Intentional Walks on Scale Free Small Worlds

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We present a novel algorithm that generates scale free small world graphs such as those found in the World Wide Web, social and metabolic networks. We use the generated graphs to study the dynamics of a realistic search strategy on the graphs, and find that they can be navigated in a very short number of steps.

Small world and scale free graphs, which are at the heart of systems as diverse as the World Wide Web\cite{1}, the call logs of telephone networks\cite{2}, social and professional acquaintances\cite{3,12,19,11}, power grids\cite{23} and metabolic networks\cite{7,21}, have attracted a lot of attention from the physics community in recent years (see the reviews\cite{3,11}).

One reason for the interest has been the number of dynamical processes such as percolation\cite{4,10,22,20}, epidemic spreading\cite{15,10,23}, random walks\cite{14} and message-passing\cite{8} which are of fundamental importance to statistical physics and have numerous applications in areas such as robustness of the Internet and the power grid, the spread of epidemics in societies, the spread of computer viruses in computer networks, routing in large computer networks\cite{16} and in measuring the efficiency of online algorithms which utilize (www) network topology\cite{18}.

We present a novel algorithm that generates scale free small world graphs such as those found in the World Wide Web, social networks and metabolic networks. We use the generated graphs to study the dynamics of a realistic search strategy on the graphs, and find that they can be navigated in a very short number of steps.

Watts and Strogatz\cite{23} first developed a procedure for generating graphs which have both short path lengths and clustering. This was an improvement over traditional Erdos-Renyi random graphs\cite{17}. The Watts-Strogatz procedure however, lacks an important property exhibited by social and other networks, i.e. their approximate power-law distribution in the number of a node’s links. This distribution amounts to stating that a few nodes or people or sites in the web have very many links whereas most have a few. Whereas there are some small world graphs that are not power-law like (e.g. the electric power grid), many are scale free, such as the call graph of large-scale telephone use, the Web, the Internet backbone, and metabolic networks.

Recently, Barabasi et al\cite{3}, described a procedure for producing random graphs with a power-law distribution while failing to produce graphs that also have the clustering property of small worlds. While this work generates networks analogous to the power grid, it fails at generating the clustering property known to exist in the link structure of the World Wide Web\cite{1}, metabolic networks\cite{21} or social networks\cite{12}.

The issue of navigation also received a partial answer in a paper by Kleinberg\cite{8}, who used a 2-D lattice substrate and a regular distribution of links. Motivated by real experiments with social networks, Kleinberg was concerned with how, given the fact that short paths existed, one could find them without complete global information. The treatment given in\cite{8} had an elegant result, but the underlying graph model did not reflect all of the important features real world problems. An important shortcoming is its particular assumption of an inverse square correlation that implies that a majority of ones contacts lie in close geographical proximity. What happens if a large fraction of people know as many people outside of their city or state as inside? Would it become impossible to pass messages efficiently? What happens if the graph representing the social network, cannot be embedded on a two-dimensional lattice? Is it possible to devise an optimal strategy to navigate these networks?

In this paper we solve all these shortcomings by presenting a general procedure for constructing small-world graphs with power-law distribution in their link structure, and a robust near-optimal strategy for navigating such small-world graphs.

We start by constructing small-world graphs with power-law distributions and large clustering coefficients. The clustering coefficient is the probability that two links connected to a common node have a link. In real social networks, clustering coefficients as high as 0.2 are not surprising\cite{19,23}.

To do so we first assign each node with a number of links given by a power law distribution i.e. We compute from a truncated power law function the number of nodes say $n$ having a given number of links $l$. The maximum number of links a given node has is a certain large number $l$. We then choose $n$ nodes at random from the ring and label them with $l$. Then we connect nodes assigned a given degree with their nearest unsaturated neighbors on the ring. (An unsaturated neighbor is a neighbor who has not been linked to as many links as assigned in the first step).

At this point, if we randomly rewire the graph in the Watts-Strogatz way, the power-law topology would be destroyed. To obtain a small-world graph with a power-law distribution from a graph that we just formed, it is necessary to keep the number of nodes with a given number of links a constant. We achieve this by adding and
deleting links in a way that the total number of links at each node is conserved. We choose a node $A$ at random, delete a link say with $D$ and then immediately form a link between this node and a new node $B$ chosen at random to conserve links at $A$. Then we delete a link from $B$, say the one with node $C$. This deletion will cause $C$ to have one link less and will conserve the links at $B$. This is what the situation was at the first deletion so putting $A = C$ we repeat the process. Note that except for $D$ all the other nodes have the same number of links as before and yet there are shortcuts in the system.

The rewiring procedure and the graphs generated are illustrated in Fig 1.

![Figure 1: Illustration of rewiring procedure. A link is removed and a new one added such that every node has the same number of links. Graph generated with 300 nodes and power 2 i.e. the number of nodes with 1 links goes as $\frac{1}{p}$ and Plot showing clustering coefficient(red) and average path length(blue) as a function of the randomisation. Note that the path length comes down drastically while the clustering coefficient persists close to it’s value for zero randomisation.](image)

By increasing the fraction of links rewired we get the required short path length. If the fraction of links deleted and rewired is $p$, then for very small $p$ the average path length $L(p)$ comes down by orders of magnitude and is close to that of the corresponding random graph whereas the clustering coefficient $C(p)$ is still much larger than the corresponding random graph value. The plots of $L(p)$ and $C(p)$ are shown in Fig 1.

This procedure can generate graphs with clustering coefficients between 0 and 0.1 and arbitrary power-law exponents and path lengths close to logarithmic. The procedure can also be modified for directed graphs. The flexibility makes it possible to study various dynamical properties of real systems by doing simple simulations on these models.

Next we study navigation strategies which are of relevance to the study of social networks, and also to the computer networks. In both cases it is necessary to generate graphs with power law link distribution with exponent around 2 and with clustering of the order of 0.1 as is observed in social and computer networks.

We consider a navigation strategy that can be described as an "intentional walk", the walker intending to reach a target node. All nodes are labelled by a distinct co-ordinate and the co-ordinates of the target are known to the walker. The walker must use only local information such as the co-ordinates of the node it is at and it’s neighbors to take the next step. The walk ends when the walker reaches the target.

In the social context or in the computer networks context, this is equivalent to passing a message or packet through the network towards a specified destination using as little information about the global connectivity map as possible.

This kind of walk does not amount to a pure random walk, since the nodes forwarding the message, while not having detailed knowledge of the network in which they are embedded, do have a sense of direction when forwarding these messages.

Milgram first studied it empirically in social Networks. Milgram found that knowledge of geographical location of the target helped the messages find very short paths to the target. This has been dubbed in the popular media as the 'Small World Phenomenon' or 'Six Degrees of Separation’. Kleinberg studied this navigation problem analytically using a limited and particular graph model, in which the link distribution is unrealistic.

In contrast to Kleinberg, we study this problem on scale-free small worlds, generated by the above algorithm. We present a novel and realistic strategy for navigating these small-worlds in a near optimal fashion, i.e. that given any source and target node the number of steps needed to reach an arbitrary target is close to the shortest possible.

The strategy uses partial knowledge that each person/node has about the positions(along the ring) of its next neighbors. For example, if person A in California needs to deliver a letter (the intentional walker) to someone who lives in a school campus in Boston but has no contacts in Boston, she would send it to an acquaintance whom she knows visits Boston on a regular basis. This is to be contrasted with the strategy chosen in Kleinberg’s work which resorts to physical propinquity, i.e. send to someone who is close to Boston.

As we show, this kind of knowledge implemented as a strategy leads to a drastic speed up in the journey of an intentional walker to the target, to the point of making it near-optimal, i.e. the intentional walker almost always takes a number of steps equal to or a small fraction of more than the shortest path between source and target nodes in the network.

We label the nodes by their position along the ring and the position of the target is known. However, the exact path or paths which lead to the target are unknown.

The results for this algorithm for a graph with 10Power Law of exponent 2.1 and Clustering coefficient C=0.08 are shown in Figure 2 (a). The results show that the
scaling of the number of steps (search cost) with size is logarithmic.

\[ n = \frac{1}{2} \cdot N^{1/3} \]

This is the average minimum number of steps required to reach the target. Note that it is impossible for the walker to reach in less than 3 steps according to this procedure, independent of the size. This is because the average shortest path of a graph has a finite lower bound according to Newman’s formula for graph diameter \[ \beta \] in black.

The search cost for the intentional walk on the WS-SW (Watts Strogatz Small World) scales polynomially \( (N^{1/3}) \) meaning that for a graph of size 100 million (which is the order of magnitude of the population of the US) the number of steps it takes is of the order of 100. For the PL-SW (Power Law Small World), the search is much more efficient, the cost (the number of steps needed to find the target) scaling logarithmically with the size. When extrapolated the function giving the number of steps for the PL-SW would equal 6.5 for a graph size 100 million. This is very close to what Milgram observed in his experiment on the American population \[ \beta \].

The search costs for a PL-SW and a WS-SW for approximately the same average degree are plotted together in Figure 2(c). Note that the difference in the search cost is not because there are no short paths in the case of the WS-SW. In fact the WS-SW has path lengths which scale logarithmically with the size \[ \beta \] just as the PL-SW. It is just that algorithms utilizing local information are unable to find them.

All this indicates that a realistic link-distribution plays a crucial role in the effectiveness of the strategy and that it might be an ingredient in explaining the small numbers seen in message passing experiments on social networks such as Milgram’s.

The basic principle behind the discovery of short paths is that in a power-law graph the expected degree of a node following an edge is much larger than the average degree \[ \beta \]. This means that each node is connected to some high degree nodes. Thus there are many second neighbors. Most of the second neighbors would be local in a small-world but a finite fraction would be randomly distributed throughout the network. Since there would be so many second neighbors, with high probability one of those randomly placed ones would be located close to the target.

The intentional walker can thus get close to the target in a small number of steps. On getting close it would find the local links more efficient in taking it to its target. It is thus a combination of the properties of scale free ness and the existence of local links (clustering) and of course the fact that a finite fraction of the links are randomly.

If the expected degree of a neighbor is \( E \) and the fraction of random links is \( p \), then it would have approximately \( E^2 \) second neighbors out of which \( p \) would be long range or random links so the average time it would take to reach the target if it were to never use local links is:

\[ n_1 = \frac{N}{E^2 p} + \beta \]  

where \( \beta \) is the average minimum number of steps required to reach the target. Note that it is impossible for the walker to reach in less than 3 steps according to this procedure, independent of the size. This is because the average shortest path of a graph has a finite lower bound according to Newman’s formula for graph diameter \[ \beta \]. In other words the plot of diameter with size has a finite y-intercept which is slightly more than 3 for most powers.

According to our algorithm, the intentional walker would go to the closest node to the target among its second and first neighbors every 2 steps. It becomes advantageous to use local as opposed to random links once it has come close to the target say a distance \( l \). The point at which this happens is such that the total number of steps is minimal with respect to \( l \). Note that jumping along local links is like jumping along a ring in the worst case and the time it takes to reach the target by this kind of jumping is linear in the size of the total distance. The maximum number of steps it takes if the walker starts using local links after reaching within a distance \( l \) of the target will be following (1):

\[ n = \frac{N}{E^2 p} + \frac{\alpha l}{(1 - p)} + \beta \]  

where \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are constants. For a power law graph of power approximately 2 as observed in most networks of
interest we have the expression for $E$ in terms of $N$,

$$E = \frac{N^{1/2}}{\log(N)} \quad (3)$$

Now, substituting (3) and minimizing the resulting expression with respect to $l$ we get an upper bound for the average number of steps:

$$n = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{p(1-p)}} \log(N) + \beta \quad (4)$$

We plot this with respect to $p$, the fraction of random links (for average degree $= 13$ and $N = 100000$, $\beta = 3.4$) and also plot the actual time for a series of different $N$ in Figure 2 (d). Note that the most efficient search is when there are both local and random long distance links.

To conclude we have developed a method that can generate real world-like graphs which have short path lengths, clustering and power law link distributions. This can be extended to directed graphs and arbitrary link distributions. We illustrated this with a study of the classic message passing or intentional walk problem on scale free small worlds (with power law of 2.1, $C=0.1$ like in social and computer networks where this problem is important). We estimated the efficiency of a novel intentional walk algorithm utilizing second neighbor information using this procedure. The ability to construct realistic graph models easily will enable better characterization of the structure and dynamics of important large-scale network systems.

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