Introduction to Complex Networks Network Application Diagnostics B2M32DSA

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Outline

Complex Networks

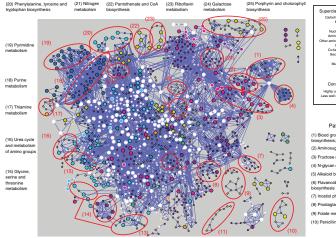
- Practical Examples
- Software Tools
- Network Volume
 Netflow Comprehension
- Network Visualization
 - Data on the Ancient Egypt
 - Mainframe Assembly Comprehension
 - Enterprise people

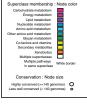
2 Complex Network Introduction

- Graph Terminology
- Graph Algorithms



Conservation within the global metabolic network [PASP09]





Pathway examples

(1) Blood group glycolipid and ganglioside biosynthesis: globoside metabolism

(2) Aminosugars biosynthesis

(3) Fructose and mannose metabolism

(4) N-glycan metabolism

(5) Alkaloid biosynthesis I

(6) Flavanoids, stilbene and lignin

(7) Inositol phosphate metabolism

(8) Prostaglandin and leukotriene metabolism

(9) Folate metabolism

(10) Penicillin and cephaloporin biosynthesis

(14) Fatty acid biosynthesis pathway I

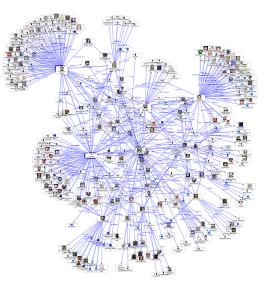
(13) Lysine biosynthesis and degradation

(12) Glutathione metabolism

(11) Diterpenoid biosynthesis



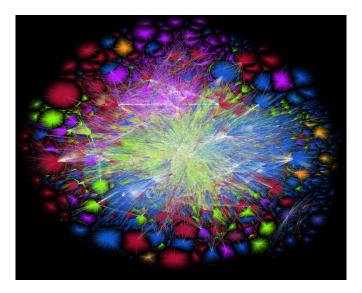
Link Analysis of the Al Qaeda Terrorist Network [FMS]





Practical Examples

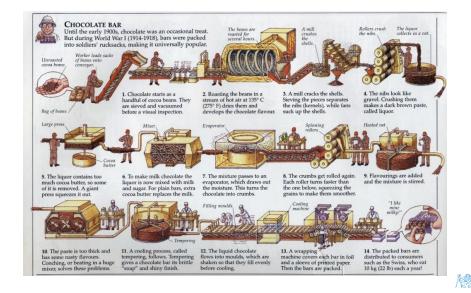
Internet Map in 2015 [BI014, Opt17]





Practical Examples

Chocolate Making Process Dependencies [Fre14]



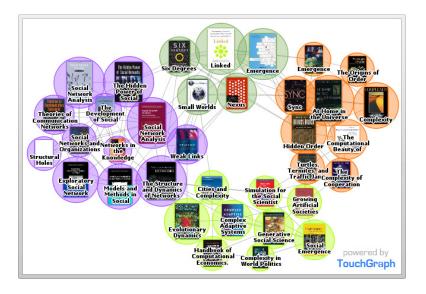
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More Examples

- Biological networks
 - gene regulation networks
 - protein-protein interaction networks
 - metabolic networks
 - the food web
 - predator-prey relations
 - brain network
- Social networks:
 - networks of acquaintances
 - collaboration networks
 - phone-call networks
 - citation networks
 - opinion formation
 - society/community/party networks

- Technological networks:
 - the Internet
 - telephone networks
 - transportation networks
 - sensor networks
 - energy grid networks
- Informational networks:
 - the World Wide Web
 - Twitter
 - Facebook
 - peer-to-peer

SNA Books





Approach to Complex Networks

- One needs to distinguish between analysis and production phases
- Some phenomena appear only with sufficiently large data volumes (emergent events)
- Volume
 - A number of suitable tools ... HDF5, ElasticSearch, Clouds
 - Capable to operate with terabytes of data
- Visualization
 - Critical if anomaly features are not known
 - At present, there is no obvious choice of a tool and a network layout given a particular problem.
 - Tools do not often scale with data volumes (> $10.000~{\rm nodes},~10^5~{\rm edges})$
 - GGobi, Pajek, NetworkX, SNAP, Tulip, Gephi, Cytospace, yEd, D3.js
 - Aspects: data volume, interactions with the user

Popular software packages [HLDS13]

- Analysis
 - UCINET (http://www.analytictech.com/ucinet.htm)
 - ENET (http://analytictech.com/e-net/e-net.htm)
 - Pajek (http://pajek.imfm.si/doku.php?id=pajek)
 - RSIENA
 - R
 - NodeXL
 - NetworkX ... a Python library
 - **iGraph** ... a C/Python library
- Visualization
 - yEd
 - Gephi
 - Cytospace
 - Tulip
 - NetDraw (2D, embedded in UCINET, see above)
 - Mage (3D, embedded in UCINET, see above)
 - visit www.netvis.org/resources.php for more

NETFLOW Primary Statistics

Netflow

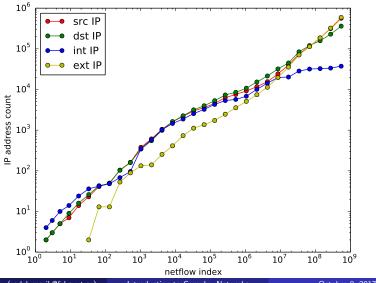
- Condensed records on a packet flow
- Several packets are merged into one netflow record
- Only 14-20 aggregated metrics

An enterprise traffic as a netflow sample taken during 9 days:

Statistics	Value
Total transported data volume	13,995,690,457,765 [B]
Packet count	20,131,367,095
Netflow count	617,326,053
IP address count	686,168
Source IP address count	614,150
Destination IP address count	392,881
Different P2P connections count	2,412,481

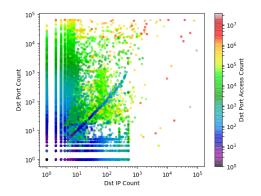


Is the Sample of IP addresses reprezentative?



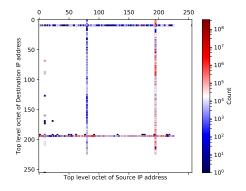
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A Data Projection Focused on Services



- Destination IP vs. destination port (space of services and their locations)
- Some counts of accesses are exceptional (red)

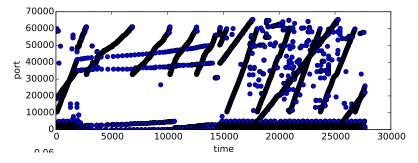
Top Level IP Network Projection - Data Sparsity



- Focused on the network of source and destination IP addresses
- Top level octets of IP addresses (160.30.29.17 \implies 160)
- A very sparse space
- A rather restricted source-destination IP connections (as expected)



Port Scanning from xxx.xxx.18.120 - Logical Time Progress



• 617,326,053 netflows \approx 60,000 samples \times sample size 10.000

- ullet \Longrightarrow 60,000 samples might be still visualized with difficulties
- ullet \implies 1.000 events can be easily missed with 10,000 sample size



Complex Networks Network Volume

Masters of Social Network Analysis [RP13, Weh13]



- US National Security Agency
- Maintains large programs in social network analysis
- Believed to process 2×10^{10} node and tie updating events per day
- Result:
 - "Better Person Centric Analysis"

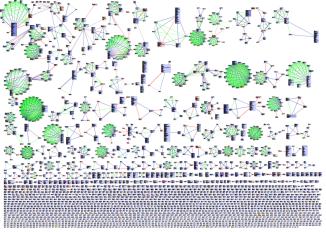
Types

• 94 entity/node types

(phone numbers, e-mail addresses, IP addresses, etc.)

• **164 relationship** types to build "community of interest" profiles (*travelsWith*, *hasFather*, *sentForumMessage*, *employs*, etc.)

Egypt Data - Family Recognition



circular layout (yEd)

A family:

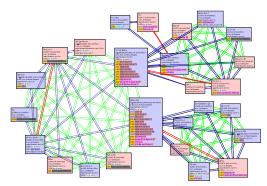
- Using family designation
 - husband, wife, son, etc.
- A connected graph component
- Sparse data assumed
- Transformed into family tree using marriage nodes



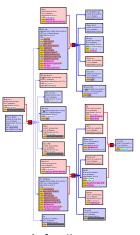
Complex Networks Netw

Network Visualization

Egypt Data - Transformation into Family Tree

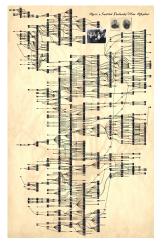


A family as a connected component circular layout (yEd)

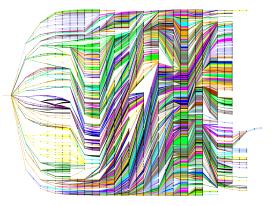


A family tree hierarchical layout (yEd)

Family Trees^[Mar17]



multitree-like tree driven layout, Graphviz



- Taxonomic information ITIS on plants, animals, fungi, and microbes,
- A phylogenetic tree with 945.352 nodes
- multitree-like tree driven layout



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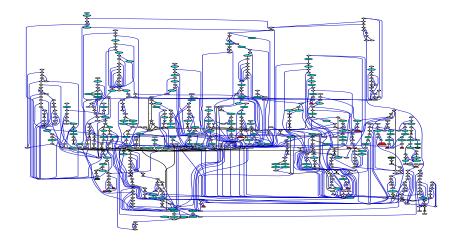
HLASM Mainframe Assembly

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→** ASMA435I Re	ecord 621	. in KC	TEHO1.CE)T310.ASH(IHIA	FSA) or	n volume: TSUD11		
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+0002A4 4803 00	304		00004	654 PROLOG1	LH	RD,4(R3)	LENGTH OF DSA TO REG D	12140000
+0002A8 184F				655	LR	R4,BRR	SAVE BRR DURING GETHAIN	12160000
÷				656	CETHA	IN Ŕ,LV=(D)	GETHAIN FOR DSA	12180000
≠0002AA 4510 D2	2AE		OO2AE	658+	BAL	1,*+4	INDICATE GETHAIN 0Z30EN9G	01-GETHA
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→000280 18F4				660	LR	BRR,R4		12200000
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≠0002B6 5000 10			00000	662	ST	R0,0(0,R1)	AND STORE IT IN DSA	12240000
≠0002BA 50AD 10			00004	663	ST	CDSA,4(0,R1)	STORE POINTER OF EMBRACING PB.	12260000
→0002BE 4020 10			00008	664	STH	R2,8(0,R1)	STORE PBT DISPLACEMENT	12280000
+0002C2 9200 10		DDDDA		665	HVI	10(R1),X'00'	ZEROS TO VALUE ARRAY AND	12300000
+0002C6 D204 10				666	HVC	11(5,R1),10(R1)	*ARRAY POINTERS	12320000
≠0002CC 5012 B0	100		00000	667	ST	R1,0(R2,PBT)	STORE CURR.DSA POINTER IN PBT	12340000
≠0002D0 18A1					LR	CDŚA,R1	SET COSA POINTER	12360000
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CHALLENGE: Complex Control Flow, a typical case

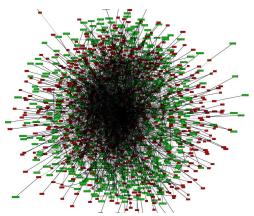


layered layout - Graphviz dot

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Complex Networks Network Visualization

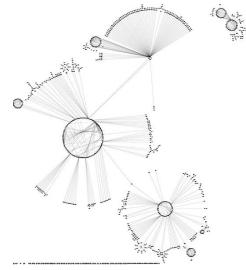
Dependancy of External Symbols in Mainframe Assembly Software



Fruchterman-Reingold force-driven layout

- A software product ... over 10.000.000 lines of code
- Over 400 modules . . . red
- External symbols . . . green
- Thick line ... the definition of a symbol
- Thin line ... a reference to a symbol
- ٩
- Where should the developer start with a bug analysis?

Assembly Software - Recovered Architecture



double-circular layout - yEd

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Complex Networks

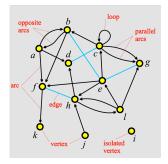
Network Visualization

Company Network of People - 3D Hyperbolic Tree Layout (Walrus)



Graph [Weh13]

A graph is a set of vertices and a set of lines between pairs of vertices.



- Actor vertex, node, point
- Relation line, edge, arc, link, tie
 - Edge = undirected line, {c, d} c and d are end vertices
 - Arc = directed line, (a, d)
 a is the initial vertex, (source, start)
 d is the terminal vertex, (target, end)
 - Parallel (multiple) arcs/edges are only allowed in **multigraphs** with more than one relation (set of lines).
 - Loop (self-choice)

We focus on simple graphs!

A **simple** undirected graph has no loops and no parallel edges. A simple directed graph has no parallel arcs.

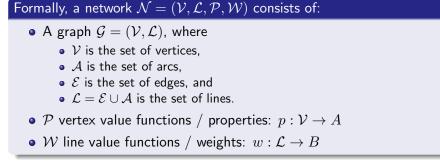
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Introduction to Complex Networks

Network [EK10, New10, Weh13, Erc15]

Network

A **network** consists of a graph and additional information on the vertices or the lines of the graph.



Long range dependencies vs. multidimensional space

- Specific topological properties
- Large/Huge volumes of sparse data records

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Introduction to Complex Networks

Asymptotic Notation [CLRS09, Erc15]

Let
$$c, c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{>0}$$
, $n_0, n \in \mathbb{N}$, $f, g \in \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$

Asymptotic upper bound (CZ horní asymptotický odhad)

 $f(n) \in O(g(n))$, if $(\exists c > 0)(\exists n_0)(\forall n > n_0) : |f(n)| \le |c \cdot g(n)|$

Asymptotic lower bound (CZ dolní asymptotický odhad)

 $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$, if $(\exists c > 0)(\exists n_0)(\forall n > n_0) : |c \cdot g(n)| \le |f(n)|$

Asymptotic tight bound (CZ optimální asymptotický odhad)

 $\begin{aligned} & f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)), \text{ if } \Theta(g(n)) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} O(g(n)) \cap \Omega(g(n)) \\ & (\exists c_1, c_2 > 0) (\exists n_0) (\forall n > n_0) : |c_1 \cdot g(n)| < |f(n)| < |c_2 \cdot g(n)| \end{aligned}$



NP-Completeness [CLRS09, Erc15]

P and NP

• P - Polynomial. Problems that can be solved in polynomial time.

- NP Nondeterministic Polynomial. A problem is in NP if you can in polynomial time by a *certifier* test whether a solution is correct without worrying about how hard it might be to find the solution.
 - Nondeterministic is a fancy way of talking about guessing a solution.
- $P \subseteq NP$ (??? P = NP ???)

NP-complete and NP-hard

- NPH NP-hard. An NPH problem is a problem which is as hard as any problem in NP
 - An NPH problem does not need to have a certificate.
- NPC NP-complete. A problem is NPC if it is NP and is as hard as any problem in NP
 - A problem A is NPC if it is both NPH and in NP, NPC = NP \cap NPH.

Complexity Classes Other Than NP [CLRS09, Erc15]

Complexity classes harder than NP

- PSPACE. Problems that can be solved using a reasonable amount of memory
 - defined formally as a polynomial in the input size
 - without regard to how much time the solution takes.
- **EXPTIME**. Problems that can be solved in exponential time.
- **Undecidable**. For some problems, we can prove that there is no algorithm that always solves them, no matter how much time or space is allowed.



Tree Search [BM08]

- A systematic procedure, or algorithm, that generates a sequence of rooted trees in G, starting with the trivial tree consisting of a single root vertex r, and terminating either with a spanning tree of the graph or with a nonspanning tree whose associated edge cut is empty, is called tree-search and the resulting tree is referred to as a search tree [BM08].
- **Depth-first search** is a tree-search in which the vertex added to the tree T at each stage is one which is a neighbor of as recent an addition to T as possible.
- The resulting spanning tree is called a **depth-first search tree** or **DFS-tree**.

DFS-tree Search Edge Classification [BM08]

- There are two times associated with each vertex $v \in G$ during the construction of its DFS-tree T:
 - the discovery time $\tau_d(v)$ when v is incorporated into T and
 - the finish time $\tau_f(v)$ when all the neighbors of v are found to be already in T.
- In particular, $\tau_d(r) = 1$, $\tau_f(v) = \tau_d(v) + 1$ for every leaf v of T, and $\tau_f(r) = 2|V|$.
- Based on Proposition 1 and Theorem 1 any edge e = uv in a graph G having a DFS-tree T with $\tau_d(u) < \tau_d(v) < \tau_f(v) < \tau_f(u)$ can be oriented as $\vec{e} = \vec{uv} = (u, v)$ and classified as:
 - tree edge, if $e \in T$, i.e. the vertex u is an ancestor of v in T,
 - back edge, if $e \notin T$.

Tree Search Times - Properties

Proposition 1 (Proposition 6.5 [BM08], p.141)

Let u and v be two vertices of G, with $\tau_d(u) < \tau_d(v)$.

- **1** If u and v are adjacent in G, then $\tau_f(v) < \tau_f(u)$.
- **(**) u is an ancestor of v in T if and only if $\tau_f(v) < \tau_f(u)$.

Theorem 1 (Theorem 6.6 [BM08], p.142)

Let T be a DFS-tree of a graph G. Then every edge of G joins vertices which are related in T.

Lemma 1 (Lemma 22.11 [CLRS09], p.614)

A directed graph G is acyclic if and only if a depth-first search of G yields no back edges.

Complex Network Introduction Graph Algorithms

Tree Search Times - Properties

Proposition 2 (Proposition 1.5.6 [Die05], p.16)

Every connected graph contains a normal spanning tree, with any specified vertex as its root.



Graph Algorithms

Breadth-first Search [CLRS09, Erc15]

Algorithm 1 BFS

1.	Input: $G(V, E)$, a source node s	11:
	Output: d_v , pred[v], $\forall v \in V$	12:
		13:
3:		14:
	Q a queue	15:
5:	for all $u \in V \setminus \{s\}$ do	16:
6:	$d_u \leftarrow \infty$	-
7:	$pred[u] \leftarrow \bot \triangleright \text{ undetermined value}$	17:
	end for	18:
<u>g</u> .	$d_s \leftarrow 0$	19:
-	$pred[s] \leftarrow s$	20:
10.		21:

BFS ... the main loop

11:	$Q \leftarrow s$
12:	while $Q \neq \emptyset$ do
13:	$u \leftarrow deque(Q)$
14:	for all $(u,v) \in E$ do
15:	if $d_v = \infty$ then
16:	$d_v \leftarrow d_u + 1$
17:	$pred[v] \leftarrow u$
18:	enqueu(Q, v)
19:	end if
20:	end for
21:	end while

Theorem 2 (Theorem 3.1 [Erc15], p.35)

The time complexity of BFS algorithm is $\Theta(N+M)$ for a graph of order N and size M.

Depth-first Search [CLRS09, Erc15]

Algorithm 2 DFS_Forest

- 1: Input: G(V, E), directed or undirected
- 2: **Output:** pred[v], firstVis[v], secVis[v], $\forall v \in V$
- 3: int time $\leftarrow 0$; visited $[1:n] \leftarrow 0$
- 4: for all $u \in V$ do
- 5: $visited[u] \leftarrow false$
- 6: $pred[u] \leftarrow \bot \Rightarrow undetermined value$
- 7: end for
- 8: for all $u \in V$ do
- 9: if $\neg visited[u]$ then
- 10: DFS(u)
- 11: end if
- 12: end for

DFS procedure

13: procedure DFS(u) 14: $visited[u] \leftarrow true$ 15: $time \leftarrow time + 1$ 16: $firstVis[u] \leftarrow time$ for all $(u, v) \in E$ do 17: if $\neg visited[v]$ then 18: $pred[v] \leftarrow u$ 19: DFS(u)20: 21: end if 22: end for 23: $time \leftarrow time + 1$ $sectVis[u] \leftarrow time$ 24: 25: end procedure

Asymptotic complexity of the DFS algorithm

The time complexity is $\Theta(N+M)$ for a graph of order N and size M.

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Introduction to Complex Networks

Dijkstra's Single Source Shortest Paths [CLRS09, Erc15]

Algorithm 3 Dijkstra_SSSP	SSSP the main loop
Algorithm 3 Dijkstra_SSSP1: Input: $G(V, E)$, directed or undirected,2: Input: positive weights l_e on edges,3: Input: a source node s 4: Output: d_v , pred $[v]$, $\forall v \in V$ 5: for all $u \in V \setminus \{s\}$ do6: $d_u \leftarrow \infty$ 7: pred $[u] \leftarrow \bot \rightarrow$ undetermined value8: end for9: $d_s \leftarrow 0$ 10: pred $[s] \leftarrow s$	$\begin{array}{c c} \hline \hline \\ $

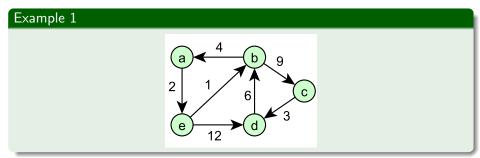
Theorem 3 (Theorem 5.1 [Erc15], p.84)

The time complexity of the Dijkstra's_SSSP is $O(N^2)$ for a graph of order N.

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Floyd-Warshall All Pairs Shortest Paths [CLRS09, Erc15]

- The approach
 - Dynamic programming approach
 - ${\scriptstyle \bullet}$ Comparing all possible paths between each pair of nodes in G
 - Improving the shortest path between them at each step until the result is optimal.
- Distance matrix D[N, N] between nodes u and v
- Matrix ${\cal P}[N,N]$ with the first node on the current shortest path from u to v



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Introduction to Complex Networks

FW APSP Algorithm [CLRS09, Erc15]

Algorithm 4 FW_APSP			APSP the main loop				
1: Input: $G(V, E)$,			$14: S \leftarrow \emptyset$				
2: Input: weights w_e on edges,		15:	while $S \neq V$ do				
3:	no negative-weight cycles	16:	pick w from $V \setminus S$ \triangleright Select a pivot				
4:	Output: $D[N, N]$, $P[N, N]$	17:	for all $u \in V$ do				
5:	for all $\{u, v\} \in V$ do	18:	for all $v \in V$ do				
6:	if $u = v$ then	19:	if $D[u,w] + D[w,v] < D[u,v]$ then				
7:	$D[u,v] \leftarrow 0; P[u,v] \leftarrow \bot$	20:	$D[u,v] \leftarrow D[u,w] + D[w,v]$				
8:	else if $(u,v) \in E$ then	21:	$P[u,v] \leftarrow P[u,w]$				
9:	$D[u, v] \leftarrow w_{uv}; P[u, v] \leftarrow v$	22:	end if				
10:	else	23:	end for				
11:	$D[u,v] \leftarrow \infty; P[u,v] \leftarrow \bot$	24:	end for				
12:	end if	25:	$S \leftarrow S \cup \{w\}$				
13: end for		26:	end while				

Asymptotic complexity of the FW_APSP algorithm

The time complexity is $\Theta(N^3)$ for a graph of order N.

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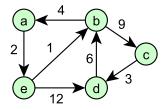
Introduction to Complex Networks

Complex Network Introduction

Graph Algorithms

FW APSP Algorithm Example [Erc15]

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \infty & \infty & \infty & 2\\ 4 & 0 & 9 & \infty & \infty\\ \infty & \infty & 0 & 3 & \infty\\ \infty & 6 & \infty & 0 & \infty\\ \infty & 1 & \infty & 12 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & \infty & 14 & 2\\ 4 & 0 & 9 & 12 & 6\\ \infty & 9 & 0 & 3 & \infty\\ 10 & 6 & 15 & 0 & \infty\\ 5 & 1 & 10 & 12 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 & 12 & 14 & 2\\ 4 & 0 & 9 & 12 & 6\\ 13 & 9 & 0 & 3 & 10\\ 10 & 6 & 15 & 0 & 12\\ 5 & 1 & 10 & 12 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$





Summary

- An introduction to complex networks
- Several practical application domains shown
- Software tools overview
- Demonstration of two issues
 - Network data volume
 - Network visualization
- Graph Terminology Reminder
- Graph Path Algorithms Reminder



Competencies

- Name several examples of complex networks application domains?
- What are the two difficult issues linked with processing of complex networks?
- What is the range of complex network volume?
- Name several drawing layouts used for complex network visualizations?
- Define a complex network and its basic features.
- Define asymptotic bounds used for assessment of algorithm complexity.
- Describe DFS-tree search edge classification.
- Describe depth-first search algorithm.
- Describe breath-first search algorithm.
- Describe the Dijkstra's single source shortest paths.
- Describe the Floyd-Warshall all pairs shortest paths.



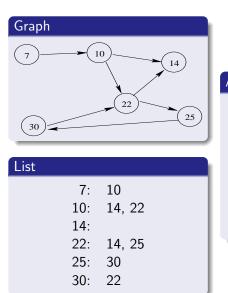
Appendix



Radek Mařík (radek.marik@fel.cvut.cz) Introduction to Complex Networks

Graph Terminology

Graph Representation [Bei95]



Adjacency matrix (Table)

7	10	14	22	25	30
	1				
		1	1		
		1		1	
					1
			1		
	7		. 1 . 1 1	. 1 1 1 	$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$



Graph (Formal Definitions) [Die05, BM08, Wil98]

- A graph is a pair G = (V, E) of sets such that E ⊆ [V]², V ∩ E = Ø, together with an incidence function ψ_G that associates with each edge of G an unordered par of not necessarily distinct vertices of G.
- The number of vertices of a graph G is its order N = v(G) = |V| = |G|.
- A graph with vertex set V is said to be a graph on V.
- The vertex set of a graph G is referred to as V(G), its edge set as E(G), independently of any actual names of these two sets.
- We also write $v \in G$ instead of $v \in V(G)$, similarly $e \in G$.
- The number of edges of a graph G is its size denoted by M = e(G) = |E| = ||G||.

Graph Edges [Die05, BM08, Wil98]

- Let e be an edge and u and v are vertices such that $\psi_G(e) = \{u, v\}$.
- A vertex v is **incident** with an edge e if $v \in e$; then e is an edge **at** v.
- The set of all the edges in E at a vertex v is denoted by E(v).
- The two vertices v_1 and v_2 incident with an edge $e = \{v_1, v_2\}$ are its endvertices or ends, and an edge joins its ends.
- An edge $\{u, v\}$ might be written as uv (or vu).
- Two vertices $u, v \in G$ are adjacent, or neighbors, if $uv \in G$.
- Two edges $e \neq f$ are **adjacent** if they have an end in common.

Graph Neighborhood [Die05, BM08, Wil98]

- Let G = (V, E) be a (non-empty) graph.
- The set of **neighbors** of a vertex v in G is denoted by $N_G(v)$, or briefly by N(v).
- The neighbors of U for $U \subseteq V$, denoted by N(U), is the set of the neighbors $V \setminus U$ of vertices in U.
- The degree (or valency) $d_G(v) = d(v)$ of a vertex v is the number |E(v)| of edges at v.
- Let $r \ge 2$ be an integer.
- A graph G = (V, E) is called *r*-partite if V admits a partition into r classes such that every edge has its ends in different classes: vertices in the same partition class are not adjacent.
- If r = 2 then such a graph is denoted as **bipartite**.

•
$$V = V_1 \cup V_2$$
, $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$



Graph Path [Die05, BM08, Wil98]

- A path is a non-empty graph P = (V, E) of the form $V = \{v_0, v_1, \ldots v_k\}, E = \{v_0v_1, v_1v_2, \ldots v_{k-1}v_k\},$ where the v_i are all distinct.
- The vertices v_0 and v_k are **linked** by P and are called its **ends**, the vertices $v_1, \ldots v_{k-1}$ are the **inner** vertices of P.
- A path P can often be identified by its natural sequence of its vertices, i.e. P = v₀v₁...v_k and called a path from v₀ to v_k (or between v₀ and v_k).
- If $P = v_0 \dots v_{k-1}$ is a path and $k \ge 3$, then the graph $C := P + v_{k-1}v_0$ is called a cycle.

Graph Walk [Die05, BM08, Wil98]

- A walk in a graph G is a sequence $W := v_0 e_1 v_1 \dots v_{\ell-1} e_{\ell} v_{\ell}$, whose terms are alternately vertices and edges of G, such that v_{i-1} and v_i are the ends of e_i , $1 \le i \le \ell$.
- If v₀ = x and v_ℓ = y, we say that W connects x to y and refer to W as an xy-walk.
- The vertices x and y are called the ends of the walk, x being its initial vertex and y its terminal vertex, the vertices v₁,..., v_{ℓ-1} are its internal vertices.
- The integer ℓ (the number of edge terms) is the **length** of W.
- An *x*-walk is a walk with initial vertex *x*.
- If there is an xy-walk in a graph G, then is also an xy-path.
- The length of a shortest such xy-path is called the **distance** between x and y and denoted $d_G(x, y)$.
- The greatest distance between any two vertices in G is called the diameter of G, denoted by diam(G) = max_{u,v} d_G(u, v).

Graph Component [Die05, BM08, Wil98]

- A non-empty graph G is called **connected** if any two of its vertices are linked by a path in G, otherwise the graph is **disconnected**.
- If U ⊆ V(G) and G[U] is connected, we call U itself connected (in G).
- A maximal connected sugraph of G is called a **component** of G.



- An acyclic graph is a graph that does not contain any cycle.
- An acyclic graph is also called a **forest**.
- A connected forest is called a tree.
- The vertices of degree 1 in a tree are its leaves.
- One vertex of a tree can be selected as special; such a vertex is then called the **root** of this tree.
- A tree T with a fixed root r is a rooted tree.
- A spanning tree of a graph G is a minimal connected spanning subgraph $T \subset G$



Tree Properties I

Theorem 4 (Theorem 1.5.1 [Die05], p.14)

The following assertions are equivalent for a graph T:

- \bigcirc T is a tree;
- Any two vertices of T are linked by a unique path in T;
- (a) T is minimally connected, i.e. T is connected but T e is disconnected for every edge $e \in T$;
- **(a)** T is maximally acyclic, i.e. T contains no cycle but T + uv does, for any two non-adjacent vertices $u, v \in T$.

Corollary 1 (Corollary 1.5.3 [Die05], p.14)

A connected graph with N vertices is a tree if and only if it has N-1 edges.

- A directed graph (or digraph) is a pair (V, E) of disjoint sets (of vertices and arcs) together with two maps init: $E \to V$ and ter: $E \to V$ assigning to every arc e an initial vertex init(e) and a terminal vertex ter(e).
- In some references, vertices of directed graphs are called nodes.
- The arc e is said to be **directed from** init(e) to ter(e).
- Both maps init(e) and ter(e) are often combined into an **incidence function** ψ_D that associates with each arc of D an ordered pair of vertices of D, $\psi_D(e) = (u, v)$.



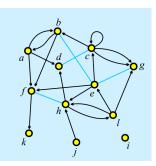
Digraph Degree [Die05, BM08, Wil98]

- The degree of a vertex v in a digraph D is simply the degree of v in the underlying graph G(D) of D.
- The indegree $d_D^-(v)$ of a vertex $v \in D$ is the number of arcs with head v,
- the outdegree $d_D^+(v)$ of a vertex $v \in D$ is the number of arcs with tail v.
- A vertex of indegree zero is called a **source**, one of outdegree zero a **sink**.



Graph Theory Graph Terminology

Vertex Degree [Weh13]



- **Degree** of vertex i, $deg(i) = d_i = k_i = \sum_{j=1}^N A_{ij}$ = the number of lines with i as end-vertex, (end-vertex is both initial and terminal)
- Indegree of vertex i, indeg(i), $deg^+(i)$ = $k_i^{in} = \sum_{j=1}^N A_{ij}$ the number of lines with v as terminal vertex
- **Outdegree** of vertex j, outdeg(j), $deg^{-}(j) = k_j^{out} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} A_{ij}$ the number of lines with j as initial vertex.

Example 2

$$N = 12, M = 23, deg^+(e) = 3, deg^-(e) = 5, deg(e) = 6$$

$$\sum_{v \in \mathcal{V}} deg^+(v) = \sum_{v \in \mathcal{V}} deg^-(v) = |\mathcal{A}| + 2|\mathcal{E}|$$

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