

PROTEIN DOMAIN NETWORKS: ANALYSIS OF ATTACK TOLERANCE UNDER  
VARIED CIRCUMSTANCES

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# ABSTRACT

## PROTEIN DOMAIN NETWORKS: ANALYSIS OF ATTACK TOLERANCE UNDER VARIED CIRCUMSTANCES

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Recently, there has been much interest in the resilience of complex networks to random failures and intentional attacks. The study of the network robustness is particularly important by several occasions. In one hand a higher degree of robustness to errors and attacks may be desired for maintaining the information flow in communication networks under attacks. On the other hand planning a very limited attack aimed at fragmenting a network by removal of minimum number of the most important nodes might have significant usage in drug design.

Many real world networks were found to display scale free topology including WWW, the internet, social networks or regulatory gene and protein networks. In the recent studies it was shown that while these networks have a surprising error tolerance, their scale-free topology makes them fragile under intentional attack, leaving the scientists a challenge on how to improve the networks robustness against attacks.

In this thesis, we studied the protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast which displays scale free topology generated with data from Biomart which links to Pfam database. Several networks obtained from protein domain co-occurrence network having exactly the same

connectivity distribution were compared under attacks to investigate the assumption that the different networks with the same connectivity distribution do not need to have the same attack tolerances. In addition to this, we considered that the networks with the same connectivity distribution have higher attack tolerance as we organize the same resources in a better way. Then, we checked for the variations of attack tolerance of the networks with the same connectivity distributions. Furthermore, we investigated whether there is an evolutionary mechanism for having networks with higher or lower attack tolerances for the same connectivity distribution. As a result of these investigations, the different networks with the same connectivity distribution do not have the same attack tolerances under attack. In addition to this, it was observed that the networks with the same connectivity distribution have higher attack tolerances as organizing the same resources in a better way which implies that there is an evolutionary mechanism for having networks with higher attack tolerance for the same connectivity distribution.

Keywords: Scale-free Networks, Protein Domain Networks, Connectivity Distribution of Networks, Attack Tolerance, Network Resilience

# ÖZ

## PROTEİN DOMAIN AĞLARI: FARKLI KOŞULLAR ALTINDA SALDIRI TOLERANSININ ANALİZİ

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Karmaşık ağların hatalar ve saldırılar karşısında nasıl davrandığı birçok bilim adamının ilgisini çekmektedir. Ağların dayanıklılığı üzerine çalışmalar birçok açıdan önemlidir. Örneğin, iletişim ağlarında bilgi akışının düzgün sağlanabilmesi için hatalara ve saldırılara karşı dayanıklılığının yüksek olması istenmektedir. Diğer yandan, ağları parçalamak için en az sayıda en önemli yapı taşlarını çıkartarak kısıtlı sayıda saldırı planlamak ilaç tasarımında önemli kullanım alanı bulmaktadır.

WWW, internet, sosyal ağlar ve protein ağları gibi birçok gerçek ağların scale free topolojik yapısına sahip olduğu bulunmuştur. Son zamanlarda yapılan çalışmalarda bu ağların şaşırtıcı derecede hatalara karşı dayanıklı oldukları bulunurken diğer yandan scale free topolojik yapısına sahip olmalarından ötürü saldırılara karşı çok hassas oldukları gözlenmiştir. Bu durum bilimadamlarını bu tür özellik gösteren ağların saldırılara karşı dayanıklılığının nasıl artırılabilceği sorusu ile karşı karşıya bırakmıştır.

Bu tezde mayanın (*S. cerevisiae*) scale free topolojik yapıya sahip protein domain ağları üzerine çalıştık. Çalışmalarımız sırasında Pfam veri bankasına ulaşmamızı sağlayan Biomart'

taki verileri kullandık. Bu ağdan aynı bağlantı dağılımına sahip birçok ağ elde ettik. Aynı dağılıma sahip farklı ağların saldırılar altında aynı saldırı toleransını göstermemesi gerektiği varsayımı incelemek için bu birçok ağın saldırılar altında saldırı dayanıklılığını karşılaştırdık. Buna ek olarak, kaynakları daha iyi organize ettikçe aynı bağlantı dağılımına sahip ağların daha yüksek saldırı toleransına sahip olabileceği üzerinde durduk. Sonra, aynı bağlantı dağılımına sahip ağların saldırı toleransı değişimini kontrol ettik. Son olarak, yüksek ya da düşük saldırı toleransına sahip ağların varolması için evrimsel (gelişiminden kaynaklanan) bir mekanizma olup olmadığını baktık. Bütün bu araştırmaların sonucunda, aynı bağlantı dağılımına sahip ağların aynı saldırı toleransını göstermediği belirlendi. Ek olarak, kaynakları daha iyi organize ettikçe aynı bağlantı dağılımına sahip ağların daha yüksek saldırı toleransına sahip olduğu ve bununla yüksek saldırı toleransına sahip ağların varolması için evrimsel bir mekanizma olduğuna işaret ettiği sonucuna varıldı.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Scale Free Ağlar, Protein Domain Ağlar, Ağların Bağlanırlık Dağılımı, Saldırı Toleransı, Ağ Dayanıklılığı

*to life*



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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

Many real world systems can be represented by networks. A network is a set of items which is called vertices or nodes with the connections either directly or indirectly between them, called edges. The existing empirical and theoretical results indicate that complex networks can be divided into two main classes as random (exponential) networks and scale free networks according to their degree (connectivity) distribution  $P(k)$  (the probability that a node in the network is connected to  $k$  other nodes). In the first class of networks,  $p(k)$  peaks at an average  $\langle k \rangle$  and decays exponentially for large  $k$ . This class of networks was first studied by Paul Erdős and Alfred Renyi. Erdős-Renyi (ER) random network is a classical representation of exponential networks [17]. Exponential networks are homogeneous in connectivity which means that most of the nodes in the network have approximately the same number of connections around  $\langle k \rangle$ ,  $k \approx \langle k \rangle$ . But, recent studies show that most real-world systems exhibit scale free structure. These real-world networks include the World Wide Web [5], the internet [13], biological networks such as metabolic networks [22], protein domain networks [20], [23] and the author collaboration networks [24]. It was found that structure of these networks can not be described by ER model, so Barabasi et al. introduce a model called BA model which explains the emergence of scale free structure in these networks [15].

Scale free network exhibits a power law degree distribution in the form  $P(k) \sim k^{-\gamma}$  where gamma “ $\gamma$ ” is free of characteristic scale and its value typically in the range  $2 \leq \gamma \leq 3$ . As long as gamma “ $\gamma$ ” greater or equal to 1, its value may lie outside these bounds [25]. In contrast to the exponential network, scale free networks are heterogeneous which means that most node has a few edges while few nodes in the networks has a huge number of edges. This feature in scale free network is deserved to be paid attention which implies that network’s property is determined by the most highly connected nodes.

The study of the network robustness receives a growing interest among scientist and is particularly important by several occasions. In one hand a higher degree of robustness to errors and attacks may be desired for maintaining the information flow in communication networks under attacks. On the other hand planning a very limited attack aimed at fragmenting a network by removal of minimum number of the most important nodes might have significant usage in drug design. The robustness of a network can be defined by its behavior under perturbations. There are two general categories of such perturbations; errors or failures: random removal of nodes and attacks: the targeted removal of chosen nodes. The way the nodes are chosen during an attack is called an *attack strategy*. Some attack strategies are introduced in [1], [2]. There are also several methods to measure the robustness of a network under failures and attacks [1], [3], [5], [19]. Using these methods, authors compared two network models- scale free and random networks under failures and attacks. They found that scale-free networks display an unexpected degree of robustness, i.e., the ability of their nodes to communicate being unaffected by even high failure rates. However, these networks are extremely vulnerable to intentional attacks, i.e., to the removal of a few number of highly connected nodes. On the other hand, evolving networks with exponential connectivity distribution are not as robust to random failures, but more resilient to intentional attacks [1], [2], [4], [7], [10].

In this work, we use protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast (*S. cerevesiae*) generated with data from Biomart (Pfam database) data management system. Domains are basic evolutionary units of proteins which are well-defined regions within a protein that can evolve, function and fold independently from the rest of the protein and have their own function. These domains and nature of their interactions determine the function of the protein. In protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast (*S. cerevesiae*), domains are represented by nodes and two domains are considered as connected if they occur together in one protein at least once. Most biological networks including protein domain co-occurrence network were found to exhibit scale free topology [22], [20]. This scale free structure support the expectation from biological network under failures such that as biological networks are required to function in various conditions, it is expected that they should have evolved to own robust structures against structural and enviromental perturbations [26]. In this study we will not compare scale free networks and random networks under attacks which has been studied widely in literature [1], [2], [4]. Instead, we will compare several networks exhibiting scale free structure, which have exactly the same connectivity, under attacks. We analyze the robustness of the network



under attacks by studying how the size of the largest connected component varies as a function of the number of removed nodes.

Even the connectivity distribution is an important indicator of a network's qualitative features, different networks with the same connectivity distribution do not need to have the same attack tolerances. Additionally, it can be considered that the networks with same connectivity distribution have higher attack tolerance as we organize the same resources in a better way. Then, it can be checked for the variations of attack tolerance of the networks with the same connectivity distributions. Furthermore, we investigate whether there is an evolutionary mechanism for having networks with higher or lower attack tolerances for the same connectivity distribution. For these purposes, we wrote an algorithm such that we randomly change the links of nodes in protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast conserving the connectivity of the network. Later, we analyze the attack tolerance of the randomly modified networks and from these networks we extract the least and the most vulnerable networks under attacks. We continue collecting the least vulnerable network from the networks which are also obtained from the least vulnerable network and the most vulnerable network from the networks which are also obtained from the most vulnerable one.

In this thesis, basic definitions related to graph theory and network's properties and models are given briefly in Chapter 2. In Chapter 3, we introduce the methods to measure attack tolerance of networks which will be used in this work. This chapter also includes comparison of network models under attacks and failures. Chapter 4 contains the application part. Several networks obtained by modifying the connections of nodes in the network are compared under attack which is done by using one of the methods and strategies introduced in Chapter 3. Chapter 5 concludes the thesis and further possible studies to extend the thesis are discussed.

## CHAPTER 2

### BACKGROUND

#### 2.1 Mathematical Background

Definitions and theorems in this part are mainly taken from [27], [28].

##### 2.1.1 Basic Definitions

Any system of interconnected elements can conveniently be described by means of a diagram consisting of a set of points together with lines joining certain pairs of these points. For example, the points could represent people, with lines joining pairs of friends, or the points might be communication centers, with lines representing communication links. Notice that in such diagram one is mainly interested in whether or not two given points are joined by line, the manner in which they are joined is immaterial. A mathematical abstraction of situations of this type gives rise to the concept of a graph.

**Definition 2.1.1** A *graph* or a *general graph* is an ordered triple  $G = (V, E, \phi)$  where

1.  $V \neq \emptyset$ ,
2.  $V \cap E = \emptyset$ ,
3.  $\phi : E \rightarrow \mathbf{P}^1(V)$  is a map such that  $|\phi(e)| \in \{1, 2\}$  for each  $e \in E$ .

*The elements of  $V$  are the vertices of  $G$  the elements of  $E$  are the edges of  $G$ . The map  $\phi$  is called an edgemap and the vertices in  $\phi(e)$  are called the endvertices of the edge  $e$ .*

---

<sup>1</sup> If  $S$  is set, then the set of all subsets of  $S$ , denoted  $\mathbf{P}(S)$ , is called the *power set* of  $S$ . For example, If  $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$ , then  $\mathbf{P}(S) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$ .

**Terminology:** The total number of vertices in the graph (the cardinality of the set  $V$  denoted  $|V|$ ) is denoted as  $N$  and defines the order of the graph. We will refer to  $N$  as the size of the network.

**Example 2.1.2** *Graphs are in most cases represented by diagrams consisting of dots, which represent the vertices, and curves drawn between the dots representing the endvertices, which represent the edge between vertices.*

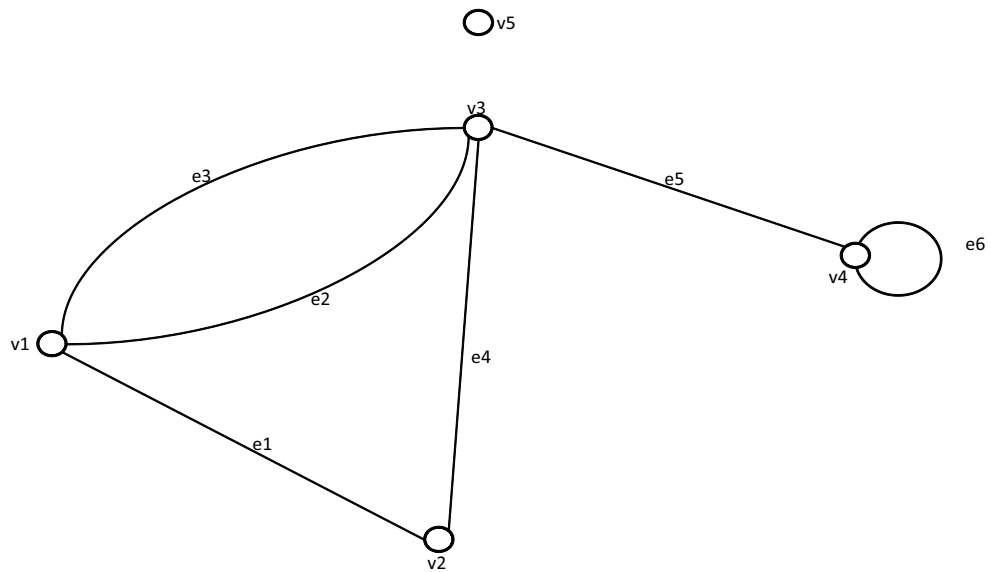


Figure 2.1: A graph with five vertices and six edges.

Consider the diagram shown in Figure 2.1. Here we see that  $G = (V, E, \phi)$  where  $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_5\}$ ,  $E = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_6\}$  and the edgemap  $\phi$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(e_1) &= \{v_1, v_2\}, \\ \phi(e_2) &= \phi(e_3) = \{v_1, v_3\}, \\ \phi(e_4) &= \{v_2, v_3\}, \\ \phi(e_5) &= \{v_3, v_4\}, \\ \phi(e_6) &= \{v_4\}. \end{aligned}$$

The next definition presents the most basic terminology on graphs.

**Definition 2.1.3** *Let  $G = (V, E, \phi)$  be a graph*

1. Vertices  $u$  and  $v$  in  $V$  are **adjacent** or **neighbors**, if they are the endvertices of some edge  $e \in E$ . That is they are adjacent, if there is an  $e \in E$  such that  $\phi(e) = \{u, v\}$ .
2. Two distinct edges  $e$  and  $f$  are **adjacent** to each other if they have common endvertex. That is  $\phi(e) \cap \phi(f) \neq \emptyset$ .
3. A vertex  $u$  and an edge are **incident** if  $u \in \phi(e)$ , that is if  $u$  is an endvertex of  $e$ .
4. A **loop** is an edge whose endvertices are equal, that is  $|\phi(e)| = 1$ .
5. We say that  $E' \subseteq E$  is a set of **multiple edges** or **parallel edges**, if  $|E'| \geq 2$  and all  $e' \in E'$  have the same set of endvertices. That is  $\phi(e') = \phi(f') \forall e', f' \in E'$ .
6. A vertex  $u$  is called **isolated**, if it is not an endvertex of any edge. That is  $u \notin \phi(e) \forall e \in E$ .

When tackling a problem that can be phrased in graph-theoretic terms, often it can be reduced to a problem involving a graph having no multiple edges or any loop. Such graphs constitute an important class called *simple graph*. Since there is at most one edge between a pair of vertices in a simple graph, the edges are in one-to-one correspondence with their distinct endvertices. Therefore, a simple graph can be defined without the edgemap  $\phi$  from Definition 2.1.1. Because of the importance of simple graphs, it is convenient to state their formal definition separately.

**Definition 2.1.4** A **simple graph** is an ordered pair  $G = (V, E)$ , where  $V$  is a nonempty set of vertices and  $E$  is a set of 2-element subset of  $V$ , that is a simple graph is a graph that has no self-loops or multi-edges

$$E \subseteq \{X : X \subseteq V, |X| = 2\} = \{\{u, v\} : u, v \in V, u \neq v\}. \quad (2.1)$$

**Definition 2.1.5** The **complete graph** on  $n$  vertices is the simple graph  $G = K_n$ , where

$$V(K_n) = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\},$$

$$E(K_n) = \{\{v_i, v_j\} : 1 \leq i < j \leq n\}.$$

That is, every pair of distinct vertices is connected by an edge (Figure 2.2).

**Note:** The complete graph  $K_n$  has  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$  edges.

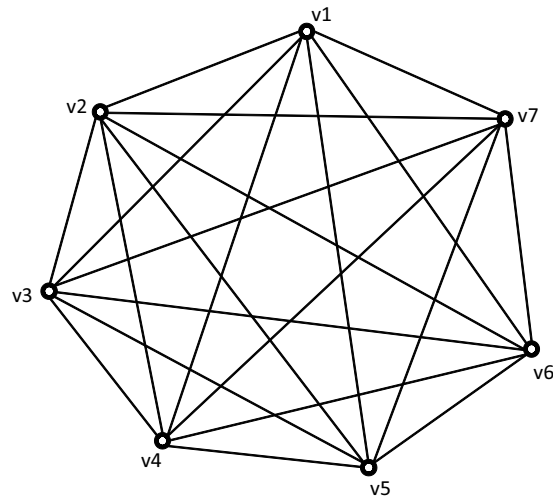


Figure 2.2: Complete graph  $K_7$ .

Many properties of graphs must be stated in terms of numerical values associated with the graph or some of its components. The first such attribute, it is defined the degree of a vertex.

**Definition 2.1.6** Let  $G = (V, E, \phi)$  be a graph and  $v \in V$  a vertex of  $G$ . The **degree** of  $v$ , denoted  $d(v)$ , is defined by

$$d(v) = |\{e \in E : v \in \phi(e), |\phi(e)| = 2\}| + 2|\{e \in E : v \in \phi(e), |\phi(e)| = 1\}|. \quad (2.2)$$

**Remark:** For a graph  $G$  and a vertex  $v \in V(G)$  we have:

- If  $G$  is a simple graph, then  $d(v)$  is the number of neighbors of  $v$  in  $G$ .
- If  $G$  is a general graph, then  $d(v)$  is the number of edges having  $v$  as an endvertex, where the loops are counted twice.

**Theorem 2.1.7** For a graph  $G$  we have

$$\sum_{u \in V} d(u) = 2 | E | . \quad (2.3)$$

**Definition 2.1.8** Let  $G = (V, E)$  be a graph and  $k$  be the degree of a vertex. To calculate the *average degree*, all degrees are summed and divided by the total number of vertices in the network:

$$\langle k \rangle = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N k(v_i)}{N}, \quad (2.4)$$

where  $N$  is the total number of nodes in the network.

When studying a specific graph, many times our attention is focused solely on a special part of the graph, perhaps on a smaller graph lying inside the larger graph . This motivates the following definition of a subgraph.

**Definition 2.1.9** For graphs  $G' = (V', E', \phi')$  and  $G = (V, E, \phi)$ , we say that  $G'$  is a **subgraph** of  $G$ , if

1.  $V' \subseteq V$ ,
2.  $E' \subseteq E$ ,
3.  $\phi'(e) = \phi(e) \forall e \in E'$ .

It is denoted the subgraph relation on graphs using the standard subset notation  $\subseteq$ . That is, if  $G'$  is a subgraph of  $G$ , then it is written  $G' \subseteq G$ . In particular, for simple graphs  $G' = (V', E')$  and  $G = (V, E)$ ,  $G'$  is a subgraph of  $G$  if  $V' \subseteq V$  and  $E' \subseteq E$ .

**Example 2.1.10** Consider the graph  $G$  given in Figure 2.3 (a). Figure 2.1.1 (b) shows a subgraph  $G'$  of  $G$ .

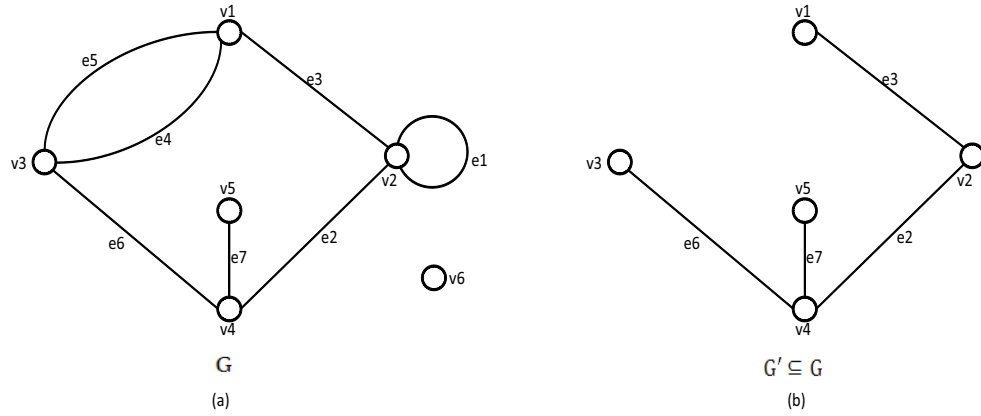


Figure 2.3: Subgraph.

**Definition 2.1.11** A *directed graph* or *digraph* is an ordered triple  $\vec{G} = (V, E, \eta)$  where

1.  $V \neq \emptyset$ ,
2.  $V \cap E = \emptyset$ ,
3.  $\eta : E \mapsto V \times V$  is a map.

The set  $V$  is the set of vertices, and the set  $E$  the directed edges, or arcs. If  $\eta(e) = (u, v)$ , then  $u$  is called the tail of  $e$  and  $v$  the head of  $e$ .

If  $\eta(e) = (v, v)$ , then  $e$  is called a **directed loop**.

Two directed edges  $e$  and  $e'$  are said to be *parallel edges* if  $\eta(e) = \eta(e')$ . That is, the edges are mapped onto the same ordered pair of vertices

**Example 2.1.12** Consider the digraph  $\vec{G} = (V, E, \eta)$  with five vertices and six directed edges as shown in Figure 2.4. Here,  $\vec{G} = (V, E, \eta)$ , where  $V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4, v_5\}$ ,  $E = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6\}$ , and the edgemap  $\eta$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \eta(e_1) &= (v_1, v_2), \\ \eta(e_2) &= (v_3, v_1), \\ \eta(e_3) &= (v_1, v_3), \\ \eta(e_4) &= (v_2, v_3), \\ \eta(e_5) &= (v_3, v_4), \\ \eta(e_6) &= (v_4, v_4). \end{aligned}$$

In particular, the directed edge  $e_6$  is the directed loop.

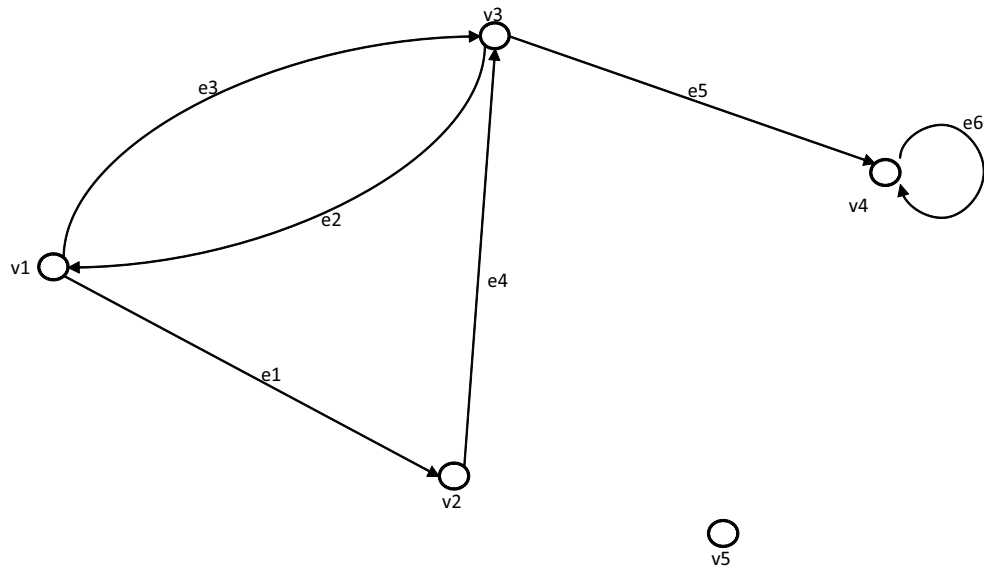


Figure 2.4: A digraph with five vertices and six directed edges.

**Definition 2.1.13** A digraph having no directed loops and no parallel directed edges is called a *simple digraph*.

Any simple digraph  $\vec{G}$  can be presented as an ordered pair  $\vec{G} = (V, E)$ , where  $V$  is a set of vertices and  $E \subseteq V \times V$ . Note that there is a slight difference between a simple digraph and having the edges represented by a subset of  $V \times V$  :

- A digraph  $\vec{G}$  has representation  $\vec{G} = (V, E)$ , where  $E \subseteq V \times V$  if, only if,  $\vec{G}$  has no parallel directed edges.
- A digraph is simple if, only if,  $\vec{G}$  has a representation  $\vec{G} = (V, E)$ , where  $E \subseteq V \times V$  and  $\vec{G}$  has no directed loops.

### 2.1.2 The Basic Representations for Graphs

From a mathematical point of view, it is convenient to define a graph by means of the adjacency matrix  $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})_{i,j=1,2,\dots,N}$ . This is a  $N \times N$  matrix defined in the following definition:

**Definition 2.1.14** We define the *adjacency matrix*  $\mathbf{A}$  of a graph  $G(V, E)$  as the  $|V| \times |V|$ :



$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } (i, j) \in E \\ 0, & \text{if } (i, j) \notin E. \end{cases} \quad (2.5)$$

We define the adjacency matrix representation of a digraph  $G$  in the same way as for an undirected graph. The adjacency matrix for a graph is symmetric, while the adjacency matrix for a digraph is asymmetric.

**Definition 2.1.15** A **weighted graph** is a graph that has a numeric label  $w(e)$  associated with each edge  $e$ , called the weight of edge  $e$ . Edges weights can be integers, rational numbers, or real numbers, which represent a concept such as distance, connection costs, or affinity.

### 2.1.2.1 Paths and Cycles

**Definition 2.1.16** 1. A **walk** in a graph  $G = (V, E, \phi)$  is an alternating sequence

$$(v_0, e_1, v_1, e_2, \dots, e_k, v_k)$$

of vertices and edges that begins and ends with a vertex. For each  $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$  the endvertices of  $e_i$  are  $v_{i-1}$  and  $v_i$ . That is

$$\phi(e_i) = \{v_{i-1}, v_i\},$$

The vertex  $v_0$  is the initial vertex of the walk. The vertex  $v_k$  is the final vertex of the walk. The initial or final vertex of a walk is also called an endvertex of the walk. The natural number  $k$  is the length of the walk.

2. A **trail** in  $G$  is a walk with all of its edges  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k$  distinct
3. A **path** in  $G$  is a walk with all of its vertices  $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k$  distinct.
4. For vertices  $u$  and  $v$  in  $G$ , a  $u, v$ -walk ( $u, v$ -trail or  $u, v$ -path) is walk (respectively trail or path) with initial vertex  $u$  and final vertex  $v$ .
5. A walk or trail of length at least one is **closed** if the initial vertex and the final vertex are the same. A closed trail is also called a **circuit**.
6. A **cycle** is a closed walk with distinct vertices except for the initial and final vertex, which are the same.

Assuming  $G$  is a simple graph, then a walk, trail, path, or cycle can be specified by a sequence of vertices  $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k$  instead of  $(v_0, e_1, v_1, e_2, \dots, e_k, v_k)$ . This is because a pair of adjacent vertices  $v_{i-1}$  and  $v_i$  completely determine the only edge  $e_i = \{v_{i-1}, v_i\}$  between them.

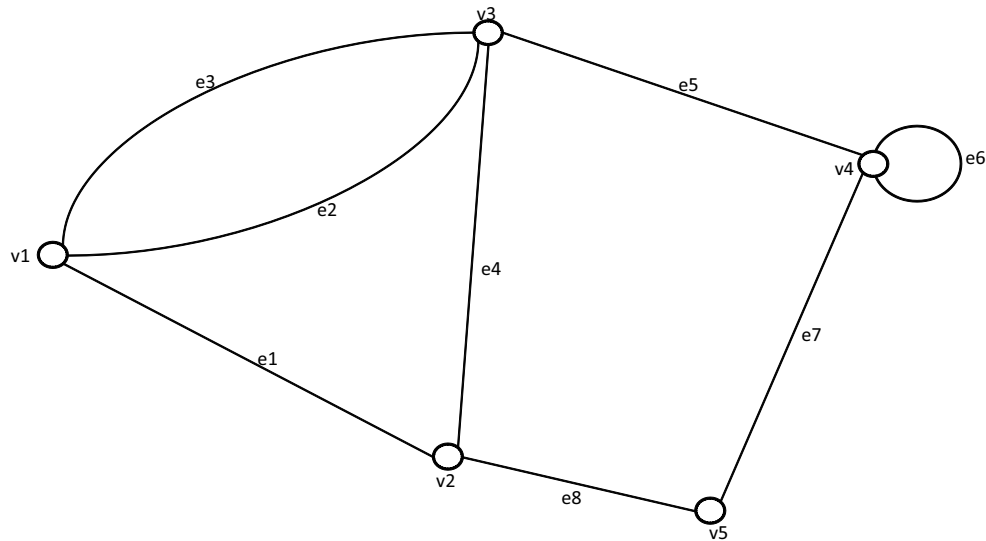


Figure 2.5: Graph used to illustrate walks, trails, paths, and cycles.

**Example 2.1.17** We illustrate Definition 2.1.16 using the graph  $G = (V, E)$  with five vertices and seven edges shown in Figure 2.5.

- $w = (v_1, e_2, v_3, e_3, v_1, e_1, v_2, e_4, v_3, e_4, v_2, e_8, v_5, e_7, v_4)$

Here  $w$  is a walk of length seven. Note that  $w$  is not a trail, since the edge  $e_4$  appears twice. A walk that is not a trail is clearly not a path. Hence,  $w$  is not a path.

- $t = (v_1, e_2, v_3, e_3, v_1, e_1, v_2, e_8, v_5, e_7, v_4)$

The walk  $t$  is a trail of length five. Note that  $t$  is not a path, since the vertex  $v_1$  appears twice.

- $p = (v_1, e_2, v_3, e_4, v_2, e_8, v_5, e_7, v_4)$

The walk  $p$  is a path of length four.

- $c_1 = (v_3, e_2, v_1, e_2, v_3, e_4, v_2, e_8, v_5, e_7, v_4, e_5, v_3)$

The walk  $c_1$  is a closed walk of length six.

- $c_2 = (v_3, e_2, v_1, e_3, v_3, e_4, v_2, e_8, v_5, e_7, v_4, e_5, v_3)$

The walk  $c_2$  is a circuit of length six.

- $c_3 = (v_3, e_4, v_2, e_8, v_5, e_7, v_4, e_5, v_3)$

The walk  $c_3$  is a cycle of length four.

Figure 2.6 explains the relationship of the items from Definition 2.1.16 in any given graph  $G$ . An arrow from one oval down to another means that the first (upper) oval contains the items in the second (lower) oval, since the items in the first are more general than the items in the second oval. So, for example, walks are more general than trails. Going down the diagram in figure means that we are restricting the structure more and more. The diagram in Figure 2.6 is actually an example of a directed graph and, in fact, a poset.

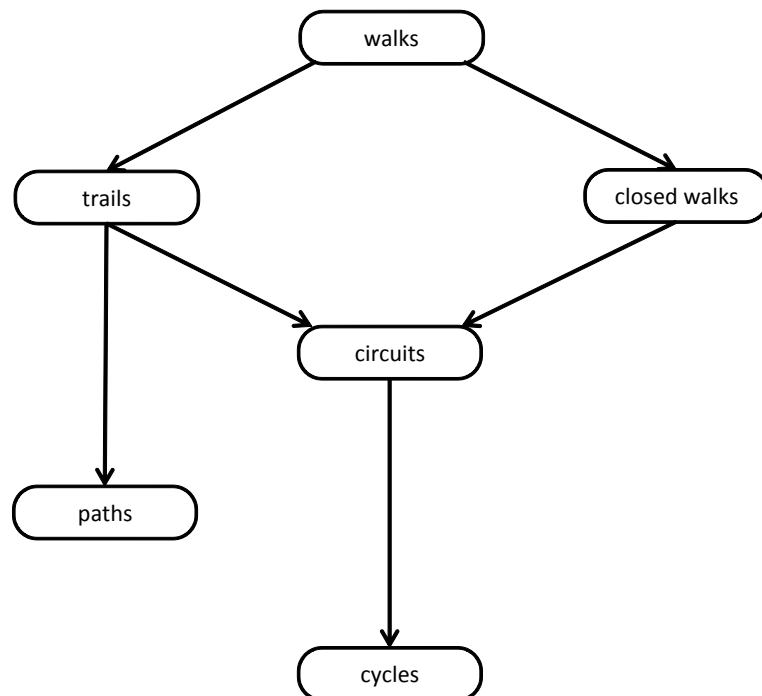


Figure 2.6: Relationships between various subgraphs and walks.

### 2.1.2.2 Connectivity

**Definition 2.1.18** A graph  $G$  is **connected**, if for every pair of distinct vertices  $u, v \in V$ , the graph  $G$  has a  $u, v$ -path. Otherwise we say that the graph is **disconnected**.

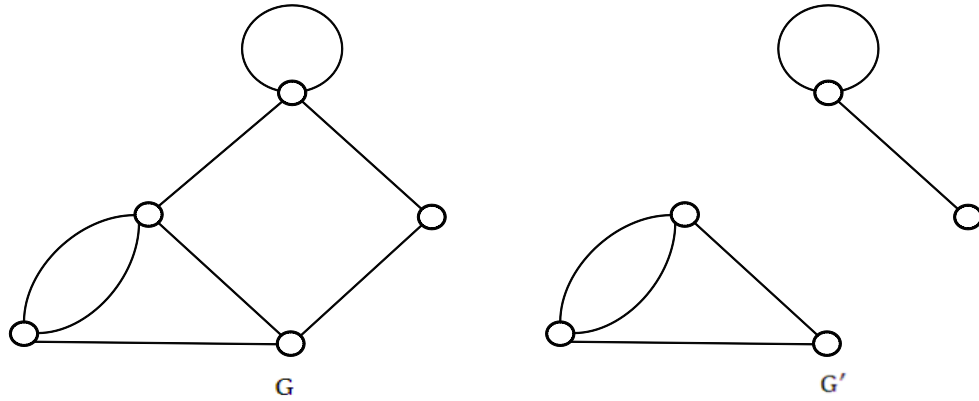


Figure 2.7: Graph  $G$  is connected, but  $G'$  is not.

As it can be seen in Figure 2.7, the graph  $G'$  is made up of two connected parts. Each segment is a subgraph of  $G'$  that is itself connected. Such a connected part of a graph is called a *component* (or *connected component*) of the graph. The following definition states this situation more formally.

**Definition 2.1.19** Let  $G$  be a graph. Let  $H_1, \dots, H_k$  be connected subgraphs of  $G$  whose vertex sets and edge sets are pairwise disjoint and such that they cover all the vertices and edges of  $G$ . That is,

$$V(G) = V(H_1) \cup \dots \cup V(H_k)$$

$$E(G) = E(H_1) \cup \dots \cup E(H_k)$$

where  $V(H_i) \cap V(H_j) = E(H_i) \cap E(H_j) = \emptyset$  for each distinct  $i$  and  $j$ .

Then each of the subgraphs  $H_i$  is called **component** or **connected component** of  $G$ .

**Theorem 2.1.20** Every graph  $G$  has a unique collection of connected components  $H_1, \dots, H_k$ . In particular, the number  $k$  of connected components of  $G$  is uniquely determined by  $G$ .

**Definition 2.1.21** Let  $G$  be a graph. The minimum number of vertices of  $G$ , whose removal

disconnects  $G$ , or creates a graph with a single vertex, is called the connectivity of  $G$  and is denoted by  $\kappa(G)$ . If  $k \leq \kappa(G)$ , then we say that  $G$  is  $k$ -connected.

**Definition 2.1.22** The local connectivity  $\kappa(x, y)$  of two non-adjacent vertices is the minimum number of vertices separating  $x$  from  $y$ . If  $x$  and  $y$  are adjacent vertices, their local connectivity is defined as  $\kappa_H(x, y) + 1$  where  $H = G - xy$ .

**Theorem 2.1.23 (Menger):** Let  $x, y \in G$ ,  $x \neq y$ . There exists a set of  $\kappa(x, y)$  independent paths between  $x$  and  $y$  and this set is maximal.

### 2.1.2.3 Digraph Connectivity

Basically, there are two natural ways to view connectivity in digraph. One is simply to adapt directly the definition from graphs, and say that a digraph  $\vec{G}$  is connected if, and only if, its underlying graph is connected. In that case we say that  $\vec{G}$  is *weakly connected*. By a *component* of  $\vec{G}$  it is simply mean that the subdigraph induced by the vertices of the corresponding component of the underlying graph  $G$ .

The following definition, however, is a more common way of describing connectivity in digraphs.

**Definition 2.1.24** A *directed walk*  $\vec{w}$  in a digraph  $\vec{G}$  is an alternating sequence

$$\vec{w} = (v_0, e_1, v_1, e_2, \dots, e_k, v_k)$$

of vertices and directed edges, where for each  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$  the tail and head of  $e_i$  are  $v_{i-1}$  and  $v_i$ , respectively. That is,

$$\eta(e_i) = (v_{i-1}, v_i).$$

The notion of an initial vertex, a final vertex, the length, a directed trail, a directed path, and a directed  $u, v$ -walk, trail, path are the same as in Definition 2.1.16, but here it is added the words “directed” before each of the words “walk”, “trail”, and “path”. Likewise, the notion of closed directed trail and path are called directed circuit and directed cycle, respectively.

**Remark:** Since each directed edge has a unique tail and head, there is no ambiguity in writing a directed walk as

$$\vec{w} = (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k),$$

where it is understood that the initial vertex of  $\vec{w}$  is the tail of  $e_1$  and the final vertex is the head of  $e_k$ .

Likewise, if our digraph  $\vec{G}$  has no parallel directed edges, and hence the set of directed edges is given by a subset  $E \subseteq V \times V$ , then we can write a directed walk as a sequence of vertices

$$\vec{w} = (v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k).$$

It can be now stated the more common definition for connectivity in digraphs, called *strong* connectivity, to emphasize its difference from weak connectivity.

**Definition 2.1.25** A digraph  $\vec{G}$  is **strongly connected** if for every pair  $u, v \in V(\vec{G})$  of distinct vertices there is a directed walk from  $u$  to  $v$  in  $\vec{G}$ .

The **strong components** of  $\vec{G}$  are maximal strongly connected subdigraphs of  $\vec{G}$

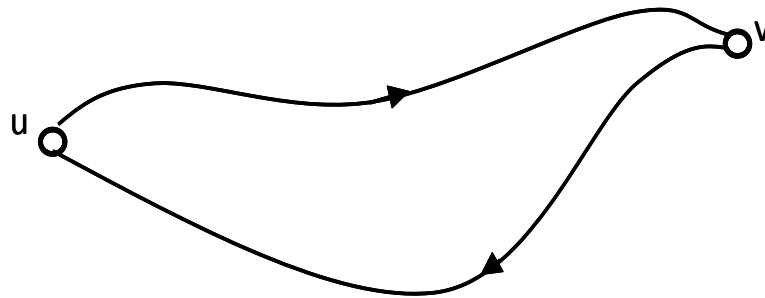


Figure 2.8: The condition for strong connectivity in a digraph.

**Note:** The definition 2.1.25 implies that for every pair  $u, v \in V(\vec{G})$  of vertices there is a directed path from  $u$  to  $v$  and a directed path from  $v$  to  $u$  as well (by reversing the role of  $u$  and  $v$ .) Also note that these two directed paths, one from  $u$  to  $v$  and the other from  $v$  to  $u$ , are not necessarily edge disjoint!

As it can be seen in Figure 2.8, the condition of digraph  $\vec{G}$  being strongly connected implies that for every pair  $u, v \in \vec{G}$  of vertices there is a directed walk from  $u$  to  $v$  in  $\vec{G}$ , as well as a directed walk from  $v$  back to  $u$  in  $\vec{G}$ .

### 2.1.3 Giant Connected Component

The characteristic of networks discussed so far do not allow us to imagine their global topology. To get a real image of a network, we have to know its percolation property. As Figure 2.9 demonstrates, a network may consist of a number of disjoint parts—connected components. The standard notion of percolating cluster and percolation threshold for networks are introduced in the following way.

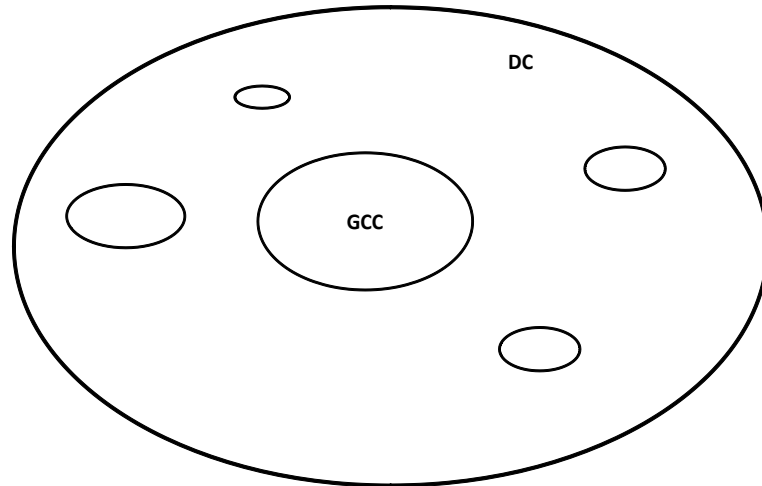


Figure 2.9: The general structure of an undirected network with the giant connected component (GCC). The GCC plays the role of a percolating cluster. The rest of the network includes separate finite-size clusters: finite connected components. Usually, this part is referred to as disconnected components (DC).

To begin with, suppose that the network is undirected. A distinct connected component of a network is a set of mutually reachable vertices. The size of a connected component is the total number of vertices in it. When the relative sizes of all connected components of a network tend to zero as the number of vertices in the network approaches infinity, the network is below the percolation threshold. If the relative size of the largest connected component approaches a finite (non-zero) value in the limit of a large network, the network is above the percolation threshold. In such an event, the huge connected component plays the role of a percolating cluster. In graph theory, this is called the **giant connected component (GCC)**. The general structure of an undirected graph, when the giant connected component is present, is shown in Figure 2.9. The rest of the network consists of separate finite connected components. Traditionally, these parts are together referred to as **disconnected component (DC)**.

**Definition 2.1.26** *The Giant Connected Component (GCC) of an undirected graph  $G =$*

$(V, E)$ , where  $V$  is the set of all vertices and  $E$  is the set of all edges, is the maximal set of vertices  $U \subset V$  such that every pair of vertices  $u$  and  $v$  in  $U$  are reachable from each other.

The notion of the giant connected components are truly important. They characterize a network as a unit “organism” and indicate its “health”. For example, an undirected graph is only a set of separate clusters if the GCC is absent.

## 2.2 Properties of Networks

### 2.2.1 Clustering Coefficient

Nodes in many real systems exhibit a tendency to cluster, which can be qualified using the clustering coefficient [12], a measure of the degree to which the neighbors of a particular nodes are connected to each other. For example in a friendship network,  $C$  reflects the degree to which friend of a particular person are friends with each other as well. Formally the clustering coefficient of node  $i$  is defined as

$$C_i = \frac{2n_i}{k_i(k_i - 1)}, \quad (2.6)$$

where  $n_i$  denotes the number of links connecting the  $k_i$  neighbors of node  $i$  to each other.

Accordingly, it can be defined **the average clustering coefficient** as

$$\langle C \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N C_i. \quad (2.7)$$

**Note:** The average degree  $\langle k \rangle$  and average clustering coefficient  $\langle C \rangle$  depends on the number of nodes and links in the network. By contrast  $P(k)$  (see Subsection 2.2.2) are independent of the network’s size and therefore capture a network’s generic features which allows them to be used to classify various networks.



### 2.2.2 Degree (Connectivity) Distribution

Generally the degree of vertices in random networks are statistically distributed. We define  $p_k$  to be the fraction of vertices in the network that have degree  $k$ . Equivalently  $p_k$  is the probability that a vertex chosen uniformly at random has degree  $k$ . A plot of  $p_k$  for any given network can be formed by making a histogram of the degree of vertices. This histogram is the degree distribution for the network.

Knowing the degree distribution of each vertices in a network, it easy to find the total degree distribution

$$P(k, N) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{s=1}^N p(k, s, N), \quad (2.8)$$

where  $p(k, s, N)$  is the probability that the vertex  $s$  in the network of size  $N$  has  $k$  connections.

The following examples demonstrate typical degree distribution for networks.

#### The poisson distribution:

$$P(k) = \frac{e^{-\langle k \rangle} (\langle k \rangle)^k}{k!}. \quad (2.9)$$

Here,  $\langle k \rangle$  is the average degree. A “classical random graph ” asymptotically has just this degree distribution, if its number of vertices approaches infinity under the constraint that the mean degree is fixed.

*Classical random graph:* This graph is defined by the following simple rules:

- The total number of vertices is fixed.
- Randomly chosen pairs of vertices are connected via undirected edges.

#### Exponential Distribution

$$P(k) \sim e^{-\frac{k}{\langle k \rangle}}. \quad (2.10)$$

For instance, this is the degree distribution of “the growing random graph”.

*Growing random graph:*

- At each time step, a new vertex is added to the graph.
- Simultaneously, a pair of randomly chosen vertices is connected by an edges.

**The Power-law distribution:**

$$P(k) \sim k^{-\gamma}, k \neq 0. \quad (2.11)$$

Here,  $\gamma \geq 1$  is the exponent (or parameter) of the distribution whose value is typically in the range  $2 \leq \gamma \leq 3$ , although occasionally it may lie outside these bounds.

The power-law distribution contrast with the Poisson and Exponential distributions. It has no natural scale and, hence, may be called scale-free. Networks with such distribution are called scale-free.

### 2.2.3 Network Models

Recent technological advances such as availability of computers and others increased the gathering of topological data on large network. This availability of topological data and recent theoretical advances led to great advances in the understanding of the general feature of network structure and development [1], [5], [11], [12]. The existing empirical and theoretical results indicate that complex networks can be divided into two major classes based on their connectivity distribution  $P(k)$  (representing the probability that a node in the network is connected to  $k$  other nodes): exponential networks and scale-free networks. The main role of the network models is to explain the emergence and behavior of some of the most important network characteristics. As they play a crucial role in shaping the understanding of complex networks, it is needed to pay attention to some of the more important models.

### 2.2.3.1 Exponential Networks (Random Networks)

This class of networks is characterized by a  $P(k)$  that peaks at an average  $\langle k \rangle$  and decays exponentially for large  $k$ . Because of this exponential behavior, random networks can be called Exponential network. The most investigated examples of such exponential networks are the random graph model of Erdős and Renyi [11] and the small-world model of Watts and Strogatz [12], both leading to a fairly homogeneous network, in which each node has approximately the same number of links,  $k \approx \langle k \rangle$ . This property is illustrated in Figure 2.13.

**The Erdős - Renyi (ER) model of random graph:** The simplest complex network model was proposed by Paul Erdős and Alfred Renyi in 1959. The Erdős-Renyi (ER) model of a random network (see Figure 2.11) starts with  $N$  nodes and connects each pair of nodes with probability  $p$ , creating a graph with approximately  $\frac{pN(N-1)}{2}$  randomly distributed links. The distribution of connection of networks generated by this model follows a Poisson distribution for large  $N$  (see Figure 2.10) which indicates that most nodes have roughly the same number of links, approximately equal to the network's average degree,  $\langle k \rangle$ . The tail of the degree distribution  $P(k)$  decreases exponentially, which indicates that nodes that significantly deviate from the average are extremely rare.

Despite its elegance, recent findings indicate that ER model can not explain the topological properties of real networks [7], [33]. In contrast to the Poisson distribution, for many social and technological networks the number of nodes with a given degree follows a power-law.

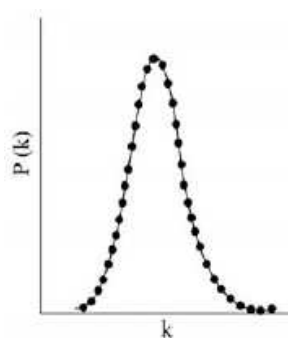


Figure 2.10: Degree distribution for random network. Random network present a peak distribution [33].

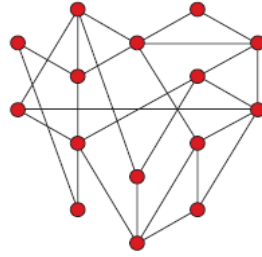


Figure 2.11: Model of a random network [33].

### 2.2.3.2 Scale-free Networks

Results on the World-Wide Web (WWW) [5], the Internet [13] and other large networks, [14], [15] indicate that many systems belong to a class of inhomogeneous networks (this property is illustrated in Figure 2.13), called scale-free networks, for which  $P(k)$  decays as a power-law, that is  $P(k) \sim k^{-\gamma}$ , free of a characteristic scale. Whereas the probability that a node has a very large number of connections  $k \gg \langle k \rangle$  is practically prohibited in exponential networks, highly connected nodes are statistically significant in scale-free networks.

**The Barabasi-Albert (BA) model of scale-free network:** The inhomogeneous connectivity distribution of many real networks is reproduced by the scale-free model [14], [15] which is based on two basic rules: *growth* and *preferential attachment*. The model starts with  $m_0$  nodes. At every time step  $t$  a new node with  $M$  links is added to the network, which connects to already existing node  $I$  with probability  $\Pi_I = \frac{k_I}{\sum_J k_J}$ , where  $k_I$  is the degree of node  $I$  and  $J$  is the index denoting the sum over network nodes. The network that is generated by this growth process has a power-law degree distribution that is characterized by the degree exponent  $\gamma = 3$ . Such distributions are seen as a straight line on a log-log plot (see Figure 2.12).

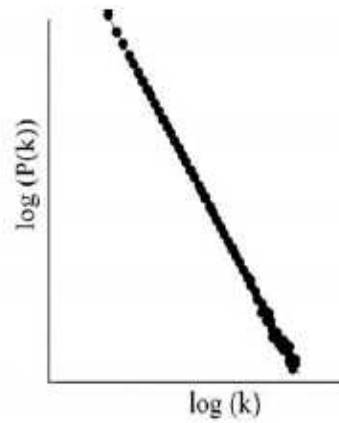


Figure 2.12: Degree distribution for scale-free networks. Scale free networks present a straight line in the log-log plot [33].

Growth and preferential attachment are jointly responsible for the emergence of the scale free property in complex network and these two fundamental process have a key role in the development of real networks. For example, the World Wide Web has grown from 1 to more than 3-billion web pages over a 10-year period (growth process) and on the World Wide Web we are more familiar with highly connected web pages, and therefore are more likely to link them (preferential attachment) [33].

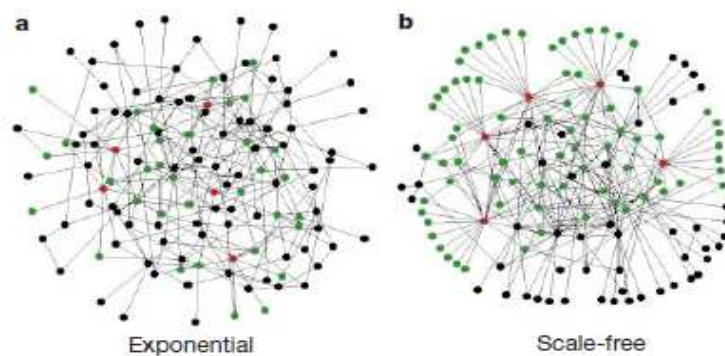


Figure 2.13: Visual illustration of the difference between an exponential and a scale-free network. This figure is taken from [1].

#### 2.2.4 Scale-free Networks

An important information to characterize a graph  $G$  is the degree of a vertex  $i$ . That is, the number  $k_i$  of edges incident with vertex  $i$ . Networks with power law degree distribution have been focus of great deal of attention in the literature [16], [17]. They are referred as scale-free networks [14], although it is only their degree distributions that are scale-free (The term scale-free refers to an functional form  $f(x)$  that remains unchanged to within a multiplicative factor under a rescaling of the independent variable  $x$ . In fact this means power law forms since these are the only solutions to  $f(ax) = bf(x)$  and hence power-law and scale-free are for the purposes, synonyms). It indicates the absence of a typical node in the network (one that could be used to characterize the rest of the nodes). This is in strong contrast to random networks, for which the degree of all nodes is in the vicinity of the average degree, which could be considered typical. However, scale-free networks could easily be called scale-rich as well, as their main feature is the coexistence of nodes of widely different degrees (scales), from nodes with one or two links to major hubs.

Barabasi et al. focused their attention on  $P(k)$ , the degree distribution of a network, and showed that many real large network as the World Wide Web, the internet, metabolic and protein networks are scale free that is their degree distribution follows a power law for large  $k$  [7], [5], [18]. That is a scale-free network is one in which the probability of a node having  $k$  connection is proportional to  $k^{-\gamma}$ , where  $\gamma$  is the degree exponent ( $2 \leq \gamma \leq 3$ ). In this sense scale-free network are heterogenous. Heterogenous means that while most vertices are lowly connected, a huge number of edges is concentrated in a small number of nodes. Thus network's properties are determined by hubs (the most highly connected nodes) (see Figure 2.14).

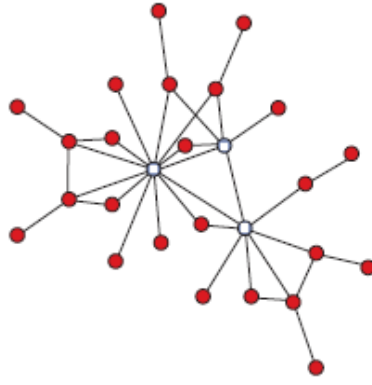


Figure 2.14: The network's properties are determined by hubs (white nodes) [33] .

### 2.3 Protein Domain Networks

Since proteins are the most essential structural components for living things to maintain their cell functions properly, proteins are widely studied in biology. Although proteins are unique, they share certain common properties. For example, well-defined regions within a protein can evolve, function and fold independently from the rest of the protein and have their own function. They are called protein domains, and served as protein building blocks. These domains and nature of their interactions determine the function of the protein. Thus, it can be said that domains are basic evolutionary units of proteins.

Many biological systems can be represented by networks [20], [22], [26]. One of these networks is protein domain networks which include two networks type; protein domain interaction networks and protein domain co-occurrence networks. The domain architecture of proteins was studied by considering protein domains as nodes and their co-occurrence in proteins as links, documenting again the emergence of a scale-free architecture [20]. Although methods and sources of domain information in [20] were different, the scale-free features of the networks were found to be robust [18].

In this work, we focus on Protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast (*S.cerevisiae*) which is formally defined by a set of nodes consisting of all domains which occur in the protein sequence of the yeast proteome. Two domains are regarded as being indirectly linked if they occur in one of these protein sequences [21]. Protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast

(*S.cerevisiae*) which is obtained from Biomart (Pfam domain database) data management system is weighted and undirected.



## CHAPTER 3

### NETWORK RESILIENCE

The property of resilience of networks to the removal of their vertices which is related to degree (connectivity) distribution is of great interest in the literature. Most of the networks is considered for their function on their connectivity, that is, the existence of paths between pairs of vertices. If we remove vertices from a network, the length of these paths will increase, and eventually vertex pairs will become disconnected and some of the vertices will become unreachable. As a result the network communication between them will be destroyed. Response of resilience of networks to such vertex removal can vary according to network model which can be classified by their degree distributions.

The presence of a giant connected component in a network indicates the unity of a network. In other words, if a network does not have a giant connected component, we can say that that network consists of disconnected clusters (components). If we wonder answer of the question "When networks are tried to be destroyed what is the response of networks to such an attack?", the variation of the giant component must also be studied. if such an attack does not crucially diminish the giant component, the damage is not serious , but the damage is fatal if it eliminates the giant component.

There are also a variety of different ways in which we remove vertices and different networks show varying levels of resilience to such a vertex removal. For example, one could remove vertices at random from a network,

**Failure** - Nodes are removed randomly which might be represent random perturbations, environmental factors etc.

or one could target some specific set of vertices, such as those with the highest degrees.

**Attack** - Selected nodes are removed from the network which might represent more organized and selective effects to the network like virus attacks.

The way the nodes are chosen during an attack is called an *attack strategy*. There are different attack strategies which is introduced in [1], [2]. But, the most widely studied attack strategy has been introduced in [1]. At each step the nodes with maximal degree is removed by decreasing order of their degree. This attack can be called as the *classical attack strategy* [2].

There are several measures (methods) to analyze the resilience of the network to failures or attacks. Some of these are introduced in the following section.

### 3.1 Methods to Measure Error and Attack Tolerance of Complex Networks

#### 3.1.1 Average Shortest Path

Average shortest path is a typical network statistic to measure the network distance of a network. To define the average of the shortest path lengths between two vertices,  $L$ , it is needed first to construct the shortest path length  $d_{ij}$  between two vertices measured as the minimum number of edges in the network for all nodes from  $i$  to  $j$ . By definition,  $d_{ij} \geq 1$  with  $d_{ij} = 1$  if there exists a direct edge between  $i$  and  $j$ . The characteristic path length  $L$  of graph  $G$  is defined as the average of the shortest path lengths between two generic vertices:

$$L(G) = \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i \neq j \in G} d_{ij}, \quad (3.1)$$

where  $N$  is the number of nodes in the network.

As it can be seen from Equation (3.1), this definition is valid only if  $G$  is totally connected, which means that there must exist at least a path connecting any couple of vertices with a finite number of steps. Otherwise, when from  $i^*$  it can not be reached to  $j^*$  then  $d_{i^* j^*} = +\infty$  and consequently  $L$  as given in (3.1), being divergent. When studying how the resilience of a network are affected by the removal of nodes, one often encounters non-connected networks.

In such cases the alternative formalism can be used such that the efficiency of network [3].

If the network is connected, the average shortest path is greater when the network undergoes disruptions. As some of the nodes are deleted, the shortest path may be longer due to the deletion of these nodes, because some of these nodes may form part of the shortest path in the network before disruptions. However, if the disruptions of the network are so severe that the network is fragmented, the shortest paths between the fragmented nodes and other nodes are infinity. Then the average shortest path becomes infinity. In this situation, the average shortest path can only show that the network is fragmented [19].

### 3.1.2 Efficiency of the Network

To define the efficiency of  $G$ , suppose that every node sends information along the network, through its edges and assume that the efficiency  $\epsilon_{ij}$  in the communication between node  $i$  and  $j$  is inversely proportional to the shortest distance:  $\epsilon_{ij} = \frac{1}{d_{ij}} \forall i, j$ . With this definition, when there is no path in the graph between  $i$  and  $j$ ,  $d_{ij} = +\infty$  and consistently  $\epsilon_{ij} = 0$ . The global efficiency of the graph  $G$  can be defined as:

$$E_{glob} = \frac{\sum_{i \neq j \in G} \epsilon_{ij}}{N(N-1)} = \frac{1}{N(N-1)} \sum_{i \neq j \in G} \frac{1}{d_{ij}}, \quad (3.2)$$

the global efficiency is normalized, that is:  $0 \leq E_{glob}(G) \leq 1$ . The maximum value of the efficiency  $E_{glob}(G) = 1$  are obtained in the ideal case of a completely connected graph, i.e. in the case in which the graph  $G$  has all the  $\frac{N(N-1)}{2}$  possible edges and  $d_{ij} = 1 \forall i, j$  [3].

As it is mentioned, if large number of nodes are removed, the network becomes unconnected (consequently  $L$  as given in 3.1, being divergent, is an illdefined quantity). To overcome this problem, the efficiency of the network can be used to measure the response of the networks to external factors because network efficiency can be extended to non-connected networks. That is, using of the efficiency measure to characterize scale-free networks allows to avoid problems due to the divergence of the average distance [3].

The global efficiency of the graph  $G$  decreases when the network undergoes disruptions [3].

### 3.1.3 Diameter of the Network

Diameter is defined as the longest shortest path between any pair of nodes of a network. It characterizes the ability of two nodes to communicate with each other.

$$Dia = \max\{d_{ij} \mid i, j = 1, 2, \dots, N\}, \quad (3.3)$$

where  $N$  is the number of nodes in the network.

Networks with a very large number of nodes can have quite a small diameter: the smaller  $d$  is, the shorter is the expected path between them; for example, the diameter of the WWW, with over 800 million nodes, is around 19 [5] whereas social networks with over six billion individuals are believed to have a diameter of around six [6].

### 3.1.4 Size of the Giant Connected Component

The resilience of the network to failures or attacks can be analyzed by studying how the size of the largest connected component varies as a function of the number of removed nodes. That is, during the network fragmentation process it can be analyzed the disruption of the network topology by measuring properties of the giant cluster that remains connected, including size  $S$  as fraction of the size of initially-connected network.

This method is introduced by Barabasi et al. [1] in the following way: “When nodes are removed from a network, clusters of nodes whose links to the system disappear may be cut off (fragmented) from the main cluster. This fragmentation process is investigated by measuring the size of the largest cluster,  $S$ , shown as a fraction of the total system size, when a fraction  $f$  of the nodes are removed either randomly or in an attack mode. It is found that for the exponential network, as  $f$  increases,  $S$  displays a threshold-like behaviour such that for  $f \geq f_c$ ,  $S \simeq 0$ , where  $f_c$  is the threshold value. However, the response of a scale-free network to attacks and failures is rather different. For random failures no threshold for fragmentation is observed; On the other hand, the response to attack of the scale-free network is similar (but swifter) to the response to attack and failure of the exponential network.”

### 3.2 Literature Review on the Comparison of the Behavior of Scale Free and Random Network under Failures and Attacks

As we mentioned, complex networks can be divided into two major classes according to the connectivity distribution  $p(k)$ : exponential networks and scale-free networks. Exponential networks are homogeneous in connectivity, which means most nodes in network have approximately the same number of connections around  $\langle k \rangle$ ,  $k \approx \langle k \rangle$ . In contrast, many real networks belong to a class of inhomogeneous, scale-free networks. Different from exponential networks, in scale-free network, a few highly connected nodes ( $k \gg \langle k \rangle$ ) exist and thus play a significantly important role in the network's connectivity.

Previous study [1], [8], [9], [10] has shown that scale-free networks display an unexpected degree of robustness, i.e., the ability of their nodes to communicate being unaffected by even unrealistically high failure rates. However, these networks are extremely vulnerable to intentional attacks, i.e., to the removal of a few of highly connected nodes. This property is rooted in their heterogeneity. On the other hand, evolving networks with exponential connectivity distribution (exponential network) are not as robust to random failures, but more resilient to intentional attacks. This property is due to their homogeneity, exhibit a similar tolerance with respect to errors and attacks.

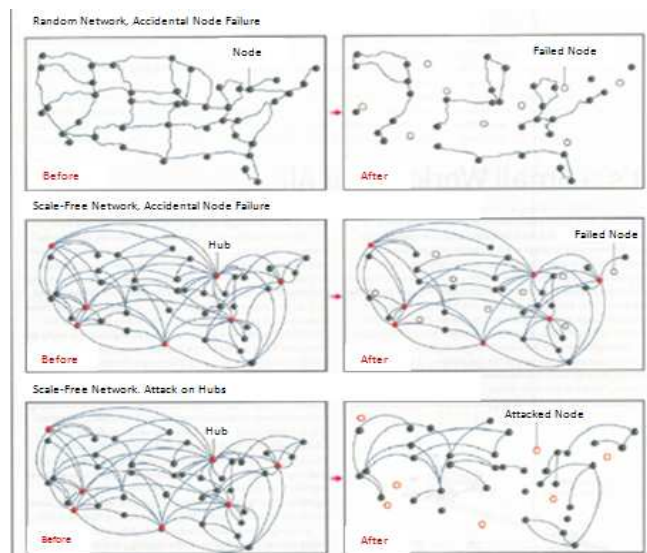


Figure 3.1: The simulations of the effects of failures and attacks on scale-free and exponential random networks. This figure is taken from [7].

By Barabasi et al. [7], the effects of failures and attacks on scale-free and exponential random networks are simulated. In this simulation shown in Figure 3.1, the diagrams are constructed using U.S. highway system which resembles to random networks and U.S. airline system for scale-free networks. When the nodes are removed randomly, scale-free networks seem to be much more robust than exponential random networks in terms of network connectivity, but they seem more vulnerable to intentional attacks. In failure, since nodes are removed randomly, the probability that the removed nodes with low-degree is higher than the removed nodes with high-degree (hubs), as a result effects of failure on network connectivity is expected to be small. On the other hand, in a intentional attack the nodes with high degree are removed, thus effect of attack on network connectivity is expected to be big, that is the network connectivity can be heavily damaged. These results can be observed from the simulation shown in Figure 3.1. The first two diagrams show the effects of random failure of nodes on a random network (U.S. highway system) connectivity. The second two diagrams show the effect of random node removal on a scale free network (U.S. airline system) connectivity. The last two diagrams show the effect of a hub attack on the scale-free network. Comparing the second and the last two diagrams, it is seen that the network connectivity is heavily damaged under attacks. All these results observed in this analysis can be explained by presence of hubs in scale-free networks [7].

Barabasi et al. [1] again investigate the effect of failures and attacks on scale free and exponential random networks. But in this case changes in the diameter of the two types of networks are examined as a function of the fraction of nodes being removed. They compare the exponential (E) and scale-free (SF) network models, each containing  $N = 10,000$  nodes and 20,000 links under failures and attacks in Figure 3.2 (a). The triangle and square symbols in Figure 3.2 (a) correspond to the diameter of the exponential and scale-free networks respectively when a fraction  $f$  of the nodes are removed randomly (error tolerance). The diamond and circle symbols in Figure 3.2 (a) show the response of the exponential and the scale-free networks to attacks respectively, when the most highly connected nodes are removed. In Figure 3.2 (b), changes in the diameter of the Internet (scale-free network) under random failures (squares) and attacks (circles) are shown. In Figure 3.2 (c), changes in the diameter of the World-Wide Web (scale-free network) under random failures (squares) and attacks (circles) are shown. The results in Figure 3.2 agree with the previous observation that scale-free networks are more robust than exponential networks under failures, but more

vulnerable to attacks. It can be also observed that failures or attacks on exponential random networks causes almost the same amount of damage to the network.

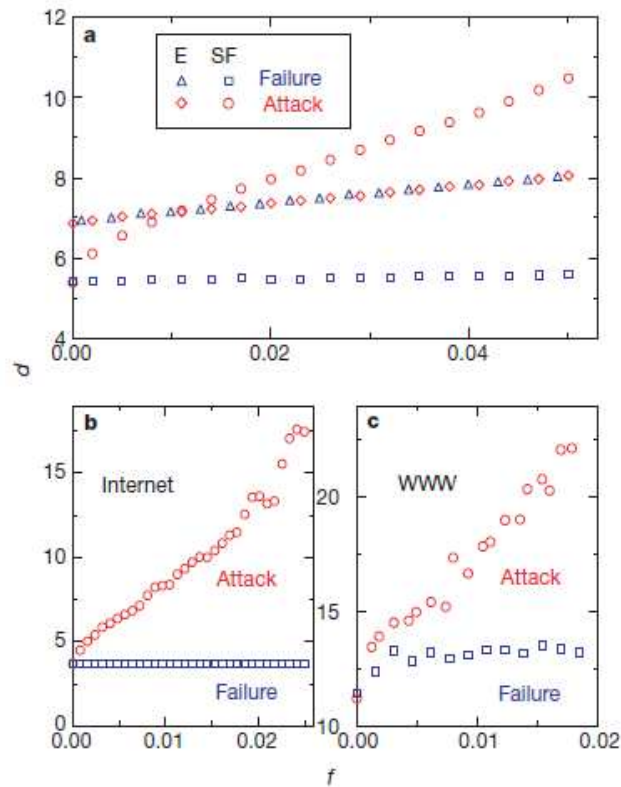


Figure 3.2: Changes in the diameter of the network as a function of the fraction of the removed nodes. This figure is taken from [1].

Barabasi et al. [1] continue to investigate the effect of failures and attacks on the two types of networks by studying another method. They measured the size of the giant connected component and the average size of the disconnected component (or isolated components) as a function of the fraction of nodes are removed either in a targeted way or randomly. In Figure 3.3, changes in the relative size of the largest cluster  $S$  (open symbols) and the average size of the isolated clusters  $\langle s \rangle$  (filled symbols) are shown as function of the fraction of removed nodes  $f$  for the same systems. The size  $S$  is defined as the fraction of nodes contained in the largest cluster. In Figure 3.3 (a), fragmentation of the exponential network under random failures (squares) and attacks (circles) are shown. In Figure 3.3 (b), fragmentation of the scale-free network under random failures (squares) and attacks (circles) are shown. The inset shows the error tolerance curves for the whole range of  $f$ , indicating that the main cluster falls apart only after it has been completely deflated. In Figure 3.3, (c) and (d) show the effect of

failure and attack on the Internet and www, respectively. Again, It is observed that scale-free networks are more robust than exponential networks and vulnerable to attacks, in contrast to exponential network behave the same under failures and attacks.

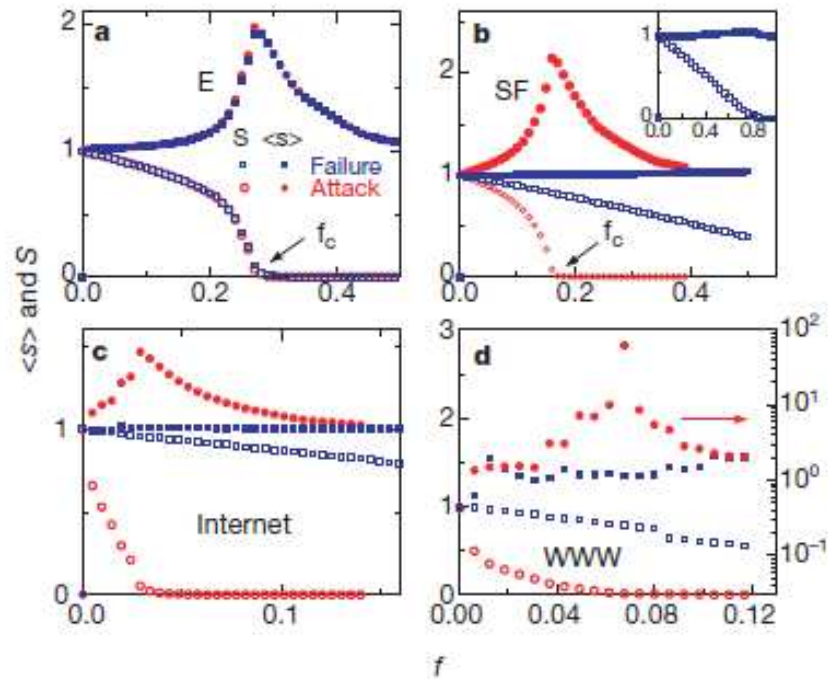


Figure 3.3: Changes in the relative size of the largest cluster  $S$  (open symbols) and the average size of the isolated clusters  $\langle s \rangle$  (filled symbols) as function of the fraction of removed nodes  $f$  for the same systems. This figure is taken from [1].



## CHAPTER 4

### APPLICATIONS

In the previous section, the methods to measure the attack tolerance of complex networks are presented. In order to use these methods and analyze the network, some changes must be made on the network. Protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast (*S.cerevisiae*) which is formatted into readable format by Pajek program is used to analyse the attack tolerance of several networks. In the first part of this chapter, we first briefly introduce the structure of Pfam protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast. Then, we mention about those changes made on the network by using Pajek program<sup>1</sup>. In the second part of this chapter we give some statistics of protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast. In this thesis, we compare the attack tolerance of the several networks which is obtained from protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast. In the last part of this chapter, how we get those several network from protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast and the analysis of the attack tolerance of those networks are introduced. In order to get these several networks which have exactly the same connectivity distribution with Protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast, a program written in MATLAB is used.

#### 4.1 Descriptions and Preparations of the Network Used in the Applications

Many biological systems can be represented by networks [20], [22], [26]. One of these networks is protein domain networks which include two network types; protein domain interaction networks and protein domain co-occurrence networks. As we mentioned in Section 2.3, a protein domain is a part of protein sequence and structure that can evolve, function, and exist independently of the rest of the protein chain. Each domain forms a compact three-

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<sup>1</sup> Pajek is a program for large -network analysis and visualization (Batagelj and Mrvar 1998).

dimensional structure and often can be independently stable and folded. Many proteins consist of several structural domains. One domain may appear in a variety of evolutionarily related proteins.

Table 4.1: Some examples of Pfam domains

Domain label (accession)	Description of domain
PF00069	Protein kinase domain
PF00730	HhH-GPD superfamily base excision DNA repair protein
PF02844	Phosphoribosylglycinamide synthetase, N domain

Protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast<sup>2</sup> which is used in this application is constructed from Biomart data management system which links to Pfam domain database. In Pfam domain database<sup>3</sup>, each domain is labeled. Table 4.1 demonstrates some examples of such domains.

Table 4.2: Pfam protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast obtained from Biomart which links to Pfam database.

domain1	domain2	occurrence in proteins
PF06747	PF08583	1
PF01288	PF00809	1
PF00293	PF05026	1
PF00293	PF09297	1
PF01118	PF02774	2
PF01119	PF08676	2
PF09261	PF07748	1
PF01053	PF01212	1
PF05436	PF04648	2
PF08022	PF08030	8
PF00033	PF00032	1
PF01734	PF00027	1
PF01237	PF00023	2
PF00730	PF00633	1
PF00730	PF07934	1
PF01233	PF02799	1
PF01232	PF08125	1
.	.	.
.	.	.
.	.	.

<sup>2</sup> The construction of Pfam domain co-occurrence network of yeast was made by Stefan Wuchty.

<sup>3</sup> The Pfam database is a large collection of protein families, each represented by multiple sequence alignments and hidden Markov models (HMMs).

In Pfam domain co-occurrence network of yeast, domains are connected if they co-appear in the same proteins in yeast. Also, each link comes with a weight, reflecting the number of proteins the domains co-appeared in. Table 4.2 shows Pfam domain co-occurrence network of yeast before we make some changes on this data. In this table the domain in the first column (domain1) are connected with the domains in the second column (domain2) and the third column reflects the number of proteins the domains co-appeared in. In Appendix A, the whole Pfam domain co-occurrence network of yeast can be found. In order to analyse this network, we made some changes on the network by using Pajek program. The structure of a Pajek network file is a simple text file that can be typed out in any word processor that exports plain text (see [29] for detailed description of Pajek program). In this simple text file, we attribute serial numbers to the vertices ranging from 1 to the number of vertices and Pajek automatically labeled the vertices. Table 4.3 shows the structure of the pajek domain co-occurrence network file<sup>4</sup>. In this table, first, the data file specifies the number of vertices (“vertices 1007”). Then, each vertex is identified on a separate line by a serial number, a textual label (enclosed in quotation marks (“ ”)) and three real numbers between 0 and 1, which indicate the position of the vertex in three-dimensional space if the network is drawn. This information is unnecessary for us so we ignore these numbers. However, it is important to note that the text label is crucial for the identification of vertices, because serial numbers of vertices may change during the analysis. We ignore the weight of the network to simplify the analysis. As a result our network is undirected and unweighted network. In addition to this, our network is a simple network that has no self-loops or multi-edges. After the network are formatted in pajek network file format, the network are ready for analysis.

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<sup>4</sup> This is a huge network file. It is available, if you contact me via e-mail: doguz@metu.edu.tr

Table 4.3: Partial listing of protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast data file for Pajek.

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*Vertices 1007				
1	“v1”	0.1000	0.5000	0.5000
2	“v2”	0.1000	0.4975	0.5000
3	“v3”	0.1000	0.4950	0.5000
4	“v4”	0.1001	0.4925	0.5000
5	“v5”	0.1001	0.4900	0.5000
6	“v6”	0.1002	0.4875	0.5000
7	“v7”	0.1003	0.4850	0.5000
8	“v8”	0.1004	0.4825	0.5000
9	“v9”	0.1005	0.4800	0.5000
10	“v10”	0.1006	0.4775	0.5000
.	.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.
.	.	.	.	.
*Edges				
790	945	1		
339	260	1		
103	736	1		
103	1002	1		
308	499	2		
309	966	2		
998	840	1		
296	327	1		
760	698	2		
854	856	8		
.	.	.		
.	.	.		
.	.	.		

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Our network is unconnected network; it has 231 disconnected components and a giant connected component. Since we use the method; “size of the giant connected component” to analyze the attack tolerance of the networks, we extract the giant connected component of protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast by using Pajek program. After all we are ready to produce several randomly modified networks, which have the same connectivity distribution with protein domain co-occurrence network, from the giant connected component of yeast network by using MATLAB (Part of the MATLAB code used in this process is written by me and can be found in Appendix B).

## 4.2 Statistics of Protein Domain Co-occurrence Network of Yeast

To capture the network's generic features and to get an idea about the structure of the network, we calculate some statistics of protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast.

Table 4.4: Statistics of protein domain co-occurrence networks of yeast (*S.cerevisiae*).

organism	$N_{nodes}$	$N_{edges}$	$N_{cc}$	$N_{nodes}^{gc}$	$N_{edges}^{gc}$	$\langle k \rangle$	$C$	$\langle k \rangle^{gc}$	$\gamma$
<i>S. cerevisiae</i>	1007	1280	231	334	556	2.54	0.39	3.33	1.5

Table 4.4 summarizes the basic statistics of the domain co-occurrence network of *S.cerevisia*, which are calculated with the help of Pajek and Matlab, that contain a giant connected component 'gc' incorporates the majority of the domain  $N_{nodes}^{gc}$ , co-existing with many small, connected component  $N_{cc}$  and  $N_{edges}^{gc}$  is the number of edges in the largest component. Our network is not a huge network, 1007 vertices and 1280 edges, comparing to the other networks in [1], [5], [13], [24] and has a giant connected component with 334 vertices. Average degree  $\langle k \rangle$  and clustering coefficient  $C$  of organisms are compared in [25] and it was found that as level of organisms development increase both the average degree  $\langle k \rangle$  and the clustering coefficient  $C$  gradually increases. We do not use the information of average degree  $\langle k \rangle$  and clustering coefficient  $C$  anywhere in this analysis. We just gave these values as an information about the network.

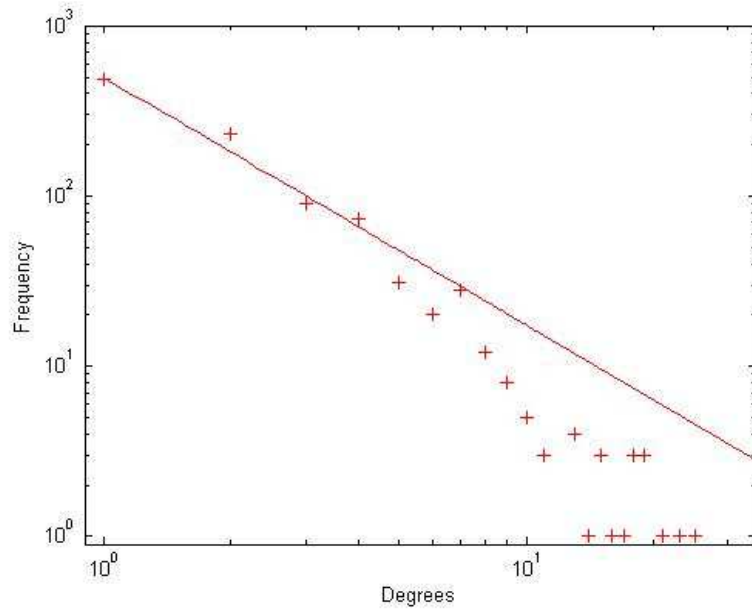


Figure 4.1: Protein domain co-occurrence network of *S.cerevisiae* displays scales free behaviour. A network feature is characterized by the power law in the degree distribution  $P(k) \sim k^{-\gamma}$  ( see Table 4.4 for detailed values ).

As it was mentioned, the nodes are domains and two domains are connected by an undirected edge if they occur together in one protein at least once. These connections define the edge set of the network. Therefore the degree of a domain is the number of other domains to which it is connected. In our network, frequency distribution of degree reveals the presence of scale free topology. Thus frequency distribution follows a power law  $P(k) \sim k^{-\gamma}$ . The degree distribution  $P(k)$  of the protein domain co-occurrence network of *S. cerevisiae* follows a power law degree distribution with exponent  $\gamma = 1.5$  (Figure 4.1). The result of this analysis is that the scale free network topologically is dominated by few highly connected hubs (most highly connected nodes). In addition to this, empirically, domain co-occurrence network displays power law degree distribution, power-law distributed, resulting in few vertices having many edges and many vertices having few edges. In Table 4.5, the number of nodes which have one link (edge) is 485, and two links is 232, i.e., the number of nodes decreases as the links they have increase. As it can be seen from the Table 4.5, at the end of the table the number of nodes having 25 links is one. Thus, Table 4.5 shows empirically that the network displays power law degree distribution.

Table 4.5: Frequency distribution of degree in protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast (*S.cerevisiae*).

Degree	Freq	Freq%	CumFreq	CumFreq%	Representative(Vertex Label)
1	485	48.1629	485	48.1629	v5
2	232	23.0387	717	71.2016	v8
3	91	9.0367	808	80.2383	v11
4	73	7.2493	881	87.4876	v3
5	31	23.0387	912	90.5660	v24
6	20	1.9861	932	92.5521	v20
7	28	2.7805	960	95.3327	v4
8	12	1.1917	972	96.5243	v7
9	8	0.7944	980	97.3188	v2
10	5	0.4965	985	97.8153	v13
11	3	0.2979	988	98.1132	v63
13	4	0.3972	992	98.5104	v69
14	1	0.0993	993	98.6097	v35
15	3	0.2979	996	98.9076	v45
16	1	0.0993	997	99.0070	v558
17	1	0.0993	998	99.1063	v921
18	3	0.2979	1001	99.4042	v6
19	3	0.2979	1004	99.7021	v1
21	1	0.0993	1005	99.8014	v21
23	1	0.0993	1006	99.9007	v93
25	1	0.0993	1007	100.0000	v133
Sum	1007	100.0000			

### 4.3 Analysis of Attack Tolerances of the Networks

In this thesis, we compare several networks exhibiting scale free structure, which have exactly the same connectivity with the original network, under attacks. We analyze the robustness of the network to attacks by studying how the size of the largest connected component varies as a function of the number of removed nodes.

Even the connectivity distribution is an important indicator of a network's qualitative features, different networks with the same connectivity distribution do not need to have the same attack tolerances. In addition to this, it can be considered that the networks with same connectivity distribution have higher attack tolerance as we organize the same resources in a better way. Then, it can be checked for the variations of attack tolerance of the networks with the same connectivity distributions. Furthermore, we investigate whether there is an evolutionary mechanism for having networks with higher or lower attack tolerances for the same connec-

tivity distribution. For these purposes, we wrote an algorithm to produce several randomly modified networks having the same connectivity distribution with the original network, then as we attack those networks we collect one of those network with a strategy which will be mentioned in this chapter. Before we check these assumptions and investigations, we want to mention about our attack strategy and the method to measure the attack tolerance of the network.

**Attack Strategy:** The way the nodes are chosen during an attack is called an *attack strategy*. Some attack strategies introduced in [1], [2]. We use classical attack strategies which introduced in [1]. In this attack strategy, we first begin to remove the most highly connected nodes and continue to remove nodes by decreasing order of their degree.

**The Method: Size of the Giant Connected Component:** This method introduced by Barabasi et al. in [1] is; “When nodes are removed from a network, clusters of nodes whose links to the system disappear may be cut off (fragmented) from the main cluster. This fragmentation process is investigated by measuring the size of the largest cluster,  $S$ , shown as a fraction of the total system size, when a fraction  $f$  of the nodes are removed either randomly or in an attack mode. It is found that for the exponential network under attacks and failures and the scale free networks under attack (see Subsection 3.1.4), as  $f$  increases,  $S$  displays a threshold-like behaviour such that for  $f \geq f_c$ ,  $S \simeq 0$ , where  $f_c$  is the threshold value.” We slightly modified this method in the following way: We removed a fraction  $f$  of the nodes in an attack mode (the most highly connected nodes removed first and continue remove nodes by decreasing order of their degree) like the method introduced in [1]. But, all nodes which were removed in our analysis are belong to the giant connected component. Since other most connected nodes not belong to the giant connected component do not effect the size of giant connected component, we ignored these nodes. In doing so, we accelerated the analysis. Also, Concerning the thresholds values, we considered that the threshold was reached whenever the size of the giant connected component of the network becomes smaller than 2% of the whole system size and 5% of the beginning size of the giant connected component of the network.

**The Strategy of Analysis:** First produce four modified networks from the original network having the same connectivity distribution with the original network by applying the algorithm mentioned below (also see Table 4.6 and in Appendix B, it can be found whole matlab code for this algorithm). After finding attack tolerances of those networks, we collect the least



vulnerable network (displaying higher attack tolerance with respect to the others) and the most vulnerable network (displaying lower attack tolerance with respect to the others) among those networks under attack. At this point we divide the analysis into two part:

*In the first part*, we produce four modified networks from the most vulnerable network by applying the algorithm. After finding attack tolerances of those networks, we collect the most vulnerable network among those networks. We continue applying the same procedure  $n$  times (in this analysis, we applied it 10 times). *In the second part*, we produce four modified networks from the least vulnerable networks by applying the algorithm. After attack those networks, we collect the least vulnerable network among those networks. We continue applying the same procedure  $n$  times (in this analysis, we applied it 10 times).

It is important to note that all networks in this analysis have the same connectivity distribution with the original networks. The strategy of the analysis mentioned above is illustrated in Figure 4.2

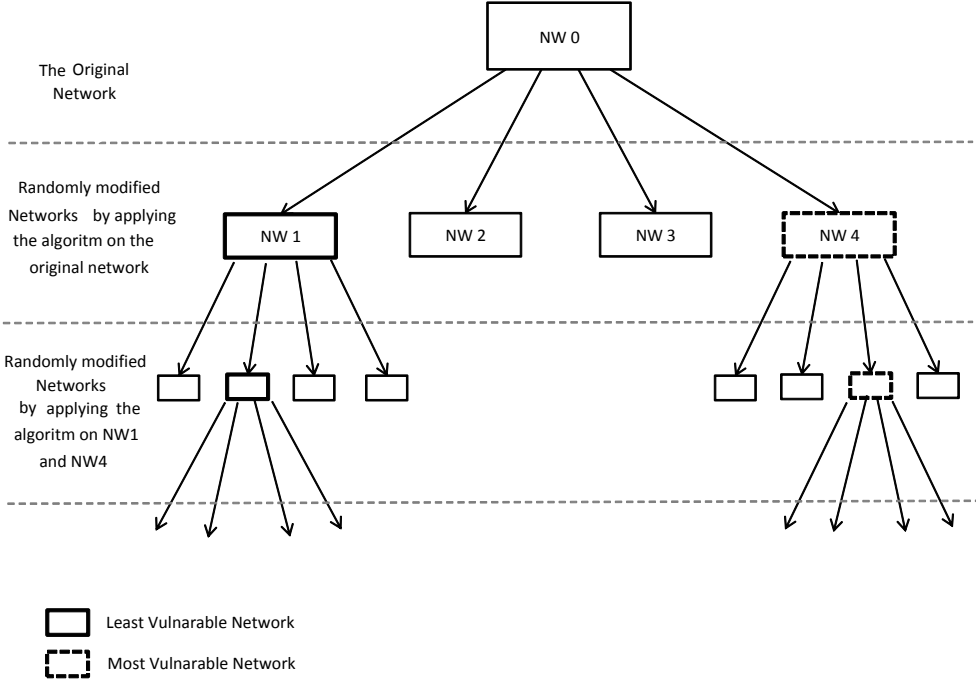


Figure 4.2: Illustration of the strategy of analysis.

To check our assumptions mentioned above, we wrote an algorithm (Table 4.6). In this algo-

rithm, we randomly change the links of the nodes in protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast conserving the connectivity of the network. We can explain this process in the following way: we randomly find a node say  $n_1$  has 4 links ( $deg(n_1) = 4$ ) and a node say  $n_2$  has 2 links ( $deg(n_2) = 2$ ) which they are connected. After we found these two nodes we randomly search for two nodes say  $n_3$  and  $n_4$ , which must be unconnected, must have degree  $deg(n_1) - 1 = 3$  and  $deg(n_2) - 1 = 1$ , respectively. After found those nodes, we break the link of  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  and we connect  $n_3$  and  $n_4$ . Now  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  have degree  $deg(n_1) = 3$  and  $deg(n_2) = 1$  respectively while degree of  $n_3$  and  $n_4$  become  $deg(n_3) = 4$  and  $deg(n_4) = 2$ . As a result the connectivity of the network does not change. This process is illustrated in Figure 4.3. We applied this process 3% of the size of the giant connected component.

**Example 4.3.1** We illustrate *the algorithm* using the graph  $G = (V, E)$  with seven vertices and seven edges shown in Figure 4.3. Here we see that  $G = (V, E)$  with  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_7\}$ ,  $E = \{(v_1, v_2), (v_1, v_3), (v_1, v_4), (v_1, v_5), (v_2, v_5), (v_3, v_6), (v_3, v_7)\}$ . After applying the algorithm, it is obtained the modified graph  $G' = (V', E')$  with seven vertices and seven edges, where  $V' = \{v_1, \dots, v_7\}$ ,  $E' = \{(v_1, v_3), (v_1, v_4), (v_1, v_5), (v_2, v_5), (v_3, v_4), (v_3, v_6), (v_3, v_7)\}$ .

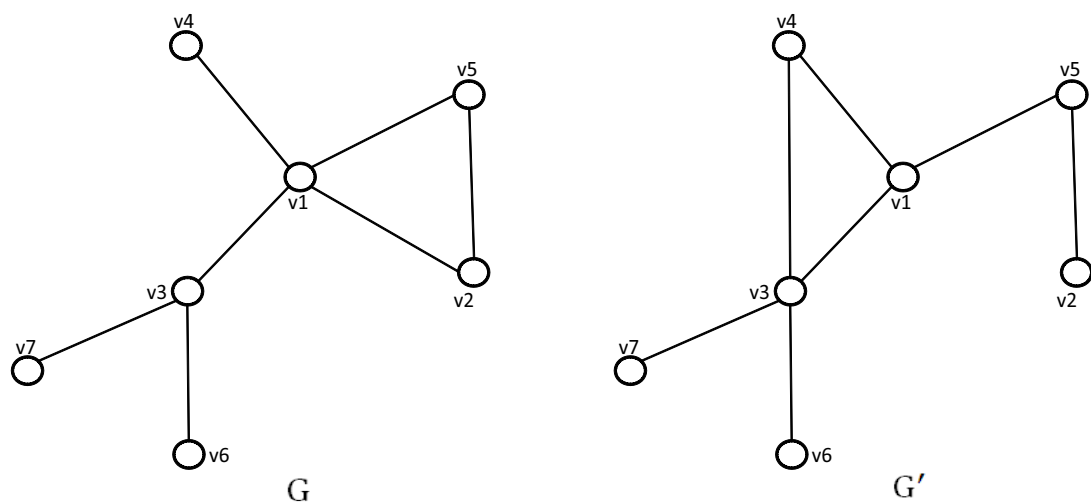


Figure 4.3: Graph used to illustrate the algorithm.

Table 4.6: The algorithm of the analysis.

---

**Algorithm:** An algorithm for Randomly modifying the connections of vertices in a Graph  $G = (V, E)$ , where  $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ ,  $E = \{(v_i, v_j)\}$ ,  $i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

---

**Input:** A simple, connected, undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$

**Output:** A simple, connected, undirected randomly modified graph  $G' = (V', E')$

---

- 1 Find adjacency matrix  $A(G)_{n \times n}$  of  $G$ .
- 2 Compute degrees of  $G$  using  $A$ .  
for  $p = 1 : 10$
- 3 Randomly find two vertices  $v_a, v_b$  such that  $(v_a, v_b) \in E$ , i.e.,  $A(v_a, v_b) = 1$ .
- 4 Find  $deg(v_a)$  and  $deg(v_b)$ .
- 5 Search randomly for two vertices  $v_c, v_d$  and  $deg(v_c) = deg(v_a) - 1$ ,  
 $deg(v_d) = deg(v_b) - 1$ .  
if  $A(v_c, v_d) = 1$   
repeat the step 5  
else  
set  $A(v_c, v_d) = 1$ ,  $A(v_a, v_b) = 0$

end

---

By applying the algorithm (just mentioned above) to the giant connected component of protein domain co-occurrence network, we get four randomly modified networks having the same connectivity distribution with the original network. Later, we analyze the attack tolerance of these four randomly modified networks and among these networks we extract the most vulnerable network and the least vulnerable network under attack. The most vulnerable network means that it is fragmented faster than the other networks and the least vulnerable network means that it is fragmented slower than the other networks as we remove nodes. We determine the most vulnerable and the least vulnerable networks by comparing the thresholds values of the networks. After extracting the most vulnerable and the least vulnerable networks, we again get four randomly modified networks from the most vulnerable and four randomly modified networks from the least vulnerable network by applying the algorithm. At this point we divide the analysis into two ways. In the first way, we attack the four networks obtained from the most vulnerable network and we collect the most vulnerable network from these networks. We repeat this process and continue collecting the most vulnerable network from the networks which are obtained from the most vulnerable network. In the second way, we attack the four networks obtained from the least vulnerable network and we collect the least vulnerable network from these networks. We repeat this process and continue collecting the least vulnerable network from the networks which are obtained from the least vulnerable

network (see “the strategy of analysis” mentioned above). In Figures 4.4-8, changes in the relative size of the giant connected component  $S$  as function of the fraction of removed nodes  $f$  in the original network and first four networks in Tables 4.7 and 4.8 are simulated.

Results of this analysis are shown in Table 4.7 and 4.8. In these tables threshold values at which the network is fragmented are given. In Tables 4.7 and 4.8, the check sign “✓” which is nearby the networks means that the network is the most vulnerable network among other four networks in Table 4.7 and the least vulnerable network among other four networks in Table 4.8, and the star sign “★” which is nearby the networks in Table 4.7 means that the network is fragmented later than the original network. In Table 4.7, the first analysis (Analysis1) in which four networks collected from the original network, network1\_2 having the lowest threshold value is the most vulnerable network. We choose this network to make the Analysis 2 and continue like this. If we compare all threshold values in Table 4.7, all networks have different thresholds values or same threshold values. Also, only the smallest part of the (5% of the whole) networks has threshold values greater than the original network. In Table 4.8, the first analysis (Analysis1) in which four networks collected from the original network, Network1\_1 having the highest threshold value is the least vulnerable network. We choose this network to make the Analysis 2 and continue like this. If we compare all threshold values in Table 4.8, all networks have different threshold values or same threshold values and all threshold values of the network after Analysis 2 are larger than the threshold value of the original network. But, in contrast to the results in Table 4.7, as we continue our analysis the threshold values of the networks increase. But, in Table 4.7, threshold values of the networks do not decrease but just become smaller than the threshold value of the original network as we continue the analysis.

Results of this analysis indicate that the networks having the exactly the same connectivity distribution have different attack tolerances. From the most vulnerable network analysis, it can be observed that there is a selection which means that as we choose the worst network (the worst network means that threshold value of this network is less than the original network) , the probability that the network obtained from the worst network to become the worst one is high. This observation is derived from the result in the most vulnerable network analysis: only smallest part of the (5% of the whole) networks have threshold values greater than the original network. But from the least vulnerable network analysis, we can observe a pattern such that as we select the least vulnerable network from the least vulnerable network, threshold value

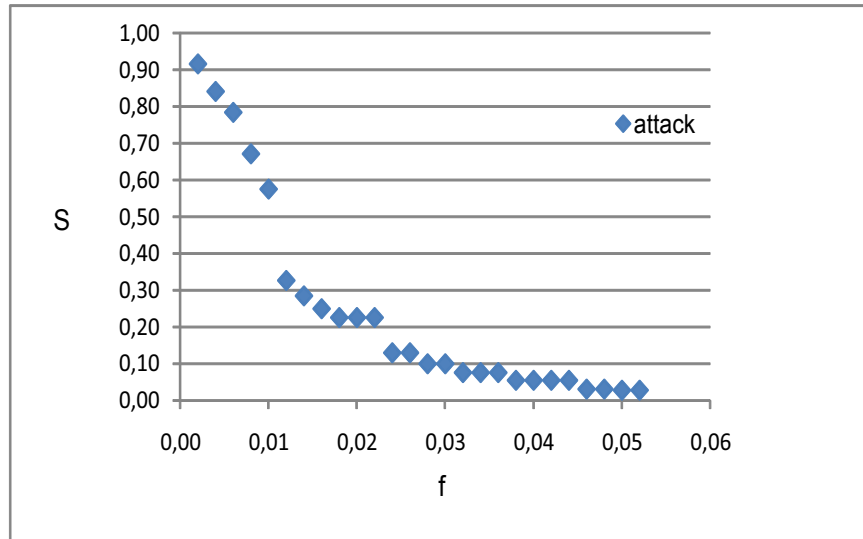
of the networks (i.e., attack tolerance of the network) increases. This result and comparing two analyses (the least vulnerable and the most vulnerable network analyses) indicate that as we organize the same resources in a better way we can get a network with a higher attack tolerance. Additionally, all these results show that there is an evolutionary mechanism for having networks with higher attack tolerance for the same connectivity distribution.

Table 4.7: The results of the most vulnerable network analysis.

	Networks	Threshold values ( $f_c$ )
	The Original Network	0,046
Analysis1	Network1_1	0,046
	✓ Network1_2	0,036
	Network1_3	0,038
	Network1_4	0,036
Analysis2	✓ Network2_1	0,036
	Network2_2	0,040
	Network2_3	0,046
	Network2_4	0,042
Analysis3	Network3_1	0,044
	Network3_2	0,046
	✓ Network3_3	0,036
	Network3_4	0,038
Analysis4	Network4_1	0,046
	✓ Network4_2	0,046
	Network4_3	0,046
	Network4_4	0,046
Analysis5	Network5_1	0,040
	Network5_2	0,046
	Network5_3	0,040
	✓ Network5_4	0,038
Analysis6	✓ Network6_1	0,036
	Network6_2	0,044
	Network6_3	0,038
	Network6_4	0,046
Analysis7	✓ Network7_1	0,038
	Network7_2	0,046
	Network7_3	0,040
	network7_4	0,046
Analysis8	✓ Network8_1	0,038
	Network8_2	0,038
	Network8_3	0,046
	Network8_4	0,046
Analysis9	★ Network9_1	0,058
	Network9_2	0,046
	✓ Network9_3	0,046
	★ Network9_4	0,060
Analysis10	★ Network10_1	0,058
	★ Network10_2	0,060
	Network10_3	0,046
	★ Network10_4	0,052

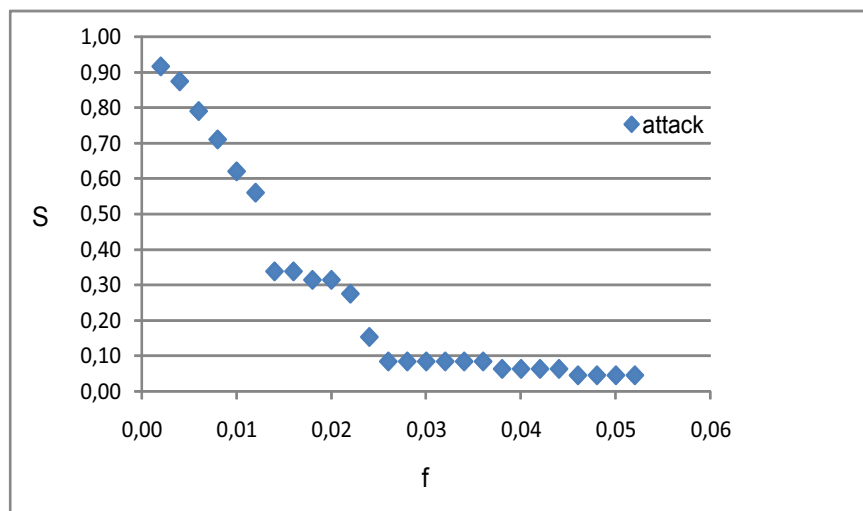
Table 4.8: The results of the least vulnerable network analysis.

	Networks	Threshold values ( $f_c$ )
	The Original Network	0,046
Analysis1 ✓	Network1_1	0,046
	Network1_2	0,036
	Network1_3	0,038
	Network1_4	0,036
Analysis2 ✓	Network2_1	0,036
	Network2_2	0,046
	Network2_3	0,046
	Network2_4	0,030
Analysis3 ✓	Network3_1	0,058
	Network3_2	0,046
	Network3_3	0,048
	Network3_4	0,046
Analysis4 ✓	Network4_1	0,058
	Network4_2	0,058
	Network4_3	0,066
	Network4_4	0,058
Analysis5 ✓	Network5_1	0,064
	Network5_2	0,046
	Network5_3	0,064
	Network5_4	0,048
Analysis6 ✓	Network6_1	0,058
	Network6_2	0,058
	Network6_3	0,062
	Network6_4	0,064
Analysis7 ✓	Network7_1	0,066
	Network7_2	0,058
	Network7_3	0,066
	network7_4	0,066
Analysis8 ✓	Network8_1	0,046
	Network8_2	0,066
	Network8_3	0,066
	Network8_4	0,066
Analysis9 ✓	Network9_1	0,070
	Network9_2	0,060
	Network9_3	0,070
	Network9_4	0,068
Analysis10	Network10_1	0,066
	Network10_2	0,068
	Network10_3	0,080
	Network10_4	0,068



The Original Network

Figure 4.4: Changes in the relative size of the giant connected component  $S$  as function of the fraction of removed nodes  $f$  in the original network.



Network1\_1

Figure 4.5: Changes in the relative size of the giant connected component  $S$  as function of the fraction of removed nodes  $f$  in Network1\_1.



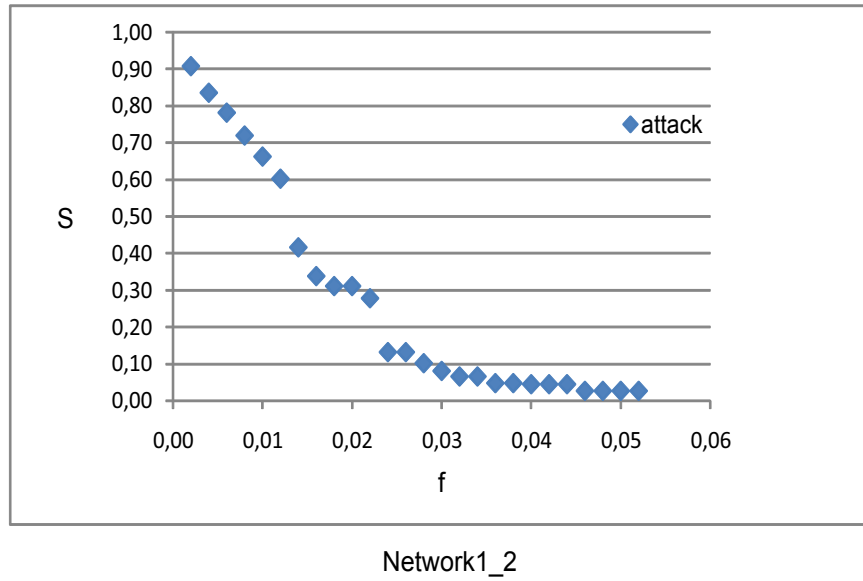


Figure 4.6: Changes in the relative size of the giant connected component  $S$  as function of the fraction of removed nodes  $f$  in Network1\_2.

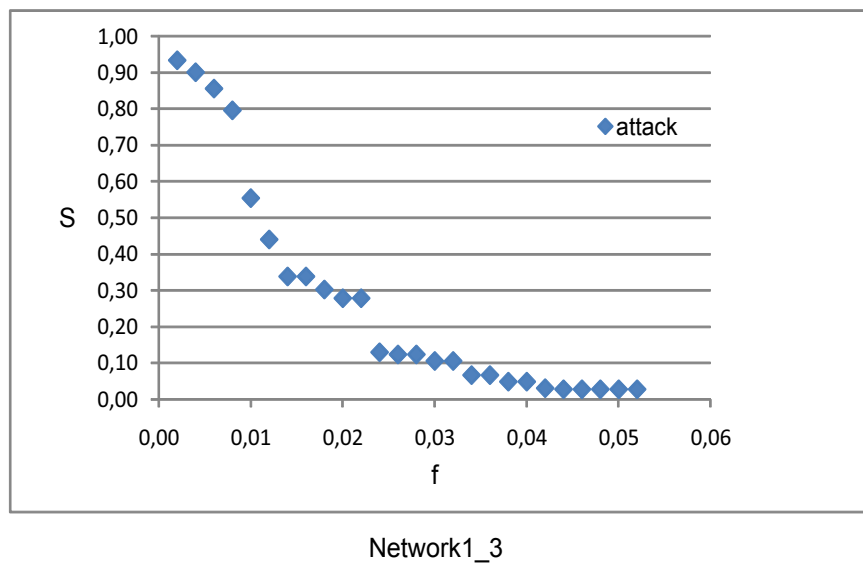
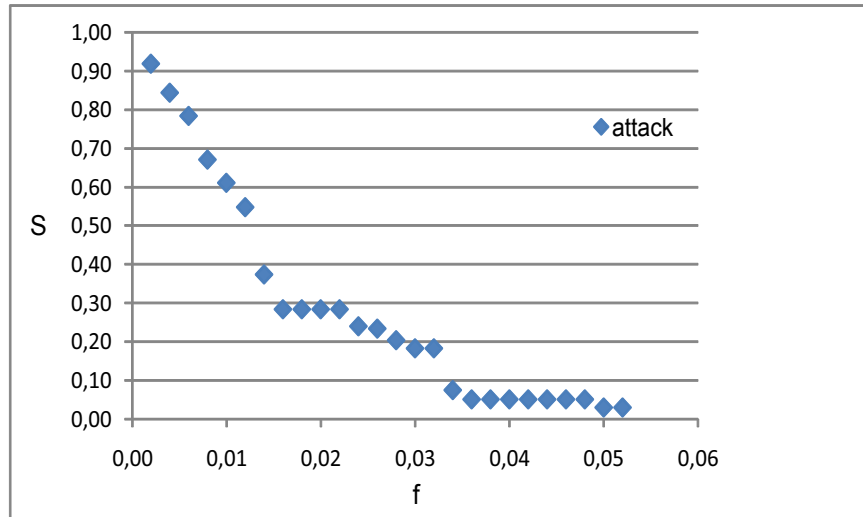


Figure 4.7: Changes in the relative size of the giant connected component  $S$  as function of the fraction of removed nodes  $f$  in Network1\_3.



Network1\_4

Figure 4.8: Changes in the relative size of the giant connected component  $S$  as function of the fraction of removed nodes  $f$  in Network1\_4.

## CHAPTER 5

### CONCLUSION

The stability or survivability of some complex networks under different circumstances has received a growing interest among scientists. The study of the network robustness is particularly important by several occasions. In one hand a higher degree of robustness to errors and attacks may be desired for maintaining the information flow in communication networks under attacks. On the other hand, planning a very limited attack aimed at fragmenting a network by removal of minimum number of the most important nodes might have significant usage in drug design. In this thesis, we studied protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast generated with data from Biomart which links to Pfam database. Several networks obtained from protein domain co-occurrence network having exactly the same connectivity distribution were compared under attacks. In this work, we investigated the assumption that the different networks with the same connectivity distribution do not need to have the same attack tolerances. In addition to this, we considered that the networks with same connectivity distribution have higher attack tolerance as we organize the same resources in a better way. Then, we checked for the variations of attack tolerance of the networks with the same connectivity distributions. Furthermore, we investigated whether there is an evolutionary mechanism for having networks with higher or lower attack tolerances for the same connectivity distribution.

Firstly, we checked whether protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast displays scale free topology or not. We found that our network are scale free network (displaying power law degree distribution). Investigation of the scale free topology is particularly important, since many real world networks are scale free networks. Scale free networks display unexpected degree of robustness, i.e., the ability of their nodes to communicate being unaffected by even high failure rates. However these networks are extremely vulnerable to intentional attacks.

Then, since we want to compare the attack tolerance of the networks, we determined the attack strategy: remove nodes by decreasing order of their degrees and the method: size of the giant connected component. To analyze the robustness of the network to attacks by studying how the size of the largest connected component varies as a function of the number of removed nodes, first we had to determine the size of the giant connected component and extract the giant connected component from the network. Extraction of the giant connected component of the network is particularly important for us, since we made all analysis on this component.

To check our assumption and investigations we wrote an algorithm. We randomly changed the links of nodes in the giant connected component of protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast while conserving the connectivity of the network. In doing so, we obtained several randomly modified networks which have the same connectivity distribution with the original network. Then we attacked to those networks and collected the most vulnerable network (the most vulnerable network means that it is fragmented faster than the other networks) and the least vulnerable network (the least vulnerable network means that it is fragmented slower than the other networks) as we remove nodes. We determined the most vulnerable network and the least vulnerable network by comparing the threshold values of the networks. We applied the algorithm on the most vulnerable network and the least vulnerable network to obtain several randomly modified networks. We again attacked to those networks. Then, we continued to collect the most vulnerable network from the networks which also obtained from the most vulnerable network and the least vulnerable network from the networks which also obtained from the least vulnerable network.

As a result, the networks having the exactly the same connectivity distribution have different attack tolerance under attacks. In addition to this, from the most vulnerable network analysis, we observed that there is a selection which means that as we choose the worst network (the worst network means that thresholds value of this network is less than the original network), the probability that the network obtaining from the worst network to become the worst one is high. This observation is derived from the result in the analysis: only the smallest part of the (5% of the whole) networks has threshold values greater than the original network. But, from the least vulnerable network analysis, we observed a pattern such that as we select the least vulnerable network from the networks which also obtained from the least vulnerable network, threshold values of the networks (i.e., attack tolerance of the network) increase. This result

and comparing two analyses (the least vulnerable and the most vulnerable network analysis) indicate that as we organize the same resources in a better way we can get a network with an higher attack tolerance. Also, all these results show that there is an evolutionary mechanism for having networks with higher attack tolerance for the same connectivity distribution.

The most important observations from this work is that there is a pattern such that as the network with higher attack tolerance is selected from the network which shows higher attack tolerance, attack tolerances of the networks increase. This observation indicates that an evolutionary mechanism for having networks with higher attack tolerance for the same connectivity distribution can be constructed. From these observations, a question comes into mind; given the connectivity of the network, how the network is organized in the best way to show high attack tolerance under attacks. For this purpose, a method to organize the network in a better way can be developed. In addition to this, another question can be asked; without making an attack tolerance analysis and just only looking at the structure (structure may mean that how the links of the nodes in the network is organized) of the networks with the same connectivity distribution, can it be observed how the network behaves under attacks? Is it possible to develop an algorithm for this purpose. All these questions will be investigated as a future work.

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## **APPENDIX A**

### **PFAM PROTEIN DOMAIN CO-OCCURRENCE NETWORK OF YEAST (*S. CEREVISIAE*)**



Table A.1: Pfam protein domain co-occurrence network of yeast obtained from Biomart which links to Pfam database.

domain1	domain2	occurrence in proteins
PF06747	PF08583	1
PF01288	PF00809	1
PF00293	PF05026	1
PF00293	PF09297	1
PF01118	PF02774	2
PF01119	PF08676	2
PF09261	PF07748	1
PF01053	PF01212	1
PF05436	PF04648	2
PF08022	PF08030	8
PF00033	PF00032	1
PF01734	PF00027	1
PF01237	PF00023	2
PF00730	PF00633	1
PF00730	PF07934	1
PF01233	PF02799	1
PF01232	PF08125	1
PF03127	PF02883	2
PF00636	PF00035	2
PF00637	PF01394	1
PF08501	PF01488	1
PF04898	PF01493	1
PF04898	PF01645	1
PF08509	PF00211	1
PF00456	PF02780	2
PF00456	PF02779	2
PF05222	PF01262	1
PF04893	PF03878	1
PF01602	PF07718	1
PF01602	PF02883	1
PF01602	PF08752	1
PF05221	PF00670	1
PF01425	PF02626	1
PF01425	PF08443	1
PF01426	PF00249	1
PF01426	PF00439	2
PF01426	PF00628	1
PF04068	PF04034	1
PF04068	PF00037	1
PF01422	PF01424	1
PF04063	PF04064	1
PF01546	PF07687	3
PF00493	PF01078	2
PF00498	PF07714	1

PF04096	PF02415	1
PF00125	PF00808	3
PF00122	PF00702	12
PF00122	PF00689	5
PF00122	PF00403	1
PF02637	PF01162	1
PF02637	PF02934	1
PF02201	PF01253	1
PF01975	PF03133	1
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PF02985	PF08771	2
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PF02985	PF00514	2
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PF00364	PF01425	1
PF00364	PF02655	2
PF00364	PF02626	1
PF00364	PF00682	2
PF00364	PF01039	2
PF00364	PF02222	2
PF00364	PF00198	2
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PF00364	PF02817	2
PF00364	PF08326	2
PF00364	PF01071	2
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PF00258	PF08608	1
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PF00258	PF04055	1
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PF00005	PF00037	1
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PF00004	PF02190	1
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PF00004	PF04212	1
PF00004	PF09262	1
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PF00004	PF07724	2
PF00004	PF08519	1
PF00004	PF06480	2
PF00004	PF00439	1
PF00004	PF08740	1
PF00006	PF00306	4
PF00009	PF03764	4
PF00009	PF00679	6
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PF00583	PF04055	1
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PF06371	PF02181	2
PF06371	PF06367	1
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PF08543	PF03070	3
PF06395	PF00621	1
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PF00702	PF08282	1
PF00702	PF06888	1
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PF00704	PF03427	1
PF00705	PF02747	1
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PF01479	PF00900	1
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PF01926	PF08438	1
PF01926	PF01018	1
PF01926	PF06858	1
PF01926	PF08701	1
PF01926	PF08153	1

PF01926	PF02824	2
PF01926	PF08155	1
PF06025	PF00632	1
PF08069	PF00312	1
PF08066	PF01612	1
PF08060	PF01798	3
PF08060	PF08156	2
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PF01487	PF01488	1
PF01761	PF01487	1
PF01761	PF01202	1
PF01761	PF08501	1
PF01761	PF01488	1
PF01761	PF00275	1
PF00675	PF05193	6
PF00179	PF09288	1
PF01849	PF00627	1
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PF00175	PF00042	1
PF00175	PF00667	3
PF02373	PF01388	1
PF00176	PF00385	1
PF00176	PF08880	1
PF00176	PF09110	2
PF00176	PF09111	2
PF00176	PF08797	1
PF00176	PF08658	1
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PF00176	PF02178	1
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PF01842	PF00389	2
PF00170	PF07716	4
PF00173	PF04116	1
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PF00173	PF01070	1
PF00679	PF03764	4
PF00679	PF06421	1
PF01379	PF03900	1
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PF00961	PF07453	1
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PF01370	PF07993	7
PF01370	PF00550	1

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PF01370	PF01263	1
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PF03871	PF01191	1
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PF01502	PF01503	1
PF01502	PF00815	1
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PF03876	PF08292	1
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PF00198	PF02817	1
PF08766	PF02201	2
PF02921	PF00355	1
PF08605	PF00533	1
PF03477	PF02867	2
PF03477	PF00317	2
PF08801	PF04044	1
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PF00454	PF08064	1
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PF00454	PF08771	2
PF04053	PF06957	1
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PF07714	PF00659	1
PF07714	PF08587	1
PF04055	PF06968	1
PF04055	PF08608	1
PF07719	PF00149	1
PF07719	PF00160	2
PF07719	PF04049	1
PF07719	PF08321	1
PF03372	PF00560	1
PF03372	PF06839	1
PF02671	PF08295	1
PF00515	PF00149	1
PF00515	PF00160	2
PF00515	PF09145	1
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PF00515	PF04049	1
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PF00514	PF01749	1
PF07500	PF07744	1
PF00224	PF02887	2
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PF00226	PF02889	1
PF00226	PF05207	1
PF00226	PF07743	1
PF00226	PF01556	5
PF00226	PF00684	5
PF01212	PF00282	1
PF02882	PF01268	2
PF02881	PF09201	1
PF02881	PF00448	2
PF02881	PF02978	1
PF02880	PF00408	2
PF02885	PF00591	1
PF01210	PF07479	2
PF08282	PF03332	1
PF08282	PF06888	1
PF02798	PF00647	2
PF02798	PF00043	5
PF02790	PF00116	1
PF02150	PF01096	3
PF02874	PF00306	4
PF02874	PF00006	4
PF02152	PF01288	1
PF02152	PF00809	1
PF00350	PF01031	2
PF00350	PF02212	2
PF02870	PF01035	1
PF02879	PF00408	3
PF02879	PF02880	2
PF00291	PF00571	1
PF00291	PF00290	1
PF00291	PF00585	1
PF02878	PF00408	3
PF02878	PF02880	2
PF02878	PF02879	3
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## APPENDIX B

### MATLAB CODE FOR THE ALGORITHM

The following code is designed to randomly change links of nodes in the network by conserving the connectivity distribution of the network. It can be run directly by transferring the code into a MATLAB® editor.

% The following part of the code is taken from the internet.  
% It reads a text file and outputs the adjacency matrix of the network.

```
load the_network.txt;
g=size (the_network);
N=2*g(1,1);
i=1;
for m=1:N/2
    for n=1:2
        G(1,i)= the_network(m,n);
        i=i+1;
    end
end
L=sort (G);
for i=1:(N-1)
    while L(1,i)==L(1,i+1)
        L(1,(i+1))=0;
        L=sort (L);
    end
    L;
```



```

end
for j=1:N
    if L(1,j)<=0
        j=j+1;
    end
    if L(1,j)>0
        j;
        break
    end
end
end
p=N-j+1;
m=1;
for t=j:N
    C(1,m)=L(1,t);
    m=m+1;
    C;
end
end
v=1;
for b=1:N/2
    z= the_network(b,v);
    q=v+1;
    e= the_network(b,q);

for r=1:p
    if z~= C(1,r);
        r=r+1;
    end
    if z==C(1,r);
        r;
        break
    end
end
end
end

```

```

for y=1:p
    if e~ = C(1,y);
        y=y+1;
    end
    if e==C(1,y);
        y;
        break
    end
end
adj(r,y)=1;
adj(y,r)=1;
end
g=adj;

% (C) Şaziye Deniz Oğuz
% This algorithm randomly changes links of nodes in the network by
% conserving the connectivity distribution of the network.
% It outputs the randomly modified network.

g1=g;
deg1=degree(g1);
for pp = 1:10
    deg=degree(g);
    m = 2;
    while m > 1
        row_index=randperm((size(the_network)*[1;0]));
        row_index=row_index(1);
        e=the_network(row_index, :);
        v1=e(1,1)
        v2=e(1,2)
        degv1=deg(1,v1)
        degv2=deg(1,v2)
        if degv1 == 1 || degv2 == 1 || degv1 == 13 || degv2==13 || degv1 == 18 ||

```

```

    degv2==18 || degv1 == 21 || degv2 == 21 || degv1==23 || degv2==23 ||
    degv1==25 || degv2==25
        m = m+1;
else
m=1;
end
end
x1=find(deg==degv1-1);
x2=find(deg==degv2-1);
n = 2;
while n > 1
    col_index1=randperm((size(x1)*[0;1]));
    col_index1=col_index1(1);
    col_index2=randperm((size(x2)*[0;1]));
    col_index2=col_index2(1);
    v11=x1(1,col_index1)
    v22=x2(1,col_index2)
    x=g(v11, v22);
    if x > 0
        n = n+1;
    else
        n = 1;
    end
end

g(v11, v22)= 1; g(v1, v2)= 0;
g(v22, v11)=1; g(v2, v1)=0;
end
deg=degree(g);
gg = tril(g);
[ii, jj] = find(gg);

```