A complex system consists of many constituents, generating emerging behaviors through diverse interactions [1, 2]. One of the powerful ways of examining the intrinsic nature of a complex system is to observe how such emerging patterns change by small perturbation applied to the system. In complex systems, such a change or response is so sensitive to the details of the perturbation that it is extremely diverse. In such a case, it is not adequate to predict how much the change would be definitely. Recently, Parisi has argued [3] that the prediction for the responses to small perturbations in complex systems can be made in a probabilistic way. He showed examples of protein structures in biological systems and spin glasses in physical systems. In case of proteins, subject to small external perturbations such as the change in pH or the substitution of a single amino acid, they would fold to a completely different 3D structure but with practically the same free energy. In case of the disordered magnetic systems, each spin responds to a slowly varying external field by changing its orientation, forming a series of bursts, known as Barkhausen noise [4]. The number of spins burst depends on the disorder strength of the system, following a power-law distribution at a critical strength of disorder. The prediction of the number of spins burst in this case can only be probabilistic. The stock market is another example of complex systems. Stock prices are determined as a result of the complicated interplay between numerous investors, and the price changes were also found to exhibit a power-law distribution [5]. All these examples aptly illustrate how the concept of probabilistic prediction may apply as a new paradigm in modern science. Other examples can also be found in as diverse fields as the meteorology and the geology [6].

Recently, there are many works to describe complex systems in terms of graphs [7, 8], where vertices represent constituents and edges interactions between constituents. An interesting feature emerging in such complex networks is the emergence of a power-law behavior in the degree distribution, \( P(k) \sim k^{-\gamma} \) [2], where the degree \( k \) is the number of edges incident upon a given vertex. Such complex networks are called scale-free (SF) networks.

In this Letter, we study how SF networks respond to small perturbations and check if the concept of probabilistic prediction can be applied. For this purpose, we investigate a simple problem of diameter change when a single vertex is removed from the system. Diameter, defined as the average distance between every pair of vertices in a network, is a simple yet fundamental quantity of SF networks to characterize the small-world nature, and can be thought of as a measure reflecting the efficiency of a network. Our main interest is how much the efficiency of a network would be affected by the removal of a single vertex. When a vertex is removed, each pair of remaining vertices whose shortest pathway had passed through the removed vertex should find detours, resulting in the rearrangement of shortest pathways over the network. Thus the diameter change occurs in a collective manner. From the extensive numerical calculations for a number of SF network models and real-world examples, we find that the diameter changes indeed are very diverse and crucially depend on the degree of the removed vertex. When a vertex with a few number of connections is removed, the diameter changes little. However, when a vertex with a large number of connections is removed, the diameter change is drastic, exhibiting a power-law distribution with an exponent \( \xi \).

\[
P_e(\Delta) \sim \Delta^{-\xi}
\]  

for large \( \Delta \), where \( \Delta \) is the dimensionless relative diameter change defined as the diameter change caused by the removal of a certain vertex divided by the original diameter before the removal, and \( P_e(\Delta) \) is its distribution. Moreover the exponent \( \xi \) turns out to be robust for various SF networks, insensitive to the degree exponent \( \gamma \) for \( 2 < \gamma \leq 3 \).

To be specific, we consider a undirected SF network with finite number of vertices \( N \) and measure the diameter of the network. Note that we limit our interest to undirected networks only in this work. Next we remove a certain vertex \( i \) and measure the diameter \( d_i \) of the rest of the network. Measuring a dimensionless quantity, \( \Delta_i = (d_i - d_0)/d_0 \) for all \( i \), where \( d_0 \) is the diameter of the original unperturbed network, we obtain the distribution of \( \Delta \) for the network. Note that our
It is known that the diameter of such small diameter changes in a mean-field-type approach. We estimate the impact on the system’s efficiency and they indeed contribute to the positive tail of the histogram, showing the power-law behavior, Eq. 11. We find that such large diameter changes are mainly due to the removal of a vertex with large degree. This feature is reminiscent of the percolation problems on the SF networks [14, 15].

Let us investigate the power-law behavior for large Δ in details. The exponent ζ seems to be robust as ζ ≈ 2.2(1) as long as 2 < γ ≤ 3 for the static model as shown in Fig. 2. Similar behaviors are found in other model networks (ii)–(viii) listed in Table 1. These include the SF networks showing nontrivial degree-degree correlations [26]. For γ > 3, on the other hand, as ζ increases, the power-law behavior sets in only for larger values of Δ and the exponent ζ increases with γ. Eventually the diameter change distribution for the Erdös-Rényi random networks decays exponentially as shown in Fig. 2.

To see such universal behavior of ζ in real world, we consider a couple of real-world networks, the protein interaction networks (PIN) and the Internet. For the PIN of the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* [22], we also find a power law in the diameter change distribution with an exponent ζ ≈ 2.3(1) (Fig. 3), consistent with the one obtained for various model networks, including the one proposed as its own in silico model (vii) [21]. For the Internet at the autonomous systems level [23], the diameter change distribution again follows a power law, however, with a different exponent ζ ≈ 1.7(1) (Fig. 4). The smaller exponent ζ indicates that the effect of the removal of vertices contributing to the tail of the distribution is much more severe than the previous cases with ζ ≈ 2.2 [(i)–(viii) in Table 1]. To confirm the novel value of ζ for the Internet, we perform the same calculations for its in silico model, called the adaptation model [24], and indeed obtain ζ ≈ 1.7 for it, too. The two different behaviors of the diam-

---

**FIG. 1:** Normalized histogram of the diameter changes for the static model with γ = 3 and N = 10^4, averaged over 10 configurations. Horizontal range is truncated for clearance, but runs up to 2 × 10^{-2}. Inset: Plot of P_{c}(Δ) in log-log scale for Δ > 0. Dashed line is a fit line having a slope −2.2. Data points are logarithmically binned.

**FIG. 2:** The diameter change distribution P_{c}(Δ) for the static model with γ = 2.2 (□), 2.4 (∗), 2.6 (γ), 2.8 (△), 3.0 (○), and 4.0 (+), and the Erdös-Rényi model (×). The data, obtained for N = 10^4 and averaged over 10 configurations. The two data sets (+, ×) are shifted vertically for comparison. Dashed line having a slope −2.2 is drawn for the eye. Note that the deviations from the straight line at the fat tail are due to the generic finite-size effects for the SF networks with γ < 3 [10].
TABLE I: Summary of the results for various SF networks. Tabulated for each network are the system size $N$, the mean degree $\langle k \rangle$, the degree exponent $\gamma$, the diameter change exponent $\zeta$, and the betweenness centrality exponent $\eta$ [25].

| System                                      | $N$  | $\langle k \rangle$ | $\gamma$ | $\zeta$ | $\eta$ | ref. |
|---------------------------------------------|------|----------------------|----------|---------|--------|------|
| (i) Static model                            | $10^4$ | 4                    | 2.2–3.0  | 2.2(1)  | 2.2(1) | [12] |
| (ii) Barabási-Albert model                  | $10^4$ | 4                    | 2.2–3.0  | 2.2(1)  | 2.2(1) | [9]  |
| (iii) Copying model                         | $10^4$ | 4                    | 2.2–3.0  | 2.2(1)  | 2.2(1) | [17] |
| (iv) Fitness model                          | $10^4$ | 4                    | 2.25     | 2.2(1)  | 2.2(1) | [18] |
| (v) Accelerated-growth model                | $10^4$ | $\theta(1)$         | 3.0(1)   | 2.2(1)  | 2.2(1) | [19] |
| (vi) Huberman-Adamic model                  | $10^4$ | $\theta(1)$         | 3.0(1)   | 2.2(1)  | 2.2(1) | [20] |
| (vii) Protein interaction network model     | $10^4$ | $\theta(1)$         | –        | 2.2(1)  | 2.2(1) | [21] |
| (viii) Protein interaction network of yeast S. cerevisiae | 5662 | 6.1                  | 3.2(2)   | 2.3(1)  | 2.3(1) | [22] |
| (ix) Internet at the autonomous systems level | 6474, 12058 | $\sim 4$           | 2.1(1)   | 1.7(1)  | 2.0(1) | [23] |
| (x) Adaptation model                        | ~6500 | $\theta(1)$         | 2.1      | 1.7(1)  | 2.0(1) | [24] |

The diam-}

ter change distribution are rooted from distinct topological features of shortest pathways of each case, which will be discussed later.

Recently, it was proposed that the SF networks with $2 < \gamma \leq 3$ can be classified into two classes [12, 25], following the power-law behavior of the betweenness centrality (BC) distribution [27, 28]. The BC $g_k$ of a vertex $k$ is the accumulated sum of the fraction of shortest pathways passing through $k$ and its distribution follows a power law, $P_c(g) \sim g^{-\eta}$ for SF networks. The BC exponent $\eta$ turns out to be robust as either $\eta \approx 2.2(1)$ (class I) or $\eta \approx 2.0(1)$ (class II) as long as $2 < \gamma \leq 3$ [12, 25]. Interestingly, the networks (i)–(viii) in Table 1 having the diameter change exponent $\zeta \approx 2.2$ belong to the class I, and the values of $\zeta$ and $\eta$ coincide with each other within our numerical resolutions, while they are different for the class II. Empirically, the rank of a vertex in $g$ and that in $\Delta$ are likely to be the same for vertices with large degrees. If then, the relation $P_c(g)dg \sim P_c(\Delta)d\Delta$ would hold asymptotically, leading to

$$\Delta(g) \sim g^{(\eta-1)/\zeta-1},$$

for large $g$. This type of relation also holds between degree and BC [12]. Indeed, the slopes in the double logarithmic scale in the upper insets of Figs. 3 and 4 are 1.1(1) for the PIN and 1.4(1) for the Internet, respectively, consistent with the predictions from the formula, Eq. (2). Thus the two classes, the classes I and II, are also categorized by the diameter change distribution and the distinction between them can be observed more clearly through it.

Our finding that the diameter change distribution is also classified into the classes I and II following those for BC distribution may be rooted from the fact that both quantities, di-

![FIG. 3](image1.png) **FIG. 3:** The diameter change distribution $P_c(\Delta)$ for the PIN of the yeast *S. cerevisiae*. The slope of the fit line (dashed) is $-2.3$, drawn for the eye. Upper inset: Plot of $\Delta(g)$ vs. $g$. The slope of the straight line is 1.1, drawn for the eye. Lower inset: The largest-cluster-size change distribution $P_c(\delta S)$. Here $\delta S$ is normalized by $N$. The slope of the fit line is $-3.0$, drawn for the eye.

![FIG. 4](image2.png) **FIG. 4:** The diameter change distribution $P_c(\Delta)$ for the Internet at the autonomous system level. The slope of the fit line (dashed) is $-1.7$, drawn for the eye. Upper inset: Plot of $\Delta(g)$ vs. $g$. The slope of the straight line is 1.4, drawn for the eye. Lower inset: The largest-cluster-size change distribution $P_c(\delta S)$. Here $\delta S$ is normalized by $N$. The slope of the fit line is $-2.4$, drawn for the eye.
ameter and BC, depend on universal features of the shortest pathways topology between a vertex pair in networks. When the sum rule \[ \sum_k g_k \sim d \] is applied, one can see immediately that the diameter change distribution is the same as the total BC change distribution. On the other hand, the networks belonging to the class II are more sparse and ramified than those in the class I, so that the Internet is more fragile by the removal of a single vertex than the PIN. We compare the distribution of the size change \( \delta S \) of the largest cluster for the PIN and the Internet by a single vertex removal. As shown in the lower insets of Figs. 3 and 4, the giant cluster in the Internet becomes much smaller than in the PIN. Thus the number of vertex pairs connected after the removal becomes much smaller in the Internet than in the PIN. Consequently, the difference of the exponent \( \zeta \) between the two classes appears much larger than that of the exponent \( \eta \) in the class II. However, it is not clear how the power-law behavior in \( P_c(\Delta) \) arises and what determines its exponent.

It would be interesting to generalize our study to the case of having more than one vertex removed. For simplicity, we assume that the Internet is more fragile by the removal of a single vertex than the PIN. We compare the distribution of the size change \( \delta S \) of the largest cluster for the PIN and the Internet by a single vertex removal. As shown in the lower insets of Figs. 3 and 4, the giant cluster in the Internet becomes much smaller than in the PIN. Thus the number of vertex pairs connected after the removal becomes much smaller in the Internet than in the PIN. Consequently, the difference of the exponent \( \zeta \) between the two classes appears much larger than that of the exponent \( \eta \) in the class II. However, it is not clear how the power-law behavior in \( P_c(\Delta) \) arises and what determines its exponent.

In summary, we have studied the diverse behavior in response to a small perturbation, a deletion of a single vertex in SF networks. The diameter change \( \Delta \) by a removal of a vertex is very diverse, exhibiting a power-law distribution with an exponent \( \zeta \) for large \( \Delta \). Moreover, the diameter change exponent \( \zeta \) is robust as \( \zeta \approx 2.2 \) for most SF networks with \( 2 < \gamma \leq 3 \), or \( \zeta \approx 1.7 \) for the Internet as an exception.

This work is supported by the KOSEF Grant No. R14-2002-059-01000-0 in the ABRL program.