Simulate a random walker on the graph represented by the adjacency matrix A.

```
# Random Walker
# Simulates a random walker on the graph
# represented by the adjacency matrix A
# X := graph object returned by ER
# t := maximum time
randomWalker <- function(X, t = 1e4){</pre>
  # A := adjacency matrix
  A <- X$graph
  # p := number of vertices in graph
  p <- X$p
  # randomly choose starting vertex
  v <- sample.int(p, 1)</pre>
  # pi := stationary probability vector
  pi <- rep(0, p)
  \# sum pi_j = 1
  pi[v] <- 1
  for(time in 2:t){
    # randomly choose neighbor of v
    v \leftarrow sample(which(A[,v] == 1), 1)
    # update position of v
    pi[v] \leftarrow (1 + time*pi[v])/(time + 1)
    # update all other positions
    pi[-v] \leftarrow (time*pi[-v])/(time + 1)
    plot(pi, pch = 19, xlim = c(1,p),
         ylim = c(0, 1), xlab = "Vertex ID",
         ylab = "Stationary Probability",
         main = "Random Walker")
    Sys.sleep(0.05)
  # d := degree sequence
  d <- colSums(A)</pre>
  # P := the stochastic matrix which represents
  # the transition probabilities for the random walker
  # compute this stochastic matrix by simply taking the
  # adjacency matrix A that represents the graph G and
  # diving each column by the vertex degree vector d.
  P \leftarrow sweep(A,2,d,"/")
  return(P)
}
```

Why does P represent the correct probability transition matrix?

P is computed by simply taking the adjacency matrix A that represents the graph G and diving each column by the vertex degree vector d.

```
Notice that if

> A

[,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]

[1,] 0 0 1 1 1

[2,] 0 0 0 1 1

[3,] 1 0 0 0 1

[4,] 1 1 0 0 1

[5,] 1 1 1 1 0

then

> P

[,1] [,2] [,3] [,4] [,5]

[1,] 0.0000000 0.0 0.5 0.3333333 0.25

[2,] 0.0000000 0.0 0.0 0.3333333 0.25

[3,] 0.333333 0.0 0.0 0.0000000 0.25

[4,] 0.3333333 0.5 0.0 0.00000000 0.25

[5,] 0.3333333 0.5 0.5 0.5 0.3333333 0.00
```

P is basically a matrix of relative frequencies. If an arbitrary vector v has a degree of d then the probability that the random walker will move from v to any one of it's neighbors is $\frac{1}{d}$ since A represents a simple graph G.

Question 3

Show that the j^{th} element π_i of $\vec{\pi}$ is equal to

$$\pi_j = \frac{d_j}{\sum_{k=1}^p d_k}$$

where d_j is the degree of vertex v_j .

We can represent P as the following matrix where p is the number of vertices in the graph and d_j is the degree of vertex v_j . Additionally, A[i,j] is the entry of the adjacency matrix in the $(i,j)^{th}$ position.

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{A[1,1]}{d_1} & \frac{A[1,2]}{d_2} & \frac{A[1,3]}{d_3} & \cdots & \frac{A[1,p]}{d_p} \\ \frac{A[2,1]}{d_1} & \frac{A[2,2]}{d_2} & \frac{A[2,3]}{d_3} & \cdots & \frac{A[2,p]}{d_p} \\ \frac{A[3,1]}{d_1} & \frac{A[3,2]}{d_2} & \frac{A[3,3]}{d_3} & \cdots & \frac{A[3,p]}{d_p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{A[p,1]}{d_1} & \frac{A[p,2]}{d_2} & \frac{A[p,3]}{d_3} & \cdots & \frac{A[p,p]}{d_p} \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that $\sum_{k=1}^{p} d_k$ is just the total number of degrees. We are given that $P\pi = \pi$. Let P be the matrix described above. Recall that we can write d_j as the sum of the row j of the adjacency matrix A. Then

$$P\pi = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{A[1,1]}{d_1} & \frac{A[1,2]}{d_2} & \frac{A[1,3]}{d_3} & \cdots & \frac{A[1,p]}{d_p} \\ \frac{A[2,1]}{d_1} & \frac{A[2,2]}{d_2} & \frac{A[2,3]}{d_3} & \cdots & \frac{A[2,p]}{d_p} \\ \frac{A[3,1]}{d_1} & \frac{A[3,2]}{d_2} & \frac{A[3,3]}{d_3} & \cdots & \frac{A[3,p]}{d_p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{A[p,1]}{d_1} & \frac{A[p,2]}{d_2} & \frac{A[p,3]}{d_3} & \cdots & \frac{A[p,p]}{d_p} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{d_1}{\sum_{k=1}^p d_k} \\ \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^p d_k} \\ \frac{1}{\sum_{k=1}^p d_k} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{d_p}{\sum_{k=1}^p d_k} \end{bmatrix}$$

I will only demonstrate the first multiplication, it will be similar for the others.

$$\left[\frac{A[1,1]}{d_1} \quad \frac{A[1,2]}{d_2} \quad \cdots \quad \frac{A[1,p]}{d_p} \right] \begin{bmatrix} \frac{d_1}{\sum_{k=1}^p d_k} \\ \frac{\sum_{k=1}^p d_k}{d_2} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{A[1,1]d_1}{d_1 \sum_{k=1}^p d_k} + \frac{A[1,2]d_2}{d_2 \sum_{k=1}^p d_k} + \cdots + \frac{A[1,p]d_p}{d_p \sum_{k=1}^p d_k}$$

$$= \frac{A[1,1]}{\sum_{k=1}^{p} d_k} + \frac{A[1,2]}{\sum_{k=1}^{p} d_k} + \dots + \frac{A[1,p]}{\sum_{k=1}^{p} d_k} = \frac{A[1,1] + A[1,2] + \dots + A[1,p]}{\sum_{k=1}^{p} d_k} = \frac{d_1}{\sum_{k=1}^{p} d_k}$$

For the other rows of π we would calculate them similarly.

I hope now it is obvious that the given vector $\pi = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{d_1}{\sum_{k=1}^p d_k} & \frac{d_2}{\sum_{k=1}^p d_k} & \cdots & \frac{d_p}{\sum_{k=1}^p d_k} \end{bmatrix}^T$ satisfies the equation $P\pi = \pi$.

Therefore
$$\pi_j = \frac{d_j}{\sum_{k=1}^p d_k}$$
 for $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, p\}$.

Show for r = 1, 2, 3 that the $(i, j)^{th}$ entry in A^r is the number of paths from vertex v_i to vertex v_j of length r.

Let r=1. Then since we are not given any special characteristics of A,

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1p} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2p} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots & a_{3p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{p1} & a_{p2} & a_{p3} & \cdots & a_{pp} \end{bmatrix}$$

The number of paths from vertex v_i to vertex v_j of length 1 is trivially equal to a_{ij} since $a_{ij} = 1$ only if vertex v_i to vertex v_j are neighbors, that is, vertex v_i to vertex v_j are connected by an edge.

Let r=2. Then

$$A^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1p} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2p} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots & a_{3p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{p1} & a_{p2} & a_{p3} & \cdots & a_{pp} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \cdots & a_{1p} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \cdots & a_{2p} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & \cdots & a_{3p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{p1} & a_{p2} & a_{p3} & \cdots & a_{pp} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \cdots & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} \\ \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \cdots & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} \\ \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \cdots & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} & \cdots & \sum_{k=1}^{p} a_{ik} a_{kj} \end{bmatrix}$$

where i is the row and j is the column respectively.

Hence the $(i, j)^{th}$ entry in A^2 is equal to $\sum_{k=1}^p a_{ik} a_{kj}$. Recall that a_{ij} is the number of edges between vertex v_i and vertex v_j . That is, a_{ij} is the number of walks of length r=1 between vertex v_i and vertex v_j . Since a walk of length r=2 must be at a vertex k after r-1 steps, $a_{ik}a_{kj}$ is the number of walks of length r=2 between vertex v_i and vertex v_j .

We could easily prove this by induction at this point. For r = 3, this will be very similar to the case above. The abstract matrix multiplication will get to be messy so allow the $(i, j)^{th}$ entry in A^2 to be equal to b_{ij} . Then the $(i, j)^{th}$ entry in A^3 is equal to $\sum_{k=1}^p b_{ik} a_{kj}$ where b_{ij} is equal to the number of walks of length r = 2 between vertex v_i and vertex v_j . Since a walk of length r = 3 must be at a vertex k after r - 1 steps, $b_{ik} a_{kj}$ is the number of walks of length r = 3 between vertex v_i and vertex v_j .

Show that the only solution v^* to the following equation

$$v^* = \lim_{n \to \infty} (\frac{1}{\lambda} A)^n v$$

is when v^* is the dominant eigenvector.

If an $p \times p$ matrix A is diagonalizable, then we can write some vector v^* as a linear combination of the eigenvectors of A. Suppose v_1, v_2, \dots, v_p are p linearly independent eigenvectors of A and $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_p$ are the p corresponding eigenvalues with $\lambda_1 \mid > \mid \lambda_2 \mid \geq \dots \geq \mid \lambda_p \mid$. Then we can write

$$v^* = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_p v_p$$

If we apply A to v^* then since $Av = \lambda v$,

$$Av^* = \alpha_1 A v_1 + \alpha_2 A v_2 + \dots + \alpha_p A v_p$$
$$= \alpha_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \lambda_p v_p$$
$$= \lambda_1 (\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1} v_2 + \dots + \alpha_p \frac{\lambda_p}{\lambda_1} v_p)$$

If we apply the process above indefinitely then

$$A^n v^* = \lambda_1^n (\alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1^n} v_2 + \dots + \alpha_p \frac{\lambda_p}{\lambda_1^n} v_p)$$

Then

$$\frac{A^n v^*}{\lambda_1^n} = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 \frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1^n} v_2 + \dots + \alpha_p \frac{\lambda_p}{\lambda_1^n} v_p$$

Hence as $n \to \infty$, $\frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_1^n} \to 0$ for $i \in \{2, \dots, p\}$.

Then clearly we have that

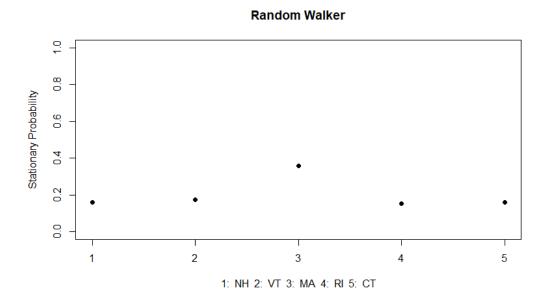
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{A^n v^*}{\lambda_1^n} = \alpha_1 v_1$$

where v_1 is the eigenvector associated with the greatest eigenvalue. Hence, v_1 is the dominant eigenvector.

I used the following data set to construct the weighted adjacency matrix or boundary length between New England states: http://users.econ.umn.edu/~holmes/data/BORDLIST.html Degree centrality:

```
randomWalker <- function(A, t = 1e3){</pre>
  p \leftarrow ncol(A)
  v <- sample.int(p, 1)</pre>
  pi \leftarrow rep(0, p)
  pi[v] <- 1
  for(time in 2:t){
    v \leftarrow sample(which(A[,v] != 0), 1)
    pi[v] \leftarrow (1 + time*pi[v])/(time + 1)
    pi[-v] \leftarrow (time*pi[-v])/(time + 1)
    states <- colnames(A)
    plot(pi, pch = 19, xlim = c(1, p),
          ylim = c(0, 1), xlab = paste("1: ", states[1],
                                          " 2: ", states[2],
                                          " 3: ", states[3],
                                          " 4: ", states[4],
                                          " 5: ", states[5]),
          ylab = "Stationary Probability",
          main = "Random Walker")
    Sys.sleep(0.05)
  }
  d <- colSums(A)
  P \leftarrow sweep(A,2,d,"/")
  return(P)
}
NE.states <- c("NH", "VT", "MA", "RI", "CT")</pre>
border.length <- matrix(c(0, 180, 86.7, 0, 0,
                             180, 0, 40.9, 0, 0,
                             86.7, 40.9, 0, 62.6, 86.5,
                             0, 0, 62.6, 0, 40.3,
                             0, 0, 86.5, 40.3, 0),
                          nrow = 5,
                          ncol = 5,
                           byrow = TRUE)
rownames(border.length) <- NE.states
colnames(border.length) <- NE.states</pre>
randomWalker(border.length)
```

The image below shows MA as the most central state in New England by degree centrality.



Eigenvector centrality:

We compute the dominant eigenvector v of the adjacency matrix and rank the vertices in the graph according to their corresponding values in v with greater values indicating greater centrality.

```
B \leftarrow matrix(c(0, 1, 1, 0, 0,
                1, 0, 1, 0, 0,
                1, 1, 0, 1, 1,
                0, 0, 1, 0, 1,
                0, 0, 1, 1, 0),
             nrow = 5,
             ncol = 5,
             byrow = TRUE)
e <- eigen(B)
vals <- e$values
vecs <- e$vectors</pre>
dom.vec <- vecs[,1]</pre>
dom.vec <- as.matrix(abs(dom.vec))</pre>
rownames(dom.vec) <- NE.states</pre>
dom.vec
The output:
> dom.vec
         [,1]
NH 0.3941027
VT 0.3941027
MA 0.6154122
RI 0.3941027
CT 0.3941027
```

Hence, the ranking is as follows: MA, NH, VT, CT, RI.

Prove that P_{α} is a stochastic matrix, i.e. that the column sums of P_{α} are equal to one.

We have that

$$P_{\alpha} = (1 - \alpha)P + \alpha J$$

where J is the matrix of all ones times the reciprocal of the number of vertices in the graph. Recall how we defined P initially then

$$P_{\alpha} = (1 - \alpha)P + \alpha J$$

$$= (1 - \alpha) \begin{bmatrix} \frac{A[1, 1]}{d_1} & \frac{A[1, 2]}{d_2} & \cdots & \frac{A[1, p]}{d_p} \\ \frac{A[2, 1]}{d_1} & \frac{A[2, 2]}{d_2} & \cdots & \frac{A[2, p]}{d_p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{A[p, 1]}{d_1} & \frac{A[p, 2]}{d_2} & \cdots & \frac{A[p, p]}{d_p} \end{bmatrix} + \alpha \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{p} & \frac{1}{p} & \cdots & \frac{1}{p} \\ \frac{1}{p} & \frac{1}{p} & \cdots & \frac{1}{p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{p} & \frac{1}{p} & \cdots & \frac{1}{p} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{(1 - \alpha)A[1, 1]}{d_1} & \frac{(1 - \alpha)A[1, 2]}{d_2} & \cdots & \frac{(1 - \alpha)A[1, p]}{d_p} \\ \frac{(1 - \alpha)A[2, 1]}{d_1} & \frac{(1 - \alpha)A[2, 2]}{d_2} & \cdots & \frac{(1 - \alpha)A[2, p]}{d_p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{(1 - \alpha)A[p, 1]}{d_1} & \frac{(1 - \alpha)A[p, 2]}{d_2} & \cdots & \frac{(1 - \alpha)A[p, p]}{d_p} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\alpha}{p} & \frac{\alpha}{p} & \cdots & \frac{\alpha}{p} \\ \frac{\alpha}{p} & \frac{\alpha}{p} & \cdots & \frac{\alpha}{p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\alpha}{p} & \frac{\alpha}{p} & \cdots & \frac{\alpha}{p} \end{bmatrix}$$

Please consider just the sum of first column, the rest will follow:

$$= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{(1-\alpha)A[1,1]}{d_1} \\ \frac{(1-\alpha)A[2,1]}{d_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{(1-\alpha)A[p,1]}{d_1} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\alpha}{p} \\ \frac{\alpha}{p} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\alpha}{p} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{(1-\alpha)A[1,1]p + d_1\alpha}{d_1p} \\ \frac{(1-\alpha)A[2,1]p + d_1\alpha}{d_1p} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{(1-\alpha)A[p,1]p + d_1\alpha}{d_1p} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then

$$\frac{(1-\alpha)A[1,1]p+d_1\alpha}{d_1p} + \frac{(1-\alpha)A[2,1]p+d_1\alpha}{d_1p} + \dots + \frac{(1-\alpha)A[p,1]p+d_1\alpha}{d_1p}
= \frac{(1-\alpha)(A[1,1]p+(1-\alpha)A[2,1]p+\dots + (1-\alpha)A[p,1]p) + \alpha p d_1}{d_1p}
= \frac{(1-\alpha)p(A[1,1]+A[2,1]+\dots + A[p,1]) + \alpha p d_1}{d_1p}$$

$$= \frac{(1 - \alpha)pd_1 + \alpha pd_1}{d_1 p} = (1 - \alpha) + \alpha = 1$$

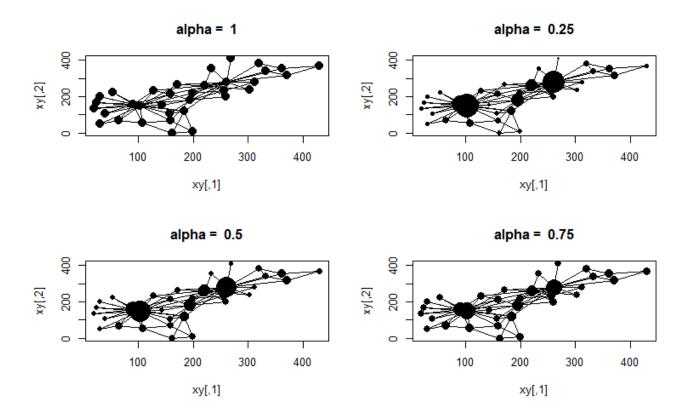
Hence with the other column sums computed similarly to the first column sum, we conclude that P_{α} is a column stochastic matrix.

Now to demonstrate the effect of α on the centrality of vertices in the Karate Club network.

```
# w was given to us,
# it is unimportant for our purposes as to how it was loaded.
W \leftarrow W+t(W)
A < -1*(W>0)
g <- graph.adjacency(A,mode="undirected")</pre>
xy <- tk_coords(tkplot(g))</pre>
RW <- function(A, xy, alpha){
  p \leftarrow ncol(A)
  E \leftarrow matrix(0, sum(A)/2, 2)
  h <- 0
  for(i in 1:(p-1)){
    for(j in (i+1):p){
      if(A[i,j] == 1){
        h <- h+1
        E[h,] \leftarrow c(i, j)
  d <- colSums(A)
  P \leftarrow sweep(A,2,d,"/")
  J \leftarrow matrix(1, nrow = p, ncol = p)
  J <- (1/p)*J
  P.alpha <- (1-alpha)*P + alpha*J
  f <- eigen(P.alpha)
  pi <- abs(f$vectors[,1])</pre>
  plot(xy, cex = 10*pi, pch = 19, main = paste("alpha = ", alpha))
  for (h in 1:nrow(E)) {
    segments(xy[E[h,1], 1],
              xy[E[h,1], 2],
              xy[E[h,2], 1],
              xy[E[h,2], 2])
  }}
```

```
par(mfrow = c(2,2))
RW(A, xy, alpha = 1)
RW(A, xy, alpha = 0.25)
RW(A, xy, alpha = 0.5)
RW(A, xy, alpha = 0.75)
```

Then we have the following plots.



We can see that when $\alpha=1$, the vertices all have the same size. When α is close to 0, the sense is vertices have a greater importance relative to the other members. As $\alpha \to 1$, the importance of the members evens out.