## Static Random Graphs

EE599: Social Network Systems

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### Overview

- Probability Review
- Static Random Models
  - Poisson random graphs (completely random)
  - The configuration model (specify the degree distribution)
    - Power-law degree distribution
  - The small world model (Watts-Strogatz)
  - Exponential and Markov models
- Growth models for random graphs

Start with purely random models and see what occurs.

Modify model to better represent real networks

# Primary References

### • Static models

- Newman, The Structure and Function of Complex Networks, SIAM REVIEW, Vol.45, No. 2, pp. 167–256, 2003. (terse and mathematical).
  - Sections IV, V, VI
- Jackson, Chapter 4. Similar to Newman.
- Barabasi, Chapters 3 & 4. Less mathematical, buggy.
- Models for growth of random networks
  - Newman, The Structure and Function of Complex Networks, SIAM REVIEW, Vol.45, No. 2, pp. 167–256, 2003.
    - Sections VII
  - Jackson, Chapter 5.
  - Barabasi, Chapters 5 & 6.

### Why Random Network Models?

- Serve as a benchmark
  - If random graph doesn't match real network data, then it points to systematic proerties in real data (e.g., triadic closure)
  - Even "bad" models can lend insight to some real-network properties
  - This can lead to better models
- Given an accurate model
  - Predict information diffusion, epidemic properties
  - Allow us to run "what if" scenarios by changing conditions that were present during the collection of real data
    - e.g., What if friend recommendation algorithm was different? How would a different corporate structure change our profitability?

# Probability Review Items

- Some important random variables
  - Bernoulli, Binomial, Poisson, Gaussian
- Bayes Law & Theorem of Total Probability
- Moments and (Moment) Generating Functions
- Linear MMSE estimation
- Statistics
  - Law of Large Numbers
  - Central Limit Theorem
  - Confidence Intervals
  - Linear Regression
- Markov Chains

#### **Reference:**

A. Leon-Garcia, Probability, Statistics, and Random Processes for Electrical Engineer- ing, 3rd Edition, Addison Wesley, 2012.

## Purely Random Network

- Poisson Random Networks
  - AKA: "Random Networks", Binomial Random Nets, Edos-Renyi Networks
  - Fixed:
    - N = number of nodes
    - p = probability that one of L\_max possible edges is present
    - (Degree distribution)
  - Random (varying)
    - L = number of links in graph
    - K\_i = degree of node i

# Purely Random Network

- Other methods to generate "purely random" networks
  - Fixed and deterministic:
    - N = number of nodes
    - L = number of links in graph
  - Random (varying)
    - K\_i = degree of node i
- This and model on previous slide yield largely the same results
  - Model from previous slide is typically adopted as statistical conclusions follow more directly

### N nodes

 $L_{\max} = \begin{pmatrix} N \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{N(N-1)}{2}$  potential edges

p = P("possible edge (successfully) connected")

q = 1 - p = P( "possible edge not (successfully) connected")

All edges connected (or not) independently (Bernoulli trials)

 $K \sim \text{Binomial}(N-1,p) \approx \text{Poisson}(\alpha = (N-1)p)$  Degree Distribution

 $L \sim \text{Binomial}(L_{\max}, p) \approx \text{Gaussian}(m = np, \sigma^2 = npq)$ 



- Ave. Degree ~ I
- No cycles
- A "large" component
- P(K=0) = 1/e = 37.5% = 18.75
- 19 isolated nodes observed in this realization



### This is one sample realization



Figure 1.5: Frequency Distribution of a Randomly Generated Network and the Poisson Approximation for a Probability of .02 on each Link Jackson

This is a sample degree distribution based on I realization.

If averaged over many realizations (or very large N) there will be excellent agreement

N=50



- Ave. Degree ~ 3.8
- Many cycles
- A "giant component"
- P(K=0) = exp(-3.8) = 0.022
- I isolated node observed in this realization

Figure 1.6: A Randomly Generated Network with Probability .08 of each Link  $_{\tt Jackson}$ 

### This is one sample realization





This is a sample degree distribution based on 1 realization.

If averaged over many realizations (or very large N) there will be excellent agreement

Table of t\_(alpha/2), such that  $P(T_v>t_(alpha/2))=alpha/2$  when  $T_v$  is standard T-distributed

confidence=1-alpha deg_of_freedom	0.5	0.8	0.9 alpha/2	0.95	0.98	0.99	
v = (n-1)	0 <u>.</u> 25	0.1	0.05	0.025	0.01	0.005	
Acido: cònfi		3.078	6.314	12,706	31.821	63.657	actimatas
Aside. Com	<b>Me</b>					9.9.4	estimates
	0.765	1 533	2.353	2 776	47541 3 747	5.871 4 604	
5	0.727	1.476	2.015	2.571	3.365	4.032	
6	0.718	1.440	1.943	2.447	3.143	3.707	
7	0.711	1.415	1.895	2.365	2.998	3.499	
8	0.706	1.397	1.860	2.306	2.896	3.355	
9	0.703	1.383	1.833	2.262	2.821	3.250	na
		1.372	1.812	2.228 2.201	$-\hat{\omega}^{2.764}$	≈ 3.169	pq
Gaussian approximation to		1.356	1.782	24179	$= p_{\bar{n}_{.681}}$	$2\alpha/2045/$	
13	0.694	1.350	1.771	2.160	2.650	3.01	n
14	0.692	1.345	1.761	2.145	2.624	2.977	
15	0.691	1.341	1.753	2.131	2.602	2.947	
16	0.690	1.337	1.746	2.120	2.583	2.921	
1/	0.689	1.333	1.740	2.110	2.56/	2.898	
10	0.688	1.328	1.729	2.093	2.532	$\hat{n}_{m}\hat{n}_{m861}$	$\int \hat{a}_{m}$
Possonably accurat <sup>20</sup> p. ost	1068700	1.325	1.725	$\hat{n}$ 2.086	~ 12.528	$\underline{P11910}^{\circ 1}$	$-\hat{n} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2$
Reasonably accurate p est		1.323	1. <b>#</b> 21	$Pn_{2.080}$	$\sim \alpha / 2.5$	$m^{2.831}$	$p_n \mid 1 \perp \alpha/2 \mid \mu \mid$
22	0.686	1.321	1.717	2.074	2.5 <b>0</b> /8	IL <sub>2.819</sub>	$\langle  \vee n \rangle$
23	0.685	1.319	1.714	2.069	2.500	2.807	
24	0.685	1.318	1.711	2.064	2.492	2.797	
25	0.684	1 315	1.706	2.000	2.405	2.787	
27	0.684	1.314	1.703	2.052	2.473	2.771	
28	0.683	1.313	1.701	2.048	2.467	2.763	
Example from last slide:	0.683	1.311	1.699	2.045	2.462	2.756	
LAIMPIE II OM IAST SIBOE.	0.683	1.310 p=	1.697	0.22042	2.457	2.750	
31	0.682	1.309	1.696	2.040	2.453	2.744	
32	0.682	1.309 1.308 Q=	1.094	$0.78_{035}$	2.449	2.730	$\sim$
34	0.682	1.307	1.691	2.032	2.441	2.728	
35	0.682	1.306 <sub>N-</sub>	1.690	50 2030	2.438	2.724	
36	0.681	1.306	1.688	2.028	2.434	2.719	%
37	0.681	1.305	1.687	2.026	2.431	2.715	
38	0.681	sqrt(pq/N)=	1.686	0.06024	2.429	2./12	2.5%
40	0.681	1.303	1.684	2.023	2.420	2.708	
infinity	0.674	1.282MOE=	1.645	0.11960	2.326	2.576	
			-				-1.96 1.96
Table of $\pi$ (alpha (2))	web that D/Z:	- (alaba (2)) -	laha (2har	7 :- 0		4	Z scores

Table of  $z_{alpha/2}$ , such that  $P(Z>z_{alpha/2})=alpha/2$  when Z is Gaussian, m=0, sigma=1

confidence=1-alpha	0.5	0.8	0.9	0.95	0.98	0.99
alpha/2=	0.25	0.1	0.05	0.025	0.01	0.005
z_(alpha/2)=	0.674	1.282	1.645	1.960	2.326	2.576

Figure 2: Table of values for  $t_{\alpha/2}(n-1)$  and  $z_{\alpha/2}$  for common values of confidence  $1-\alpha$ . Chugg, sample mean handout

# Asymptotic Thresholds

• Consider a property A of a graph and a Poisson graph with link formation probability p=p(N)



T(N) is a threshold (on p) for A

• Property A occurs with probability I asymptotically as long as p(N) grows as T(N) (and T(N) is the smallest such growth rate)

# Asymptotic Thresholds

- Why use this method of analysis?
  - Very difficult to determine specific probabilities for network properties exactly for a fixed value of N.
  - Often interested in very large values of N
  - Predicts "phase transitions"
    - Thresholds mark significant changes in qualitative properties of network



• Thresholds for certain connectivity patterns in Poisson graphs





\*

 $\frac{1}{N^{3/2}}$ 

0.0028

 $\frac{1}{N^2}$ 

0.0004

 $\frac{1}{N}$ 

0.02

 $\ln(N)$ 

N

0.078

FIGURE 4.4 A first component with more than two nodes: a random network on 50 nodes with p = .01. Jackson

### • Links & size 3 components



**FIGURE 4.5** Emergence of cycles: a random network on 50 nodes with p = .03. Jackson

"Giant component," many isolated nodes, and cycles





p=0.05

expected degree = 2.5



Jackson

Giant component with some isolated nodes

N	$\frac{1}{N^2}$	$\frac{1}{N^{3/2}}$	$\frac{1}{N}$	$\frac{\ln(N)}{N}$
50	0.0004	0.0028	0.02	0.078
				>

p=0.1

expected degree = 5



FIGURE 4.7 Emergence of connectedness: a random network on 50 nodes with p = .10. Jackson

Dense connectivity with no isolated nodes

### Phase Transitions for Poisson Networks

- Heuristic argument ("hand wave")
  - Probability a node is <u>not</u> in giant component: *u*

$$u = P(v \notin GC) = P(\text{All neighbors of } v \notin GC)$$
  
=  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P(\text{All neighbors of } v \notin GC | \text{degree}(v) = k) p_K(k)$   
=  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} u^k \frac{\alpha^k}{k!} e^{-\alpha}$   
=  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(u\alpha)^k}{k!} e^{-\alpha}$   
=  $e^{\alpha(u-1)}$ 

$$1 - u = S = 1 - e^{-\alpha S} \qquad \qquad \alpha = \frac{1}{S} \ln\left(\frac{1}{1 - S}\right)$$



FIG. 10 The mean component size (solid line), excluding the giant component if there is one, and the giant component size (dotted line), for the Poisson random graph, Eqs. (20) and (21).

Newman

• Emergence of the Giant Component:  $p(N) \sim I/N$  (alpha=I)

### Phase Transitions for Poisson Networks

 $P(\text{isolated node}) = e^{-\alpha} \approx \text{relative freq. of isolated nodes}$ 

$$e^{-\alpha} = \frac{1}{N} \implies p(N) \sim \frac{\log(N)}{N}$$

Emergence of the connectedness:
 p(N)~ log(N)/N



FIGURE 4.7 Emergence of connectedness: a random network on 50 nodes with p = .10.

Jackson

### Phase Transitions for Poisson Networks





(a) The relative size of the giant component in function of the average degree k in the Erdős-Rényi model.

(b)-(e) The main network characteristics in the four regimes that characterize a random network. Barabasi



• GC has many loops.



### Application: Contagion/Diffusion

- Consider modeling the spread of an epidemic with a simplified model
  - People are either completely immune or complete susceptible
  - A fraction  $\pi$  of the population is immune
- How severe will an outbreak be in this network if a single person is exposed?
- Generate a Poisson random net with N nodes, prob p
  - Remove a fraction  $\pi$  of the nodes and their links
  - Remaining network is the net of susceptible people
- The size of the outbreak is given by "S curve" of the net of susceptible people

### Application: Contagion/Diffusion



**FIGURE 4.8** Fraction of the susceptible population in the largest component of a Poisson random network as a function of the proportion of susceptible nodes  $1 - \pi$  times the link probability *p* times the population size *n*. Barabasi

• Also view as p, N fixed and varying  $\pi$  — "herd immunity"

### Most Real Networks are Supercritical

Network	N	L	<k></k>	In N
Internet	192,244	609,066	6.34	12.17
Power Grid	4,941	6,594	2.67	8.51
Science Collaboration	23,133	186,936	8.08	10.04
Actor Network	212,250	3,054,278	28.78	12.27
Yeast Protein Interactions	2,018	2,930	2.90	7.61

#### Table 3.1

#### Are real networks connected?

The number of nodes N and links L for several undirected networks, together with  $k_i$  and lnN. A giant component is expected for  $k_i > 1$  and all nodes should join the giant component for  $k_i \ge lnN$ . While for all networks  $k_i > 1$ , for most  $k_i$  is under the lnN threshold.

Barabasi



## Poisson Random Nets

- Does this model predict the characteristics of real networks (social nets in particular)
- Yes Giant Component
  - small world property?
  - degree distribution?
  - clustering?
- (No) homophily (assortative mixing)?
- (No) degree correlations?

?

?

?

## **Degree Distribution?**



Degree distribution of real networks.

The degree distribution of the Internet, science collaboration network, and the protein interaction network of yeast (<u>Table 2.1</u>). The dashed line corresponds to the Poisson prediction, obtained by measuring *k* for the real network and then plotting Eq. (8). The significant deviation between the data and the Poisson fit indicates that the random network model underestimates the size and the frequency of highly connected nodes, or hubs. Barabasi

#### Real networks have degree distributions with heavier tails than Poisson:

#### a small fraction of nodes have very high degree

- Cluster coefficient
  - Expected value of cluster coefficient is p=alpha/N
    - Number of closed triples is binomial(M\_i,p) with M\_i=L\_i choose 2

Poisson Model Predicts:

- For fixed average degree, clustering should fall as I/N
- Expected local cluster coefficient not a function of node degree
- (data shows both untrue)



Image 3.16 Clustering in real networks. Barabasi

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{C_i\right\} = \mathbb{E}\left\{C_{\text{ave}}\right\} = \mathbb{E}\left\{C_{\text{global}}\right\} = p \approx \frac{k_{\text{ave}}}{N}$$

- Does the small world property hold?
  - Consider a fixed-degree k and expand from a given node (similar arguments are given with k=average degree)



- Does the small world property hold?
  - More complicated/accurate methods for computing the diameter and/or shortest path based on this idea
    - How fast does the graph "expand" as you do a BFS from a node?
    - How many levels in the BFS to reach all nodes?

practically: 
$$d_{\text{ave}} \sim \frac{\ln(N)}{\ln(k_{\text{ave}})}$$

More complex analysis provides "corrections" to the above...

Network Name	Ν	L	<k></k>	<d></d>	$d_{_{max}}$	$\frac{\log N}{\log \langle k \rangle}$
Internet	192,244	609,066	6.34	6.98	26	6.59
WWW	325,729	1,497,134	4.60	11.27	93	8.32
Power Grid	4,941	6,594	2.67	18.99	46	8.66
Mobile Phone Calls	36,595	91,826	2.51	11.72	39	11.42
Email	57,194	103,731	1.81	5.88	18	18.4
Science Collaboration	23,133	186,936	8.08	5.35	15	4.81
Actor Network	212,250	3,054,278	28.78	-	-	-
Citation Network	449,673	4,707,958	10.47	11.21	42	5.55
E Coli Metabolism	1,039	5,802	5.84	2.98	8	4.04
Yeast Protein Interactions	2,018	2,930	2.90	5.61	14	7.14

#### Table 3.2

#### Six degrees of separation.

The average distance  $d_{i}$  and the maximum distance  $d_{max}$  of the ten networks explored in this book. The last column provides  $d_{i}$  predicted by Eq. (19), indicating that it offers a reasonable approximation to  $d_{i}$ . Yet, the agreement is not perfect – we will see in the next chapter that for many real networks Eq. (19) needs to be adjusted. For directed networks we list the average out-degree  $k_{out}$  and the path lengths are measured only along the direction of the links.

Barabasi

### • Poisson networks do have the small world property!



#### Image 3.10 Why are small worlds surprising?

Much of our intuition about distance is based on our experience with regular lattices, which do not display the small world phenomenon. Indeed,

- For a one-dimensional lattice (a line of length *N*) the diameter and the average path length scale linearly with  $N: d_{max} \sim d h \sim N$ .
- For a square lattice  $d_{max} \sim cdv \sim N^{1/2}$ .
- For a cubic lattice  $d_{max} \sim d \to N^{1/3}$ .
- In general, for a *d*-dimensional lattice we have  $d_{max} \sim d h \sim N^{1/d}$ .

Such polynomial dependence predicts a much faster increase with *N* than Eq. (19), indicating that in regular lattices the path lengths are significantly longer than in a random network. The figure shows the predicted *N*-dependence of *d* for regular and random networks on a linear (left) and on a log-log (right) scale. If the social network would form a regular 2d lattice, where each individual knows only its nearest neighbors, the average distance between two individuals would be roughly  $(7 \times 10^9)^{1/2} = 83,666$ . Even if we correct for the fact that a person has about 1,000 acquaintances, not four, the average separation will be orders of magnitude larger than predicted by Eq. (19).



Some networks are regular and do not exhibit small world properties (non-social)

Barabasi

#### At a glance: Random networks

- *Definition*: *N* nodes, where each node pair is connected with probability *p*.
- Average degree:  $\langle k \rangle = p(N-1)$
- Average number of links:  $\langle L \rangle = \frac{p(N-1)}{2}$
- Degree distribution:  $p_k = {\binom{N-l}{k}} p^k (l-p)^{N-l-k}$ .

For sparse networks ( $k \ll N$ ),  $P_k$  has the Poisson form

$$p_k = e^{-\langle k \rangle} \frac{\langle k \rangle^k}{k!}$$

• Giant component  $(N_g)$ :

dv < 1: no giant component  $(N_{g} \sim \ln N)$ 

 $1 < ck_V < \ln N$ : one giant component and disconnected clusters

$$\left(N_G \sim N^{\frac{2}{3}}\right)$$

 $k > \ln N$ : all nodes join the giant component  $N_G \sim (p - p_i)N$ 

**B**arabasi

• Average distance: 
$$\langle d \rangle \propto \frac{\log N}{\log \langle k \rangle}$$
,

• Clustering coefficient: 
$$C = \frac{\langle k \rangle}{N}$$
.

- Summary (Poisson predicts real?)
  - Degree distribution No
  - Giant Component Yes
  - Small World Yes
  - Clustering
     No

## Overview

- Probability Review
- Static Random Models
  - Poisson random graphs (completely random)
  - The configuration model (specify the degree distribution)
    - Power-law degree distribution
  - The small world model (Watts-Strogatz)
  - Exponential and Markov models
- Growth models for random graphs

- Since many real-world networks do not have a Poisson degree distribution, generate a random network with a specific degree sequence (implies degree distribution)
  - Several models to approach this or similar
    - Configuration model
    - Expected Degree model (Jackson 4.1.5) and Hidden Parameter model (Barabasi 4.8)
    - Degree-preserving randomization (Barabasi 4.8)

- Given a specific degree sequence {k\_i}, set up nodes with each node having the specified number of degree stubs
  - Randomly pick two stubs and connect with link (these are no longer stubs)
  - Repeat until all stubs are links
    - Allows for self-links and multi-links, but the probability of these go to zero as N goes to infinity





Provides random graph with specified degree distribution

(Poisson random network is a special case)

• Condition for the emergence of the Giant Component

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{K^2\right\} - 2\mathbb{E}\left\{K\right\} > 0$$

$$(1-S) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (1-S)^k p_K(k)$$

S = fraction of nodes in the GC when above threshold is met

#### Note that for Poisson distribution with mean alpha:

$$m_{K} = \alpha$$

$$\sigma_{K}^{2} = \alpha \longrightarrow \mathbb{E}\left\{K^{2}\right\} = \sigma_{K}^{2} + m_{K}^{2} = \alpha + \alpha^{2} \longrightarrow \alpha > 1$$

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{K^{2}\right\} - 2\mathbb{E}\left\{K\right\} > 0$$

$$\uparrow$$

$$\alpha > 1$$

(This may have some issues since it allows for nodes to connect to themselves)

Expected value of average/global cluster coefficient

$$\mathbb{E}\left\{C_{i}\right\} = \mathbb{E}\left\{C_{\text{ave}}\right\} = \mathbb{E}\left\{C_{\text{global}}\right\} = \frac{k_{\text{ave}}}{N} \left[\frac{\mathbb{E}\left\{K^{2}\right\} - k_{\text{ave}}}{k_{\text{ave}}^{2}}\right]^{2}$$

deviation from Poisson (bracketed term is I for Poisson)



 $\frac{\mathbb{E}\left\{K^2\right\}}{(\mathbb{E}\left\{K\right\})^2}$  non-negligible correction term depending on the degree distribution and the size of the set of the distribution and the size of the network

- Some more detailed derivations for the configuration model (Poisson is a special case)
  - Probability distribution of degree of node connected to randomly selected edge (Jackson 4.2.1)
  - Threshold for giant component (Jackson 4.2.6)
  - Sub-threshold (GC) component size distribution (Jackson 4.4)
    - Implies Threshold for GC
    - Implies mean size of sub-threshold components
  - Probability distribution of maximum degree in finite network Newman (III.C.2)

#### Poisson Model Mean Component Size randomly selected node $\overline{1 - k_{\text{ave}} + k_{\text{ave}}S}$ 30 $N = 10^2$ -(b) $N = 10^3 -$ 25 5 $N = 10^4$ -(a) 20 Theory --4 $\odot$ 15 3 $\langle s \rangle$ 10 2 5 0 1 0 0.5 1 1.5 2 $\langle k \rangle$ N 0 0.5 (randomly selected node) 0 1 2 $\langle k \rangle$ $N_{G}/N$ 2 2.5 $N = 10^2$ -(c) $N = 10^3 N = 10^4$ -2 randomly selected component Theory --S 1.5 $2 - k_{\text{ave}} + k_{\text{ave}}S$ 0.5 0.5 1 1.5 2 0 2.5 $\langle k \rangle$ Barabasi (randomly selected component)

### $-Poisson_k$ Power Law Degree Distribution

10

30

20

Heavy-tailed degree distribution that matches n network observed degree distributions

0.1

0 0





Poisson

10<sup>2</sup>

10<sup>3</sup>

Figure 4.4 **Poisson vs. power-law distributions** 

10-6

100

(a) A Poisson function and a power-law function with  $\gamma$ = 2.1. Both distributions have  $\langle k \rangle = 10.$ 

(b) The curves in (a) shown on a log-log plot, offering a better view of the difference between the two functions in the high-*k* regime. (c) A random network with  $\langle k \rangle = 3$  and N = 50, illustrating that most nodes have comparable degree  $k \simeq \langle k \rangle$ .

(d) A scale-free network with  $\langle k \rangle$ = 3, illustrating that numerous small-degree nodes coexist with a few highly connected hubs.

Barabasi

(a)

50

### Power Law Degree Distribution



#### Figure 4.6 Random versus scale-free networks

Left column: the degrees of a random network follow a Poisson distribution, which is rather similar to the Bell curve shown in the figure. This indicates that most nodes have comparable degree. Hence nodes with a large number of links are absent (top panel). Consequently a random network looks a bit like a national highway network in which nodes are cities and links are the major highways connecting them (bottom panel). Indeed, there are no major cities with hundreds of highways and no city is disconnected from the highway system.

Right column: In a network with a power-law degree distribution most nodes have only a few links. These numerous small nodes are held together by a few highly connected hubs (top panel). Consequently a scale-free network looks a bit like the air-traffic network, whose nodes are airports and links are direct flights between them. Most airports are tiny, with only a few flights linking them to other airports. Yet, we can also have few very large airports, like Chicago or Atlanta, that hold hundreds of airports together, acting as major hubs (bottom panel).

Once hubs are present, they change the way we navigate the network. For example, if we travel from Boston to Los Angeles by car, we must drive through many cities (nodes). On the airplane network, however, we can reach most destinations via a single hub, like Chicago.

After [4].

Barabasi

### AKA "scale-free" networks

### Power Law Degree Distribution

- Special case of configuration network
- Discussed in detail in Barabasi, chapter 4
- Networks can be grown with the Barabasi-Albert model for preferential attachment
  - Yields the power law degree distribution
  - No longer has independent degrees for different nodes
    - Model incorporates degree correlation explicitly

Cover power-law and preferential attachment later (soon)

### Exponential, p\*, Markov Random Nets

- These models are more complicated than the Poisson and configuration models
  - Attempt to capture correlation properties to come degree
    - Degree correlation, clustering, etc.
- There is a trade-off between more accurate models and more difficulty in analyzing the resulting models
  - The references point to these models as interesting/ promising, but not widely utilized

- Simple model that captures
  - Clustering (triadic closure, transitivity)
  - Small world property
- Basic idea
  - Begin with a regular lattice (local, regular connections)
    - provides clustering
  - Add/rewire a subset of links randomly
    - provides small-world properties



FIG. 11 (a) A one-dimensional lattice with connections between all vertex pairs separated by k or fewer lattice spacing, with k = 3 in this case. (b) The small-world model [412, 416] is created by choosing at random a fraction p of the edges in the graph and moving one end of each to a new location, also chosen uniformly at random. (c) A slight variation on the model [289, 324] in which shortcuts are added randomly between vertices, but no edges are removed from the underlying one-dimensional lattice.



(a) Nodes arranged in a grid

(b) A network built from local structure and random edges

Figure 20.2: The Watts-Strogatz model arises from a highly clustered network (such as the grid), with a small number of random links added in. Easley & Kleinberg

### Concept is applicable to any regular lattice (ID, 2D, 3D, etc.)



FIG. 12 The clustering coefficient C and mean vertex-vertex distance  $\ell$  in the small-world model of Watts and Strogatz [416] as a function of the rewiring probability p. For convenience, both C and  $\ell$  are divided by their maximum values, which they assume when p = 0. Between the extremes p = 0 and p = 1, there is a region in which clustering is high and mean vertex-vertex distance is simultaneously low.

Newman