

Random Graphs and Networks - 1^o LECTURE

martedì 25 gennaio 2022 9:46

A. Introduction: real-world networks

Examples

- social networks (fb, twitter, ...)
- collaboration networks (scientists, actors, ...)
- internet / www
- telecommunication networks / Electrical power grids
- neural networks

↳ Deterministic structures: made by individuals and connections

$$\text{↳ } G = (V, E) \quad E \subset V \times V$$

Comment: though deterministic, they are huge and their detailed structure is unpredictable. However, one can achieve

- local structure (typical)
- global properties → connectivity, average distance between points

"Universal" behavior: many real-world networks display similar behavior

- small-world property → average distance btw points is very small
- scale-free property → # connections of an individual has no typical scale

↳ hence abstract models → random graphs.

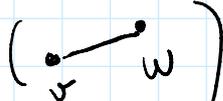
B. Graph setting

Definitions: $G = (V, E)$ where

... ..

Definitions: $G = (V, E)$ where

$$V = V(G), \quad E = E(G), \quad E = \{(v, w) : v, w \in V, i \neq j\}$$

- The edge $e = (v, w)$ is undirected 

It is possible to consider directed graph with edge-set $\vec{E} \ni \vec{e} = [v, w]$ 

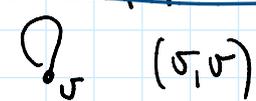
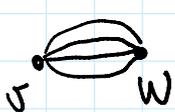
- v and w are neighbors if $(v, w) \in E(G) : v \sim w$
- $e_1, e_2 \in E$ are neighbors if incident to a common vertex , then we write $e_1 \sim e_2$.

- A path from v to w , $v, w \in V$, is a sequence $\gamma = (v_0, \dots, v_k)$ st. $v_0 = v, v_k = w$ and $v_j \sim v_{j+1} \quad \forall j = 0, \dots, k-1$ 

It can be viewed also as $\gamma = (e_1, \dots, e_k)$ where

$$e_j = (v_{j-1}, v_j) \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, k. \quad \text{Denoted as } \gamma: v \rightarrow w$$

- Length of a path $\gamma: v \rightarrow w$ is $|\gamma| = \# \text{ edges}$
- If $\exists \gamma: v \rightarrow w$, hence v and w are connected and write $v \leftrightarrow w$

- It is possible to consider also multigraphs G that may contain
 - loops:  (v, v)
 - multiple-edges 

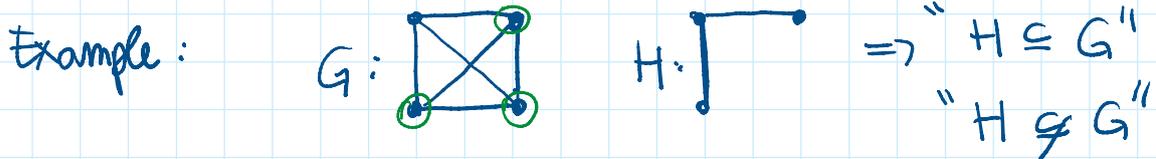
hence $E \subseteq V \times V$ with not necessarily distinct edges.

A multigraph without loop or multiple-edges is called a

A multigraph without loop or multiple-edges is called a simple graph.

- H is a subgraph of G ($H \subseteq G$) if $V(H) \subseteq V(G)$ and $E(H) \subseteq E(G|_{V(H)})$

When $E(H) = E(G|_{V(H)})$ then H is an induced sub-graph



- $\forall v \in V$, the degree of v is # neighbors of v :

$$d(v) \equiv d_G(v) = |\{w \in V : w \sim v\}|$$

Note: $\sum_{v \in V} d_G(v) = \sum_{v \in V} \sum_{w \in V} \mathbb{1}_{\{v \sim w\}} = 2|E|$

- $\forall v, w \in V$, their distance in G is:

$$\text{dist}_G(v, w) = \min_{\gamma: v \rightarrow w} |\gamma| \quad \text{with convention } \min \emptyset = +\infty$$

- $\text{diam}(G) = \max_{v, w \in V} \text{dist}_G(v, w)$, diameter of G

- $\forall v \in V$, the cluster of v in G :

$$\mathcal{C}(v) = \{w \in V : v \leftrightarrow w\}$$

- The longest component of G (though not unique)

is denoted \mathcal{C}_{\max} and is s.t

$$|\mathcal{C}_{\max}| = \max_{v \in V} |\mathcal{C}(v)|$$

ASSUMPTION: $V = [m] := \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$

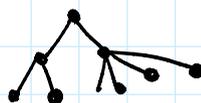
hence $E \subseteq E_m = \{(i, j) : i, j \in [m], i \neq j\}$

Example:

- The complete graph on $[m]$ is $K_m = ([m], E_m)$

Note $|E_m| = \binom{m}{2}$

- A tree (graph) over $[m]$ is st. $\forall i, j \in [m], i \neq j$
 \exists a unique path $\gamma: i \rightarrow j$. Hence it is connected
 and has no cycles:



Remember:

- $|E(\text{Tree on } [m])| = m-1$ (proof by induction)

- Cayley formula: $|\{\text{trees on } [m]\}| = m^{m-2}$

TOOL: To describe "typical properties" of a graph, we often consider the point of view of a vertex chosen u.r.t. in $[m]$. Let $U \stackrel{d}{\sim} \text{Uniform } [m]$.

For example: we can consider $d_G(U)$ and study its distribution: For $k \in \mathbb{N}$

$$P(d_G(U) = k) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j \in [m]} \mathbb{1}_{\{d_G(j) = k\}} = \frac{m_k}{m} = \text{proportion of vertices with degree } = k$$

empirical distribution of the vertex degree

C. Properties of real-world networks

1. large size \longrightarrow Consider sequence of graphs

$(G_m)_{m \in \mathbb{N}}$ of size m , and study the limit $m \rightarrow \infty$

2. Sparsity: it means that $|E(G_m)| = \mathcal{O}(m)$.

In other words, that the vertex-degree is "typically" finite

indep. of m . \longrightarrow Formally, we will often look at the following convergence:

$$P(d_{G_m}(U) = k) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j \in [m]} \mathbb{1}_{\{d_{G_m}(j) = k\}} \xrightarrow{m \rightarrow \infty} P_k, \quad k \in \mathbb{N} \quad (1)$$

where $(P_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a probability density ($\sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} P_k = 1$)

with finite average μ . This is equivalent to say

$$d_{G_m}(U) \xrightarrow{m \rightarrow \infty} D, \quad D \stackrel{d}{\sim} (P_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}.$$

Indeed: $|E(G_m)| = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j \in [m]} d_{G_m}(j) = \frac{m}{2} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} k \cdot \left(\frac{m_k}{m}\right) = P(d_{G_m}(U) = k)$

$$\stackrel{\text{by (1)}}{\approx} \frac{m}{2} \sum_{k \in \mathbb{N}} k \cdot P_k = \frac{m}{2} \mu$$

\longrightarrow sparse behavior.

3. highly connected: there is a component of size $\mathcal{O}(m)$.

\longrightarrow It amounts to verify: $\frac{|C_{\max}|}{m} \xrightarrow{m \rightarrow \infty} c > 0$

(or at least $\liminf_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|C_{\max}|}{m} > 0$)

(or at least $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{c_{\max}}{n} \rightarrow 0$)

4. Scale-free property: vertex-degrees have no typical scale
→ it requires the analysis of $d_{\text{in}}(U)$, and it is modeled by power-law distributions.

Def: A real r.v. $X \geq 0$ has power-law distr. with exponent $\tau > 1$ if

$$\underline{P(X \geq x)} \approx c \cdot x^{-(\tau-1)}, \quad c > 0, \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty$$

Formally: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log P(X \geq x)}{\log(\frac{1}{x})} = \tau - 1$

- If X has a density (discrete or cont.) f_x , we can equivalently say that $f_x(x) \approx c \cdot x^{-\tau}$, as $x \rightarrow \infty$

Formally: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log f_x(x)}{\log(\frac{1}{x})} = \tau$

Remark: Notice that $\forall a \geq \tau - 1$

$$E(X^a) = +\infty \quad \left(= \int_0^{+\infty} x^a \cdot f_x(x) dx \leq \int_{x_0}^{+\infty} x^{a-\tau} dx = \infty \right)$$

Hence in general we will have to verify that

$$d_{\text{in}}(U) \xrightarrow{d} D \quad \text{st.}$$

$$P(D=k) = P_k \quad (\text{as in (1)}) \quad \text{with } (P_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}} \text{ s.t.}$$

$$P(D \geq k) = \sum_{j \geq k} P_j \approx c \cdot k^{-(\tau-1)},$$

∴ Small-world: "typical distance" between vertices is very small w.r.t. $n \rightarrow$ Take $U_1, U_2 \stackrel{d}{\sim} \text{Uniform}[n]$, independent, anal study $d_{G_n}(U_1, U_2)$

Def: $(G_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is small-world if $\exists k \in (0, \infty)$ s.t.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(d_{G_n}(U_1, U_2) \leq k \log n) = 1$$

Notice: $\lg 10^6 = 6 \lg 10$; $\lg \lg 10^6 = 0,95$

↳ In some cases, one is interested in studying the ultra-small-world property:

$$P(d_{G_n}(U_1, U_2) \leq k \lg \lg n) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 1$$
