Network Properties

Network Application Diagnostics B2M32DSA

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Outline

- Graph Matrices
 - Linear Algebra Reminder
 - Network Matrices
- Centrality Measures
 - Path Based Centralities
 - Spectral Centralities
 - Example



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Algebra

- δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta, which is 1 if i=j and 0 otherwise.
- A field (CZ pole, komutativní těleso)is a set on which are defined addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division satisfying the field axioms (commutativity, associativity, a unit).
- 1 is the vector (1, 1, 1, ...).
- The complex conjugate (CZ komplexně sdružené číslo) of the complex number z = x + iy is defined to by $\bar{z} = z^* = x iy$.





Matrix [Lay12, GL13]

- $[\ldots]_{ij}$ denotes (i,j) element of a matrix
- The conjugate of a matrix $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij}) \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$ is the matrix $\bar{\mathbf{A}} = (\bar{a}_{ij}) \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$.
- The trace of an $n \times n$ ("n by n") square matrix A is

$$\mathsf{Tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii} = a_{11} + a_{22} + \dots + a_{nn} \tag{1}$$

$$Tr(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) = Tr(\mathbf{A}) + Tr(\mathbf{B})$$
 (2)

$$Tr(c\mathbf{A}) = cTr(\mathbf{A}) \tag{3}$$

$$\mathsf{Tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathsf{Tr}(\mathbf{A}^T) \tag{4}$$

$$Tr(AB) = Tr(BA)$$
 (5)





Matrix Transposition

[Wat02, Lay12, GL13]

- The transpose of a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ ($\mathbb{R}^{n \times m} \to \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$): $[\mathbf{A}^T]_{ij} = [\mathbf{A}]_{ii}.$
- Let A and B denote matrices whose sizes are appropriate for the following sums and products, let r denote any scalar, then
 - \bullet $(\mathbf{A}^T)^T = \mathbf{A}$
 - $\bullet (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B})^T = \mathbf{A}^T + \mathbf{B}^T$
 - $(r\mathbf{A})^T = r\mathbf{A}^T$
 - $(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B})^T = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A}^T$
- The conjugate transpose of a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$: $[\mathbf{A}^*]_{ij} = [\mathbf{A}]_{ji}$.
- The square matrix A is Hermitian if $A^* = A = A^H$ and skew-Hermitian if $A^* = -A$.



Orthogonality [Wat02, GL13]

- A set of vectors $\{x_1, \ldots, x_p\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n is **orthogonal** if $x_i^T x_j = 0$ whenever $i \neq j$ and **orthonormal** if $x_i^T x_j = \delta_{ij}$.
- A matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is said to be **orthogonal** if $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$.
- A matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is said to be unitary if $\mathbf{A}^* \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}$.



Matrix Inversion [GL13]

- If A and X are in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and satisfy AX = I, then X is the **inverse** of A and is denoted by A^{-1} .
 - $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$
 - $\bullet (\mathbf{A}^{-1})^T = (\mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} \equiv \mathbf{A}^{-T}$





Matrix Eigenvalues [GL13]

- The eigenvalues of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ are zeros of the characteristic polynomial $p(x) = det(\mathbf{A} - x\mathbf{I})$.
- Every $n \times n$ matrix has n eigenvalues.
- We denote the set of A's eigenvalues by

$$\lambda(\mathbf{A}) = \{x : det(\mathbf{A} - x\mathbf{I}) = 0\}$$
$$\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A}) = \max(\lambda(\mathbf{A})) \qquad \lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A}) = \min(\lambda(\mathbf{A}))$$

• The eigenvalue equation expressed as the matrix multiplication

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$$

- Applying the matrix A to the eigenvector v only scales the eigenvector by the scalar value λ .
- Symmetry of a matrix A guarantees that all of its eigenvalues are real and that there is an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors.
- Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with eigenvalues λ and eigenvectors \mathbf{v} . Then \mathbf{A}^k has eigenvalues λ^k and eigenvectors ${f v}$ for any positive integer k

Schur Decomposition [GL13]

Theorem 1 (Symmetric Schur Decomposition, Theorem 8.1.1 [GL13], p.440)

If $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is symmetric, then there exists a real orthogonal \mathbf{Q} such that

$$\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{\Lambda} = diag(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n).$$

Moreover, for k = 1 : n, $\mathbf{AQ}(:, k) = \lambda_k \mathbf{Q}(:, k)$.

Theorem 2 (Schur Decomposition, Theorem 7.1.3 [GL13], p.351)

If $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$, then there exists a unitary $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ such that

$$\mathbf{Q}^H \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{T} = \mathbf{\Lambda} + \mathbf{N}$$

where $\Lambda = diag(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ and $\mathbf{N} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is strictly upper triangular.

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Adjacency Matrix [New10, EK10]

• The adjacency matrix ${\bf A}$ of a simple graph is the $N \times N$ matrix with element A_{ij} such that

$$A_{ij} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & \text{if there is an edge between vertices } j \text{ and } i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

• The adjacency matrix of a directed network has matrix elements

$$A_{ij} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & \text{if there is an edge from } j \text{ to } i, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$



Cocitation Matrix [New10]

- Convenient to turn a directed network into an undirected one for the purposes of analysis
- The **cocitation** of two vertices i and j in a directed network is the number of vertices that have outgoing edges pointing to both i and j.
 - The cocitation of two papers is the number of other papers that cite both.
 - $A_{ik}A_{jk}=1$ if i and j are both cited by k and zero otherwise.
- The cocitations C_{ij} of i and j is

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} A_{ik} A_{jk} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} A_{ik} A_{kj}^{T}$$

• The cocitation matrix C is the $N \times N$ matrix with elements C_{ij} , i.e.

$$C = AA^T$$

• \mathbf{C} is a symmetric matrix: $\mathbf{C}^T = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T)^T = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{C}$



Bibliographic Coupling [New10]

- The bibliographic coupling of two vertices in a directed networkis the number of other vertices to which both point.
 - For instance in a citation network: the bibliographic coupling of two
 papers i and j is the number of other papers that are cited by both i
 and j.
 - $A_{ki}A_{kj}=1$ if i and j both cite k and zero otherwise.
- The bibliographic coupling B_{ij} of i and j is

$$B_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} A_{ki} A_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} A_{ik}^{T} A_{kj}$$

• The bibliographic coupling matrix \mathbf{B} is the $n \times n$ matrix with elements B_{ij} , i.e.

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$$

 $oldsymbol{eta}$ is a symmetric matrix: $\mathbf{B}^T = (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A})^T = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{B}$



Bipartite networks

- also called two-mode networks in SNA [New10]
- $V = V_1 \cup V_2, V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$
- movies × actors
- articles × authors
- timestamps × active Wifi access points (AP)
- people × groups
- Let $N_1 = |V_1|$ and $N_2 = |V_2|$, then the **bi-adjacency** matrix ${\bf B}^{[{\sf BJP17}]}$ is $N_1 \times N_2$ matrix having elements

$$B_{ij} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} 1 & \text{if there is an edge between vertices } n_i \in V_1 \text{ and } n_j \in V_2 \text{,} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

• Also called incidence matrix [New10], bipartite adjacency matrix [BM08]

Adjacency and Bi-adjacency Matrix [New10, BJP17]

$$\mathbf{A} = \left(\begin{array}{cc} \emptyset_{|V_1|} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{B}^T & \emptyset_{|V_2|} \end{array} \right)$$

Bipartite network and its bi-adjacency Matrix

TODO



Incidence Matrix [Die05, New10]

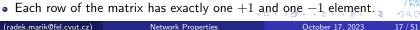
• The incidence matrix B by [Die05] of a simple undirected graph G(V, E) with N vertices $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_N\}$ and M edges $E = \{e_1, \dots, e_M\}$ over the 2-element field $F_2 = \{0, 1\}$ is defined as the $N \times M$ matrix with elements B_{ij} such that

$$B_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v_i \in e_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• The edge incidence matrix by Newman [New10] of a simple undirected graph G(V,E) with N vertices and M edges is an $M\times N$ matrix ${\bf B}$ with elements B_{ij}

$$B_{ij} = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} +1 & \text{if end 1 of edge } i \text{ is attached to vertex } j, \\ -1 & \text{if end 2 of edge } i \text{ is attached to vertex } j, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right.$$

- Each edge has two arbitrarily designated ends, end 1 and end 2.



Projection [New10, BJP17]

- A possible way how to analyze bipartite graphs using simple graph methods.
- Significant information on the given network might be lost.

Definition 1 (Based on Definition 3 [BJP17], p.3)

Let $G(V_1, V_2, E)$ be a bipartite graph. The **one-mode projection** of the bipartite graph G for the vertex V_i with respect to the vertex set V_i , $i, j \in \{1, 2\}, i \neq j$ is the unipartite (one-mode) network $G'(V_i, E')$ where V(G') = U and $uv \in E(G')$ if $N(u) \cap N(v) \neq \emptyset$.

Projection of a bipartite network - items and groups

TODO





Projection Properties I [New10]

• Let ${\bf B}$ be a bi-adjacency matrix of $G(V_1,V_2,E)$, then the total number $P_{ij}^{(1)}$ of vertexes $v\in V_2$ to which both $i,j\in V_1$ belong is

$$P_{ij}^{(1)} = \sum_{k=1}^{|V_2|} B_{ik} B_{jk} = \sum_{k=1}^{|V_2|} B_{ik} B_{kj}^T$$

- The product $B_{ik}B_{jk}$ will be 1 if and only if i and j are both linked to the same vertex k from the other vertex set
- Example: relations of items and their groups
- In matrix form

$$\mathbf{P^{(1)}} = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^T$$





Projection Properties II [New10]

ullet $P_{ii}^{(1)}$ is the number of vertexes $j \in V_2$ to which $i \in V_1$ is linked

$$P_{ij}^{(1)} = \sum_{k=1}^{|V_2|} B_{ik}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{|V_2|} B_{ik}$$

- assuming $B_{ik} \in \{0,1\}$
- ullet The other one-mode projection onto V_2

$$\mathbf{P^{(2)}} = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{B}$$





Undirected Graph - Node Degree

• The degree of a vertex in a undirected graph

$$k_i = \sum_{j=1}^{N} A_{ij}$$

• The number of ends of edges

$$2M = \sum_{i=1}^{N} k_i$$

The number of edges

$$M = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} k_i = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij} A_{ij}$$





Undirected Graph - Density [New10]

• The **mean degree** c of a vertex in a undirected graph

$$c = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} k_i = \frac{2M}{N}$$

• The maximum possible number of edges in a simple graph

$$\binom{N}{2} = \frac{1}{2}N(N-1)$$

• The connectance or density ρ of a graph is the fraction of edges that are actually present $(0 \le \rho \le 1)$.

$$\rho = \frac{M}{\binom{N}{2}} = \frac{2M}{N(N-1)} = \frac{c}{N-1}$$





Directed Graph - Vertex Degree [New10]

 \bullet The in-degree $k_i^{\rm in}$ and out-degree $k_j^{\rm out}$ of a vertex in a undirected graph

$$k_i^{\mathsf{in}} = \sum_{j=1}^N A_{ij}, \quad k_j^{\mathsf{out}} = \sum_{i=1}^N A_{ij}$$

The number of edges

$$M = \sum_{i=1}^N k_i^{\mathsf{in}} = \sum_{j=1}^N k_j^{\mathsf{out}} = \sum_{ij} A_{ij}$$

• The mean in-degree c_{in} and the mean out-degree c_{out} of a vertex in a undirected graph are equal:

$$c_{\mathsf{in}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N k_i^{\mathsf{in}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N k_j^{\mathsf{out}} = c_{\mathsf{out}} = c = \frac{M}{N}$$





Paths in Simple Graph [New10]

- The element A_{ij} is 1 if there is an edge from i to j, and 0 otherwise in simple graphs.
- The product $A_{ik}A_{kj}$ is 1 if there is a path of length 2 from j to i via k, and 0 otherwise.
- \bullet The total number $N_{ij}^{(2)}$ of paths of length two from j to i via any other vertex is

$$N_{ij}^{(2)} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} A_{ik} A_{kj} = [\mathbf{A}^2]_{ij}$$

ullet Paths of length three from j to i via l and k in that order

$$N_{ij}^{(3)} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} A_{ik} A_{k\ell} A_{\ell j} = [\mathbf{A}^3]_{ij}$$

ullet Paths of an arbitrary length r

$$N_{ij}^{(r)} = [\mathbf{A}^r]_{ij}$$



Cycles in Simple Graph [New10]

- The number of paths of length r that start and end at the same vertex i is $[\mathbf{A}^r]_{ii}$.
- The total number L_r of cycles ("loops") of length r anywhere in a network is (the sum over all possible starting vertexes i)

$$L_r = \sum_{i=1}^N [\mathbf{A}^r]_{ii} = \mathsf{Tr}\mathbf{A}^r.$$

- The loop $1 \to 2 \to 3 \to 1$ is considered different from the loop $2 \to 3 \to 1 \to 2$.
- The loops $1 \to 2 \to 3 \to 1$ and $1 \to 3 \to 2 \to 1$ traversed in opposite directions are distinct, too.



Cycles in Simple Graph and Eigenvalues [New10]

Undirected graph

- The adjacency matrix A is symmetric, i.e. $A = QKQ^T$, where Q is the orthogonal matrix of eigenvectors and K is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues κ_i of A.
- $\bullet \mathbf{A}^r = (\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}\mathbf{Q}^T)^r = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{K}^r\mathbf{Q}^T$
- $L_r = \operatorname{Tr} \mathbf{A}^r = \operatorname{Tr} (\mathbf{Q} \mathbf{K}^r \mathbf{Q}^T) = \operatorname{Tr} (\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{K}^r) = \operatorname{Tr} \mathbf{K}^r = \sum_i \kappa_i^r$

Directed networks

- Every real matrix can be written in the form $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{Q}^T$, where \mathbf{Q} is an orthogonal matrix and \mathbf{T} is an upper triangular matrix using the *Schur decomposition*.
- ullet Since ${f T}$ is triangular, its diagonal elements are its eigenvalues.
- ullet The eigenvalues are the same as the eigenvalues of ${f A}$.

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{T}\mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{x} = \kappa\mathbf{x} \qquad \cdots \times \mathbf{Q}^T \tag{6}$$

$$\mathbf{T}\mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{x} = \kappa \mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{x} \tag{7}$$

(8)

 $\bullet \ L_r = \mathsf{Tr} \mathbf{A}^r = \mathsf{Tr}(\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{T}^r\mathbf{Q}^T) = \mathsf{Tr}(\mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{T}^r) = \mathsf{Tr}\mathbf{T}^r = \sum_i \kappa_i^r$



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Centrality Measures / Ranking [BE06, Weh13]

Measuring the importance/prominence of a node within the network

- Degree Centrality (Node Activity)
- Betweenness Centrality (Intermediate Position)
- Closeness Centrality (Distance to other nodes)
- Eigenvector Centrality (Important nodes have important friends)
- Power Centrality (Close to hubs)
- Page Rank

Evaluation of the location actors in the network

- Insight into various roles and groupings in a network
- Connectors, mavens, leaders, bridges, isolates, broker, hubs
- Where are the clusters and who is in them,
- Who is in the core of the network? Who is on the periphery?
- What is a single point of failure?



What is the degree of an actor? How active is an actor?

Degree centrality

is a count of the number of edges incident upon a given vertex

Degree centrality for actor i

$$c_i^d = \sum_j a_{ij} = \mathbf{A1}$$

- where A is the adjacency matrix
- 1 is a vector of 1 with size N.

Normalized degree centrality for actor i

$$c'_{i}^{d} = \frac{\sum_{j} a_{ij}}{N-1} = \frac{\mathbf{A1}}{N-1}$$

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Degree centrality for actor i

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- where A is the adjacency matrix
- 1 is a vector of 1 with size N.

Normalized degree centrality for actor i

$$c_i'^d = \frac{\sum_j a_{ij}}{N-1} = \frac{\mathbf{A1}}{N-1}$$

Examples for degree centrality c_i and normalized degree centrality c_i :

Star

$$c_1^d = 4$$
 $c_1'^d = 1$
 $c_2^d = 1$ $c_2'^d = 0.25$
 $c_3^d = 1$ $c_3'^d = 0.25$
 $c_4^d = 1$ $c_4'^d = 0.25$

Line

$$c_1^d = 2 c_1'^d = 0.5$$

$$c_2^d = 2 c_2'^d = 0.5$$

$$c_3^d = 2 c_3'^d = 0.5$$

$$c_4^d = 1 c_4'^d = 0.25$$

$$c_5^d = 1 c_5'^d = 0.25$$

Circle

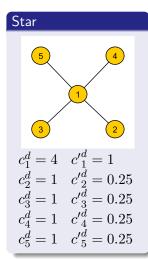
$$c_1^d = 2$$
 $c'_1^d = 0.5$
 $c_2^d = 2$ $c'_2^d = 0.5$
 $c_3^d = 2$ $c'_3^d = 0.5$
 $c_4^d = 2$ $c'_4^d = 0.5$
 $c_5^d = 2$ $c'_5^d = 0.5$
(all actors identical)





Examples of degree centrality [Weh13]

Examples for degree centrality c_i and normalized degree centrality c'_i :



Line
$$c_1^d = 2 \quad {c'}_1^d = 0.5$$

$$c_2^d = 2 \quad {c'}_2^d = 0.5$$

$$c_3^d = 2 \quad {c'}_3^d = 0.5$$

$$c_4^d = 1 \quad {c'}_4^d = 0.25$$

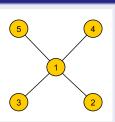
$$c_5^d = 1 \quad {c'}_5^d = 0.25$$





Examples for degree centrality c_i and normalized degree centrality c'_i :





$$c_1^d = 4 \quad c_1'^d = 1$$

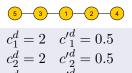
$$c_2^d = 1 \quad c_2'^d = 0.25$$

$$c_3^d = 1 \quad c_3'^d = 0.25$$

$$c_4^d = 1 \quad c_4'^d = 0.25$$

 $c_5^d = 1$ $c_5'^d = 0.25$

Line



$$c_3^d = 2$$
 $c_3'^d = 0.5$

$$c_4^d = 1$$
 $c_4'^d = 0.25$

$$c_5^d = 1$$
 $c_5'^d = 0.25$

$$z_2 = 0.5$$
 $z_3'^d = 0.5$

$$c_2^d = 2$$
 $c_2^d = 0.5$
 $c_3^d = 2$ $c_3^{'d} = 0.5$

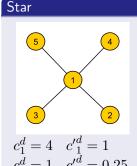
$$c_4^d = 2$$
 $c_4'^d = 0.5$
 $c_4^d = 2$ $c_4'^d = 0.5$

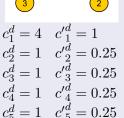




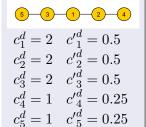
Examples of degree centrality [Weh13]

Examples for degree centrality c_i and normalized degree centrality c'_i :



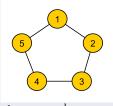


Line



Network Properties

Circle



$$c_1^d = 2 c'_1^d = 0.5$$

$$c_2^d = 2 c'_2^d = 0.5$$

$$c_3^d = 2 c'_3^d = 0.5$$

$$c_4^d = 2 c'_4^d = 0.5$$

 $c_5^d = 2$ $c_5'^d = 0.5$ (all actors identical)

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Closeness centrality [Fre79, Dod09]

- Idea: Nodes are more central if they can reach other nodes 'easily.'
- Measures average shortest path from a node to all other nodes.
- ullet Closeness Centrality for node i as

$$c_i^c = \frac{N-1}{\sum_{j,j\neq i} (\text{distance from } i \text{ to } j)}$$

• Range is 0 (no friends) to 1 (a single hub).

Meaning

- Unclear what the exact values of this measure tells us because of its ad-hocness.
- General problem with simple centrality measures: what do they exactly mean?
- Perhaps, at least, we obtain an ordering of nodes in terms of 'importance.'

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Betweenness centrality [Dod09]

- Betweenness centrality is based on shortest paths in a network.
- Idea: If the quickest way between any two nodes on a network disproportionately involves certain nodes, then they are 'important' in terms of global cohesion.
- For each node i, count, over all pairs of nodes x and y, how many shortest paths pass through i.
- Call frequency of shortest paths passing through node i the **betweenness** of i, B_i .
- Note: Exclude shortest paths between *i* and other nodes.
- Note: works for weighted and unweighted networks.
- Role played by shortest paths justified by small-world phenomenon (Milgram's experiment).



Betweenness Centrality - Complexity

- Consider a network with N nodes and M edges (possibly weighted).
- Computational goal: Find $\binom{N}{2}$ shortest paths between all pairs of nodes.
- Traditionally Floyd-Warshall algorithm used.
- Computation time grows as $O(N^3)$.
- See also:
 - Dijkstra's algorithm for finding the shortest path between two specific nodes, and
 - 2 Johnson's algorithm which outperforms Floyd-Warshall for sparse networks:

$$O(MN + N^2 log N)$$

- Newman (2001) and Brandes (2001) independently derived much faster algorithms.
- Computation times grow as:
 - \bigcirc O(MN) for unweighted graphs, and
 - 2 $O(MN + N^2 loq N)$ for weighted graphs.



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Shortest path between node i and all others [Dod09]

- Consider unweighted networks.
- Use breadth-first search:
 - **1** Start at node i, giving it a distance d = 0 from itself.
 - 2 Create a list of all of i's neighbors and label them being at a distance d=1.
 - Go through list of most recently visited nodes and find all of their neighbors.
 - Exclude any nodes already assigned a distance.
 - Increment distance d by 1.
 - **1** Label newly reached nodes as being at distance d.
 - Repeat steps 3 through 6 until all nodes are visited.
- Record which nodes link to which nodes moving out from i (former are 'predecessors' with respect to i's shortest path structure).
- Runs in O(M) time and gives N shortest paths.
- Find all shortest paths in O(MN) time
- Much, much better than naive estimate of $O(MN_{-}^{2})$.



Newman's Betweenness algorithm [New01, Dod09]

- **①** Set all nodes to have a value $c_{ij} = 0, j = 1, ..., N$ (c for count).
- Select one node i.
- ullet Find shortest paths to all other N-1 nodes using breadth-first search.
- Record # equal shortest paths reaching each node.
- lacktriangledown Move through nodes according to their distance from i, starting with the furthest.
- **1** Travel back towards i from each starting node j, along shortest path(s), adding 1 to every value of c_{ik} at each node k along the way.
- Whenever more than one possibility exists, a portion according to total number of short paths coming through predecessors.
- **3** Exclude starting node j and i from increment.
- **②** Repeat steps 2-8 for every node i and obtain **betweenness** as $B_i = \sum_{i=1}^N c_{ij}$

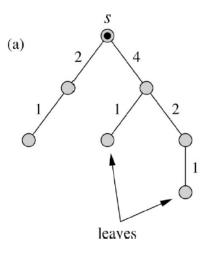


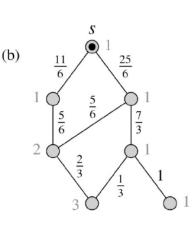
- For a pure tree network, c_{ij} is the number of nodes beyond j from i's vantage point.
- For edge betweenness, use exact same algorithm but now
 - 1 indexes edges, and
 - 2 we add one to each edge as we traverse it.
- For both algorithms, computation time grows as O(MN) and space for O(N+M) integers (N nodes, M arcs).
- Both bounds infeasible for large networks, where typically $N \approx 10^9$ and $M \approx 10^{11}$.
- For sparse networks with relatively small average degree, we have a fairly digestible time growth of $O(N^2)$.



[New01, Dod09]

Newman's Betweenness - examples









Outline

- - Linear Algebra Reminder
 - Network Matrices

- Centrality Measures
 - Path Based Centralities
 - Spectral Centralities
 - Example





Important nodes have important friends [Dod09, New10]

- Define x_i as the "importance" of node i.
- *Idea*: x_i depends (somehow) on x_j if j is a neighbor of i.
- Recursive: importance is transmitted through a network.
- Simplest possibility is a linear combination:

$$x_i \propto \sum_j A_{ij} x_j$$

- Assume further that constant of proportionality, c_i is independent of i.
- Above gives $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = c\mathbf{A}\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$ or $|\mathbf{A}\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = c^{-1}\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = \lambda\tilde{\mathbf{x}}|$.
- Eigenvalue equation based on adjacency matrix:
 - The greatest eigenvalue and its related eigenvector fulfills only the additional requirement that all the entries in the eigenvector be positive (Perron-Frobenius theorem).
- **Eigenvalue centrality** of the vertex v in the network \ldots The v^{th} component of the related eigenvector



- An initial guess about the centrality x_i of each vertex i.
 - e.g. $x_i = 1$ for all i
- One step to calculate a better estimate x_i'

$$x_i' = \sum_j A_{ij} x_j$$
 i.e. $\mathbf{x}' = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$

- Repeat t times: $\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{A}^t \mathbf{x}(0)$
- Express $\mathbf{x}(0)$ as a linear combination of the eigenvectors v_i of \mathbf{A} : $\mathbf{x}(0) = \sum_{i} c_i \mathbf{v}_i$.

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{A}^t \sum_i c_i \mathbf{v}_i = \sum_i c_i \mathbf{A}^t \mathbf{v}_i = \sum_i c_i \kappa_i^t \mathbf{v}_i = \kappa_1^t \sum_i c_i \left[\frac{\kappa_i}{\kappa_1}\right]^t \mathbf{v}_i$$

- κ_i are the eigenvalues of **A**, κ_1 is the largest of them.
- Since $\kappa_i/\kappa_1 < 1$ for all $i \neq 1$, all terms in the sum other then the first decay exponentially as t becomes large: $\mathbf{x}(t) \to c_1 \kappa_1 \mathbf{v}_1$ as $t \to \infty$.

Eigenvalue Centrality - Properties [New10]

• Eigenvalue centrality by Bonacich in 1987

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \kappa_1 \mathbf{x} \qquad \qquad x_i = \kappa_1^{-1} \sum_j A_{ij} x_j$$

- The centrality x_i of vertex i is proportional to the sum of the centralities of i's neighbors:
 - a vertex has many neighbors,
 - a vertex has important neighbors.
- The eigenvector centralities of all vertices are non-negative.
 - If $x_i(0) \geq 0$ and $A_{ij} \geq 0$ then $x_i(t) \geq 0$.
- Eigenvector centrality works well for undirected networks.
- Issues with directed networks
 - Asymmetric adjacency matrix has two sets of eigenvectors, left and right, i.e hence two leading eigenvectors.
 - In most cases the right eigenvector should be used
 - to prefer the case in which centralities are driven by vertices pointing to a given vertex (and not to which vertices the given vertex points to)
 - Zero x_i are propagated as zero \implies strong components taken only.

Radek Mařík (radek.marik@fel.cvut.cz)

Katz Centrality [Kat53]

ullet To resolve the issue with zero eigenvalue centralities x_i

Katz Centrality

Proposed by Katz in 1953

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathsf{Katz}} = \alpha \mathbf{A} + \alpha^2 \mathbf{A}^2 + \dots + \alpha^k \mathbf{A}^k + \dots$$
 (9)

$$\mathbf{C}_{\mathsf{Katz}}(i) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha^{k} [\mathbf{A}^{k}]_{ij}$$
(10)

- $C_{Katz}(i)$ denotes Katz centrality of a node i.
- ullet The attenuation factor lpha . . . discounted paths (walks)
- A link in the distance k is attenuated by α^k .
- If $\alpha < 1/|\kappa_1|$, where κ_1 is the largest eigenvalue of **A**, then

$$\vec{\mathbf{c}}_{\mathsf{Katz}} = ((\mathbf{I} - \alpha \mathbf{A}^T)^{-1} - \mathbf{I})\mathbf{1}$$

Alpha Centrality [BL01, New10]

- Proposed by Bonacich in 2001 [BL01]
- A generalization of Katz centrality

$$x_i = \alpha \sum_j A_{ij} x_j + \beta$$
 $\mathbf{x} = \alpha \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{1}$

where α and β are positive constants.

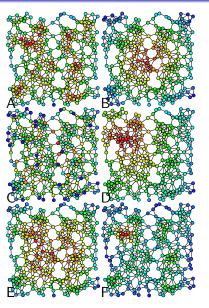
- \bullet Each vertex has a non-zero positive centrality because of small $\beta>0$
- Rearranging for x

$$\mathbf{x} = \beta (\mathbf{I} - \alpha \mathbf{A})^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{1} = (\mathbf{I} - \alpha \mathbf{A})^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{1}$$

- using $\beta = 1$ to care about relative values of centralities only.
- $\mathbf{C}_{\mathsf{Alpha}} = \alpha^0 \mathbf{A}^0 + \mathbf{C}_{\mathsf{Katz}} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{C}_{\mathsf{Katz}}$
- ullet Choice of a value of lpha
 - If $\alpha \to 0$, then all $x_i \to \beta = 1$
 - If $\alpha \to 1/\kappa_1$, then a divergence ... $\det(\mathbf{A} \alpha^{-1}\mathbf{I}) = 0$



Centrality Measures - Importance of Nodes



- Low \rightarrow middle \rightarrow high values
- A Degree centrality,
 - Node Activity
- B Closeness centrality,
 - Distance to other nodes
- C Betweenness centrality,
 - Intermediate Position
- D Eigenvector centrality,
 - Important nodes have important friends
- E Katz centrality,
 - The relative influence of a node within a network
- F Alpha centrality
 - Important nodes have important friends for asymmetric relations





PageRank [BP98, BP12, New10]

- In some case, a high-centrality vertex should not distribute its centrality to other vertexes fully,
 - e.g. Yahoo! referencing a personal page.
- The centrality of a given vertex is distributed to its neighbors as an amount proportional to its centrality divided by its out-degree.

$$x_i = \alpha \sum_j A_{ij} \frac{x_j}{k_j^{\text{out}}} + \beta$$
 $\mathbf{x} = \alpha \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{1}$

- If $k_i^{\text{out}} = 0$, then $A_{ij} = 0$ for all i.
- In such cases, we set artificially $k_j^{\rm out}=1$ to avoid the problem with the term when zero is divided by zero. The result is a zero centrality contribution.
- ${\bf D}$ is the diagonal matrix with elements $D_{ii} = \max(k_j^{\sf out},1)$
- ullet By rearranging and setting eta=1, and $lpha<1/|\kappa_1|$, $\kappa_1=\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A})$

$$\mathbf{x} = \beta (\mathbf{I} - \alpha \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}^{-1})^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{1} = \mathbf{D} (\mathbf{D} - \alpha \mathbf{A})^{-1} \cdot \mathbf{1}$$



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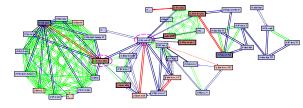


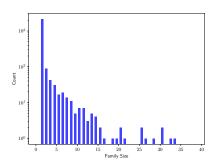


Egypt Data - Family Formation [?]

Ny-wśr-R ^c	0.647
<i>Ḥ</i> ^ϵ -mrr-nbty	0.424
Nwb-ib-nbty	0.351
Ś ^c nḫ-wỉ-Ptḥ	0.290
R⁻-ḫw.f I	0.180
R ^c -nfr.f	0.139
зḫty-ḥtp ʾIII	0.139
Ptḥ-špśś	0.082
Pḥ-r-nfr III	0.048
<i>Šrt-nbty</i> I	0.048

People with the top 10 highest betweenness





Extended family size distribution



Summary

- Linear algebra remainder
- Network matrices
- Centrality Measures
 - Path based centralities
 - Spectral centralities





Competencies

- Define adjacency matrix, cocitation matrix, and bibliographic coupling
- Define bi-adjacency matrix, incidence matrxi, edge incidence matrix
- Define one-mode projection and its relation to bi-adjacency matrix.
- Show how to compute degree of vertex, the number of edges, the mean degree, and graph density based on the adjacency matrix for undirected and directed graphs.
- Show how to compute number of paths and cycles based on the adjacency matrix.
- Define degree centrality.
- Define closenes centrality.
- Define betweenness centrality.
- Describe an algorithm for betweenness centrality computation.
- Define eigenvalue centrality.
- Define Katz centrality.
- Define PageRank index.



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