

Beyond the locally treelike approximation for percolation on real networks

Filippo Radicchi^{1,*} and Claudio Castellano²

¹*Center for Complex Networks and Systems Research, School of Informatics and Computing, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana 47408, USA*

²*Istituto dei Sistemi Complessi (ISC-CNR), Roma 00185, Italy, and Dipartimento di Fisica, Sapienza Università di Roma, Roma 00185, Italy*

(Received 21 October 2015; published 23 March 2016)

Theoretical attempts proposed so far to describe ordinary percolation processes on real-world networks rely on the locally treelike ansatz. Such an approximation, however, holds only to a limited extent, because real graphs are often characterized by high frequencies of short loops. We present here a theoretical framework able to overcome such a limitation for the case of site percolation. Our method is based on a message passing algorithm that discounts redundant paths along triangles in the graph. We systematically test the approach on 98 real-world graphs and on synthetic networks. We find excellent accuracy in the prediction of the whole percolation diagram, with significant improvement with respect to the prediction obtained under the locally treelike approximation. Residual discrepancies between theory and simulations do not depend on clustering and can be attributed to the presence of loops longer than three edges. We present also a method to account for clustering in bond percolation, but the improvement with respect to the method based on the treelike approximation is much less apparent.

DOI: [10.1103/PhysRevE.93.030302](https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevE.93.030302)

Percolation processes are often used to study resilience properties of real networks [1–3], and they play a fundamental role in the understanding of spreading phenomena in real systems [4,5]. Percolation has been intensely studied in a multitude of network models [6–8], including sparse treelike graphs [2,3,9], as well as generative models for random networks with triangles, cliques, or arbitrary subgraphs [10–15]. These studies shed light on fundamental physical mechanisms of percolation processes on complex network topologies, but their importance in the analysis of percolation on real-world graphs is limited, as the topology of individual real networks often markedly differs from the one of random network ensembles. Recent works have attempted to overcome such a serious limitation. Karrer *et al.* formulated a novel method which takes as input the detailed topological structure of a given network to predict the value of the percolation strength (and other macroscopic observables) as a function of the bond occupation probability [16]. In particular, they demonstrated that the bond percolation threshold of a given network is bounded from below by the leading eigenvalue of its nonbacktracking matrix [17]. An approach based on the same rationale was also used by Hamilton and Pryadko to study site percolation in isolated networks [18], and by Radicchi in the analysis of bond and site percolation models in interdependent networks [19]. These methods still suffer from a fundamental limitation: they are based on the locally treelike approximation [6–8], and as such they are potentially not reliable for networks with non-negligible density of triangles, or short loops in general [20,21].

In this Rapid Communication, we make a step forward by generalizing the approach developed in [16,18] to clustered networks. Through a systematic analysis of about one hundred real-world networks as well as clustered synthetic ones, we demonstrate that our framework provides excellent prediction of the whole phase diagram for the site percolation model.

Furthermore, we present an approach improving also the prediction of the bond percolation phase diagram (though in a less satisfactory way) and understand the origin of the differences between the two cases.

We start our analysis from the site percolation model. We assume that the structure of a network with N nodes and E edges is given by a one-zero adjacency matrix A (i.e., the generic element $A_{i,j} = 1$ if vertices i and j are connected, whereas $A_{i,j} = 0$ otherwise). We further assume that the network is composed of a single connected component. In the ordinary site percolation model, each node is active or occupied with probability p . Two active nodes belong to the same cluster if there exists at least a path, passing only through active nodes, that connects them. For $p = 0$, no nodes are active so that there are no clusters. For $p = 1$, all nodes are active and belong to a single cluster of size N . As p varies, the network undergoes a structural phase transition, at the percolation threshold p_c , corresponding to the appearance of an extensive cluster. The transition can be monitored through the so-called percolation strength S_∞ , defined as the relative size of the largest cluster with respect to the size of the network. For $p = 0, S_\infty = 0$; for $p = 1, S_\infty = 1$. The goal of the following approach is to estimate the expected value of S_∞ over an infinite number of realizations of the percolation model for any given value of p . The probability s_i that node i belongs to the largest cluster can be described by the equation

$$s_i = p \left[1 - \prod_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} (1 - t_{i \rightarrow j}) \right], \quad (1)$$

where \mathcal{N}_i is the set of neighbors of node i and $t_{i \rightarrow j}$ quantifies the probability that following the edge (i, j) , in the direction $i \rightarrow j$, we find a node belonging to the largest cluster. The quantity $t_{i \rightarrow j}$ can be interpreted as a “message” passed from node j to vertex i about belonging to the largest cluster. Equation (1) essentially states that the probability that node i is part of the largest cluster equals the product of the probabilities that (i) node i is active and (ii) at least one of its neighbors is

*filiradi@indiana.edu

in the largest cluster. For consistency, the probability $t_{i \rightarrow j}$ is described by the equation

$$t_{i \rightarrow j} = p \left[1 - \prod_{k \in \mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j}} (1 - t_{j \rightarrow k}) \right]. \quad (2)$$

The explanation of this equation is similar to the previous one. The only difference here is that the product does not run necessarily over all the neighbors of node j , but only on the elements of the set $\mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j}$. We note that while Eq. (2) is in principle defined for every pair of node indices $i \rightarrow j$, only pairs of nodes connected by an edge play a role in Eq. (1). We have therefore $2E$ equations of the type (2) that can be solved by iteration. The solutions of these equations are then plugged into the set of N Eq. (1) to determine the value of every s_i . Finally, the percolation strength is computed as

$$S_\infty = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i s_i. \quad (3)$$

Since the entire operation can be repeated for any value of the occupation probability p , Eqs. (1)–(3) allow us to draw the entire phase diagram for a given network. A linear expansion of the system of Eq. (2) can be used to obtain an eigenvalue/eigenvector equation of the type $\vec{t} = pG\vec{t}$, where \vec{t} is a vector with $2E$ components, and G is a $2E \times 2E$ one-zero matrix. A nontrivial solution exists only if $1/p$ is an eigenvalue of the operator G . Thus the inverse of the largest eigenvalue of G (which is real according to the Perron-Frobenius theorem) is the percolation threshold p_c of the network.

The form of G depends on the definition of the set $\mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j}$ in Eq. (2), which is crucial for the effectiveness of the entire approach. We illustrate here three different, and increasingly accurate, approximations [see Fig. 1(a)]. In the first approximation, we set $\mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j} = \mathcal{N}_j$. Such a choice makes Eq. (2) identical to Eq. (1), so that $t_{i \rightarrow j} = s_j$. The generic element of the matrix G is $G_{i \rightarrow j, \ell \rightarrow k} = \delta_{j, \ell}$, with $\delta_{x, y}$ the Kronecker symbol. This matrix has the same eigenvalues of the adjacency matrix [16]. Hence the percolation threshold under this approximation is given by the inverse of the leading eigenvalue of the adjacency matrix [23]. We refer to it as the adjacency-matrix-based or, in short, A -based approximation. In this approximation, the variable $t_{j \rightarrow i}$ is on the right-hand side of Eq. (2), so that $t_{i \rightarrow j}$ grows as $t_{j \rightarrow i}$ increases. In turn, the value of $t_{j \rightarrow i}$ is also increased by the growth of $t_{i \rightarrow j}$. The possibility for a message to pass back and forth on the same edge causes an “echo chamber” effect in the equations that leads to an overestimation of the correct values of the variables t and hence of the percolation strength. To suppress this effect, a more precise approximation prescribes $\mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j} = \mathcal{N}_j \setminus \{i\}$. The motivation of this choice is simple: the exclusion of vertex i from the product on the right-hand side of Eq. (2) does not allow for backtracking messages, and the variable $t_{j \rightarrow i}$ does not appear anymore on the right-hand side of Eq. (2). Under this approximation, G coincides with M , the nonbacktracking matrix of the graph [16], whose generic element is

$$M_{i \rightarrow j, \ell \rightarrow k} = \delta_{j, \ell} (1 - \delta_{i, k}). \quad (4)$$

The percolation threshold is estimated as the inverse of the principal eigenvalue of the nonbacktracking matrix of

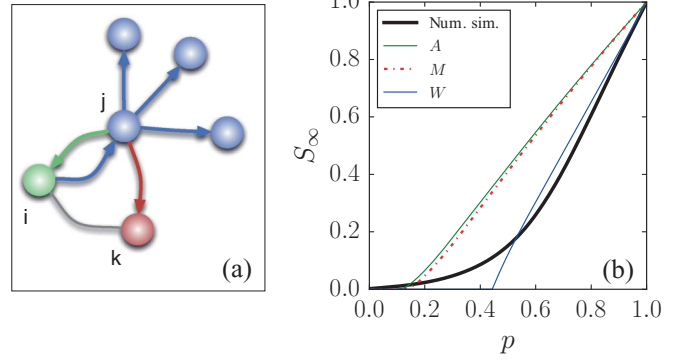


FIG. 1. (a) Illustration of the different ways of defining $\mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j}$ in Eq. (2). The A -based approximation is obtained by setting $\mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j} = \mathcal{N}_j$, so all edges departing from j are included in the equation. If backtracking walks are excluded, that is, $\mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j} = \mathcal{N}_j \setminus \{i\}$, the message passing equation will not include the green edge. We refer to this approximation as the M -based approximation. If $\mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j} = \mathcal{N}_j \setminus [\{i\} \cup (\mathcal{N}_j \cap \mathcal{N}_i)]$ so one can only move away from node i , also walking to node k is avoided and the only terms appearing in the equation are given by those corresponding to the blue arrows. This corresponds to the W -based approximation. (b) Phase diagram for the site percolation model applied to co-authorship graph among network scientists [22]. The black line denotes the results of numerical simulations of the model. The other curves represent results obtained through the numerical solution of Eqs. (1)–(3) with different definitions of $\mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j}$.

the graph [16,19]. The M -based approximation is exact in networks with locally treelike structure. However, if loops are present in the network, echo chamber effects still persist. This undesirable effect can be once more discounted by excluding redundant paths caused by triangles, that is, using the following approximation:

$$\mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j} = \mathcal{N}_j \setminus [\{i\} \cup (\mathcal{N}_j \cap \mathcal{N}_i)]. \quad (5)$$

The rationale behind Eq. (5) is again intuitive. If we are looking at the network from vertex i , we should disregard the path $i \rightarrow j \rightarrow k$ if we already considered the edge $i \rightarrow k$, otherwise vertex i would receive twice the same message from node k . The importance of this correction is apparent in Fig. 1(b), where the results of simulations for the site percolation model [see the Supplemental Material (SM) for details [24]] are compared with the numerical solutions of Eqs. (1)–(3) adopting the three different definitions of $\mathcal{Q}_{i \rightarrow j}$ illustrated above. The network analyzed in Fig. 1(b) is a graph of scientific co-authorships characterized by a very high value of the clustering coefficient ($C = 0.7412$) [22]. As in the cases of the first two approximations, also the last, new approximation allows for the computation of the percolation threshold through the linearization of Eq. (2). The critical value of the occupation probability is given by the inverse of the leading eigenvalue of the matrix $G = W$, defined as

$$W_{i \rightarrow j, \ell \rightarrow k} = \delta_{j, \ell} (1 - \delta_{i, k}) (1 - A_{i, k}). \quad (6)$$

The definition of the matrix W is very similar to the one of the nonbacktracking matrix appearing in Eq. (4). The only difference is the additional term $(1 - A_{i, k})$, which excludes connections among edges that are part of a triangle. In the

matrix W , the directed edges $i \rightarrow j$ and $\ell \rightarrow k$ are connected only if $j = \ell$ and node k is at distance two from vertex i . Mathematical arguments analogous to those presented by Karrer *et al.* [16] (see Supplemental Material) show that the percolation threshold predicted using the W -based approximation is always larger than or equal to the one predicted using the M -based method (with the equality sign valid when no triangles are present), and always smaller than or equal to the true percolation threshold. Both these inequalities are validated in all numerical experiments on both real and synthetic networks. For the network of Fig. 1(b), the A -based approximation predicts $p_c^{(A)} = 0.0964$; the approximation based on the M matrix gives $p_c^{(M)} = 0.1148$; the approximation based on W provides instead $p_c^{(W)} = 0.4436$. Those predictions compared to the best estimate $p_c = 0.6300$ from numerical simulations have associated relative errors respectively equal to $r^{(A)} = 0.8470$, $r^{(M)} = 0.8178$, and $r^{(W)} = 0.2959$. These correspond to an improvement of roughly 3% from the A -based to the M -based approximation, and more than 50% from the M -based to the W -based approximation. The situation is qualitatively and quantitatively similar in all other real networks we consider in this study (see SM). We can conclude that the inverse of the largest eigenvalue of the matrix W represents a tighter lower bound of the true site percolation threshold than the analogous quantity computed using the M matrix.

The W -based approximation is able to reproduce with impressive accuracy the whole percolation diagram of almost all the 98 real networks we analyzed [19]. The only exceptions are spatially embedded networks and a few others, where the W -based approximation greatly outperforms the other approximations but still differs significantly from the numerical simulations. The results of our analysis are summarized in Fig. 2(a), where relative errors in the estimates of the percolation threshold are plotted against the average clustering coefficients of the networks.¹ We quantify the performance of the various approximations also in terms of the global error measure [25] $\int_0^1 dp |S_\infty(p) - S_\infty^{(\alpha)}(p)|$, with $\alpha = A, M$, or W [Fig. 2(b)]. We remark that the discrepancy between the W -based approximation and simulations is essentially independent of the clustering coefficient C . This happens because the W -based approximation becomes exact in the infinite size limit for site percolation on networks containing only short loops of length three (see SM), such as two important classes of random network models with large clustering [12–15]. The residual discrepancies in Fig. 2 depend only on the presence of longer loops, which do not contribute to the value of C . In the SM we also show that the W -based approximation can be in principle further improved to account for loops of length longer than three, but that a systematic approach becomes practically unfeasible already for loops of length four.

Next, we consider ordinary bond percolation on a given network. In this model, every edge is present or active with probability p . Clusters are formed by nodes connected

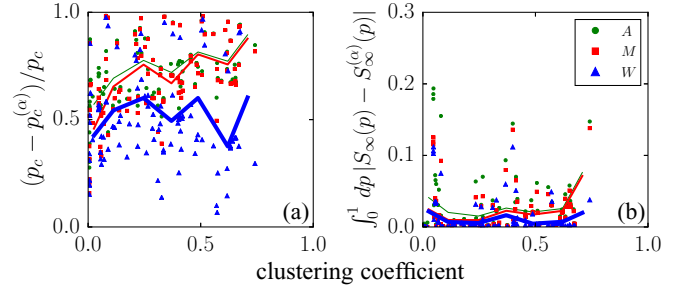


FIG. 2. (a) Relative error associated with the estimation of the site percolation threshold for 98 real networks. For the α -based approximation, the relative error is measured as $(p_c - p_c^{(\alpha)})/p_c$, with $p_c^{(\alpha)}$ the best estimate of the percolation threshold for the α -based approximation [$\alpha = A, M$, or W], and p_c the value of the occupation probability corresponding to the peak of the susceptibility. The relative error is plotted against the average clustering coefficient of the network. Different colors and symbols correspond to different orders of the approximation. Full lines indicate average values of the relative error for networks with similar values of clustering coefficient. They are generated according to the following procedure. We divide the range of possible values of C in seven equally spaced bins. We then estimate the average value of the error in each bin, and the average value of the cluster coefficient within each bin. The lines are obtained connecting these points. (b) Same as in (a), but for the global error measure $\int_0^1 dp |S_\infty(p) - S_\infty^{(\alpha)}(p)|$.

by at least one path composed of active edges. The order parameter used to monitor the percolation transition, from the disconnected configuration at $p = 0$ to the globally connected configuration for $p = 1$, is still given by the relative size of the largest connected cluster, namely, B_∞ . The message passing equations valid for the approximations based on the adjacency and on the nonbacktracking matrices are identical to those already written for the site percolation model, with the only difference being a factor p [26]. The order parameters are related by $B_\infty = p^{-1} S_\infty$, and the percolation thresholds predicted by the equations are identical in the two models [16,18,26]. Writing an improved approximation able to fully take into account triangles, such as the W -based approximation for site percolation, is in this case impossible (see SM). However, one can still write a similar approach which improves with respect to the two old methods. In the bond percolation model, a triangle is effectively present only if all its edges are simultaneously active, leading to the following self-consistent equations:

$$b_i = 1 - \prod_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} (1 - p c_{i \rightarrow j}), \quad (7)$$

and

$$c_{i \rightarrow j} = 1 - \prod_{k \in \mathcal{N}_j \setminus \{i\} \cup (\mathcal{N}_j \cap \mathcal{N}_i)} (1 - p c_{j \rightarrow k}) \times \prod_{k \in \mathcal{N}_j \cap \mathcal{N}_i} [1 - p c_{j \rightarrow k} (1 - p + p c_{i \rightarrow k})]. \quad (8)$$

Here, b_i and $c_{i \rightarrow j}$ have in the bond percolation model the same meaning that s_i and $t_{i \rightarrow j}$ have in site percolation. The second equation explicitly imposes coherence of messages

¹The rather large values of the errors in Fig. 2(a) are also an effect of the difficulties in the numerical estimate of the threshold for small networks. See SM for details.

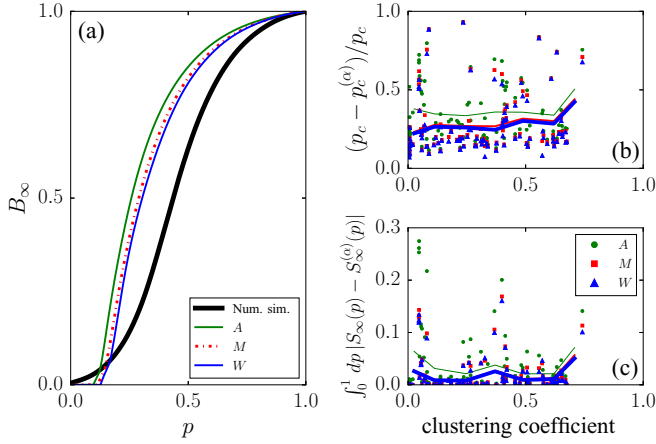


FIG. 3. (a) Phase diagram for the bond percolation model applied to the co-authorship graph among network scientists [22]. The black line denotes the results of numerical simulations of the model. The other curves represent results obtained through the numerical solution of the equations using different approximations. (b) Relative error of the various approximations in the estimation of the bond percolation threshold. The figure represents the analog of Fig. 2(a) for bond percolation. (c) Same as Fig. 2(b) but for bond percolation.

within triangles. The message from node k can in fact arrive to node i in two ways. (i) Along the path $k \rightarrow j \rightarrow i$ if the edge (i,k) is not active but the edge (i,j) is active. This possibility happens with probability $pc_{j \rightarrow k}(1-p)$. (ii) Simultaneously along the paths $k \rightarrow j \rightarrow i$ and $k \rightarrow i$ if both edges (i,k) and (i,j) are active. The latter possibility happens with probability $p^2c_{j \rightarrow k}c_{i \rightarrow k}$. In the absence of triangles, which means $\mathcal{N}_j \cap \mathcal{N}_i = \emptyset$ for all edges (i,j) , we recover the M -based approximation. In the presence of triangles instead, the additional correction term reduces the estimated values of the variables c . The system of Eq. (8) can be solved by iteration. Its solutions can be then plugged into Eq. (7), and the values of the variables b_i can finally be used to compute the bond percolation strength as $B_\infty = N^{-1} \sum_i b_i$.

In Fig. 3(a), we compare the performance of the approximations in reproducing the results of numerical simulations in the same network analyzed in Fig. 1(b). The improvement in the prediction of the percolation strength from the adjacency

matrix-based up to the W -based approximation is not as significant as the one we found for site percolation. The same qualitative observation can be made for the other real networks we analyzed (see SM). The linearization of the system of Eq. (8) leads to the following vectorial equation for the determination of the percolation threshold:

$$\vec{c} = p_c W \vec{c} + p_c(1-p_c)(M-W)\vec{c}. \quad (9)$$

The solution of this equation can be efficiently obtained by means of a power-iteration algorithm combined with a binary search. As already done for site percolation, we systematically test the performance of the various approximations in 98 real networks in Figs. 3(b) and 3(c). In general, accounting in this way for triangles improves only slightly the accuracy of predictions with respect to the M -based approximation.

In summary, our approximation goes, in a relatively straightforward manner, beyond the locally treelike ansatz. The analysis carried out on real and synthetic networks allows us to conclude that the W -based approximation greatly outperforms the M -based approximation for the site percolation process, leading in almost all cases to an impressive agreement with numerical results. For bond percolation instead the improvement is less satisfactory and calls for further work. Systematic approximations to account for loops longer than three face severe intrinsic difficulties (see SM). It would be interesting to explore differences between the M -based and the W -based approximations in the context of ordinary percolation processes in interdependent networks [19] as well in optimal percolation problems in isolated ones [27]. As a final remark, we stress that the improvement in the prediction of the percolation threshold comes at a price. Whereas the computational complexity of the algorithm is the same in both M - and W -based approximations, the determination of p_c in the W -based approximation requires us to deal with a larger matrix. The Ihara-Bass determinant formula is able to reduce the computation of the largest eigenvalue of the $2E \times 2E$ nonbacktracking matrix M to the largest eigenvalue of a $2N \times 2N$ matrix [28]. The quest for a similar formula for the matrix W is an interesting challenge for future research.

This work is partially supported by the National Science Foundation (Grant CMMI-1552487).

- [1] R. Albert, H. Jeong, and A.-L. Barabási, *Nature* **406**, 378 (2000).
- [2] R. Cohen, K. Erez, D. ben-Avraham, and S. Havlin, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **85**, 4626 (2000).
- [3] D. S. Callaway, M. E. J. Newman, S. H. Strogatz, and D. J. Watts, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **85**, 5468 (2000).
- [4] R. Pastor-Satorras and A. Vespignani, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **86**, 3200 (2001).
- [5] M. E. J. Newman, *Phys. Rev. E* **66**, 016128 (2002).
- [6] S. N. Dorogovtsev, A. V. Goltsev, and J. F. Mendes, *Rev. Mod. Phys.* **80**, 1275 (2008).
- [7] S. N. Dorogovtsev, *Lectures on Complex Networks*, Vol. 24 (Oxford University, Oxford, 2010).
- [8] M. Newman, *Networks: An Introduction* (Oxford University, Oxford, 2010).
- [9] R. Cohen, D. ben-Avraham, and S. Havlin, *Phys. Rev. E* **66**, 036113 (2002).
- [10] M. A. Serrano and M. Boguñá, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **97**, 088701 (2006).
- [11] M. A. Serrano and M. Boguñá, *Phys. Rev. E* **74**, 056115 (2006).
- [12] J. P. Gleeson, *Phys. Rev. E* **80**, 036107 (2009).
- [13] M. E. J. Newman, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **103**, 058701 (2009).
- [14] J. C. Miller, *Phys. Rev. E* **80**, 020901 (2009).
- [15] J. P. Gleeson, S. Melnik, and A. Hackett, *Phys. Rev. E* **81**, 066114 (2010).
- [16] B. Karrer, M. E. J. Newman, and L. Zdeborová, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **113**, 208702 (2014).
- [17] K.-i. Hashimoto, *Automorphic Forms and Geometry of Arithmetic Varieties* (Kinokuniya Company Ltd., Tokyo, Japan, 1989), p. 211.

- [18] K. E. Hamilton and L. P. Pryadko, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **113**, 208701 (2014).
- [19] F. Radicchi, *Nat. Phys.* **11**, 597 (2015).
- [20] F. Radicchi, *Phys. Rev. E* **91**, 010801 (2015).
- [21] A. Faqeeh, S. Melnik, and J. P. Gleeson, *Phys. Rev. E* **91**, 052807 (2015).
- [22] M. E. J. Newman, *Phys. Rev. E* **74**, 036104 (2006).
- [23] B. Bollobás, C. Borgs, J. Chayes, O. Riordan *et al.*, *Ann. Probab.* **38**, 150 (2010).
- [24] See Supplemental Material at <http://link.aps.org/supplemental/10.1103/PhysRevE.93.030302> for additional analytical calculations. It further presents the analysis performed on 98 real-world graphs.
- [25] S. Melnik, A. Hackett, M. A. Porter, P. J. Mucha, and J. P. Gleeson, *Phys. Rev. E* **83**, 036112 (2011).
- [26] F. Radicchi and C. Castellano, *Nat. Commun.* **6**, 10196 (2015).
- [27] F. Morone and H. A. Makse, *Nature* **524**, 65 (2015).
- [28] H. Bass, *Int. J. Math.* **3**, 717 (1992).