

Random Networks and Percolation

- Percolation, cascades, pandemics
- Properties, Metrics of Random Networks
- Basic Theory of Random Networks and Cascades
- Watts Cascades
- Analytic Model of Watts Cascades

Types of Percolation Models

- “Short loop” models (Stauffer, Grimmett, Morris) usually assume regular network structure or same nodal degree for all nodes
- “Long loop/no loop” models (Newman, Calloway, Watts) usually assume random tree-like structure
- “Collective action” models (Schelling, Granovetter) assume $k = n$ (all nodes see all other nodes)
- “Local action” models assume $z \ll n$ (Watts, etc.)
- “Threshold models” (Morris, Schelling, Granovetter, Watts) assume that a node changes state when more than a threshold **fraction** of neighboring nodes have changed state
 - Threshold models are equivalent to deterministic two-person games (Lopez-Pintado) (Morris)
 - Disease spreading (SIR) assumes a threshold **number** of neighbors
- Mixed collective/local models have also been proposed (Valente) for diffusion of innovations

Percolation Contexts

- Spread of diseases (Watts and others)(local)
- Propagation of rumors (Newman, Watts, Calloway)(local)-scary talk about surprises
- Success of “blockbusting” (Schelling)(collective)
- Decision to join a riot (Granovetter)(collective)
- Adoption of innovations (Rogers, Valente)(both)
- In each case, nodes are assumed to be different in their susceptibility - an important issue for sociologists
- **Thresholds** are used to model these differences

Diffusion of Pandemic Diseases

- Model assumes disease starts from a point and travels in two modes: local commuting and international air travel
- Disease follows SIR or SIS model, with parameters that need to be estimated for each outbreak
- Procedure is to run the model with different trial parameters and see which ones best match time of outbreaks in different main airline destinations
- Model has been built up over about 10 years of IATA, census, and local transportation data
- Prediction that H1N1 would peak in US in October at low levels
- Prediction that it originated in Mexico, not a pig farm in MN, etc.
- <http://cnets.indiana.edu/tag/epidemic-modeling>

Diffusion of the Black Death: Slow

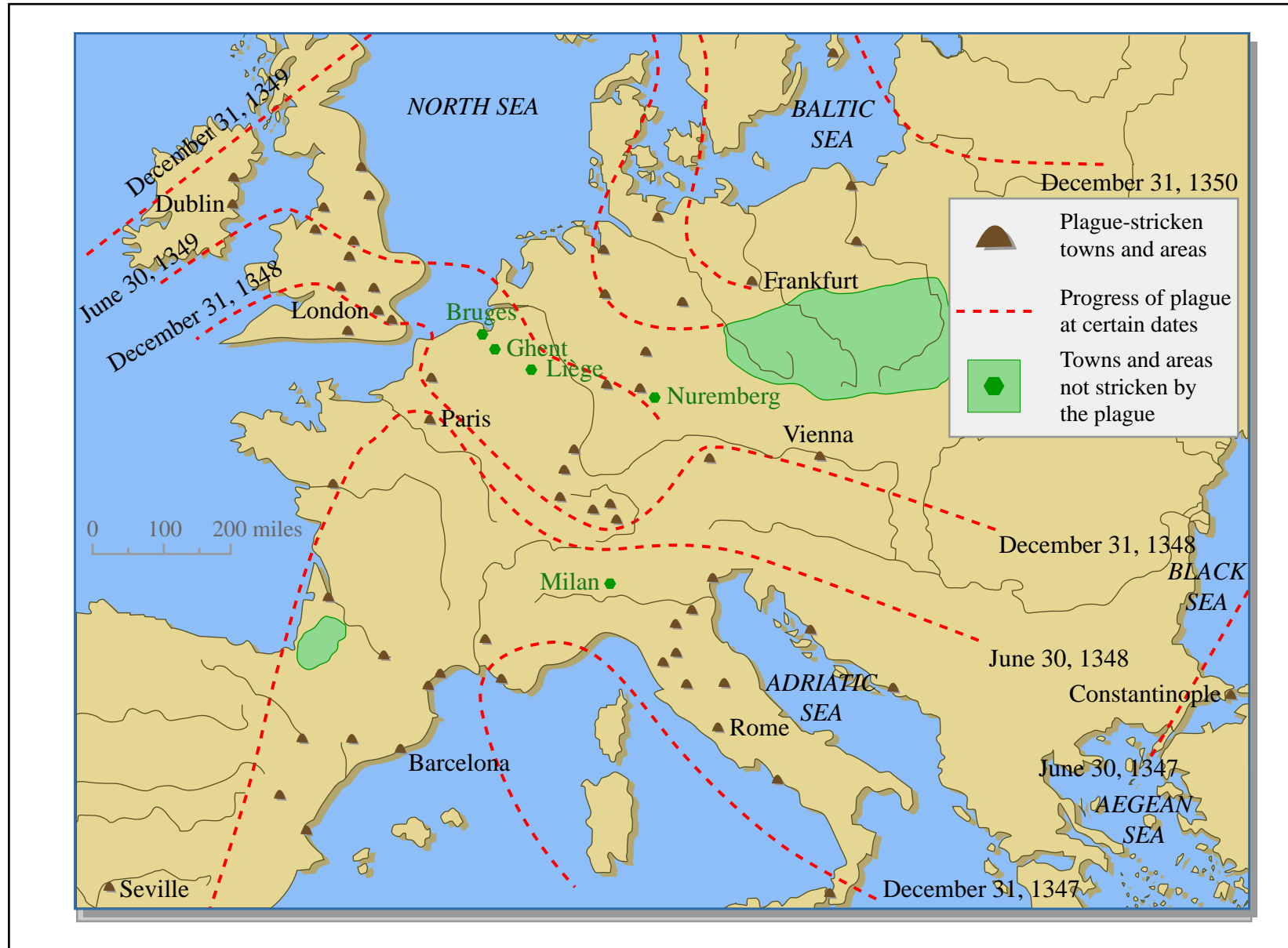
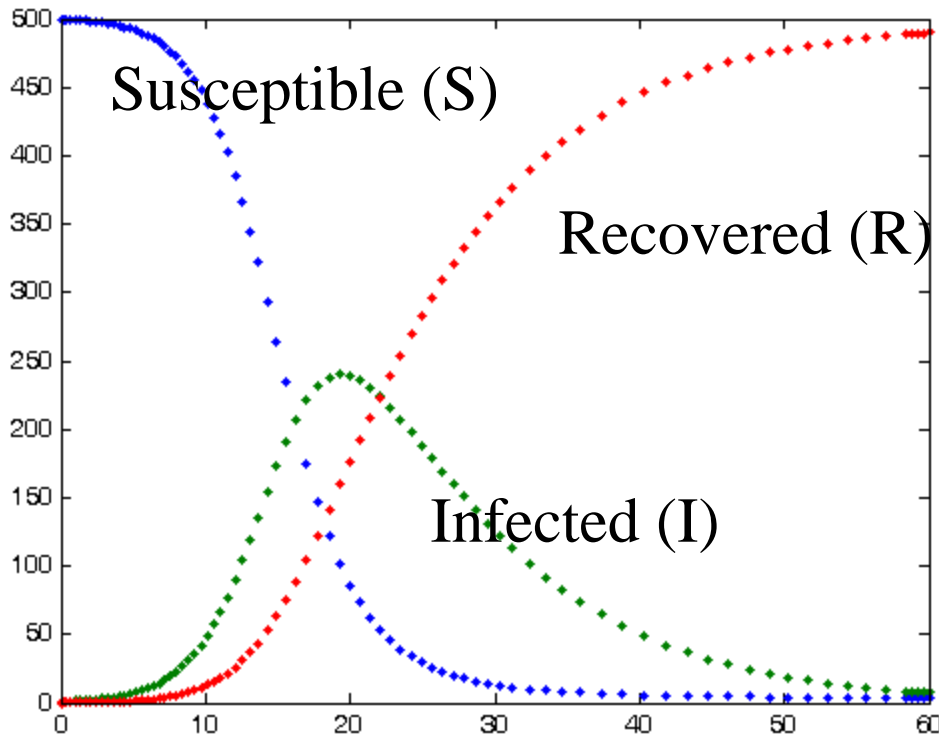


Image by MIT OpenCourseWare.

Ralph's World Civilizations, Chapter 13

SIR Model



Values of R_0 of well-known infectious diseases[1]

Disease	Transmission	R_0
Measles	Airborne	12–18
Pertussis	Airborne droplet	12–17
Diphtheria	Saliva	6–7
Smallpox	Social contact	5–7
Polio	Fecal-oral route	5–7
Rubella	Airborne droplet	5–7
Mumps	Airborne droplet	4–7
HIV/AIDS	Sexual contact	2–5[2]
SARS	Airborne droplet	2–5[3]
Influenza		
(1918 pandemic strain)	Airborne droplet	2–3[4]e
H1N1	Airborne droplet	1.5?

$$\dot{S} = -\beta IS$$

$$\dot{I} = \beta IS - \nu I$$

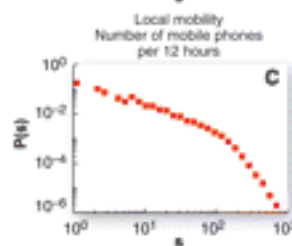
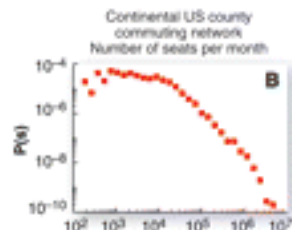
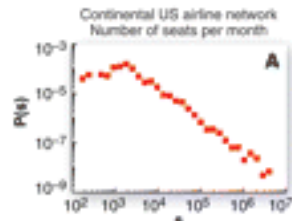
$$\dot{R} = \nu I$$

$$R_0 = \beta / \nu \text{ "Basic Reproduction Number"}$$

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Compartmental_models_in_epidemiology

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Basic_reproduction_number

Transport Networks Cause Fast Diffusion



US air travel

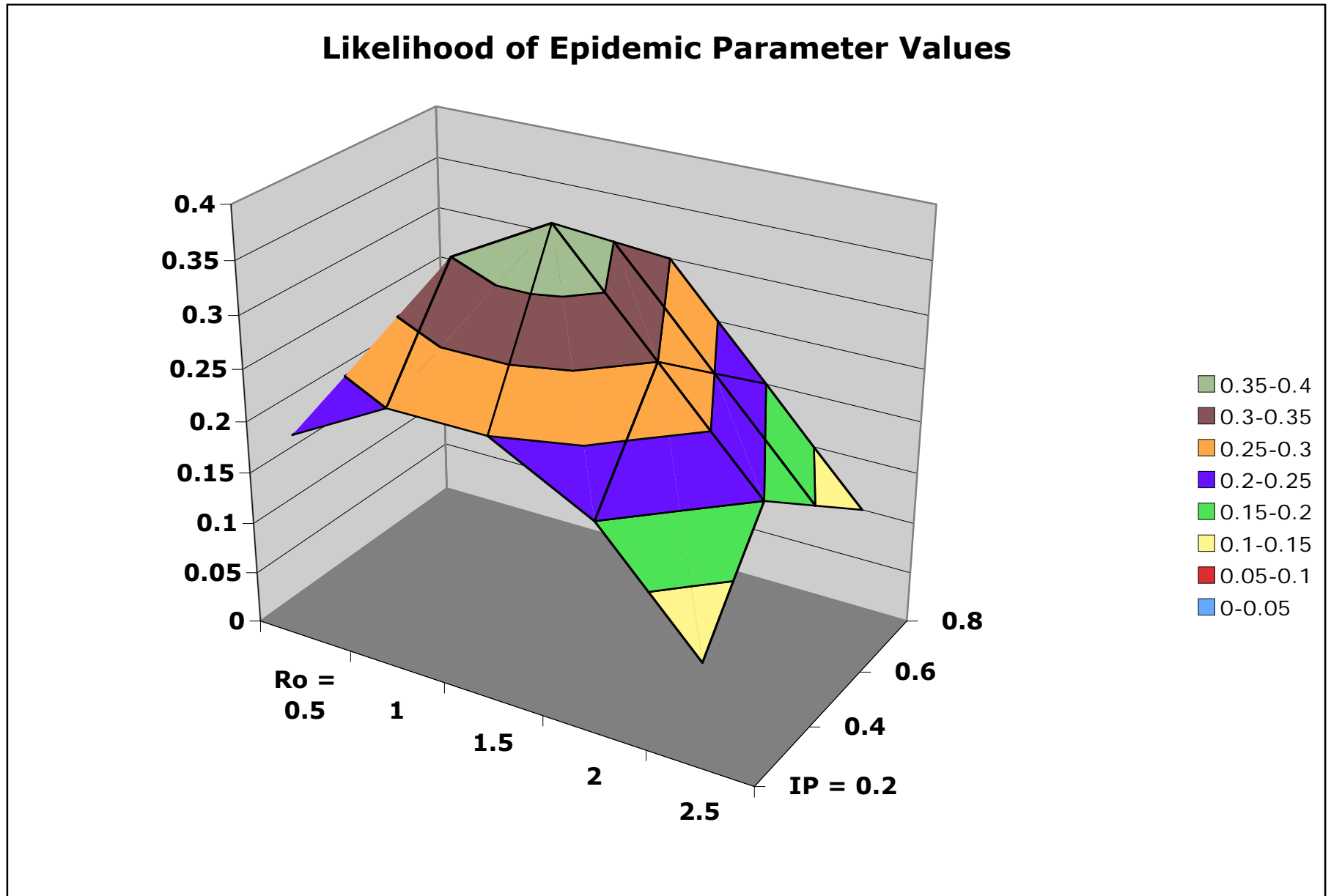


US local commuting



Global air travel

Using Data and Model to Find Parameters



Adoption of Innovations - Rogers

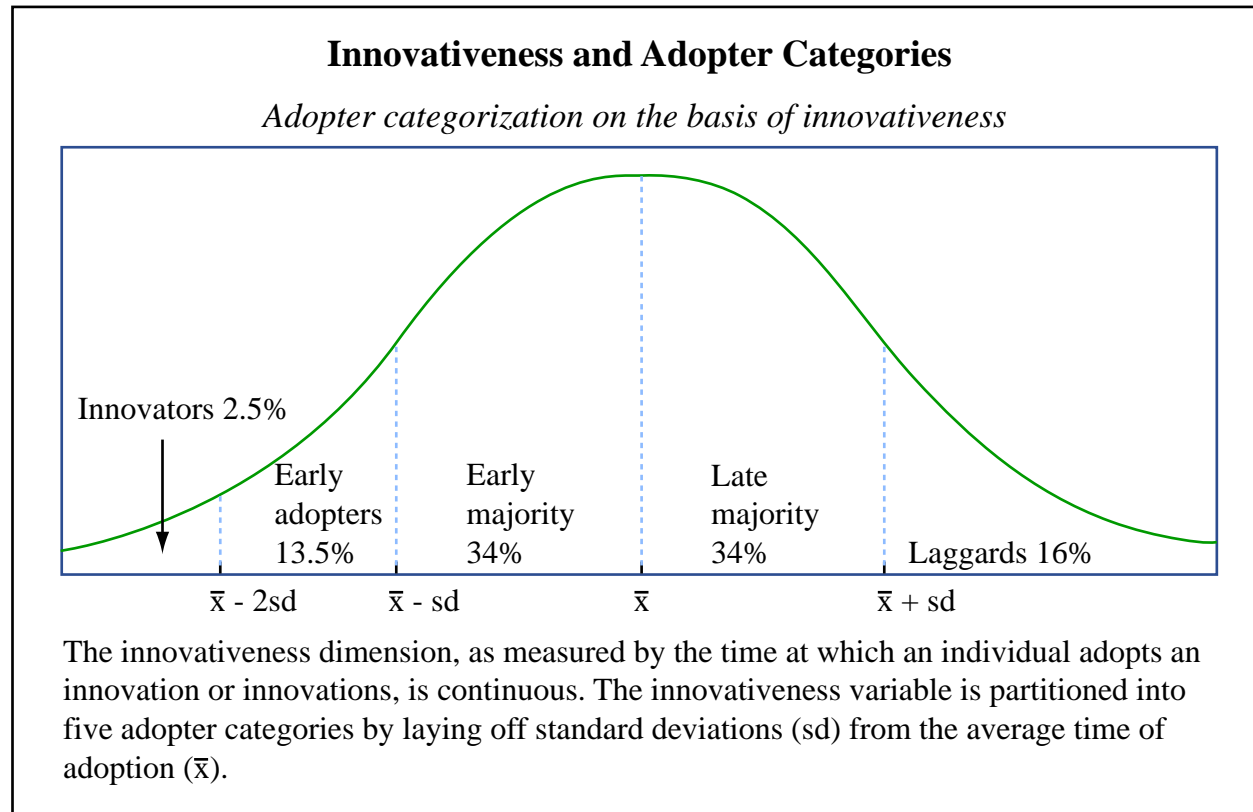


Image by MIT OpenCourseWare.

Basic idea: later adopters wait until more have adopted first.
Gives rise to threshold models of diffusion and percolation.

Adoption of Hybrid Corn - Rogers

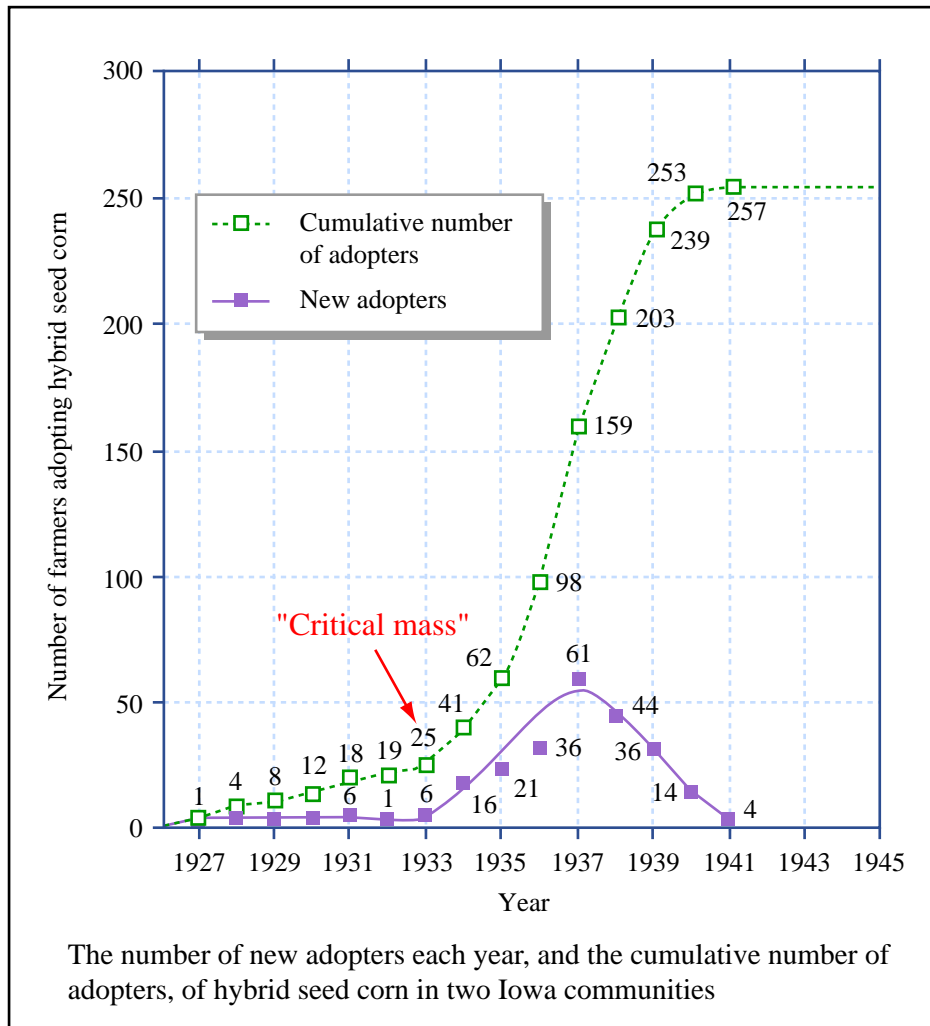


Image by MIT OpenCourseWare.

What's Interesting About Random Networks

- They represent one extreme of networks
 - Another is regular structures like grids or arrays
 - Another is “designed” networks with rational but not necessarily regular structure
- They can be analyzed mathematically (“light’s better”)
- The non-randomness of other networks can sometimes be measured by comparing metrics with random networks of similar size and density
- Some real networks are more random than one would imagine
- Some random networks harbor non-random properties

Basic Theory

- Network has n nodes
- A pair of nodes is linked (both ways) with probability p
- The number of links in the network $m = pn(n-1)/2$
 - Some fraction of the number if all nodes were linked, counting each pair of nodes once
- The average nodal degree = $z = 2m/n = pn$
- The clustering coefficient $C = pr(2 \text{ neighbors linked}) = pr(\text{any pair linked}) = p = z/n$
- For given z , C goes down as the size of the network grows
- For many properties “ P ” we find that P “suddenly appears” when tracked according to some network parameter like z
 - “Sudden appearance” is usually called a phase transition
 - The most common example P is connectedness

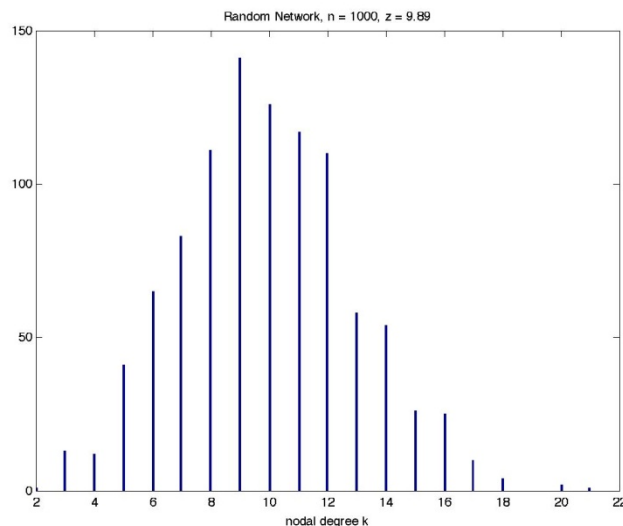
Subgraph Shapes in Finite Random Networks in Matlab

- When $z = 1$, about one third of the nodes are isolated and have $k = 0$ while another third have $k = 1$, implying lots of linked pairs of nodes
- Clusters, if any, have $z \sim 2$ and contain the last third
 - Small stars, chains, trees
 - Few closed loops
- To get a big connected cluster, we need $z > 1$ for the graph as a whole and $z > 2$ for a connected cluster because z of a tree is ~ 2
 - For a tree, $m = n - 1, z = 2m/n, \therefore z \approx 2$

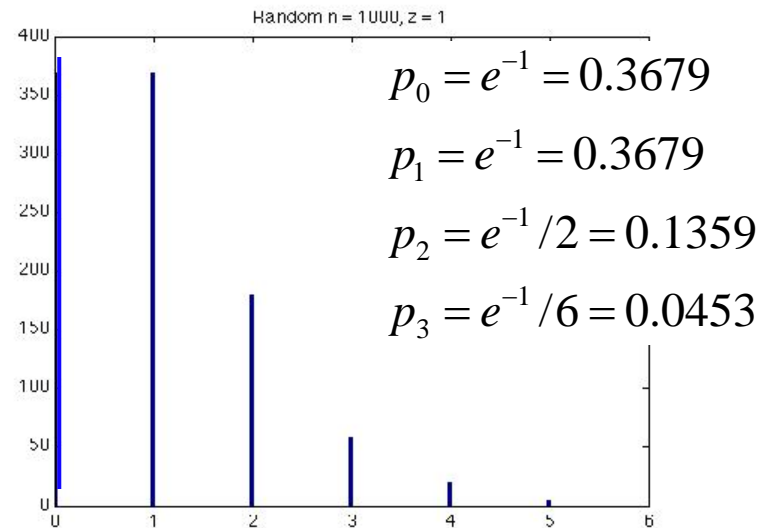
Degree Distribution of ER Random Network

- For large n the degree distribution is Poisson, and $z=np$ is the only adjustable parameter

$$p_k = \binom{n-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{n-k-1} \cong e^{-z} \frac{z^k}{k!} \text{ if } n \rightarrow \infty$$



$z = 10$



$z = 1.006$

- This looks roughly Gaussian for large z , highly peaked for small z
- Standard deviation $\sigma = \sqrt{z}$

Average Path Length and Network Diameter

- Typical node has z neighbors
- Each of them has z neighbors (assumes somewhat tree-like structure, true when z is not much bigger than 1)
- At distance l there are $\sim z^l$ neighbors (if z is small so that the network is mainly tree-like)
- If d = the shortest distance all the way across a network of n nodes, then $z^d \sim n$ and $d \sim \ln(n)/\ln(z)$
- Average path length $< \ell >$ $<$ diameter so $l \sim \ln(n)/\ln(z)$
- Exact formula for APL:
$$\langle \ell \rangle = \frac{\ln(n) - \gamma}{\ln(z)} + 0.5$$

$$\gamma = \text{Euler's number} = 0.5771$$

Average path length in random networks

Agata Fronczak, Piotr Fronczak, and Janusz A. Holyst
PHYSICAL REVIEW E 70, 056110 (2004)

Percolation and Cascades

- Both terms are ~synonymous with emergence of a “giant cluster”
 - In an infinitely large random network, the size of a connected cluster is a non-zero % of the total number of nodes
 - In a finite network, the cluster size is comparable to the size of the network
- Giant clusters appear if the network is dense enough
- The proven threshold for E-R is $z = 1$

Percolation, Cascades, Rumors

- A network consists of nodes that can be “flipped” from their initial state (off) to another state (on) depending on their “vulnerability”
- A “seed” node (or in some models, a set of seed nodes) is arbitrarily switched from off to on
- Subsequently, other neighboring nodes may flip, depending on model assumptions
- The cascade will not permeate the whole network unless the network “percolates” or is connected with probability = 1
- Even if it is connected, it still may not percolate

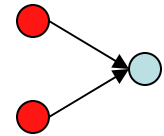
Vulnerability and Stability

- A node is “vulnerable” if one flipped neighbor can flip it



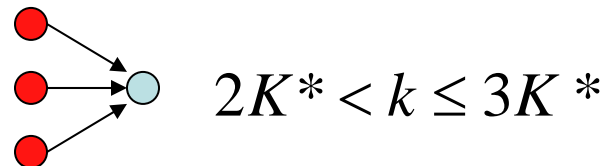
- A stable node is “first order stable” if two flipped neighbors can flip it

$$K^* < k \leq 2K^*$$



- A stable node is “second order stable” if three flipped neighbors can flip it

- etc



Percolation Theory for Sparse Random Graphs

- Derived by Newman and others using generating functions
- Recreates and extends the Molloy-Reed criterion
- Extended by Watts
- Assumes graphs (or vulnerable subgraphs) are trees and networks are of infinite size

All nodes vulnerable $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1)p_k = z$ Molloy-Reed criterion

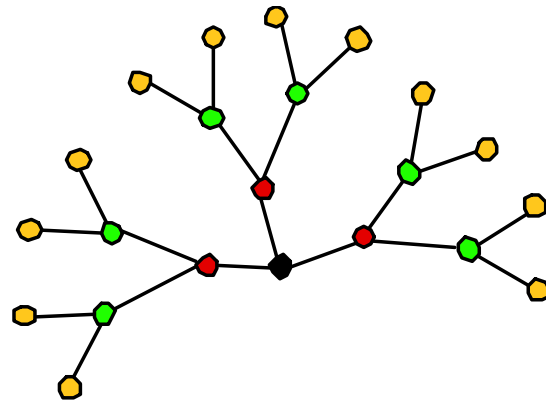
Vuln with $pr = b$ $b \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1)p_k = z$

Vuln is fct of k $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1)\rho_k p_k = z$

Watts rumor cascade model:

$$\rho_k = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k \leq K^* \\ 0 & \text{for } k > K^* \end{cases}$$

Example Percolation on a Tree



$z_i =$ excess degrees at step i
 $n_i =$ i th neighbors

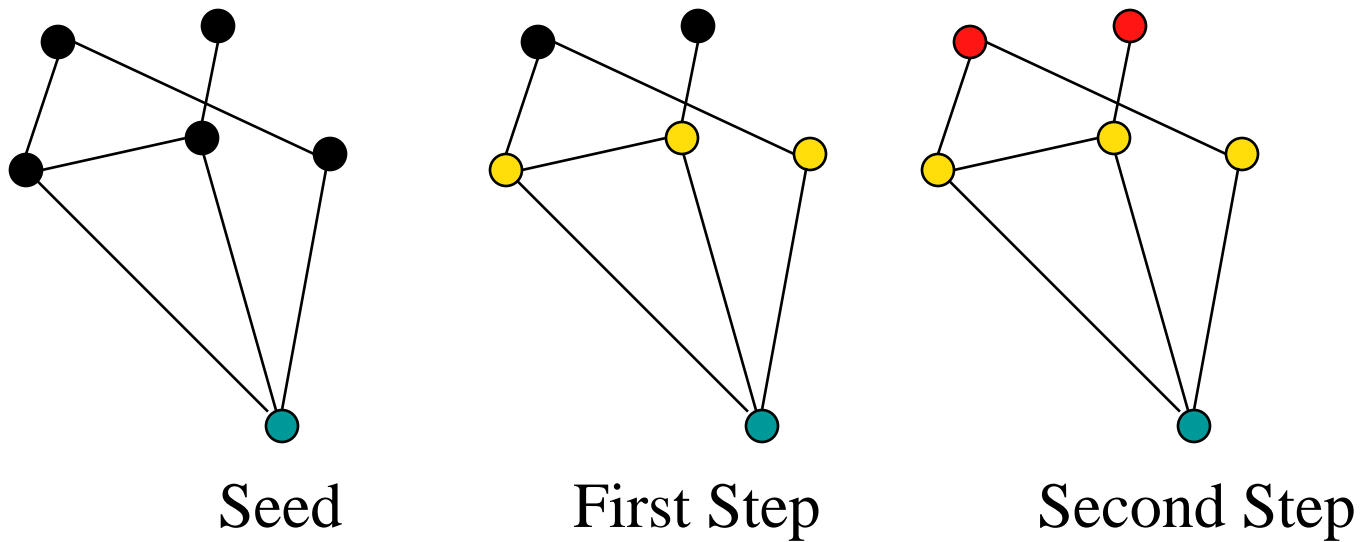
$$z_1 = 3 \quad n_1 = 3$$

$$z_2 = 2 \quad n_2 = z_2 * n_1 = 2 * 3 = 6$$

$$z_3 = 2 \quad n_3 = z_3 * n_2 = z_3 * z_2 * n_1 = 2 * 2 * 3 = 12$$

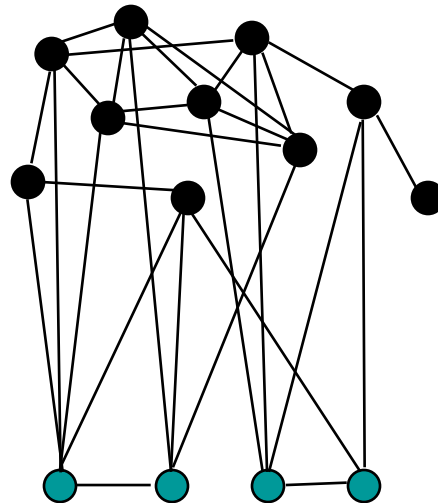
For E - R, avg excess degree of a neighbor = $z - 1$

Single Node Seed, No Threshold



Number of nodes hit on first step =
number of edges out from seed = S_z

Multi-Node Seed, Threshold

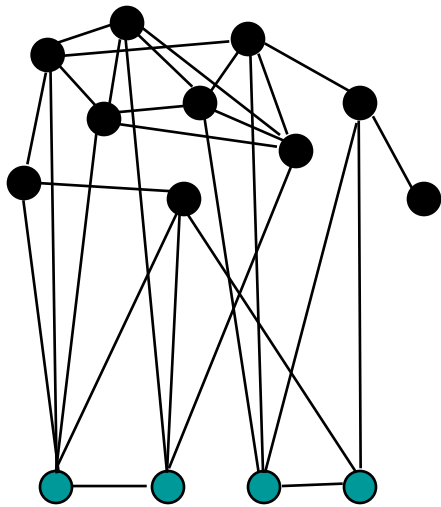


Number of nodes hit $<$ number of edges out because some nodes are hit multiple times, allowing stable nodes to be flipped

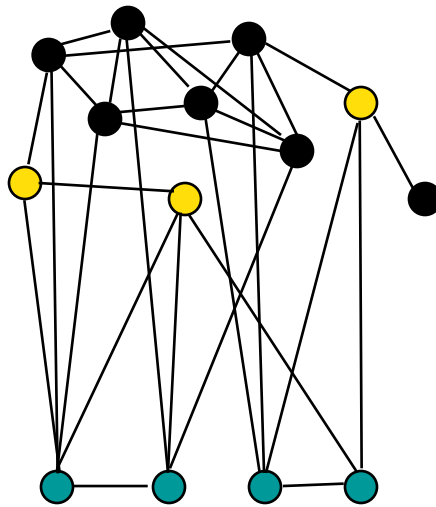
Two Steps, Multi-Node Seed, Threshold

$1 \leq k \leq K^*$: flip if ≥ 1 neighbor flips

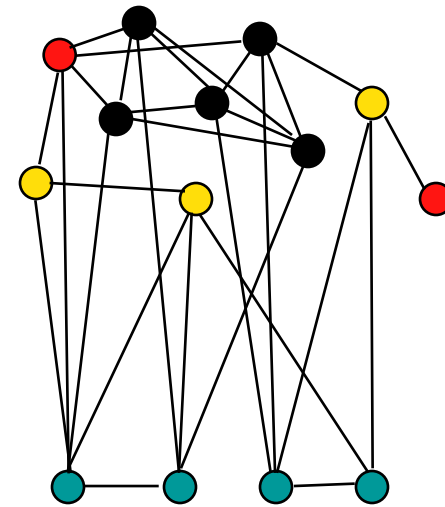
$K^* + 1 \leq k \leq 2K^*$: flip if ≥ 2 neighbors flip



Seed



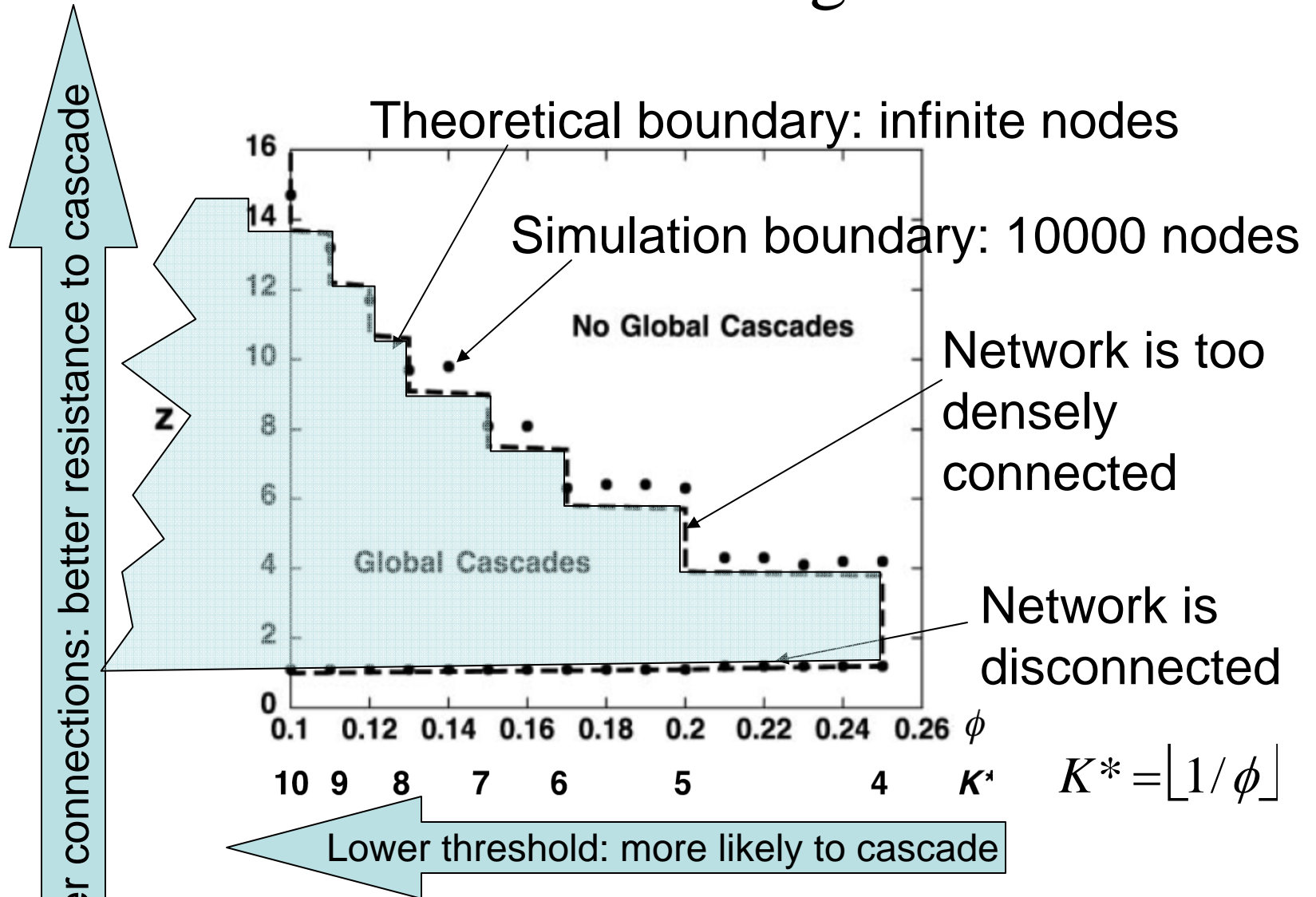
First Step



Second Step

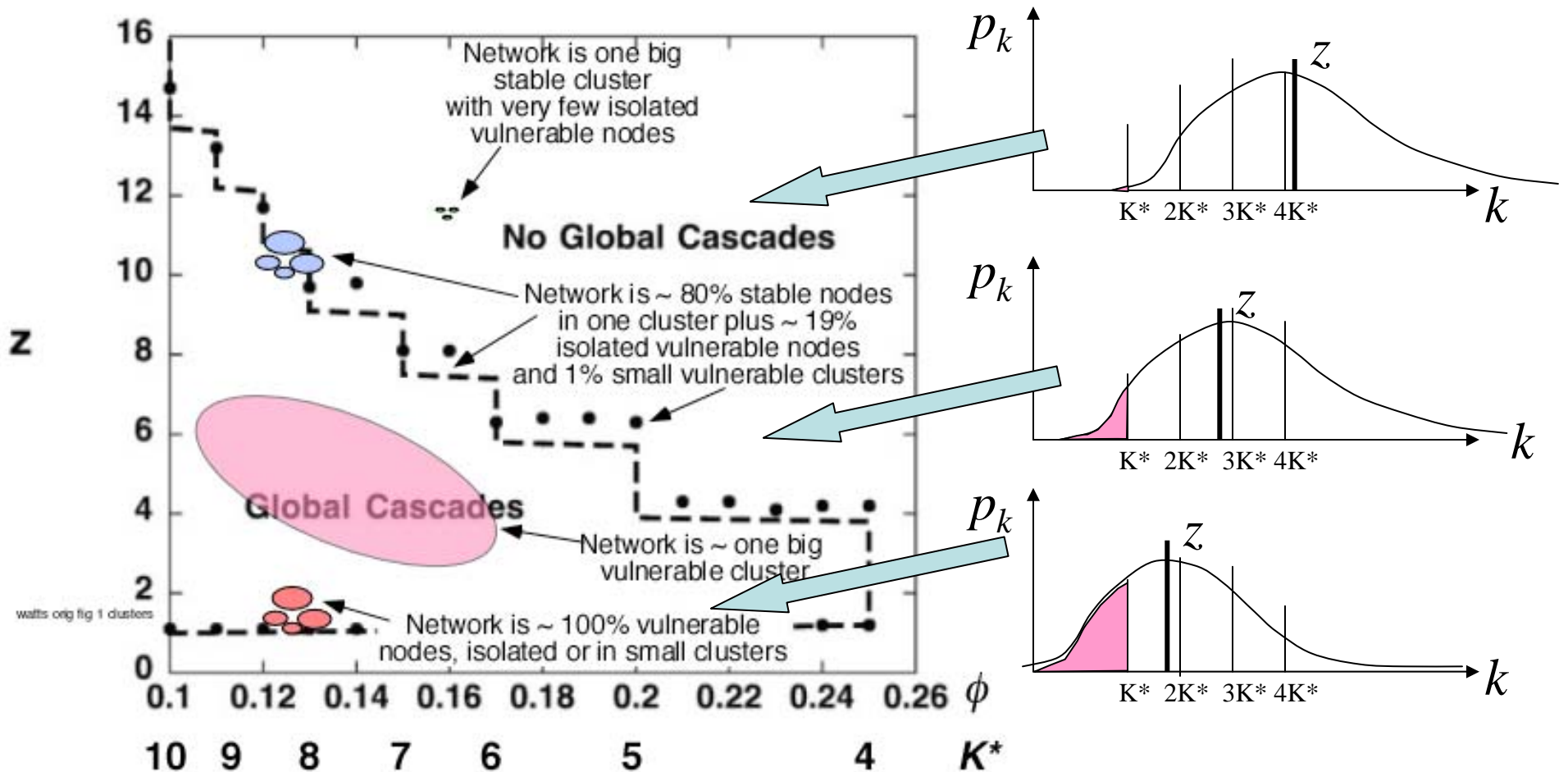
$K^* = 4$

Watts' Cascade Diagram



Watts, PNAS April 2002

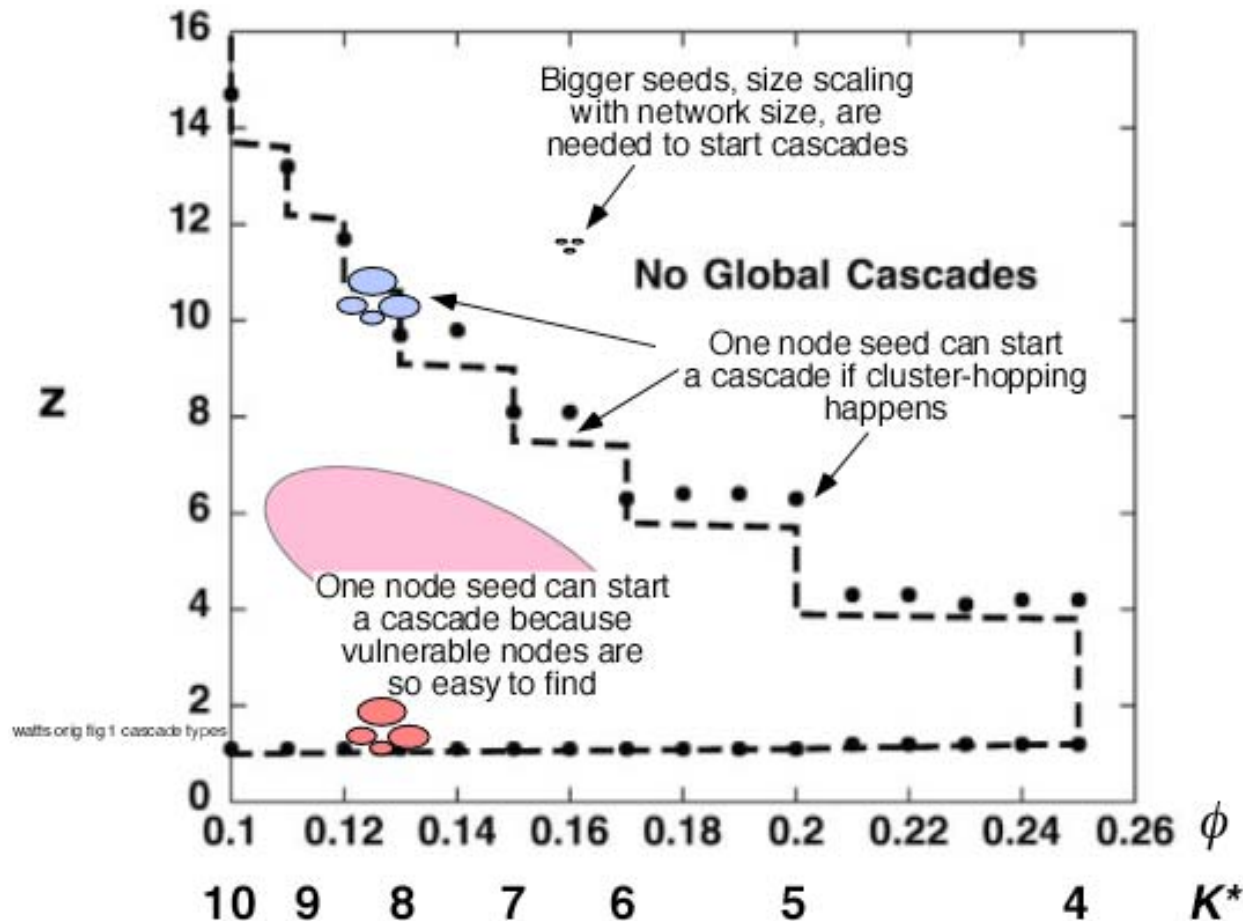
Vulnerable Clusters in Finite E-R Networks



Watts Theory and Simulations

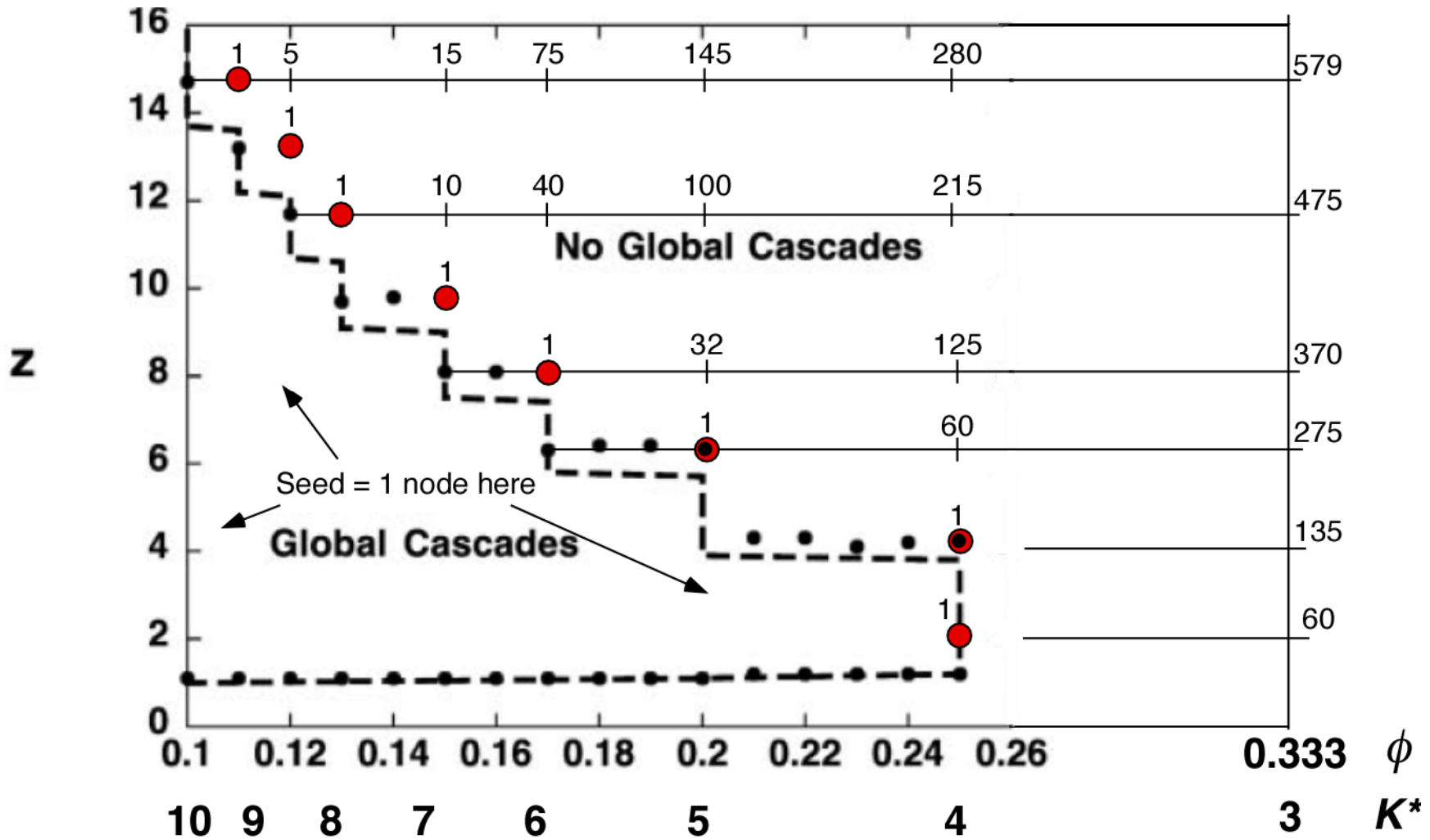
- Theory
 - Global cascades region: “small” seed can start a global cascade
 - No global cascades region: “small” seed cannot start a global cascade
- Simulations on network with 10000 nodes
 - Global cascades region: seed of one node can start a global cascade
 - No global cascades region: seed of one node cannot start a global cascade

Cascades in Finite E-R Networks Can Happen in the No Global Cascades Region

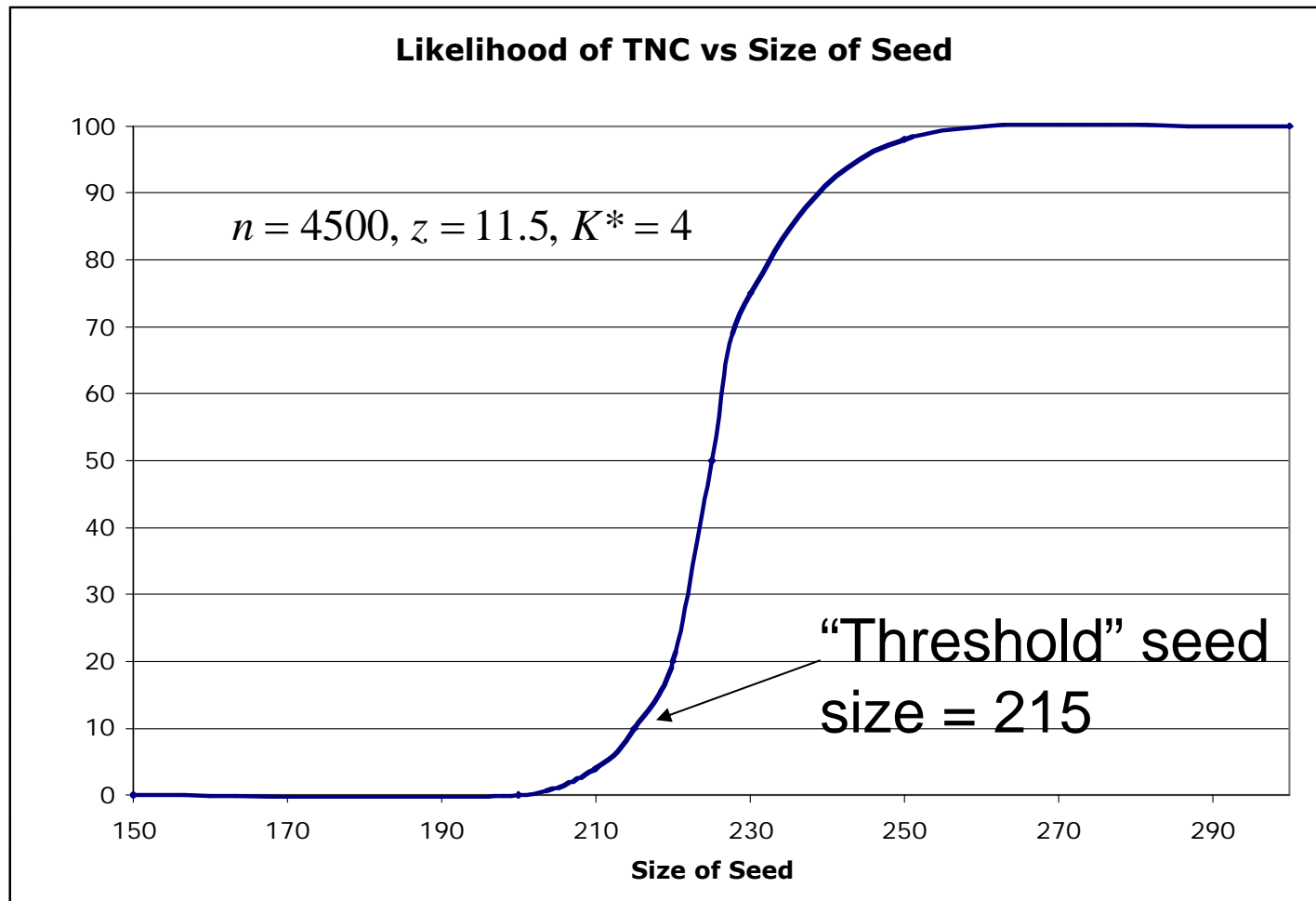


D. E. Whitney, Dynamic theory of cascades on finite clustered random networks with a threshold rule *Physical Review E*, **82**, 066110 (2010)

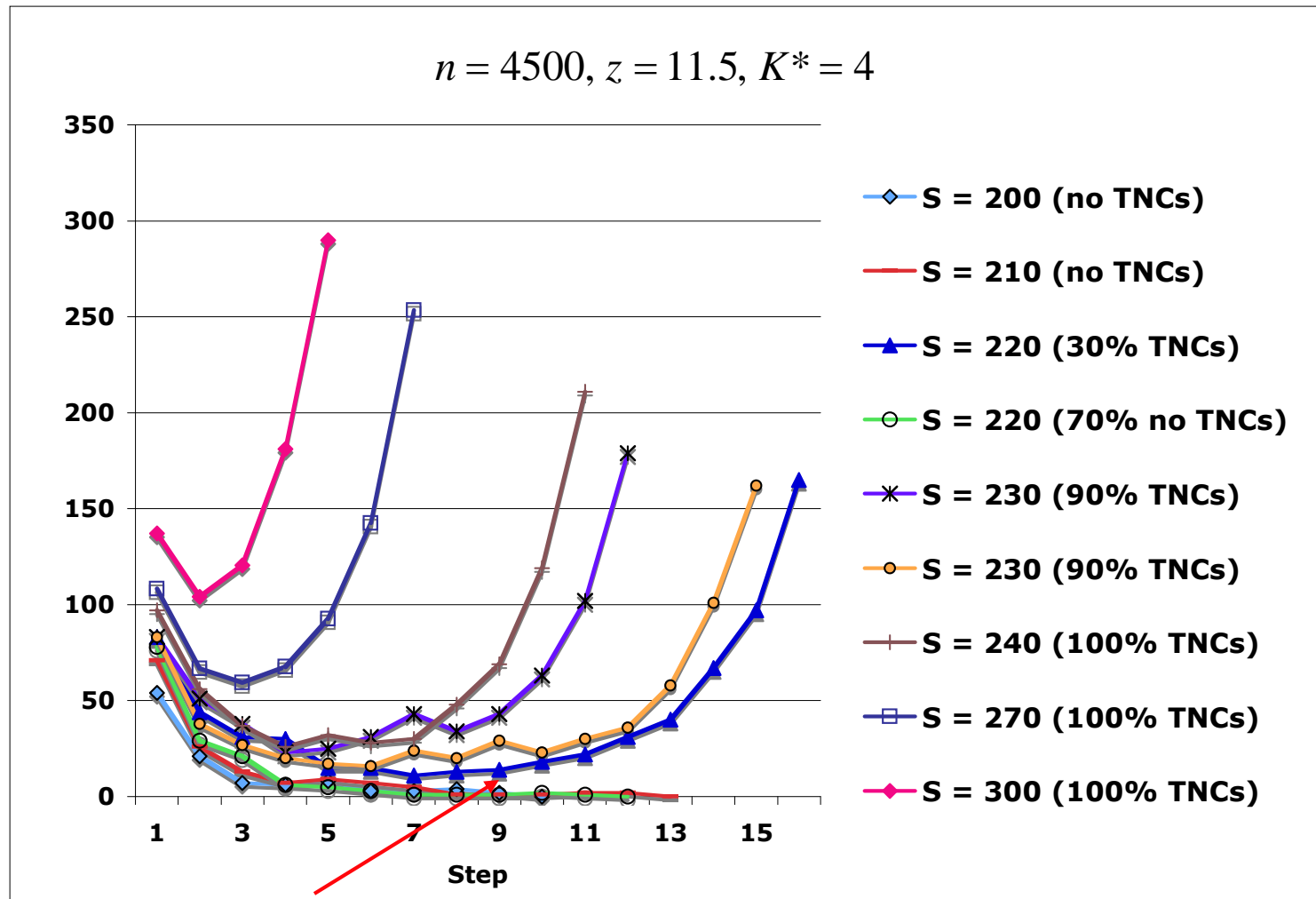
Simulations: Necessary Seed Sizes ($n = 4500$)



Simulations: Threshold Seed Size - A Phase Transition



Typical Cascade Trajectories Throughout Transition Range of Seed Size



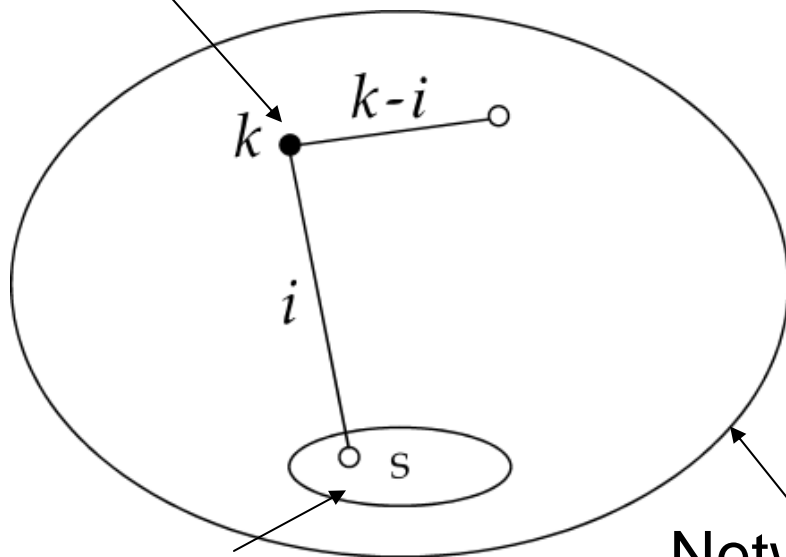
“Near death” phenomenon

Theory

$$p_k = \sum_{i=0}^k p_S(i, S) p_{nS}(k-i, n-S)$$

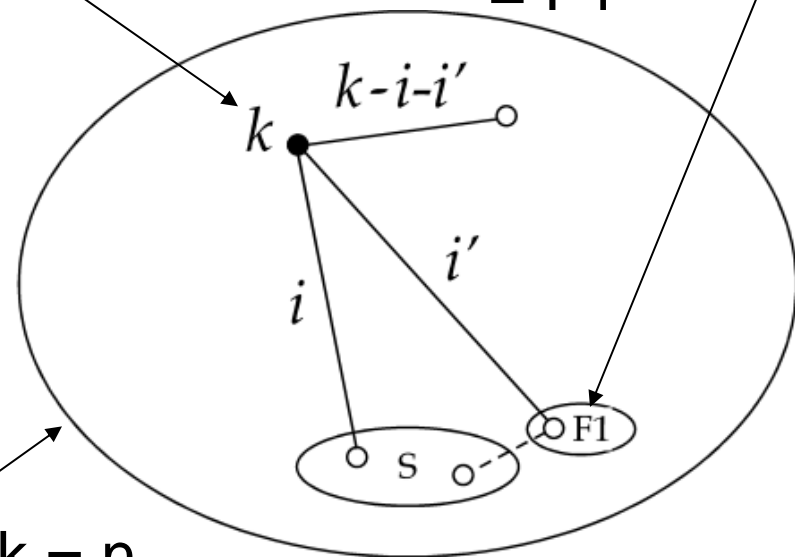
$$p_k = \sum_{i=0}^k \binom{S}{i} p^i (1-p)^{S-i} \binom{N-1-S}{k-i} p^{k-i} (1-p)^{N-1-S-(k-i)}$$

Any unflipped node:
n-S of them



Seed = S

Any unflipped node:
n-S-F1 of them



First flipped set
= F1

Network = n

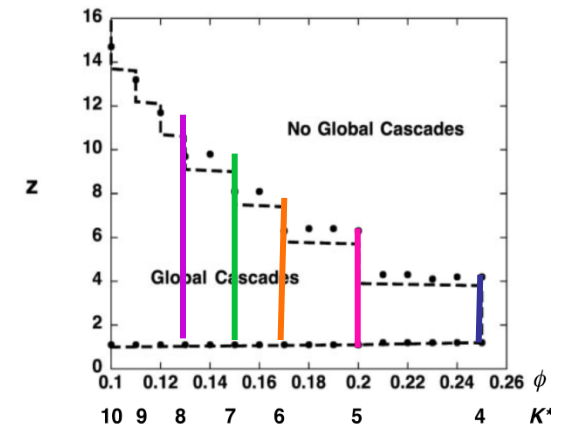
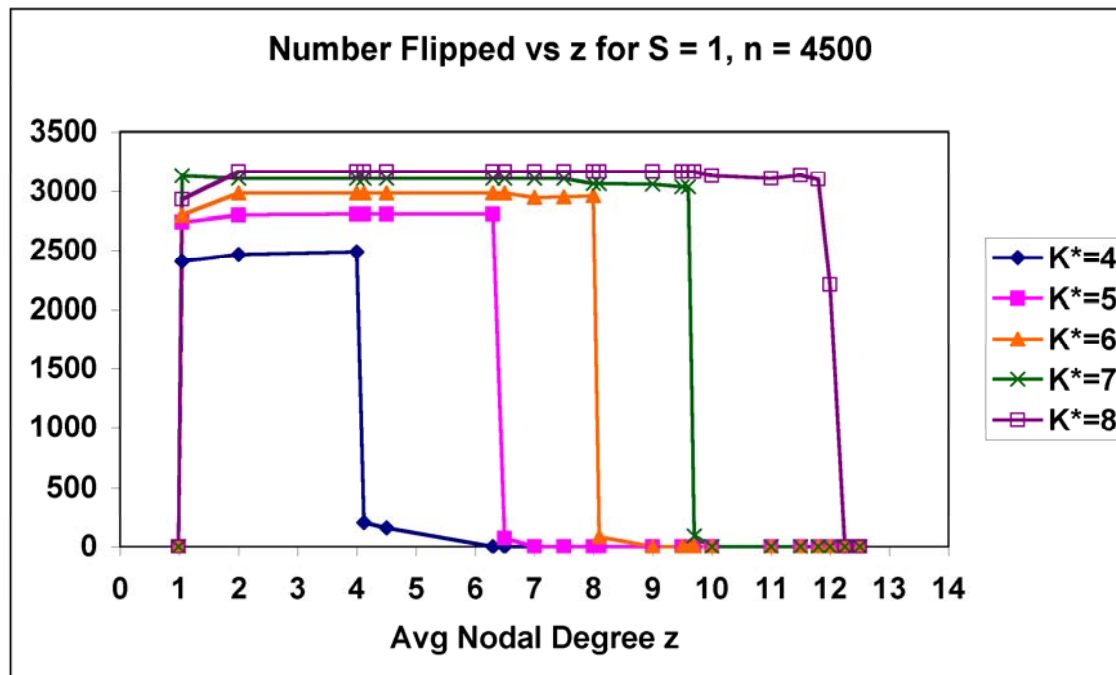
Theory Step 2

$$p_k = \sum_{i=0}^k \sum_{i'=0}^{k-i} \binom{S}{i} p^i (1-p)^{S-i} \binom{F1}{i'} p_{F1}^{i'} (1-p_{F1})^{F1-i'} \\ \times \binom{n-S-F1-1}{k-i-i'} p_{nSF1}^{k-i-i'} (1-p_{nSF1})^{n-S-F1-1-(k-i-i')}$$

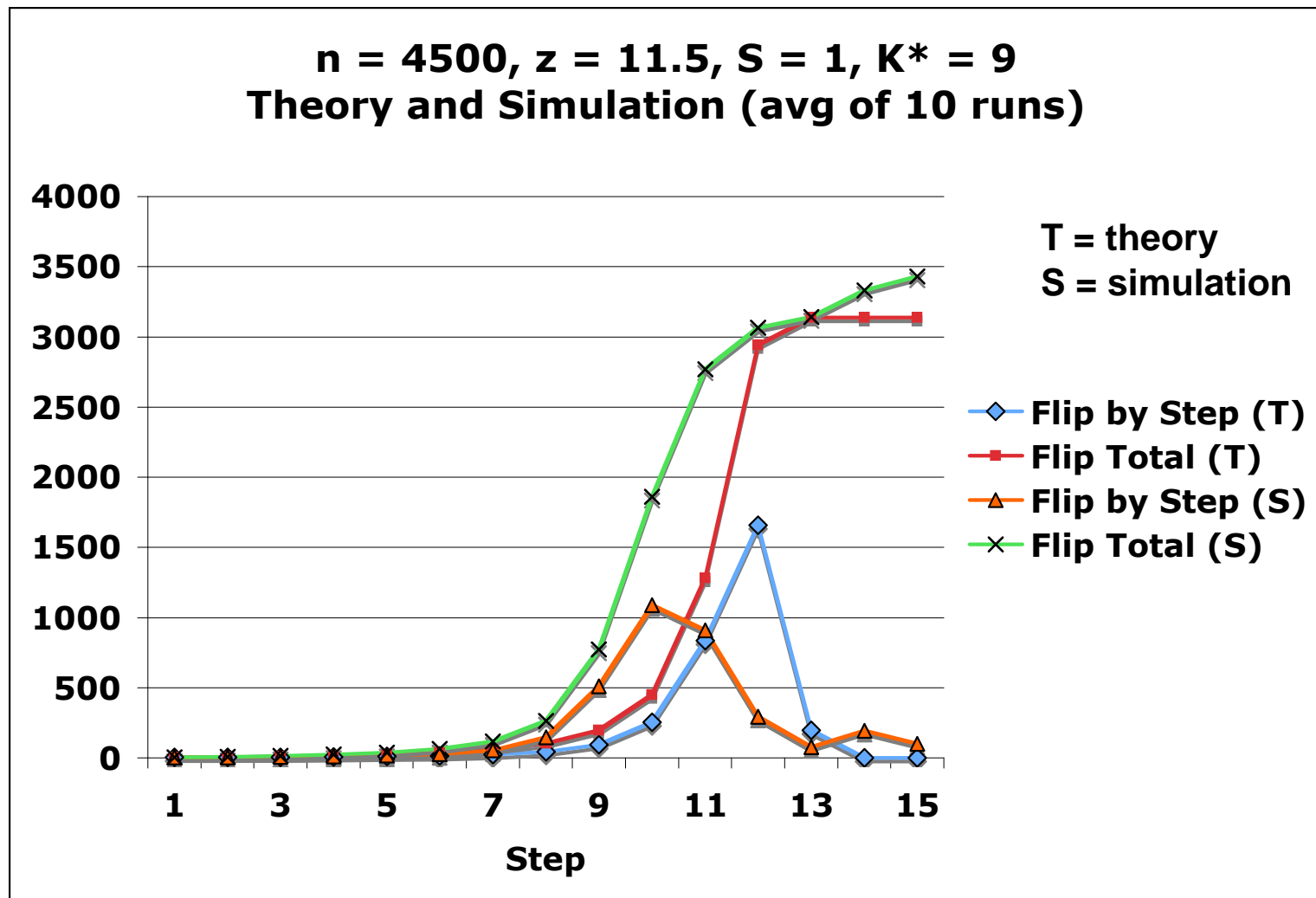
$p_{F1} = z_{F1}/n$ reflects available edges from $F1$

p_{nSF1} reflects larger p of unflipped nodes

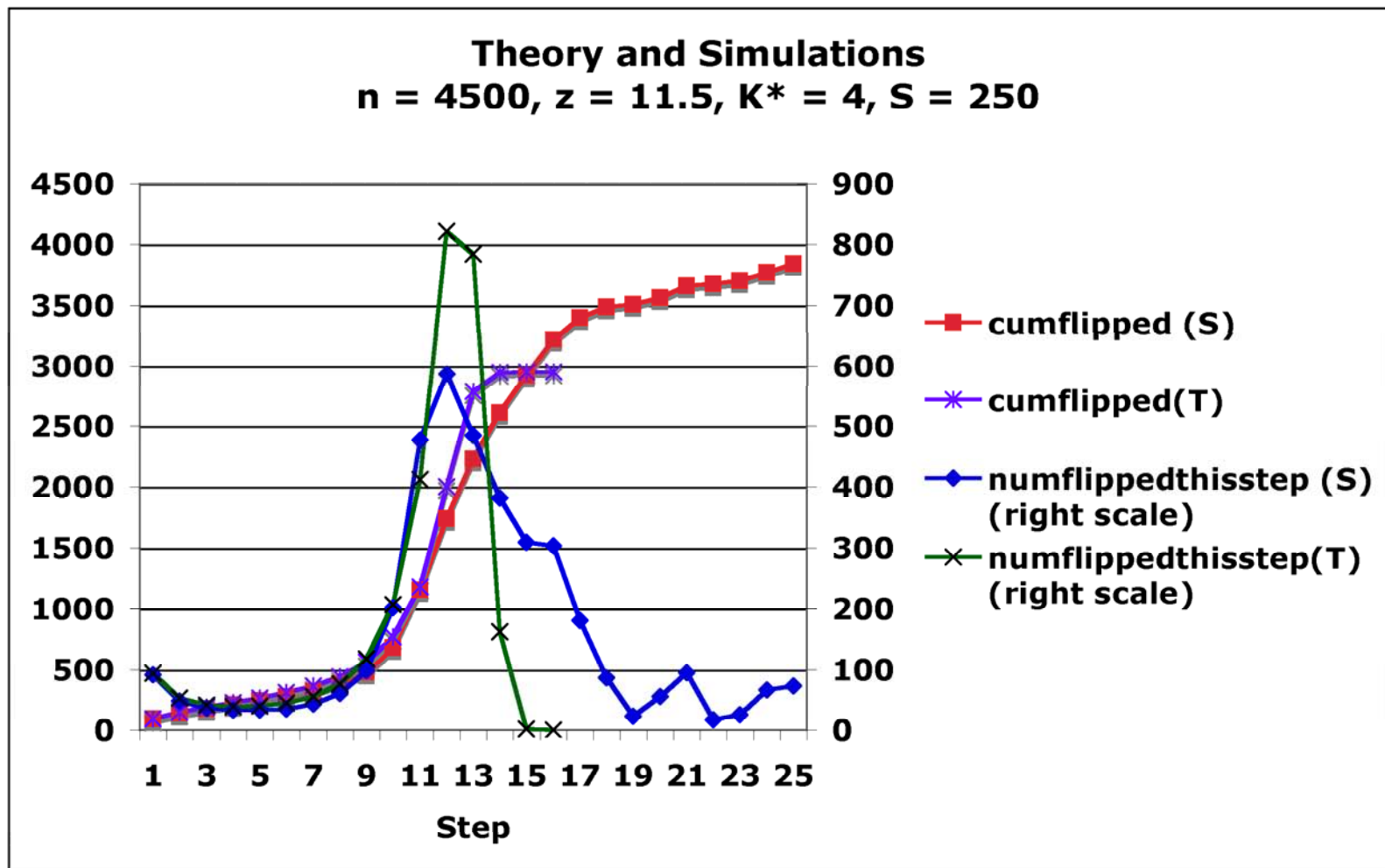
Theory: Cascades in “Global Cascades” Region - Seed = 1 Node



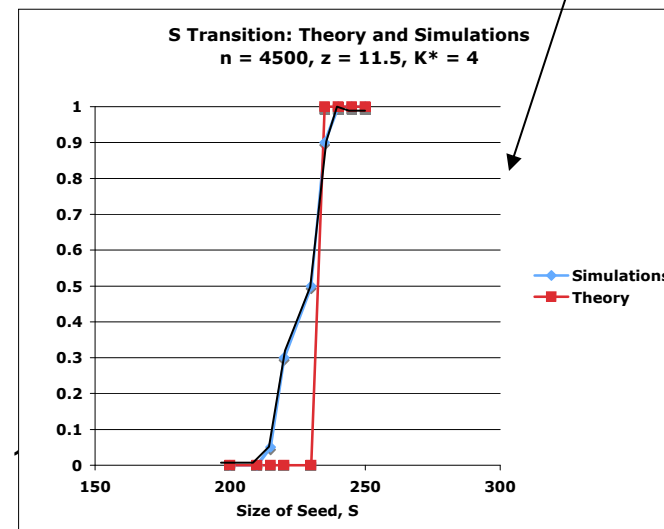
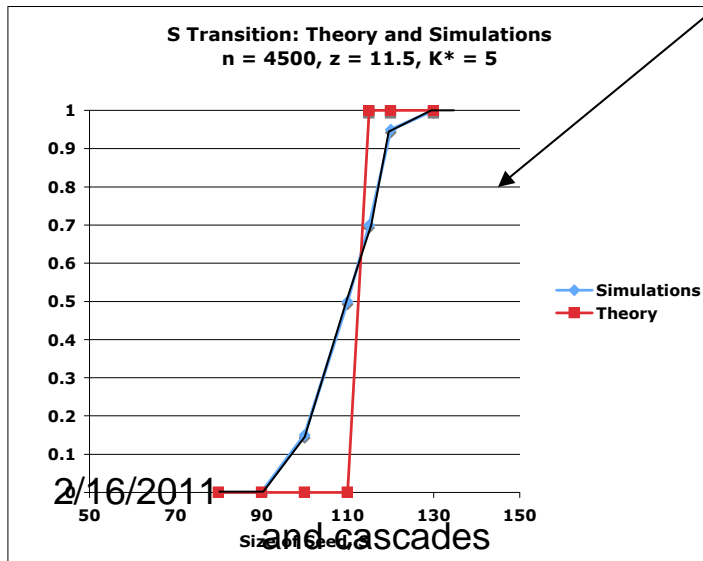
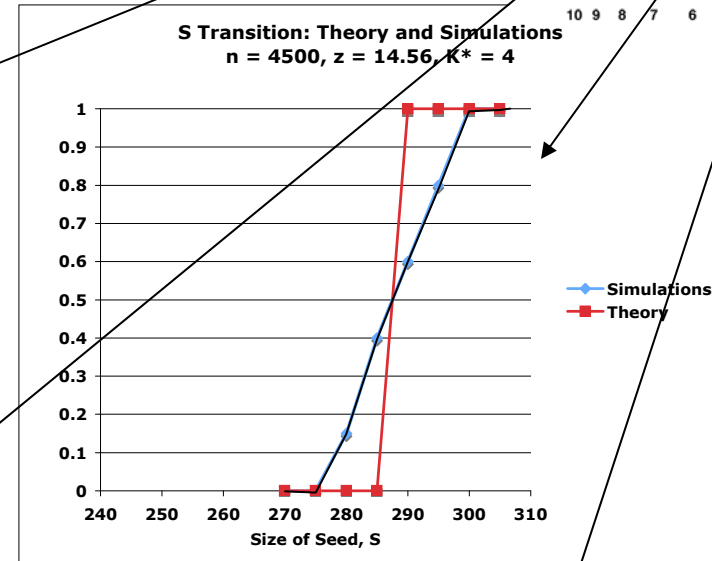
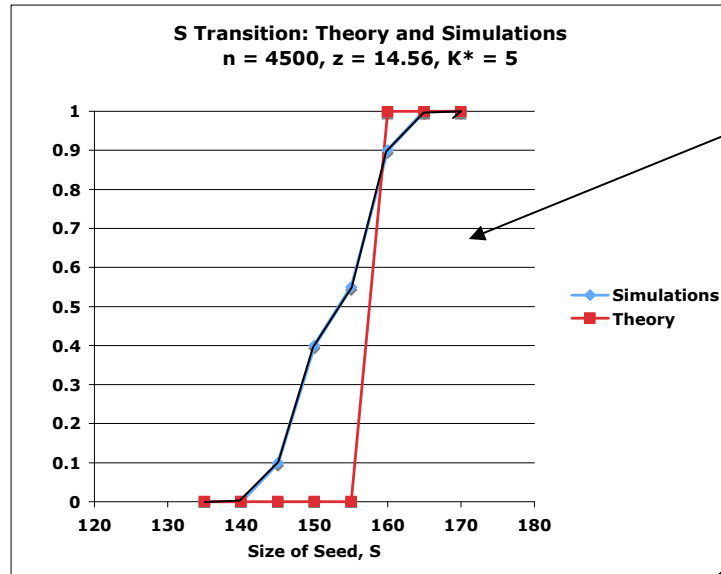
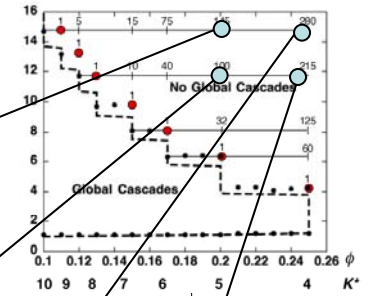
Theory and Simulations: Cascade in “Global Cascades” Region



Theory and Simulations: A Cascade in “No Global Cascades” Region



Theory: Ability to Predict Threshold Seed Size



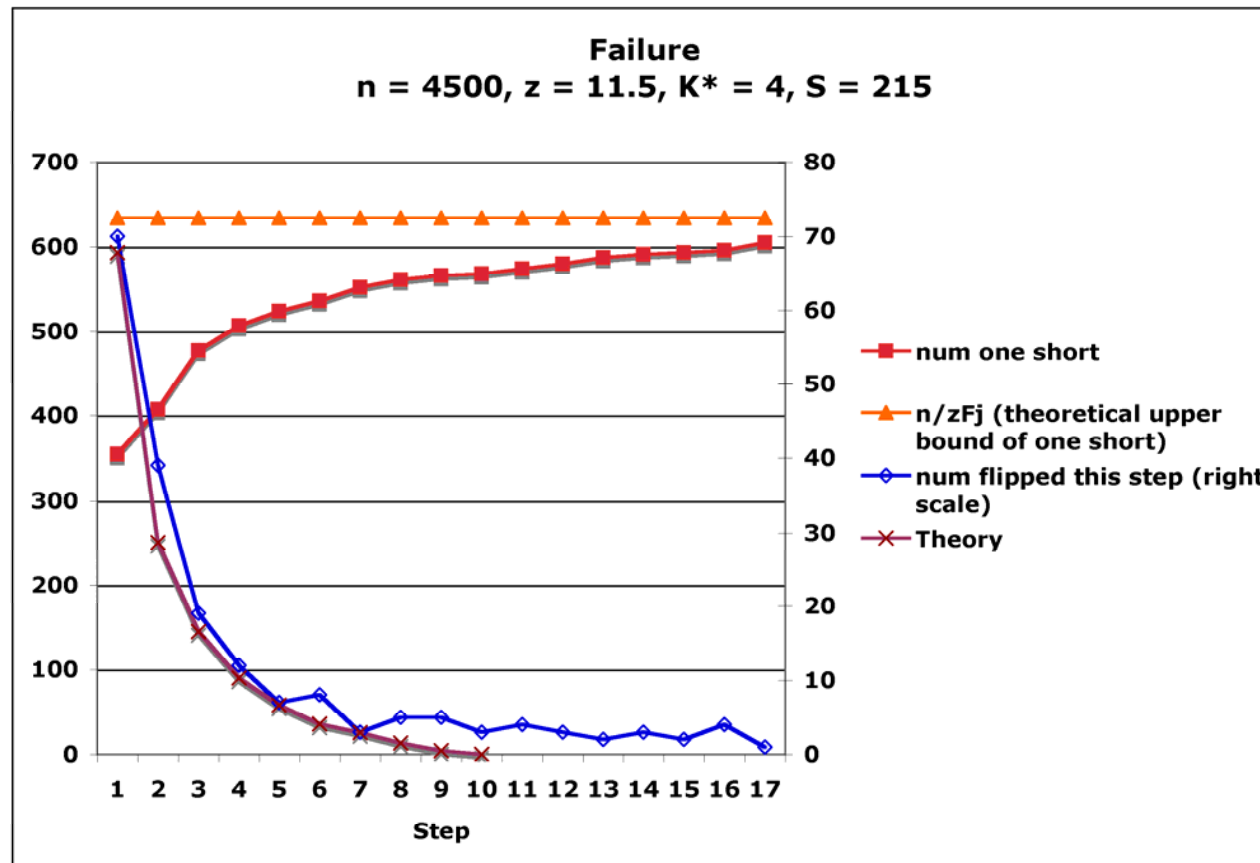
2/16/2011

and cascades

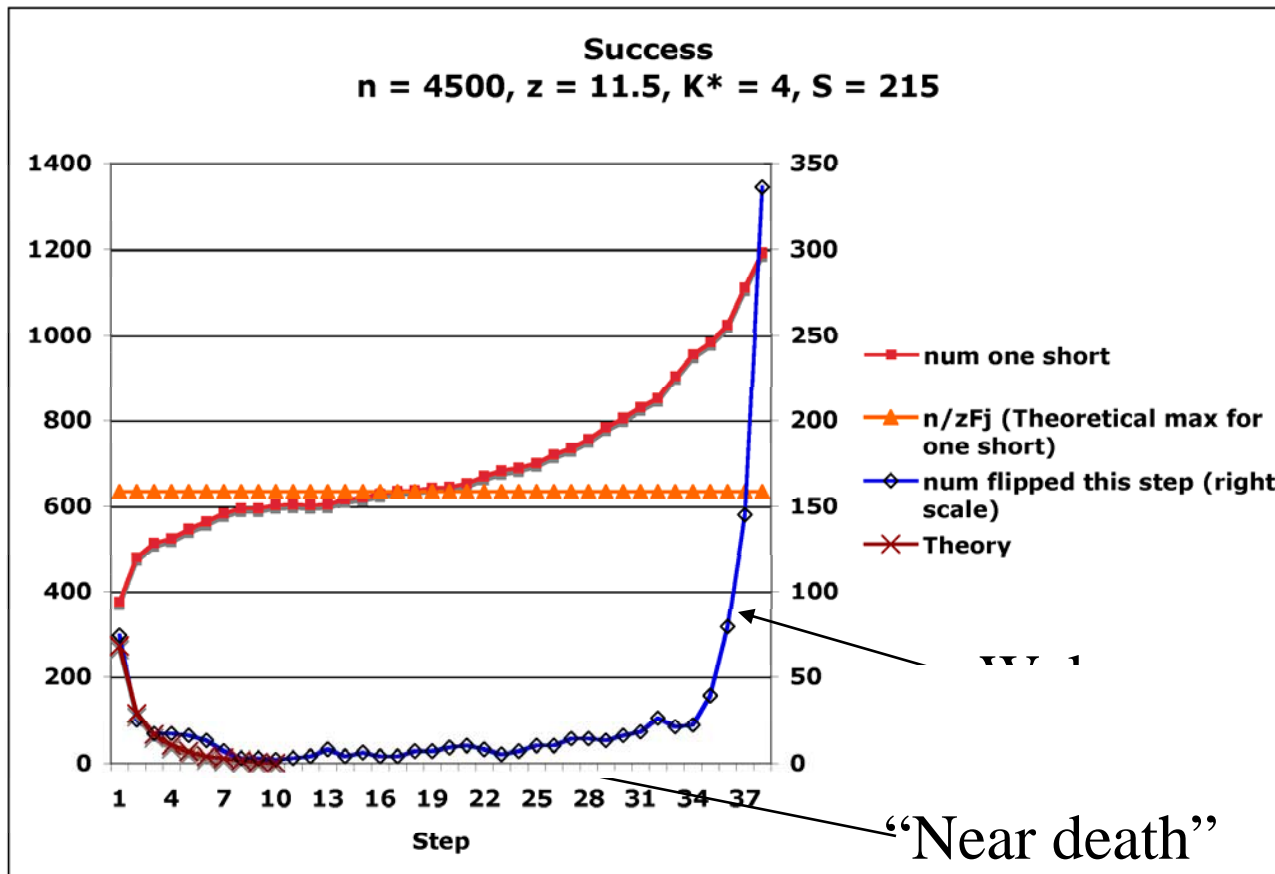
el E Whitney

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At $S = 215$, Failure Most of the Time



Occasionally, Success: Why?



Cause of Wake-up After Near Death

- Caused by a critical mass phenomenon
- Near death only a few nodes flip on each step
- At most they can hit one node each since, for so few nodes, the likelihood of multiple hits is about zero
- So only nodes that are one hit short of flipping have any chance to flip during this phase
- This chance is proportional to how many one-shorts there are on any step and how many net edges F_j has
- This population is growing but at the same time the number of flippers is falling

Derivation of Critical Mass

$$pr(\text{a node in the network links to } Fj) = \frac{Fj z_{Fj}}{n}$$

$$\# \text{ nodes with edges to } Fj = Fj z_{Fj}$$

$$= \# \text{ nodes that will be hit by } Fj$$

fraction of these that will flip =

$$\text{fractional representation of one short in the network} = \frac{N_{OS}}{n}$$

$$\text{number of nodes that } Fj \text{ flipped nodes will flip} = \frac{N_{OS} Fj z_{Fj}}{n}$$

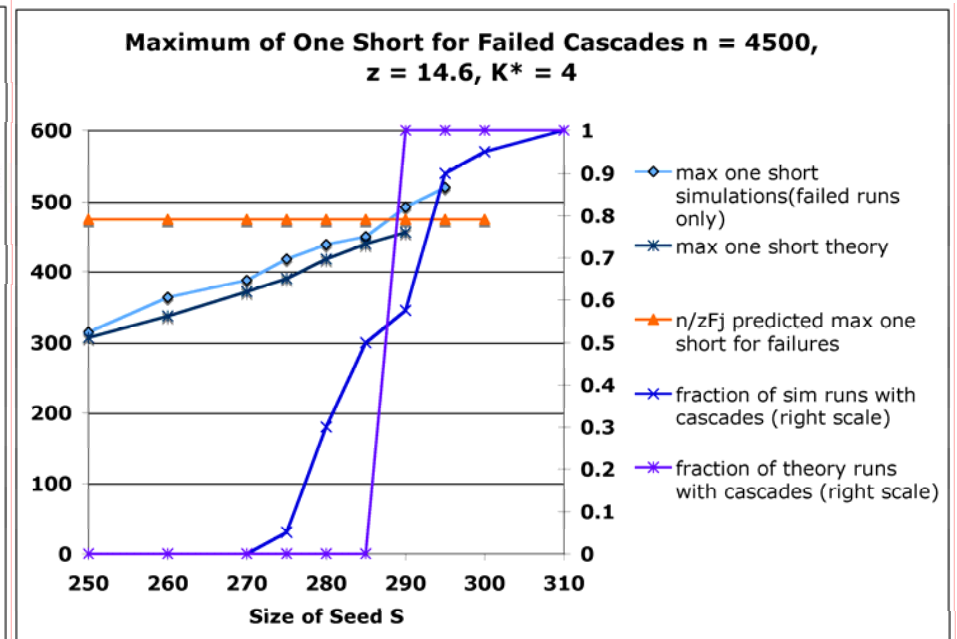
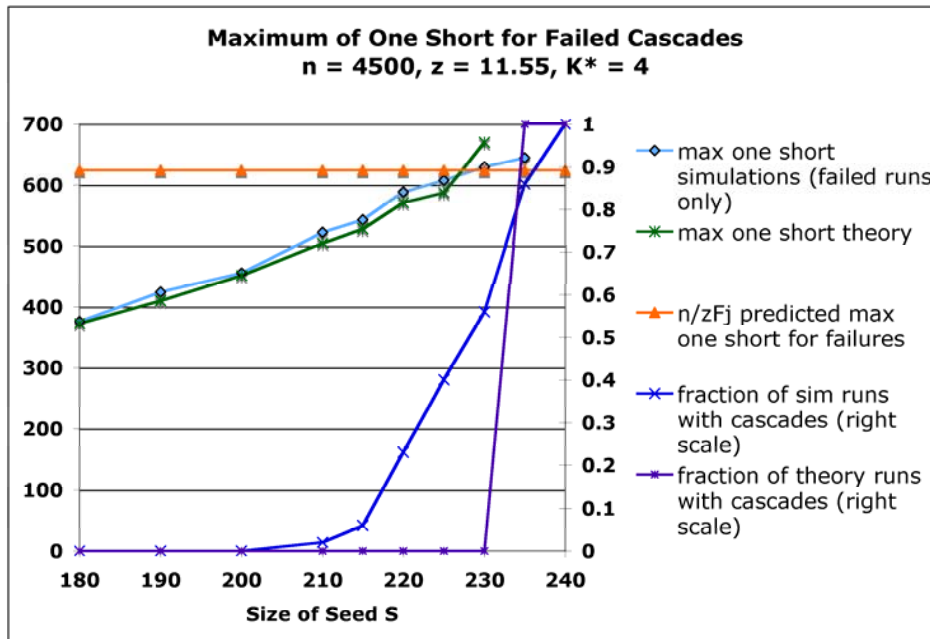
If each node in Fj flips one node, the cascade is self - sustaining.

$$\text{So } 1 = \frac{N_{OS} z_{Fj}}{n}$$

$$\text{or } N_{OS} = n / z_{Fj}$$

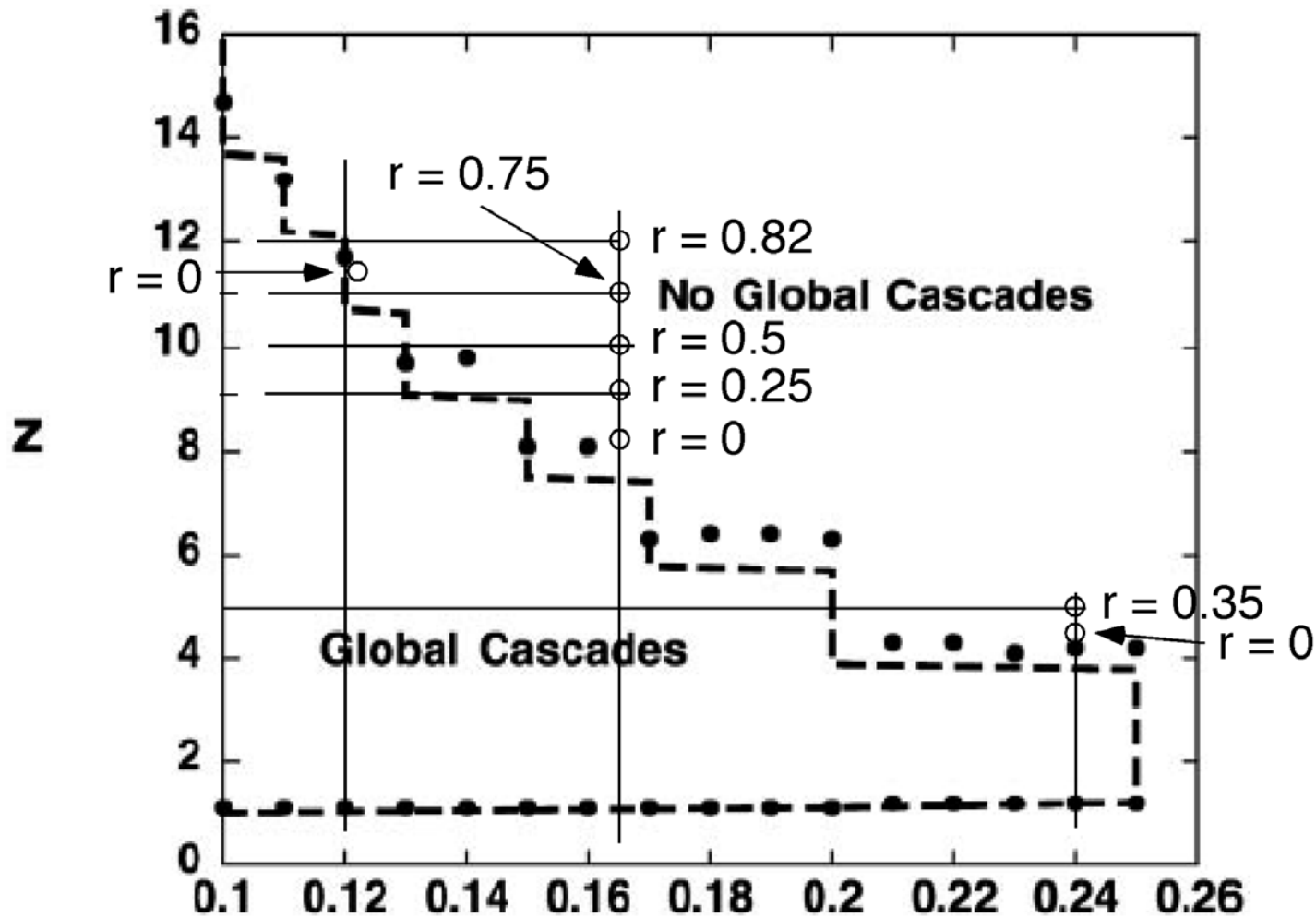
$$\text{or } Fj * N_{OS} = Fj * n / z_{Fj}$$

Theory and Simulations: Evolution of max One Short Failures (avg of 20 runs)



If one short exceeds the bound, a TNC almost always occurs.
 If one short does not exceed the bound, a TNC almost never occurs.
 Variation in one short can cause a TNC when mean is below bound.

When $r > 0$ Cascades Occur for Bigger z



Increasing r generates larger vulnerable clusters

References

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- [Watts] “A Simple Model of Global Cascades on Random Networks” *PNAS* April 30, 2002, pp 5766-5771
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More References

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- [Multiscale mobility networks and the spatial spreading of infectious diseases.](#) D. Balcan, V. Colizza, B. Gonsalves, H. Hu, J. J. Ramasco, A. Vespignani Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A **106**, 21484-21489 (2009).
- [Predictability and epidemic pathways in global outbreaks of infectious diseases: the SARS case study](#) V. Colizza, A. Barrat, M. Barthelemy, A. Vespignani BMC Medicine **5**, 34 (2007)
- [Seasonal transmission potential and activity peaks of the new influenza A\(H1N1\): a Monte Carlo likelihood analysis based on human mobility](#) D. Balcan, H. Hu, B. Goncalves, P. Bajardi, C. Poletto, J. J. Ramasco, D. Paolotti, N. Perra, M. Tizzoni, W. Van den Broeck, V. Colizza, A. Vespignani , BMC Medicine **7**, 45 (2009)

Backups

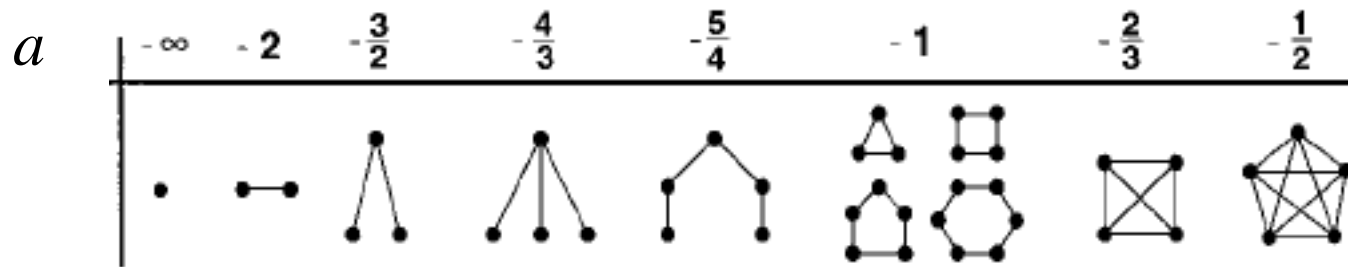
Generalized Random Networks

- E-R random network has a Poisson degree distribution
- Random networks can be built with arbitrary degree distributions, but software is required
- Newman says that it is better to generate a specific degree sequence from the distribution and then generate a network with that degree sequence in order to guarantee that the software uses the same degree sequence all the way through the generating process

Subgraph Shapes vs p

$$p \sim n^a, z \sim n^{a+1}$$

z	0	n^{-1}	$n^{-1/2}$	$n^{-1/3}$	$n^{-1/4}$	1	$n^{1/3}$	$n^{1/2}$
p	0	n^{-2}	$n^{-3/2}$	$n^{-4/3}$	$n^{-5/4}$	n^{-1}	$n^{-2/3}$	$n^{-1/2}$



z for $n = 1000$:	0	0.001	0.0316	0.1	0.178	1	10	31.6
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The threshold probabilities at which different subgraphs appear in a random graph. For $pn^{3/2} \rightarrow 0$ the graph consists of isolated nodes. For $p \sim n^{-3/2}$ trees of order 3 appear, while for $p \sim n^{-4/3}$ trees of order 4 appear, but not many. At $p \sim n^{-1}$ trees of all orders are present and at the same time cycles of all orders appear, but again, not many. The probability $p \sim n^{-2/3}$ marks the appearance of complete subgraphs of order 4 and $p \sim n^{-1/2}$ corresponds to complete subgraphs of order 5. As a approaches 0 the graph contains complete subgraphs of increasing order.

Site and Bond Percolation on Regular Graphs

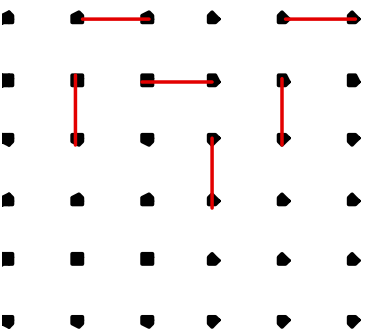
- “The most common percolation model is to take a regular lattice, like a square lattice, and make it into a random network by randomly ‘occupying’ sites (vertices) or bonds (edges) with a statistically independent probability p . At a critical threshold p_c , long-range connectivity first appears, and this is called the **percolation threshold**.” [see wikipedia reference “percolation threshold”]
- For a square grid, $p_c = 0.5$ for bond percolation and $p_c = 0.59274621$ for site percolation

Percolation Step by Step

Regular Networks: Occupancy



Each node has 2 neighbors.
It must be linked to both for there to be a chance of a giant cluster. So $p_c = 1$.



Each node has 4 neighbors.
It must be linked to at least 2 for there to be a chance of a giant cluster. So $p_c = 0.5$.

Random Networks: z

In a random network with n nodes each node has n neighbors. It must be linked to at least one for there to be a chance of a giant cluster. So $p_c = 1/n$. But $z = pn$ so this is the same as $z_c = 1$.

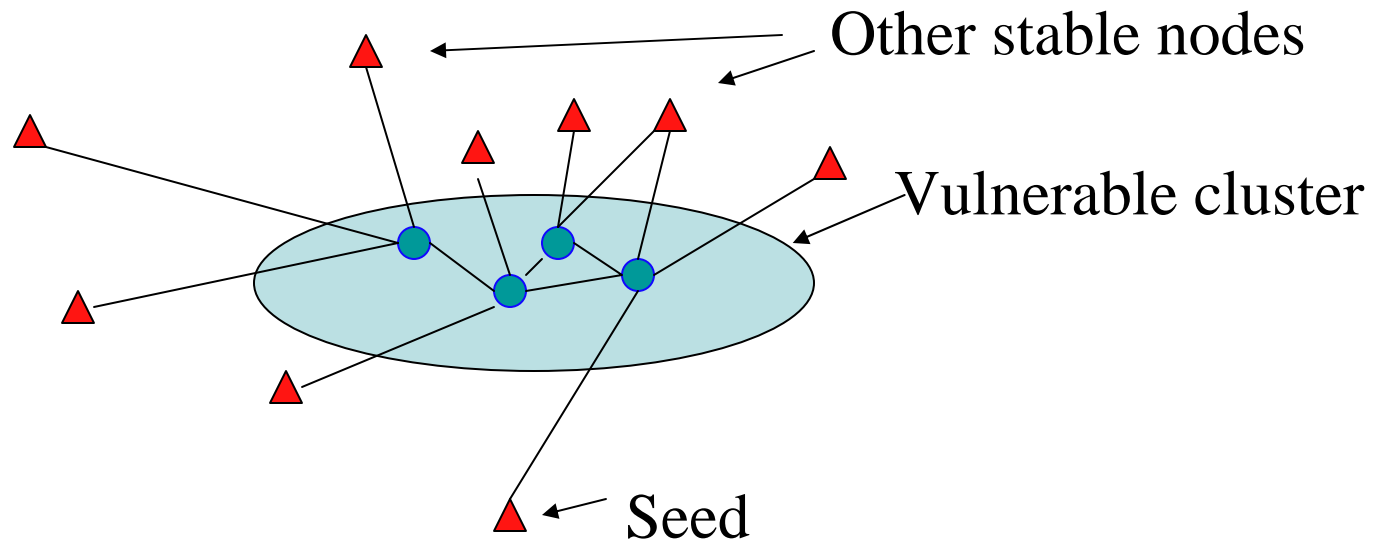
See Albert and Barabasi “Stat Mech of Complex Networks” for a detailed derivation

There is no proof or formula for p_c when $d > 2$ except for $d > 19$ and some special cases.

See Slade, Gordon, “Probabilistic Models of Critical Phenomena,”
Princeton Companion to Mathematics, edited by Timothy Gowers.
Scheduled for publication in 2007. for a detailed discussion
<http://www.math.ubc.ca/~slade/>

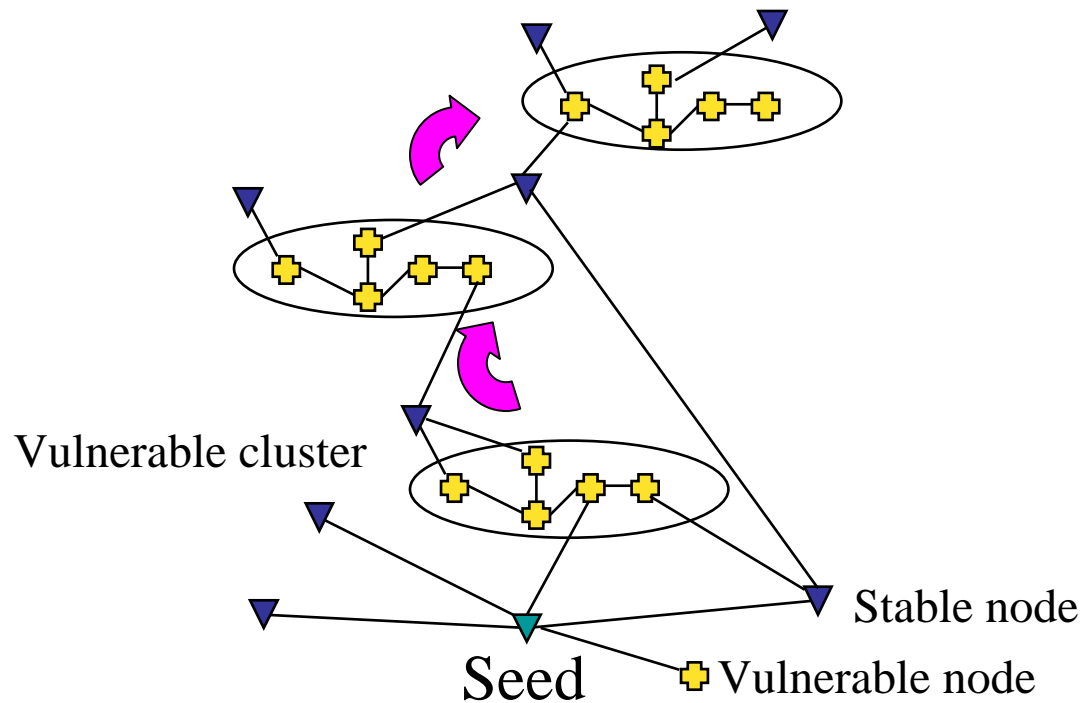
Vulnerable Clusters Multiply the Seed's Search Efficiency and Effectiveness

By itself, a single seed cannot flip a stable node



Vulnerable nodes have a few links to each other (average ~ 1.5) and more links to stable nodes outside their cluster. Working together, vulnerable nodes can flip stable nodes but most likely this happens only when vulnerable nodes co-exist in clusters

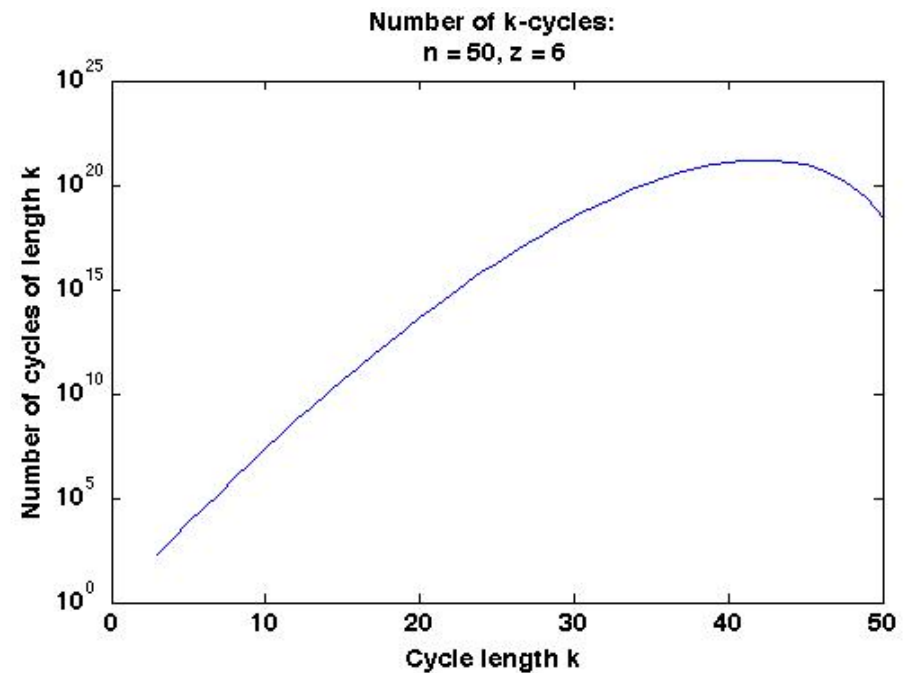
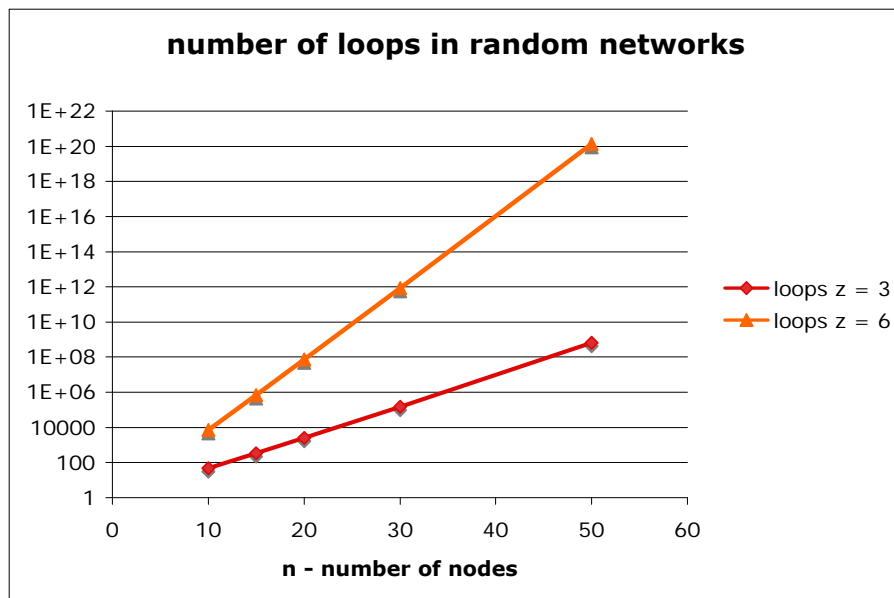
Cluster-Hopping Creates TNCs When Vulnerable Clusters Are Small



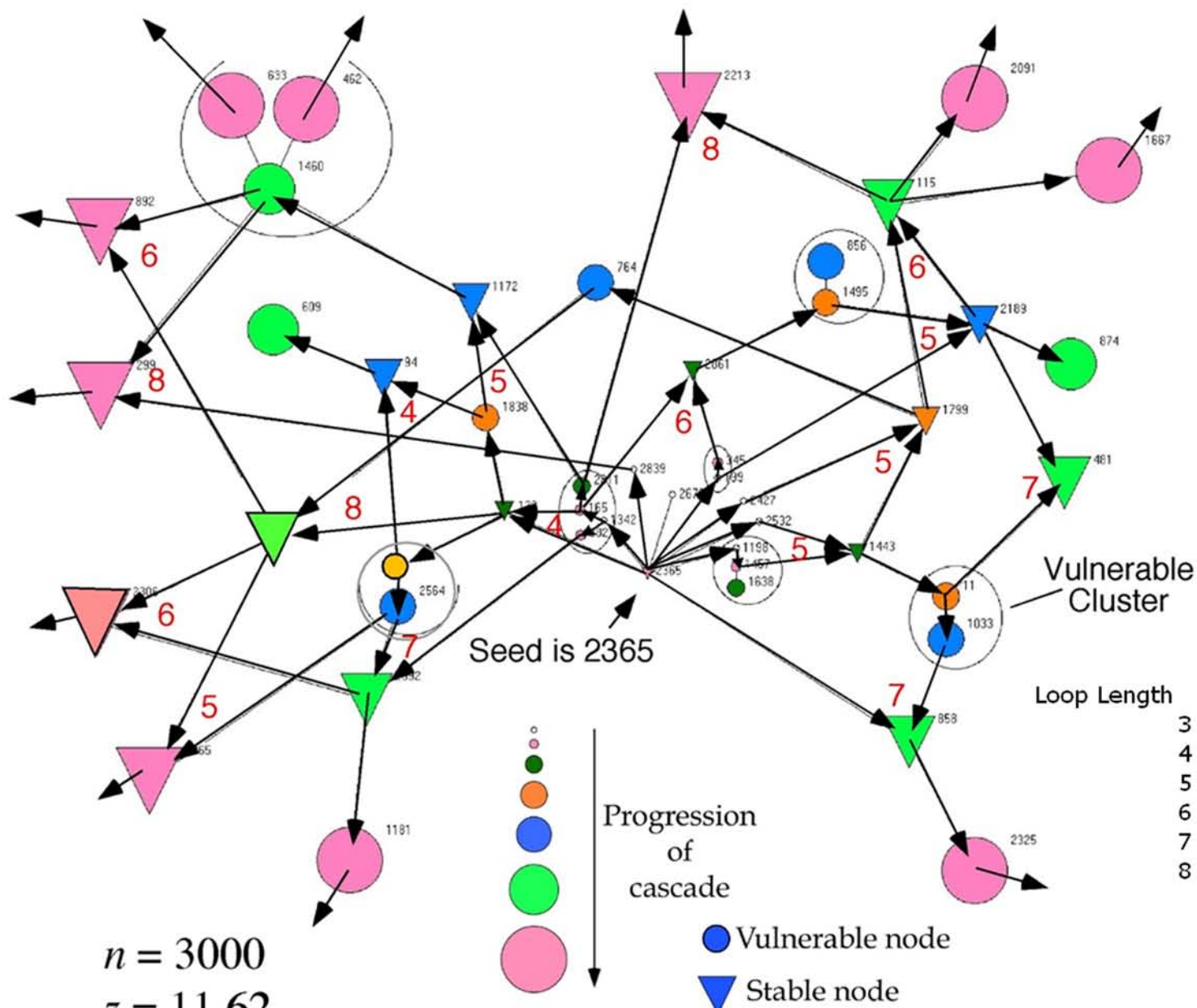
Whitney, ICCS, 2007

Do Random Networks Have Cycles?

$$\text{Expected } k\text{-cycles} = \frac{\binom{n}{k} k!}{2k} p^k \approx \frac{z^k}{2k} \text{ for } n \gg k$$



Diestel, R., Graph Theory, 3rd edition online at <http://www.math.uni-hamburg.de/home/diestel/books/graph.theory/index.html> page 298



$n = 3000$
 $z = 11.62$
 Biggest cluster = 13
 and cascades

Percolation Theory for Random Graphs

- Most theory assumes we are dealing with a sparse network that has few or no closed loops, especially no small closed loops
- This is measured by the clustering coefficient, which is small for big random networks where the theory has been developed
- If there is no clustering or small closed loops then it is easy to calculate how many neighbors, second neighbors, third neighbors, etc, a given node has because no node is its own third neighbor and the probability that a node is its own n^{th} neighbor goes down as n goes up.
- If there are more n^{th} neighbors than $(n-1)^{\text{th}}$ neighbors for all n and the network is tree-like, then there is a giant cluster
- The calculations can be done for any random graph whose degree distribution is known, not just E-R random graphs, as long as there is negligible clustering

Variants of the Theory

- 1. The percolation (or cascade) proceeds when a link is established between two nodes. This is basic simple percolation described on the previous slide.
- 2. The percolation proceeds if a link is established with a node that is “vulnerable”
 - A) Vulnerability can be a function of k or it can be the same for all nodes (some number $0 \leq b \leq 1$)
 - B) Simple percolation has $b = 1$ for all nodes
 - C) Watts rumors cascade model has

$$b = 1 \text{ for } k \leq K^*$$

$$b = 0 \text{ for } k > K^*$$

Derivation of Cascade Conditions (Newman)

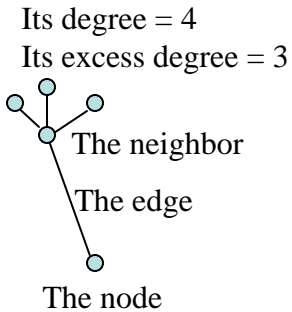
Pick an edge leading from a node and follow it to a neighboring node.

What is the (excess) degree distribution of this neighbor?

If its degree = k , its edges are k -times more numerous than if its degree = 1 (think of the edge list)

But the fraction of nodes with degree k is p_k .

So the likelihood of encountering a node of degree k by this process is proportional to kp_k



$$\text{Distribution of excess degrees of neighbor} = q_{k-1} = \frac{kp_k}{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kp_k} \quad \text{or} \quad q_k = \frac{(k+1)p_{k+1}}{z}$$

$$\langle q \rangle = \text{avg excess degree of neighbor} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kq_k = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k+1)kp_{k+1}}{z} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1)p_k}{z} = \frac{\langle k^2 \rangle - z}{z} = \frac{z_2}{z_1}$$

continuing

avg number of 2nd neighbors per 1st neighbor = $z_2 = \langle k^2 \rangle - z$

avg number of 3rd neighbors per 2nd neighbor = $z_3 = z_2 = \langle k^2 \rangle - z$

Avg number of m th neighbors = $z_1 \left[\frac{z_2}{z_1} \right]^{m-1}$

This diverges when $\left[\frac{z_2}{z_1} \right] = 1$



(from prev slide)

$$\frac{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1)p_k}{z} = 1$$

Generalizeable

Cascade condition

or

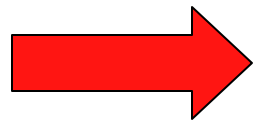
$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1)p_k = z$$

For E - R $\langle k^2 \rangle = \langle k \rangle^2 = z^2$

So, for E - R this is the same as $z = 1$

(See notes)

Molloy-Reed criterion



continuing

For the case where all nodes have vulnerability = b:

$$b \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1)p_k = z$$

See notes

For the case where vulnerability is a function ρ_k of k

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1)\rho_k p_k = z$$

Watts rumor cascade model:

$$\rho_k = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } k \leq K^* \\ 0 & \text{for } k > K^* \end{cases}$$

Supporting derivations of these typically use generating functions

Rules for Simulating Cascades

- Build a random network with some value of z and set the value of K^*
- Choose a node at random (the seed) and flip it
- Find its neighbors and flip all that are vulnerable
- Find their neighbors and flip all that can be flipped
 - “Vulnerable” ones flip if one neighbor flipped
 - “First-order” stable ones flip if two neighbors flipped, etc
- Keep going until all nodes have flipped that can
- Use some criterion to say if a global cascade has happened or not
- Watts made a new network each time but I reused the network to save time. This permitted me to examine it.

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