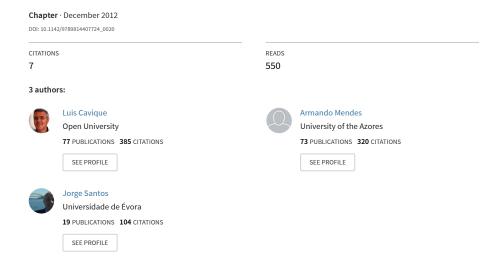
$See \ discussions, stats, and \ author \ profiles \ for \ this \ publication \ at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/300110333$

Clique communities in social networks









Quantitative Modelling in Marketing and Management

2nd Edition

Edited by: Luiz Moutinho (University of Glasgow, UK), Kun-Huang Huarng (Feng Chia University, Taiwan)

CHAPTER 19:CLIQUE COMMUNITIES IN SOCIAL NETWORKS

http://www.worldscientific.com/doi/abs/10.1142/9789814696357 0019

This chapter PDF is prepared specially for Luís Cavique, Armando B Mendes, Jorge MA Santos.

Copyright of the works in this Book chapter is vested with World Scientific Publishing. The following Book chapter is allowed for your personal use only and may not be resold, copied, further disseminated, or hosted on any other third party website or repository without the copyright holders' written permission.

For more information about the book, please visit:

http://www.worldscientific.com/worldscibooks/10.1142/9657

For any queries, please contact sales@wspc.com.sg

Chapter 19

CLIQUE COMMUNITIES IN SOCIAL NETWORKS

Luís Cavique Universidade Aberta, Portugal lcavique@univ-ab.pt

Armando B Mendes Universidade Açores, Portugal amendes@uac.pt

Jorge MA Santos Universidade Évora, Portugal jmas@uevora.pt

There is a pressing need for new pattern recognition tools and statistical methods to quantify large graphs and predict the behaviour of network systems, due to the large amount of data which can be extracted from the web. In this work a graph mining metric, based on k-clique communities, is used, allowing a better understanding of the network structure. The proposed metric shows that for different graph families correspond different k-clique sequences.

Keywords: Data mining; graph mining; social networks.

1. Introduction

After Berners-Lee's (2006) communication on the three ages of the Web in the International World Wide Web Conference WWW2006, there has been an explosion of interest in the social networks associated with Web 2.0 in an attempt to improve socialising and

come up with a new model for knowledge management. Even though Tim Berners-Lee had imagined a read-and-write Web, the Web was originally a read-only medium for the majority of the users. As Mika (2007) describes it, the Web of the 90s was much like the combination of a phone book and the yellow pages, a mix of individual postings and corporate catalogues, and instilled a little sense of community among its users.

Social Network Analysis is a very relevant technique that has emerged in modern sociology, and which studies the interaction between individuals and organisations. See Scott and Carrington (2011) and Wasserman and Faust (1995) for the theoretical basis and key techniques in social networks.

The idea of 'social network' was loosely used for over a century to connote complex sets of relationships between members of social systems at all scales, from interpersonal to international (Freeman, 2004). In 1954, J. A. Barnes used the term systematically to denote patterns of ties, and is normally considered the father of that expression. However, the visual approach to measuring social relationships using graphs, known as sociograms, was presented by Moreno (1934). In Moreno's network, the nodes represent individuals, while the edges stand for personal relationships. This scientific area of sociology tries to explain how diffusion of innovation works, why alliances and conflicts are generated in groups, how the leadership emerges and how the group structure affects the group efficacy (Mika, 2007).

A major development on the structure of social networks came from a remarkable experiment by the American psychologist Stanley Milgram (Milgram, 1967). Milgram's experiment consisted in sending letters from people in Nebraska, in the Midwest, to people in Boston, on the East Coast, where the latter were instructed to pass on the letters, by hand, to someone else they knew. The letters that reached the destination were passed by around six people. Milgram concluded that the experiment showed that, on average, Americans are no more than six steps away from each other. This experiment led to the concepts of the six degrees of separation and the notion of small-world.

An interesting example of a small-world is the 'Erdös Number' (Grossman *et al.*, 2007). Erdös is the most prolific mathematician, being author of more than 1,500 papers with more than 500 co-authors. Erdös is the number zero and the researchers who worked with him are called Erdös number 'one'. The co-authors of Erdös number 'one' are the Erdös number 'two', and so on, building one of the oldest small-world known. The work of Erdös and Renyi (1959) describes interesting properties of random graphs. A brand new interest has been revived with the Watts and Strogatz (1998) model, published in the *Nature* journal, which studies graphs with small-world properties and power-law degree distribution.

The social network analysts need to survey each person about their friends, ask for their approval to publish the data and keep a trace of that population for years. Also, the applications, implemented on internet, that uses the concept of establishing links between friends and friends of friends, like Facebook or LinkedIn (LinkedIn Corporation), provide the required data. According to Linton Freeman's comprehensive Development of Social Network Analysis, the key factors defining the modern field of social network analysis are: The insight that the structure of networks affects the outcome of aggregate actions, and the methodological approach that uses systematic empirical data, graphic representation, and mathematical and computational models to analyse networks. These attributes of social network analysis were established through the work of scientists from the fields of psychology, anthropology, and mathematics over the last decades (Freeman, 2004).

The visualisation of a small number of vertices can be completely mapped. However, when the number of vertices and edges increases, the visualisation becomes incomprehensible. The large amount of data extracted from the Internet is not compatible with the complete drawing. There is a pressing need for new pattern recognition tools and statistical methods to quantify large graphs and predict the behaviour of network systems.

Graph mining can be defined as the science and the art of extracting useful knowledge, like patterns and outliers provided, respectively, by repeated and sporadic data, from large graphs or

complex networks (Faloutsos *et al.*, 1999; Cook and Holder, 2007). As these authors put it, there are many differences between graphs; however, some patterns show up regularly, the main ones appearing to be: The small worlds, the degree distribution and the community mining.

In this chapter, the clique communities are studied using the graph partition approach, based on the k-clique structure. A k-clique is a relaxed clique, i.e., a k-clique is a quasi-complete sub-graph. A k-clique in a graph is a sub-graph where the distance between any two vertices is no greater than k. It is a relevant structure to consider when analysing large graphs like the ones arising in social network analysis.

The proposed Socratic questioning is the following: How many k-clique communities are needed to cover the whole graph? This work is part of a larger project on common knowledge of proverbs whose previous results were published in Mendes *et al.* (2010).

2. Graph Theory Concepts

The representation of social networks has been quite influenced by graph theory. In the social networks, the set of vertices (or nodes) correspond to the 'actors' (i.e., people, companies, social actors) and the set of edges to the 'ties' (i.e., relationships, associations, links).

The sociologic applications of cohesive subgroups can include groups such as work groups, sport teams, political party, religious cults, or hidden structures like criminal gangs and terrorist cells. In this section, some concepts about cohesive subgroups like cliques and relaxed cliques, such as k-clique, k-club/k-clan and k-plex, are explained.

2.1. Graph notation

Graph theory has many applications and has been used for centuries. The book by Berge (1958), called 'Théorie des Graphes e ses Aplications', published many of the knowledge known at the time. A latter

edition, in 1973, established a very common notation in graph theory literature that is also used in this chapter.

In this notation, an undirected graph is represented by G = (V,A), where $A \subseteq [V]^2$ is a pair in which V(G) represents the set of vertices or nodes, and A(G), the set of links or edges. An edge can be also represented by $\{i,j\} \in A(G)$, where i and j are the two connected vertices. The number of vertices V(G) can be represented by |V(G)| and the graph called of order n if $V(G) = \{1,2,\ldots,n\}$ and so, |V(G)| = n. The number of arcs m is given by the cardinality of A(G), i.e., |A(G)|. If two vertices are joined by an edge, they are adjacent.

A graph G' = (V', A') is a sub-graph of the graph G = (V,A) if $V' \subseteq V$ and $A' \subseteq A$. We can also say that if C is a proper subset of V, than G' = G - C denotes the sub-graph induced from G by deleting all vertices in C and their incident edges. In Fig. 1, the graph G' is a sub-graph induced by G, while G'' is not, as only edges are missing.

In Social Network Analysis, the order of the end-vertices of an edge is usually irrelevant and so, we have to work only with undirected graphs. In directed graphs, each directed edge (usually, called arc), has an origin and a destination, and is represented by an ordered pair. In social network contexts, the direction of an edge is not relevant; what is important is to acknowledge the existence, or not, of a link between the edges.

2.2. Clique

Given an undirected graph G = (V, E), where V denotes the set of vertices and E, the set of edges, the graph $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ is called a sub-graph of G, if $V_1 \subseteq V$, $E_1 \subseteq E$ and for every edge $(v_i, v_j) \in E_1$, the vertices $v_i, v_j \in V_1$. A sub-graph G_1 is said to be complete, if there is an edge for each pair of vertices. In fact, a clique is a complete

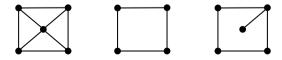


Fig. 1. Graph G and two sub-graphs G' and G".













Fig. 2. Cliques with 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 verticles.

sub-graph, which means that in a clique, each member has direct ties with each other member or node. Some simple examples of these very cohesive structures are shown in Fig. 2. A clique is maximal, if it is not contained in any other clique. The clique number of a graph is equal to the cardinality of the largest clique of G and it is obtained by solving the maximum clique NP-hard problem.

The clique structure, where there must be an edge for each pair of vertices, shows many restrictions in real life modelling and is uncommon in social networks. So, alternative approaches for little more relaxed cohesive groups were suggested, such as k-clique, k-clan/k-club and k-plex.

🛚 2.3. k-clique

Luce (1950) introduced the distance base cohesion groups called k-clique, where k is the maximum path length between each pair of vertices. A k-clique is a subset of vertices C such that, for every i, $j \in C$, the distance $d(i,j) \leq k$. The one-clique is identical to a clique, because the distance between the vertices is one edge. The two-clique is the maximal complete sub-graph with a path length of one or two edges. The path distance of two can be exemplified by the 'friend of a friend' connection in social relationships. In social websites, like the LinkedIn, each member can reach his own connections as well as the ones two and three degrees away. The increase of the value k corresponds to a gradual relaxation of the criterion of clique membership. See Fig. 3.

2.4. k-clan and k-club

A limitation of the *k*-clique concept is that some vertices may be distant from the group, i.e., the distance between two nodes, may

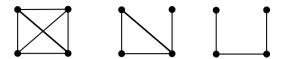


Fig. 3. Examples with four nodes one-clique, two-clique and three-clique.

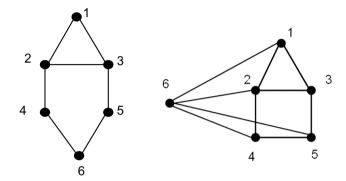


Fig. 4. Two-clans, two-clubs (left) and three-plex (right).

correspond to a path involving nodes that do not belong to the k-clique. To overcome this handicap Alba (1973) and Mokken (1979) introduced the diameter-based cohesion group concepts called k-club and k-clan. The length of the shortest path between vertices u and v in G is denoted by the distance d(u,v). The diameter of G is given by $diam(G) = max \ d(u, v)$ for all $u,v \in V$. To find all k-clan, all the k-cliques S^i must be found first, and then the restriction $diam(G[S]) \le k$ applied to remove the undesired k-cliques. In Fig. 4, on the left, the two-clique $\{1,2,3,4,5\}$ was removed because d(4,5) = 3, i.e., the path 4-6-5 is not possible as node 6 does not belong to the sub-graph with the two-cliques. Another approach to these diameter models is the k-club, which is defined as a subset of vertices S such that $diam(G[S]) \le k$. In the left graph of Fig. 4, can be found two two-cliques: $\{1,2,3,4,5\}$ and $\{2,3,4,5,6\}$, one two-clan: $\{2,3,4,5,6\}$ and three two-clubs: $\{1,2,3,4\}$, $\{1,2,3,5\}$, and $\{2,3,4,5,6\}$.

2.5. *k-plex*

An alternative way of relaxing a clique is the k-plex concept which takes into account the vertices degree. The degree of a vertex of a graph is the number of edges incident on the vertex, and is denoted by deg(v). The maximum degree of a graph G is the maximum degree of its vertices and is denoted by $\Delta(G)$. On the other hand, the minimum degree is the minimum degree of its vertices and is denoted by $\delta(G)$. A subset of vertices S is said to be a k-plex, if the minimum degree in the induced sub-graph $\delta(G[S]) \geq |S| - k$. In Fig. 4, on the right, the graph has six vertices and so, |S| = 6 and the degree of vertices one, three, four and five does not exceed the value three. Thus, the minimum degree in the induced sub-graph $\delta(G[S])$ is three. For |S| = 6, k = 3 is obtained.

3. The Two Phase Algorithm

Complex network and graph mining metrics are essentially based on low complexity computational procedures, like the diameter of the graph, the degree distribution of the nodes and connectivity checking, underestimating the knowledge of the graph structure components.

On the other hand, in the literature, many algorithms have been developed for network communities. One of the first studies is given by the Kernighan and Lin (1970) algorithm, which finds a partition of the nodes into two disjoint subsets A and B of equal size, such that the sum of the weights of the edges between nodes in A and B is minimised. Recent studies, based on physics method, introduced the concept of clique percolation (Derenyi $et\ al.$, 2005), where the network is viewed as a union of cliques.

In order to find the k-clique communities, a two-phase algorithm is proposed. First, all the maximal k-cliques in the graph are found. Second, the best subset of the k-cliques is chosen to cover the vertices of the graph.

To find all the maximal k-cliques in the graph, we use the kth power of the graph G in such a way that we can use an already

well-known algorithm, the maximum clique algorithm. The procedures described in the next flowchart starts by transforming the graph and applying next a maximum clique algorithm and finally, in phase two, applying a set covering algorithm.

Algorithm 1. The Two-Phase Algorithm.

Input: distance k and graph G

Output: *k*-clique cover

- 1. Find all maximal *k*-cliques in graph G
- $\frac{1}{2}$ 1.1. The *k*th power of graph G

The transformation of a graph G(V,E) into a graph such that for every

The $G(V,E)^k$ is obtained using the k-th power of the graph G with the same set of vertices as G and a new edge between two vertices if there is a path of length at most *k* between them (Skiena, 1990).

1.1. The kth power of graph G1.2. Apply maximum clique algorithm
2. Find the cover of G with k-cliques
2.1. Apply set covering algorithm

3.1. Maximal k-cliques in graph GThe transformation of a graph G(V,E) into a graph such that $f(i,j) \in V$, the distance $f(i,j) \leq k$, is denoted by graph $f(i,j) \in V$.

The $f(i,j) \in V$ is obtained using the k-th power of the graph the same set of vertices as G and a new edge between two $g(i,j) \in V$.

The Maximum Clique is a NP-hard problem that aims to largest complete sub-graph in a given graph. In this approximation of the maximisation problem, $g(i,j) \in V$ the heuristics proposed by Johnson (1974) and in the meta-large $g(i,j) \in V$ and $g(i,j) \in V$ ano The Maximum Clique is a NP-hard problem that aims to find the largest complete sub-graph in a given graph. In this approach, we intend to find a lower bound for the maximisation problem, based on the heuristics proposed by Johnson (1974) and in the meta-heuristic that uses Tabu Search developed by Soriano and Gendreau (1996). Part of the work described in this section can also be found in Cavique et al. (2002) and Cavique and Luz (2009).

We define A(S) as the set of vertices that are adjacent to vertices of a current solution S. Let n = |S| be the cardinality of a clique S and $A^k(S)$ the subset of vertices with k arcs incident in S. A(S) can be divided into subgroups $A(S) = \bigcup A^k(S), k = 1, ..., n$.

The cardinality of the vertex set |V| is equal to the sum of the adjacent vertices A(S) and the non-adjacent ones A⁰(S), plus |S|, resulting in $|V| = \Sigma |A^k(S)| + n, k = 0, ..., n$. For a given solution S, we define a neighbourhood N(S) if it generates a feasible solution S'.

In this work we are going to use three neighbourhood structures. For the next flowchart consider the following notation:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{N}^{+}(\mathbf{S}) &= \{\mathbf{S}' : \mathbf{S}' = \mathbf{S} \cup \{\mathbf{v}^{i}\}, \mathbf{v}^{i} \in \mathbf{A}^{n}(\mathbf{S})\}, \\ N^{-}(\mathbf{S}) &= \{\mathbf{S}' : \mathbf{S}' = \mathbf{S} \setminus \{\mathbf{v}^{i}\}, \mathbf{v}^{i} \in \mathbf{S}\}, \\ N^{0}(\mathbf{S}) &= \{\mathbf{S}' : \mathbf{S}' = \mathbf{S} \cup \{\mathbf{v}^{i}\} \setminus \{\mathbf{v}^{k}\}, \mathbf{v}^{i} \in \mathbf{A}^{n-1}(\mathbf{S}), \mathbf{v}^{k} \in \mathbf{S}\}, \end{split}$$

where S is the current solution, S*, the highest cardinality maximal clique found so far, T, the Tabu list and N(S), the neighbourhood structures.

Algorithm 2. The Tabu Heuristic for the Maximum Clique Problem.

Input: graph G^k , complete sub-graph S

Output: clique S*

- $\stackrel{\circ}{\underset{\smile}{\mathbb{Z}}} 1. T = \emptyset; S^* = S;$
 - 2. while not end condition
 - f: 2.1. if $(N^+(S) \setminus T \neq \text{null})$ choose the maximum S'
 - 2.2. else if $(N^0(S)\setminus T \neq \text{null})$ choose the maximum S'; update T
 - 2.2.1. else choose the maximum S' in $N^-(S)$; update T
 - 2.3. update S = S'
 - 2.4. if $(|S| > |S^*|) S^* = S$;
 - 3. end while;
 - 4. return S*;

Finding a maximal clique in a graph G^k is the same as finding a maximal k-clique in a graph G. To generate a large set of maximal k-cliques, a multi-start algorithm is used, which calls the Tabu Heuristic for Maximum Clique Problem.

3.2. The k-cliques cover

To understand the structure of a clique community of a network in the previous work (Cavique *et al.*, 2009), the minimum set covering formulation was used.

The detailed analysis of the resulting solution, the set of k-cliques, an excess of over-coverings can be found, which makes it hard to

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 |
|----|---|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 1 | | 128 | 132 | 122 | 122 | 139 | 147 | 123 | 125 | 130 | 138 | 140 | 150 | 144 | 155 |
| 2 | | | 151 | 138 | 145 | 158 | 153 | 147 | 142 | 151 | 154 | 160 | 161 | 152 | 161 |
| 3 | | | | 173 | 171 | 182 | 181 | 174 | 174 | 180 | 186 | 191 | 194 | 184 | 193 |
| 4 | | | | | 181 | 176 | 172 | 188 | 185 | 184 | 194 | 196 | 197 | 197 | 196 |
| 5 | | | | | | 181 | 170 | 197 | 191 | 186 | 196 | 199 | 193 | 197 | 195 |
| 6 | | | | | | | 183 | 181 | 183 | 189 | 196 | 199 | 200 | 191 | 200 |
| 7 | | | | | | | | 174 | 180 | 181 | 192 | 192 | 201 | 195 | 206 |
| 8 | | | | | | | | | 191 | 192 | 201 | 204 | 197 | 201 | 200 |
| 9 | | | | | | | | | | 187 | 206 | 201 | 203 | 204 | 205 |
| 10 | | | | | | | | | | | 203 | 209 | 202 | 197 | 203 |
| 11 | | | | | | | | | | | | 216 | 217 | 215 | 219 |
| 12 | | | | | | | | | | | | | 220 | 212 | 223 |
| 13 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 222 | 231 |
| 14 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 226 |
| 15 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

Fig. 5. Bridges between the 15-set of *k*-cliques in the *k*3-Erdos-97–1 dataset.

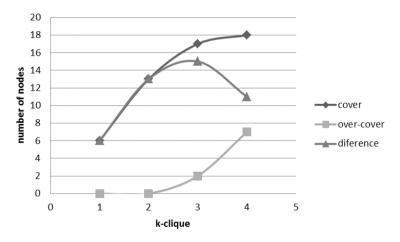


Fig. 6. Best trade-off solution happens when the difference is maximal.

interpret the clique communities. For each pair of k-cliques, the nodes that belong to both k-cliques, are called 'bridges' between the two communities. In the next figure, the matrix shows the bridges between the 15 k-cliques, with k equal three, for the Erdos-97-1 dataset, where the large density of connections does not allow for a clear interpretation of the network.

The minimum set covering algorithm generates 15 k-cliques, which covers all the 283 nodes, but over-covering 252 nodes.

In this chapter, we propose a trade-off between the covered and over-covered nodes. The new metric finds the best solution when the number of covered nodes does not exceed the number of over-covered ones. In other words, the best solution is found when the difference between covered and over-covered nodes is maximal.

The *k*-clique cover algorithm implementation is composed of a constructive step and a reduction step.

The input for the k-clique cover is a matrix where each line corresponds to a node of the graph and each column, a k-clique covering a certain number of nodes.

In the constructive step, the Clique Cover heuristic, proposed by Kellerman (1973) and improved by Chvatal (1979), is used.

We consider the following notation: M[line, column] or M[vertex, k-clique] for the input matrix, C for the cost vector of each column, V for the vertex set of G(V,E) and S for the set covering solution.

Algorithm 3. The Heruistic for the *k*-Clique Covering.

Input: M [line, column], C, V

Output: the cover S

- 1. Initialise R = M, $S = \emptyset$,
- // Constructive Step
- 2. While $R \neq \emptyset$ do
- 2.1. Choose the best line $i^* \in R$ such as $|M(i^*,j)| = \min |M(i,j)| \forall j$
- 2.2. Choose the best column j* that covers line i*
- 2.3. Update R and S, $R = R \setminus M(i,j^*) \forall i, S = S \cup \{j^*\}$
- 3. End while
- 4. Sort the cover S by descending order of costs
- 5. For each Si do if ($S\Si$ is still a cover) then $S = S\Si$
- // Reduction Step
- 6. While (over-cover > cover) do
- 6.1. Choose the column j^* such as (over-cover > cover)
- 6.2. Remove column j*
- 7. End While
- 8. Return S

In the constructive step, for each iteration, it is chosen a line to be covered and the best column that covers that line. Then, the solution S and the remaining vertex R, are updated. The chosen line is usually the line that is more difficult to cover, i.e., the line that corresponds to fewer columns. After reaching the cover set, the second step is for removing redundancy, by sorting the cover in descending order of cost and checking if each *k*-clique is really essential.

In the reduction step, the best trade-off solution is found by removing the most over-covered k-cliques, i.e., the k-cliques with a high degree of nodes over-covering.

This heuristic can be improved using a Tabu Search heuristic, by alternating the constructive step with the removal of the most expensive columns, finding a trajectory of solutions, as presented in Gomes *et al.* (2006).

The solution obtained with the reduction step, decreases the number of k-cliques that covered all the nodes, allowing for a better interpretation of the network. The sub-covered (or not-covered) nodes are treated as outlier nodes and thus not considered in the clique community analysis.

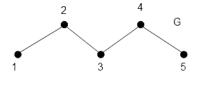
In order to get a better interpretability of the network data, this analysis considers the *k*-cliques covered nodes as communities, the over-covered nodes, as bridges between the communities and the not-cover nodes, as outlier (or marginal) nodes.

3.3. Two numeric examples

In this section, two numeric examples will be presented to show the constructive and the reduction steps.

To exemplify the constructive step, given a graph with five vertices and four edges with $E = \{(1,2), (2,3), (3,4), (4,5)\}$, the second power of the graph, k = 2, a new graph with five vertices and seven edges is obtained with $k - E = \{(1,2), (1,3), (2,3), (2,4), (3,4), (3,5), (4,5)\}$.

Running a multi-start algorithm with the maximum clique problem, three maximal cliques of size 3 can be easily identified: (1, 2, 3), (2, 3, 4), and (3, 4, 5). See Fig. 8.



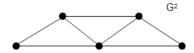


Fig. 7. Example of a graph G and its transformation into a G2.

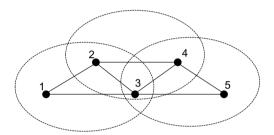


Fig. 8. *k*-clique generation example.

| nodes | C1 | C2 | СЗ | over covered |
|--------|----|----|----|-----------------|
| active | 1 | 0 | 1 | |
| 1 | 1 | | | |
| 2 | 1 | 1 | | |
| 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 4 | | 1 | 1 | |
| 5 | | | 1 | |

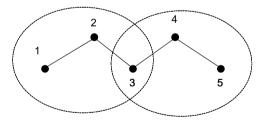


Fig. 9. Two-sets of two-cliques cover the whole graph.

Finally, running the *k*-cliques cover, in the constructive step of phase 2, two subgroups are found that cover all the vertices. The two-cliques cover is equal to two. Notice that the vertex number 3 appears in the two sets. In social network analysis, this is called a 'bridge'. Indeed, node 3, with distance 2 can reach any other vertex. See Fig. 9.

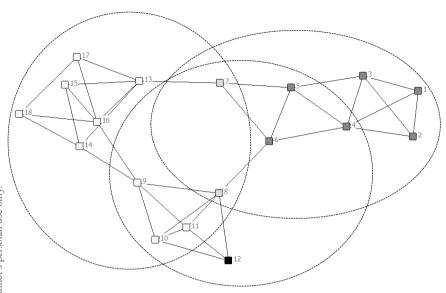


Fig. 10. Three-sets of three-cliques are needed to cover the graph.

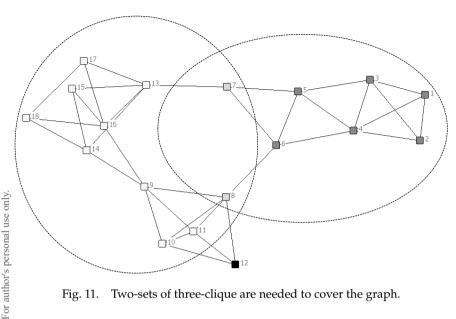
The previous figure presents the two subsets solution, using a matrix representation and a graph. For large graphs and a large number of subsets, the graph visualisation gets worse. In these cases, a better general view is attained, using the matrix representation, which is the output of the set covering heuristic.

To show the reduction step of phase 2, let us use a graph with 18 nodes that has a diameter equal to six. To cover the whole graph with three-cliques, three-sets are needed. See Fig. 10.

The result of the constructive step is three-sets/columns of three-clique. In the reduction step, the columns with a larger difference between the covered-nodes and the non-covered nodes, will be removed. In Fig. 11, one column will be removed, and the final result is a two-sets of three-cliques, with two nodes as bridges (7 and 8) and one marginal node, the node 12.

4. Applying the Algorithm to Actual Datasets

To validate the two-phase algorithm, two groups of datasets were used, the Erdös graphs and some clique DIMACS (1995) benchmark



Two-sets of three-clique are needed to cover the graph.

instances. In the Erdös graphs, each node corresponds to a researcher, and two nodes are adjacent if the researchers published together. The graphs are named 'ERDOS-x-y', where 'x' represents the last two digits of the year that the graphs were created, and 'y', the maximum distance from Erdös to each vertex in the graph. The second group of graphs contains some clique instances from the second DIMACS challenge. These include the 'brock' graphs, which contain cliques 'hidden' within much smaller cliques, making it hard to discover cliques in these graphs. The 'c-fat' graphs are a result of fault diagnosis data.

For the analysis of each graph, we consider the number of nodes, the diameter and the cardinality of the set of k-cliques in the constructive and reduction steps, varying k from 'one' to the diameter, as showed in Table 1.

In the table, the cardinality of the *k*-clique cover shows a significant reduction between the two steps: constructive and reduction steps.

For the Erdos-98-1 and Erdos-99-1, with the diameter of seven, the graphs are covered with only one-set of five-cliques. These values exemplify the difference between k-cliques and k-clans; these graphs

 $\frac{500}{100}$ $\frac{1}{100}$ $\frac{1}{100}$ $\frac{1}{100}$ Table 1. Sequence of k-clique covers in the constructive step and reduction step.

| | VORIA 1469 ersona | | | Cardinalityx of the k-clique cover (constructive step; reduction step) | | | | | | | | | |
|------------|-------------------------|----------|-------|--|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|--|
| Graph | Nr podes | Diameter | k = 1 | k = 2 | k = 3 | k = 4 | k = 5 | k = 6 | k = 7 | k = 9 | k = 18 | k = 40 | |
| test | 1AL 22/2 28/2/ | 6 | 8;7 | 4;3 | 3;2 | 2;1 | 2;1 | 1;1 | _ | _ | _ | | |
| erdos-97-1 | S 472 | 6 | 9;4 | 8;1 | 15;1 | 10;3 | 4;3 | 1;1 | _ | _ | _ | _ | |
| erdos-98-1 | S 485 | 7 | 8;4 | 10;1 | 12;1 | 9;3 | 1;1 | 1;1 | 1;1 | _ | _ | _ | |
| erdos-99-1 | | 7 | 8;4 | 11;1 | 12;1 | 9;3 | 1;1 | 1;1 | 1;1 | _ | | | |
| brock200_1 | | 2 | 24;4 | 1;1 | | _ | _ | _ | _ | _ | | | |
| brock200_2 | Z 2000 | 2 | 26;9 | 1;1 | | _ | _ | _ | _ | _ | | | |
| brock400_1 | :) •1.= | 2 | 26;5 | 1;1 | | _ | _ | _ | _ | _ | | | |
| brock400_2 | 11WWC 450 (45) | 2 | 23;4 | 1;1 | | _ | _ | _ | _ | _ | | | |
| c-fat200-1 | ∑ 2 00€ | 18 | 28;16 | 26;10 | 23;7 | 20;7 | 15;5 | 13;5 | 12;4 | 10;4 | 1;1 | | |
| c-fat200-2 | E 200 | 9 | 15;10 | 11;7 | 7;5 | 4;4 | 4;3 | 6;2 | 6;2 | 1;1 | _ | | |
| c-fat500-1 | | 40 | 28;16 | 26;10 | 23;8 | 20;7 | 18;6 | 17;5 | 16;5 | 14;4 | 8;2 | 1;1 | |

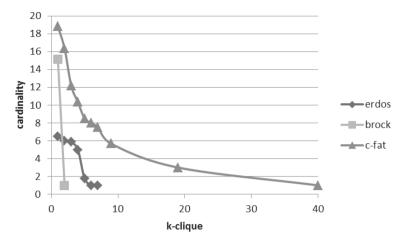


Fig. 12. Average k-clique cardinally for the graph families.

are five-cliques but not five-clans because the diameter is equal to seven.

The 'brock' graphs, known as hiding cliques, have a diameter equal to two, and to cover the graph, one-set of two-cliques is enough. Most of the DIMACS instances present this profile. On the other hand, the 'c-fat' graphs have the diameter larger than seven, generating long sequences of *k*-clique cover.

In the proposed metric, the sequence of k-clique covers identifies families of graphs and seems to be very promising in social network analysis. The k-clique sequence returns a different pattern for each family of networks. In Fig. 12, the average k-clique cardinality is shown for the different family graphs.

To answer the initial question about how many k-cliques communities are needed to cover the whole graph, it is done. The social network analyst should choose the best k for his study.

Additional information can be retrieved, like the covered nodes, over-covered nodes and the non-covered nodes, as shown in Table 2, the number of nodes in the bridges, exemplified in Fig. 13, and the k-clique composition.

| File | k1-brock400_2 | | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------|--|--|--|--|
| Columns | 4 | | | | |
| Total number of lines | 400 | | | | |
| Covered lines | 50 | | | | |
| Over-covered lines | 13 | | | | |
| Non-covered lines | 66 | | | | |
| Empty lines | 271 | | | | |
| | | | | | |

Table 2. Detailed information.

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | | 4 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | | | 5 | 2 |
| 3 | | | | 3 |
| 4 | | | | |

Fig. 13. Bridges between the four-sets of *k*-cliques in the k1-brock400_2 dataset.

5. Conclusions

Given the large amount of data provided by the Web 2.0, there is a pressing need to obtain new metrics to better understand the network structure; how their communities are organised and the way they evolve over time.

Complex network and graph mining metrics are essentially based on low complexity computational procedures like the diameter of the graph, clustering coefficient and the degree distribution of the nodes. The connected communities in the social networks have, essentially, been studied in two contexts: global metrics like the clustering coefficient and the node groups, such as the graph partitions and clique communities.

In this work, the concept of relaxed clique is extended to the whole graph, to achieve a general view, by covering the network with k-cliques. A graph mining metric based on k-clique communities, allows for a better understanding of the network structure.

In order to get a good interpretability of the network data, this analysis considers the k-clique covered nodes as communities, the over-covered nodes as bridges between the communities and the not-covered nodes as outlier nodes. The k-clique cover algorithm implementation is composed of a constructive step and a reduction step.

The sequence of *k*-clique communities is presented, where the diameter and the community structure components are combined. The sequence analysis shows that different graph families have different structures.

Social networks do not usually exceed a hundred nodes. In this work, the proposed two-phase algorithm deals with graphs with hundreds of nodes, with a running time performance of a few seconds. Even though this performance may be adequate for practical applications, it is important to study the scalability of the algorithms for much bigger networks like the ones we can find in complex system areas.

With these tools, the social network analyst can measure the basic performance of the networks, study thoroughly the communities of the network by choosing the best k for his/her study.

References

Alba, RD (1973). A graph-theoretic definition of a sociometric clique. *Journal of Mathematical Sociology*, 3(3), 113–126.

Berge, C (1958). Théorie des Graphes et ses Applications. Paris: Dunod.

Berners-Lee, T (2006). The next wave of the web plenary panel. In 15th Int. World Wide Web Conf., WWW2006. Scotland: Edinburgh.

Cavique, L, AB Mendes and JMA Santos (2009). An algorithm to discover the k-Clique cover in networks. In *Progress in Artificial Intelligence*, L Seabra Lopes *et al.* (eds.), pp. 363–373. *EPIA* 2009, LNAI 5816. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag.

Cavique, L and CJ Luz (2009). A heuristic for the stability number of a graph based on convex quadratic programming and tabu search. *Journal of Mathematical Sciences*, 161(6), 944–955.

Cavique, L, C Rego and I Themido (2002). A scatter search algorithm for the maximum clique problem. In *Essays and Surveys in Meta-heuristics*, C Ribeiro and P Hansen (eds.), pp. 227–244. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Pubs.

Chvatal, V (1979). A greedy heuristic for the set-covering problem. *Mathematics of Operations Research*, 4(4), 233–235.

- Cook, DJ and LB Holder (eds.) (2007). *Mining Graph Data*. London: John Wiley & Sons.
- DIMACS (1995). Maximum clique, graph coloring, and satisfiability. *Second DIMACS implementation challenge*. Available at http://dimacs.rutgers.edu/Challenges/[accessed on March 2011].
- Derenyi, I, G Palla and T Vicsek (2005). Clique percolation in random networks. *Physical Review Letters*, 94(16), 160202.
- Erdös, P and A Renyi (1959). On random graphs. *Publicationes Mathematicae*, 6, 290–297.
- Faloutsos, M, P Faloutsos and C Faloutsos (1999). On power-law relationships of the Internet topology. In *Proc. SIGCOMM*, pp. 251–262.
- Floyd, RW (1962). Algorithm 97: Shortest Path. Communications of the ACM, 5(5), 345.
- Freeman, LC (2004). The Development of Social Network Analysis: A Study in the Sociology of Science. Vancouver: Empirical Press.
- Gomes, MC, L Cavique and IH Themido (2006). The crew timetabling problem:
 An extension of the crew scheduling problem. *Annals of Operations Research*,
 144(144), 111–132.
- Grossman, J, P Ion and RD Castro (2007). The Erdös number Project. Available at http://www.oakland.edu/enp/ [accessed on March 2011].
- Johnson, DS (1974). Approximation algorithms for combinatorial problems. *Journal of Computer and Systems Sciences*, 9(9), 256–278.
- Kellerman, E (1973). Determination of keyword conflict. *IBM Technical Disclosure Bulletin*, 16(2), 544–546.
- Kernighan, BW and S Lin (1970). An efficient heuristic procedure for partitioning graphs. *Bell Systems Technical Journal*, 49, 291–307.
- Luce, RD (1950). Connectivity and generalized cliques in sociometric group structure. *Psychometrika*, 15(15), 159–190.
- Mendes, A, M Funk and L Cavique (2010). Knowledge discovery in the virtual social network due to common knowledge of proverbs. In *Proc. DMIN'10*, MG Weiss and R Stahlbock (eds.), pp. 213–219, 6th edn. USA: CSREA Press.
- Mika, P (2007). Social Networks and the Semantic Web. New York: Springer-Verlag.
- Milgram, S (1967). The small world problem. *Psychology Today*, 1(1), 60–67.
 - Mokken, RJ (1979). Cliques, clubs and clans. *Quality & Quantity*, 13(13), 161–173.
- Moreno, JL (1934). *Who Shall Survive*? Washington D.C.: Nervous and Mental Disease Publishing Company.
- Scott, JP and P Carrington (eds.) (2011). The SAGE Handbook of Social Network Analysis. London: Sage Pubs.
- Skiena, S (1990). *Implementing Discrete Mathematics: Combinatorics and Graph Theory with Mathematica*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Soriano, P and M Gendreau (1996). Tabu search algorithms for the maximum clique. In *Clique*, *Coloring and Satisfiability*, *Second Implementation Challenge DIMACS*, DS Johnson and MA Trick (eds.), pp. 221–242. American Mathematical Society.

- Wang, N, S Parthasarathy, K-L Tan and AKH Tung (2008). CSV: Visualizing and mining cohesive subgraphs, In *ACM SIGMOD '08 Proceedings*. Vancover, Canada.
- Watts, DJ and SH Strogatz (1998). Collective dynamics of small-world networks. *Nature*, 393(393), 409–410.
- Wasserman, S and K Faust (1995). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.