### DM561 / DM562 Linear Algebra with Applications

## Eigenvalues and Page Rank

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### Outline

1. Least Squares Review

2. Eigenvalue Theory Applications

3. Page Rank Algorithm

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# Linear Regression with One Predictor Variable

- Let  $\{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_m, y_m)\}$  be the set of m data points.
- we fit the model:

$$h(\boldsymbol{\theta}, x) = \theta_1 x + \theta_0 = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \theta_i x^i$$

• we seek the set of coefficients  $\theta_0, \theta_1$  such that

$$y_i = \theta_1 x_i + \theta_0 \qquad \forall j = 1..m$$

These m linear equations yield the linear system

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & 1 \\ x_3 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ x_m & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{b}.$$

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# Polynomial Regression

- Let  $\{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_m, y_m)\}$  be the set of m data points.
- we fit the model:

$$p_n(\boldsymbol{\theta}, x) = \theta_n x^n + \theta_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + \theta_2 x^2 + \theta_1 x + \theta_0 = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \theta_i x^i$$

• we seek the set of coefficients  $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_i, \ldots, \theta_n$  such that

$$y_j = \theta_n x_j^n + \theta_{n-1} x_j^{n-1} + \dots + \theta_2 x_j^2 + \theta_1 x_j + \theta_0 \qquad \forall j = 1..m$$

These m linear equations yield the linear system

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^n & x_1^{n-1} & \cdots & x_1^2 & x_1 & 1 \\ x_2^n & x_2^{n-1} & \cdots & x_2^2 & x_2 & 1 \\ x_3^n & x_3^{n-1} & \cdots & x_3^2 & x_3 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_m^n & x_m^{n-1} & \cdots & x_m^2 & x_m & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \theta_n \\ \theta_{n-1} \\ \vdots \\ \theta_2 \\ \theta_1 \\ \theta_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{b}.$$

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# Multiple Linear Regression

- Let  $\{(x_{11}, x_{21}, \dots, x_{k1}, y_1), \dots, (x_{1m}, x_{2m}, \dots, x_{km}, y_m)\}$  be the set of m data points.
- we fit the model:

$$h(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}) = \theta_k \mathbf{x}_k + \theta_{k-1} \mathbf{x}_{k-1} + \dots + \theta_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \theta_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \theta_0 = \sum_{i=0}^{m} \theta_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

• we seek the set of coefficients  $\{\theta_i\}_{i=0}^n$  such that

$$y_j = \theta_k x_{kj} + \theta_{k-1} x_{k-1,j} + \dots + \theta_2 x_{2j} + \theta_1 x_{1j} + \theta_0 \qquad \forall j = 1..m$$

These m linear equations yield the linear system

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{k1} & x_{k-1,1} & \cdots & x_{21} & x_{11} & 1 \\ x_{k2} & x_{k-1,2} & \cdots & x_{22} & x_{12} & 1 \\ x_{k3} & x_{k-1,3} & \cdots & x_{23} & x_{13} & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{km} & x_{k-1,m} & \cdots & x_{2m} & x_{1m} & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \theta_k \\ \theta_{k-1} \\ \vdots \\ \theta_2 \\ \theta_1 \\ \theta_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{b}.$$

### **Basis Functions**

- $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_m, y_m)\}$  training data
- Model:

$$h(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \mathbf{x}) = \theta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i x_i + \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{s=1}^k \theta_{is} x_i x_s + \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{s=1}^k \sum_{\ell=1}^k \theta_{is\ell} x_i x_s x_\ell = \theta_0 + \sum_{r=1}^p \theta_r \phi_r(x) = \boldsymbol{\theta} \cdot \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$$
Combining several variables with a fixed set of nonlinear functions known as basis functions.

• we seek the set of coefficients  $\{\theta_i\}_{i=0}^n$  such that

$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_{\rho 1}(\mathbf{x}) & \phi_{\rho-1,1}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \phi_{21}(\mathbf{x}) & \phi_{11}(\mathbf{x}) & 1 \\ \phi_{\rho 2}(\mathbf{x}) & \phi_{\rho-1,2}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \phi_{22}(\mathbf{x}) & \phi_{12}(\mathbf{x}) & 1 \\ \phi_{\rho 3}(\mathbf{x}) & \phi_{\rho-1,3}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \phi_{23}(\mathbf{x}) & \phi_{13}(\mathbf{x}) & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \phi_{\rho m}(\mathbf{x}) & \phi_{\rho-1,m}(\mathbf{x}) & \cdots & \phi_{2m}(\mathbf{x}) & \phi_{1m}(\mathbf{x}) & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \theta_{\rho} \\ \theta_{\rho-1} \\ \vdots \\ \theta_{2} \\ \theta_{1} \\ \theta_{0} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} y_{1} \\ y_{2} \\ y_{3} \\ \vdots \\ y_{m} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{b}.$$

# Least Squares Solution via Linear Algebra

- If m > p + 1 these Ax = b systems are overdetermined, requiring a least squares solution.
- We look for a vector  $\hat{\mathbf{z}}$  for which  $A\mathbf{z}$  is closest to  $\mathbf{y}$ , ie,  $\hat{\mathbf{z}} = \operatorname{argmin} \| \mathbf{y} A\mathbf{z} \|$  (training error)
- We need to solve the normal equations:

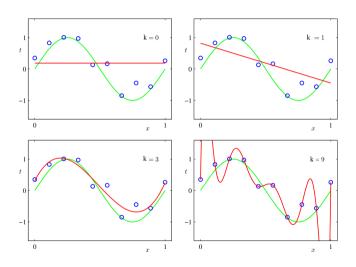
$$A^{\mathsf{T}}A\widehat{\mathbf{z}} = A^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}$$

• using the *QR* decomposition of *A* we can rewrite:

$$R\widehat{\mathbf{z}} = Q^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}$$

hence: QR decomposition + solution of a linear system with upper triangular matrix

## Overfitting



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## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

#### **Definition**

Let A be a square matrix.

• The number  $\lambda$  is said to be an eigenvalue of A if for some non-zero vector  $\mathbf{x}$ ,

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

 Any non-zero vector x for which this equation holds is called eigenvector for eigenvalue λ or eigenvector of A corresponding to eigenvalue λ

## Diagonalization

Recall: Square matrices are similar if there is an invertible matrix P such that  $P^{-1}AP = M$ .

### Definition (Diagonalizable matrix)

The matrix A is diagonalizable if it is similar to a diagonal matrix; that is, if there is a diagonal matrix D and an invertible matrix P such that  $P^{-1}AP = D$ 

### Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -15 \\ 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 3 \\ 2 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P^{-1}AP = D = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

How was such a matrix P found?

When is a matrix diagonalizable?

## **Summary**

- Characteristic polynomial and characteristic equation of a matrix
- eigenvalues, eigenvectors, diagonalization
- finding eigenvalues and eigenvectors
- eigenspace
- diagonalize a diagonalizable matrix
- conditions for digonalizability
- diagonalization as a change of basis, similarity
- geometric effect of linear transformation via diagonalization

# Uses of Diagonalization

- find powers of matrices
- solving systems of simultaneous linear difference equations
- Markov chains
- PageRank algorithm

## **Powers of Matrices**

$$A^n = \underbrace{AAA \cdots A}_{n \text{ times}}$$

If we can write:  $P^{-1}AP = D$  then  $A = PDP^{-1}$ 

$$A^{n} = \underbrace{AAA \cdots A}_{n \text{ times}}$$

$$= \underbrace{(PDP^{-1})(PDP^{-1})(PDP^{-1}) \cdots (PDP^{-1})}_{n \text{ times}}$$

$$= PD(P^{-1}P)D(P^{-1}P)D(P^{-1}P) \cdots DP^{-1}$$

$$= PDDD \cdots DP^{-1}$$

$$= PDDDD \cdots DP^{-1}$$

then closed formula to calculate the power of a matrix.

## Difference equations

• A difference equation is an equation linking terms of a sequence to previous terms, eg:

$$x_{t+1} = 5x_t - 1$$

is a first order difference equation.

- a first order difference equation can be fully determined if we know the first term of the sequence (initial condition)
- a solution is an expression of the terms  $\mathbf{x}_t$

$$x_{t+1} = ax_t \implies x_t = a^t x_0$$

# System of Difference equations

Suppose the sequences  $x_t$  and  $y_t$  are related as follows:

$$x_0 = 1, y_0 = 1 \text{ for } t \ge 0$$
  
 $x_{t+1} = 7x_t - 15y_t$   
 $y_{t+1} = 2x_t - 4y_t$ 

Coupled system of difference equations.

Let

$$\mathbf{x}_t = \begin{bmatrix} x_t \\ y_t \end{bmatrix}$$

Then:

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = A\mathbf{x}_0$$

$$\mathbf{x}_2 = A\mathbf{x}_1 = A(A\mathbf{x}_0) = A^2\mathbf{x}_0$$

$$\mathbf{x}_3 = A\mathbf{x}_2 = A(A^2\mathbf{x}_0) = A^3\mathbf{x}_0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{x}_t = A^t\mathbf{x}_0$$

then  $\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = A\mathbf{x}_t$  and  $\mathbf{x}_0 = [1, 1]^T$  and

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & -15 \\ 2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Power sequence generated by A

### Markov Chains

- Suppose two supermarkets compete for customers in a region with 20000 shoppers.
- Assume no shopper goes to both supermarkets in a week.
- The table gives the probability that a shopper will change from one to another supermarket:

	rrom A	rrom D	From none	
То А	0.70	0.15	0.30	
То В	0.20	0.80	0.20	
To none	0.10	0.05	0.50	
(note that probabilities in the columns add up to 1)				

- (note that probabilities in the columns and up to 1
- Suppose that at the end of week 0 it is known that 10000 went to A, 8000 to B and 2000 to none.
- Can we predict the number of shoppers at each supermarket in any future week *t*? And the long-term distribution?

#### Formulation as a system of difference equations:

- Let  $x_t$  be the percentage of shoppers going in the two supermarkets or none
- then we have the difference equation:

$$\mathbf{x}_t = A\mathbf{x}_{t-1}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.70 & 0.15 & 0.30 \\ 0.20 & 0.80 & 0.20 \\ 0.10 & 0.05 & 0.50 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \mathbf{x}_t = \begin{bmatrix} x_t \\ y_t \\ z_t \end{bmatrix}$$

- a Markov chain (or process) is a closed system of a fixed population distributed into *n* different states, transitioning between the states during specific time intervals.
- The transition probabilities are known in a transition matrix A (coefficients all non-negative + sum of entries in the columns is 1)
- state vector  $\mathbf{x}_t$ , entries sum to 1.

• A solution is given by (assuming A is diagonalizable):

$$\mathbf{x}_t = A^t \mathbf{x}_0 = (PD^t P^{-1}) \mathbf{x}_0$$

• let  $\mathbf{x}_0 = P\mathbf{z}_0$  and  $\mathbf{z}_0 = P^{-1}\mathbf{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \cdots & b_n \end{bmatrix}^T$  be the representation of  $\mathbf{x}_0$  in the basis of eigenvectors, then:

$$\mathbf{x}_t = PD^tP^{-1}\mathbf{x}_0 = b_1\lambda_1^t\mathbf{v}_1 + b_2\lambda_2^t\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + b_n\lambda_n^t\mathbf{v}_n$$

- Th.: if A is the transition matrix of a regular Markov chain, then  $\lambda=1$  is an eigenvalue of multiplicity 1 and all other eigenvalues satisfy  $|\lambda|<1$
- $\mathbf{x}_t = b_1(1)^t \mathbf{v}_1 + b_2(0.6)^t \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + b_n(0.4)^t \mathbf{v}_n$
- $\lim_{t\to\infty} 1^t = 1$ ,  $\lim_{t\to\infty} 0.6^t = 0$  hence the long-term distribution is

$$\mathbf{q} = b_1 \mathbf{v}_1 = 0.125 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.375 \\ 0.500 \\ 0.125 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Theory

#### Definition

A stochastic process is any sequence of experiments for which the outcome at any stage depends on chance. A Markov process is a stochastic process with the following properties:

- 1. The set of possible outcomes or states is finite
- 2. The probability of the next outcome depends only on the previous outcome
- 3. The probabilities are constant over time:

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = A\mathbf{x}_t$$
 A transition matrix

## Theory

#### Definition

If the distinct eigenvalues of a matrix A are  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_k$ , and if  $|\lambda_1|$  is larger than  $|\lambda_2|, \ldots, |\lambda_k|$ , then  $\lambda_1$  is called a dominant eigenvalue of A.

#### **Theorem**

If a Markov chain with an  $n \times n$  transition matrix A converges to a steday state vector  $\mathbf{x}$ , then

Any eigenvector corresponding to a dominant eigenvalue is called a dominat eigenvector of A.

- 1. x is a probability vector
- 2.  $\lambda_1 = 1$  is an eigenvalue of A and x is an eigenvector belonging to  $\lambda_1$

## Theory

#### Theorem (Perron's Theorem)

If A is a positive  $n \times n$  matrix, then A has a positive real eigenvalue r with the following properties:

- 1. r is simple root of the charachteristic equation
- 2. r has a positive eigenvector x
- 3. If  $\lambda$  is any other eigenvealue of A, then  $|\lambda| < r$ .

Special case of a more general theorem due to Frobenius on irreducible nonnegative matrices.

- If A is an  $n \times n$  stochastic matrix, then  $\lambda_1 = 1$  is an eigenvalue of A and the remaining eigenvalues satisfy  $|\lambda_j| \le 1$  for j = 2, ..., n.
- If A is stochastic and all its entries are positive, it follows from Perron's theorem that  $\lambda_1=1$  must be a dominant eigenvalue.
- Hence the Markov chain with transition matrix A converges to a steady state vector for any starting state x<sub>o</sub>

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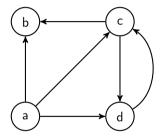
3. Page Rank Algorithm

## Page Rank Algorithm

- The PageRank algorithm is one way of ranking the nodes in a graph by importance
- Brin, S.; Page, L. (1998). "The anatomy of a large-scale hypertextual Web search engine". Computer Networks and ISDN Systems. 30: 107–117.
- Currently, PageRank is not the only algorithm used by Google to order search results, but it is the first algorithm that was used by the company, and it is the best-known.

### The Model

Let's consider a Tiny-Web: nodes are pages and arcs are hyperlinks.



### Adiacency matrix

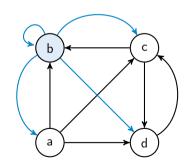
$$A = \begin{array}{c} \mathsf{a} & \mathsf{b} & \mathsf{c} & \mathsf{d} \\ \mathsf{a} & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \mathsf{b} & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ \mathsf{c} & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ \mathsf{d} & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

If *n* users start on random pages in the network and click on a link every 5 minutes, which page in the network will have the most views after an hour?

Which will have the fewest?

### The Model

In nodes with no outgoing link (dangling pages), the surfer would stand. Unrealistic.  $\leadsto$  modify each sink in the graph by adding edges from the sink to every node in the graph (random jumps).



### Adiacency matrix

$$\widetilde{A} = \begin{array}{c} a & b & c & d \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ c & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ d & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array}$$

### The Model

- Let  $x_t(k)$  be the likelihood that a particular internet user is surfing webpage k at time t.
- users reaching i at t+1 are those that in t where in an adjacent node and chose the link to i
- · we assume outgoing links are chosen with equal likelihood
- thus,  $x_{t+1}(i)$  can be computed by counting the number of links pointing to page i, weighted by the total number of outgoing links for each node.

#### Example:

$$x_{t+1}(a) = \frac{1}{3}x_t(b), x_{t+1}(a) = 0x_t(a) + \frac{1}{3}x_t(b) + 0x_t(c) + 0x_t(d),$$
  

$$x_{t+1}(b) = \frac{1}{3}x_t(a) + \frac{1}{2}x_t(c). x_{t+1}(b) = \frac{1}{3}x_t(a) + 0x_t(b) + \frac{1}{2}x_t(c) + 0x_t(d).$$

$$x_{t+1}(i) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \widetilde{A}_{ij} \frac{x_t(j)}{\sum_{k=1}^{n} \widetilde{A}_{kj}}.$$

### A More Realistic Model

Let  $\epsilon \in [0,1]$  be the probability that a user follows one of the outgoing links at step t (damping factor) and  $1-\epsilon$  that he jumps at random.

$$x_{t+1}(i) = \underbrace{\epsilon \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left( \widetilde{A}_{ij} \frac{x_{t}(j)}{\sum_{k=1}^{n} \widetilde{A}_{kj}} \right)}_{\text{User stayed interested and clicked a link on the current page}} + \underbrace{(1 - \epsilon) \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} x_{t}(j)}_{\text{User got bored and chose a random page}}$$

In matrix terms:

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \epsilon \widehat{A} \mathbf{x}_t + (1 - \epsilon) \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_t,$$

where  $\mathbf{x}_t = [x_t(1), x_t(2), \dots, x_t(n)]^\mathsf{T}$ , 1 is a vector of n ones, and  $\widehat{A}$  is the  $n \times n$  matrix with entries

$$\widehat{A}_{ij} = \frac{\widetilde{A}_{ij}}{\sum_{k=1} \widetilde{A}_{kj}}.$$

#### For our example:

$$\widehat{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ 0 & 1/4 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 1/4 & 1/2 & 0 \\ c & 1/3 & 1/4 & 0 & 1 \\ 1/3 & 1/4 & 1/2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{array}{c}
 & a & b & c & d \\
 & 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 \\
 & 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 \\
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$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \left(\epsilon \widehat{A} + (1 - \epsilon) \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathsf{T}}\right) \mathbf{x}_{t}$$

$$\bar{A} = \epsilon \hat{A} + (1 - \epsilon) \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

all terms of  $\bar{A}$  are nonegative and all its columns sum up to 1, ie,  $\bar{A}$  is a positive stochastic matrix

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \bar{A}\mathbf{x}_t$$

is a Markov chain

## Computing the Rankings

• Let's define the page rank of node i as the steady state of the Markov chain:

$$x(i) = \lim_{t \to \infty} x_t(i).$$

• If x exists, then taking the limit as  $t \to \infty$  of both sides of the Markov chain gives the following:

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \mathbf{x}(t+1) = \lim_{t \to \infty} \left[ \epsilon \widehat{A} \mathbf{x}(t) + (1-\epsilon) \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}(t) \right]$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \epsilon \widehat{A} \mathbf{x} + (1-\epsilon) \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}$$

$$\left( I - \epsilon \widehat{A} - (1-\epsilon) \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathsf{T}} \right) \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{1} \text{ since } \sum_{i} x_{t}(i) = 1$$

$$\left( I - \epsilon \widehat{A} \right) \mathbf{x} = \frac{1-\epsilon}{n} \mathbf{1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{ a system of linear equations!}$$

• Alternatively, setting  $\bar{A} = \epsilon \widehat{A} + \frac{1-\epsilon}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathsf{T}}$ 

$$(I - \bar{A}) \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$
$$\bar{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}$$

- x is an eigenvector of  $\bar{A}$  corresponding to the eigenvalue  $\lambda = 1$ .
- since the columns of  $\bar{A}$  sum to 1, and because the entries of  $\bar{A}$  are strictly positive, Perron's theorem guarantees that  $\lambda=1$  is the unique eigenvalue of  $\bar{A}$  of largest magnitude, and that the corresponding eigenvector  $\mathbf{x}$  is unique up to scaling.
- x can be scaled so that each of its entires are positive, meaning  $\mathbf{x}/\|\mathbf{x}\|$  is the desired PageRank vector.

### An Iterative Method

- Solving the system of linear equations above or finding the eigenvalues/eigenvectors is feasible for small networks, but they are not efficient strategies for very large systems.
- Iterative technique (Power Method):
  - 1. Start with t=0 and an initial guess  $\mathbf{x}_0$
  - 2. Compute  $\mathbf{x}_{t+1}$  with

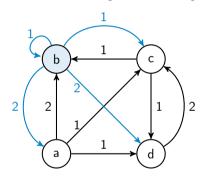
$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \left(\epsilon \widehat{A} + (1 - \epsilon) \frac{1}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathsf{T}}\right) \mathbf{x}_{t}$$

and set  $t \leftarrow t+1$ 

3. if  $\|\mathbf{x}_t - \mathbf{x}_{t-1}\|$  is sufficiently small stop, otherwise got to 2.

# PageRank on Weighted Graphs

If hyperlinks to page a are clicked on more frequently than hyperlinks to page b, the edge from node a should be given more weight than the edge to node b.



$$A = \begin{array}{c|cccc} & a & b & c & d \\ a & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ b & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ c & 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ d & 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 \end{array}$$

The columns of  $\widehat{A}$  still sum to 1. Thus  $\overline{A} = \epsilon \widehat{A} + \frac{1-\epsilon}{n} \mathbf{1} \mathbf{1}^{\mathsf{T}}$  is still positive stochastic, so we can expect a unique  $\mathbf{x}$  to exist.

## Python: Networkx

- It represents graphs internally with dictionaries, thus taking full advantage of the sparsity in a graph.
- The base class for directed graphs is called nx.DiGraph.
- Nodes and edges are usually added or removed incrementally with the following methods.

Method	Description
add_node()	Add a single node.
add_nodes_from()	Add a list of nodes.
add_edge()	Add an edge between two nodes, adding the nodes if needed.
add_edges_from()	Add multiple edges (and corresponding nodes as needed).
remove_edge()	Remove a single edge (no nodes are removed).
remove_edges_from()	Remove multiple edges (no nodes are removed).
remove_node()	Remove a single node and all adjacent edges.
remove_nodes_from()	Remove multiple nodes and all adjacent edges.

## Example

```
>>> import networkx as nx
# Initialize an empty directed graph.
>>> DG = nx.DiGraph()
# Add the directed edges (nodes are added automatically).
>>> DG.add_edge('a', 'b', weight=2) # a --> b (adds nodes a and b)
>>> DG.add_edge('a', 'c', weight=1)  # a --> c (adds node c)
>>> DG.add_edge('a', 'd', weight=1)  # a --> d (adds node d)
>>> DG.add_edge('c', 'b', weight=1) # c --> b
>>> DG.add_edge('c', 'd', weight=2) # c --> d
>>> DG.add_edge('d', 'c', weight=2)
                                     # d --> c
```

### Networkx

- nx.Digrah object can be queried for information about the nodes and edges.
- Dictionary-like indexing to access node and edge attributes, such as the weight of an edge.

Method	Description
has_node(A)	Return $True$ if $A$ is a node in the graph.
has_edge(A,B)	Return True if there is an edge from A to B.
edges()	Iterate through the edges.
nodes()	Iterate through the nodes.
<pre>number_of_nodes()</pre>	Return the number of nodes.
<pre>number_of_edges()</pre>	Return the number of edges.

## Example

```
# Check the nodes and edges.
>>> DG.has_node('a')
True
>>> DG.has_edge('b', 'a')
False
>>> list(DG.nodes())
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd']
>>> list(DG.edges())
[('a', 'b'), ('a', 'c'), ('a', 'd'), ('c', 'b'), ('c', 'd'), ('d', 'c')]
# Change the weight of the edge (a, b) to 3.
>>> DG['a']['b']["weight"] += 1
>>> DG['a']['b']["weight"]
3
```

## PageRank in Networkx

- NetworkX efficiently implements several graph algorithms.
- The function nx.pagerank() computes the PageRank values of each node iteratively with sparse matrix operations.
- This function returns a dictionary mapping nodes to PageRank values

```
# Calculate the PageRank values of the graph.

>>> nx.pagerank(DG, alpha=0.85)  # alpha is the damping factor (epsilon).

{'a': 0.08767781186947843,
  'b': 0.23613138394239835,
  'c': 0.3661321209576019,
  'd': 0.31005868323052127}
```

## **Summary**

1. Least Squares Review

2. Eigenvalue Theory Applications

3. Page Rank Algorithm