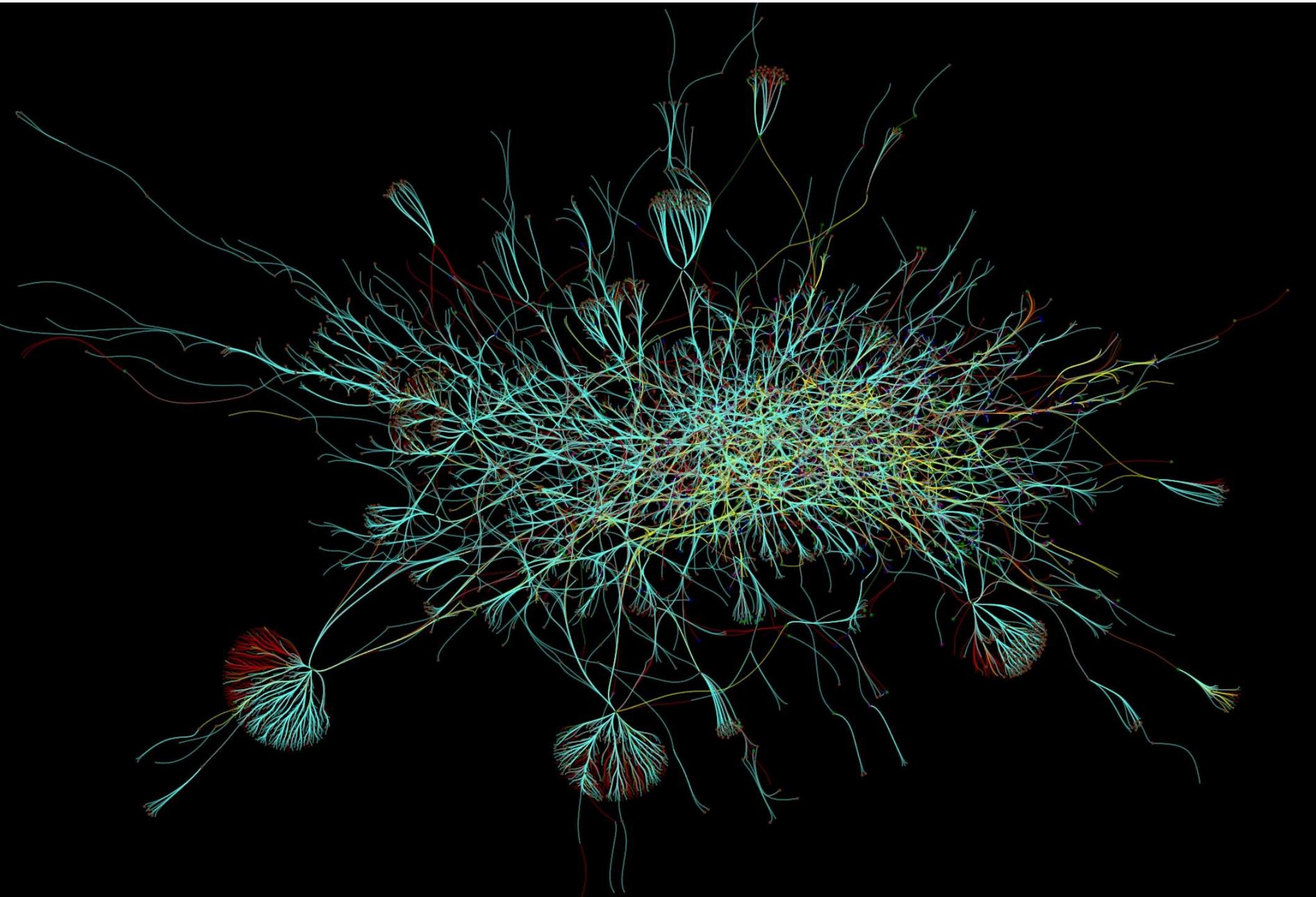


Networks



Online materials

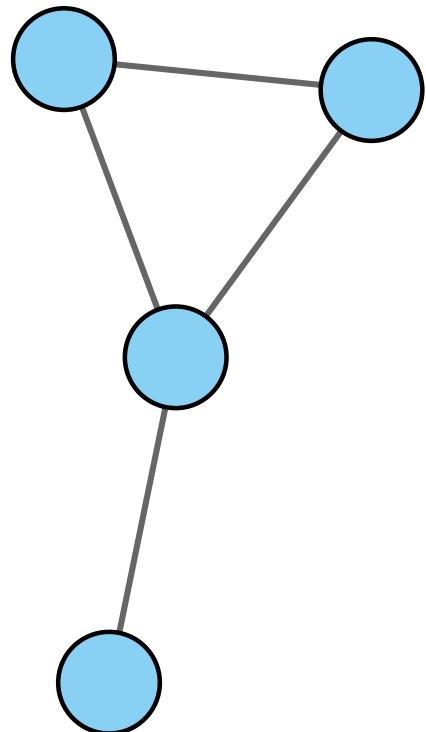
- Barabási's book (also in print, also in hungarian):
 - <http://barabasi.com/networksciencebook/>
- Online courses:
 - <https://github.com/ladamalina/coursera-sna>
 - <https://www.coursera.org/learn/python-social-network-analysis>
- Wikipedia

Graph theory vs. network science vs. systems science vs.

- Interdisciplinary area
- Difference is in approach & focus
- Math-centric viewpoint: graph theory
 - existence theorems (eg. Szemerédy regularity lemma)
 - worst-case / pathological cases
- Physicist viewpoint: network science
 - Mean field approximations
 - “typical / average cases”

Defining a network

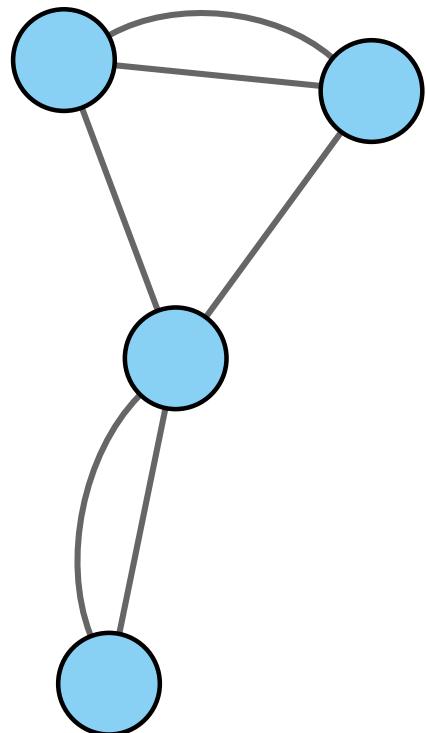
Defining a network: graphs



Simple graph:

- Nodes
- Edges

Defining a network: graphs

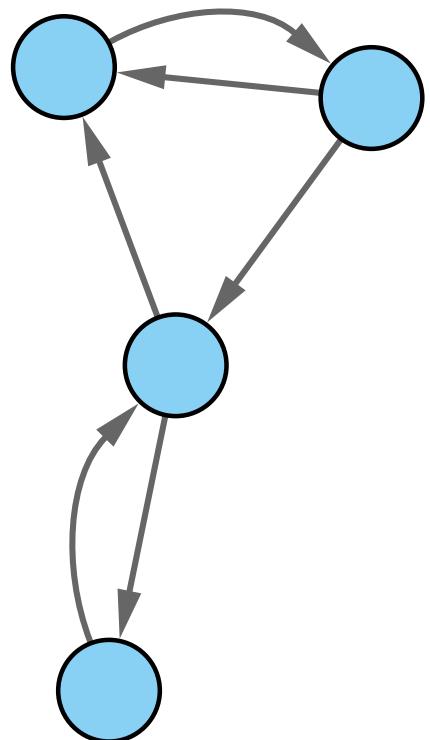


Multigraph:

- Several, parallel edges

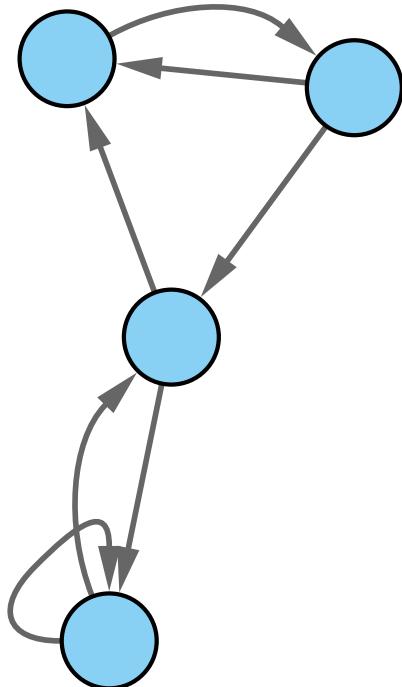
Defining a network: graphs

Directed graph

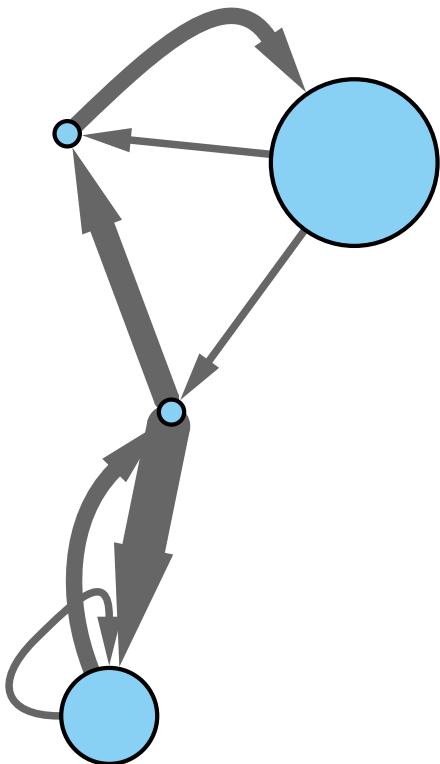


Defining a network: graphs

Self-edges



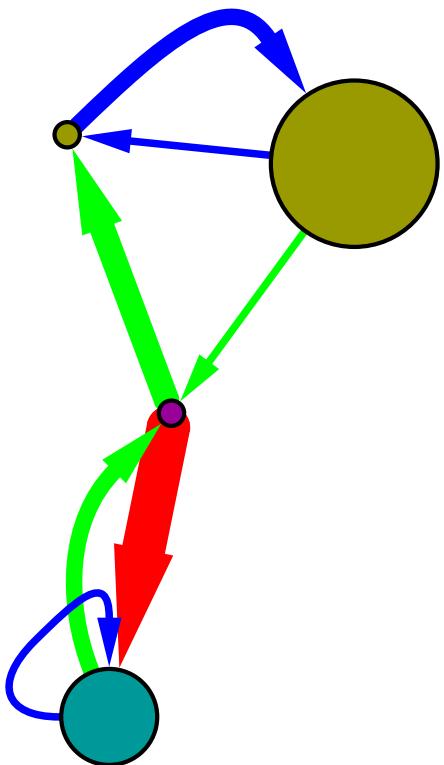
Defining a network: attributes



Additional data:

- Size / importance

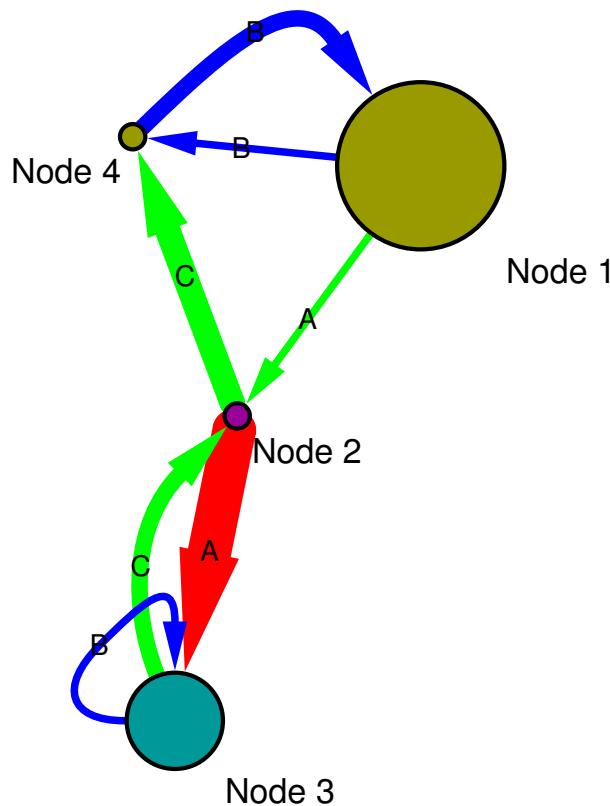
Defining a network: attributes



Extra data:

- Size / importance
- Type

Defining a network: attributes



Extra data:

- Size / importance
- Type
- Anything else

Bipartite network

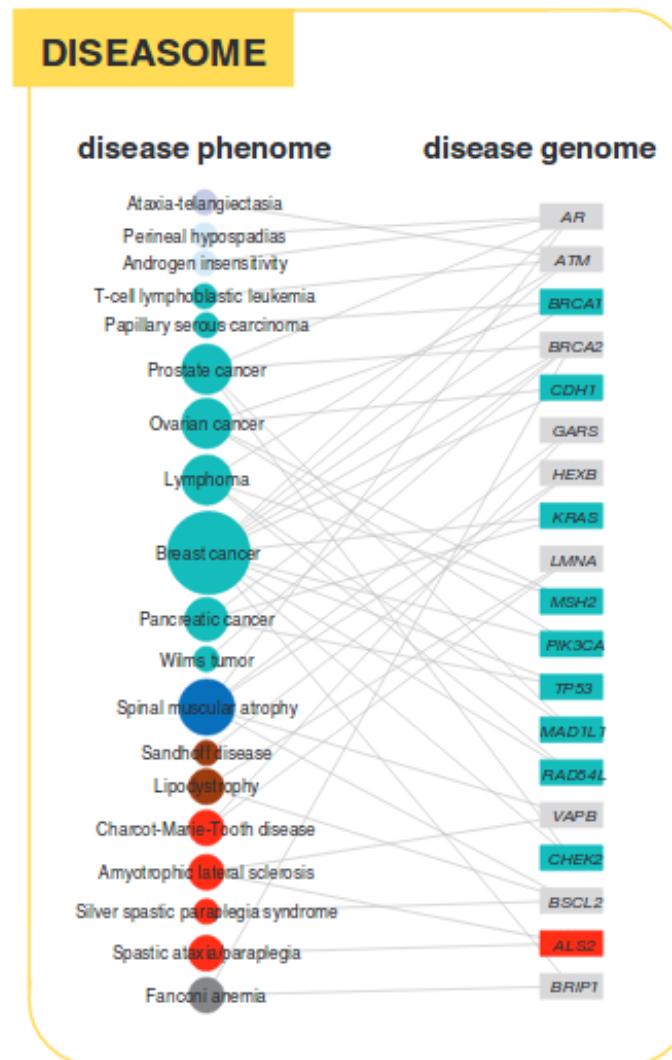


Image source: Goh KI, Cusick ME, Valle D, Childs B, Vidal M, Barabási AL. PNAS (2007)

Bipartite network and its projections

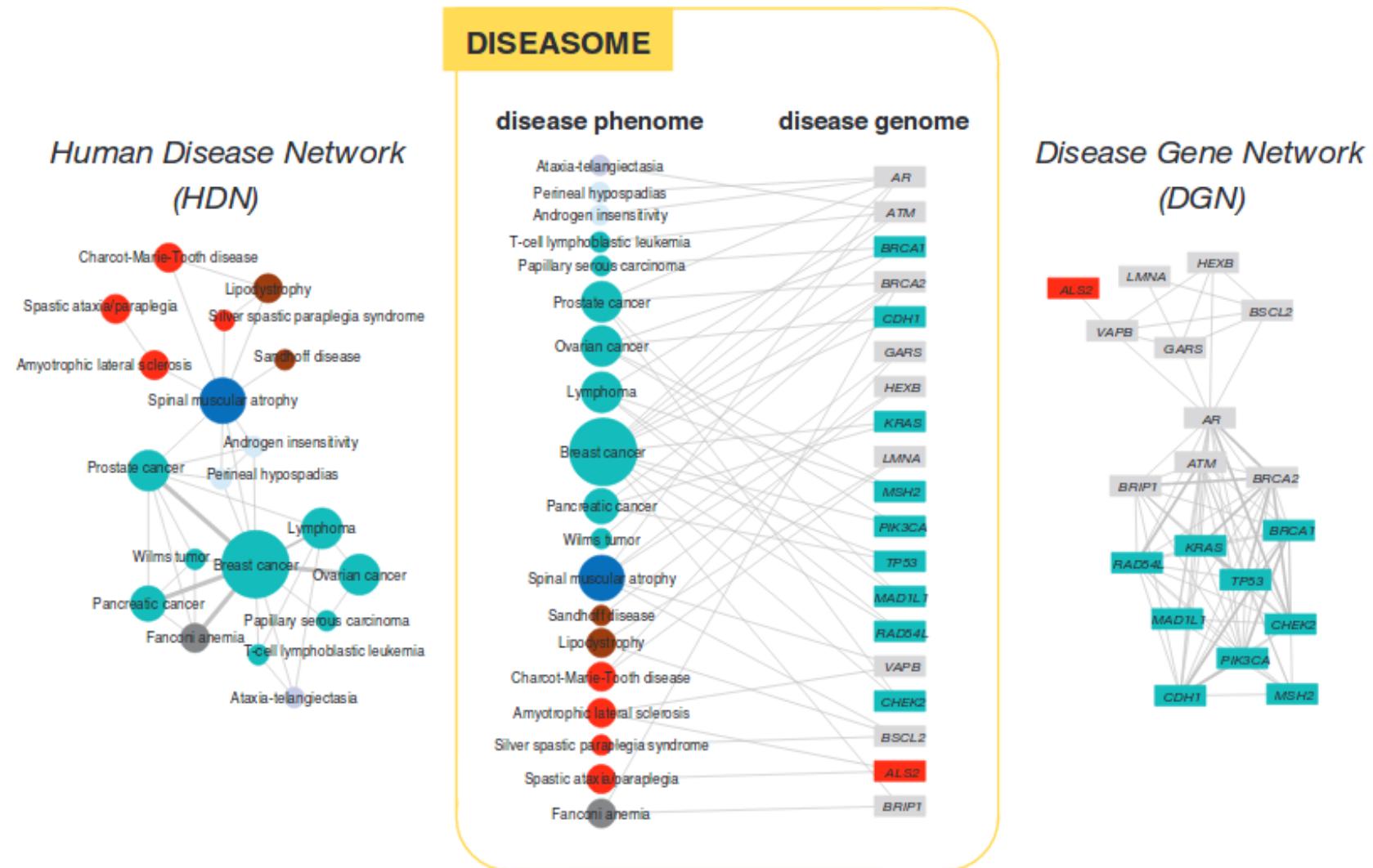
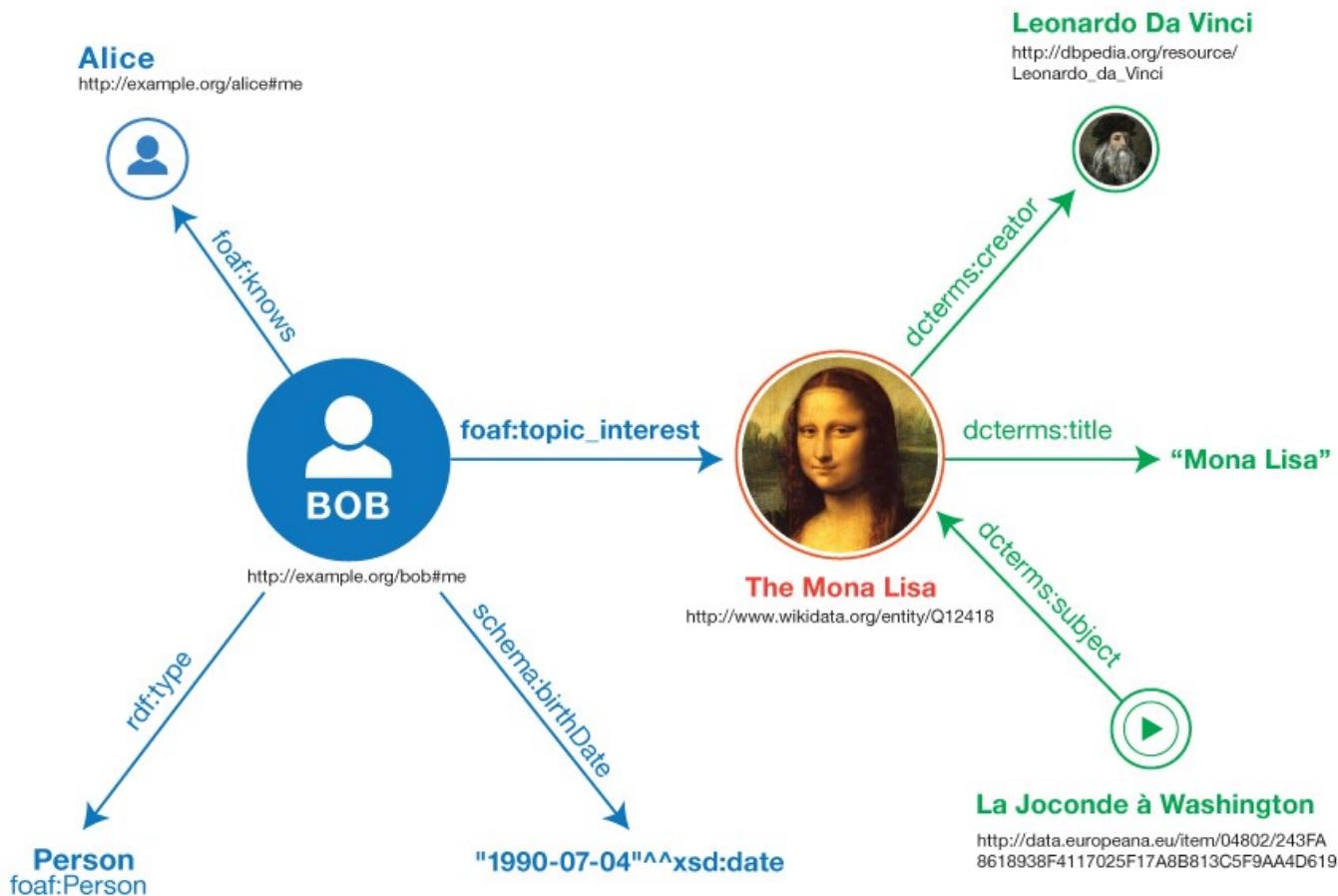
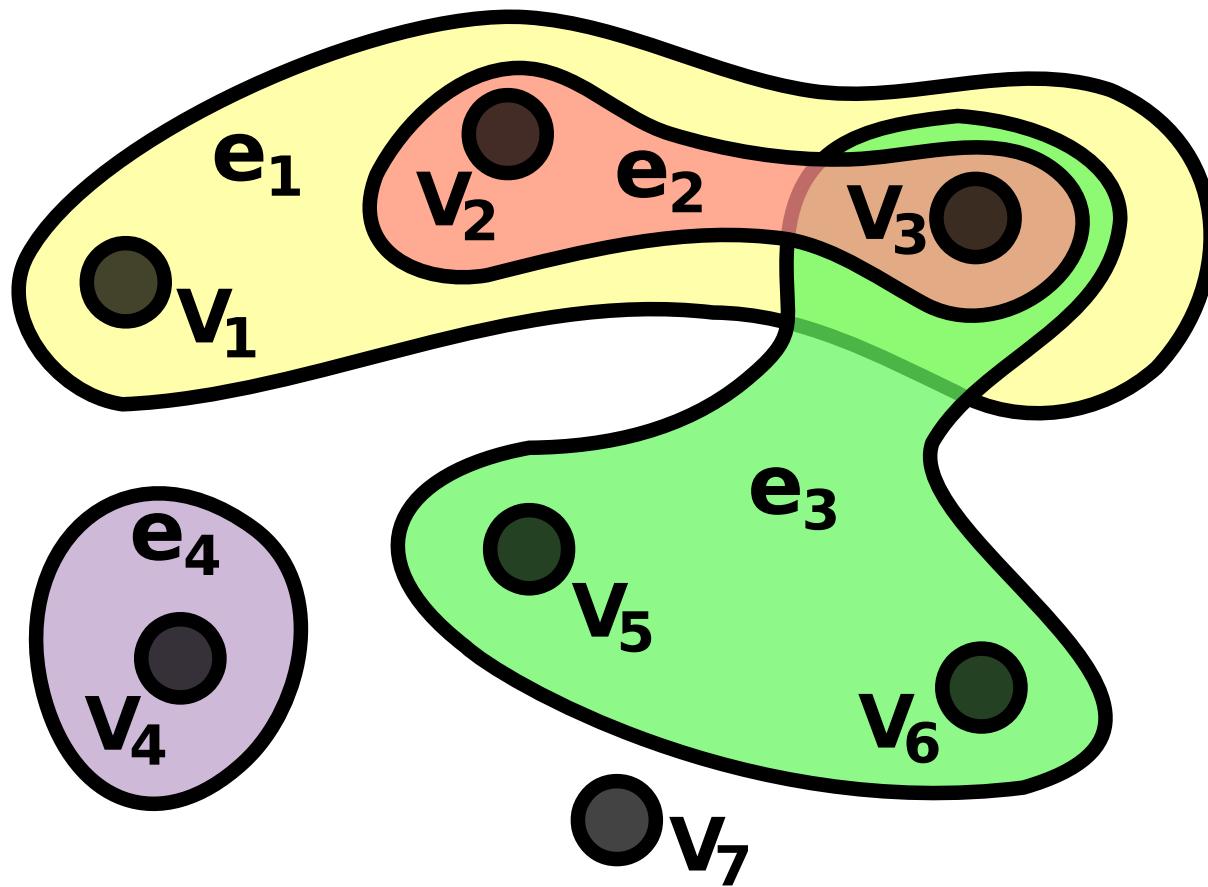


Image source: Goh KI, Cusick ME, Valle D, Childs B, Vidal M, Barabási AL. PNAS (2007)

Tripartite network: RDF

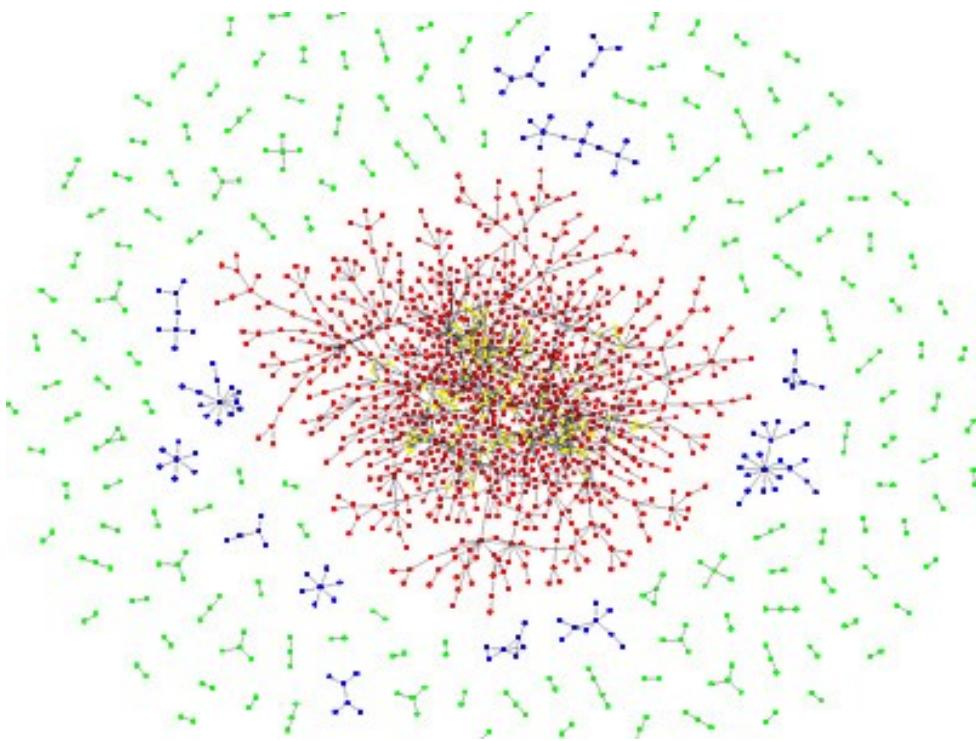


Hypergraph



Common basic properties

Components



- Isolated parts
 - One large connected component
- complications for:
- shortest paths
 - diameter
 - any quantity defined for a component

Sparseness

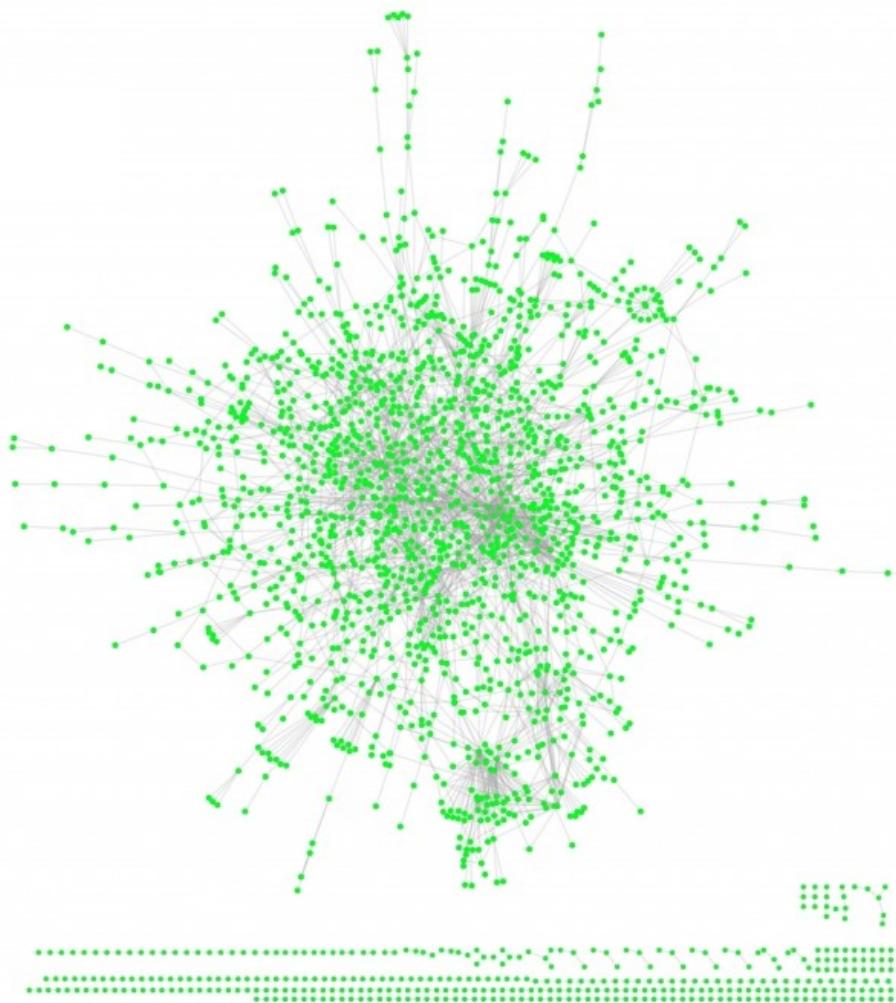


Image 2.4 and 2.7 from Barabasi's book

Sparseness

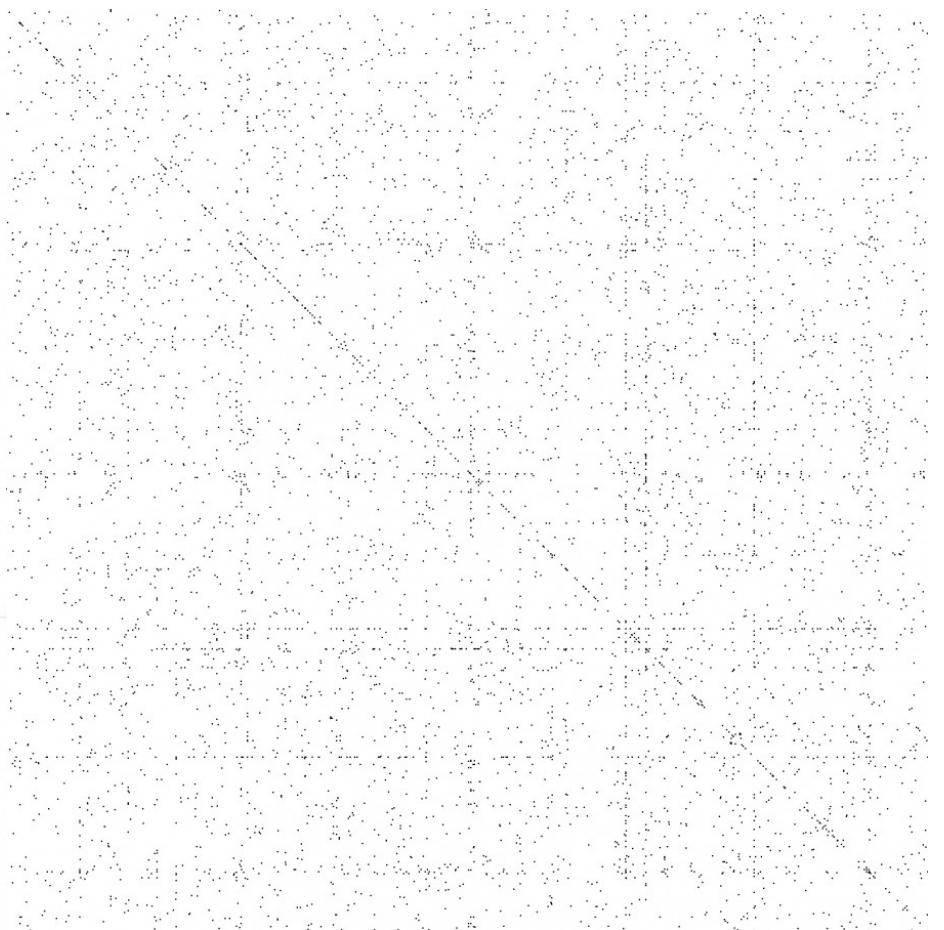
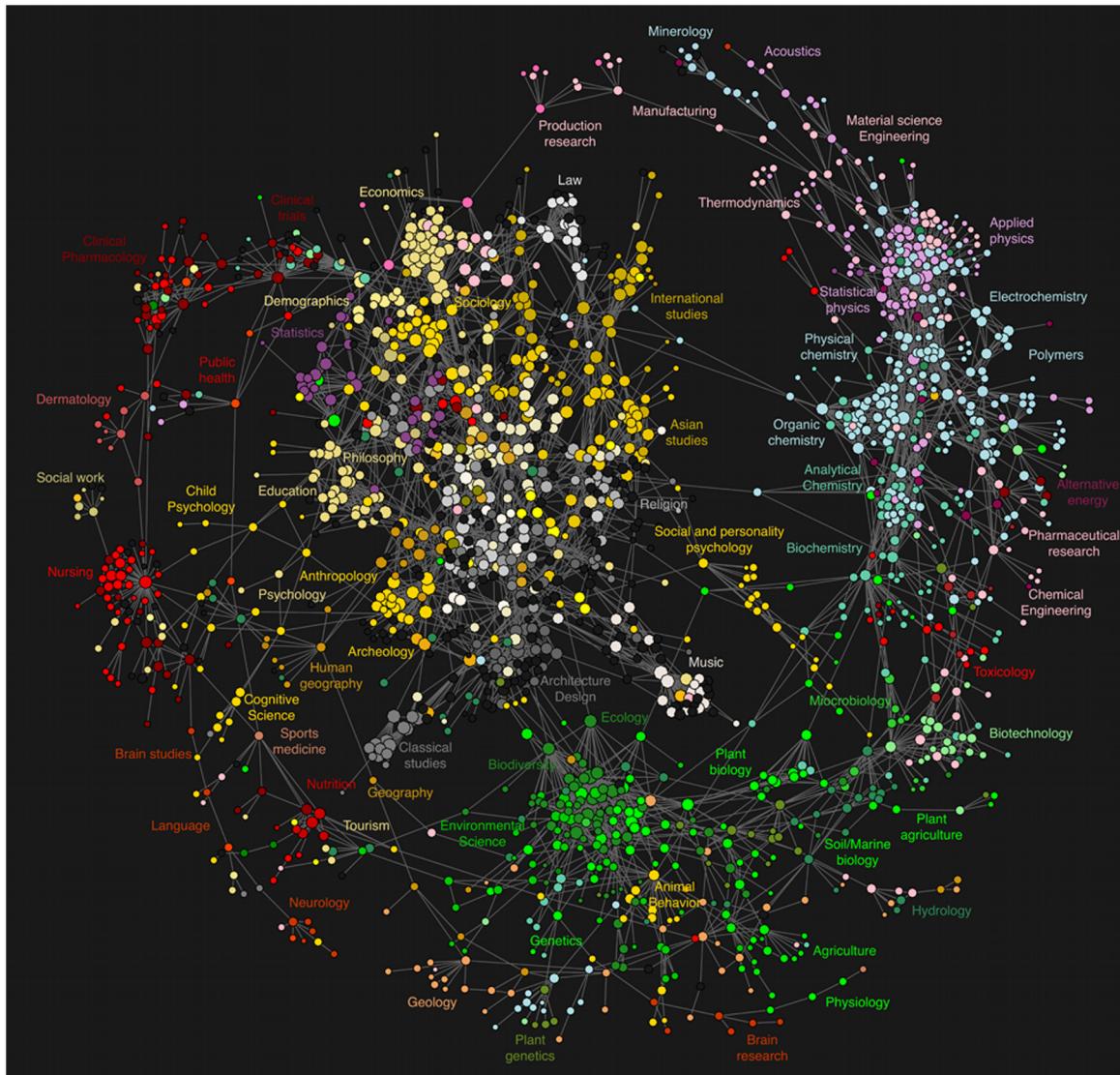


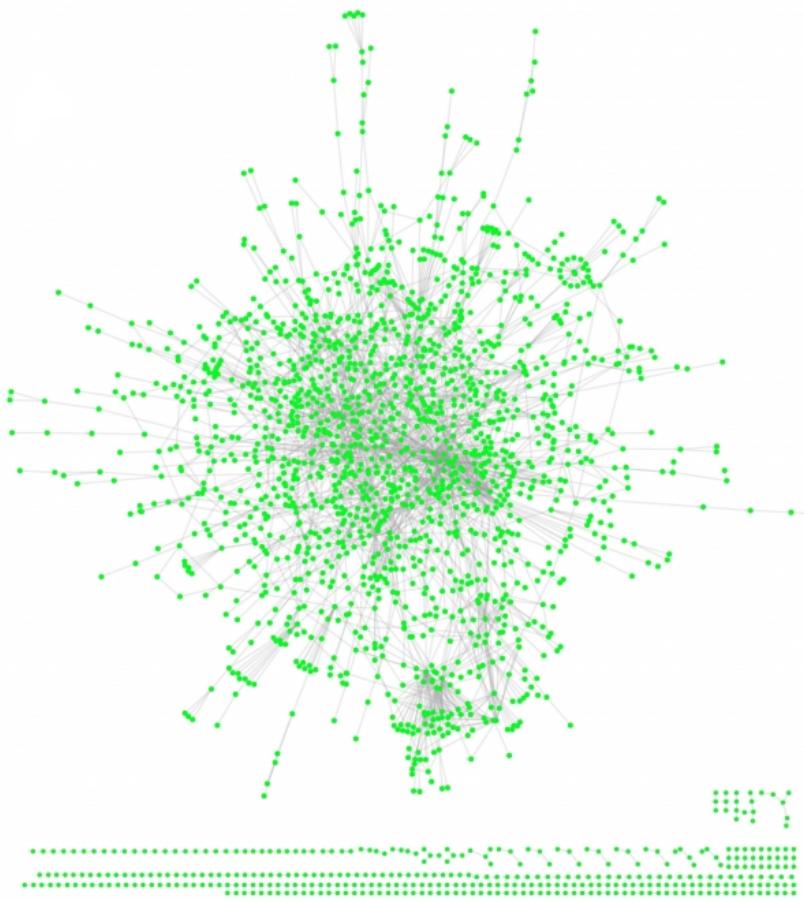
Image 2.4 and 2.7 from Barabasi's book

Globally sparse, locally dense



Structure of science based on readership (clickstream) data of scientific articles
<http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0004803>

Small world property



Compared to grid
advantages and
disadvantages

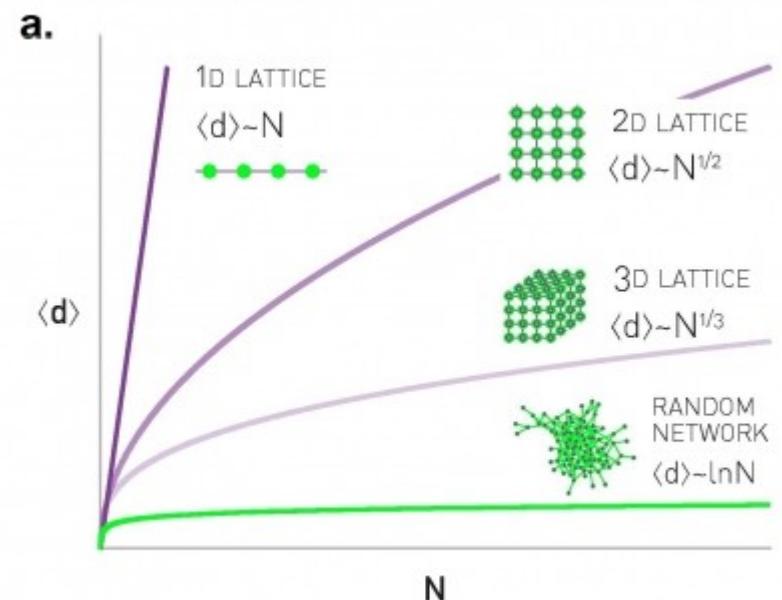


Image 3.11 from Barabasi's book

Degree distribution

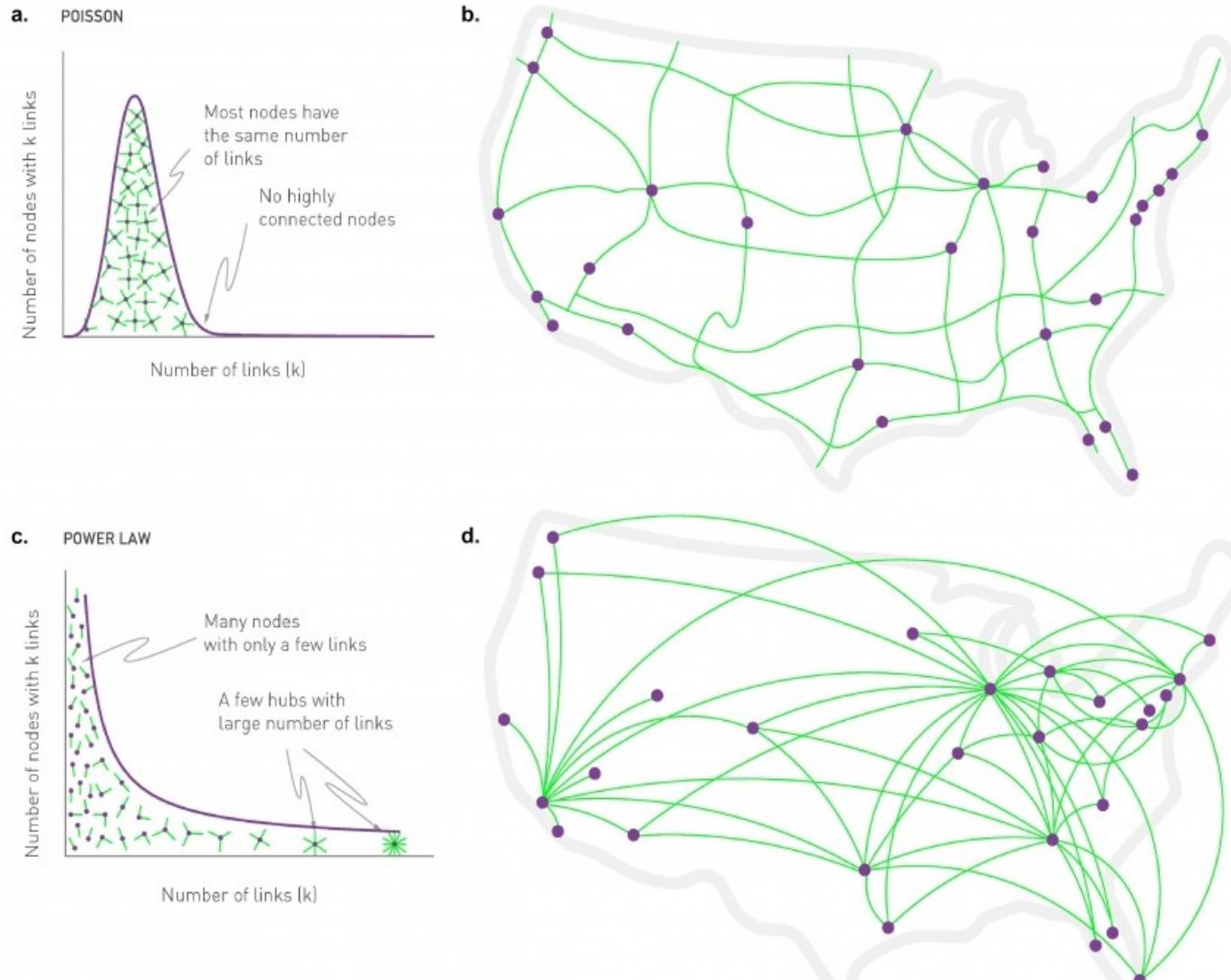
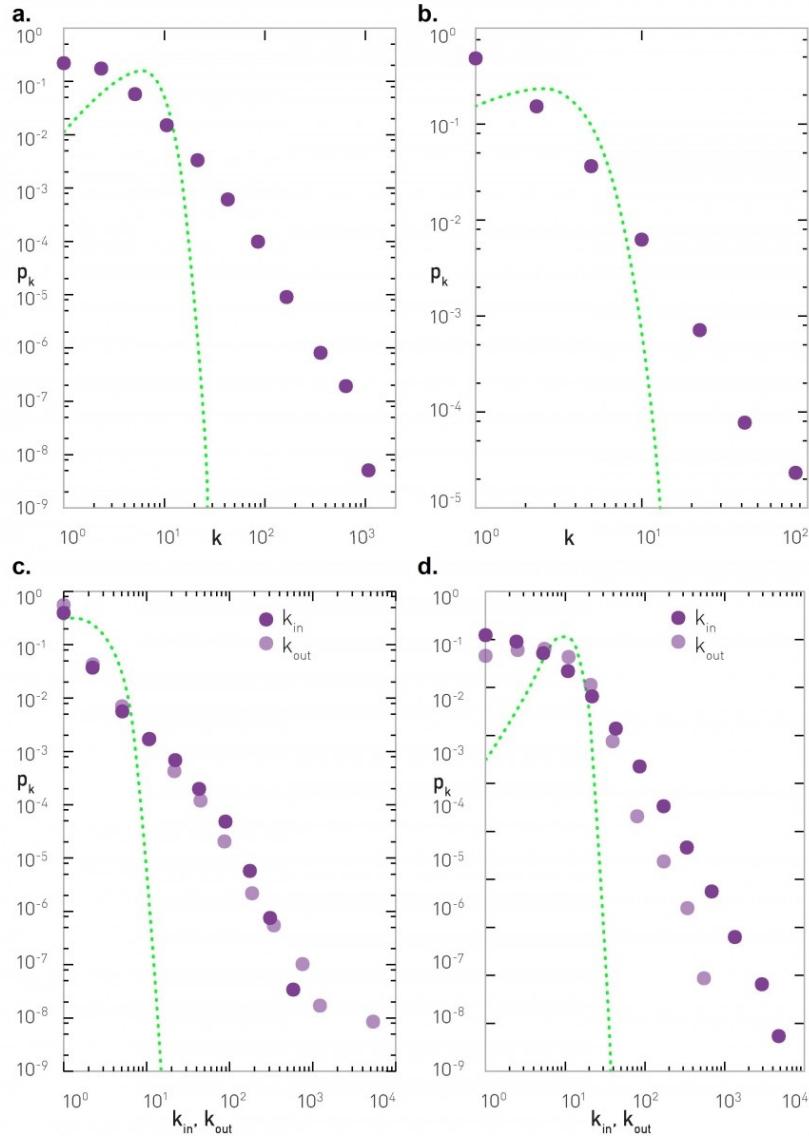


Image 4.6 from Barabasi's book

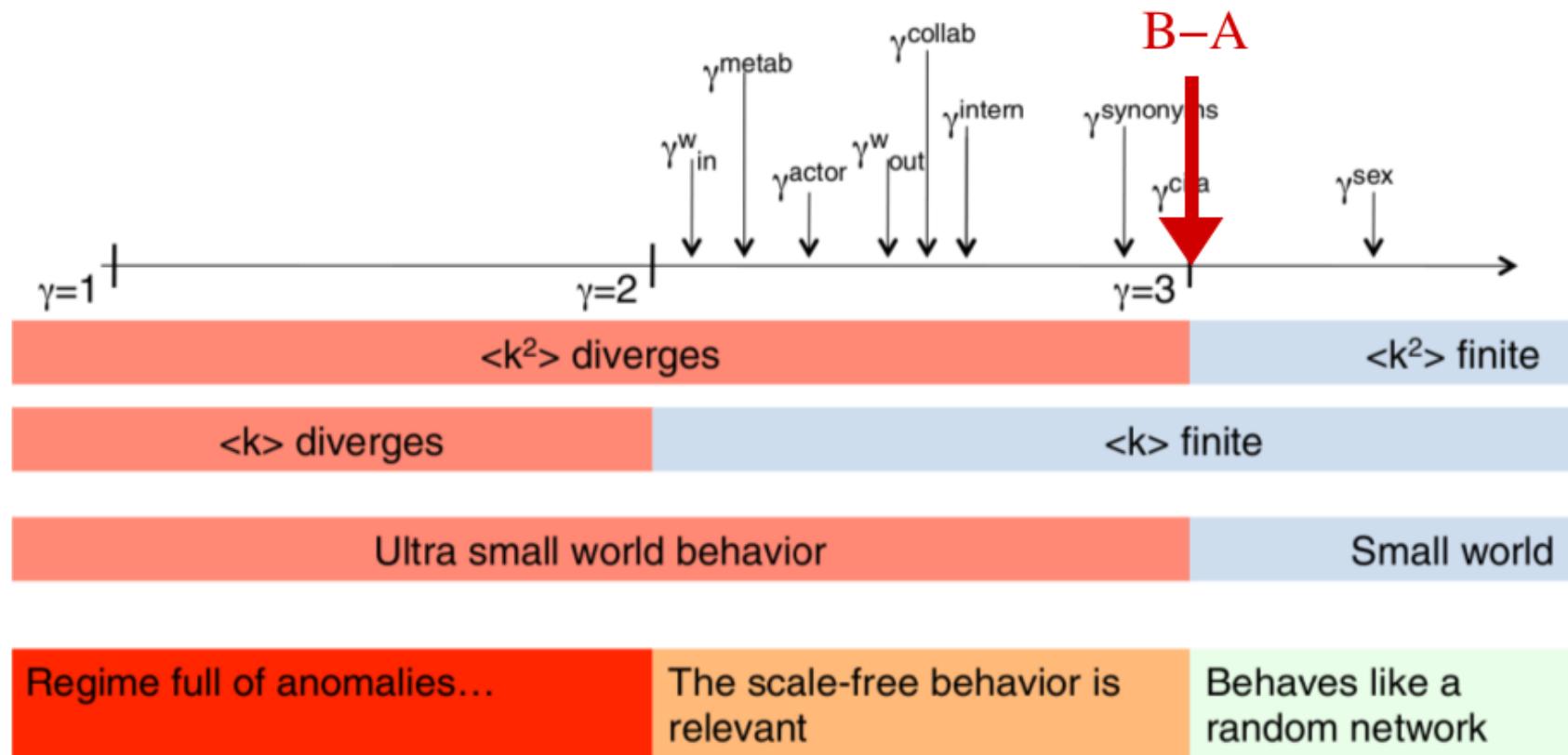
Degree distribution



- Four networks:
 - Internet routers
 - Protein interactions
 - Email network
 - Citation network of scientific articles
- Purple dots: network
- Green line: Poisson-distribution with same $\langle k \rangle$

Image 4.10 from Barabasi's book

Consequences of the distribution



From Barabási's slides

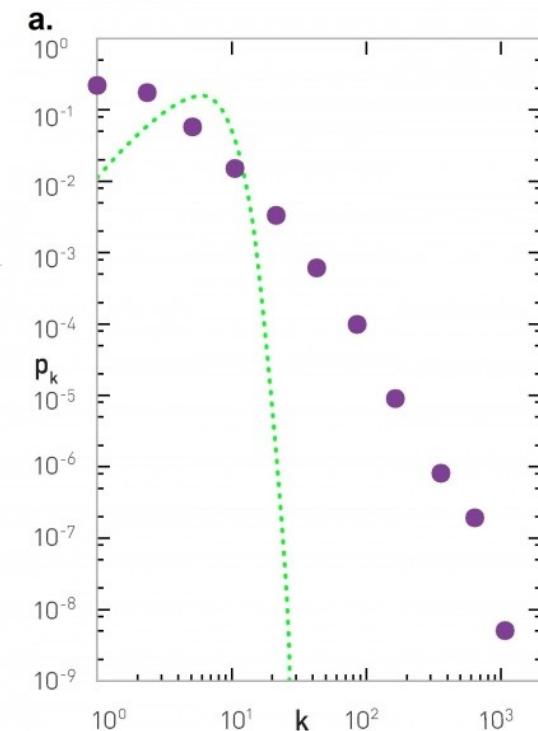
A warning

- Power law
- Scale-free
- Fat-tailed

	name	$f(x)$	distribution $p(x) = C f(x)$
continuous	power law	$x^{-\alpha}$	$(\alpha - 1)x_{\min}^{\alpha-1}$
	power law with cutoff	$x^{-\alpha}e^{-\lambda x}$	$\frac{\lambda^{1-\alpha}}{\Gamma(1-\alpha, \lambda x_{\min})}$
	exponential	$e^{-\lambda x}$	$\lambda e^{\lambda x_{\min}}$
	stretched exponential	$x^{\beta-1}e^{-\lambda x^\beta}$	$\beta \lambda e^{\lambda x_{\min}^\beta}$
	log-normal	$\frac{1}{x} \exp\left[-\frac{(\ln x - \mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right]$	$\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi\sigma^2}} \left[\operatorname{erfc}\left(\frac{\ln x_{\min} - \mu}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}\right)\right]^{-1}$
discrete	power law	$x^{-\alpha}$	$1/\zeta(\alpha, x_{\min})$
	Yule distribution	$\frac{\Gamma(x)}{\Gamma(x+\alpha)}$	$(\alpha - 1) \frac{\Gamma(x_{\min} + \alpha - 1)}{\Gamma(x_{\min})}$
	exponential	$e^{-\lambda x}$	$(1 - e^{-\lambda}) e^{\lambda x_{\min}}$
	Poisson	$\mu^x / x!$	$\left[e^\mu - \sum_{k=0}^{x_{\min}-1} \frac{\mu^k}{k!}\right]^{-1}$

TABLE 2.1

Table from:
<http://tuvalu.santafe.edu/~aaronc/powerlaws/>



What wasn't visible on these slides

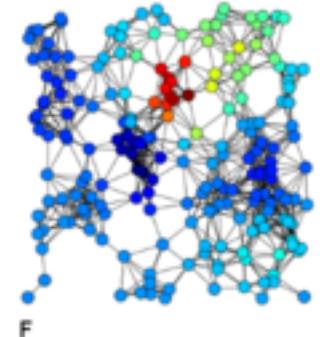
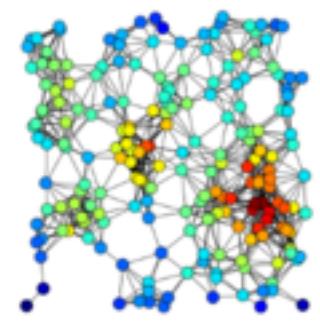
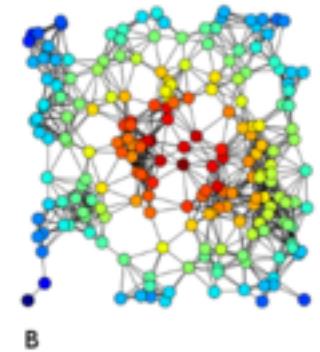
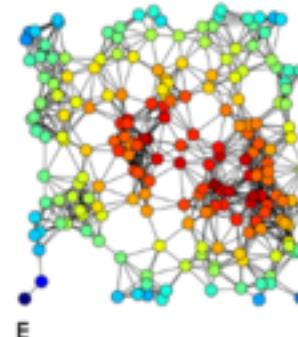
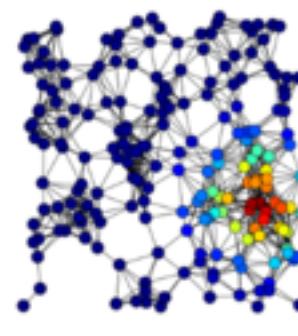
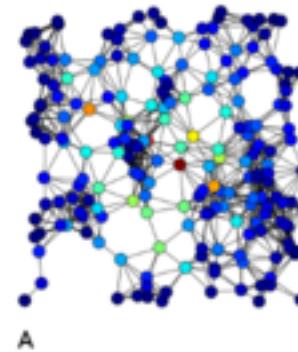
- Dirty data, artifacts
- “you get what you pay for”
- Network analysis is more sensitive to data cleaning than other methods
- But: for data analysis, less of a difference between “artifact” and “interesting phenomena”

Quantities

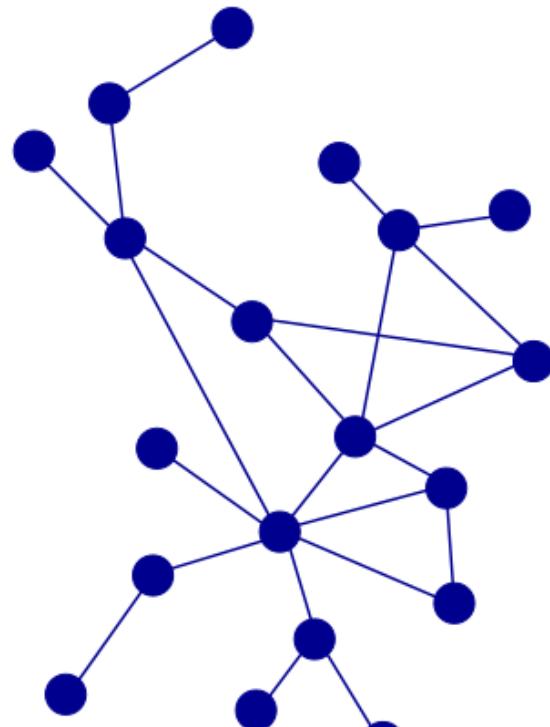
- Degree – directed (in- & out-), weighted (strength)
- Edges → Degree correlation (assortativity)
- Triangles → clustering coefficient
- Shortest paths → betweeness
 - Geodetic vs. random paths
- Whole network – degree, distribution

Various centrality measures

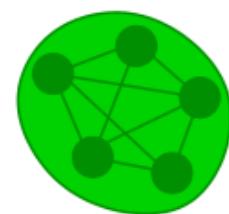
- A) Betweenness centrality
- B) Closeness centrality
- C) Eigenvector centrality
- D) Degree centrality
- E) Harmonic Centrality
- F) Katz centrality



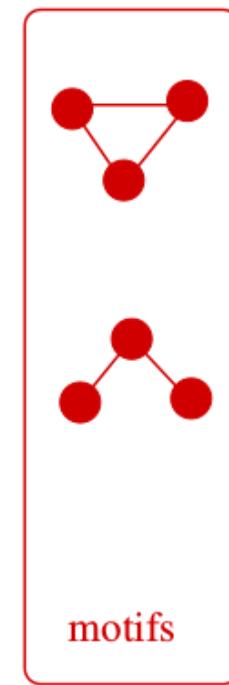
Scales



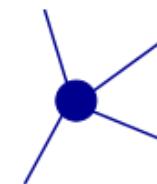
whole network: $p(k), \langle l \rangle$



communities

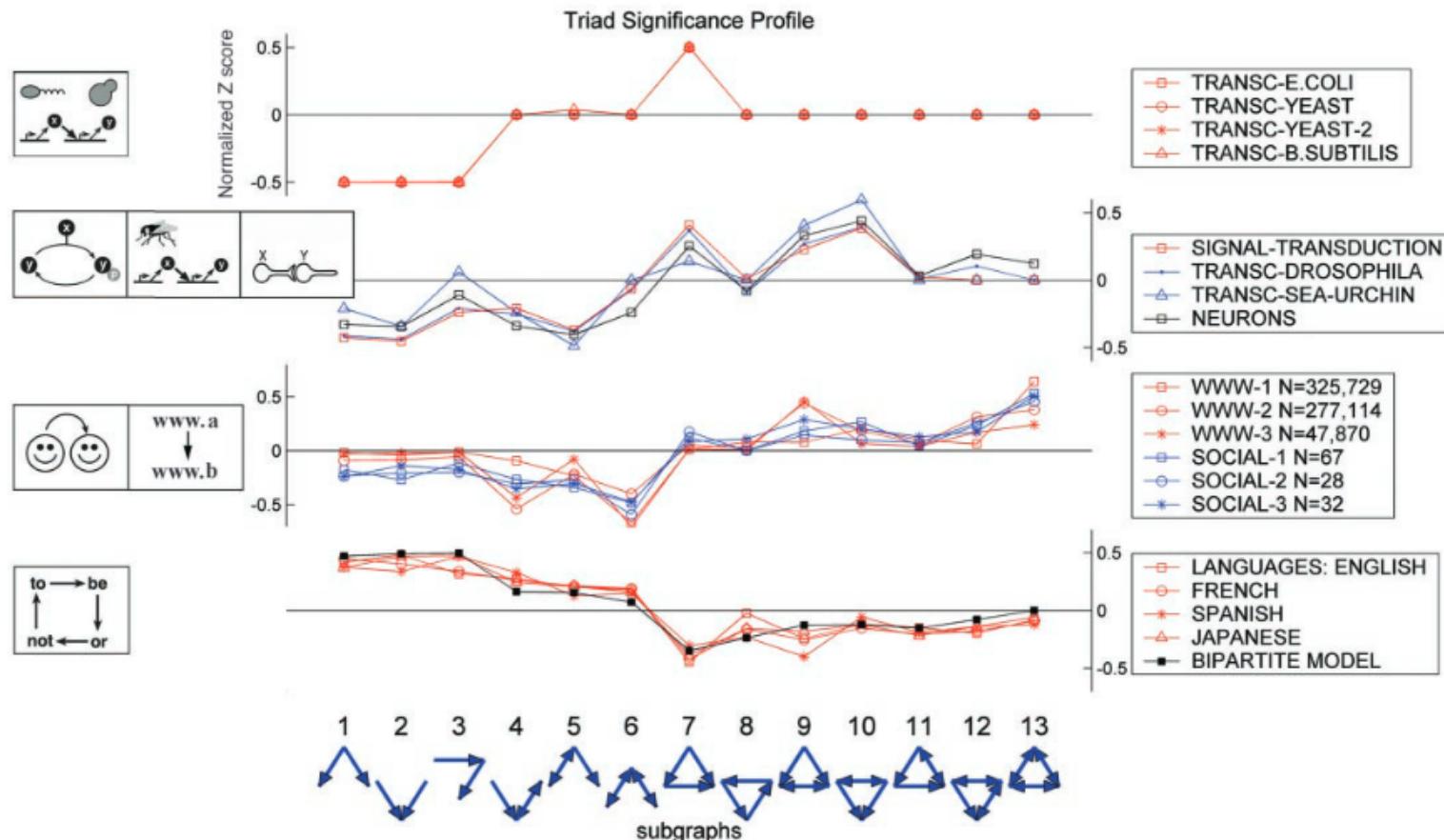


motifs



individual nodes: k_i, c_i

Motifs



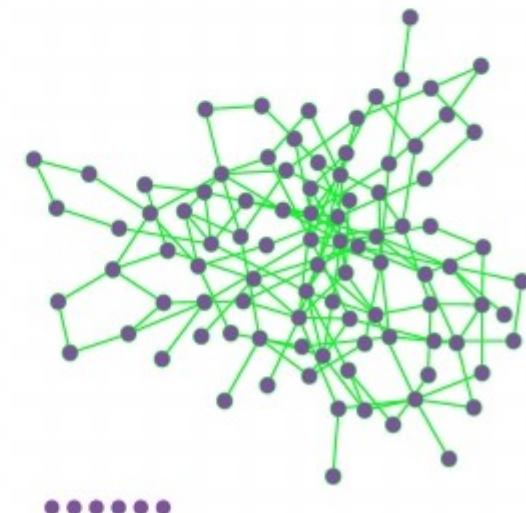
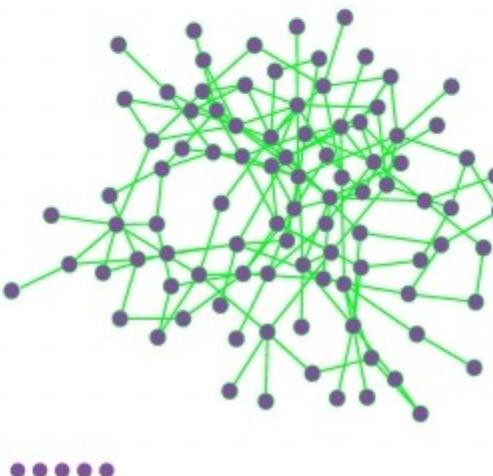
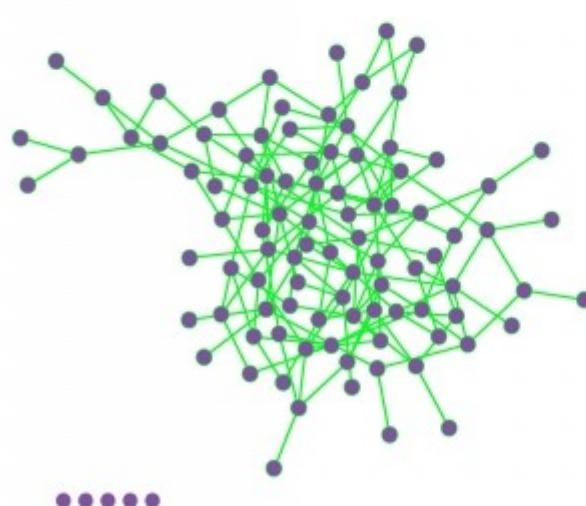
Milo, R; Itzkovitz, S; Kashtan, N; Levitt, R; Shen-Orr, S; Ayzenstat, I; Sheffer, M; Alon, U
 Superfamilies of Evolved and Designed Networks
 Science , (2004)

Random models

- Qualitative model: what are the fundamental mechanisms?
- Quantitative model: act as reference

Erdős-Rényi model

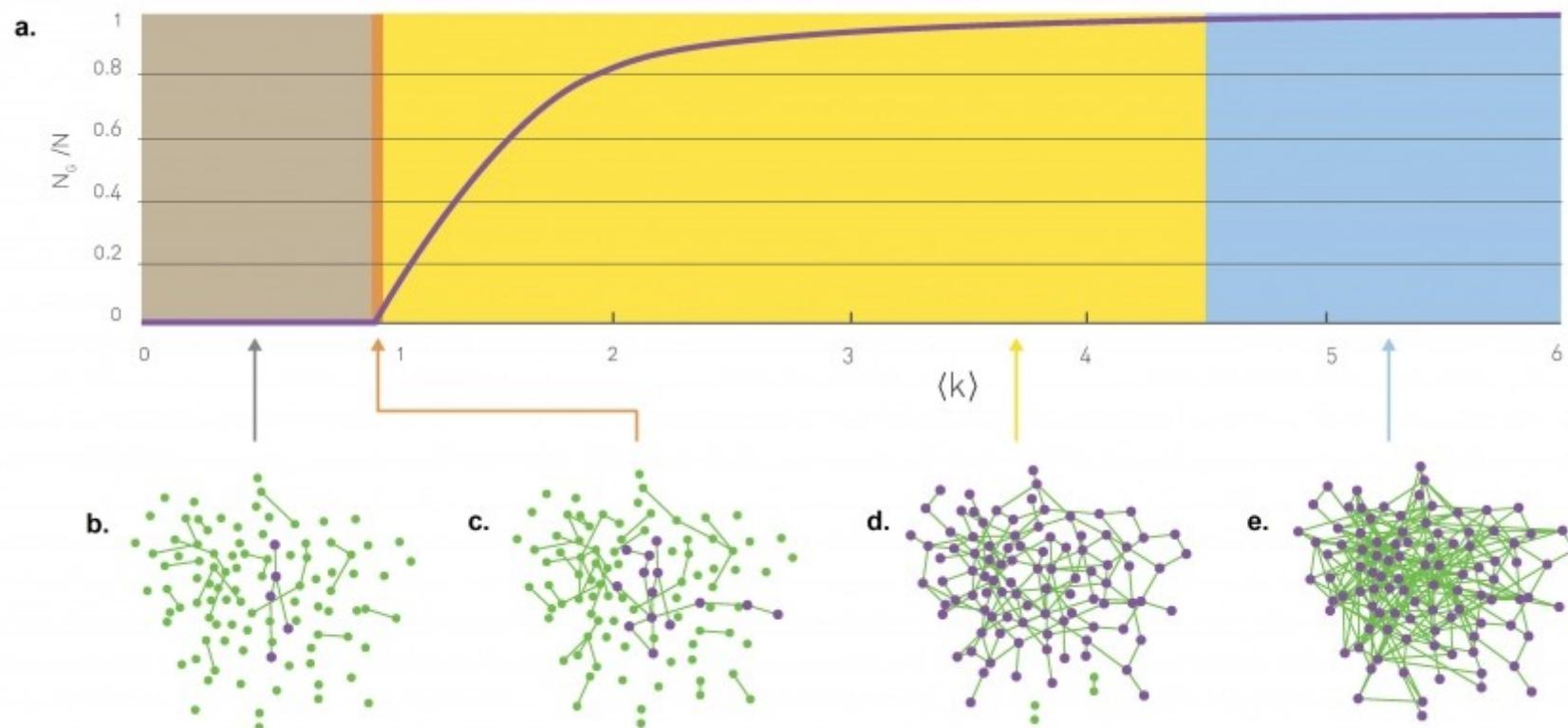
- N nodes and:
 - M edges
 - or:
 - Every pair of nodes connected with p probability



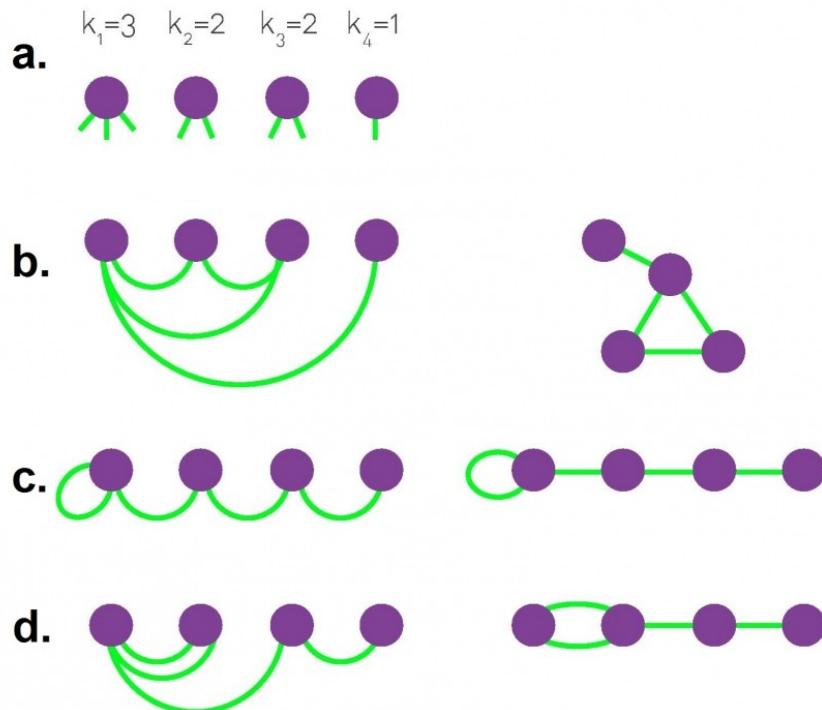
N=100, p=0.03 – Image 3.3 from Barabási's book

Erdős-Rényi model

- If adding edges one by one: percolation



Configuration model: given degrees



- Nodes & edge ends
- Connecting edge ends
- (not all sequences suitable)

Image 4.15 from Barabási's book

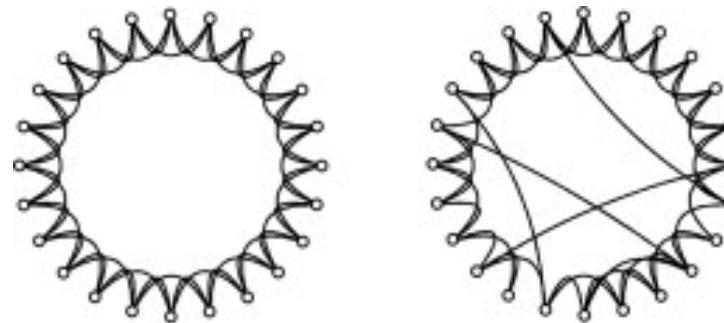
Watts-Strogatz – small world

- Ring, close neighbors connected



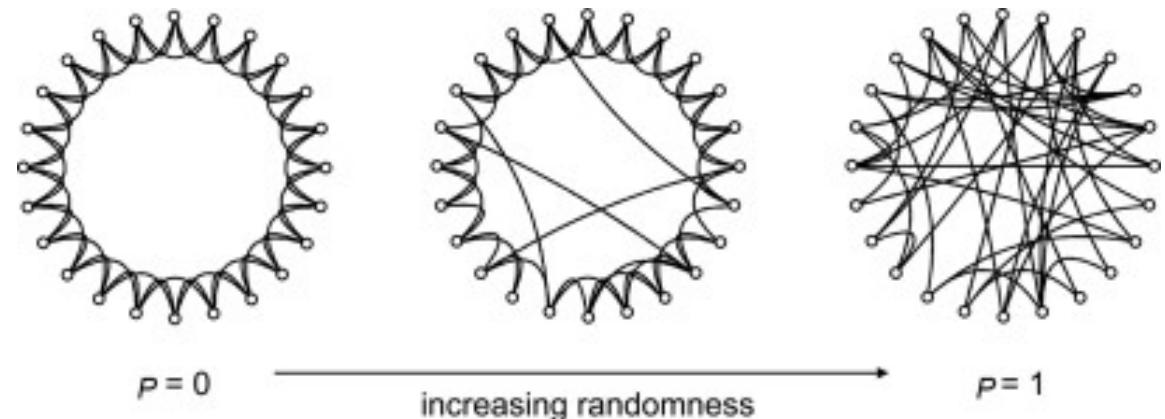
Watts-Strogatz – small world

- Ring, close neighbors connected
- Randomly move edges



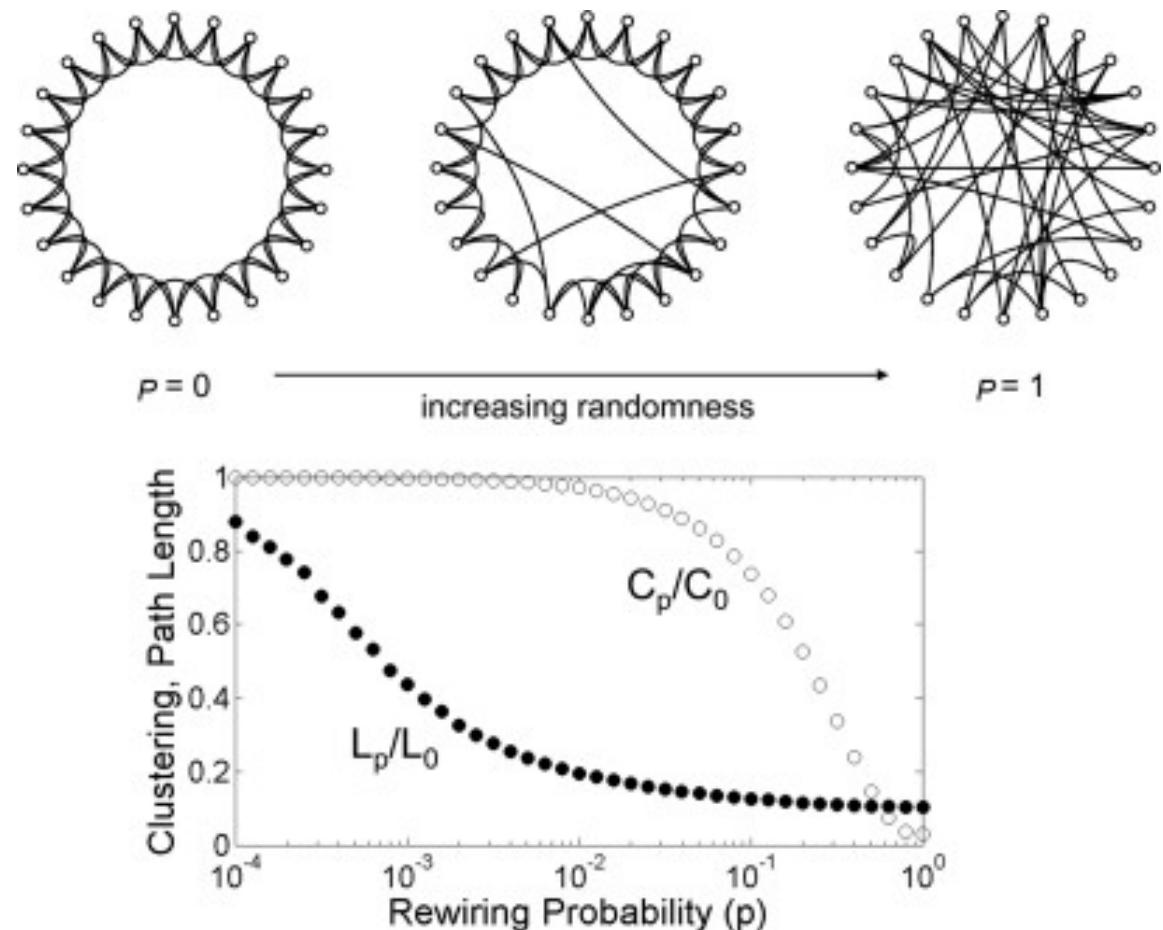
Watts-Strogatz – small world

- Ring, close neighbors connected
- Randomly move edges
- At end: essentially Erdős-Rényi network



Watts-Strogatz – small world

- Ring, close neighbors connected
- Randomly move edges
- At end: essentially Erdős-Rényi network
- Interim state: high clustering, low diameter



Barabási-Albert model

Growth process – preferential attachment

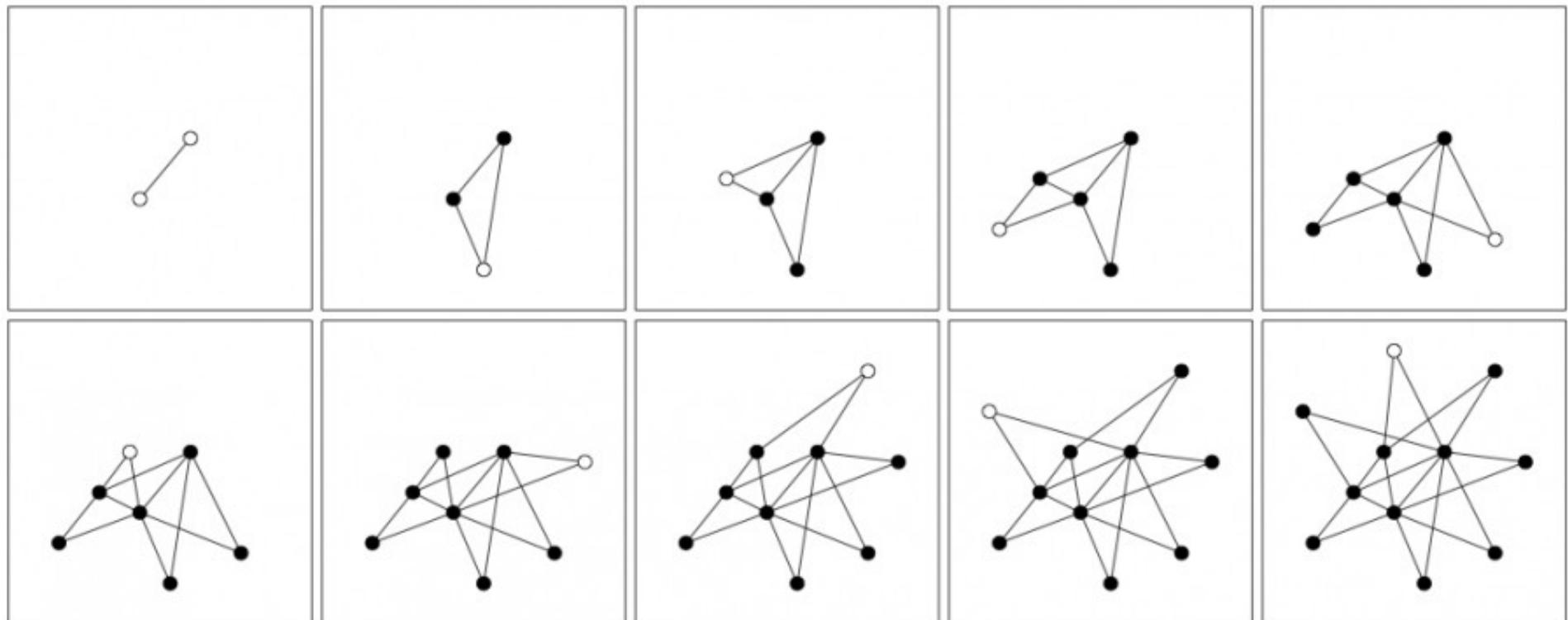


Image 5.3 from Barabási's book

Random models – how to use them?

- Consider parameters
- Use as large network as possible
- Average over multiple runs
(but one might be enough)

“create from scratch”

vs.

“randomizing existing data”

Other tools

- igraph – <http://igraph.org/>
 - C library, R, C++ and python wrapper
 - Harder to use than networkx, but more optimized
- Gephi – <http://gephi.org>
 - Very similar to cytoscape (Java desktop app, plugin-system)
- Neo4j – <http://neo4j.org>
 - Graph database, not “graph compute engine”
 - Not needed for small data
- Distributed parallel computation systems
 - Graphx (<https://spark.apache.org/graphx/>)
 - Giraph (<http://giraph.apache.org/>)
 - Etc.

DEMO

Egy matematikai eredmény levezetése

Section 5.13

Advanced Topic 4.A

Deriving the Degree Distribution

A number of analytical techniques are available to calculate the exact form of the degree exponent (5.11). Next we derive it using the rate equation approach [12, 13]. The method is sufficiently general to help explore the properties of a wide range of growing networks. Consequently, the calculations described here are of direct relevance for many systems, from models pertaining to the WWW [16, 17, 18] to describing the evolution of the protein interaction network via gene duplication [19, 20].

Let us denote with $N(k,t)$ the number of nodes with degree k at time t . The degree distribution $p_k(t)$ relates to this quantity via $p_k(t) = N(k,t)/N(t)$. Since at each time-step we add a new node to the network, we have $N \approx t$. That is, at any moment the total number of nodes equals the number of timesteps (BOX 5.2).

We write preferential attachment as

$$\Pi(k) = \frac{k}{2nt} = \frac{k}{2nt} \quad (5.31)$$

where the $2nt$ term captures the fact that in an undirected network each link contributes to the degree of two nodes. Our goal is to calculate the changes in the number of nodes with degree k after a new node is added to the network. For this we inspect the two events that alter $N(k,t)$ and $p_k(t)$ following the arrival of a new node:

- A new node can link to a degree- k node, turning it into a degree $(k+1)$ node, hence *decreasing* $N(k,t)$.
- A new node can link to a degree- $(k-1)$ node, turning it into a degree k node, hence *increasing* $N(k,t)$.

The number of links that are expected to connect to degree k nodes after the arrival of a new node is

$$\frac{2nt}{2} \times Np_k(t) \times m = \frac{1}{2} p_k(t) \quad (5.32)$$

In (5.32) the first term the l.h.s. captures the probability that the new node will link to a degree- k node (preferential attachment); the second term provides the total number of nodes with degree k , as the more nodes are in this category, the higher the chance that a new node will attach to one of them; the third term is the degree of the incoming node, as the higher is m , the higher is the chance that the new node will link to a degree- k node. We next apply (5.32) to cases (i) and (ii) above:

- The number of degree k nodes that acquire a new link and turn into $(k+1)$ degree nodes is $\frac{1}{2} p_k(t)$ (5.33)
- The number of degree $(k-1)$ nodes that acquire a new link, increasing their degree to k is $\frac{k-1}{2} p_{k-1}(t)$ (5.34)

Combining (5.33) and (5.34) we obtain the expected number of degree- k nodes after the addition of a new node

$$(N+1)p_k(t+1) = Np_k(t) + \frac{k-1}{2} p_{k-1}(t) - \frac{1}{2} p_k(t) \quad (5.35)$$

This equation applies to all nodes with degree $k > m$. As we lack nodes with degree $k=0, 1, \dots, m-1$ in the network (each new node arrives with degree m) we need a separate equation for degree- m nodes. Following the same arguments we used to derive (5.35), we obtain

$$(N+1)p_m(t+1) = Np_m(t) + 1 - \frac{m}{2} p_m(t) \quad (5.36)$$

Equations (5.35) and (5.36) are the starting point of the recursive process that provides p_k . Let us use the fact that we are looking for a stationary degree distribution, an expectation supported by numerical simulations (IMAGE 5.6). This means that in the $N = t \rightarrow \infty$ limit, $p_k(\infty) = p_k$. Using this we can write the l.h.s. of (5.35) and (5.36) as

$$(N+1)p_k(t+1) - Np_k(t) \rightarrow Np_k(\infty) + p_k(\infty) - Np_k(\infty) = p_k(\infty) = p_k, \quad (5.37)$$

Therefore the equations (5.35) and (5.36) take the form:

$$p_{k-1} - \frac{k-1}{2} p_{k-1} \quad k > m \quad (5.37)$$

$p_m = \frac{m}{m+2} p_m \quad (5.38)$

Note that (5.37) can be rewritten as

$$p_{k-1} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{k}{n} p_k \quad (5.39)$$

via a $k \rightarrow k+1$ variable change.

We use a recursive approach to obtain the degree distribution. That is, we write the degree distribution for the smallest degree, $k=m$, using (5.38) and then use (5.39) to calculate p_k for the higher degrees:

$$p_{m+1} = \frac{m}{m+2} p_m = \frac{2m}{(m+2)(m+3)} \quad (5.40)$$

$$p_{m+2} = \frac{m+1}{m+3} p_{m+1} = \frac{2m(m+1)}{(m+2)(m+3)(m+4)} \quad (5.40)$$

$$p_{m+3} = \frac{m+2}{m+4} p_{m+2} = \frac{2m(m+1)(m+2)}{(m+2)(m+3)(m+4)(m+5)} \quad (5.41)$$

At this point we notice a simple recursive pattern: By replacing in the denominator $m+3$ with k we obtain the probability to observe a node with degree k

$$p_k = \frac{2m(m+1)\dots(m+k-1)}{k(k+1)(k+2)} \quad (5.41)$$

which represents the exact form of the degree distribution of the Barabási-Albert model.

Note that:

• For large k (5.41) becomes $p_k \sim k^{-3}$, in agreement with the numerical result.

• The prefactor of (5.41) or (5.40) is different from the prefactor of (5.59).

• This form was derived independently in [12] and [13], and the exact mathematical proof of its validity is provided in [10].

DEGREES OF A RANDOM GRAPH

201

2. THE MODEL

The description of the random graph process quoted above is rather imprecise. Here, the degree is not defined, nor is the degree of vertices initially there. In fact, the process is supposed to start with an empty set of vertices and edges. Then, the expected number of edges changing in a given step is δ , so consider a vertex v , the distribution of the number of edges incident to v is given by a binomial distribution with mean δ and variance $\delta(1-\delta)$. The edges are drawn uniformly at random among all possible edges connecting v to other vertices in the graph. Thus we should consider the precise model introduced in [5], which has been modified to allow for self-loops and multiple edges. The edges are drawn uniformly at random among all possible edges connecting v to other vertices in the graph. This means that if v has a self-loop, then δ is the probability that v has another self-loop. Now a vertex of degree d corresponds to d internal edges incident to v . The effect of adding a new edge is to add a new pair with an equal likelihood to the existing edges. The advantage of this description lies perhaps in that it gives us a simple way to calculate the probability that a randomly chosen edge connects two vertices v_i and v_j (i.e., we were $d_{ij} = 1$ in the total (plus self-loop) degree of the graph G).

We shall introduce such a random graph process (5.2) as follows: starting from the left, a range of indices up to and including the last right endpoint is read, and the corresponding edge is drawn uniformly at random among all possible edges connecting v_i and v_j . For the edges, suppose each pair i, j is given by a directed edge from the vertex corresponding to i to the vertex corresponding to j (corresponding to its left endpoint). Then d_{ij} has the same distribution as a random $\mathcal{U}[0, 1]$. The outcome of the i -th edge is drawn uniformly at random among all possible edges connecting v_i and v_{i+1} , and the i -th edge is drawn uniformly at random among all possible edges connecting v_i and v_{i-1} . The outcome of the i -th edge is drawn uniformly at random among all possible edges connecting v_i and v_{i+2} . This means that if v_i has a self-loop, then d_{ii} is the probability that v_i has another self-loop. Now a vertex of degree d corresponds to d internal edges incident to v . The effect of adding a new edge is to add a new pair with an equal likelihood to the existing edges. The advantage of this description lies perhaps in that it gives us a simple way to calculate the probability that a randomly chosen edge connects two vertices v_i and v_j (i.e., we were $d_{ij} = 1$ in the total (plus self-loop) degree of the graph G).

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3. THE DEGREES OF G^*

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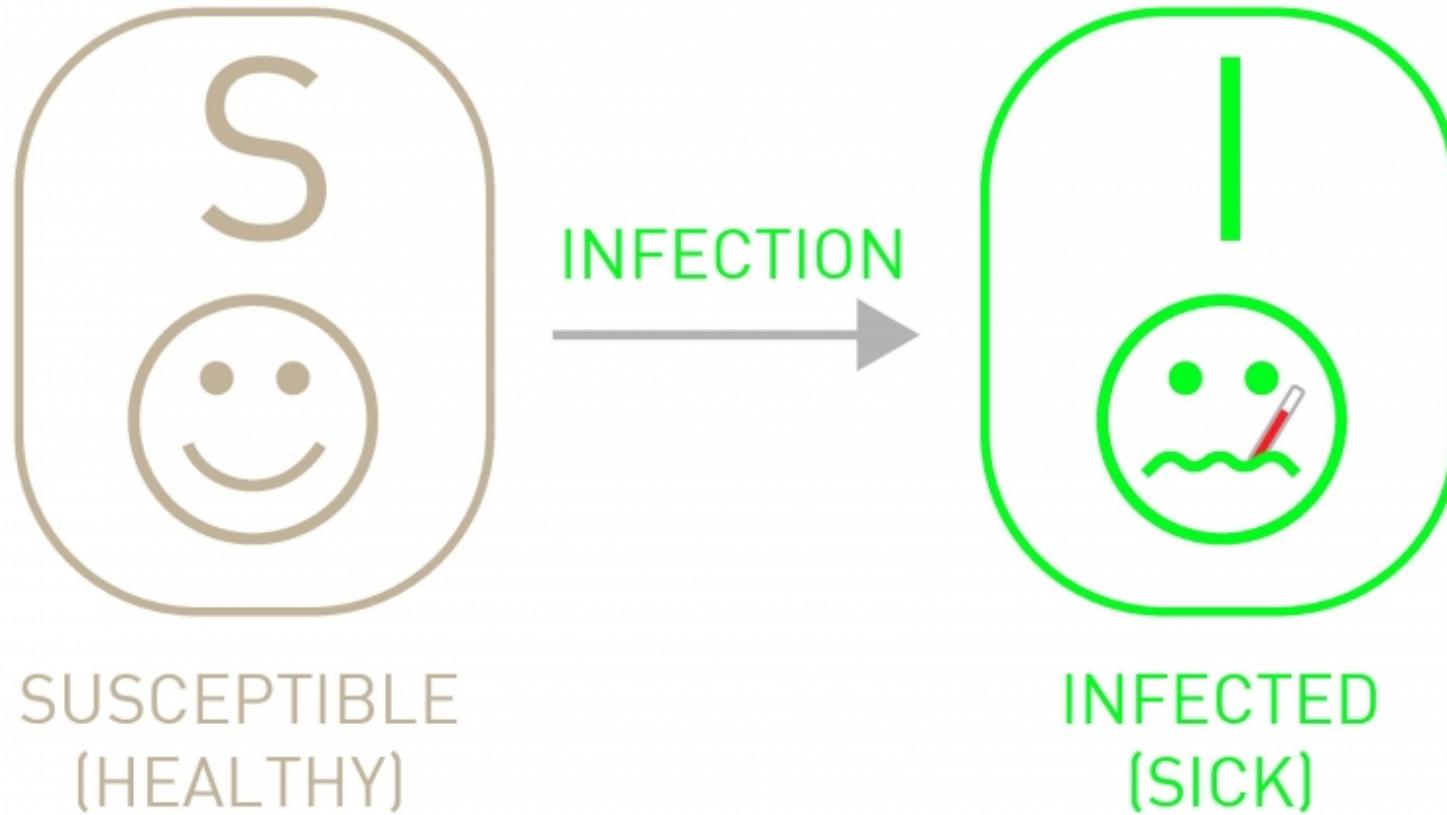
Modellezésről



Modellezésről

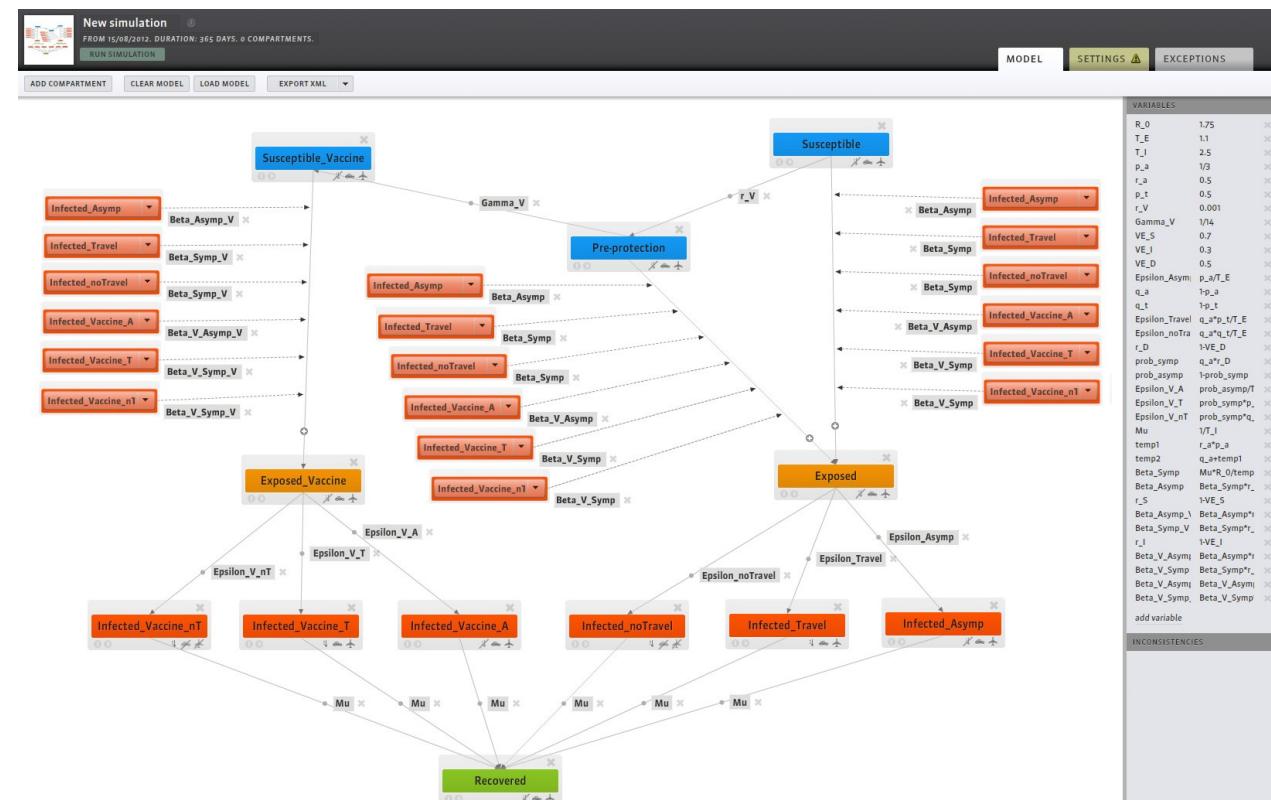
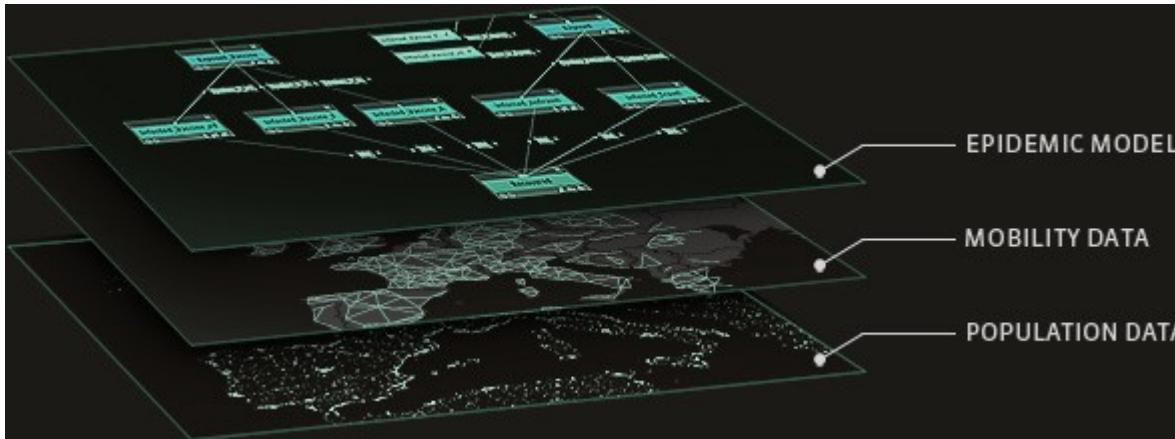
- Mi a cél?
 - Szimuláció – pontos, kvantitatív előrejelzés
 - kvalitatív modell – alaptulajdonságok megértése
- Neumann János: "With four parameters I can fit an elephant, and with five I can make him wiggle his trunk."
- Occam borotvája

Kvalitatív modell



Csúcsok S állapotból p valószinűséggel I állapotba

Kvantitatív szimuláció



<http://www.gleamviz.org/>

Adatelemzés folyamata: absztrakciós szintek

- 1) Komplex rendszer
- 2) Adat
- 3) Hálózat
- 4) Matematikai mennyiség
- 5) Értelmezett mennyiség
- 6) Konklúzió

Adatelemzés folyamata: absztrakciós szintek

- 1) Komplex rendszer
 - Bp-i tömegközlekedés
- 2) Adat
 - jármű-mozgások
- 3) Hálózat
 - megállók & utak
- 4) Matematikai mennyiség – fokszám
- 5) Értelmezett mennyiség – megálló fontossága
- 6) Konklúzió
 - hova érdemes először online kijelzőt rakni

Fázis-átmenetek, kritikus pontok, univerzalizás

- Ami a fizikusoknak érdekes

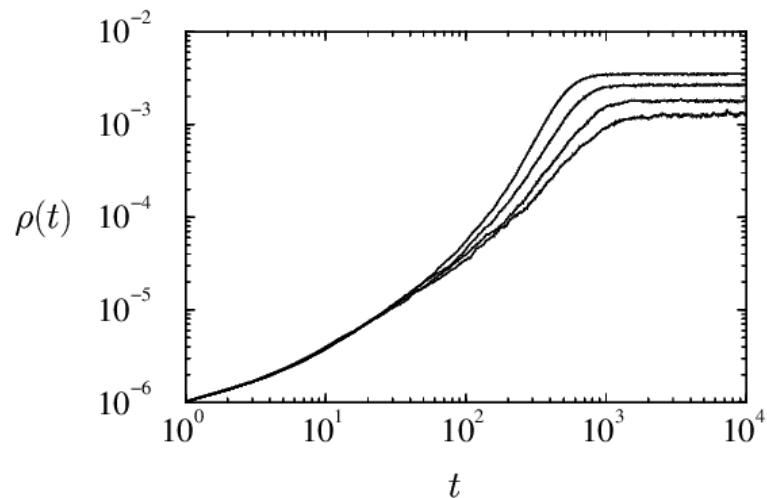


FIG. 3. Density of infected nodes $\rho(t)$ as a function of time in supercritical spreading experiments in the WS network. Network size $N = 1.5 \times 10^6$. Spreading rates range from $\lambda - \lambda_c = 0.002$ to 0.0007 (top to bottom).

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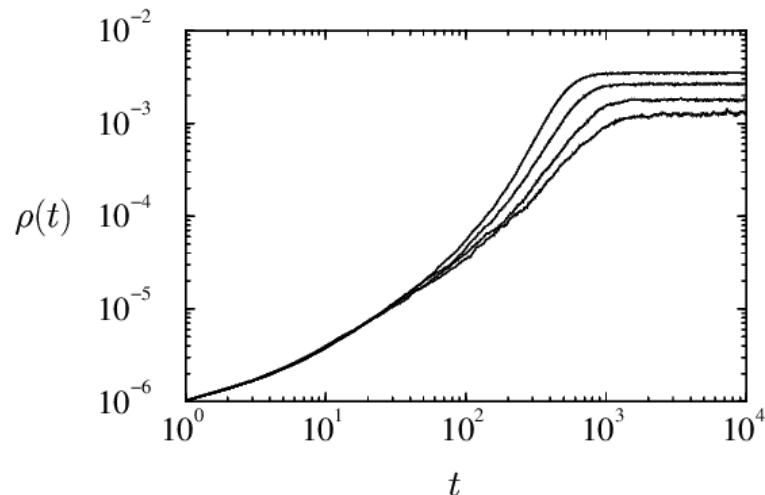


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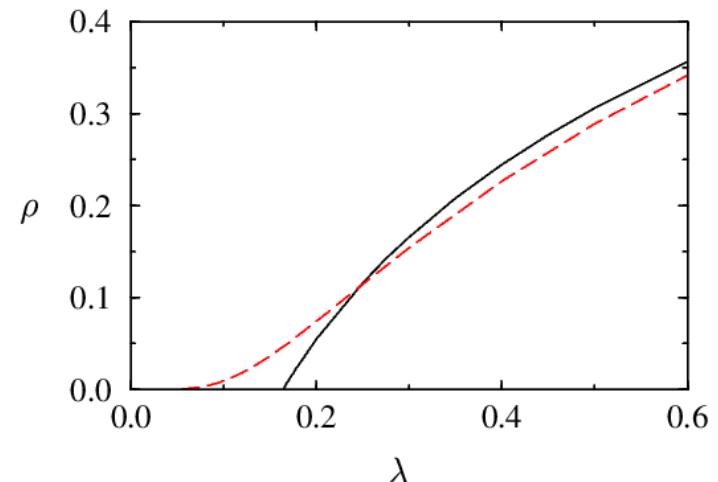
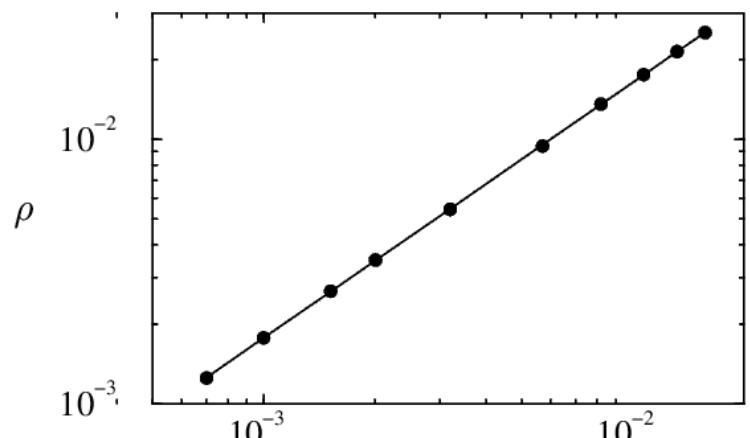


FIG. 1. Density of infected nodes ρ as a function of λ in the WS network (full line) and the BA network (dashed line).



Grafikus programok

- <http://cytoscape.org/>
- <https://gephi.org/>
- Import-hoz adatszerkezet: él lista (xlsx, csv)
- Továbbiak jövő héten