

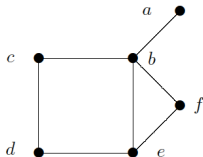
A complex network diagram with numerous nodes and edges. Nodes are represented by circles of various sizes and colors (gray, yellow, blue, green, orange, pink, purple). Edges are thin lines connecting the nodes. Some nodes are highlighted with larger, colored circles around them. The network is dense and interconnected, with some clusters and some isolated nodes.

Lecture 4 · Graph Theory III

Networks, Crowds and Markets

Warm Up

Given the following graph:



Determine:

- a) the average degree of the graph.
- b) the degree distribution.
- c) its adjacency matrix.

Average Degree

In a simple graph, the vector $A\mathbf{1}$ gives the degrees. Thus $\frac{1}{N}\mathbf{1}^\top A\mathbf{1} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i,j=1}^N A_{ij}$ gives the **average degree**. How about other cases?

a. Undirected

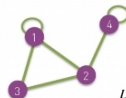


$$A_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A_{ii} = 0 \quad A_{ij} = A_{ji}$$

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^N A_{ij} \quad \langle k \rangle = \frac{2L}{N}$$

b. Self-loops

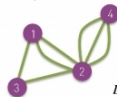


$$A_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\exists i, A_{ii} \neq 0 \quad A_{ij} = A_{ji}$$

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1, i \neq j}^N A_{ij} + \sum_{i=1}^N A_{ii} \quad ?$$

c. Multigraph
(undirected)

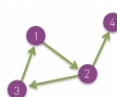


$$A_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A_{ii} = 0 \quad A_{ij} = A_{ji}$$

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^N A_{ij} \quad \langle k \rangle = \frac{2L}{N}$$

d. Directed



$$A_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A_{ij} \neq A_{ji}$$

$$L = \sum_{i,j=1}^N A_{ij} \quad \langle k \rangle = \frac{L}{N}$$

Barabási denotes the average degree by $\langle k \rangle$. We do not follow this convention.

Today's Lecture

1. Distances in a graph
 - 1.1 Path / Shortest path / Distance
 - 1.2 Breadth First Search
 - 1.3 Diameter / Local Diameter
 - 1.4 Eccentricity
2. Connectivity
 - 2.1 Definition
 - 2.2 Bridge
3. Trees
4. Regular Graphs

Distances in graphs

Path

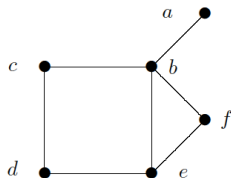
Definition

A **walk** in an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ is a sequence of vertices (v_0, \dots, v_ℓ) s.t. each consecutive pair $v_{i-1}v_i$ is an edge in E .

A **path** in an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ is a sequence of **distinct** vertices (v_0, \dots, v_ℓ) s.t. each consecutive pair $v_{i-1}v_i$ is an edge in E .

Length: the number of edges in the sequence, here ℓ .

In a weighted graph we could take the sum of the weights of the edges on the path; **path weight**.

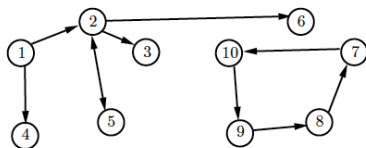


Examples: $p_1 = abfe$, $p_2 = cdef$,
 $p_3 = defba$

Directed Path

Definition

A **directed path** in a directed graph G is a finite sequence of edges $e_i = (x_i, y_i)$ such that for each $i \geq 1$, $x_{i+1} = y_i$.



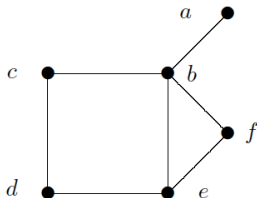
Examples:

$$p_1 = \overline{126}, p_2 = \overline{523}$$

Shortest Path

Definition

A **shortest path** in a graph G between two nodes u, v is any path that connects u with v having minimum length.



abe is the shortest path between a and e

$abcd$ and $abed$ are both shortest path between a and d

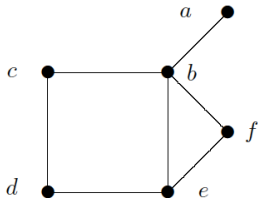
In NetworkX:

```
path = nx.shortest_path(G, source=1, target=3)
print("Shortest path:", path)
length = nx.shortest_path_length(G, source=1, target=3)
print("Path length:", length)
```


Distance

Definition

The **distance** $d_G(u, v)$ in a graph G between two nodes u, v is the length of any shortest path connecting u with v or **infinite** if there is no such path.



$$d(a, e) = 2$$

Properties of the graph distance

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph. The distance $d(u, v)$ between nodes u, v has the following properties:

- $d(u, v) \geq 0$, and $d(u, v) = 0 \iff u = v$.
- $d(u, v) = d(v, u)$ (symmetry).
- $d(u, v) \leq d(u, w) + d(w, v)$ (triangle inequality).
- If there is no path between u and v , then $d(u, v) = \infty$.

Connectedness: G is **connected** if $d(u, v) < \infty$ for every pair $u, v \in V$.

Extension: In weighted graphs with nonnegative edge weights, $d(u, v)$ is the minimum total weight of any path between u and v .

Diameter of a graph

Diameter and the Moore bound

Definition

The **diameter** $\text{diam}(G)$ of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is the maximum distance between two vertices:

$$\text{diam}(G) = \max_{u, v \in V} d(u, v).$$

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Theorem (Moore Bound)

$$N \leq 1 + \Delta \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{D-1} (\Delta - 1)^k.$$

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Theorem (Moore Bound)

$$N \leq 1 + \Delta \cdot \sum_{k=0}^{\text{diam}(G)-1} (\Delta - 1)^k.$$

Why is this useful?

It shows that, if degrees are bounded, you cannot have both a very small diameter and a very N .

Small-world networks keep diameters small using **hubs** or **shortcuts**.

Proof: Moore Bound

Fix a vertex v . Since the diameter is D , every vertex lies within distance D of v . To get the maximal N given the constraints:

- Distance 0: only v .
- Distance 1: at most Δ neighbors of v .
- Distance 2: each neighbor adds at most $\Delta - 1$ new vertices, giving at most $\Delta(\Delta - 1)$.
- Distance i : at most $\Delta(\Delta - 1)^{i-1}$ vertices.

Summing up to distance D ,

$$N \leq 1 + \Delta \sum_{i=0}^{D-1} (\Delta - 1)^i.$$

When $\Delta = 2$, the graph is a path or cycle, giving $N \leq 2D + 1$. □

Breadth-First Search (BFS)

Definition

The **Breadth-First Search** explores a graph starting from a root node v :

- Discover all neighbors of v first.
- Then, in order, discover neighbors of those neighbors, and so on.

BFS naturally finds shortest paths from the root to all other vertices.

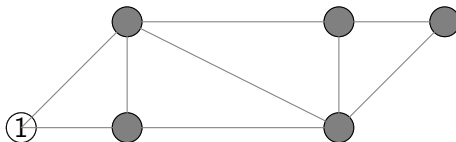
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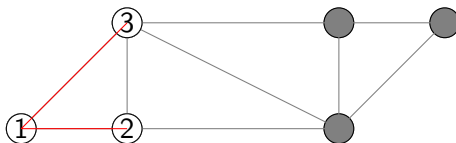
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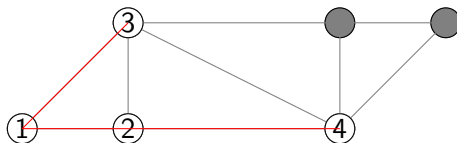
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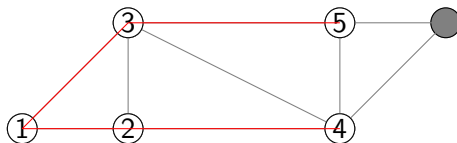
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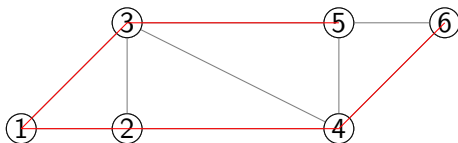
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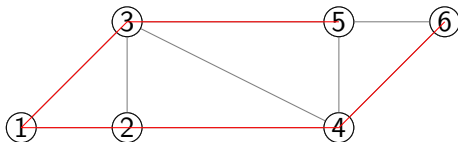
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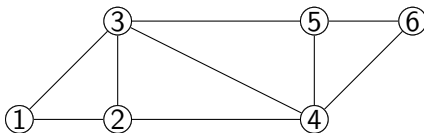
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Diameter



$$\text{diam}(G) = 3$$

Definition

The **diameter** $\text{diam}(G)$ of a graph G is the max distance between two pair of nodes of G

$$\text{diam}(G) = \max_{u,v \in V} d(u, v).$$

Graph Eccentricity

Definition

The **eccentricity of a vertex** u is: $\varepsilon(u) = \max_{v \in V} d(u, v)$.

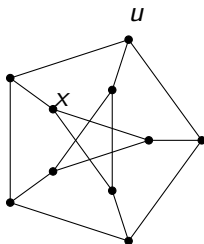
The **eccentricity of a graph** is: $\text{ecc}(G) = \min_{u \in V} \varepsilon(u)$.

(every minimizer is in some sense central)

- Captures the distance from the “most central” vertex to the farthest node.
- Always satisfies $\text{ecc}(G) \leq \text{diam}(G)$ (indeed $\text{diam}(G) = \max_{u \in V} \varepsilon(u)$).
- **Applications:**
 - ▶ In communication networks: optimal placement of a hub or server.
 - ▶ In social networks: identifying the most central or influential actors.
 - ▶ In epidemics: best/worst nodes to start monitoring or intervention.

Exercise 1

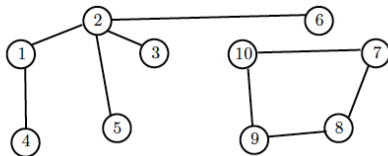
Given the following graph:



- a) Determine the shortest path and length between nodes u and x .
- b) Determine its diameter.
- c) Determine the local diameter of node z
- d) Which is the minimum number of edges that we have to add to the graph so that its eccentricity is 1?

Connectivity

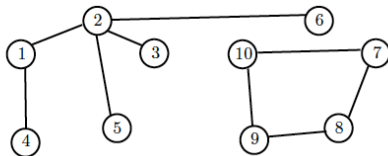
Recall: Connectivity



Definition

Two nodes u, v are **connected** in G if there exists a path connecting both nodes. A graph is **connected** if every two nodes are connected.

Recall: Connectivity



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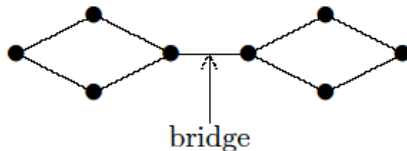
Definition

The **connected components** G are the maximal connected subgraphs.

Bridge

Definition

A **bridge** in a graph G is any edge such that when removing it from the graph, the number of connected components is increased.



(More) special graphs

Special Graphs: Trees

Definition

A tree is a **connected** and **acyclic** graph

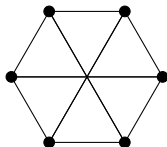
Paths P_n , Stars S_n are trees

- In a tree, every pair of vertices is joined by a unique path.
- The number of edges is one less than the number of vertices.
- Every connected graph contains a tree as a subgraph with the same vertex set (**spanning tree**).

Trees appear everywhere

Internet routing (spanning trees avoid cycles); **Data structures** in computer science (binary search trees, decision trees); **Phylogenetics** in biology (evolutionary trees); **Epidemics** and **rumor spreading** (branching processes); **Hierarchical clustering** (data science).

Special Graphs: Regular Graphs



Definition

A graph is called **r -regular** if every node has exactly degree r .

- Example: a cycle C_n is 2-regular.
- Example: a complete graph K_n is $(n - 1)$ -regular.

For an r -regular graph with N vertices:

$$L = \frac{Nr}{2}.$$

(try to prove it; see also Exercise C below)

Exercise A: Complements

- a) Show that the complement of an r -regular graph on N nodes is $(N - r - 1)$ -regular.
- b) Is the complement of a bipartite graph always bipartite? Give a counterexample if not.
- c) Give an example of a 4-node graph G such that both G and its complement are connected.

Exercise B: Connectivity

- a) Show that if a graph G is not connected, then its complement \overline{G} must be connected.
- b) Consider a tree T (connected, acyclic). Is its complement always connected? Give an example.

Exercise C: Adjacency matrix

Let A be the adjacency matrix of a graph G .

a) Show that G is r -regular if and only if

$$A\mathbf{1}_N = r\mathbf{1}_N,$$

where $\mathbf{1}_N$ is the all-ones vector in \mathbb{R}^N .

b) Suppose

$$I + A + A^2 + A^3 = J,$$

where J is the all-ones matrix. What does this imply about the diameter of G ?