of Champions* (1982), where the Grandmaster and the Unknown took every superhero in the planet and selected two teams to battle it out.

We shall denote by $P_b(k)$ the distribution of ingoing edges, and by $P_c(k)$ the distribution of outgoing edges in this bipartite graph. That is, $P_b(k)$ represents the probability that a comic book has k characters appearing in it, and $P_c(k)$ represents the probability that a character appears in k comic books. To obtain the best fit of these distributions we have logarithmically binned the data and performed a linear regression of $\log(P(r))$ on $\log(r)$. We have found that $P_b(k)$ follows the power-law tail

$$P_b(k) \sim k^{-3.1228}$$
.

The resulting histogram, together with the tail distribution is shown in Figure 1. The distribution of P_b is similar to what can be found in real-life networks and is a new example of the ubiquity of Zipf's law.

On the other hand the best fit for the distribution of $P_c(k)$ is different of what is normally found in bipartite graphs associated to collaboration networks. The best fitting distribution we found is

$$P_c(k) \sim k^{-0.6644} 10^{-k/1895}$$
.

The exponent of only 0.66 is much smaller than other values published for similar networks, that usually ranges from 2 to 3. Also, the presence of a cutoff has been seldom reported

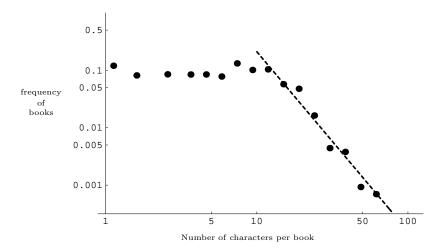


Fig. 1. Distribution of characters per comic books in the bipartite graph. The horizontal axis corresponds to the number of characters that appear in a comic book, while the vertical axis represent the frequency of books with those many characters. Note that the scales on both axis are logarithmic. The dashed line shows the tail probability distribution $P_b(k) \sim k^{-3.12}$.

in the literature. It is also of note that the fitting is not only of the tail, but of all the histogram, with a high correlation of 0.992. The histogram together with the distribution found is shown in Figure 2.

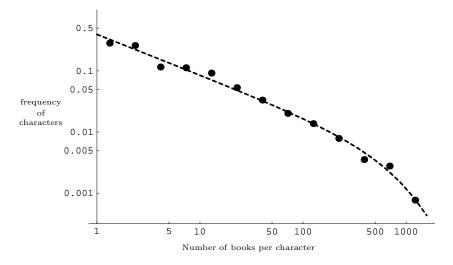


Fig. 2. Distribution of books per character in the bipartite graph. The horizontal axis corresponds to the number of comic books in which a character appears, while the vertical axis represents the frequency of characters that appear in those many books. Note that the scales on both axis are logarithmic. The dashed line shows the probability distribution $P_c(k) \sim k^{-0.66} 10^{-k/1895}$.

These distributions will be the starting point to create a null random model against which to compare the characteristics of the Marvel Universe network. This model will be described in the next section.

3.2 The null random model

To gain some perspective on the results obtained from the MU network, we compare them to a null random model. A reasonable random model would seem to be one with its same set

of nodes and whose links have been generated by simply tossing a (possibly charged) coin: each link exists, independently of the other ones, with a fixed probability p. We shall call this a $random\ network$. Adjusting p, we can create a random network with as many nodes as our network and with expected number of links equal to the number of links in our network. This null model is quite popular and has been often times used.

Recently, Newman et al. [16] have stated that given that collaboration networks are created from bipartite graphs, a better null random model from which our expectations about network structure should be measured is obtained by projecting random bipartite graphs with predetermined distributions of ingoing and outgoing edges. We have followed this approach in this paper. More specifically, the null random model MU-R we are going to compare the MU network to is obtained in the following way. We start from a random bipartite graph, which we shall call a MU-BR graph, with 6 486 nodes-characters and 12 942 nodes-books, and whose edges have been randomly created following exactly the same distributions $P_c(k)$ and $P_b(k)$ of outgoing and ingoing edges as those of the bipartite graph obtained from the MCP database in the previous subsection. Then, a MU-R graph is the projection of this random bipartite graph on its set of nodes-characters: i.e., its nodes correspond to characters and its links represent to be connected to the same book in a MU-BR graph. The theoretical data corresponding to this random model have been computed through the formulas given by Newman et al. in loc. cit.

3.3 Basic data

Our MU network has $N_{MU} = 6486$ nodes (characters) and $M_{MU} = 168267$ links, i.e. pairs of characters that have collaborated in some comic book. We would like to mention that the actual number of collaborations is 569770, but this value counts *all* collaborations in the Marvel Universe history, and while there are 91040 pairs of characters that have only met once, other pairs have met quite often: for instance, every pair of members of the Fantastic Four has jointly appeared in around 700 comic books (more specifically, this range of collaborations of the members of the Fantastic Four runs between 668 joint appearances of the Thing and the Invisible Woman to 744 joint appearances of the Thing and the Human Torch).

The number of characters that have jointly appeared with a given character in some comic book is given by the *degree* of this character in the network. The average value for this degree in the MU collaboration network is

$$\frac{2M_{MU}}{N_{MU}} = 51.88,$$

i.e., a Marvel character has collaborated, on average, with 52 other characters. The range of this number of collaborators runs from 0 (the MCP database contains characters that have appeared in comic books where no other character is reported to appear) to 1933, the number of partners of Captain America.

Even in such a basic quantity as the number of links, or, equivalently, the average degree of a node, we find a big difference between the values obtained in the MU network and in its null random model MU-R. Indeed, according to Newman et al. [16, Eq. (72)], in the MU-R

graph we would expect all 569 770 collaborations to form different links, which is about 3.4 times the actual number of links in the MU network. As a consequence, the average degree in MU-R is the average degree in MU multiplied by this same factor, and would therefore become 175.69: should the MU collaboration network (or, rather, the bipartite graph representing character appearances in books) have been created in a purely random way, a Marvel character would have collaborated on average with more than 175 other characters.

It is shown [16, §V.A] that in the Hollywood graph and in several scientific collaboration networks the actual average degree is consistently smaller than the theoretical average degree of the corresponding random model, but not by such a large factor as the one found here. This indicates that Marvel characters are made to collaborate repeatedly with the same characters, which reduces their total number of co-partners well below the expected number in the random model, and that they collaborate quite more often with the same people than real movie actors or scientists do. This probably should be a hint of the artificiality of the Marvel Universe.

Table 2 Summary of results of the analysis of the MU network.

Mean partners per character: 51.88

Size of giant component: 6 449 characters (99.42%)

Mean distance: 2.63

Maximum distance: 5

Clustering coefficient: 0.012

Distribution of partners: $P(k) \sim k^{-0.72} 10^{-k/2167}$

3.4 The giant component

Two nodes in a network are said to be *connected* when there is at least one path in the network, made of consecutive links, that connects them. In a collaboration network, this means that two nodes are connected when they can be linked through a path of intermediate collaborators, or rather, in our case, co-partners. As mentioned before, finding such a path, and more specifically the shortest one, between any actor or actress and Kevin Bacon in the Hollywood network, is the goal of the Kevin Bacon game.

In general, two nodes in a collaboration network need not be connected. But, in all large enough, sensible real-life networks, almost every node is connected to almost every other node. More specifically, large collaboration networks (and other large social networks) usually contain a very large subset of nodes —around 80% to 90% of all nodes—that are connected to each other: when this happens, this large subset of nodes with their corresponding links is called the *giant component* of the network. Also, Newman et al. [16] show that in random collaboration networks giant components do also occur, provided the corresponding random bipartite graphs have enough edges.

MU contains a giant component of 6449 nodes, which cover 99.42% of the characters in it. Let us also mention that the largest group of connected characters in the MU network

outside this giant components has only 9 members.

3.5 Separation

The distance between two connected nodes in a network is defined as the length (the number of links) of the shortest path connecting them, i.e., the least number of links we have to traverse in order to move from one node to the other within the network. Notice that the number of links in a path is equal to the number of intermediate nodes plus one, and thus we could also say that the distance between two connected nodes is the least number of intermediate nodes visited by a path connecting them plus one. For instance, the Kevin Bacon game asks for the distance of any actor or actress to Kevin Bacon in the Hollywood network, as the least number of intermediate co-partners plus one linking that actor or actress to Kevin Bacon. And it is popular among mathematicians to compute Erdös numbers, that is his/her distance to P. Erdös in the mathematicians' collaboration network.

We have calculated all distances between all pairs of connected nodes in MU. The greatest distance between two connected nodes, called the *diameter* of MU in the usual network-theoretical terminology, is 5. It implies that there is always a chain of at most 4 collaborators connecting any two connectable characters in the Marvel Universe.

We have also computed the mean of all distances in the network, which provides the average separation of two characters in it. The value of this average separation is 2.63. Thus, on average, any pair of characters in the MU network can be connected through a path of at most two consecutive partners. This is larger than the expected value in the MU-R network, which is 1.45. Again, the reason is that only a third of the links in MU-R do appear in MU. Nevertheless, the values of both the diameter and the average separation in the MU network are significantly smaller than the values of real-life networks reported so far.

Finally, we have computed the *center* of the giant component, the character that minimizes the sum of the distances from it to all other nodes in the component. It turns out to be Captain America, who is, on average, at distance 1.70 to every other character.

3.6 Clustering

In most social networks, two nodes that are linked to a third one have a higher probability to be linked between them: two acquaintances of a given person probably know each other. This effect is measured using the clustering coefficient, that is defined as follows. Given a node v in a network, let k_v be its degree, i.e., the number of neighbors of v, and let N_v be the number of links between these k_v neighbors of v. If all these nodes were linked to each other, then N_v would be equal to the number of unordered pairs of nodes belonging to this set of k_v neighbors, i.e., to $k_v(k_v - 1)/2$. The clustering coefficient C_v of node v rates the difference between the actual value N_v and this greatest value by taking their quotient

$$C_v = \frac{2N_v}{k_v(k_v - 1)}.$$

Thus, this coefficient C_v measures the fraction of neighbors of node v that are linked. Notice that $0 \le C_v \le 1$. The clustering coefficient C of a network is then defined as the mean value of the clustering coefficients of all its nodes. It represents the probability that two neighbors of an arbitrary node are linked.

All collaboration networks studied so far, and in general most social networks, have large clustering coefficients. For instance, the clustering coefficient of the Hollywood network is 0.199, 1 showing that two actors that have collaborated (possibly in different films) with a third actor, have greater probability of being partners in a movie than two arbitrary, randomly chosen, actors. A similar effect appears in scientific collaboration networks: except for MEDLINE, all other scientific collaboration networks studied so far have their clustering coefficients between, roughly, 0.3 and 0.8, which tells us that a large fraction of the collaborators of a scientist collaborate with each other. This large clustering, together with a low value of the average distance between connected nodes, is taken as the definition of small-world networks [18].

Actually, the word "large" means large compared to the expected value of the clustering coefficient in a null random model. Depending on the choice of the null random model the results differ. It is worthwhile to dedicate some time to discuss the differences as this will shed some light on the nature of the Marvel Universe and how it differs from real-life collaboration networks.

In a random network with n nodes and m links, it can be proved that the expected value of the clustering coefficient is nothing but the probability p that two randomly selected nodes are connected; in other words,

$$C_{\text{random}} = \frac{2m}{n(n-1)}.$$

Measured values in collaboration networks are usually "large" in the sense that they are a few orders of magnitude larger than the predicted value of a random network. For instance, the clustering coefficient of the MEDLINE network is 0.066, which seems small, but it becomes very large when compared with the value 0.0000042 of the clustering coefficient of a random network with the same number of nodes and links.

Against what happens with real-life social networks, it turns out that the clustering coefficient of MU is small, even in the last sense. Its value is $C_{\text{Marvel}} = 0.012$, while the clustering coefficient of a random network with 6 486 nodes and 168 267 links is $C_{\text{random}} = 0.008$. Thus, roughly C_{Marvel} is $1.5 \times C_{\text{random}}$, and not several orders of magnitude larger.

This result separates the Marvel Universe from all other, real-life, collaboration networks. But if we use the MU-R as null random network to compare the clustering coefficient of the MU network the analysis changes quite drastically. The expected value of the clustering coefficient of the null random model MU-R using the formula given by Newman et al. [16], is $C_{\rm MU-R} = 0.0066$. Thus, the measured clustering coefficient is about double the one predicted by MU-R

$$C_{\text{Marvel}} \approx 2 \times C_{\text{MU-R}}$$

and this agrees with what is observed in real-life networks, as shown by Newman et al. [16, Table I]: the clustering coefficient of the Hollywood network and the MEDLINE and Los

This figure is its last value, published by Newman et al. [16], and is quite different from the figure 0.79 previously published by Watts [18] when the network was quite smaller.

Alamos e-Print Archive collaboration networks are between twice and 2.3 times the expected clustering coefficient of the corresponding null random model. So, in this sense, the tendency to clustering in the Marvel Universe is similar to that of real-life collaboration networks.

Our analysis shows that the Marvel Universe behaves "realistically" when compared to MU-R, but not when compared to a random network. Real-life collaboration networks have as clustering coefficient roughly twice the one of their null random model, and the latter turns out to be highly clustered. The clustering coefficient of the MU network is also roughly twice the one of its null random model, but this null random model is not highly clustered, having a clustering coefficient only three times that of a random network with the same number of nodes and links. We believe that, as we already argued in connection with the average degree, this is a hint of the artificiality of the bipartite graph which projects into MU. It seems that Marvel writers have not assigned characters to books in the same way as natural interactions would have done it, with the global effect that the combination of the distributions $P_c(k)$ and $P_b(k)$ is very different from what would be found in real-life networks, yielding non-clustered graphs. But, once we have these distributions, the Marvel Universe behaves realistically and is different in a significant way from a random network.

3.7 Distribution of the number of partners

An interesting statistical datum that can be used to distinguish random networks from non-random networks is the distribution P(k) of degrees in the network. For every positive integer k, let P(k) denote the fraction of nodes in a given network that have degree k. In a random network with n nodes and m links, the expected value for P(k) follows a binomial distribution

 $P(k) = \binom{n-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-1-k}$ $p = \frac{2m}{n(n-1)}.$

where

Against these values, it has been observed [1,2] that in all collaboration networks considered so far the distribution P(k) has a tail that follows either a power law

$$P(k) \sim k^{-\tau}$$

for some constant, positive exponent τ , or a power law form with an exponential cutoff

$$P(k) \sim k^{-\tau} 10^{-k/c}$$

where τ and c are two positive constants, and c is large. While the power law component of such a distribution allows the existence of a non-negligible number of nodes with high degree, the cutoff prevents the existence of nodes with very high degree. In most collaboration networks, this cutoff is explained because the collaboration under consideration can only take place in a finite amount of time (for instance, the professional lifetime of an actor or a scientist), which makes unplausible the existence of nodes with a number of collaborators greater than some reasonable upper bound.

When we tested how the data fit a power law distribution with an exponential cutoff, we obtained that the best fitting tail was $P(k) \sim k^{-0.7158} 10^{-k/2167}$. Thus, the degree distribution of the MU network has a power law tail with cutoff as can be seen in Figure 3.

A value of τ smaller than 2 means that the average properties of the network are dominated by the few actors with a large number of collaborators. This happens in many real-life networks [12]. The value of τ much smaller than 2 shows that the weight of Captain America, Spider-Man, and other major super-heroes is much larger than what happens in scientific or movie actor collaborator networks. This should be expected: there are no super-heroes in real life.

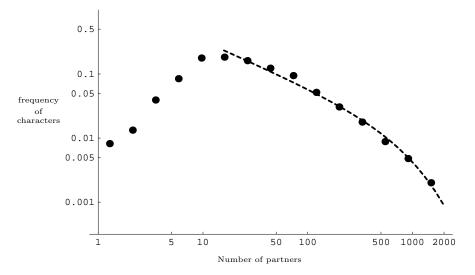


Fig. 3. Degree distribution in the MU network. The horizontal axis corresponds to the number of relations (or links) of a character, while the vertical axis represent the frequency of characters with those many relations. Note that the scales on both axis are logarithmic. The dashed line shows the tail probability distribution $P(k) \sim k^{-0.7158} 10^{-k/2167}$.

4 Conclusions

Real-life collaboration networks of very different origins, sizes and styles present common basic features: they are scale-free, small worlds. We have tried to ascertain if these characteristics depend on some profound social relationship or are there by chance. We have studied the Marvel Universe, which is a collaboration network that is artificial and has been created with no special intention during the past 40 years by a team of comic book writers.

Although to some extent the Marvel Universe tries to mimic human relations, and in particular it is completely different from a random network, we have shown that it cannot completely hide its artificial origins. As in real-life collaboration and, in general, social networks, its nodes are on average at a short distance of each other, and the distribution of collaborators shows a clear power-law tail with cutoff. But its clustering coefficient is quite smaller than what's usual in real-life collaboration networks.

We have compared the Marvel Universe network with a null random model obtained as the projection of a bipartite random graph with the same number of character and comic-book nodes and the same distribution of ingoing and outgoing edges as the actual bipartite graph

of appearances of characters in books which the Marvel Universe is built upon. From this comparison we deduce that the artificiality of the Marvel Universe network lies mainly on the distributions of edges in the bipartite graph which yields it, because the relationship between the Marvel Universe network's data and those of its null random model is similar to that of real-life collaboration networks' data and their corresponding null random models.

From here we conclude that in the construction of real collaboration networks there are two unknown, profound different principles in play. On the one hand, the degree distributions of the bipartite graph which they are based upon are not arbitrary. On the other hand, the final structure of any actual collaboration network, be it real-life or artificial, differs from its null random collaboration network model roughly in the same way, and thus there is probably a common mechanism that produces them. Further study is needed to find what these principles may be.

We believe that continuing to study the Marvel Universe may contribute to this search. Namely, the study of its evolution and its comparison with that of real-life collaboration networks should shed some light on the basis of the aforementioned mechanism and on where the artificiality of this network lies. Fortunately, the MCP database, in the words of its creator R. Chapell, attempts to "not only catalog every canonical appearance by every significant Marvel character, but to place those appearances in proper chronological order," and thus it contains enough information to allow such study. We hope to report on it in the future.

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