

# Complex Network Simulation

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# Complex Network Examples

There is no solid definition for what constitutes a complex network.

The following are widely considered to be complex networks:

- The Internet
- The World Wide Web
- Social networks (real-world and online)
- Various biological networks

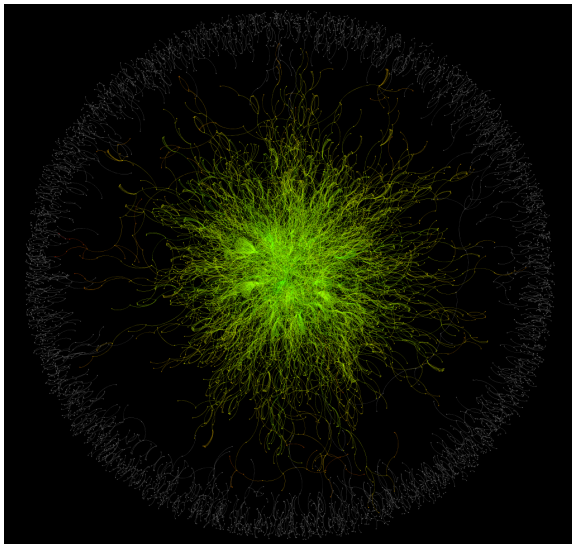
# Simulation Motivation

Real-world complex networks can not be studied in their entirety because:

- The network is too large to store in computer memory.
- The network frequently changes.
- The resources to record the network are not available.

This motivates the simulation of complex networks using random graphs.

# Random Graph Example



# Sparse Graph Processes

Let  $G_n$  be a random graph of order  $n$ .

Consider the graph process  $(G_n)_{n \geq 1}$ .

Let  $P_k^{(n)}$  be the proportion of vertices with degree  $k$  in  $G_n$ .

## Definition

A graph sequence  $(G_n)_{n \geq 1}$  is called *sparse* when

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P_k^{(n)} = p_k, \quad (1)$$

for some deterministic limiting probability distribution  $(p_k)_{k \geq 0}$ .

# Scale-Free Graph Processes

## Definition

A sparse graph process  $(G_n)_{n \geq 1}$  is *scale-free with exponent*  $\alpha$  if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log(p_k)}{-\log k} = \alpha \quad (2)$$

where  $\alpha > 1$  and  $(p_k)_{k \geq 0}$  is the limiting probability distribution for the degree of each vertex.

This means that for large  $n$ , each vertex has degree  $\propto k^{-\alpha}$ .



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# The Barabási-Albert Model

Denote the *Barabási-Albert* model with  $n$  vertices and parameter  $m$  by  $BA_n(m)$ .

Can think of  $BA_n(m)$  as an algorithm which takes  $m$  and  $n$  as input and returns a random graph as output.

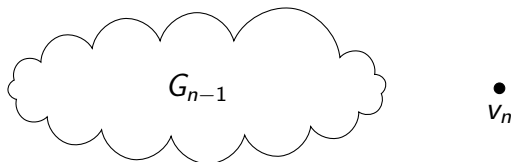
Alternatively  $BA_n(m)$  denotes the distribution of a random graph constructed by the *Barabási-Albert* model.

# Informal Description (1)

We can construct  $G_n \sim \text{BA}_n(m)$  recursively.

Say we have a graph  $G_{n-1} \sim \text{BA}_{n-1}(m)$ . To make  $G_n$  we:

- 1 Add a vertex  $v_n$  to  $G_{n-1}$ .

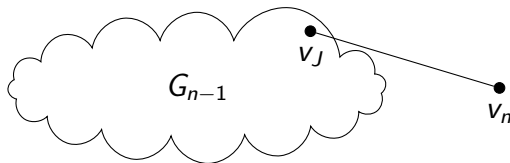


## Informal Description (2)

2 Add edge  $\{v_n, v_J\}$  where  $v_J \in V(G_{n-1}) \cup \{v_n\}$  with probability

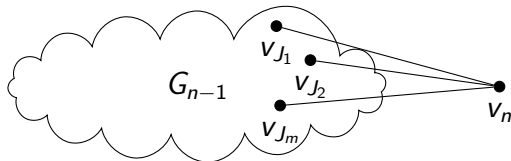
$$\mathbb{P}(J = j) = \frac{\delta_{jn} + \deg(v_j)}{1 + \sum_{v_i} \deg(v_i)}.$$

where  $\delta_{ij}$  is the Kronecker delta.



## Informal Description (3)

- 3 Repeat step 2 until  $m$  edges have been added to  $G_{n-1}$ . Call the resulting graph  $G_n$ .



# Properties

For  $m \geq 1$  we have:

- Degrees follow a power-law with  $\alpha = 3$ .
- Graph is not simple.
- Graph is not necessarily connected.

**A simple and intuitive rule was used to simulate a complex network.**

This “preferential attachment” scheme could explain how complex networks arise.

# Efficient Barabási-Albert

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**Algorithm 1:**  $\text{BA}_n(m)$ 

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**Data:** Number of vertices  $n$ , parameter  $m$

**Result:** Barabási-Albert graph  $G$

Initialize graph  $G$  to a single vertex with  $m$  self-loops;

Initialize degree stack  $D = (1, 1, \dots, 1)$  which has length  $m$ ;

**for**  $i \leftarrow 2$  **to**  $n$  **do**

    Add vertex  $v_i$  to  $G$ ;

**for**  $j \leftarrow 1$  **to**  $m$  **do**

        Append  $i$  onto  $D$ ;

        Generate  $J \sim \text{Discrete Uniform}(1, |D|)$ ;

        Add edge  $\{v_{D(J)}, v_i\}$  to  $G$ ;

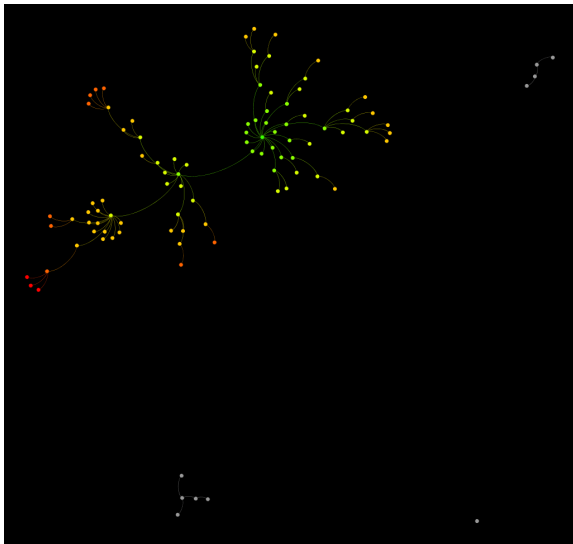
        Append  $(D(J))$  to  $D$ ;

**end**

**end**

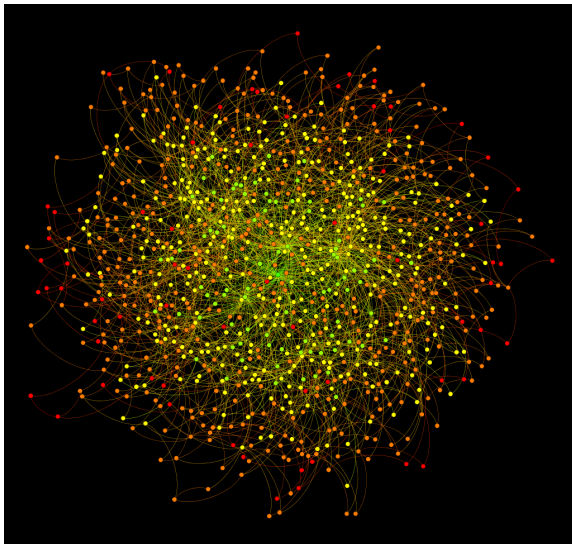
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# $BA_{100}(1)$ Example





# $BA_{1000}(2)$ Example



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# The Configuration Model

Denote  $\text{Config}_n(\mathbf{x})$  as the *configuration* model with  $n$  vertices and degree sequence  $\mathbf{x}$ .

The output of the configuration model is be a random graph with degree sequence  $\mathbf{x}$ .

To make the random graph scale-free, we make the degree sequence a random vector  $\mathbf{X}$ .

# Random Degree Sequences

The goal is for  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$  to exhibit power-law behaviour.  
Take  $X_i \sim \text{Zeta}(\alpha)$ , with  $2 \leq \alpha \leq 3$ .

Recall that the density function for the Zeta( $\alpha$ ) distribution is

$$f_{\alpha}(k) = k^{-\alpha} / \zeta(\alpha), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots \quad (3)$$

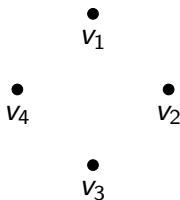
where  $\zeta(s)$  is the Riemann-Zeta function.

# Informal Description (1)

Assume that  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  has been simulated from  $\mathbf{X}$  and that  $\sum_i x_i$  is even. For example take  $\mathbf{x} = (3, 1, 2, 2)$ .

- 1 Add  $n$  vertices,  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$
- 2 For each vertex  $v_i$ , add  $x_i$  copies of index  $i$  to stack  $H$

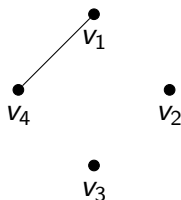
$$H = (1, 1, 1, 2, 3, 3, 4, 4)$$



## Informal Description (2)

- 3 Pop  $k$  off the top of stack  $H$
- 4 Remove  $l$  uniformly from the rest of stack  $H$
- 5 Add edge  $\{v_k, v_l\}$

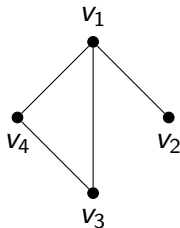
$$H = (\cancel{1}, 1, 1, 2, 3, 3, \cancel{4}, 4) = (1, 1, 2, 3, 3, 4)$$



# Informal Description (3)

6 Repeat from step 3 until  $H$  is empty

$$H = ()$$



# Properties

For  $X_i \sim \text{Zeta}(\alpha)$  we have:

- Degrees follow a power-law with parameter  $\alpha$
- Graph is not necessarily simple
- Graph is not necessarily connected

The configuration model has greater flexibility than BA.  
However the configuration model does not explain how/why complex networks exist.



# Formal Configuration I

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**Algorithm 2:**  $\text{Config}_n(\mathbf{x})$ 

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**Data:** Number of vertices  $n$ , degree sequence  $\mathbf{x}$

**Result:** Multigraph  $G$

Initialize the graph  $G$  to have  $n$  vertices;

Initialize empty stack of half-edges  $H$ ;

**for**  $i \leftarrow 1$  **to**  $n$  **do**

**for**  $j \leftarrow 1$  **to**  $x_i$  **do**

        Push  $i$  onto  $H$ ;

**end**

**end**

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# Formal Configuration II

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while  $|H| \geq 2$  do  
   $i \leftarrow H[1]$ ;  
  Remove  $H[1]$  from  $H$ ;  
  Generate  $U \sim \text{DU}(1, |H|)$ ;  
   $j \leftarrow H[U]$ ;  
  Remove  $H[U]$  from  $H$ ;  
  Add edge  $\{v_i, v_j\}$  to  $G$ ;  
end
```

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# Forcing Simplicity

There are two main options to force the graph to be simple:

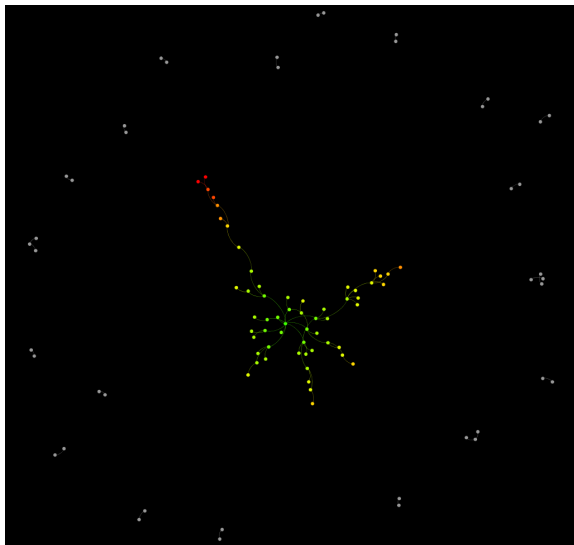
- Erased Configuration

- If degree sum is odd, discard the left-over half-edge
- Search and destroy parallel edges and self-loops
- Advantage: fast and reliable
- Disadvantage: each configuration does not occur with equal probability

- Repeated Configuration

- Keep generating **X** and the random graph until the resulting graph is simple
- Advantage: each configuration occurs with equal probability
- Disadvantage: Slow and inefficient

# Config<sub>100</sub>(**X**) Example ( $\alpha = 2.5$ )



# Config<sub>1000</sub>(**X**) Example ( $\alpha = 3$ )

