## Math 168 – Intro to Networks

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This is math 168 – Introduction to Networks taught by Professor Chodrow. We meet weekly on MWF from 10:00 am to 10:50 am for lecture. The required textbook for the class is *Networks*  $2^{nd}$  by *Newman*. Other course notes can be found at my blog site. Please let me know through my email if you spot any typos in the note.

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# $\S1$ Lec 1: Mar 28, 2022

## §1.1 Introduction

Some introduction and logistics stuffs of the class. Nothing mathy is discussed in this lecture.

# $\S 2$ Lec 2: Mar 30, 2022

### §2.1 Networks and Matrices

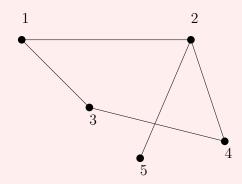
**Definition 2.1** (Graph) — A (simple, undirected) graph is G = (N, E), a node set N and an edge set  $E \subseteq N \times N$  s.t.  $i \neq j \forall (i, j) \in E$ .

**Definition 2.2** (Adjacency Matrix) — The adjacency matrix **A** of a graph G = (N, E) is a matrix in  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  where n = |N| with entries

$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } (i,j) \in E \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### Example 2.3

Consider the following graph



The adjacency matrix is

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

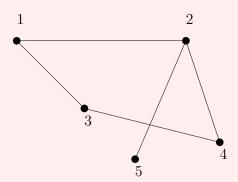
**Definition 2.4** (Walk) — A walk in G = (N, E) is a sequence of edges  $(i_1, j_1), (i_2, j_2), \dots, (i_k, j_k)$  where

$$j_1 = i_2, j_2 = i_3, \dots, j_{k-1} = i_k$$

This is a walk of length k (number of edges) from  $i_1$  to  $j_k$ .

#### Example 2.5

Consider the above example



Walk  $3 \rightarrow 2$  of length

- 1 : ∅
- 2:(3,1),(1,2);(3,4),(4,2)
- 3 : ∅
- 4:(3,1),(1,2),(2,1),(1,2)

Fact 2.1. The ijth entry of **A** counts the number of walks of length 1 from node i to j.

Conjecture 2.1. The *ijth* entry of  $\mathbf{A}^k$  counts the number of walks of length k from i to j.

*Proof.* Suppose inductively that  $W(k) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \mathbf{A}^k$  has entries  $w_{ij}(k)$  counting k-walks from  $i \to j$ . Consider W(k+1) = W(k)A. Its entries are

$$w_{ij}(k+1) = \sum_{l \in N} w_{il}(k)a_{lj}$$

# $\S3$ Lec 3: Apr 1, 2022

## §3.1 Measures and Metrics

A walk of length 2,  $i \leftrightarrow i$ , is the number of edges attached to node  $i \stackrel{\triangle}{=}$  degree of node  $i, k_i$ 

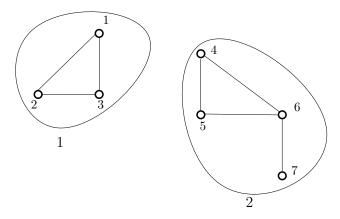
$$k_i = \sum_{j \in N} a_{ij} = \sum_{j \in N} a_{ji} = ii$$
th entry of  $\mathbf{A}^2$ 

**Definition 3.1** (Degree) — The degree  $k_i$  of a node i is the number of edges attached to it

$$k_i = |\{j : (i, j) \in E\}|$$

**Definition 3.2** (Path-connected) — Nodes i and j are path-connected if  $\exists$  a walk  $i \leftrightarrow j$  of any length. The connected component of i is the set of notes to which i is path-connected. G is connected if it has 1 connected component.

Consider a disconnected graph G



Then, the adjacency graph is

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \mathbf{A}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 up to permutations of node labels

Question 3.1. How big is a graph?

- Number of nodes
- Number of edges
- Diameter

**Definition 3.3** (Geodesic Path) — Geodesic (shortest) path between  $i \leftrightarrow j$  is a walk s.t. no walk has shorter length.

**Definition 3.4** (Diameter) — Diameter of G is

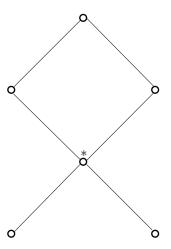
 $\max_{ij} \text{geodesic distance}(i,j)$ 

which is undefined if i and j are not connected.

#### Example 3.5

"6 degrees of separation": in social networks, the diameter is usually about 6.

#### Node Importance:



- \* has highest degree
- $\bullet\,$  If \* were removed, graph would be disconnected
- Short average distance to other nodes
- Betweeness: # of geodesic paths passing through  $i \in N$ .

# $\S4$ Dis 1: Mar 29, 2022

### §4.1 Review of Linear Algebra

Networks can be represented as ordinary matrices and the related graph Laplacian so linear algebra will be very important for us.

#### Example 4.1

Spectral graph theory techniques.

**Definition 4.2** (Matrix Kernel) — The kernel of a matrix **A** denoted  $ker(\mathbf{A})$  is the set of vectors  $\vec{x}$  s.t.  $\mathbf{A}\vec{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

**Definition 4.3** (Range) — The range of a matrix **A** denoted  $\operatorname{im}(\mathbf{A})$  is the set of vectors  $\vec{x}$  s.t. there exists a vector  $\vec{y}$  s.t.  $\mathbf{A}\vec{y} = \vec{x}$ .

**Definition 4.4** (Eigenvalue) —  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $n \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  with right-eigenvector (usually just called eigenvector if there's no chance of confusion)  $\vec{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$  if  $\mathbf{A}\vec{x} = \lambda\vec{x}$ . It has left-eigenvector  $\vec{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$  if  $\vec{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A} = \lambda\vec{y}^{\mathsf{T}}$  or equivalently  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\vec{y} = \lambda\vec{y}$ .

*Note*: If  $\vec{x}$  is a left or right eigenvector with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , then so is  $\alpha \vec{x}$  for any scalar  $\alpha \neq 0$ .

**Definition 4.5** (Spectral Radius) — The spectral radius for an  $n \times n$  matrix **A** denoted  $\rho(\mathbf{A})$  is the maximum magnitude of its eigenvalues

 $\rho(\mathbf{A}) = \max\{|\lambda| : \lambda \text{ is an eigenvalue of } \mathbf{A}\}\$ 

**Definition 4.6** (Span) — The span of a set of vectors is the set of all linear combinations of those vectors

$$\operatorname{span} \{v_1, v_2, v_3\} = \{a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + a_3v_3\}$$

where  $a_1, a_2, a_3$  are scalars.

**Question 4.1.** How do we calculate eigenvalues/eigenvectors?

1. Calculate the characteristics polynomial

$$p_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda) = \det (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_n)$$

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- 2. The eigenvalues are the roots  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  of the characteristic polynomial
- 3. Calculate the eigenvectors, i.e., we want to solve for  $\vec{x}$  s.t.  $(\mathbf{A} \lambda \mathbf{I})\vec{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

#### Theorem 4.7 (Spectral for Real Matrices)

Let **A** be a  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix. Then **A** has real eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_n$  (not necessarily distinct) and there exists corresponding eigenvectors  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n\}$  that form an orthonormal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Furthermore, **A** is diagonalizable here, i.e.,  $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{Q}^{\top} = \mathbf{A}$  where **D** is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues and **Q** is its corresponding matrix of eigenvectors. This theorem also applies to the adjacency matrix of any undirected network since it will be symmetric.

#### **Theorem 4.8** (Perron-Frobenius Version 1)

If **A** is a  $n \times n$  real matrix with all non-negative entries, then **A** has a non-negative leading eigenvalue  $\kappa_1$  with

$$\kappa_1 = \rho(\mathbf{A}) = \max\{|\lambda| : \lambda \text{ is an eigenvalue of } \mathbf{A}\}\$$

So for this leading eigenvalue  $\kappa_1$ , all other eigenvalues  $\lambda$  of **A** satisfy  $|\lambda| \leq \kappa_1$ .

In addition there exists left and right eigenvectors of  $\kappa_1$  with all non-negative entries.

*Proof.* Hw 0 # 3a.

#### Theorem 4.9 (Perron-Frobenius Version 2)

If **A** is the adjacency matrix (could be weighted) for a strongly-connected directed network (or any connected undirected network, then we call **A** irreducible). If **A** is a real  $n \times n$  matrix that either

- a) has all strictly positive entries or
- b) is irreducible

then

- i) The leading eigenvalue  $\kappa_1$  with  $\kappa_1 \geq |\lambda|$  is strictly positive  $(\kappa_1 > 0)$  and has one-dimensional eigenspace  $\{v : \mathbf{A}v = \kappa_1 v\}$
- ii)  $\kappa_1$  has a leading left and right eigenvectors associated with it that have all strictly positive entries.
- iii) The only non-negative eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}$  are multiples of the leading eigenvectors. The eigenvectors for all other eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A}$  have at least one negative entry.

### §4.2 Review of Probability

**Definition 4.10** (Joint Probability) — The probability of events A and B occurring is denoted  $P(A \cap B)$  or P(A, B).

**Definition 4.11** (Conditional Probability) — The probability of **A** given that **B** occurred is denoted  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$ .

#### Theorem 4.12

The probability of A or B (or both) occurring is

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

#### Law of Total Probability

Let X denote the sample space of all possible events. Let  $\{B_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  be a countable (it could be finite) partition of X, so  $X = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} B_i$ , then

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A \cap B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A|B_i)P(B_i)$$

Bayes' Rule:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

**Definition 4.13** (Independent Events) — Events A and B are independent if an only if one of the following equivalent statements hold

- i)  $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$
- ii) P(A|B) = P(A)
- iii) P(B|A) = P(B)

#### **Definition 4.14** (Expectation) — We have two cases

• Discrete: Let X be a discrete random variable with possible events  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  and probability mass function (PMF)  $p_x$ . The expected value of g(X) is

$$E[g(X)] = \langle g(X) \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} g(x_i) p_x(x_i)$$

• Continuous: Let X be a continuous random variable with probability density function (PDF)  $f_X$ . Then

$$E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f_x(x) dx$$

*Note*: Expectation is linear, i.e.,

$$E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]$$
$$E[\alpha X] = \alpha E[X]$$

**Definition 4.15** — A random variable X has

- 1. Mean  $\mu_x=E\left[X\right]$ 2. Variance  $\mathrm{var}(X)=\sigma_x^2=E\left[\left(X-E\left[X\right]\right)^2\right]=E\left[X^2\right]-E\left[X\right]^2$
- 3.  $n^{\text{th}}$  moment (about zero)  $E[X^n]$

#### §4.3 Some Useful Inequalities

There are some useful inequalities to keep in mind

1. Cauchy-Schwartz for expectation

$$|E\left[XY\right]| \leq \sqrt{E\left[X^2\right]E\left[Y^2\right]}$$

2. Markov's Inequality: If X is a non-negative random variable and a > 0, then

$$P(X \ge a) \le \frac{E[X]}{a}$$

3. Chebyshev's Inequality: Let X be a random variable with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then for a > 0,

$$P(|X - \mu| \ge a) \le \frac{\sigma^2}{a^2}$$

4. Jensens's Inequality: If f is a convex function, then

$$E[f(X)] \ge f(E[X])$$

If f is a concave function, then the reverse inequality holds.

<u>Note</u>:  $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  is convex if for all  $0 \le t \le 1$  and  $x_1, x_2 \in \Omega$ ,

$$f(tx_1 + (1-t)x_2) \le tf(x_1) + (1-t)f(x_2)$$

f is concave if -f is convex.