Network Science (VU) (706.703)

Mathematics of Networks

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October 5, 2017

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Outline

1 Introduction

- 2 Representation of Networks
- Oirected Networks
- 4 Bipartite Networks
- 5 Degree

6 Paths



8 The Graph Laplacian

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Introduction

- Mathematics of networks: graph theory
- Graph theory is a huge field with many results
- We focus on results that are important for study of real-world networks
- The slides and course structure is based on Networks: An Introduction by Mark Newman
- More on graph theory in e.g. Graph Theory by Harary or Introduction to Graph Theory by West

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Networks

- A network is a collection of nodes connected by links
- Internet: nodes are computers and links are cables
- WWW: nodes are Web pages and links are hyperlinks
- Citation network: nodes are articles and links are citations
- Social networks: nodes are people and links are friendships
- Food web: nodes are species and links are predations

Networks

- The number of nodes in a network is denoted by *n* and the number od links by *m*
- In most cases there is at most a single link between two nodes
- In rare cases there might be multiple links (*multilinks*) between two nodes
- Links that connect a node to itself are called *self-links*
- A network that has neither multilinks nor self-links is called *simple network*
- A network with multilinks is called *multinetwork*

Simple networks



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Multinetworks with self-links



Figure: A simple graph with multilinks and self-links

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Link lists

- There are number of ways to represent networks mathematically
- Consider a network with *n* nodes and let us label the nodes with integers 1...*n*
- We denote a link between nodes i and j by (i, j)
- The complete network can be specified by *n* and list of links

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The link list



(1,2), (1,5), (2,3), (2,4), (3,4), (3,5)

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Link lists

- Link lists are typically used to store the network structure on computers
- SNAP library that we use in this course stores networks using link lists
- For mathematical purposes this representation is cumbersome
- We use the *adjacency matrix*

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Definition

The adjacency matrix \mathbf{A} of a simple graph is the matrix with elements A_{ij} such that

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if there is a link between nodes } i \text{ and } j, \\ 0 \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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- For a network with no self-links the diagonal elements are all equal to zero
- The matrix is symmetric because if there is a link between *i* and *j* then there is also a link between *j* and *i*
- This holds for undirected links only
- We can use the adjacency matrix also for multinetworks and also for self-links
- E.g. for a triple link between *i* and *j* we set $A_{ij} = 3$
- For a self-link we set $A_{ii} = 2$ since each link has two ends



$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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- Sometimes it is useful to represent links as having a strength or weight
- Internet: link weights might represent the data flow
- Social network: link value might represent the frequency of contact
- Information network: link value might represent the number of clicks on that link
- Weighted networks are also represented by the adjacency matrix

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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 1.5 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 8 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 2 & 8 & 0 & 0 \\ 1.5 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 1.5 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 8 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 2 & 8 & 0 & 0 \\ 1.5 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 4 & 0 & 0 & 1.5 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 8 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 2 & 8 & 0 & 0 \\ 1.5 & 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
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- In a directed network each link has a direction
- Each links points from one node to another
- Web: hyperlinks point from one page to another
- Citation networks: citations point from one article to another
- Directed networks are also represented by the adjacency matrix

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Figure: A directed network

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Definition

The adjacency matrix ${\bf A}$ of a directed networks is the matrix with elements A_{ij} such that

$$A_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if there is a link from } j \text{ to } i, \\ 0 \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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- For the purpose of analysis it is sometimes useful to turn a directed network into a undirected one
- Some analytic techniques exist only for undirected networks
- One possibility is to ignore link directions completely
- We lose important information
- Better: cocitation and bibliographic coupling

- The *cocitation* of two nodes *i* and *j* in a directed network is the number of nodes that point to both *i* and *j*
- The number of papers that cite both *i* and *j* papers
- $A_{ik}A_{jk} = 1$ if *i* and *j* are both cited by *k* and zero otherwise

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Figure: Cocitation: Nodes i and j are cited by three common papers, so their cocitation is 3.

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Definition

The cocitation C_{ij} of i and j is

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

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{T}$$
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- C is a $n \times n$ matrix
- It is symmetric since $\mathbf{C}^T = \left(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T\right)^T = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^T = C$
- \bullet We define $cocitation \ network$ in which there is a link if $C_{ij}>0$ for $i\neq j$

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- We can also make the cocitation network a weighted network with weights corresponding to C_{ij}
- Node pairs cited by more common papers have a stronger connection than those cited by fewer
- Higher cocitaiton is an indication that they deal with a similar topic
- The cocitation matrix is symmetric thus the cocitation network is undirected

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The diagonal elements: total number of papers citing i

$$C_{ii} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}$$
(11)

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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(12)
$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
(13)

Cocitation



$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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- The *bibliographic coupling* of two nodes *i* and *j* in a directed network is the number of other nodes to which both *i* and *j* point
- 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

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Figure: Bibliographic coupling: Nodes i and j cite three of the same papers, so their bibliographic coupling is 3.

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Definition

The bibliographic coupling B_{ij} of i and j is

$$B_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ki} A_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik}^{T} A_{kj}$$
(15)
$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{A}$$
(16)

- **B** is a *n* × *n* matrix
- It is symmetric since $\mathbf{B}^T = \left(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}\right)^T = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = B$
- We define *bibliographic coupling network* in which there is a link if $B_{ij} > 0$ for $i \neq j$

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- Again, we can make the bibliographic coupling network a weighted network with weights corresponding to *B_{ij}*
- Node pairs that cite both more common papers have a stronger connection than those citing fewer common papers
- Higher bibliographic coupling is an indication that they deal with a similar subject matter
- The bibliographic coupling matrix is symmetric thus the bibliographic coupling network is undirected

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Bibliographic coupling

The diagonal elements: the number of papers i cites

$$B_{ii} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ki}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ki}$$
(17)

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Bibliographic coupling

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
(18)
$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
(19)

Bibliographic coupling



$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Cocitation/Bibliographic coupling







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Cocitation vs. bibliographic coupling

- Mathematically similar measures but give different results
- Strong cocitation: both nodes are pointed to by **many** of the same nodes
- Both nodes have to have a lot of incoming links in the first place
- Both papers have to be well cited: influential papers such as surveys, review articles, and so on

Cocitation vs. bibliographic coupling

- Strong bibliographic coupling: both papers cite many other papers
- They have large bibliographies
- The sizes of bibliographies vary less than the number of citations
- Bibliographic coupling is a more uniform indicator of paper similarity

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Cocitation vs. bibliographic coupling

- Bibliographic coupling can be computed as soon as the paper is published
- Citation can be computed only after the paper has been cited
- Cocitation changes over the time
- That is the reason why bibliographic coupling is typically used as a similarity metric for papers in digital libraries
- This discussion points out the differences between incoming and outgoing links in a directed network (cf. PageRank, HITS, ...)

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Bipartite networks

- Another way to represent group memberships is by means of a *bipartite network*
- Two-mode networks in sociology
- In such networks we have two types of nodes
- One type represents the original nodes
- The other type represents the groups to which the original nodes belong (actors-movies, authors-papers, ...)
- The links can connect only nodes of different types

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Bipartite networks



Figure: A bipartite network

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The incidence matrix

Definition

If *n* is the number of nodes and *g* is the number of groups, then the incidence matrix **B** is a $g \times n$ matrix with elements B_{ij} such that

$$B_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if node } j \text{ belongs to group } i, \\ 0 \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
(21)

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The incidence matrix



$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
(22)

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One-mode projections

- Sometimes we want to work with direct connections between nodes of the same type
- We infer such connections from the bipartite network by creating a *one-mode projection*
- E.g. for the actor-movie network we create a one-mode projection onto actors
- Two actors are connected if they appeared in a movie together
- In the projection on the movies, two movies are connected if they share a common actor

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One-mode projections



Figure: One-mode projections of a bipartite network

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Image: A matrix

One-mode projections

- One-mode projections constructed in this way are useful but a lot of information is lost
- E.g. if actors are connected that means that they acted together in a movie but we do not know in how many movies
- We can capture this information by making the one-mode projections weighted
- Mathematically, we can write the projection in the terms of the incidence matrix
- $B_{ki}B_{kj} = 1$ iff *i* and *j* belong to the same group *k*

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Projection on nodes

Definition

The total number P_{ij} of groups to which both i and j belong is

$$P_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{g} B_{ki} B_{kj} = \sum_{k=1}^{g} B_{ik}^{T} B_{kj}$$
(23)
$$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{B}^{T} \mathbf{B}$$
(24)

Projection on nodes

The diagonal elements: the number of groups to which *i* belongs

$$P_{ii} = \sum_{k=1}^{g} B_{ki}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{g} B_{ki}$$
(25)

• P is similar to the bibliographic coupling matrix. We can turn it into the adjacency matrix of a weighted network by setting the diagonal elements to zero

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Projection on nodes



$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 & 4 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Projection on groups

Definition

The number P'_{ij} of common members of groups i and j is

$$P'_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} B_{ik} B_{jk} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} B_{ik} B_{kj}^{T}$$

$$\mathbf{P}' = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{B}^{T}$$
(27)
(28)

Projection on groups

The diagonal elements: the number of members in group i

$$P'_{ii} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} B_{ik}^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{n} B_{ik}$$
(29)

• P is similar to the cocitation matrix. We can turn it into the adjacency matrix of a weighted network by setting the diagonal elements to zero

Projection on groups



$$\mathbf{P}' = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 2 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 4 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

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- The degree of a node is the number of links connected to it
- We denote the degree of node i by k_i

The degree in terms of the adjacency matrix (undirected networks)

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

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- Every link has two ends, hence there are 2*m* link ends in an undirected network
- The number of link ends is equal to the sum of the degrees of all the nodes

The degrees and the number of links $2m = \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_i \qquad (32)$ $m = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_i = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij} A_{ij} \qquad (33)$

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Mean degree

The mean degree c in an undirected graph $c = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_i \qquad (34)$ $c = \frac{2m}{n} \qquad (35)$

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Network density

• The maximum number of links in a simple network is equal to the number of possible combinations of node pairs: $\binom{n}{2} = \frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$

Density is the fraction of links that actually exist

$$\rho = \frac{m}{\binom{n}{2}} = \frac{2m}{n(n-1)} = \frac{c}{n-1}$$
(36)

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Network density

- The density lies in the range $0 \leq \rho \ \leq 1$
- What is the behavior of ρ as $n \to \infty$
- If ρ tends to a constant as n → ∞ the network is said to be *dense*. The fraction of non-zero elements in the adjacency matrix remains constant as the network gets larger.

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Network density

- If ρ → 0 as n → ∞ the network is said to be sparse. The fraction of non-zero elements in the adjacency matrix also tends to zero.
- In particular, a network is *sparse* if the mean degree *c* tends to constant as *n* becomes larger.
- Almost all empirical networks we are interested in are sparse: the Web, Wikipedia, social networks, ...
- This has some important consequences when we design network algorithms

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- In directed networks we have in-degree and out-degree
- In-degree is the number of ingoing links and out-degree is the number of outgoing links



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Mean degree

The mean degree c in a directed graph

$$m = \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i}^{in} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} k_{j}^{out} = \sum_{ij} A_{ij}$$
(39)
$$c_{in} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} k_{i}^{in} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} k_{j}^{out} = c_{out}$$
(40)
$$c = \frac{m}{n}$$
(41)

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Paths

- A *path* in a network is a sequence of nodes such that that each consecutive pair of nodes is connected by a link
- A path is a route between two nodes across a network
- In directed networks each link is traversed in the link direction
- A path can intersect itself, e.g. a node can be visited more than once, or a link can be traversed more than once
- If the path does not intersect itself it is called a self-avoiding path
- The *length* of a path is the number of links traversed along that path

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Paths

Paths



Figure: A path of length three in a network

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Number of paths

- A_{ij} is 1 if there is a link from j to i, and 0 otherwise
- $A_{ik}A_{kj}$ is 1 if there is a path of length 2 from j to i via k

The total number $N_{ij}^{(2)}$ of paths of length 2 from j to i

$$N_{ij}^{(2)} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik} A_{kj} = \left[\mathbf{A}^{2}\right]_{ij}$$
(42)

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• [...]_{ii} denotes the *ij*th element of the matrix

Number of paths

• $A_{ik}A_{kl}A_{lj}$ is 1 if there is a path of length 3 from j to i via l and k

The total number $N_{ii}^{(3)}$ of paths of length 3 from j to i

$$N_{ij}^{(3)} = \sum_{k,l=1}^{n} A_{ik} A_{kl} A_{lj} = \left[\mathbf{A}^{3}\right]_{ij}$$
(43)

Number of paths

• WE can generalize to the paths of arbitrary length r

The total number $N_{ij}^{(r)}$ of paths of length r from j to i $N_{ij}^{(r)} = [\mathbf{A}^r]_{ij}$ (44)

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Number of cycles

- Paths that start and end at *i* are cycles in a network
- The number of cycles of length r is $[\mathbf{A}^r]_{ii}$

The total number L_r of cycles of length r in a network

$$L_r = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\mathbf{A}^r \right]_{ii} = \mathsf{Tr}\mathbf{A}^r \tag{45}$$

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 Tr is a trace of a matrix, i.e. the sum of elements on the main diagonal

Number of cycles

- We can express the last equation in terms of the eigenvalues of the adjacency matrix
- For undirected graphs the adjacency matrix is symmetric
- The adjacency matrix has n real eigenvalues
- The eigenvectors have real elements
- The adjacency matrix can be written in form $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{K}\mathbf{U}^T$
- U is the orthogonal matrix of eigenvectors and K is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues

Number of cycles

• Then
$$\mathbf{A}^r = (\mathbf{U}\mathbf{K}\mathbf{U}^T)^r = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{K}^r\mathbf{U}^T$$

• Since
$$\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{I}$$
 because $\mathbf{U}^T = \mathbf{U}^{-1}$

The total number L_r of cycles of length r in a network

$$L_r = \operatorname{Tr} \left(\mathbf{U} \mathbf{K}^r \mathbf{U}^T \right) = \operatorname{Tr} \left(\mathbf{U} \mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{K}^r \right) = \operatorname{Tr} \mathbf{K}^r = \sum_i \kappa_i^r$$
(46)

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Number of cycles

- The last follows since trace of a matrix is invariant under cyclic permutations
- κ_i is the *i*th eigenvalue of the adjacency matrix
- Same equation holds for directed networks, although the proof is a bit more complicated
- Although some eigenvalues might be complex they always come in complex-conjugate pairs: $det(\kappa I A)$
- Each term is complemented by another that is its complex conjugate and thus the sum is always real

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Geodesic paths

- A *geodesic path* or a *shortest path* is a path between two nodes such that no shorter path exists
- It is possible that there is no shortest path between two nodes if they are not connected
- By convention we say that the distance between those two nodes is infinite

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Paths

Geodesic paths



Figure: A geodesic (shortest) path of length two between two nodes

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Image: A match a ma

Geodesic paths

- Geodesic paths are self-avoiding paths
- There may be more than one geodesic path in a network
- Teh *diameter* of a network is a length of the longest shortest path in that network

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Image: A match a ma

Components

- Sometimes there is no path between two nodes
- A network might be divided into two or more node subgroups with no connection between the groups
- If there exist a node pair with no path between them the network is *disconnected*
- If there is a path from every node to every other node then the network is *connected*
- The subgroups in a network are called components
- A single node with no links is also a component of size 1 and a connected network has a single component

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Components



Figure: A network with two components

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Components

• With a proper labeling we can write the adjacency matrix in the following form



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- Now we take into account the direction of links
- E.g. each hyperlink on the Web is a directed link
- If we ignore directions we have the undirected case and speak about weakly connected components
- Sometimes, we have a directed path from A to B, but no such path from B to A



Figure: Components in a directed network

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- If both paths exist then A and B are strongly connected
- Subsets of nodes that are strongly connected are called *strongly connected components*
- A single node with constitutes a strongly connected component of size 1
- Every node in a strongly connected component must belong to at least one cycle
- Every strongly connected component in a directed acyclic networks has only a single node

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- Sometimes we are interested in other kinds of components (e.g. which Web pages can I reach from a given Web page)
- *Out-component* is the set of nodes that reachable via directed paths from a specified node A, and including A itself
- Links from external nodes (such that are not in an out-component) only point inward towards the members of the component

- Out-component is a property of the network structure and a starting node
- Out-components of all members of a strongly connected component are identical (since all members of a strongly connected component are mutually reachable)
- Thus, out-components belong to strongly connected components

- Similarly, *in-component* is the set of nodes (including A) from which via directed paths a specified node A can be reached
- Links to external nodes (such that are not in an in-component) only point outward from the members of the component
- In-component is a property of the network structure and a starting node

- In-components of all members of a strongly connected component are identical (since all members of a strongly connected component are mutually reachable)
- Therefore, in-components belong to strongly connected components
- A strongly connected component is the intersection of its in- and out-components



Figure: In- and out-components in a directed network

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- The adjacency matrix captures the whole structure of a network
- There is another matrix, closely related to the adjacency matrix
- However, it differs in some important aspects which can provide some additional information about the network structure
- This is the graph Laplacian

Definition

The degree matrix \mathbf{D} of a simple undirected graph is the diagonal matrix with the node degrees along its diagonal:

$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{pmatrix} k_1 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & k_2 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & k_3 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$
(48)

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Definition

The graph Laplacian L of a simple undirected graph is defined as:

$$L = D - A$$

Denis Helic (ISDS, TU Graz)

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Definition

The graph Laplacian ${\bf L}$ of a simple undirected graph is the matrix with elements L_{ij} such that

$$L_{ij} = \begin{cases} k_i \text{ if } i = j \\ -1 \text{ if there is a link between nodes } i \text{ and } j \text{ and } i \neq j \end{cases}$$
(50)
0 otherwise.

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- Alternatively, we can write
- δ_{ij} is the Kronecker delta, which is 1 for i = j and 0 otherwise

$$L_{ij} = \delta_{ij}k_i - A_{ij} \tag{51}$$

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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Figure: D = diag(sum(A))

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- The eigenvalues of the graph Laplacian are its most interesting property
- The Laplacian is a symmetric matrix \rightarrow it has real eigenvalues
- We can even show that all of its eigenvalues are non-negative
- \bullet Also, we can show that its smallest eigenvalue $\lambda_1=0$

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Definition

The link incidence matrix **B** of a simple undirected graph with *n* nodes and *m* links is an $m \times n$ matrix with elements B_{ij} such that

$$B_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if end } 1 \text{ of link } i \text{ is attached to node } j \\ -1 \text{ if end } 2 \text{ of link } i \text{ is attached to node } j \\ 0 \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- We designate for each link one end as end 1 and other as end 2
- Each row of the link incidence matrix has exactly one 1 and one -1

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• What is the value of $B_{ki}B_{kj}$ for $i \neq j$

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- What is the value of $B_{ki}B_{kj}$ for $i \neq j$
- If link k connects i and j then the product has value −1, otherwise it is 0
- What is the value of $\sum\limits_k B_{ki}B_{kj}$ for $i\neq j$

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- What is the value of $B_{ki}B_{kj}$ for $i \neq j$
- If link k connects i and j then the product has value −1, otherwise it is 0
- What is the value of $\sum_{k} B_{ki} B_{kj}$ for $i \neq j$
- In a simple graph there is at most one link connecting *i* and *j*
- If there is a link between i and j the sum is -1, otherwise it is 0

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• What is the value of B_{ki}^2 for i = j

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- What is the value of B_{ki}^2 for i = j
- If link k connects to i the product has value 1, otherwise it is 0
- What is the value of $\sum_{k} B_{ki}^2$ for i = j

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- What is the value of B_{ki}^2 for i = j
- If link k connects to i the product has value 1, otherwise it is 0
- What is the value of $\sum_{k} B_{ki}^2$ for i = j
- It is equal to the degree k_i of node i

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- Thus, $\sum_{k} B_{ki} B_{kj} = L_{ij}$
- The diagonal elements L_{ii} are equal to the degrees k_i
- The off-diagonal elements are -1 if there is a link between i and j

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{B} \tag{56}$$

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• Let \mathbf{v}_i be an eigenvector of \mathbf{L} with eigenvalue λ_i , then $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i$

$$\mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{B} \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{L} \mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i \mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{v}_i = \lambda_i$$
(57)

 ${\ensuremath{\, \bullet \, }}$ We assume that ${\ensuremath{\mathbf v}}_i$ is normalized, so that its scalar product with itself is 1

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- Any eigenvalue λ_i is equal to the scalar product of $(\mathbf{B}\mathbf{v}_i)$ with itself
- $(\mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{B})(\mathbf{B} \mathbf{v}_i)$
- (**Bv**_{*i*}) is a vector with real elements
- The product is the sum of the squares of real elements
- $\lambda_i \ge 0$, for all i
- In fact, the Laplacian always has at least one zero eigenvalue

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$$\mathbf{L}\begin{pmatrix}1\\\vdots\\1\\\vdots\\\vdots\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\sum_{j}(\delta_{1j}k_{1j} - A_{1j})\\\vdots\\\sum_{j}(\delta_{ij}k_{ij} - A_{ij})\\\vdots\\\vdots\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}k_1 - \sum_{j}A_{1j}\\\vdots\\k_i - \sum_{j}A_{ij}\\\vdots\\\vdots\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}k_1 - k_1\\\vdots\\k_i - k_i\\\vdots\\\vdots\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}0\\\vdots\\0\\\vdots\\\vdots\end{pmatrix} = 0\begin{pmatrix}1\\\vdots\\1\\\vdots\\\vdots\end{pmatrix}$$
(58)

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- The vector 1 is always an eigenvector of L with eigenvalue 0
- There are no negative eigenvalues, thus this is the lowest eigenvalue
- Convention: $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \ldots \leq \lambda_n$
- We always have $\lambda_1 = 0$

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Componenents and the algebraic connectivity

- Suppose we have a network with *c* different components
- The components have sizes n_1, n_2, \dots, n_c



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The Graph Laplacian

Componenents and the algebraic connectivity

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\1\\\vdots\\0\\0\\\vdots \end{pmatrix}$$

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- We have n_1 ones and this is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 0
- We have c such eigenvectors

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Componenents and the algebraic connectivity

- In a network with c components c eigenvalues are equal to 0
- $\bullet\,$ The second eigenvalue λ_2 of the graph Laplacian is non-zero iff the network is connected
- The second eigenvalue of the Laplacian is called algebraic connectivity
- It is a measure of how connected is a network, i.e. how difficult is to divide that network