

Four Degrees of Separation, Really

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Abstract—We recently measured the average distance of users in the Facebook graph, spurring comments in the scientific community as well as in the general press [1]. A number of interesting criticisms have been made about the meaningfulness, methods and consequences of the experiment we performed. In this paper we want to discuss some methodological aspects that we deem important to underline in the form of answers to the questions we have read in newspapers, magazines, blogs, or heard from colleagues. We indulge in some reflections on the actual meaning of “average distance” and make a number of side observations showing that, yes, 3.74 “degrees of separation” are really few.

FOUR DEGREES OF SEPARATION

In 2011, together with Marco Rosa, we developed a new tool for studying the distance distribution of very large (unweighted) graphs, called HyperANF [2]: this algorithm built on powerful graph compression techniques [3] and on the idea of diffusive computation pioneered in [4]. The new tool made it possible to accurately study the distance distribution of graphs orders of magnitude larger than it was previously possible. The work on HyperANF was presented at the 20th World-Wide Web Conference, in Hyderabad (India), and Lars Backstrom happened to listen to the talk; he was intrigued by the possibility of experimenting our software on the Facebook graph and suggested a collaboration.

Experiments were performed in the summer of 2011, resulting in the first world-scale social-network graph-distance computations, using the entire Facebook network of active users (721 million users, 69 billion friendship links). The average distance (i.e., shortest-path length) observed was 4.74, corresponding to 3.74 intermediaries (or “degrees

of separation”, in Milgram’s parlance). These and other findings were finally presented in [1] and made public by Facebook through its technical blog on November 19, 2011. Immediately after the announcement, the news appeared in the general press, starting from the New York Times [5]¹ and soon spreading worldwide in newspapers, blogs and forums.

A number of interesting criticisms have been made about the meaningfulness, methods and consequences of the experiment we performed. In this paper we want to discuss some methodological aspects that we deem important. We shall consider such issues in an answer-to-question style, with the double aim of replying to doubts and attacks and of stimulating new discussions and further interest.

I. NOT ALL PAIRS ARE CONNECTED: HOW CAN THE AVERAGE DISTANCE BE EVEN FINITE?

If by “average distance” we mean “average of the distances between all pairs”, of course Facebook has an infinite average distance, as we know that there is a very large connected component containing almost all (99.9%) nodes, but there are also some (few) unreachable pairs.

This is an interesting comment, as it shows an actual black hole in all the literature: people studying social problems (starting with the 50s, at least) had in mind very small groups, possibly groups that would fit one room (actually, in some cases, just sitting around a table). Or small communities. The very idea of “unreachable” was not part of the picture. In the famous paper by Travers and Milgram [6], the vast majority of postcards did not

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¹Incidentally, with an off-by-one error, as 4.74 is the average distance, whereas the average number of degrees of separation is 3.74 (see [1]).

reach the target². Nonetheless, the “six degrees of separation” idea came from the average distance (5.4 to 6.7, depending on the group) obtained in the experiment, computed *just on reachable pairs*.³

We discuss here in some detail two possible mathematical solutions to this problem—not only because they are interesting, but because we want to urge researchers to take the problem into consideration more seriously, and to remark to those objecting to the use of reachable pairs that old results would be really stated differently if unreachable pairs were correctly taken into account.

An obvious patch is to quote the average distance between reachable pairs, sided by the percentage of reachable pairs, which should be considered as a sort of *confidence* on the measure. If the percentage of reachable pairs is low, the average distance is telling us little. On a completely disconnected graph, the average distance is 0, but with “confidence” $1/n$. On a perfect match,⁴ the average distance is $1/2$, but the “confidence” is $2/n$ (in both cases, almost zero for large graphs).

Seen in this perspective, Milgram’s experiment proposes an average distance of 6.2 but provides an incredibly low level of confidence—just 22%,⁵ whereas in our case we can claim confidence 99.9% for our value (4.74).

The problem is that we like to compare results, and comparing two pairs of numbers can be difficult, if not impossible (see, e.g., the plethora of methods used to combine somehow precision and recall in information retrieval).

A solution that does not show the latter drawback is to consider *harmonic means* when working with distances. We recall that the harmonic mean is the reciprocal of the mean of the reciprocals. It is

²It should be noted, as an aside, that in Milgram’s experiment the interrupted chains do not actually imply unreachability, a point that will be better discussed later.

³Indeed, the authors of one of the first studies of the web as a whole [7] noted the same problem, and proposed the name *average connected distance*. We refrain, however, from using the word “connected” as it somehow implies a bidirectional (or, if you prefer, undirected) connection. The notion of average distance between all pairs is useless in a graph in which not all pairs are reachable, as it is necessarily infinite, so no confusion can arise.

⁴A *perfect match* is an undirected 1-regular graph, that is, a set of disconnected edges.

⁵Travers and Milgram’s paper [6] reports 29%, as this is the percentage of chains that *started and completed* with respect to those that *started*. Some of the chains did not start at all, and we are considering them as incomplete, which explains the slightly slower value we are reporting.

always smaller than the arithmetic mean, as it tends to give less relevance to large outliers and more relevance to small values, and it is used in a number of contexts⁶.

The important feature of the harmonic mean is that if we stipulate that $1/\infty = 0$, it can take in ∞ as a perfectly valid distance. Its effect is that of making the mean larger in a hyperbolic fashion. This is why Marchiori and Latora [9] proposed to consider the harmonic mean of *all* distances between distinct nodes⁷, which we call *harmonic diameter* following Fogaras [10] (rather than “average distance *between reachable pairs*”), as a measure of tightness of a network. For instance, a disconnected graph has average distance zero, but infinite harmonic diameter; and a perfect match has average distance $1/2$, but harmonic diameter $n - 1$.

What happens if we switch from the average distance to the harmonic diameter? On highly disconnected network, with many missing paths, we get a larger number. On the LAW web site⁸ you can find the basic statistics of several web-graph snapshots, and the harmonic diameter is always significantly larger than the average distance between reachable pairs.

In the case of Facebook, the harmonic diameter is 4.59—even smaller than the average distance. The situation, however, is quite different if we make the same computation with Milgram’s experiment and assume that incomplete chains correspond to unreachable pairs: overall, the harmonic mean is 18.29, almost four times larger than the average distance. If we restrict to the Nebraska random group (i.e., we avoid geographical or cultural clues), the harmonic mean is more than five times larger. By this measure, the improvement described in [1] is even more impressive.

The problem with the harmonic diameter is that even if it is a clearly and sensibly defined mathematical feature, it deprives us from the “degree of separation” metaphors. The fact that in 2007 the harmonic diameter of it was more than 15 000 does not mean, of course, that you need to pass through

⁶Incidentally, the HyperLogLog counters [8] used by HyperANF [2], the algorithm with which the average distance of Facebook was computed, use the harmonic mean to perform stochastic averaging.

⁷The fact that we do not consider the distances $d(x, x)$ is essential, as otherwise the harmonic mean becomes zero.

⁸<http://law.dsi.unimi.it/>

TABLE I
HARMONIC DIAMETER OF THE GRAPHS FROM [1].

	it	se	itse	us	fb
2007	15083.99 (± 298.82)	51.07 (± 1.50)	3760.77 (± 161.28)	4.16 (± 0.14)	6.33 (± 0.26)
2008	23.66 (± 0.75)	4.37 (± 0.15)	6.44 (± 0.21)	4.61 (± 0.16)	5.74 (± 0.24)
2009	4.74 (± 0.11)	4.37 (± 0.11)	4.71 (± 0.11)	4.67 (± 0.16)	5.07 (± 0.21)
2010	3.92 (± 0.13)	3.90 (± 0.16)	4.24 (± 0.18)	4.68 (± 0.15)	5.03 (± 0.21)
2011	3.76 (± 0.11)	3.93 (± 0.16)	4.29 (± 0.18)	4.23 (± 0.13)	4.70 (± 0.30)
current	3.68 (± 0.10)	3.69 (± 0.20)	3.90 (± 0.13)	4.45 (± 0.11)	4.59 (± 0.13)

TABLE II
THE HARMONIC MEAN AND THE MEAN OF ALL DISTANCES (INCLUDING ∞ FOR BROKEN CHAINS) FOR THE GROUPS DETAILED IN TRAVERS AND MILGRAM’S PAPER [6]. NOTE THE SIGNIFICANTLY LOWER VALUE OF THE HARMONIC MEAN FOR THE BOSTON GROUP.

Group	Harmonic mean	Median distance
Nebraska random	26.68	∞
Nebraska stockholders	19.37	∞
All Nebraska	22.40	∞
Boston random	12.63	∞
All	18.29	∞

15 000 friendship links!

Another possibility for taking into account infinite distances is to use the *median of all distances* as a measure of closeness. That is, we list in increasing order the n^2 values of $d(x, y)$, and we take that of index $\lfloor n^2/2 \rfloor$ (numbering from zero). This number is significantly larger than the average distance if several pairs are unreachable because the ∞ values at the end of the list “push” the median to the right. Again, on the LAW web site you can see that in several web graphs the median of all distances is significantly larger than the average distance, as it takes into account the existence of unreachable pairs. It is a good idea to complement the median with the fraction of pairs within its value: in any case, we know that at least 50% of the pairs (of *all* pairs, not just the reachable ones) are within its value, which gives us a concrete handle.

The median of all distances for Facebook is 5 (and 92% of all pairs is within this distance). So, again, “four degrees of separation”. Obviously, for Milgram in all cases the median is ∞ . So, using this measure we progressed really a lot.

With the collaboration of Jure Leskovec we were able to compute similar measures for Horvitz and Leskovec’s Messenger experiment [11]: the average distance, 6.618, has confidence 71.3%; the harmonic diameter is 8.935, whereas the median distance is 7,

covering 78.7% of all pairs.⁹ Note that these figures are due to the presence of isolated nodes, that is, nodes that did not participate in any communication in the observed month: if the graph is reduced to non isolated nodes, essentially all values collapse.

II. THE SAMPLE IS BIASED, AND ANYWAY IT JUST REPRESENTS 10% OF HUMANITY!

As a first consideration, we invite the reader to observe that there is no such things as a “uniform” or “unbiased” sample of a graph. One can, of course, sample the *nodes* or the *arcs* of a graph, and consider the induced subgraph, but there is no guarantee that the induced subgraph preserves the properties of interest of the whole graph—much more sophisticated strategies are necessary, and in any case, it must be proved beforehand that the selected strategy creates an induced subgraph that is sufficiently similar to the whole graph (whatever notion of “similar” we want to take into account).

In any case, let us take a step back and look for a moment at the conditions of Milgram’s experiment:

- *number of pairs examined*: 296;
- *sample of the population*: 100 United States citizens living in Boston, 96 random United States citizens living in Nebraska, 100 stockholders living in Nebraska;
- *completed chains*: $\approx 22\%$;
- *definition of link*: instructions to send the letter only to a “first-name acquaintance”.

Our case:

- *number of pairs examined*: 250 millions of billions;
- *sample of the population*: 721 million people spread in several continents;
- *completed chains*: $\approx 99.8\%$;

⁹We cannot report statistical metadata such as the standard error, because we were provided with already-aggregated breadth-first samples only.

- *definition of link*: sharing a friendship link on Facebook.

We realize, obviously, that Facebook is not a random sample, and that being on Facebook implies already sharing a mindset, or certain areas of interest. We are also aware of the digital divide problem (that introduces a strong geopolitical and economical bias) and that there are links on Facebook between people that never met each other in person (e.g., gamers).

On the other hand, a random sample of 96 people from Nebraska is not a random sample of the world population, either. And, again, we will never know if some letters in the experiment actually passed through, say, two pen pals who never met in person. What a lot of people did not realize is that, essentially, the only thing we know about how people were involved in Milgram's experiment is that the sender judged that it had a "first-name acquaintance" with the receiver. The link between sender and receiver might have been in some cases even *weaker* than sharing a friendship link of Facebook.

There is, moreover, another important factor to take into account: since there will be many first-name acquaintances who are *not* on Facebook (and hence not Facebook friends) some short paths will be missing. These two phenomena will likely, at least in part, balance each other; so, although we do not have (and cannot obtain) a precise proof of this fact, we do not think we are losing or gaining much in considering the notion of Facebook friend as a surrogate of first-name friendship.

All in all, we see a definite progress in stating that the world is small. Thanks to Facebook, which is the largest ever-created database of human relationships, we have been able to make Milgram's experiment (or at least the part of it that has to do with measuring shortest paths) much more concrete and objectively measurable.

Nonetheless, let us take another step back and consider, for a moment, the genius of a man who approached a mind-boggling (even for us, now) problem on a worldwide scale armed with three hundred postcards and an incredibly clever experiment. Obtaining a result almost unbelievably close to what we obtained using a number of pairs that is *fifteen orders of magnitude larger*. One is tempted to draw a comparison with Galileo's celebrated mental experiment in the *Dialogo sopra i due massimi sistemi*

del mondo [12]: you do not need an expensive lab to test the principle of relativity—you just need a ship, some butterflies and some fish. Of course, once you do it, an expensive lab to check it thoroughly is definitely not a bad idea.

III. YOU MEASURED THE AVERAGE DISTANCE, BUT DEGREES OF SEPARATION ARE ALGORITHMIC

Just after we disseminated our paper, we learned that an experiment was trying to settle the "degree of separation" problem, which was "still unresolved" using Facebook.¹⁰ We were, of course, quite surprised. While we certainly did not "resolve" anything, it was difficult to imagine an experiment at present time with a larger sample or significantly more precise measurements.

The point is the distinction between "routing" and "distance". Milgram's postcard were routed locally (each sender did not know whether the recipient was the best choice to get to the destination, i.e., if it lay on a shortest path to the destination). Apparently, the question is still unresolved because by studying Facebook we have only computed the "topological", not the "algorithmic" degrees of separation.

We believe, however, that this is a red herring. Reading carefully Travers and Milgram's papers [13], [6], it is clear that the very purpose of the authors was to estimate the number of intermediaries: the postcards were just a tool, and the details of the paths they followed were studied only as an artifact of the measurement process. In the words of Milgram, the problem was defined by "given two individuals selected randomly from the population, what is the probability that the minimum number of intermediaries required to link them is 0, 1, 2, ..., k ?". Said otherwise, Milgram was interested in estimating the *distance distribution* of the acquaintance graph.

The interest in efficient routing lies more in the eye of the beholder (e.g., the computer scientist) than in Milgram's: if he had at his disposal an actual large database of friendship links and algorithms like the ones we used, he would have dispensed with the postcards altogether. Thus, the fact that we measured *actual* shortest paths between individuals, instead of the paths of a greedy routing, is a definite progress. Routing is an interesting computer-science

¹⁰<http://smallworld.sandbox.yahoo.com/>.

(and sociological) problem, but it had little or no interest for Milgram—actually, the main interest in the routing process was understanding the convergence of paths. From the paper:

The theoretical machinery needed to deal with social networks is still in its infancy. The empirical technique of this research has two major contribution to make to the development of that theory. First it sets an upper bound on the minimum number of intermediaries required to link widely separated Americans. Since subjects cannot always foresee the most efficient path to a target, our trace procedure must inevitably produce chains longer than those generated by an accurate theoretical model which takes full account of all paths emanating from an individual.

That said, the results obtained in Milgram’s experiment are even more stunning because the average routing distance they computed (with the provisos about uncompleted chains discussed above) is so close to the average shortest-path length. The latter observation seems to suggest that human beings are extremely good at routing, so good that they almost route messages along the shortest possible path. However, taking uncompleted paths into consideration gives a slightly different twist to this remark: it seems that when someone felt confident enough to continue the experiment, (s)he did so almost in the best possible way; but more often than not, the experiment was stopped probably because the message arrived at an individual that did not know how to route it further efficiently.

Apart for the attempts to measure the routing distance in real-world social graphs, there is an ever increasing focus on developing a theory of distributed efficient routing on small worlds, starting from Kleinberg’s intriguing notion of navigability [14], [15]; this is however outside of the scope of our paper.

IV. JUST ADD A FEW LINKS HERE AND THERE AND WE’LL ALL BE AT ONE DEGREE OF SEPARATION

Another, closely related, question is: “We have seen that the degree of separation has constantly decreased since 2008, reaching its current value. What can we expect for the future?”

To answer the above comment/question, notice that the average distance is

$$\sum_{k>0} kP_k/r,$$

where P_k is the number of pairs at distance exactly k and r is the number of reachable pairs, which is n^2 if and only if the graph is strongly connected. Of course, if we have bounds $B_k \geq P_k$ for some $1 \leq k \leq \ell$, it is immediate to see that, if $\sum_{k=1}^{\ell-1} B_k \leq r$ then

$$\sum_{k>0} kP_k \geq \sum_{k=1}^{\ell-1} kB_k + \ell \left(r - \sum_{k>0} B_k \right). \quad (1)$$

Now, depending on how much you want to consider a graph similar to the Facebook graph described in [1], there are many ways to generate some B_k ’s.

a) First bound (depending on n , m and D):

There are intrinsic bounds on the number of short paths you can generate when the number of neighbours of a node is limited. The simplest observation is that (letting D be the maximum degree and m be the number of arcs in the graph, i.e., twice the number of edges) you cannot have more than m pairs at distance one, mD pairs at distance 2, and so on; more precisely, we can set $B_k = mD^{k-1}$, getting (from (1)) the lower bound

$$\sum_{k>0} kP_k \geq m + 2mD + 3(r - m - mD)$$

provided that $m + mD \leq r$; in the case of Facebook ($D = 5000$, $n \approx 721 \times 10^6$, $r = 5 \times 10^{17}$, $m \approx 69 \times 10^9$) the inequality $m + mD \leq r$ is satisfied and the lower bound obtained is ≈ 2.999 . In other words, no graphs with the same number of nodes, arcs and maximum outdegree of the graph we considered can have an average distance smaller than 2.999.

b) Second bound (depending on the degree sequence): To improve over the previous trivial bound, we can use the actual degree distribution.¹¹ This is a bit like answering to the question: what if some omniscient being “rewired” Facebook in an optimised way to reduce the average distance as much as possible, but leaving each user with its current number of friends? Let us first notice that P_2 can be bounded by $\sum_x d(x)^2$, which, being the sum of entries of the square of the adjacency matrix, is

¹¹The degree distribution is publicly available as part of the dataset associated with [1].

an upper bound for the number of pairs at distance 2. Providing a good bound for P_3 is slightly more difficult:

Theorem 1 *Let $d_0 \geq d_1 \geq \dots d_{n-1}$ be the degree sequence of the graph, $s = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} d_i^2$ and define, for every t ,*

$$\delta(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{d_t-1} d_i.$$

Then P_3 (the number of pairs of nodes at distance exactly 3) can be bounded by

$$P_3 \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\ell} d_k \delta(k) + d_{\ell+1} \left(s - \sum_{k=0}^{\ell} \delta(k) \right)$$

where ℓ is the greatest integer such that $\sum_{k=0}^{\ell} \delta(k) < s$.

Proof: We can bound P_3 from above by counting the number p of tuples (u_i, v_i, w_i, z_i) corresponding to paths of length 3. Let $V = \{v_0, \dots, v_{k-1}\}$ be the set of nodes appearing as second component in at least one such tuple, sorted by non-increasing node degree; clearly $p \leq d(v_0)\pi(v_0) + \dots + d(v_{k-1})\pi(v_{k-1})$ where $d(x)$ is as usual the degree of x and $\pi(x)$ is the number of paths of length 2 starting from x : this is because every single path of length 3 of the form $(-, v_i, -, -)$ is obtained by choosing a neighbor of v_i and a path of length 2 leaving from v_i .

Observe that $\pi(v_0) + \dots + \pi(v_{k-1})$ cannot be larger than s (because the latter is an upper bound to the number of paths of length 2 in the graph). Now, of course, for every $t = 0, \dots, k-1$, $d(v_t) \leq d_t$, so $p \leq d_0\pi(v_0) + \dots + d_{k-1}\pi(v_{k-1})$; it is convenient to think of the latter as a summation of a list L of length $s \geq \pi(v_0) + \dots + \pi(v_{k-1})$, where d_0 occurs $\pi(v_0)$ times, d_1 occurs $\pi(v_1)$ times etc., and at the end of the list 0 occurs enough times to reach the desired length.

Now $\pi(v_t)$ can be bounded from above by the number of paths of length 2 leaving from a node of degree d_t . But the latter can be obtained by choosing at the first step the d_t nodes with largest degree, and summing up their degree; that is, $\pi(v_t) \leq \delta(t)$. So we can safely substitute the above list L with another list L' of the same length where d_0 is repeated $\delta(0) \geq \pi(v_0)$ times, d_1 is repeated $\delta(1) \geq \pi(v_1)$ times etc. The resulting list L' dominates L elementwise, hence the thesis. ■

Plugging $B_1 = m$, $B_2 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} d_i^2$ and B_3 as in Theorem 1, and using the actual degree sequence of Facebook, we obtain ≈ 3.6 . Thus, Facebook is essentially just one step (distance or degree doesn't matter) away from the best possible, given that every individual keeps the current number of friends.

V. IT'S JUST BECAUSE OF THE NODES WITH VERY HIGH DEGREE THAT WE OBSERVE SUCH A LOW VALUE

Since the first studies on the structure of complex graphs [16], and in particular of social networks, the degree distributions have been a central topic on which many authors focused, concluding that both in- and out-degrees exhibit a heavy-tailed distribution: this fact implies that there are many nodes whose degree largely exceeds the average. It is a widely assumed tenet that those nodes, sometimes referred to as *hubs*, represent a sort of ‘‘social glue’’ that keeps the whole network structure together and that shortcut friendship paths. In the case of social networks, such as Twitter or Facebook, hubs are superstars like Lady Gaga or Barack Obama, whose account often do not even correspond to real persons.

But, is this the case? In our analysis of the Facebook graph we excluded *pages* (the accounts that people may ‘‘like’’), and standard accounts have a hardwired limit of 5 000 friends. Nonetheless, we cannot rule out the possibility that there are some fake celebrity accounts remaining in the graph we studied.

The general question we are asking can be restated as follows: take a social network and start removing the nodes of largest degrees; how much does the distribution of distances change? in particular: how does the average distance change (presumably: increase)? We considered this question in a previous paper [17] (see also [18]), where we actually studied the more general problem of which removal strategies are more disruptive under the viewpoint of distance distributions.

We report an anticipation of a subset of the results of [18], as they suggest that high-degree node removal is not going to cause drastic changes in the structure of the network. We show results for a

TABLE III

CHANGE IN AVERAGE DISTANCE OF WEB AND SOCIAL GRAPHS AFTER REMOVING THE LARGEST (IN-)DEGREE NODES. THE REMOVAL PROCESS IS STOPPED WHEN THE NUMBER OF ARCS REMOVED REACHES THE 10% AND 30%.

Graph	original	10%	30%
.in	15.34	16.11 (+5.0%)	18.98 (+23.7%)
Hollywood	3.92	4.02 (+2.5%)	4.23 (+7.9%)
LiveJournal	5.99	6.15 (+2.7%)	6.55 (+9.3%)
Orkut	4.21	4.43 (+5.2%)	4.67 (+10.9%)

TABLE IV

CHANGE IN HARMONIC DIAMETER OF WEB AND SOCIAL GRAPHS AFTER REMOVING THE LARGEST (IN-)DEGREE NODES. THE REMOVAL PROCESS IS STOPPED WHEN THE NUMBER OF ARCS REMOVED REACHES THE 10% AND 30%.

Graph	original	10%	30%
.in	32.26	47.03 (+45.8%)	87.68 (+171.8%)
Hollywood	4.08	4.12 (+1.0%)	4.40 (+7.8%)
LiveJournal	7.36	7.74 (+5.2%)	8.67 (+17.8%)
Orkut	4.06	4.33 (+6.7%)	4.61 (+13.6%)

small¹² snapshot of the Indian web (.in), for the Hollywood co-starship graph, for a snapshot of the LiveJournal network kindly provided by the authors of [19], and a snapshot of the Orkut network kindly provided by the authors of [20].¹³

The results we obtained are the following. Removing largest-degree nodes does affect the average distance on web graphs: after the removal of 30% of the arcs¹⁴ the average distance gets increased of about 24%. Nonetheless, the same removal strategy seems to have a weaker impact on genuine social networks: under the same condition, the increase in average distance ranges between 8% and 11% (see Table III).

Nonetheless, we are actually missing a very important point: in the social networks we studied, removing 30% of the arcs actually does not change the percentage of reachable pairs, whereas in web graphs the percentage (which is already lower) is reduced by a half. As we discussed in Section I, the average distance turns out again to be a very rough and unreliable measure when the number of unreachable pairs is large.

Thus, in Table IV we show what happens to the harmonic diameter. The results show that the increase for social networks is very modest (less than 20% after the removal of as many as the 30% of the arcs), whereas for web graphs the harmonic

diameter almost triplicates! This confirms again that the harmonic diameter is more reliable value to be associated to the “tightness” or “connectedness” of a network.

We remark that LiveJournal and Orkut are people-to-people friendship networks as Facebook (note, however, that LiveJournal is directed). We believe that the resistance to high-degree removal is actually a common phenomenon in such networks, which prompts us to conjecture that similar node-removal procedures will not change Facebook average distance or harmonic diameter significantly, albeit we have no empirical data to support our hypothesis at this point.

Actually, a more general conclusion obtained in the cited paper [17] is that social networks seem very robust to node removal, and we could not find any node order that determined radical changes in the distance distribution. This observation leaves an intriguing question still open to debate: if hubs are not the inherent cause behind short distances, then what is the *real* reason of this phenomenon?

VI. ARE YOU SAYING THAT FACEBOOK REDUCED THE AVERAGE DISTANCE BETWEEN PEOPLE?

Some of the comments in the general press took the outcomes of our experiments as an evidence that online social networks (such as Facebook) reduced the average distance between people; of course, this was not the purpose (neither the content) of the experiment and in any case there is no direct way to know if this is true or not, because our measurements *are performed on Facebook*. We can see, however, that the distance between Facebook users constantly decreased over time: it used to be 5.28 in 2008, 5.06 in 2010 and 4.74 in our most recent dataset. Whether this decrease is *due* to Facebook, or whether it simply Facebook reflecting

¹²Similar results have been obtained with a lesser degree of precision on a snapshot of a 100 million pages in [17]; computations are underway to obtain high-precision data similar to what we report here about the smaller snapshot, and the results will be included in the final version of this paper.

¹³All these datasets are public and available at <http://law.dsi.unimi.it/>. The identifiers of the datasets are in-2004, hollywood-2011, ljjournal-2008 and orkut-2007.

¹⁴We emphasize that we remove nodes (in decreasing order of their in-degree) and all incident edges, but count how many *arcs* are removed, because it is the number of deleted arcs that determines the expected loss in connectivity. We invite the reader to consult [17] for more details.

better and better the situation in the “real world” is hard to say. In the former case, as someone suggested, we would be observing a reduction in path lengths due probably to the presence of *weak ties* [21] that hardly correspond to a real friendship relation and would probably not even show up in a non-electronically-mediated environment.

Understanding how online social networks are changing our way of interacting, communicating and thinking is absolutely beyond the scope of our paper, whose aim was much humbler and certainly not as far-reaching. We believe, however, that giving a concrete and realistic explanation of what is going on requires a co-ordinated effort and calls for an interdisciplinary endeavor, putting together sociology, psychology, computer science and mathematics. This is, we think, one of the most important challenges for people working in these disciplines, with yet unknown consequences of philosophical, social and even economical value.

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