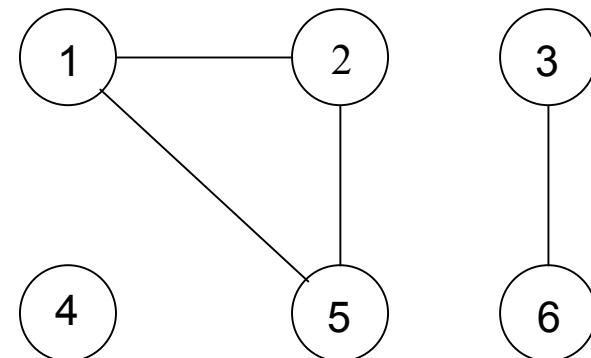
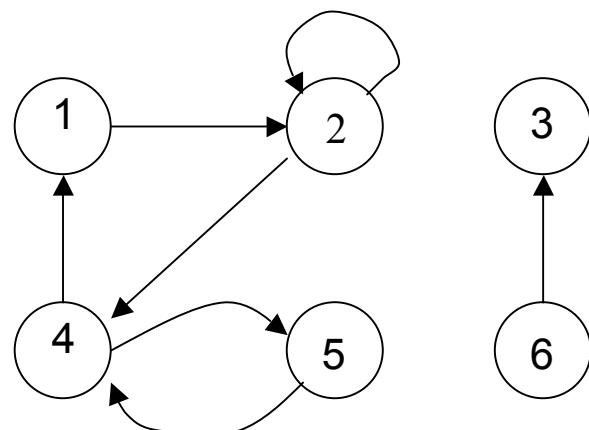


Introduction to Network Theory

What is a Network?

- Network = graph
- Informally a *graph* is a set of nodes joined by a set of lines or arrows.



Graph-based representations

- Representing a problem as a graph can provide a different point of view
- Representing a problem as a graph can make a problem much simpler
 - More accurately, it can provide the appropriate tools for solving the problem

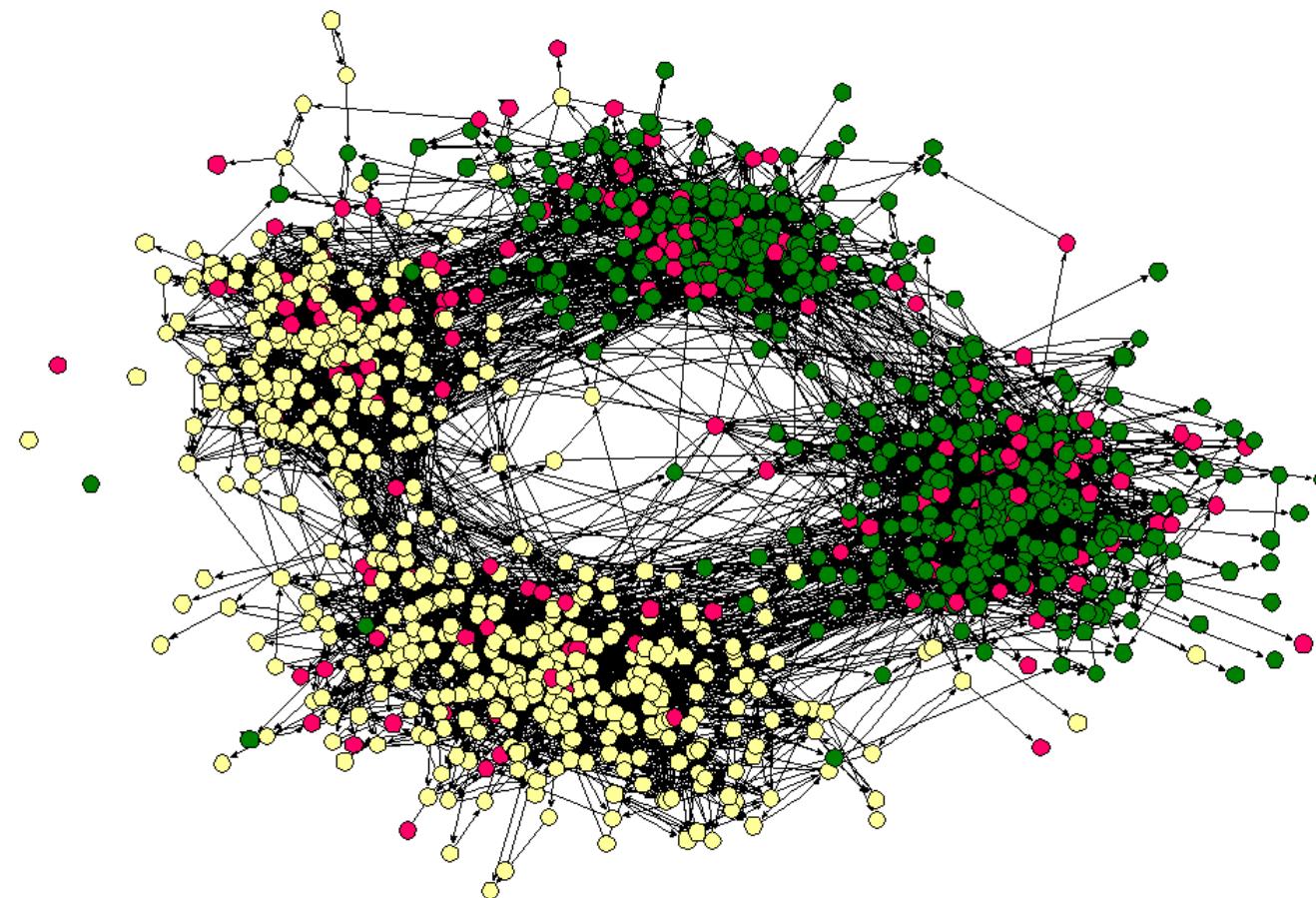
What is network theory?

- *Network theory* provides a set of techniques for analysing graphs
- *Complex systems network theory* provides techniques for analysing structure in a system of interacting agents, represented as a network
- Applying network theory to a system means using a graph-theoretic representation

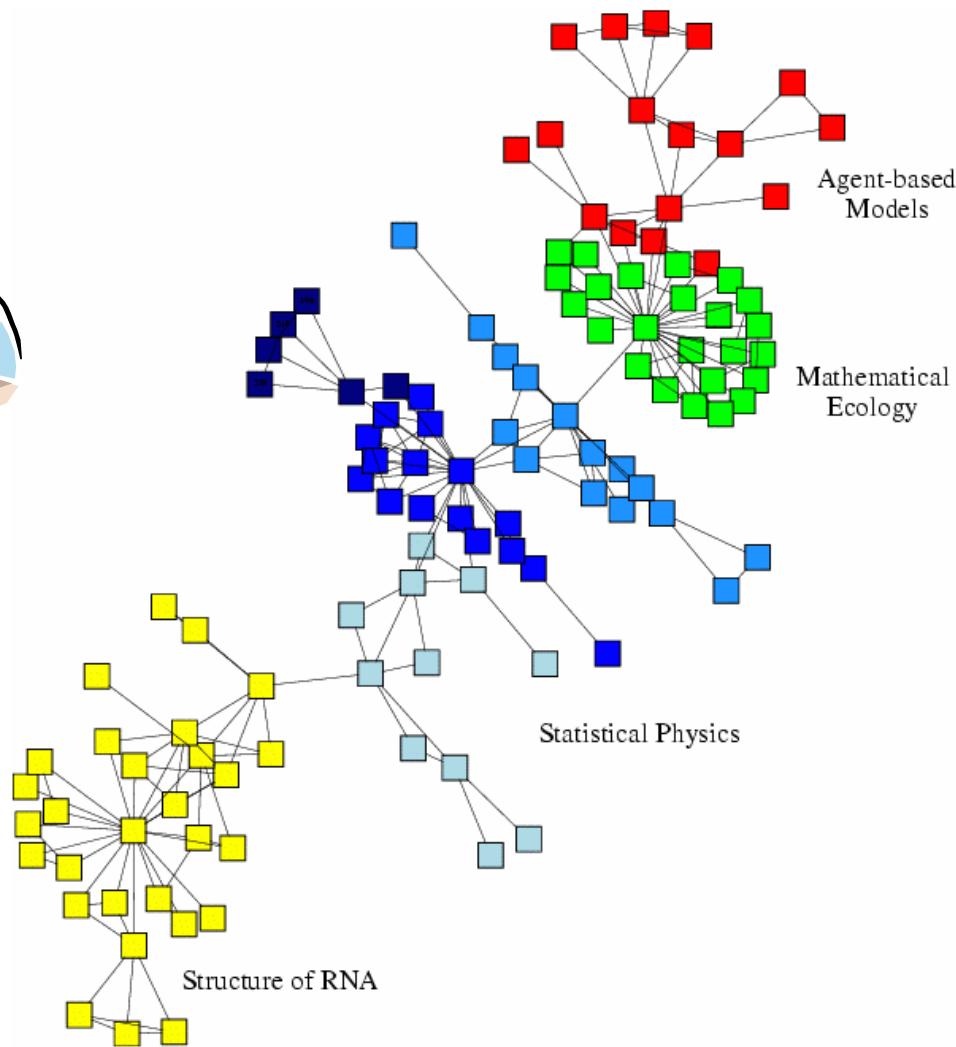
What makes a problem graph-like?

- There are two components to a graph
 - Nodes and edges
- In graph-like problems, these components have natural correspondences to problem elements
 - Entities are nodes and interactions between entities are edges
- Most complex systems are graph-like

Friendship Network

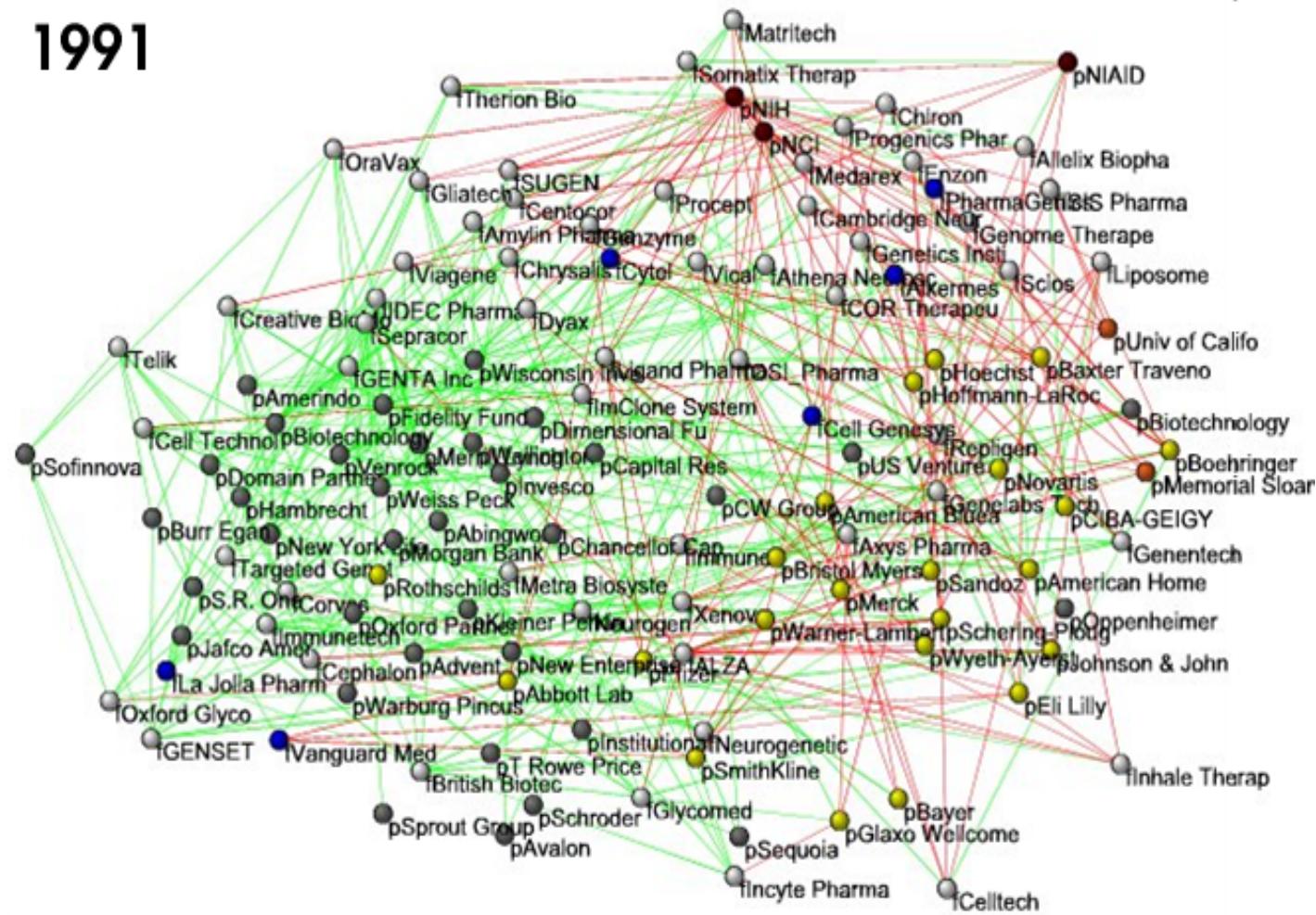


Scientific collaboration network

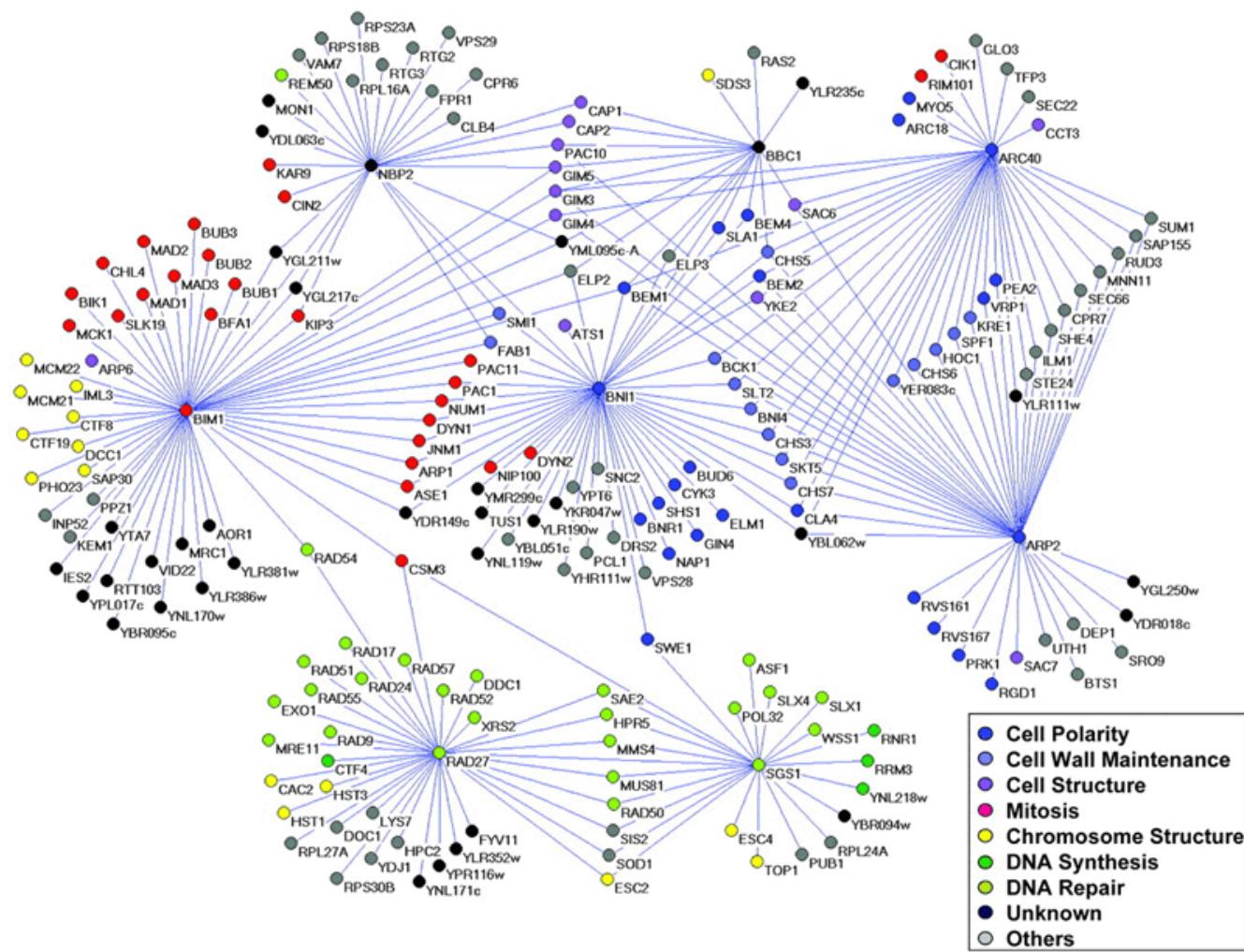


Business ties in US biotech-industry

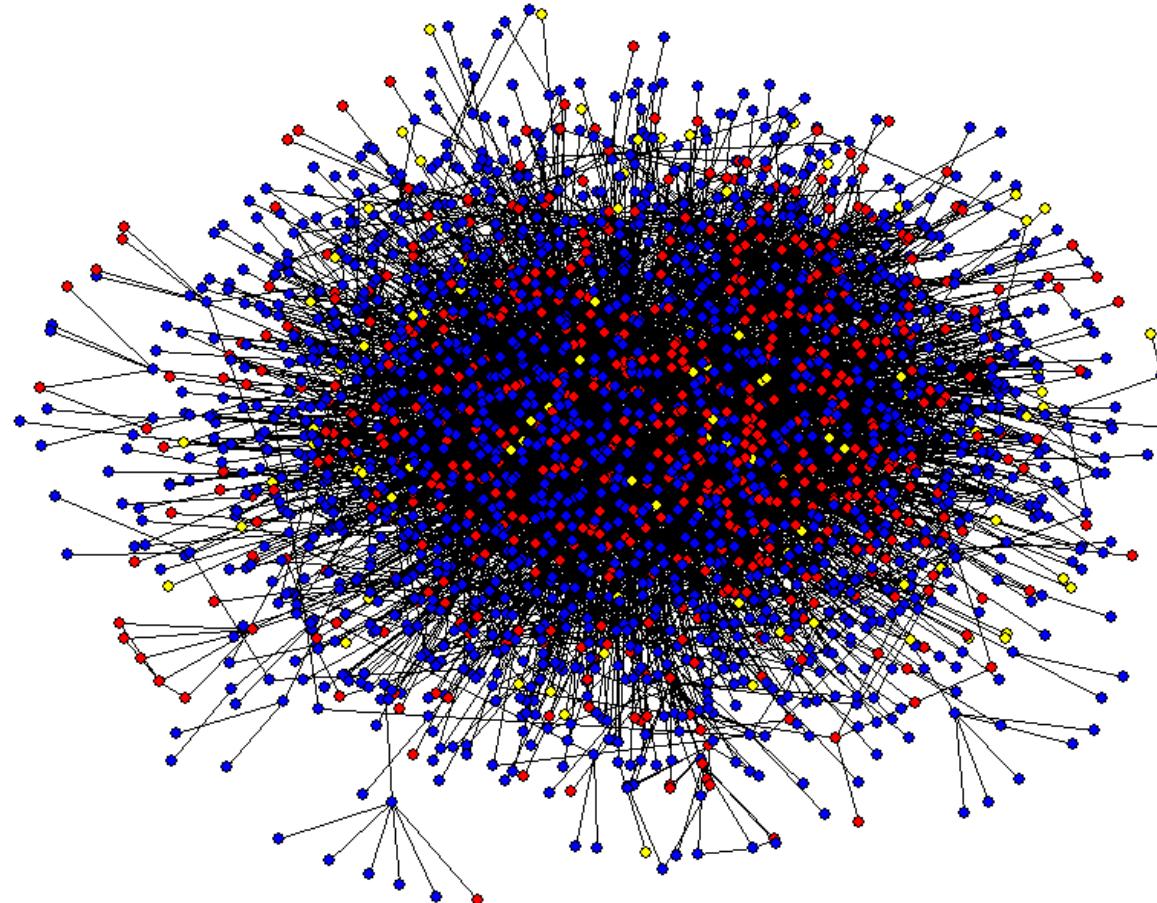
1991



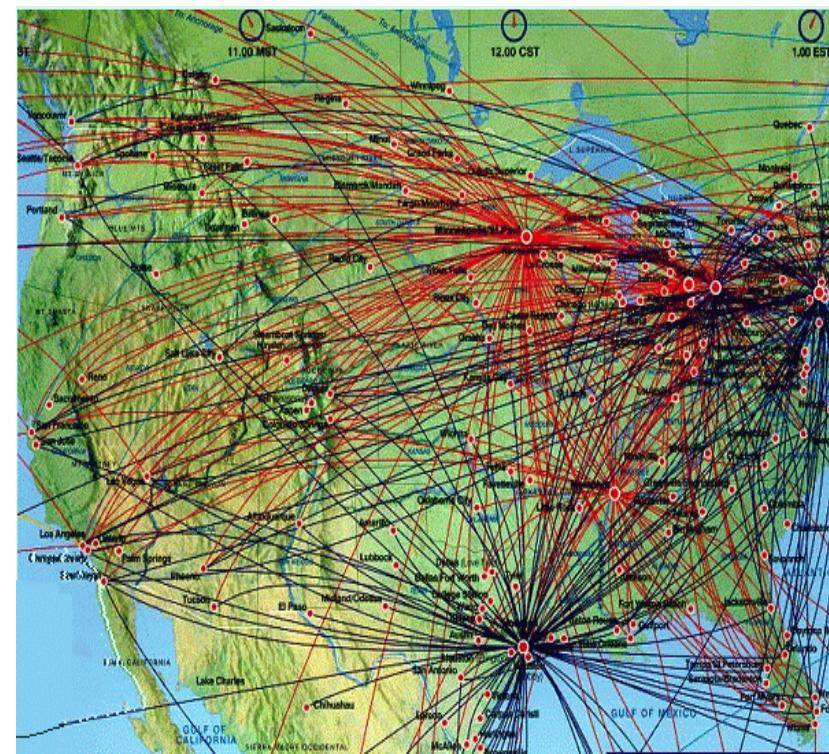
Genetic interaction network



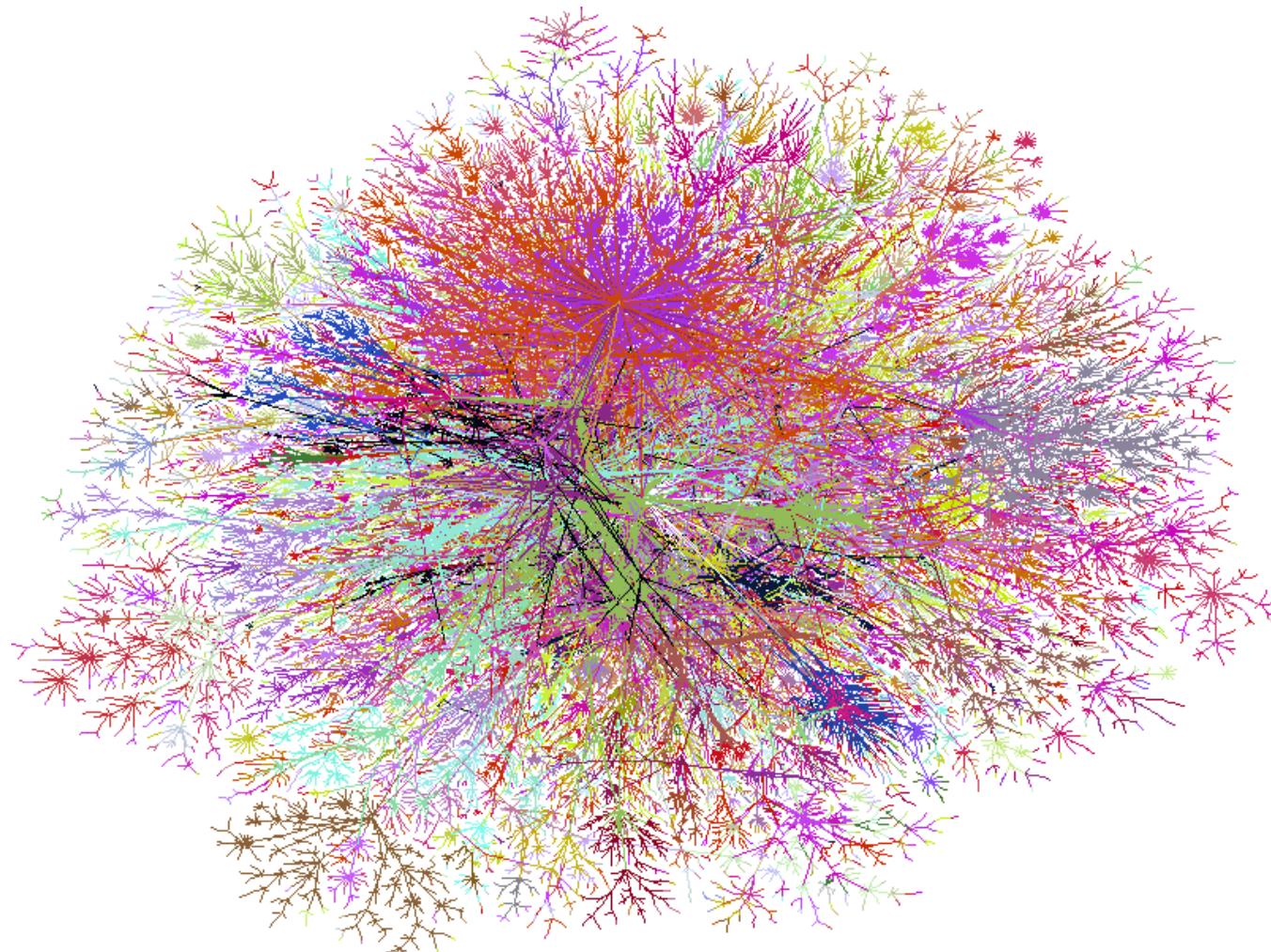
Protein-Protein Interaction Networks



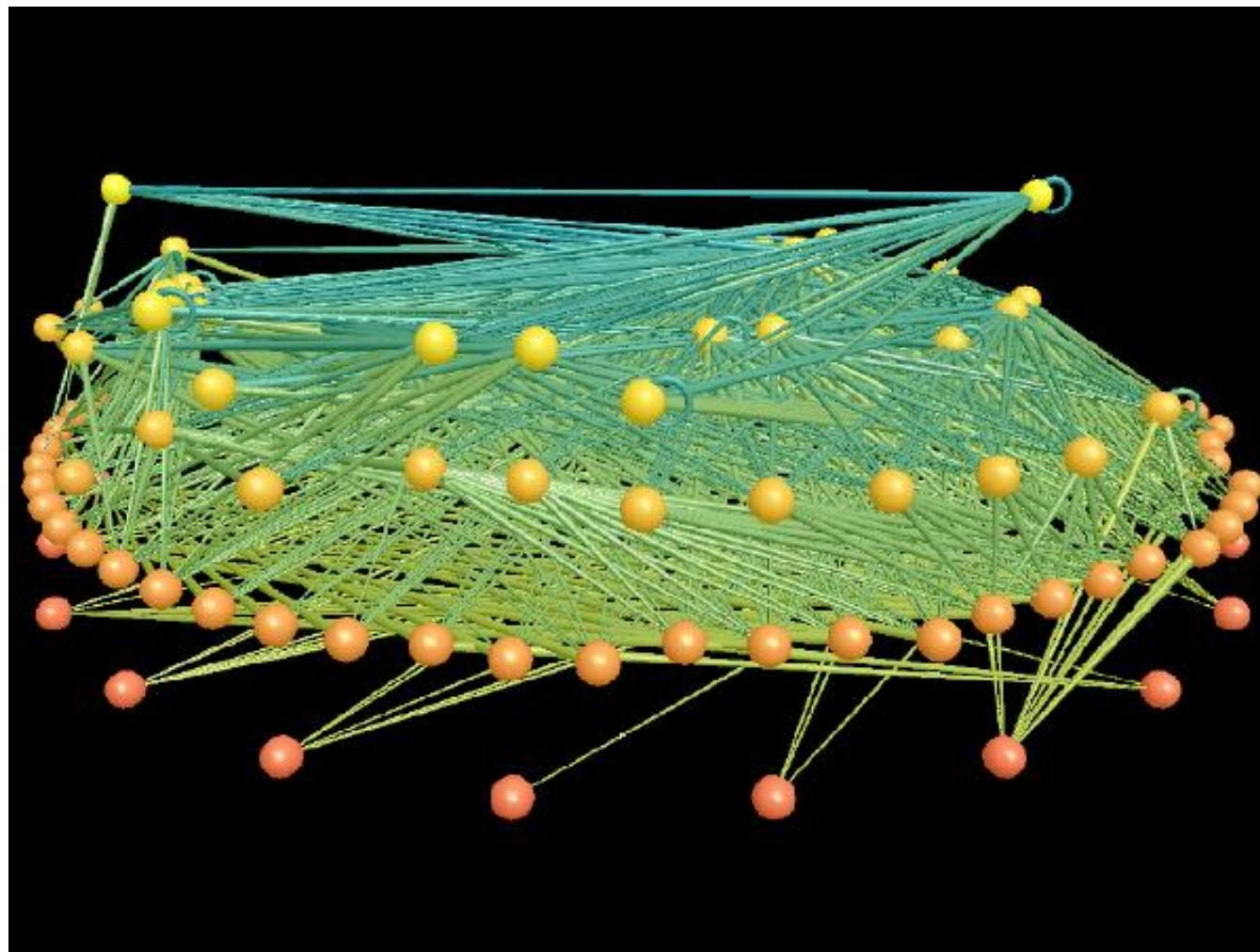
Transportation Networks



Internet

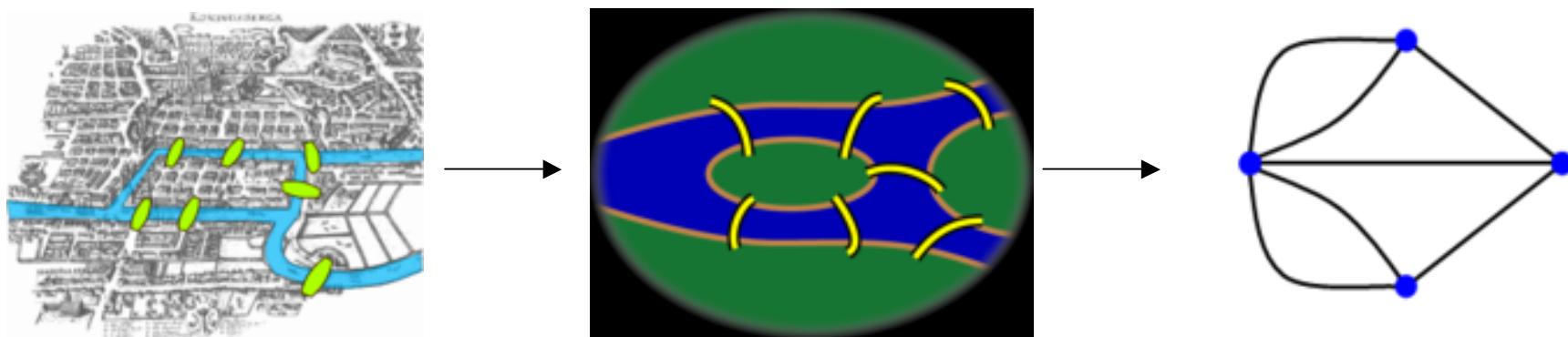


Ecological Networks



Graph Theory - History

Leonhard Euler's paper on “*Seven Bridges of Königsberg*”,
published in 1736.



Graph Theory - History

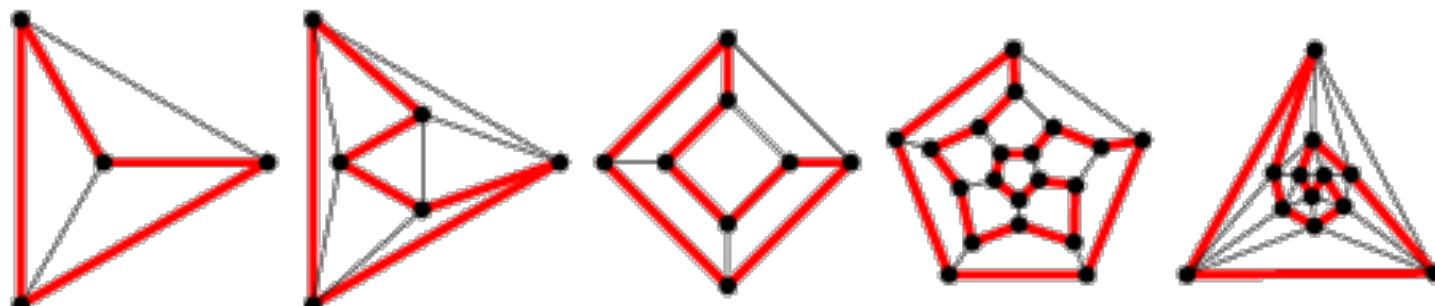
Cycles in Polyhedra



Thomas P. Kirkman



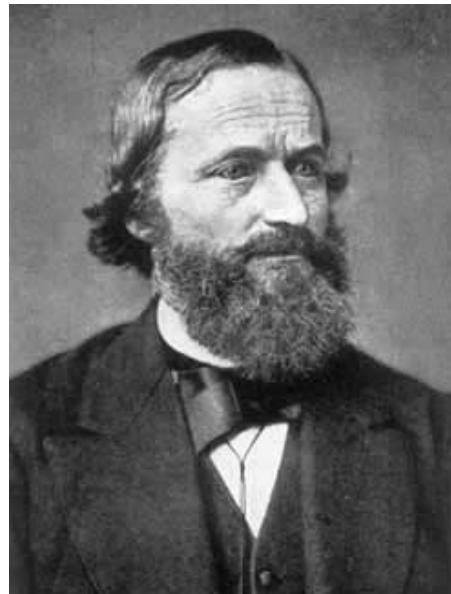
William R. Hamilton



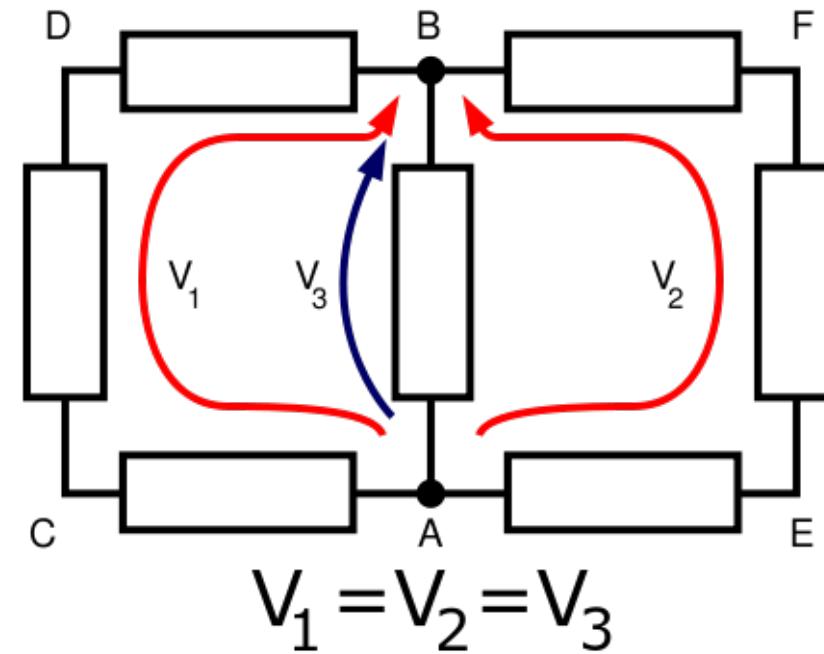
Hamiltonian cycles in Platonic graphs

Graph Theory - History

Trees in Electric Circuits

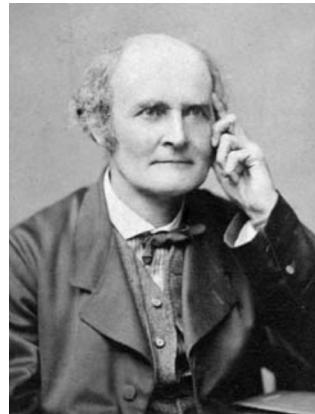


Gustav Kirchhoff



Graph Theory - History

Enumeration of Chemical Isomers



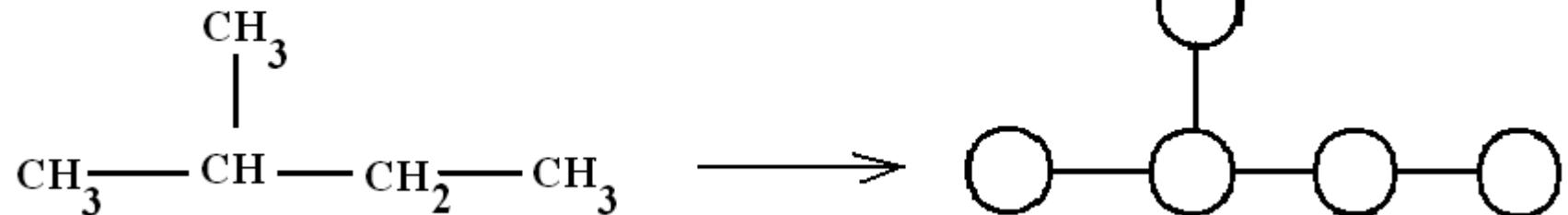
Arthur Cayley



James J. Sylvester



George Polya

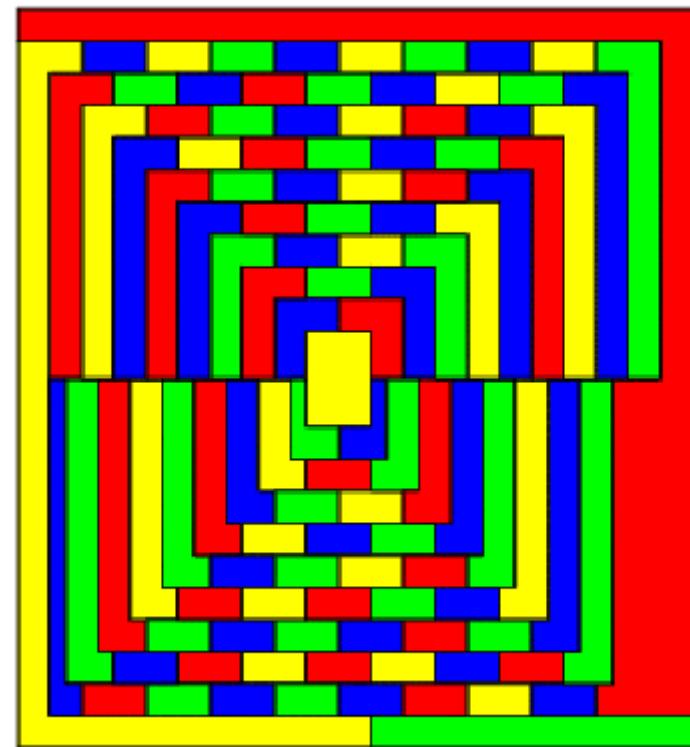


Graph Theory - History

Four Colors of Maps



Francis Guthrie Auguste DeMorgan



Definition: Graph

- G is an ordered triple $G := (V, E, f)$
 - ◆ V is a set of nodes, points, or vertices.
 - ◆ E is a set, whose elements are known as edges or lines.
 - ◆ f is a function
 - ◆ maps each element of E
 - ◆ to an unordered pair of vertices in V.

Definitions

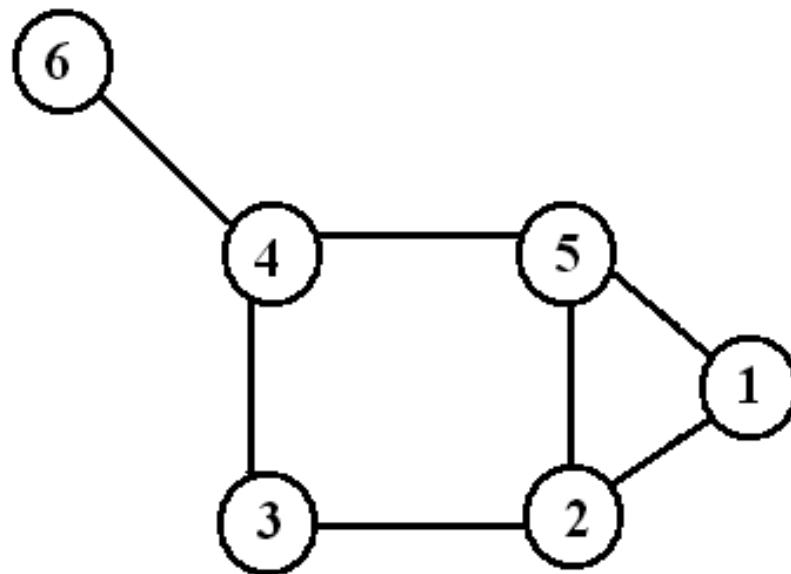
■ Vertex

- ◆ Basic Element
- ◆ Drawn as a *node* or a *dot*.
- ◆ **Vertex set** of G is usually denoted by $V(G)$, or V

■ Edge

- ◆ A set of two elements
- ◆ Drawn as a line connecting two vertices, called end vertices, or endpoints.
- ◆ The edge set of G is usually denoted by $E(G)$, or E .

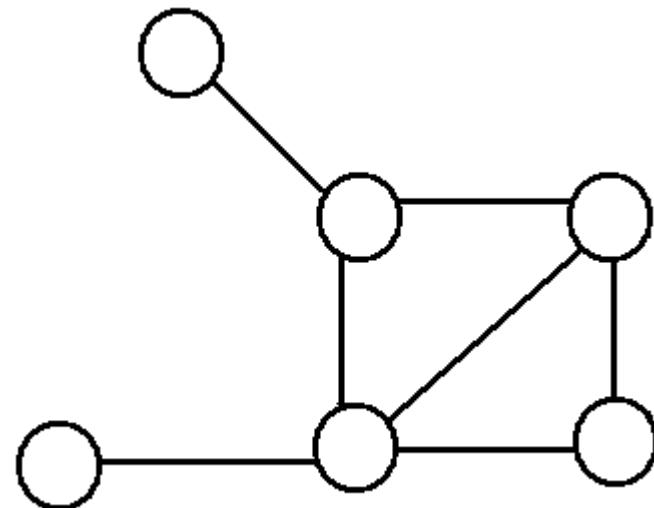
Example



- $V := \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- $E := \{\{1, 2\}, \{1, 5\}, \{2, 3\}, \{2, 5\}, \{3, 4\}, \{4, 5\}, \{4, 6\}\}$

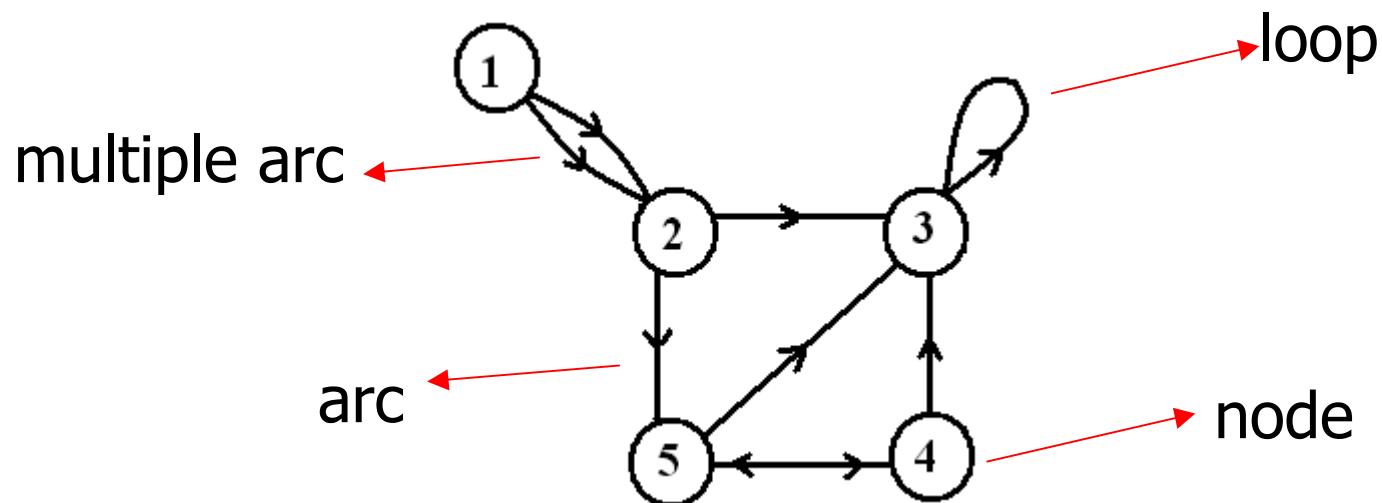
Simple Graphs

Simple graphs are graphs without multiple edges or self-loops.



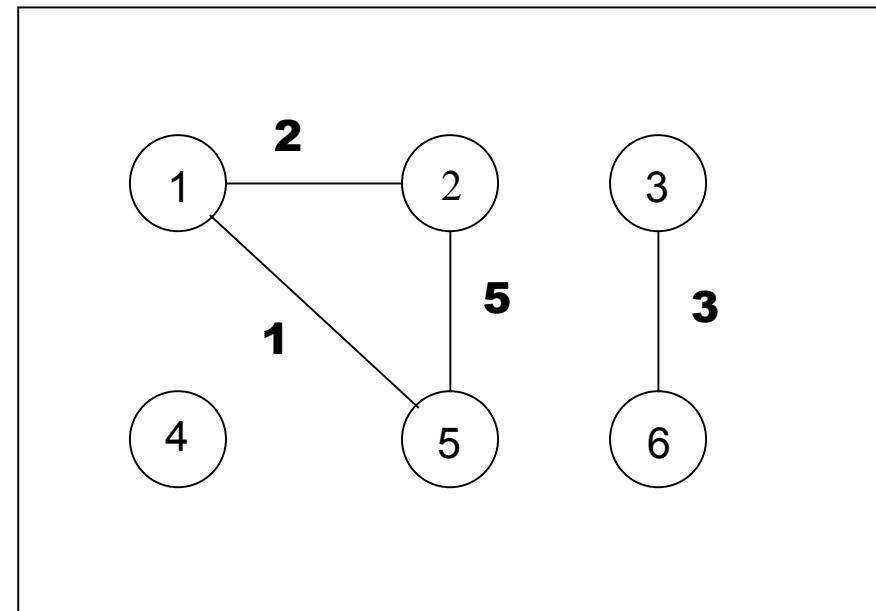
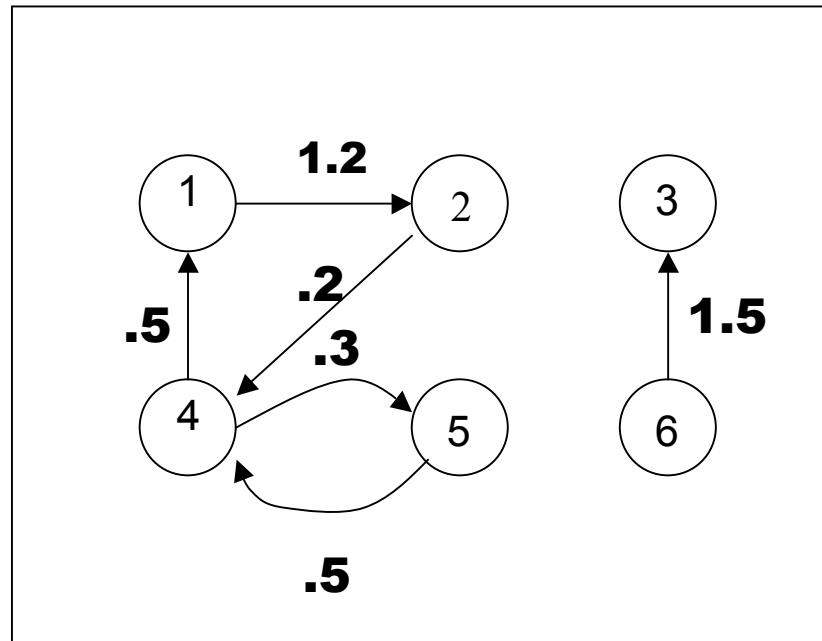
Directed Graph (digraph)

- Edges have directions
 - ◆ An edge is an *ordered* pair of nodes



Weighted graphs

- is a graph for which each edge has an associated **weight**, usually given by a **weight function** $w: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.



Structures and structural metrics

- Graph structures are used to isolate interesting or important sections of a graph
- Structural metrics provide a measurement of a structural property of a graph
 - Global metrics refer to a whole graph
 - Local metrics refer to a single node in a graph

Graph structures

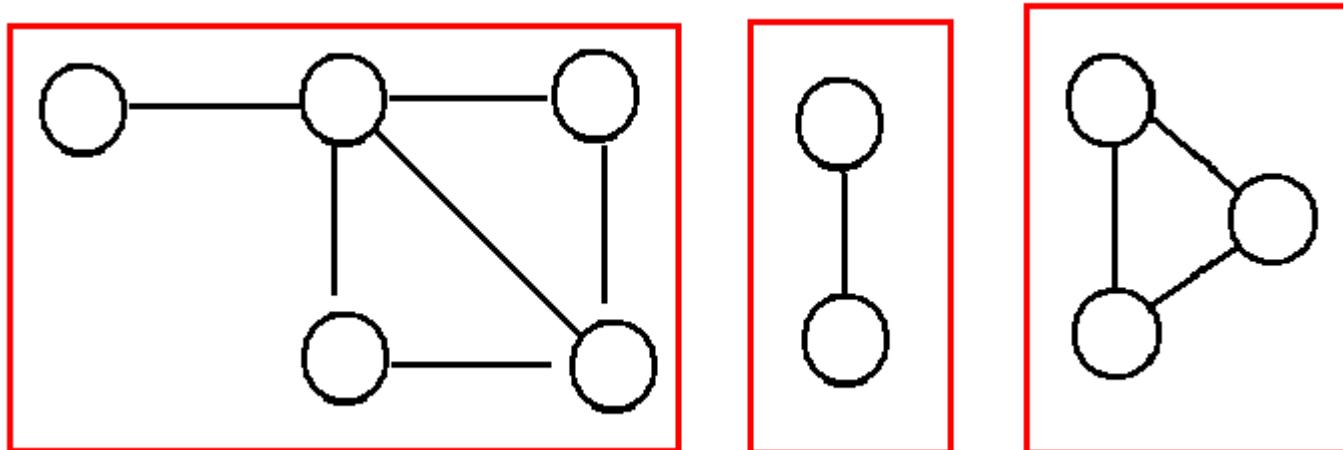
- Identify interesting sections of a graph
 - Interesting because they form a significant domain-specific structure, or because they significantly contribute to graph properties
 - A subset of the nodes and edges in a graph that possess certain characteristics, or relate to each other in particular ways

Connectivity

- a graph is ***connected*** if
 - ◆ you can get from any node to any other by following a sequence of edges
OR
 - ◆ any two nodes are connected by a path.
- A directed graph is ***strongly connected*** if there is a directed path from any node to any other node.

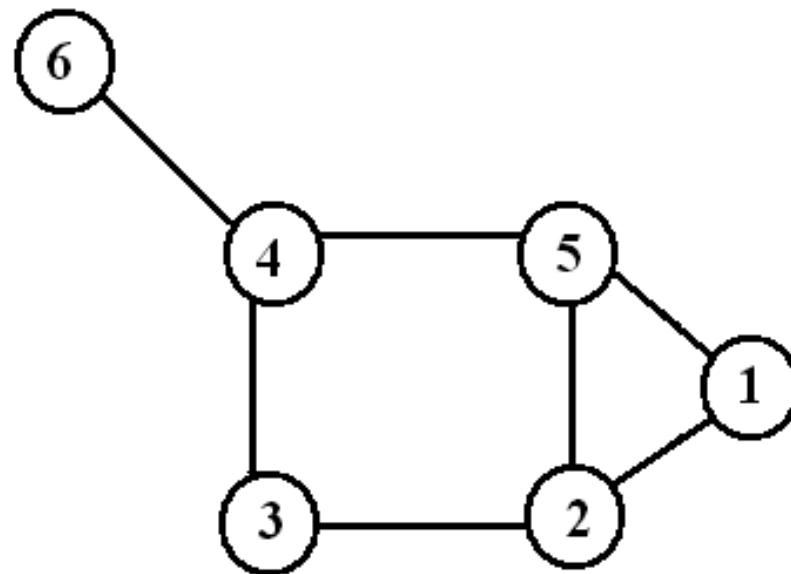
Component

- Every disconnected graph can be split up into a number of connected ***components***.



Degree

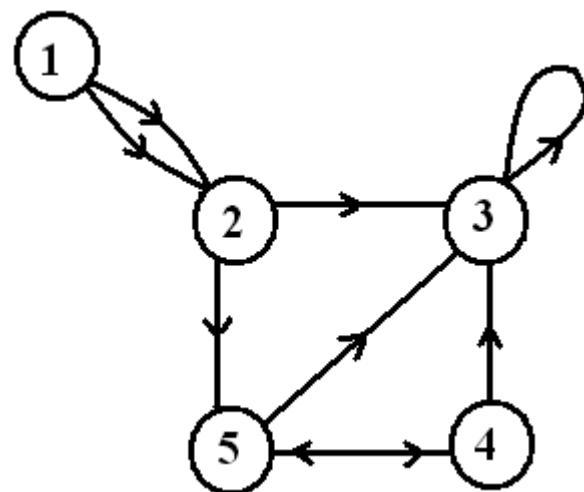
- Number of edges incident on a node



The degree of 5 is 3

Degree (Directed Graphs)

- In-degree: Number of edges entering
- Out-degree: Number of edges leaving
- Degree = indeg + outdeg



$$\begin{aligned} \text{outdeg}(1) &= 2 \\ \text{indeg}(1) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{outdeg}(2) &= 2 \\ \text{indeg}(2) &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{outdeg}(3) &= 1 \\ \text{indeg}(3) &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

Degree: Simple Facts

- If G is a graph with m edges, then

$$\sum \deg(v) = 2m = 2|E|$$

- If G is a digraph then

$$\sum \text{indeg}(v) = \sum \text{outdeg}(v) = |E|$$

- Number of Odd degree Nodes is even

Walks

A **walk of length k** in a graph is a succession of k (not necessarily different) edges of the form

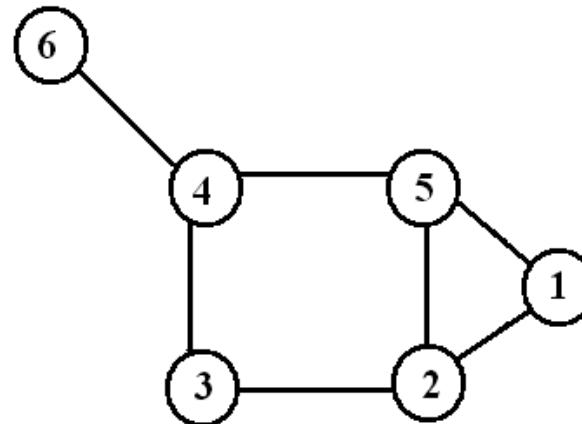
$uv, vw, wx, \dots, yz.$

This walk is denote by $uvw\cdots xz$, and is referred to as a **walk between u and z** .

A walk is **closed** is $u=z$.

Path

- A *path* is a walk in which all the edges and all the nodes are different.



Walks and Paths

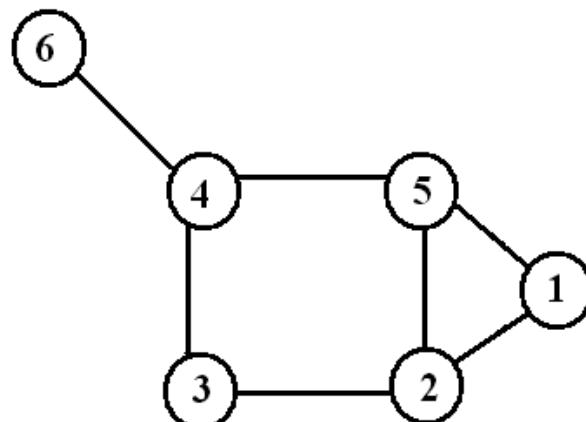
1,2,5,2,3,4
walk of length 5

1,2,5,2,3,2,1
CW of length 6

1,2,3,4,6
path of length 4

Cycle

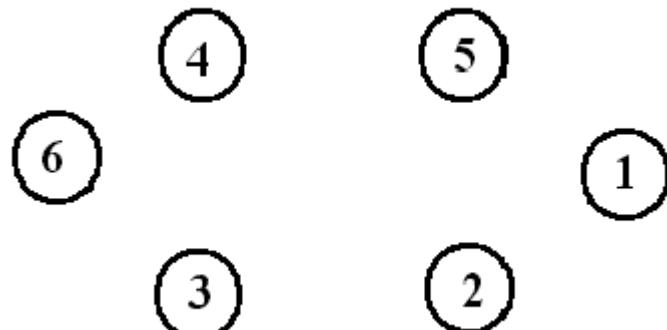
- A **cycle** is a closed path in which all the edges are different.



1,2,5,1 2,3,4,5,2
3-cycle 4-cycle

Special Types of Graphs

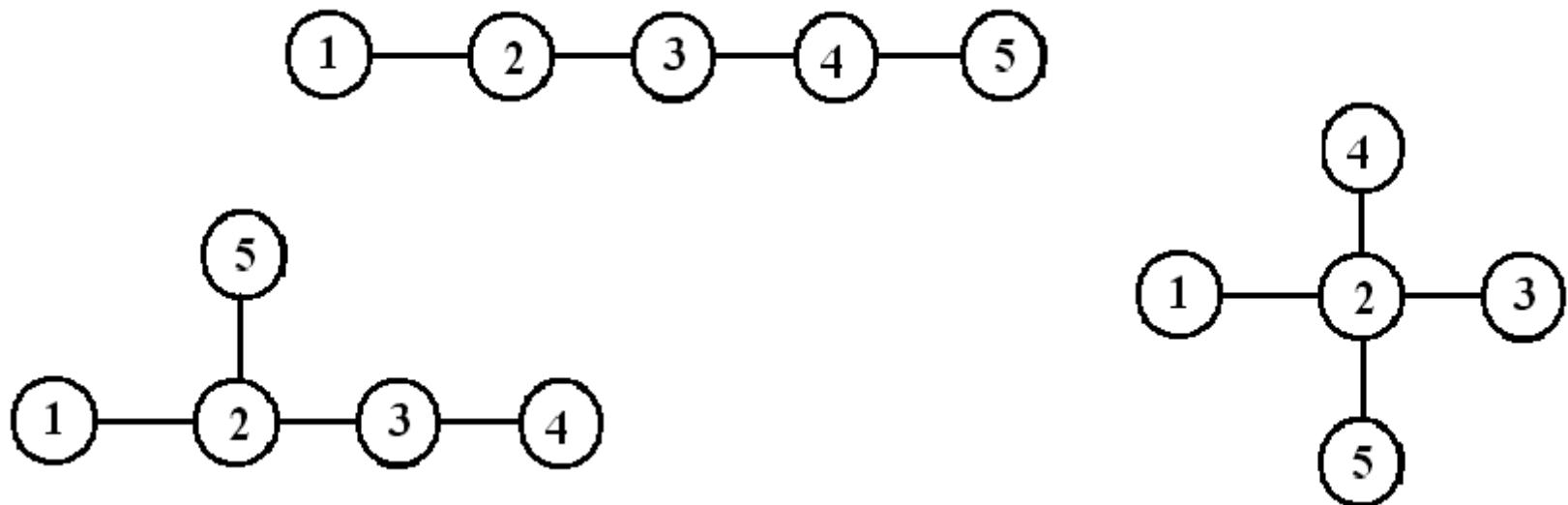
- Empty Graph / Edgeless graph
 - ◆ No edge



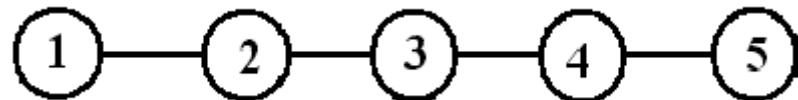
- Null graph
 - ◆ No nodes
 - ◆ Obviously no edges

Trees

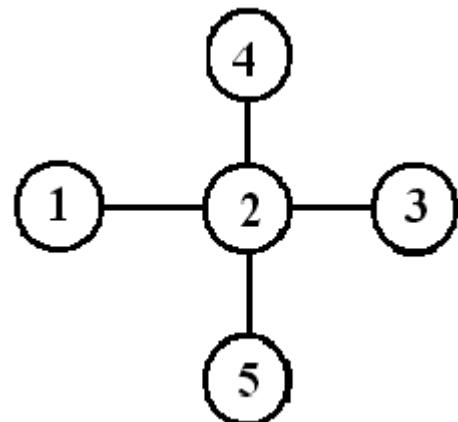
- Connected Acyclic Graph
- Two nodes have *exactly* one path between them



Special Trees



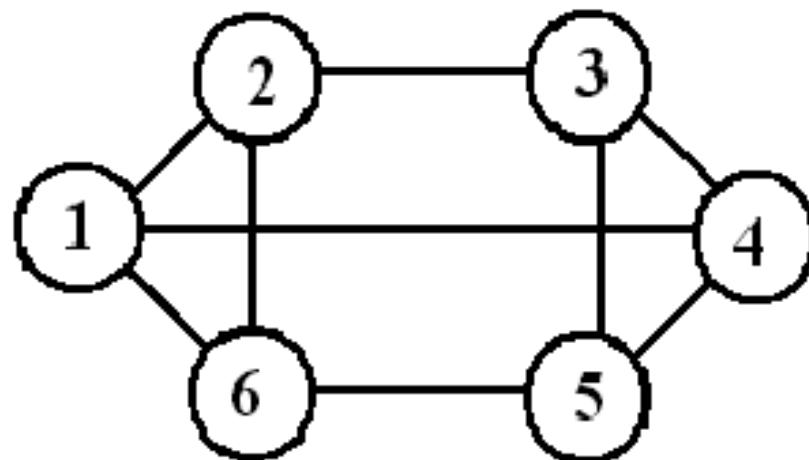
Paths



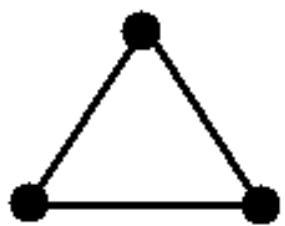
Stars

Regular

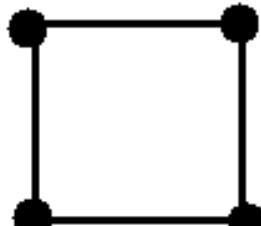
- Connected Graph
- All nodes have the same degree



Special Regular Graphs: Cycles



C_3



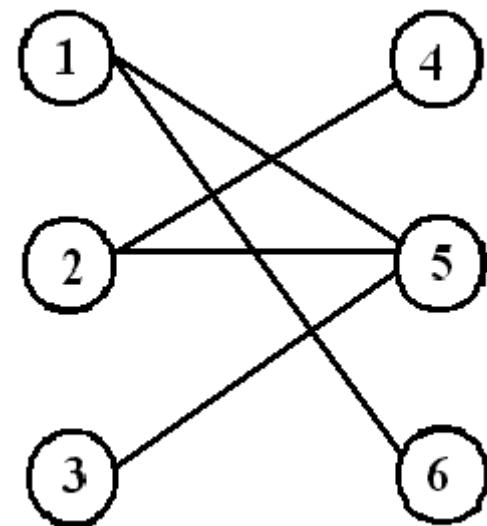
C_4



C_5

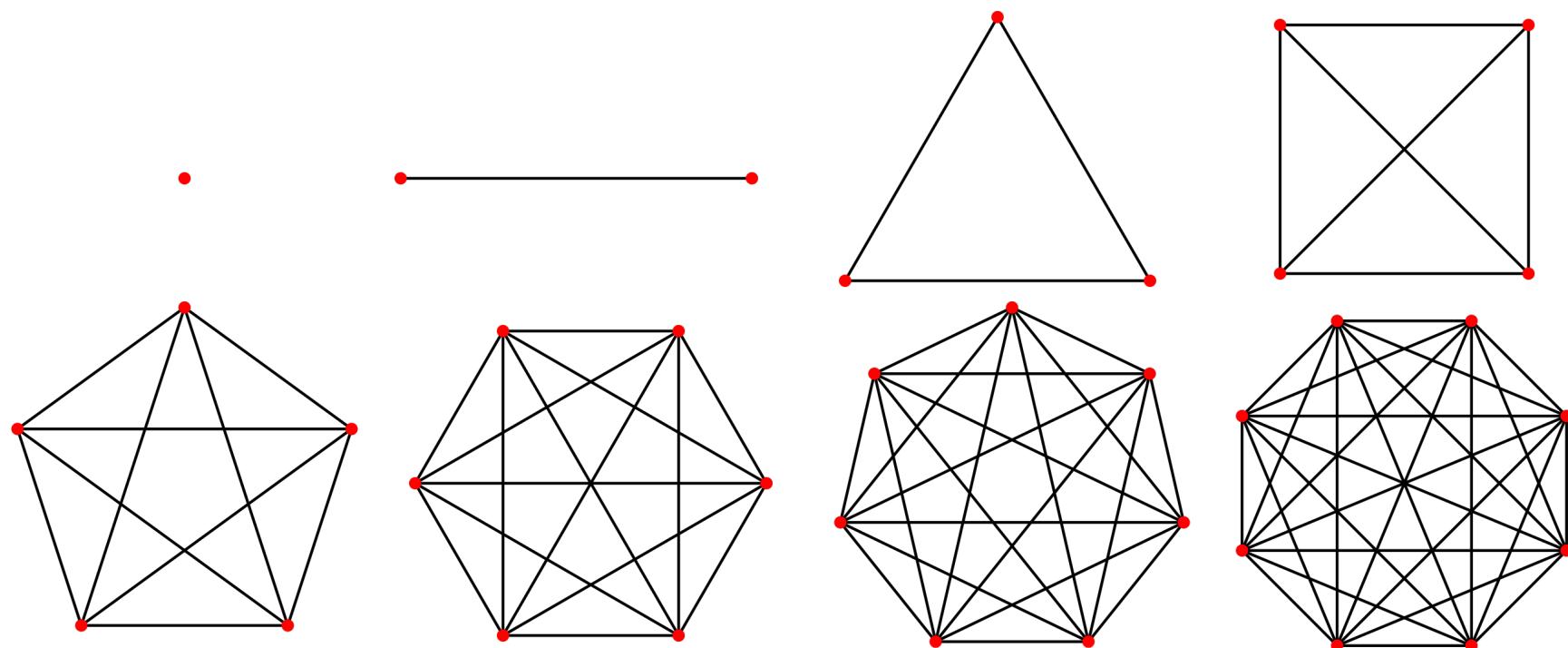
Bipartite graph

- V can be partitioned into 2 sets V_1 and V_2 such that $(u,v) \in E$ implies
 - ◆ either $u \in V_1$ and $v \in V_2$
 - ◆ OR $v \in V_1$ and $u \in V_2$.



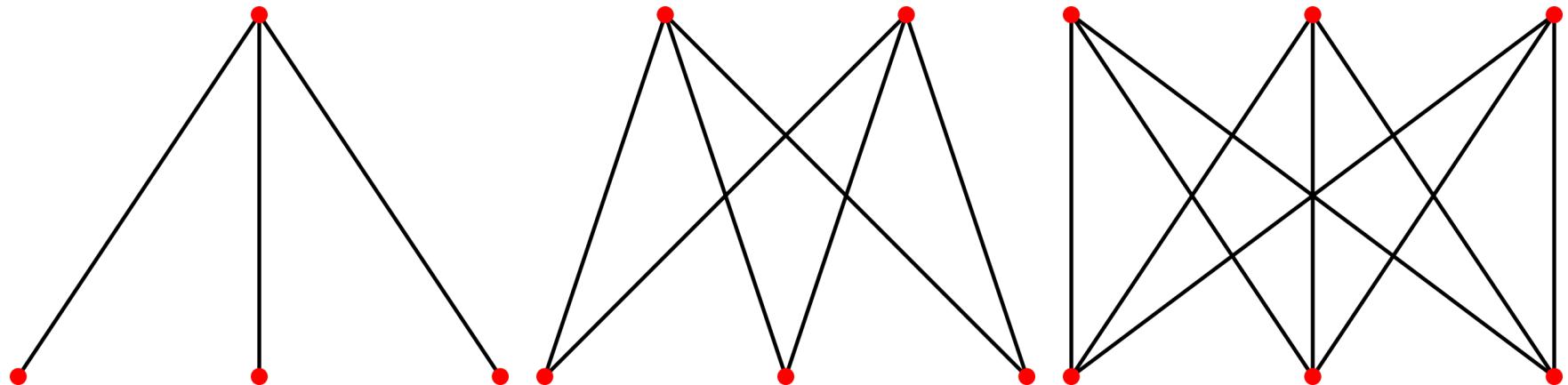
Complete Graph

- Every pair of vertices are adjacent
- Has $n(n-1)/2$ edges



Complete Bipartite Graph

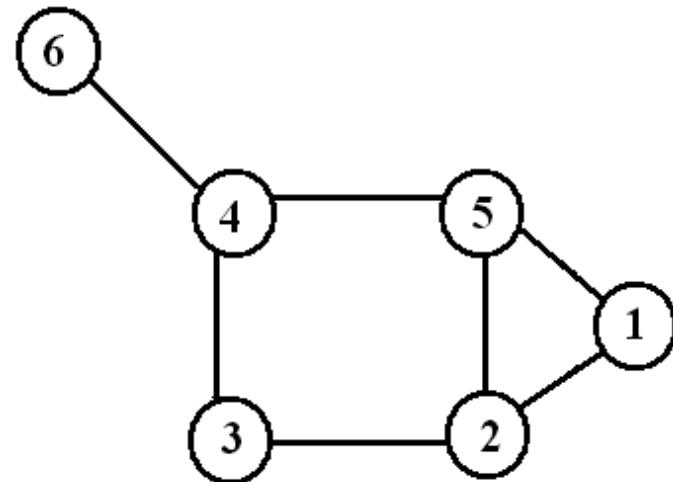
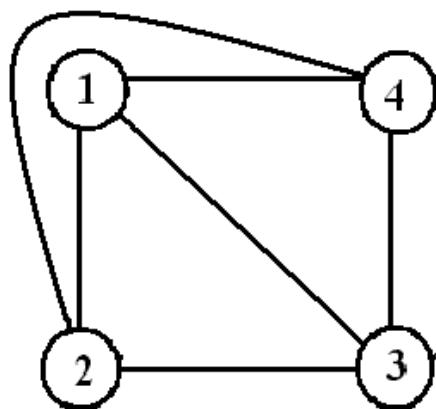
- Bipartite Variation of Complete Graph
- Every node of one set is connected to every other node on the other set



Stars

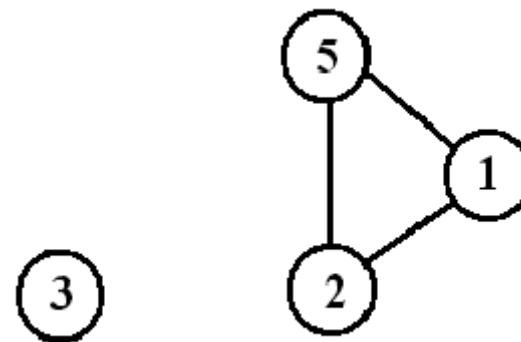
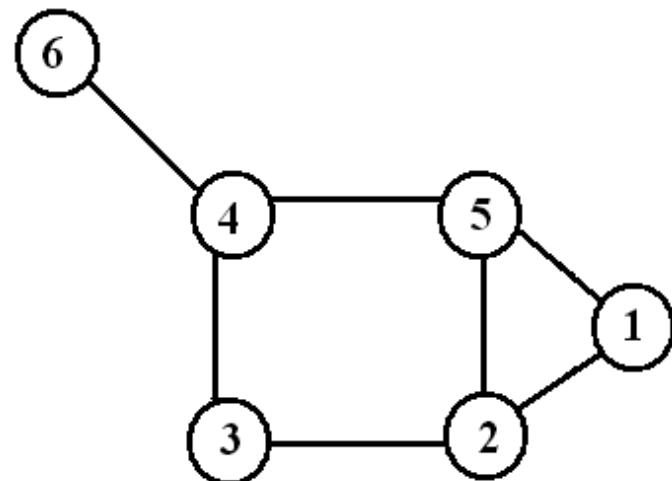
Planar Graphs

- Can be drawn on a plane such that no two edges intersect
- K_4 is the largest complete graph that is planar



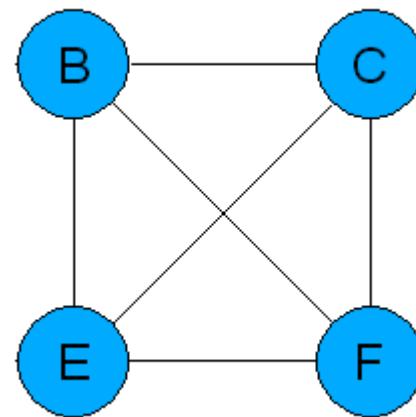
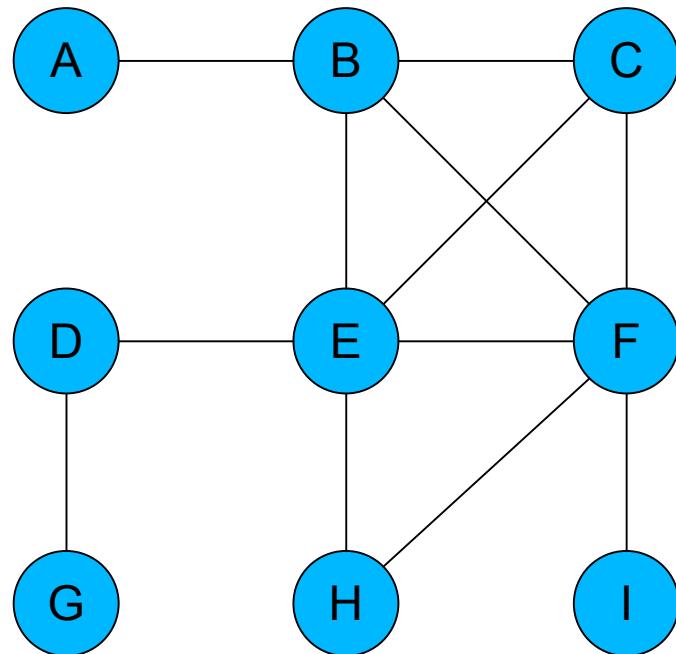
Subgraph

- Vertex and edge sets are subsets of those of G
 - ◆ a *supergraph* of a graph G is a graph that contains G as a subgraph.



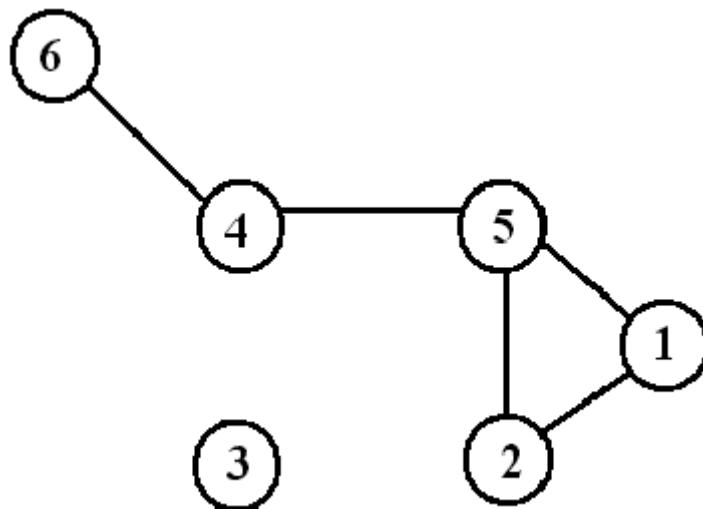
Special Subgraphs: Cliques

A **clique** is a maximum complete connected subgraph.



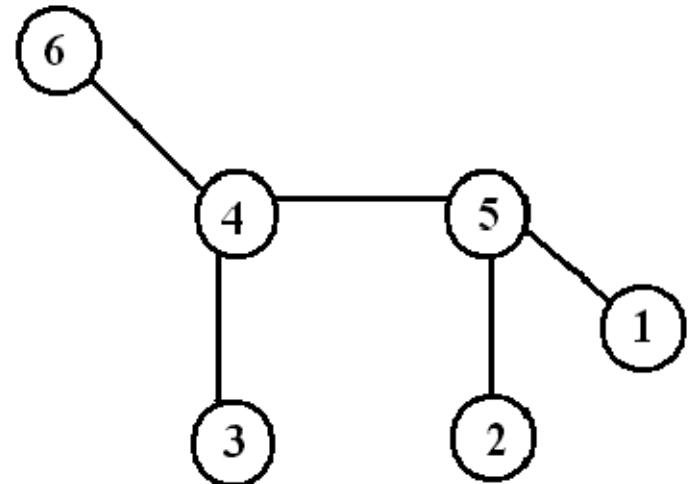
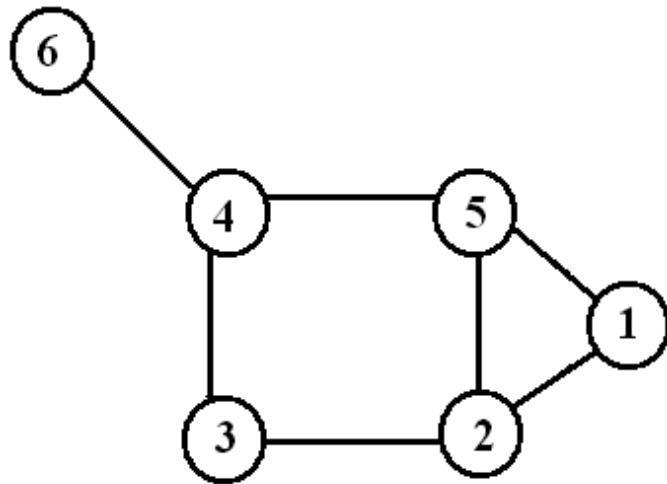
Spanning subgraph

- Subgraph H has the same vertex set as G .
 - ◆ Possibly not all the edges
 - ◆ “ H spans G ”.



Spanning tree

- Let G be a connected graph. Then a ***spanning tree*** in G is a subgraph of G that includes every node and is also a tree.



Isomorphism

- Bijection, i.e., a one-to-one mapping:

$$f : V(G) \rightarrow V(H)$$

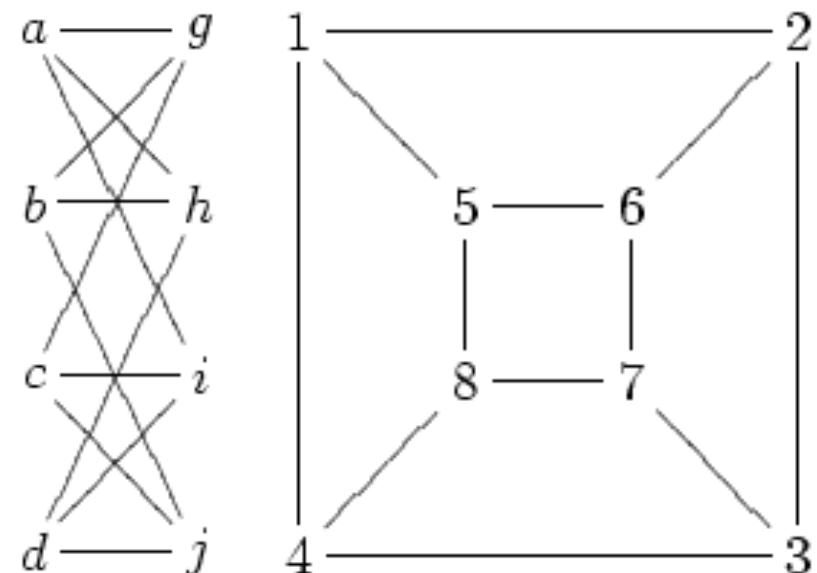
u and v from G are adjacent if and only if $f(u)$ and $f(v)$ are adjacent in H.

- If an isomorphism can be constructed between two graphs, then we say those graphs are ***isomorphic***.

Isomorphism Problem

- Determining whether two graphs are isomorphic
- Although these graphs look very different, they are isomorphic; one isomorphism between them is

$$\begin{aligned}f(a) &= 1 & f(b) &= 6 & f(c) &= 8 & f(d) &= 3 \\f(g) &= 5 & f(h) &= 2 & f(i) &= 4 & f(j) &= 7\end{aligned}$$



Representation (Matrix)

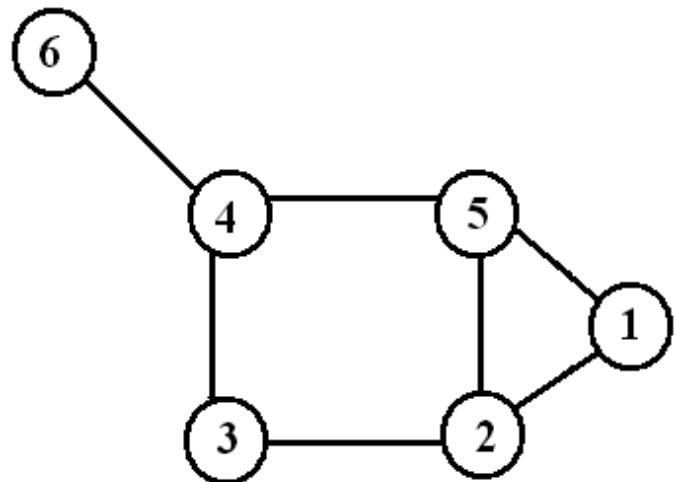
- Incidence Matrix

- ◆ $V \times E$
- ◆ [vertex, edges] contains the edge's data

- Adjacency Matrix

- ◆ $V \times V$
- ◆ Boolean values (adjacent or not)
- ◆ Or Edge Weights

Matrices



$$\begin{matrix} & 1,2 & 1,5 & 2,3 & 2,5 & 3,4 & 4,5 & 4,6 \\ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{matrix} & \left(\begin{matrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{matrix} \right) \end{matrix}$$

$$\begin{matrix} & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ \begin{matrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \\ 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{matrix} & \left(\begin{matrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{matrix} \right) \end{matrix}$$

Representation (List)

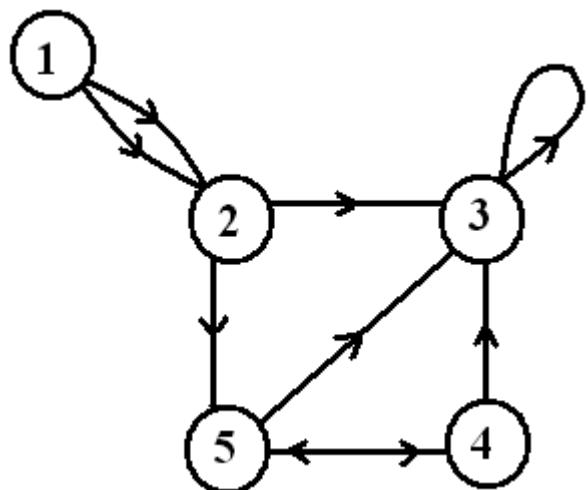
- Edge List
 - ◆ pairs (ordered if directed) of vertices
 - ◆ Optionally weight and other data
- Adjacency List (node list)

Implementation of a Graph.

■ *Adjacency-list representation*

- ◆ an array of $|V|$ lists, one for each vertex in V .
- ◆ For each $u \in V$, $ADJ[u]$ points to all its adjacent vertices.

Edge and Node Lists



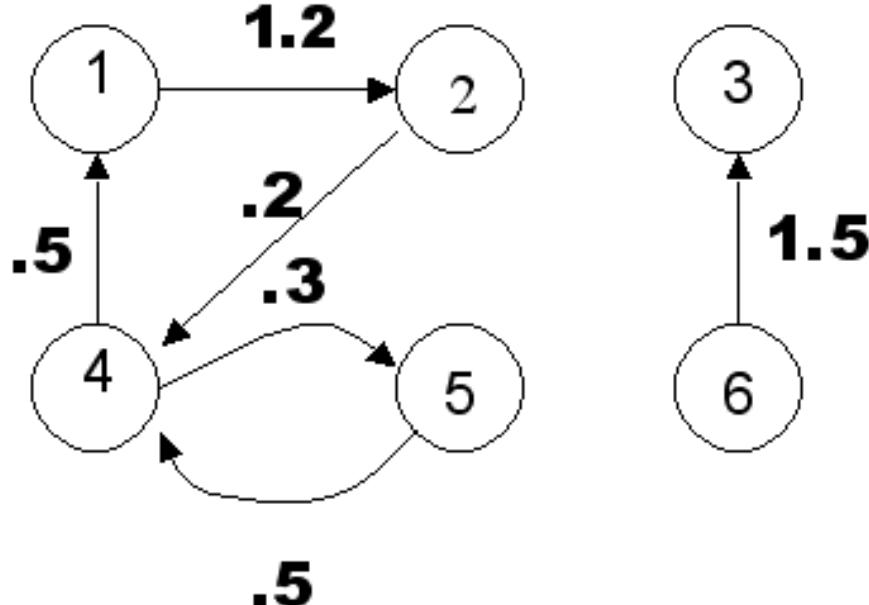
Edge List

1 2
1 2
2 3
2 5
3 3
4 3
4 5
5 3
5 4

Node List

1 2 2
2 3 5
3 3
4 3 5
5 3 4

Edge Lists for Weighted Graphs



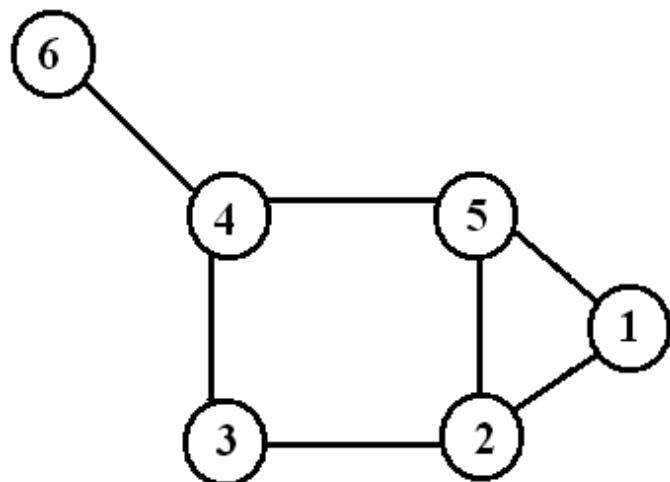
<u>Edge List</u>
1 2 1.2
2 4 0.2
4 5 0.3
4 1 0.5
5 4 0.5
6 3 1.5

Topological Distance

- A shortest path is the minimum path connecting two nodes.
- The number of edges in the shortest path connecting p and q is the ***topological distance*** between these two nodes, $d_{p,q}$

Distance Matrix

- $|V| \times |V|$ matrix $D = (d_{ij})$ such that d_{ij} is the topological distance between i and j .



$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 3 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 4 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 5 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 6 & 3 & 3 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Random Graphs

Erdős and Renyi (1959)

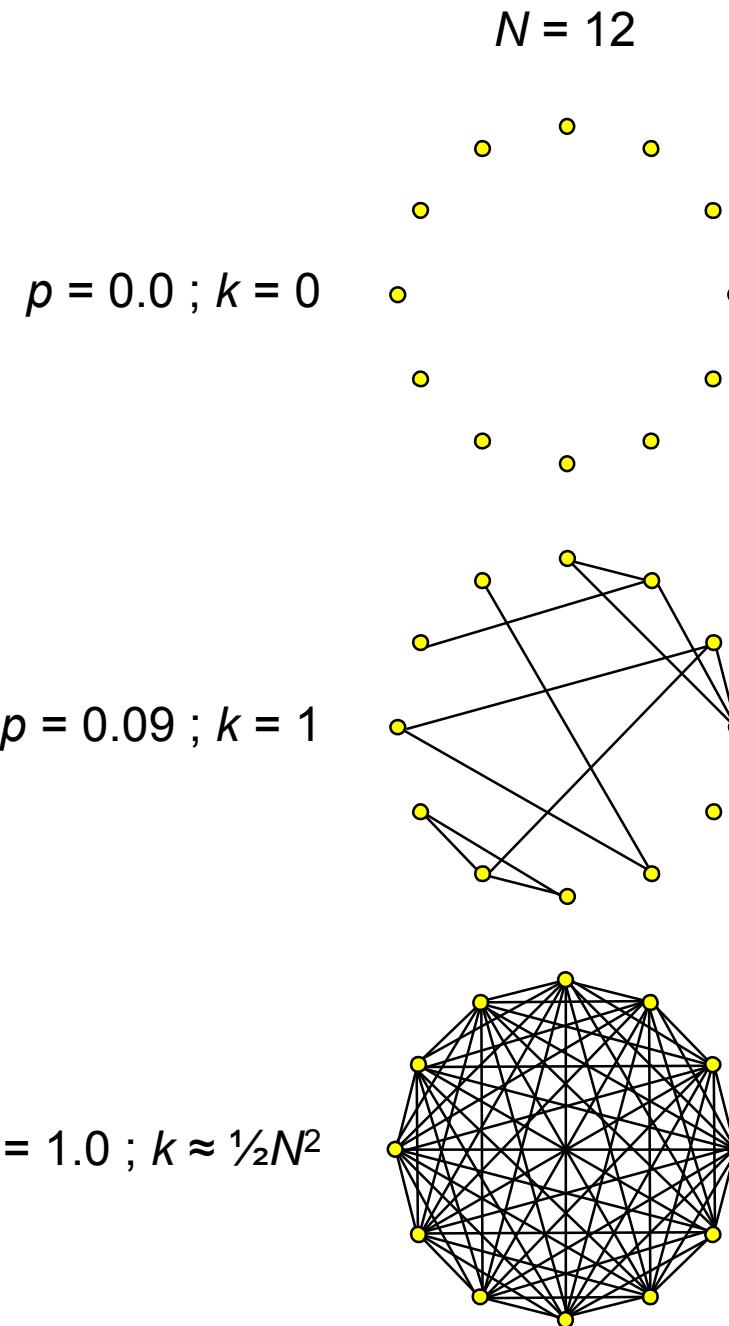
N nodes

A pair of nodes has probability p of being connected.

Average degree, $k \approx pN$

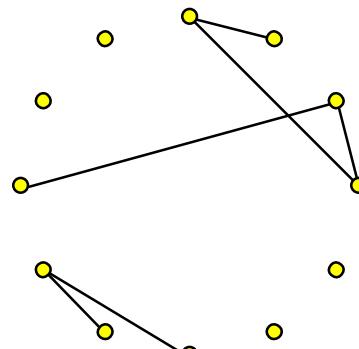
What interesting things can be said for different values of p or k ?

(that are true as $N \rightarrow \infty$)

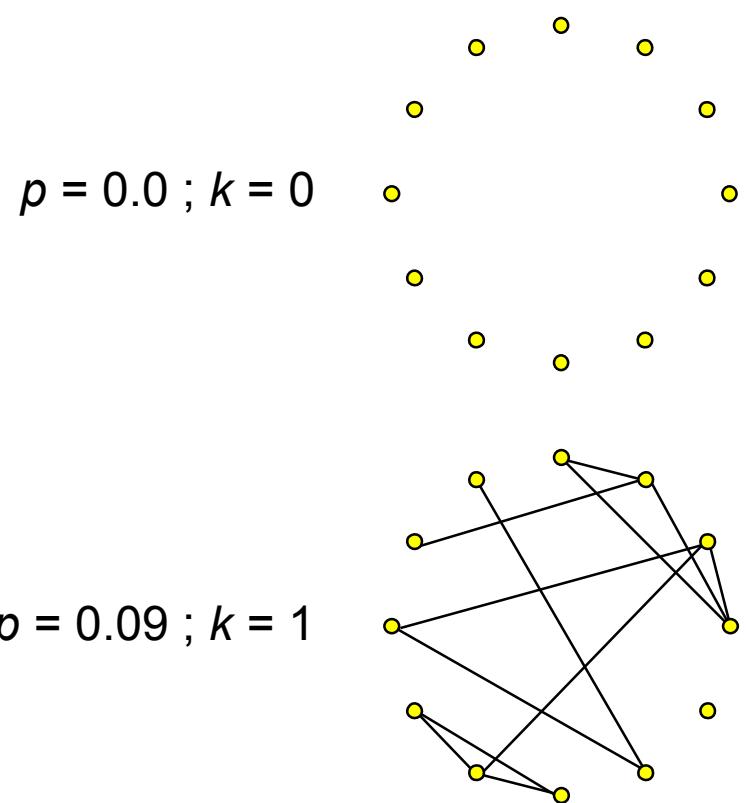


Random Graphs

Erdős and Renyi (1959)



$p = 0.045 ; k = 0.5$



$p = 0.09 ; k = 1$

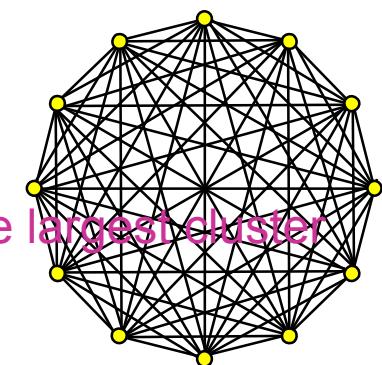
Let's look at...

Size of the largest connected cluster

$p = 1.0 ; k \approx \frac{1}{2}N^2$

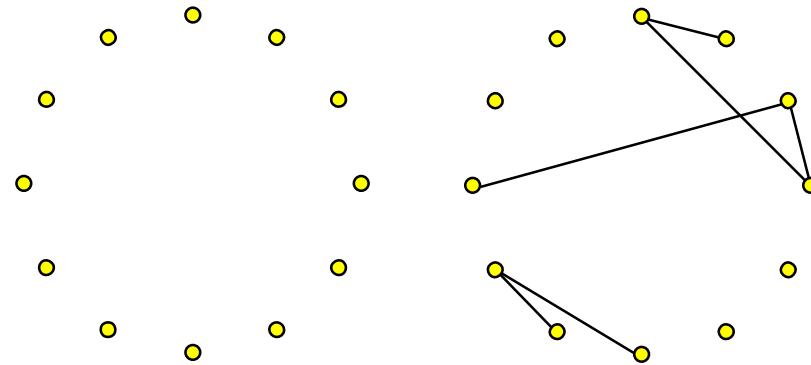
Diameter (maximum path length between nodes) of the largest cluster

Average path length between nodes (if a path exists)



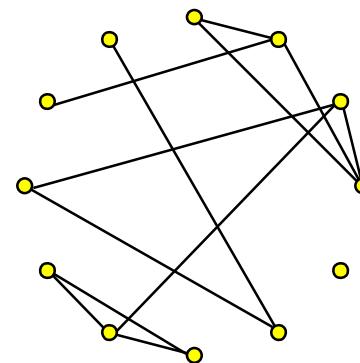
Random Graphs

Erdős and Renyi (1959)

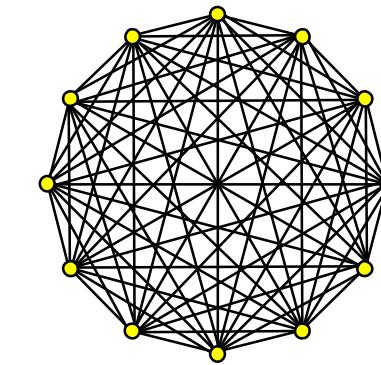


$$p = 0.0 ; k = 0$$

$$p = 0.045 ; k = 0.5$$



$$p = 0.09 ; k = 1$$



$$p = 1.0 ; k \approx \frac{1}{2}N^2$$

Size of largest component

1

5

11

12

Diameter of largest component

0

4

7

1

Average path length between nodes

0.0

2.0

4.2

1.0

Random Graphs

Erdős and Renyi (1959)

If $k < 1$:

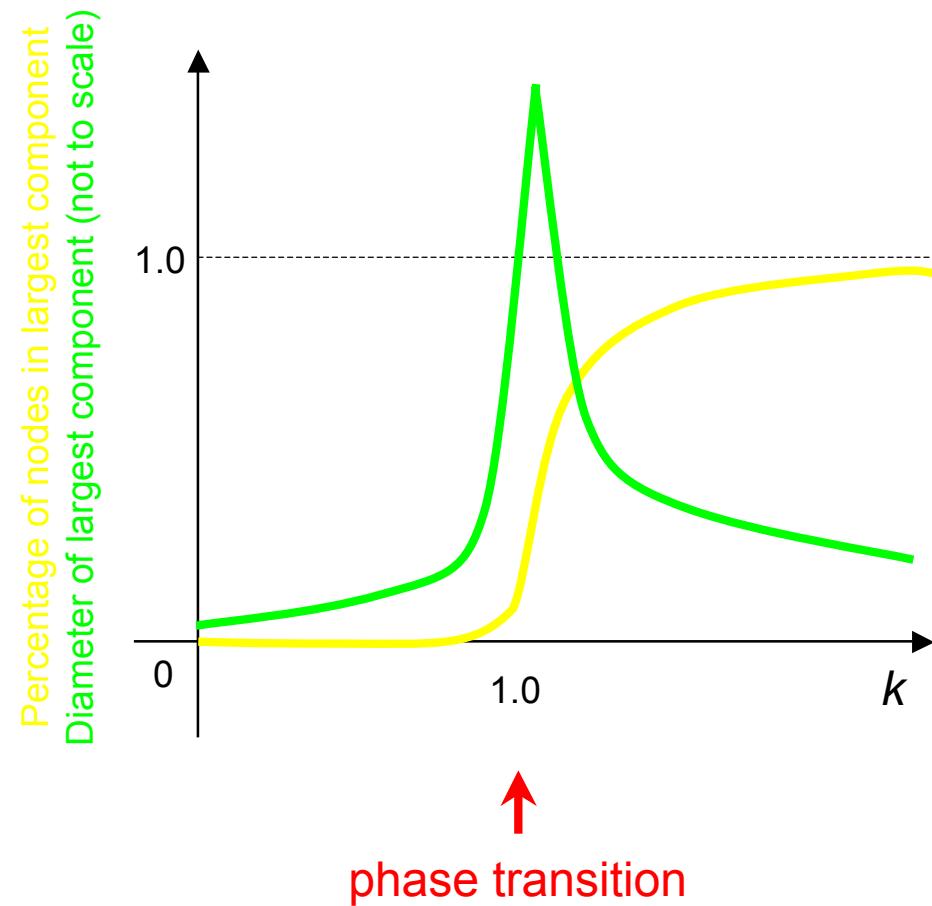
- ◆ small, isolated clusters
- ◆ small diameters
- ◆ short path lengths

At $k = 1$:

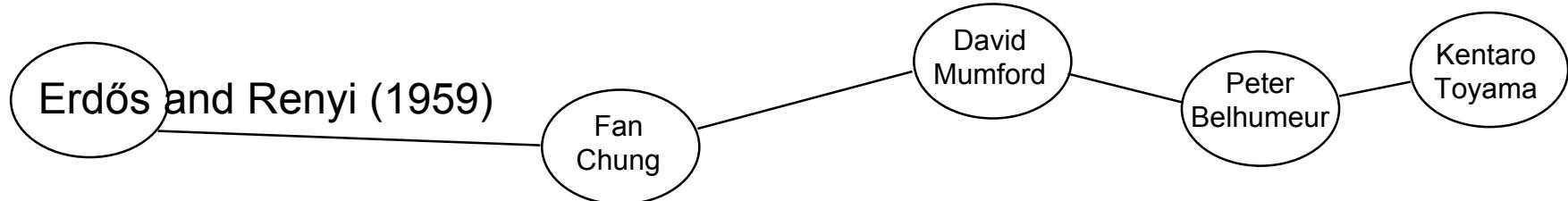
- ◆ a *giant component* appears
- ◆ diameter peaks
- ◆ path lengths are high

For $k > 1$:

- ◆ almost all nodes connected
- ◆ diameter shrinks
- ◆ path lengths shorten



Random Graphs

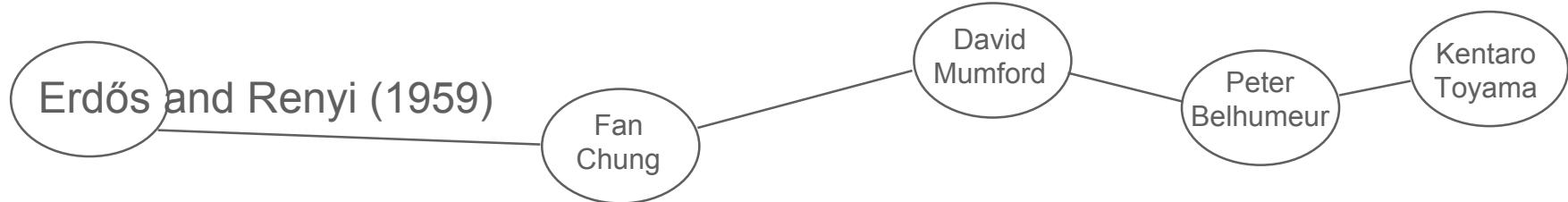


What does this mean?

- If connections between people can be modeled as a random graph, then...
 - ◆ Because the average person easily knows more than one person ($k \gg 1$),
 - ◆ We live in a “small world” where within a few links, we are connected to anyone in the world.
 - ◆ Erdős and Renyi showed that average path length between connected nodes is

$$\frac{\ln N}{\ln k}$$

Random Graphs



What does this mean?

BIG “IF”!!!

- If connections between people can be modeled as a random graph, then...

- ◆ Because the average person easily knows more than one person ($k \gg 1$),
- ◆ We live in a “small world” where within a few links, we are connected to anyone in the world.
- ◆ Erdős and Renyi computed average path length between connected nodes to be:

$$\frac{\ln N}{\ln k}$$

The Alpha Model

Watts (1999)

The people you know aren't randomly chosen.

People tend to get to know those who are two links away (Rapoport ^{*}, 1957).

The real world exhibits a lot of *clustering*.

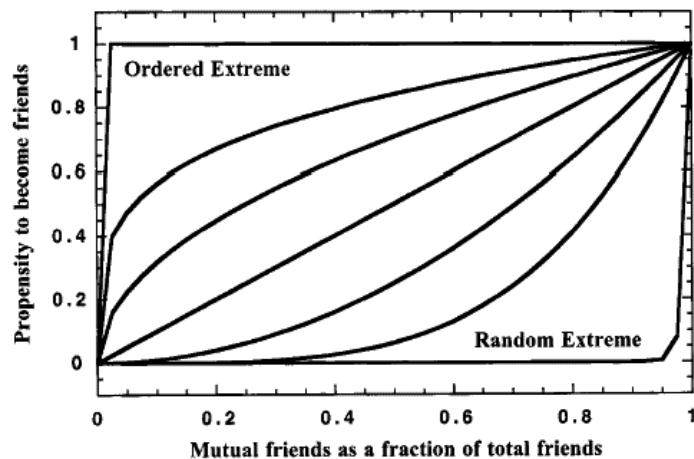


The Personal Map
by MSR Redmond's Social Computing Group

* Same Anatol Rapoport, known for TIT FOR TAT!

The Alpha Model

Watts (1999)



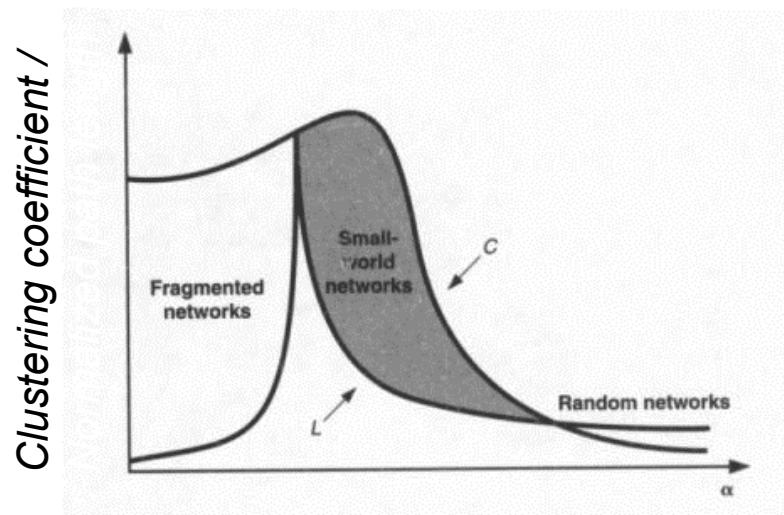
Probability of linkage as a function
of number of mutual friends
(α is 0 in upper left,
1 in diagonal,
and ∞ in bottom right curves.)

α model: Add edges to nodes, as in random graphs, but makes links more likely when two nodes have a common friend.

For a range of α values:

The Alpha Model

Watts (1999)



Clustering coefficient (C) and
average path length (L)
plotted against α

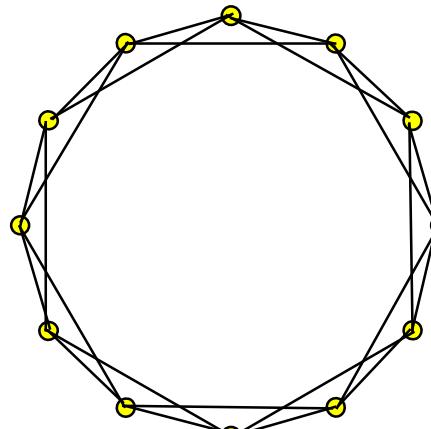
α model: Add edges to nodes, as in random graphs, but makes links more likely when two nodes have a common friend.

For a range of α values:

- ◆ The world is small (average path length is short), and
- ◆ Groups tend to form (high clustering coefficient).

The Beta Model

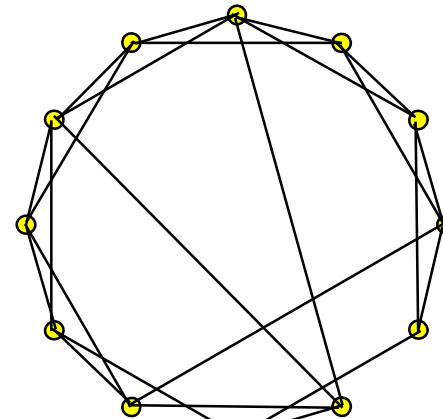
Watts and Strogatz (1998)



$$\beta = 0$$

People know
their neighbors.

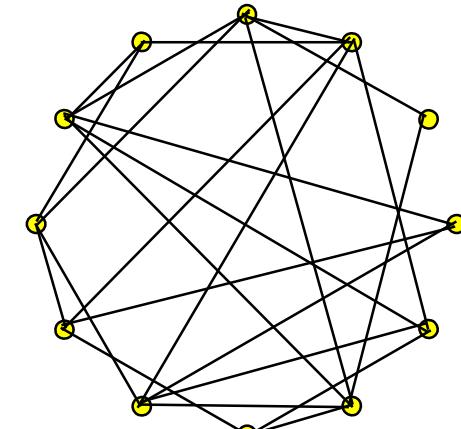
Clustered, but
not a “small world”



$$\beta = 0.125$$

People know
their neighbors,
and a few distant people.

Clustered and
“small world”

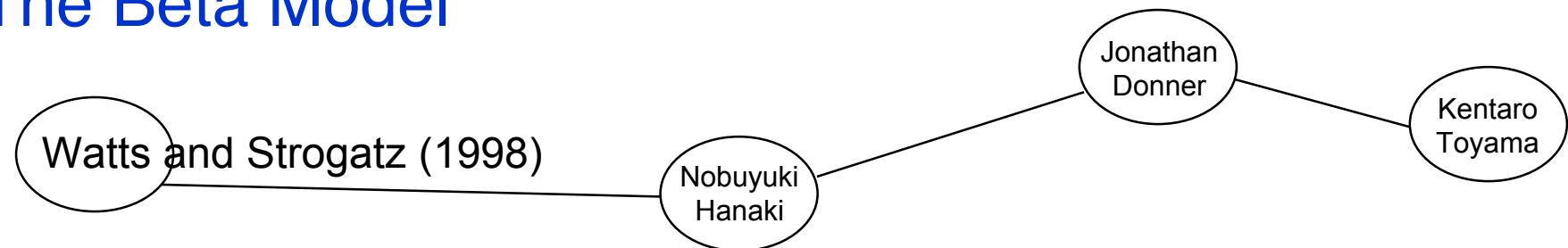


$$\beta = 1$$

People know
others at
random.

Not clustered,
but “small world”

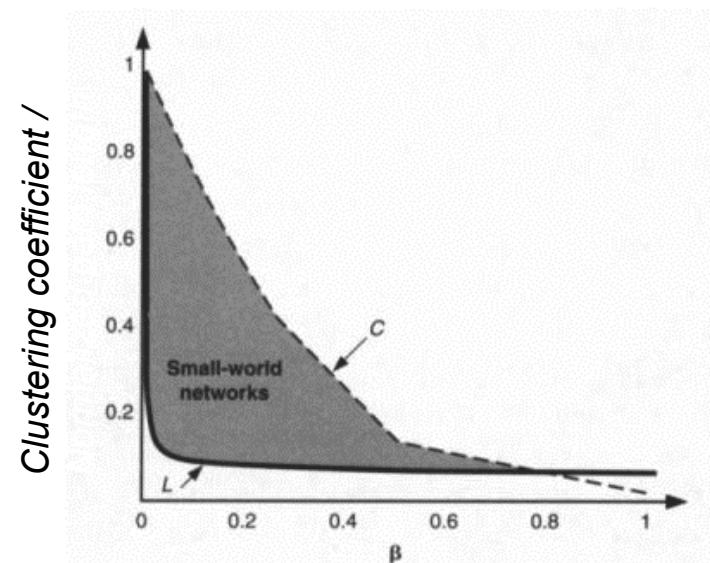
The Beta Model



First five random links reduce the average path length of the network by half, regardless of N !

Both α and β models reproduce short-path results of random graphs, but also allow for clustering.

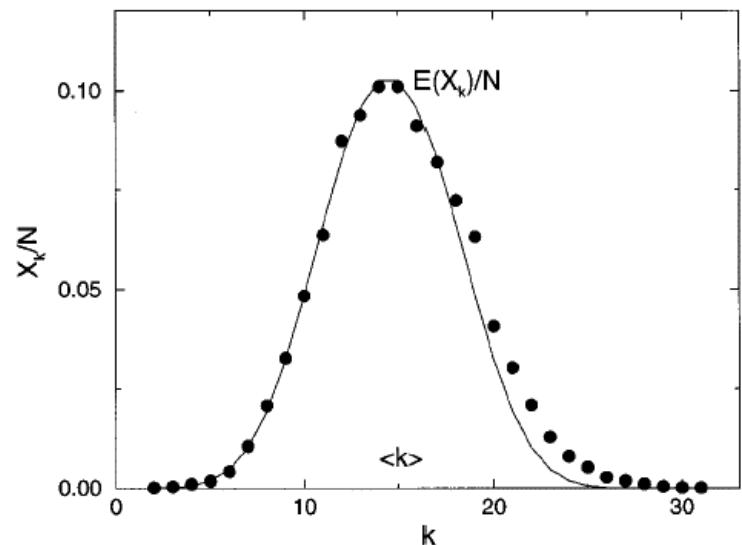
Small-world phenomena occur at threshold between order and chaos.



Clustering coefficient (C) and average path length (L) plotted against β

Power Laws

Albert and Barabasi (1999)



Degree distribution of a random graph,
 $N = 10,000 \quad p = 0.0015 \quad k = 15$.
(Curve is a Poisson curve, for comparison.)

What's the degree (number of edges) distribution over a graph, for real-world graphs?

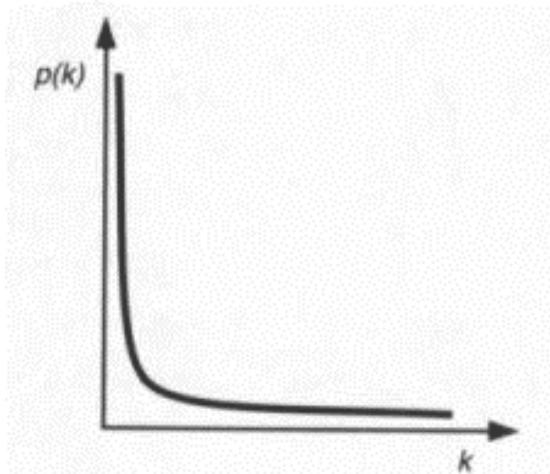
Random-graph model results in Poisson distribution.

But, many real-world networks exhibit a *power-law distribution*.

Power Laws

Albert and Barabasi (1999)

What's the degree (number of edges) distribution over a graph, for real-world graphs?



Typical shape of a power-law distribution.

Random-graph model results in Poisson distribution.

But, many real-world networks exhibit a *power-law* distribution.

Power Laws

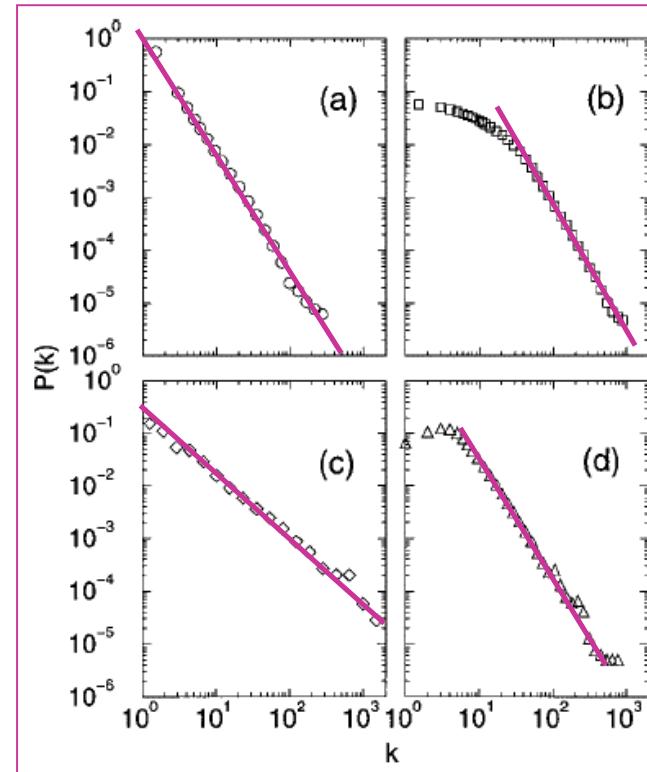
Albert and Barabasi (1999)

Power-law distributions are straight lines in log-log space.

How should random graphs be generated to create a power-law distribution of node degrees?

Hint:

Pareto's^{*} Law: Wealth distribution follows a power law.

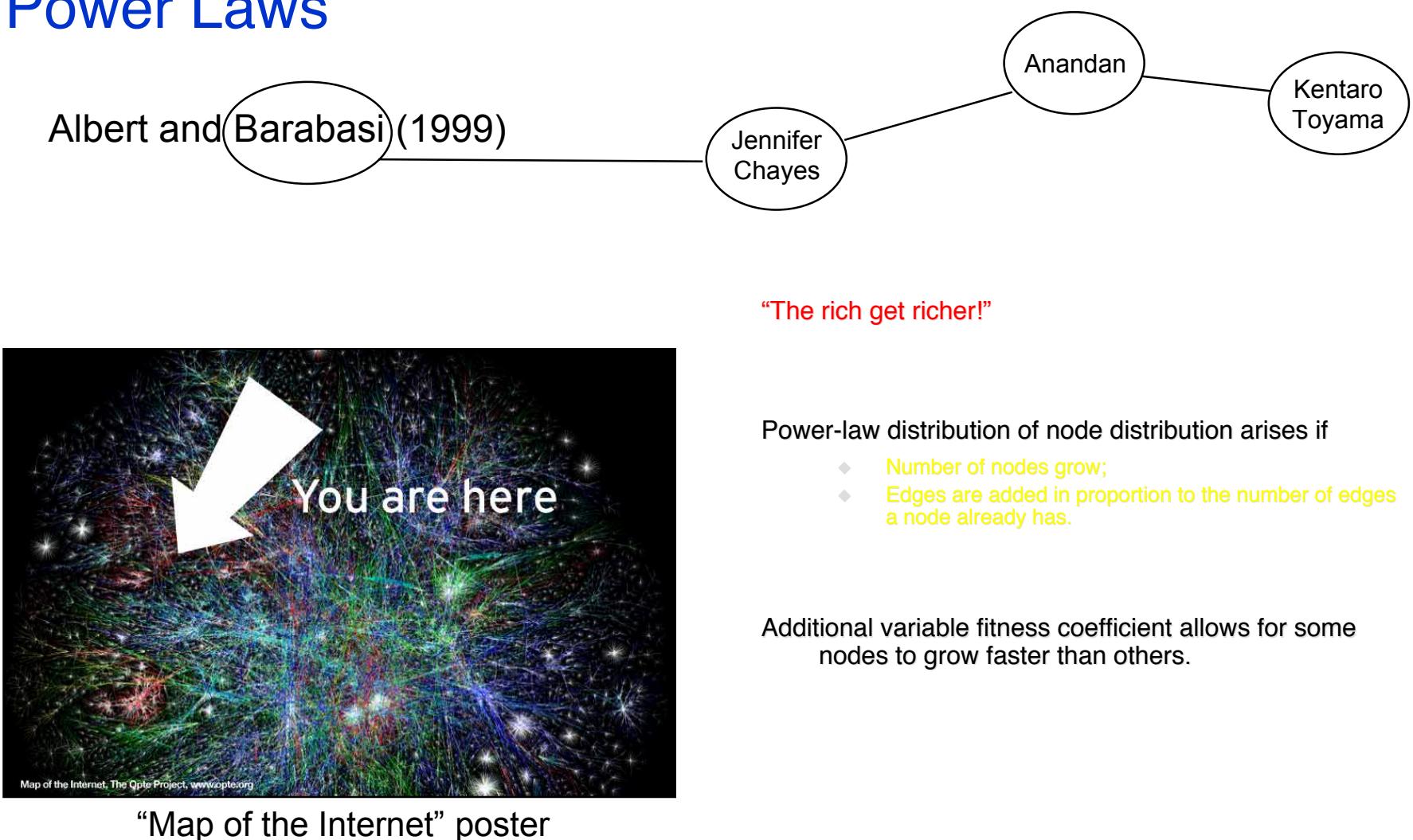


Power laws in real networks:

- (a) WWW hyperlinks
- (b) co-starring in movies
- (c) co-authorship of physicists
- (d) co-authorship of neuroscientists

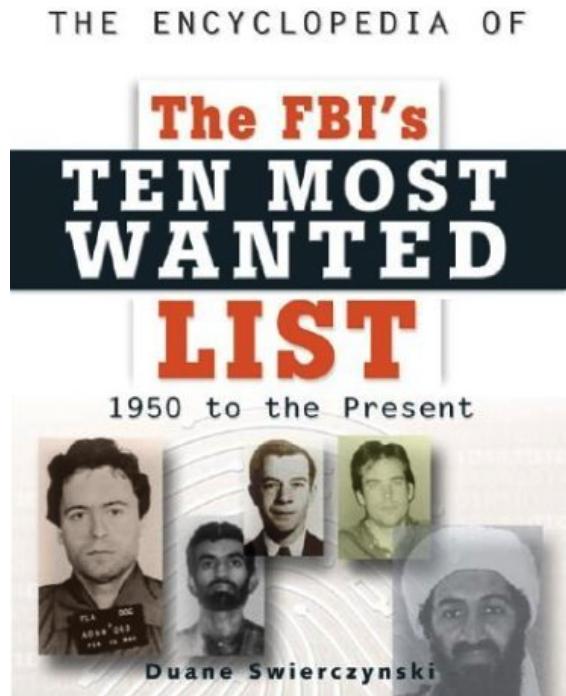
* Same Velfredo Pareto, who defined Pareto optimality in game theory.

Power Laws



Searchable Networks

Kleinberg (2000)



Just because a short path exists, doesn't mean you can easily find it.

You don't know all of the people whom your friends know.

Under what conditions is a network *searchable*?

Searchable Networks

Kleinberg (2000)

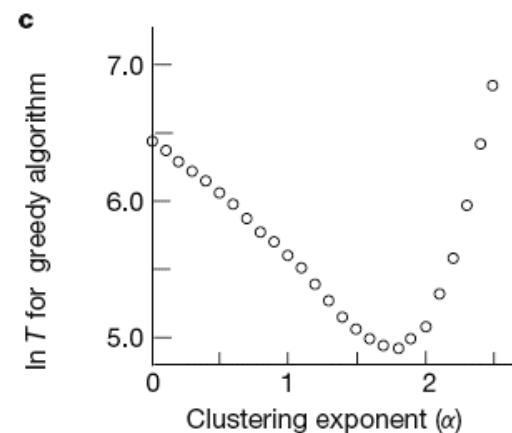
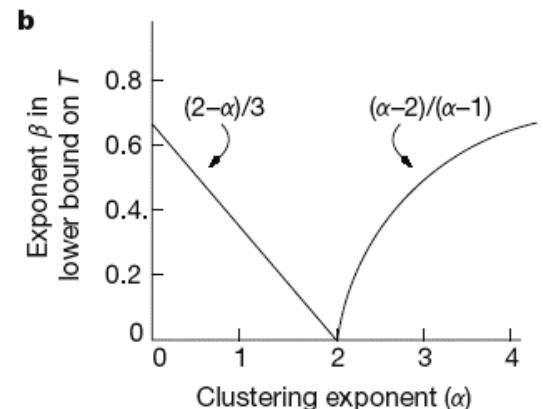
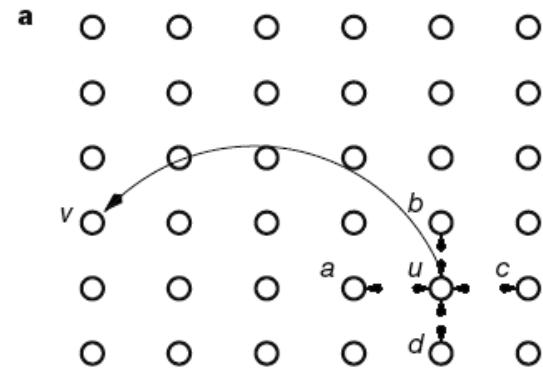
a) Variation of Watts's β model:

- ◆ Lattice is d -dimensional ($d=2$).
- ◆ One random link per node.
- ◆ Parameter α controls probability of random link – greater for closer nodes.

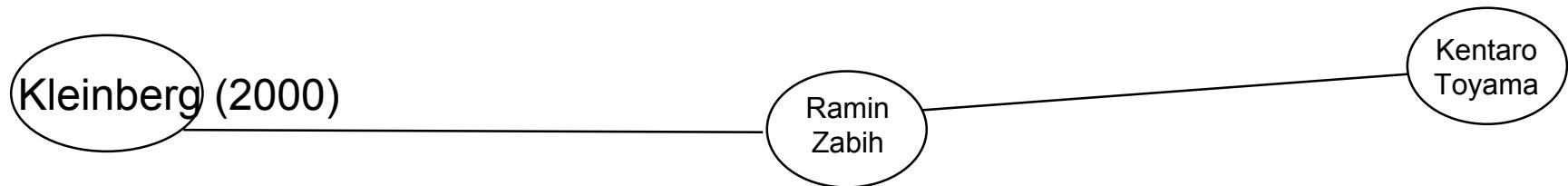
b) For $d=2$, dip in time-to-search at $\alpha=2$

- ◆ For low α , random graph; no “geographic” correlation in links
- ◆ For high α , not a small world; no short paths to be found.

c) Searchability dips at $\alpha=2$, in simulation

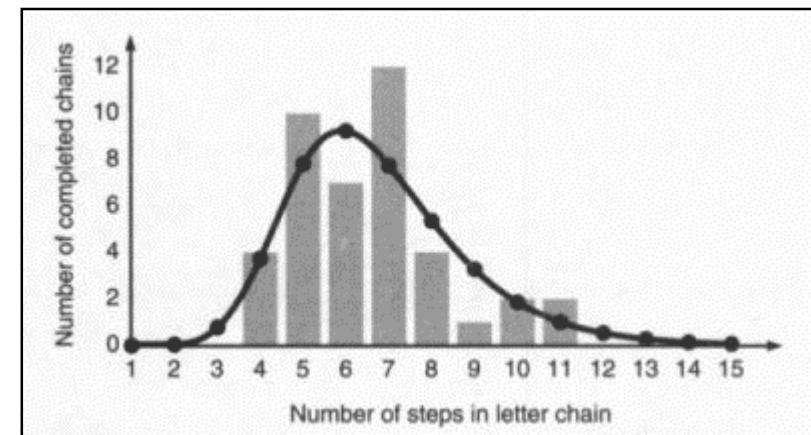


Searchable Networks



Watts, Dodds, Newman (2002) show that for $d = 2$ or 3, real networks are quite searchable.

Killworth and Bernard (1978) found that people tended to search their networks by $d = 2$: geography and profession.



The Watts-Dodds-Newman model closely fitting a real-world experiment

References

Idous & Wilson, *Graphs and Applications. An Introductory Approach*, Springer, 2000.

Wasserman & Faust, *Social Network Analysis*, Cambridge University Press, 2008.