# Network Algorithms 

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Some slides adapted from:
Networked Life (NETS) 112, Univ. of Penn., 2018, Prof. Michael Kearns
Determining the Diameter of Small World Networks, Frank W. Takes \& Walter A. Kosters, Leiden University, The Netherlands
Structure and models of real-world graphs and networks, Jure Leskovec, Carnegie Mellon University
Complex (Biological) Networks, by Elhanan Borenstein, Roded Sharan, and Tomer Shlomi

## Computational

 Representation of Networks

List or hash table of edges: $\quad$ Adjacency Matrix (ordered) pairs of nodes
$\{(A, C),(C, B)$,
$(D, B),(D, C)\}$

|  | A | B | C | D |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| A | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| B | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| C | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| D | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

Adjacency List

| Name:D <br> $n g r:$ | Name:C <br> $n g r:$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| Name:A <br> $n g r:$ |  |
| name:B |  |
| $n$ |  |

- Which is the most useful representation?
- Should you use them in combination?


## Network Structures

- Network structures characterize how networks "look":
- Large or small diameter?
- Number of edges: sparse or dense?
- Degree distributions: heavy/long tail with a power law?
- Clustering coefficient: high or low?
- These are empirical phenomena
- How do you compute them?



## Degree Distribution

- x axis: number of neighbors (degree)
- y axis: number of vertices with that degree


(also known as a "heavy tail")


## Degree Distribution Algorithm

1. Compute the degree, $\operatorname{deg}(v)$, of each vertex, $v$.

- If $G$ is represented as an adjacency list, count the number of elements in $v$ 's list.

2. Create a histogram count array, $H$, of size $n$, and initialize each $H[i]=0$.
3. For each vertex, $v$, increment $H[\operatorname{deg}(v)]$.
4. Plot the values of $H$ from 0 to $n-1$ on a regular and log-log scale
5. If the values on the log-log plot form a straight line, determine its slope to find the exponent of the power law degree distribution

## Example 1

- Degree distribution without a long/heavy tail.
- Does not exhibit a power law.




## Example 2

- Degree distribution with a long/heavy tail.
- Does exhibit a power law, with exponent -2.5.




## Distance

- The distance between two vertices is the length of the shortest path connecting them.
- This assumes the network has only a single connected component
- If two vertices are in different components, their distance is infinite


Image from
https://www.sci.unich.it/-francesc/teaching/network/geodesic.html

## Diameter

- The diameter of a network is the maximum distance between a pair of vertices in the network
- It measures how near or far typical individuals are from each other


The dolphin network with the diameter (the longest shortest path) highlighted in red. The diameter is 8 edges long.

## Definitions

- Consider a connected undirected graph $G=(V, E)$ with $n=|V|$ nodes and $m=|E|$ edges
- Distance $d(v, w)$ : length of shortest path between nodes $v, w \in V$
- Diameter $D(G)$ : maximal distance (longest shortest path length) over all node pairs: $\max _{v, w \in V} d(v, w)$
- Eccentricity $e(v)$ : length of a longest shortest path from $v$ : $e(v)=\max _{w \in V} d(v, w)$
- Diameter $D(G)$ (alternative definition): maximal eccentricity over all nodes: $\max _{v \in V} e(v)$
- Eccentricity distribution: (relative) frequency $f(x)$ of each eccentricity value $x$

$$
f(x)=\frac{|\{u \in V \mid e(u)=x\}|}{n}
$$

## Example

- A graph with diameter 6
- Numbers next to nodes denote eccentricity values



## Naïve Algorithm

- Diameter is equal to the largest value returned by an All Pairs Shortest Path (APSP) algorithm
- Brute-force: for each vertex v , execute a Breadth First Search (BFS) from v in $O(m)$ time to find v's eccentricity. Return the largest value found.
- Time complexity $O(n m)$
- Problematic if $\mathrm{n}=8$ million and $\mathrm{m}=1$ billion.
- If one BFS takes 6 seconds on a 3.4 GHz machine, this brute-force algorithm takes 1.5 years to compute the diameter . . .


## Heuristic Idea 1

- If we can find one of the nodes in a diameter pair, we can compute the diameter with one more BFS.

1. Perform a BFS from a random sample of nodes, recording nodes with maximum found distance, d .
2. Perform a BFS from all the far nodes (if small) or a random sample of this set (if large).


## Heuristic Idea 2

1. Let $r$ be a random vertex and set $D_{\max }=0$.
2. Perform a BFS from r.
3. Select the farthest node, w, in this BFS.

- If the distance from $r$ to $w$ is larger than $D_{\max }$, set $D_{\text {max }}$ to this distance, let $r=w$, and repeat the above two steps.



## Plot Results as a Function of n

- If the networks exhibit the small world phenomenon, then diameters are small.
- So plot diameters as a function of $n$ on a lin-log scale:


The $\log n$ function looks like a straight line

## Clustering Coefficient

- "friend of a friend is a friend"
- If $a$ connects to $b$, and $b$ to $c$, then with high probability $a$ connects to $c$.
- Clustering coefficient $C$ :
$C=3^{*}$ number of triangles / number of 2-edge paths



## Clustering Coefficient (2)

- Clustering coefficient might have a power law:

$$
C(k) \sim k^{-1}
$$

- It is speculated that in real networks:

$$
C=O(1) \text { as } n \rightarrow \infty
$$




## Clustering Coefficient Algorithm

- Clustering coefficient $C$ :
$C=3 *$ number of triangles / number of 2-edge paths
- Computing the denominator is easy:
- For each vertex v, let $\operatorname{deg}(v)$ denote its degree.
- The number of paths of length 2 with $v$ in the middle is $\operatorname{deg}(v)$ choose $2=\operatorname{deg}(v)(\operatorname{deg}(v)-1) / 2$.
- So, to get the denominator for $C$, sum up $\operatorname{deg}(v)(\operatorname{deg}(v)-1) / 2$ for all vertices, $v$, in G.


Number of 2-edge paths with $v$ in the middle is $4(3) / 2=6$.

## Counting Triangles

- To get the numerator for $C$, we need to count the number of triangles in the graph, $G$.
- Naïve algorithm:
- For every triple, $u, v, w$ in G, see if they form a triangle. If so, add 1 to a running count.
- Running time is $O\left(n^{4}\right)$ if $G$ is represented with an adjacency list.


This is bad.


# Counting Triangles: Slight Improvement 

- Put every edge, ( $\mathrm{v}, \mathrm{w}$ ), into a hash table, T , so we can do a lookup to see if an edge exists in $O(1)$ expected time, i.e., with a get((v,w)).
- Slightly better naïve algorithm:
- For every triple, u, v, win G, see if they form a triangle. If so, add 1 to a running count.
- Running time is $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ expected if edges in $G$ are stored in a hash table.



## Graph Degeneracy

- The degeneracy of a graph is the smallest value of $d$ for which every subgraph has a vertex of degree at most d.
- If a graph has degeneracy d, then there exists an ordering of the vertices of $G$ in which each vertex has at most $d$ neighbors that are earlier in the ordering.

An ordering for a
graph with degeneracy 2 :


Public domain image by David Eppstein

## Real-World Graphs

- Real-world graphs tend to have small degeneracy, d.


Data from "Listing All Maximal Cliques in Large Sparse Real-World Graphs," by David Eppstein and Darren Strash

## Degeneracy Ordering Algorithm

- Degeneracy can be computed by a simple greedy algorithm:
- Repeatedly find and remove the vertex of smallest degree, adding it to the end of the list.
- The degeneracy is then the highest degree, d , of any vertex at the moment it is removed.
- The ordering is a d-degeneracy ordering.



## Linear-time Implementation

1. Initialize an output list, $L$, to be empty.
2. Compute a number, $d_{v}$, for each vertex $v$ in $G$, which is the number of neighbors of $v$ that are not already in $L$. Initially, $d_{v}$ is just the degrees of $v$.
3. Initialize an array $D$ such that $D[i]$ contains a list of the vertices $v$ that are not already in $L$ for which $d_{v}=i$.
4. Let $N_{v}$ be a list of the neighbors of $v$ that come before $v$ in $L$. Initially, $N_{v}$ is empty for every vertex $v$.
5. Initialize $k$ to 0 .
6. Repeat $n$ times:

- Let $i$ be the smallest index such that $D[i]$ is nonempty.
- Set $k$ to $\max (k, i)$.
- Select a vertex $v$ from $D[i]$. Add $v$ to the beginning of $L$ and remove it from $D[i]$. Mark $v$ as being in $L$ (e.g., using a hash table, $H_{L}$ ).
- For each neighbor $w$ of $v$ not already in $L$ (you can check this using $H_{L}$ ):
- Subtract one from $d_{w}$
- Move $w$ to the cell of $D$ corresponding to the new value of $d_{w}$, i.e., $D\left[d_{w}\right]$
- Add $w$ to $N_{v}$


## Triangle Counting Algorithm

- Compute a $d$-degeneracy ordering of the vertices, e.g., using the algorithm of the previous slide.
- Process the vertices according to this ordering, $L$ :

For each vertex, $v$ :
For each pair of vertices, $u$ and $w$, adjacent to $v$ and earlier in the ordering, i.e., $u$ and $v$ are in the list $N_{v}$ from the degeneracy algorithm:

If $(u, w)$ is an edge in the graph, then add one to the triangle count.

- Running time is $\mathrm{O}\left(d^{2} n\right)=\mathrm{O}(d m)$ expected, assuming edges are stored in a hash table.

