

CS4423: Networks

## Week 6, Part 2: Centrality Measures

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*These slides include material by Angela Carnevale.*

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# Outline

Today's notes are split between these slides, and a Jupyter Notebook.

1 Centrality Measures

2 Degree Centrality

- Normalized

3 Eigenvector Centrality

- Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

4 Centrality

5 Perron-Frobenius Theory

- Irreducible Matrix
- Non-negative matrix

6 The Theorem

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Slides are at:

<https://www.niallmadden.ie/2425-CS4423>



What is it that makes a node in a network important?

Key nodes in networks can be identified through **centrality measures**: a way of assigning “scores” to nodes that represents their “importance”. However, what it means to be central depends on the context.

## Examples

- ▶ In a friendship network, who is most popular?
- ▶ In a epidemiology network, who is most likely to get infected?
- ▶ In a banking, which institution poses the greatest danger to the system should it fail?

Accordingly, in the context of network analysis, a variety of different centrality measures have been developed.

# Centrality Measures

Measures of centrality include:

- ▶ **Degree Centrality** which is just the degree of the node. It can be important in e.g. transport networks.
- ▶ **Eigenvector Centrality**, defined in terms of properties of the network's **adjacency matrix**.
- ▶ **Closeness Centrality**, defined in terms of a nodes **distance** to other nodes on the network.
- ▶ **Betweenness Centrality**, defined in terms of **shortest paths**.

# Degree Centrality

## Definition (Degree Centrality)

In a (simple) graph  $G = (X, E)$ , with  $X = \{0, \dots, n-1\}$  and adjacency matrix  $A = (a_{ij})$ , the degree centrality  $c_i^D$  of node  $i \in X$  is defined as

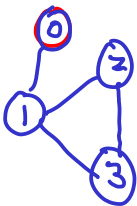
$$c_i^D = k_i = \sum_j a_{ij}, \quad \nearrow$$

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

Row Sums  
 $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$

where  $k_i$  is the degree of node  $i$ .

Example:



$$c_0^D = 1$$

$$c_1^D = 3$$

$$c_2^D = 2$$

$$c_3^D = 2$$

In some cases, this measure can be misleading, since it depends—among other things—on the order of the graph. A better measure is then the following.

### Normalized Degree Centrality

The **normalized degree centrality**  $C_i^D$  of node  $i \in X$  is defined as

$$C_i^D = \frac{k_i}{n-1} = \frac{c_i^D}{n-1} \left( = \frac{\text{degree centrality of node } i}{\text{number of potential neighbors of } i} \right).$$

*Note:* in a directed graph one distinguishes between the in-degree and the out-degree of a node and defines the in-degree centrality and the out-degree centrality accordingly.

We now recall from important facts from **Linear Algebra**.

## Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Let  $A$  be a square  $n \times n$  matrix. An  $n$ -dimensional vector,  $\mathbf{v}$ , is called an **eigenvector** of  $A$  if

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

for some scalar (number),  $\lambda$ , which is called an **eigenvalue** of  $A$ .

Example:

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

so  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$  is  
an eigenvector  
associated  
with eigenvalue  $\lambda=2$ .

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- ▶ When  $A$  is a real-valued matrix, one usually finds that  $\lambda$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are *complex valued*. However, if  $A$  is symmetric then they are *real valued*.
- ▶  $A$  may have up to  $n$  eigenvalues:  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$ .
- ▶ The **spectral radius** of  $A$  is  $\rho(A) := \max\{|\lambda_1|, |\lambda_2|, \dots, |\lambda_n|\}$
- ▶ If  $\mathbf{v}$  is an eigenvector associated with the eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , so too is any non-zero multiple of  $\mathbf{v}$



# Centrality

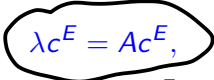
The basic idea of eigenvector centrality is that **a node's ranking in a network should relate to the rankings of the nodes it is connected to.**

More specifically, up to some scalar  $\lambda$ , the centrality  $c_i^E$  of node  $i$  should be equal to the sum of the centralities  $c_j^E$  of its neighbouring nodes  $j$ .

In terms of the adjacency matrix  $A = (a_{ij})$ , this relationship is expressed as

$$\lambda c_i^E = \sum_j a_{ij} c_j^E,$$

which in turn, in matrix language is


$$\lambda c^E = A c^E,$$

for the vector  $c^E = (c_i^E)$ , which then is an eigenvector of  $A$ .

**So  $c^E$  is an eigenvector of  $A$ ! (But which one???)**

How to find  $c^E$  and/or  $\lambda$ ?

If the network is small, one could use the usual method (although it is almost never a good idea)

1. Find the *characteristic polynomial*  $p_A(x)$  of  $A$ , as *determinant* of the matrix  $xI - A$ , where  $I$  is the  $n \times n$  identity matrix);
2. Find the *roots*  $\lambda$  of  $p_A(x)$  (i.e. scalars  $\lambda$  such that  $p_A(\lambda) = 0$ );
3. Find a *nontrivial solution* of the linear system  $(\lambda I - A)c = 0$  (where  $0$  stands for an all-0 column vector, and  $c = (c_1, \dots, c_n)$  is a column of *unknowns*).

For large networks, there are much better algorithms, such as the **Power Method** that we'll study later (in the Week 6 – Part 3 Jupyter Notebook).

Presently, we'll learn that the adjacency matrix always has one eigenvalue which is greater than all the others.

First, some definitions:

### Irreducible Matrix

A matrix  $A$  is called **reducible** if, for some simultaneous permutation of its rows and columns, it has the block form

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ \boxed{0} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

$A$  is **irreducible** if it is not reducible.

**Important:** The adjacency matrix of a simple graph  $G$  is irreducible if and only if  $G$  is connected.

**Non-negative matrix**

A matrix  $A = (a_{ij})$  is **non-negative** if

$$a_{ij} \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } i, j.$$

For simplicity, we usually write  $A \geq 0$ .

**Important:** Adjacency matrices are examples non-negative matrices.

There are similar concepts of, say, positive matrices (nothing to do with positive definite!!), negative matrices.

Of particular importance are **positive vectors**:  $v = (v_i)$  is positive if  $v_i > 0$  for all  $i$ . We write  $v > 0$ .

## The Theorem

$$\lambda = \rho(A) \Rightarrow \textcircled{i} \lambda > 0$$
$$\lambda \geq |\lambda_1|, \lambda \geq |\lambda_2|, \dots, \lambda \geq |\lambda_n|$$

### Theorem (Perron-Frobenius Theorem 1907/1912)

Suppose that  $A$  is a square, nonnegative, **irreducible** matrix. Then:

- ▶  $A$  has a real eigenvalue  $\lambda = \rho(A)$  and  $\lambda \geq |\lambda'|$  for any other eigenvalue  $\lambda'$  of  $A$ .  $\lambda$  is called the **Perron root** of  $A$
- ▶  $\lambda$  is a simple root of the characteristic polynomial of  $A$  (so has just one corresponding eigenvector)
- ▶ There is an eigenvector,  $\mathbf{v}$  associated with  $\lambda$ , such that  $\mathbf{v} > 0$ .

For us this means:

- (i) The adjacency matrix of a connected graph has an eigenvalue that positive; **no other eigenvalue is greater in magnitude.**

(See next page)

- (ii) It has an eigenvector,  $\mathbf{v}$  that is positive
- (iii)  $v_i$  is the Eigenvector Centrality node  $i$ .