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## CS4423-Networks: Week 9 (11+12 March 2025)

### Part 2: Computing Random Graphs

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This Jupyter notebook, and PDF and HTML versions, can be found at <https://www.niallmadden.ie/2425-CS4423/#Week09>

*This notebook was written by Niall Madden, adapted from notebooks by Angela Carnevale.*

#### Modules for this notebook

```
In [1]: import networkx as nx
import numpy as np
opts = { "with_labels": True, "node_color": "aqua"} # aqua nodes this week

import random # some random number generators: random, random_choices
import statistics # e.g., mean of entries in a list
import math # for comb (=binomial coef)
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

# Random Samples

- Our goal is to randomly select edges on a given vertex set  $X$ . That is, pick at random elements from the set  $\binom{X}{2}$  of pairs of nodes.
- So we need a procedure

for selecting  $m$  from  $N$  objects randomly, in such a way that each of the  $\binom{N}{m}$  subsets of the  $N$  objects is an equally likely outcome.

- We first discuss sampling  $m$  values in the range  $\{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$ .

## An intuitive approach

Maybe the most obvious approach is to select each number in the desired range with probability  $p = m/N$ .

- Python's basic random number generator `random.random` returns a random number in the (half-open) interval  $[0, 1)$  every time it is called.
- Looping with `a` over `range(N)` : if the randomly generated number is less than  $p$ , then we include the current value of `a` , if not we don't.

```
In [2]: def random_sample_B(N, p):  
        """sample elements in range(n) with probability p"""  
        sample = []  
        for a in range(N):  
            if random.random() < p:  
                sample.append(a)  
        return sample
```

We'll make a few samples with  $pN = (0.2)10 = 2$ , so we expect to usually get 2 terms in the sample. But it will not always happen.

```
In [3]: random_sample_B(10,0.2)
```

```
Out[3]: []
```

```
In [4]: random_sample_B(10,0.2)
```

```
Out[4]: [4]
```

```
In [5]: random_sample_B(10,0.2)
```

```
Out[5]: [1, 9]
```

We'd expect this to return a list of  $pN$  numbers, which it does (on average)

```
In [6]: sum_l = 0
N = 100
p = 0.2
for i in range(N):
    S = random_sample_B(N,p)
    sum_l += len(S)
    # print(f"Sample {i:2d} has {len(S)} terms")
print(f"Average is {sum_l/N}")
```

Average is 20.31

Let's do that for 10,000 runs:

```
In [7]: c = 100000
sum(len(random_sample_B(N, p)) for i in range(c))/c
```

Out[7]: 19.98759

## Choosing exactly $m$ terms

To randomly select exactly  $m$  numbers from from  $0, 1, \dots, N - 1$ , we use a modification of this procedure [see Knuth: The Art of Computer Programming, Vol. 2, Section 3.4.2, Algorithm S] :

- The number  $a$  should be selected with probability  $\frac{m-c}{N-a}$ ,

if  $c$  items have already been selected.

- *Can you explain why this works?*

```
In [8]: def random_sample_A(N, m):
        sample = []
        for a in range(N):
            if (N - a) * random.random() < m - len(sample):
                sample.append(a)
        return sample
```

Let's see a small example. Note that they all have 4 terms in the samples.

```
In [9]: N = 10
m = 4
print( random_sample_A(N, m) )
print( random_sample_A(N, m) )
print( random_sample_A(N, m) )
```

[2, 4, 7, 8]

[1, 4, 7, 8]

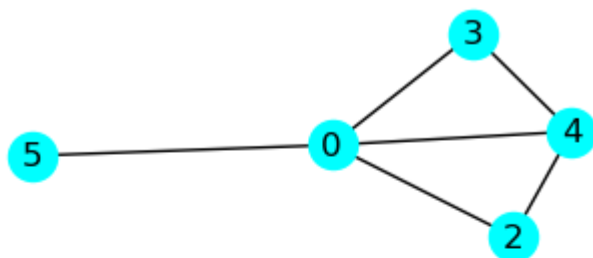
[5, 6, 7, 9]

## Computing $G_{ER}(n, m)$

We can easily adapt the above procedure to compute examples of graphs in  $G_{ER}(n, m)$ .

But here we'll use the `networkx` random graph constructor, `gnm_random_graph` , to do this.

```
In [10]: n,m = 6,6
G1 = nx.gnm_random_graph(n, m)
nx.draw(G1, **opts)
```



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## Computing $G_{ER}(n, p)$

### Our own function

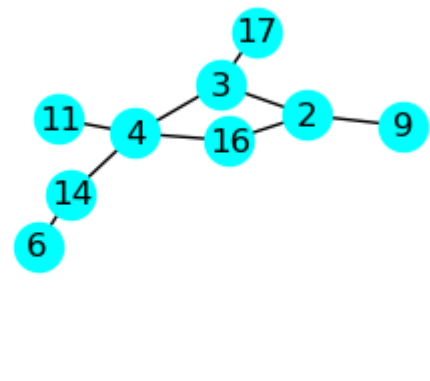
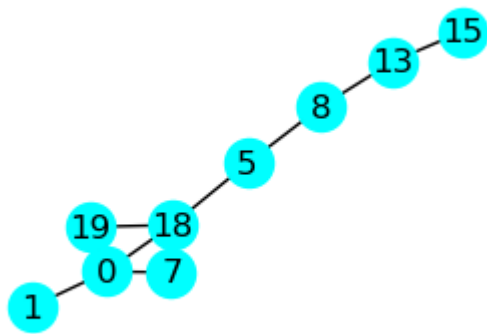
Here is a simple approach to computing a sample from  $G_{ER}(n, p)$ :

```
In [11]: def random_graph_B(n, p):
    """construct a random type B graph with n nodes and edge probability p"""
    G = nx.empty_graph(n)
    for x in range(n):
        for y in range(x):
            if random.random() < p:
                G.add_edge(x, y)
    return G
```

```
In [12]: n = 20
p = 0.2
N = n*(n-1)/2
```

```
In [13]: %time
G2 = random_graph_B(n, p)
nx.draw(G2, **opts)
print(f"G2 has {G2.size()} edges. Expeced number is {p*N}")
```

CPU times: user 4  $\mu$ s, sys: 1  $\mu$ s, total: 5  $\mu$ s  
Wall time: 8.11  $\mu$ s  
G2 has 20 edges. Expeced number is 38.0

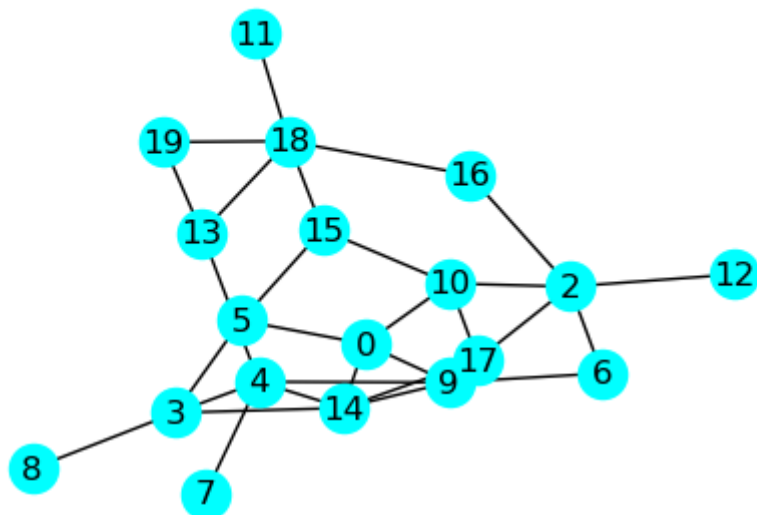


## The `gnp_random_graph()` function

The `networkx` version of this random graph constructor is called `gnp_random_graph` and should produce the same random graphs with the same probability (but should be more efficient for large networks).

```
In [14]: G3 = nx.gnp_random_graph(n, p)
          nx.draw(G3, **opts)
          print(f"G3 has {G3.size()} edges. Expeced number is {p*N}")
```

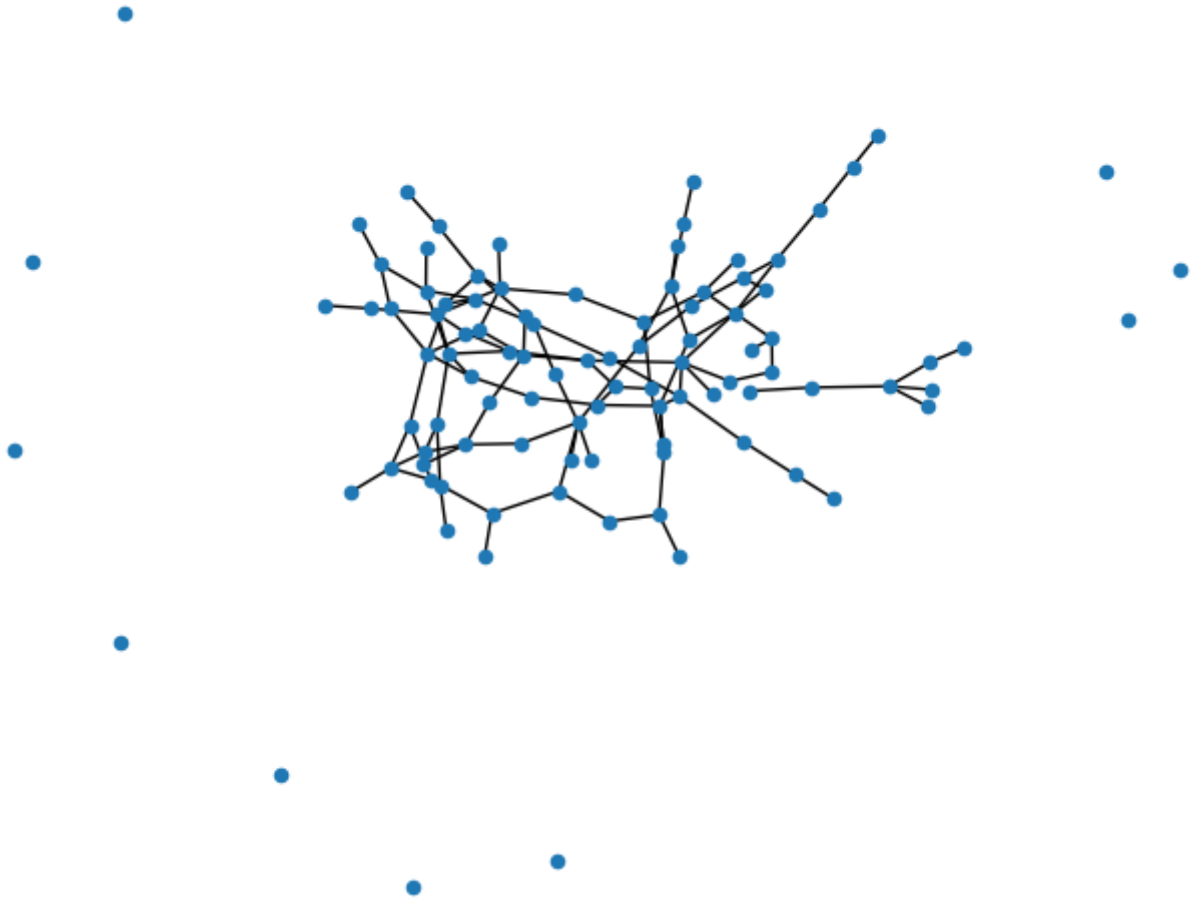
G3 has 29 edges. Expeced number is 38.0



1

```
In [15]: n = 100
p = 0.02
N = n*(n-1)/2
G4 = nx.gnp_random_graph(n, p)
nx.draw(G4, node_size=20)
print(f"G4 has {G4.size()} edges. Expeced number is {p*N}")
plt.savefig("W09-cover.png")
```

G4 has 113 edges. Expeced number is 99.0



## Expected size

We know that any graph drawn from  $G_{ER}(n, m)$  has size  $m$  (with probability 1).

For  $G_{ER}(n, p)$  the *expected size* is  $pN$ . Let's check that:

```
In [16]: n = 100
N = math.comb(n,2) # "combination" = "binomial coef"
p = 0.01
num_trials = 1000
sum_of_sizes = 0
for i in range(num_trials):
    G = nx.gnp_random_graph(n,p)
    sum_of_sizes += G.size()
ave_size = sum_of_sizes/num_trials
print(f"For this selection, average size is {ave_size}; expected is pN={p*N}")
```

For this selection, average size is 49.614; expected is pN=49.5

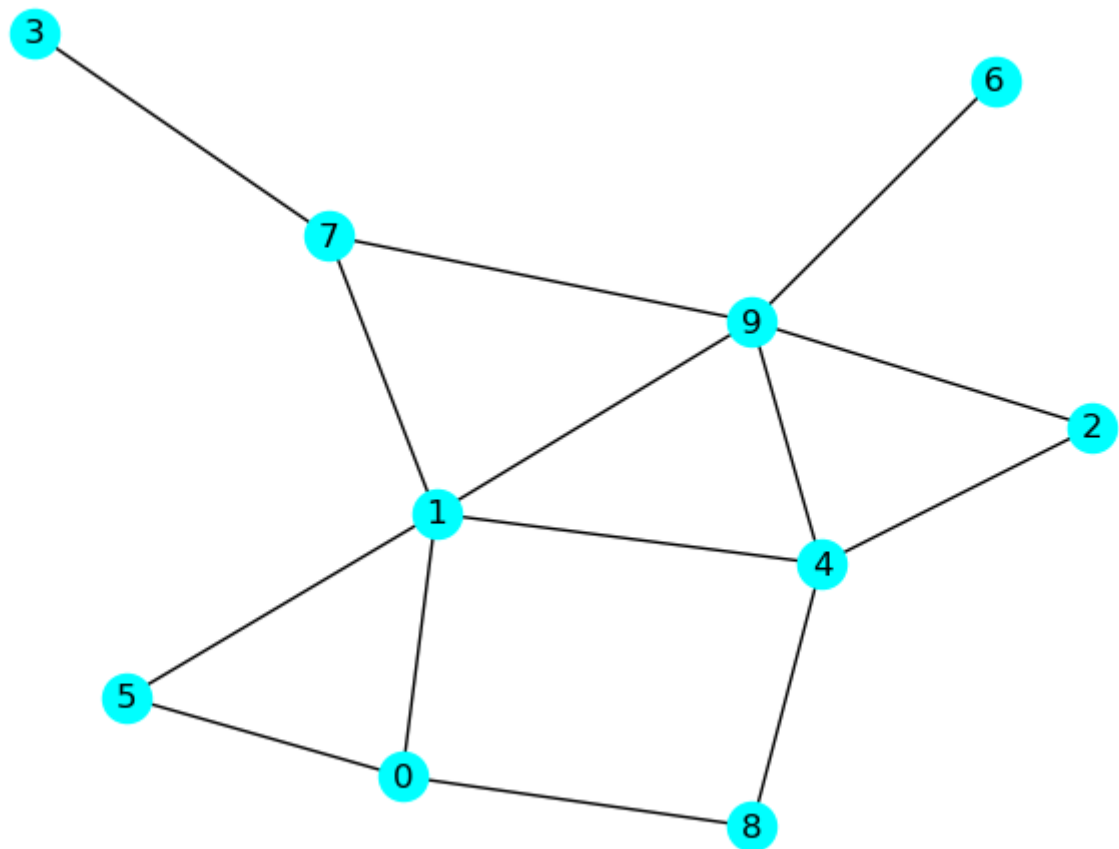
## Expected Average Degree

In [Part 1](#), we noted that, for  $G_{ER}(n, m)$ , the the expected **size** of a graph is  $\bar{m} = m$  as every graph  $G$  in  $G_{ER}(n, m)$  has exactly  $m$  edges.

It follows that the expected **average degree** is  $\langle k \rangle = \frac{2m}{n}$ , as every graph has average degree  $2m/n$ .

Let's verify that:

```
In [17]: n = 10
m = 14
G = nx.gnm_random_graph(n,m)
nx.draw(G, **opts)
```



Get the degree sequence:

```
In [18]: degree_sequence = [d for n, d in G.degree()]
print(degree_sequence)
```

```
[3, 5, 2, 1, 4, 2, 1, 3, 2, 5]
```

Compute the mean value, and compare with  $\langle k \rangle = 2m/n$ .

```
In [19]: mean_deg = statistics.mean(degree_sequence)
print(f"Average degree is {mean_deg}, and 2m/n = {2*m/n}")
```

```
Average degree is 2.8, and 2m/n = 2.8
```



$$G_{ER}(n, p)$$

We learned in Part 1 that the degree distribution in a random graph in  $G_{ER}(n, p)$  is a *binomial distribution*

$$p_k = \binom{n-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-1-k}.$$

That is, in the  $G_{ER}(n, p)$  model, the *probability that a node has degree  $k$  is  $p_k$* .

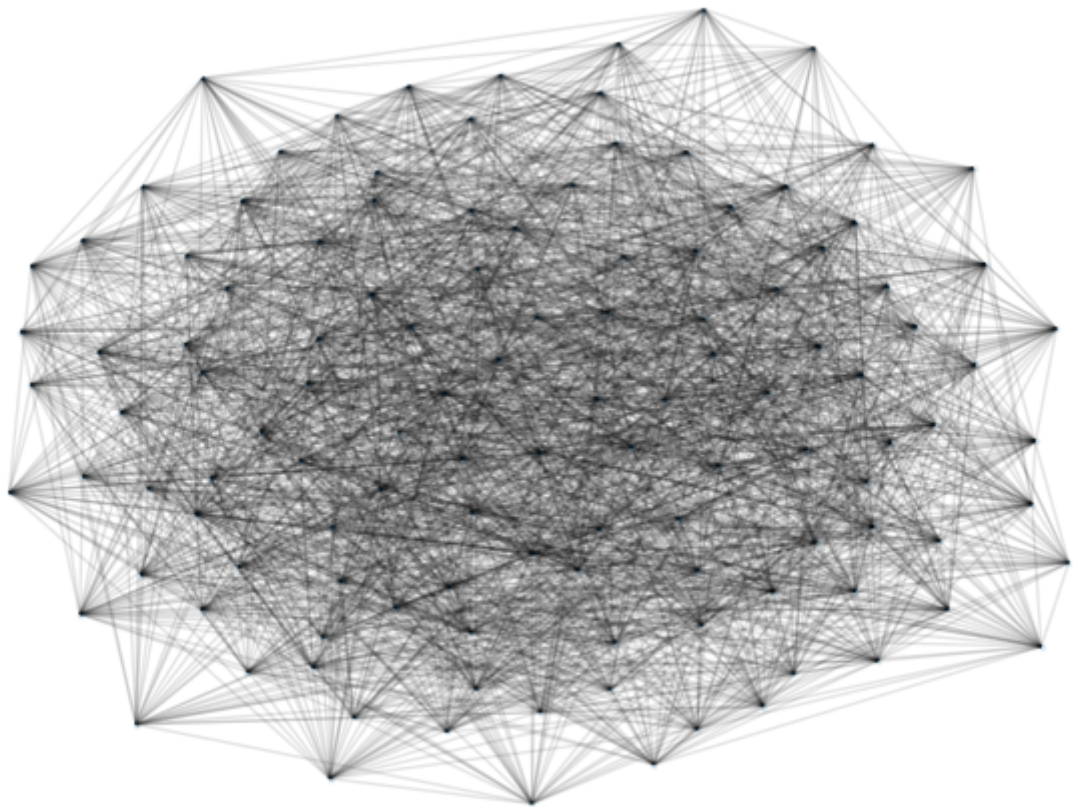
Let's check some examples.

In Part 1, we considered an example for Q3(c) of the 2023/24 exam paper: suppose one constructed a graph  $G$  on 120 nodes by tossing a (fair, 6-sided) die once for each possible edge, adding the edge only if the die shows 3 or 6. Then pick a node at random in this graph. What is the probability that this node has degree 50?

Set  $n$  and  $p$  and make a graph

```
In [20]: n = 120
         p = 1.0/3.0
         G = nx.gnp_random_graph(n,p)
```

```
In [21]: nx.draw(G, node_size=3, alpha=0.1 )
```



From the theory:

```
In [22]: k=50
p50 = math.comb(n-1,k)*(p**k)*(1-p)**(n-1-k)
print(p50)

0.01055531314836434
```

In practice:

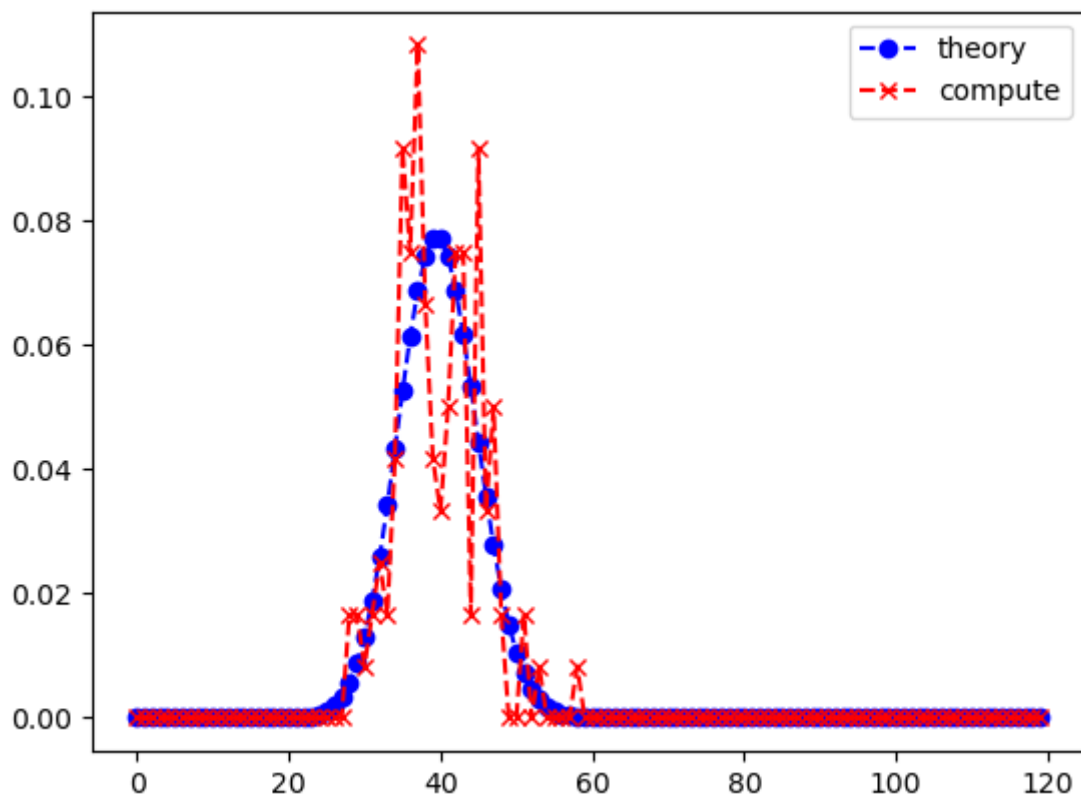
```
In [23]: def count_k_in_G(G,k):
count = 0
for i in range(n):
    if (G.degree(i) == k):
        count +=1
return(count)
print(count_k_in_G(G,50)/n)

0.0
```

These numbers may not agree terribly well... let's check for all  $k$ , and plot

```
In [24]: P1 = [math.comb(n-1,k)*(p**k)*(1-p)**(n-1-k) for k in range(n)]
p2 = [count_k_in_G(G,k)/n for k in range(n)]
plt.plot(P1, marker='o', linestyle='--', color='b', label='theory')
plt.plot(p2, marker='x', linestyle='--', color='r', label='compute')
plt.legend()
```

```
Out[24]: <matplotlib.legend.Legend at 0x7f33c3e55040>
```



That looks reasonable, but would be more convincing if we averaged over a number of randomly drawn graphs:

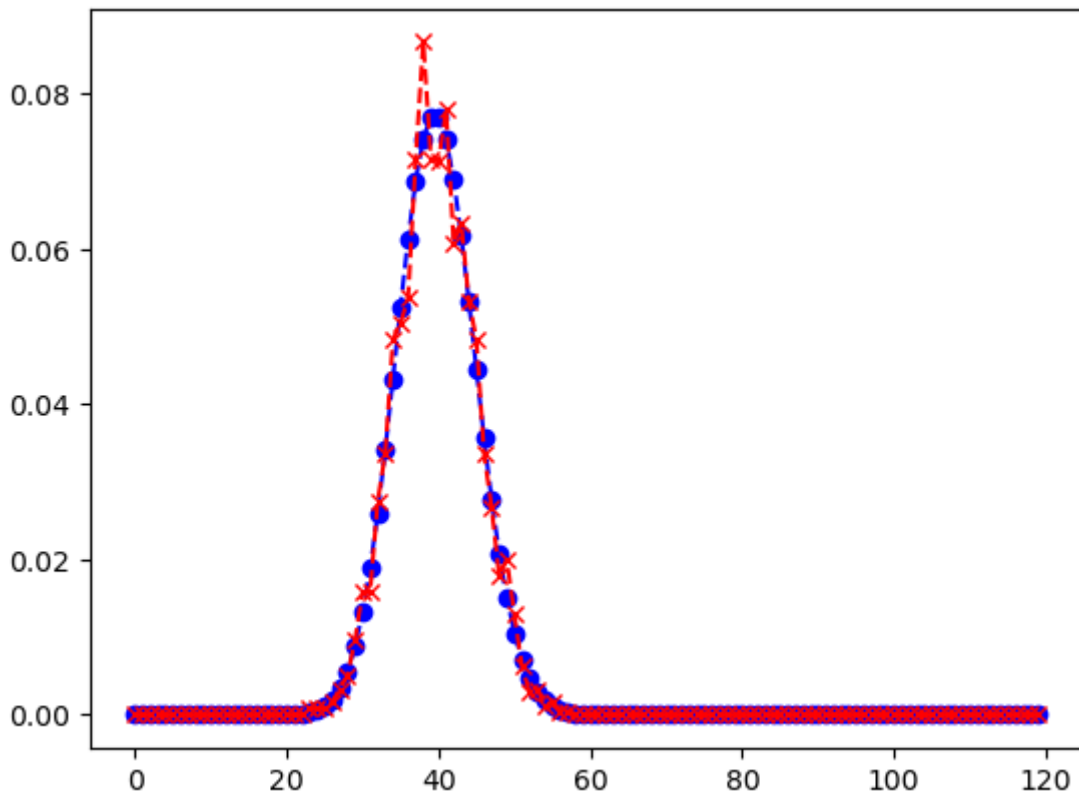
```

In [25]: P1 = [math.comb(n-1,k)*(p**k)*(1-p)**(n-1-k) for k in range(n)]
P2 = np.zeros(n)
num_draws = 20
for run in range(num_draws):
    G = nx.gnp_random_graph(n,p)
    P2 = P2 + [count_k_in_G(G,k)/n/num_draws for k in range(n)]

plt.plot(P1, marker='o', linestyle='--', color='b', label='theory')
plt.plot(P2, marker='x', linestyle='--', color='r', label='compute')

```

Out[25]: [



$$p = p(n)$$

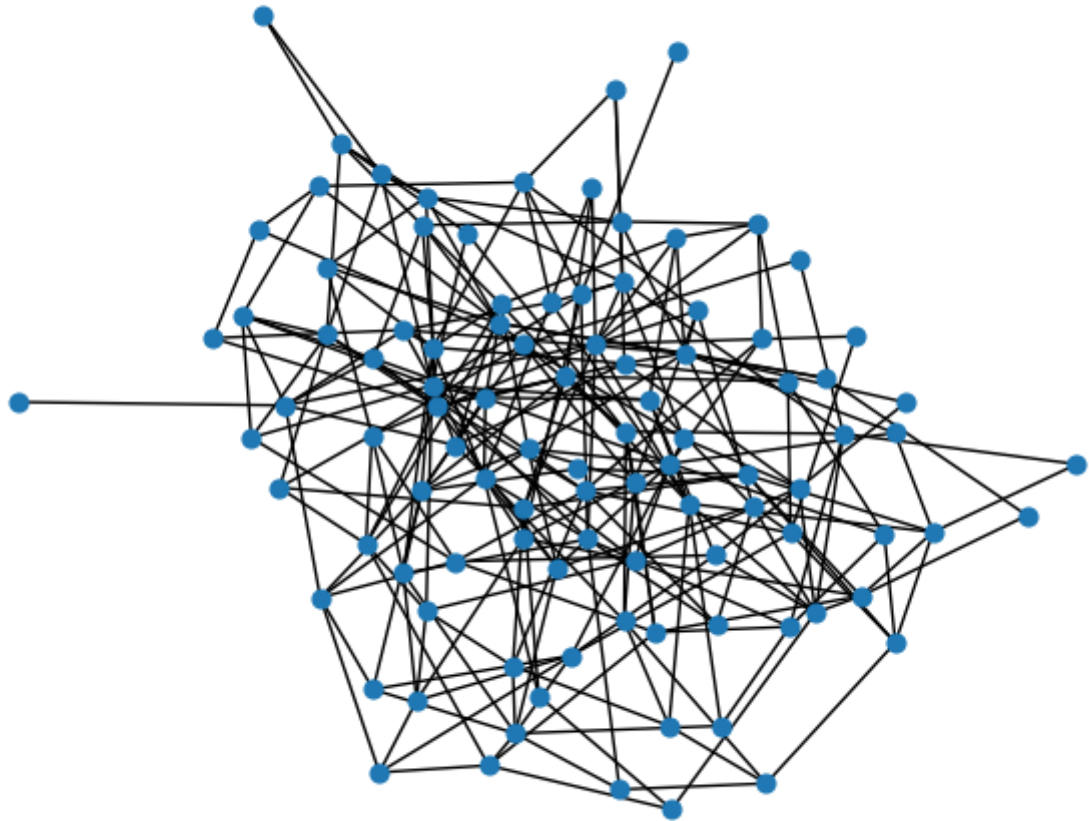
In a way, it does not make sense to compare  $G_{ER}(n_1, p)$  with  $G_{ER}(n_2, p)$ . If  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are very different, the resulting graphs can have different structures.

Lets look at 2 examples. In both we have  $p = 0.05$ , but we'll have  $n_1 = 100$  and  $n_2 = 20$ .

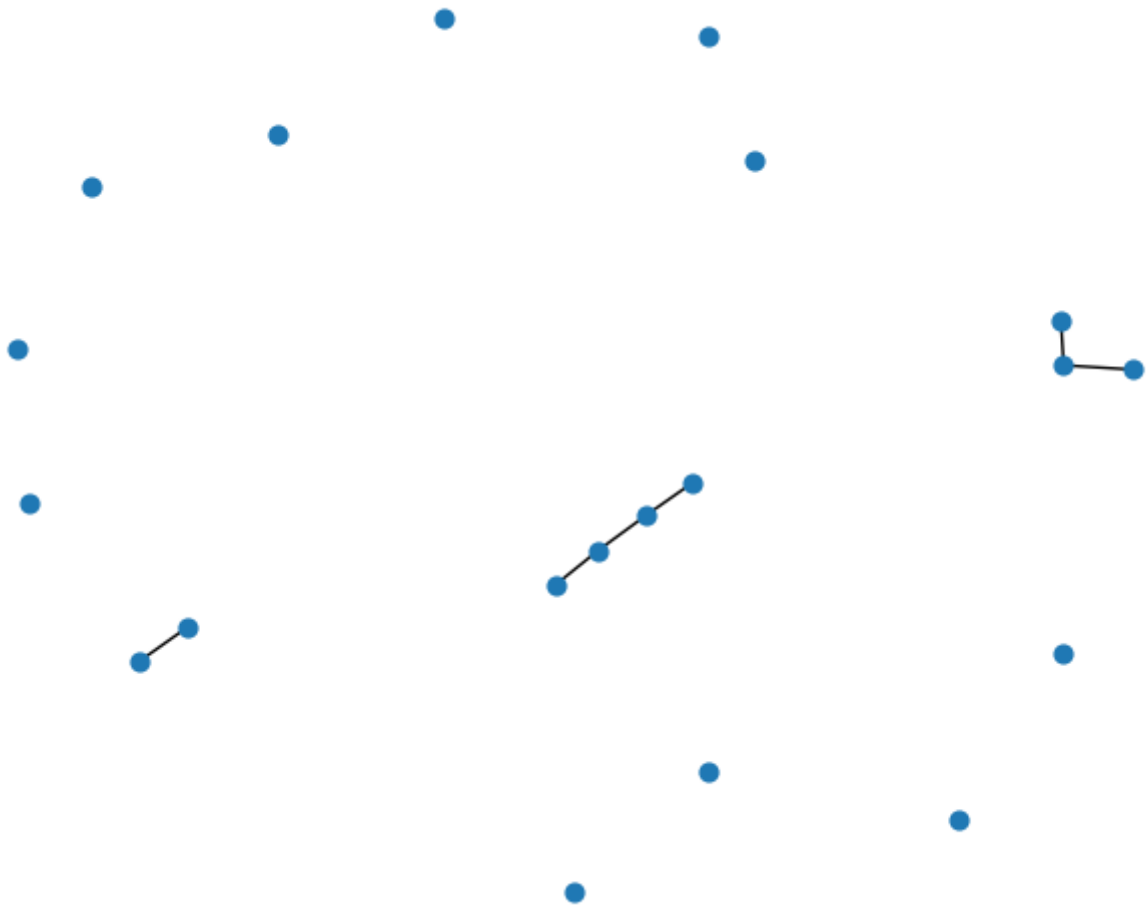
```

In [26]: n1 = 100
p = 0.05
G1 = nx.gnp_random_graph(n1,p)
nx.draw(G1, node_size=40)

```



```
In [27]: n2 = 20  
G2 = nx.gnp_random_graph(n2,p)  
nx.draw(G2, node_size=40)
```



**FINISHED HERE THURSDAY**

This will lead us to a discussion on "The Giant Connected Component".

**Definition (Giant Component).** A connected component of a graph  $G$  is called a **giant component** if its number of nodes increases with the order  $n$  of  $G$  as some positive power of  $n$ .