

A complex network diagram with numerous nodes and edges. Nodes are represented by circles of various sizes and colors (gray, yellow, green, blue, orange, pink, purple). Some nodes are highlighted with larger, colored circles around them. The edges are thin lines connecting the nodes, forming a dense web of connections.

Lecture 5 · Centrality Measures I

Networks, Crowds and Markets

Today's Lecture

1. Degree centrality
2. Closeness centrality
3. Betweenness centrality
4. NetworkX examples.
5. Linear Algebra tools for centrality
6. Eigenvector Centrality

Recall: Degree centrality

Definition

The degree centrality of a node v is its degree:

$$C_{\text{deg}}(v) = \text{deg}(v).$$

Interpretation:

- High degree node can directly influence/reach many others.
- In undirected networks: count of adjacent edges.
- In directed networks: sometimes split into in-degree and out-degree centrality, e.g. on Twitter in-degree centrality is more relevant.

Closeness centrality

Closeness Centrality

Given $v \in V$, its average distance to other nodes in the graph is

$$\bar{d}(v) := \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{u \neq v} d(u, v).$$

Definition

The closeness centrality of $v \in V$ is

$$C_{\text{close}}(v) = \frac{1}{\bar{d}(v)},$$

where $d(u, v)$ is the distance between u and v .

- Large if v is on average close to everyone else.
- Small if many nodes are far from v .

Distance matrix

Definition

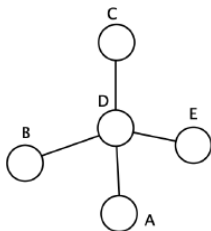
The distance matrix D_G has entries $D_G(i, j) = d(i, j)$.

Example:

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

Average distances from each node are computed as $\frac{1}{N-1} D_G \mathbf{1}$.

Closeness Centrality



$$\frac{1}{N-1} D_G \cdot \mathbf{1} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 0 & 2 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 7 \\ 7 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow c = \begin{pmatrix} 4/7 \\ 4/7 \\ 4/7 \\ 1 \\ 4/7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that D is the most central also under degree centrality.

Eccentricity centrality

Recall: the **eccentricity** of a node v is

$$\text{ecc}(v) = \max_{u \in V} d(u, v).$$

Definition

The **eccentricity centrality** of v is inversely proportional to its eccentricity:

$$C_{\text{ecc}}(v) = \frac{1}{\text{ecc}(v)}.$$

Note

To see how this differs from closeness centrality, imagine a dense “core” graph with a long chain of nodes attached at one end.

Betweenness centrality

Betweenness Centrality

Definition

The betweenness centrality of a node u measures how often u lies on **shortest paths** between other pairs of nodes:

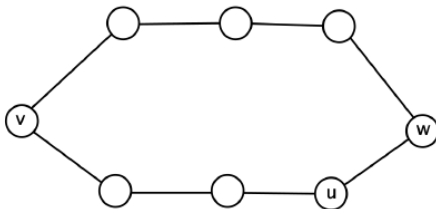
$$C_{\text{betw}}(u) = \sum_{v \neq u \neq w} \frac{\sigma_{vw}(u)}{\sigma_{vw}},$$

where σ_{vw} is the number of shortest paths from v to w , and $\sigma_{vw}(u)$ is the number of those paths that pass through u .

- Nodes on many shortest paths act as **bridges**.
- Captures the potential of u to control information flow.

Betweenness Centrality: Example

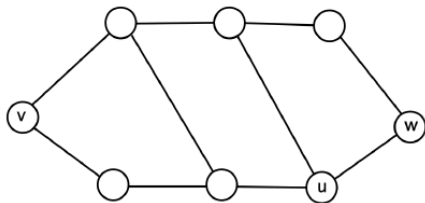
- Determine σ_{vw} and $\sigma_{vw}(u)$ in the following graph.



- $\sigma_{vw} = 2$
- $\sigma_{vw}(u) = 1$

Betweenness Centrality: Example

- Determine σ_{vw} and $\sigma_{vw}(u)$ in the following graph.



- $\sigma_{vw} = 4$
- $\sigma_{vw}(u) = 3$

Betweenness Centrality: Computing It Efficiently

Challenge: Directly counting all pairs of shortest paths costs $O(n^3)$.

Idea (Brandes, 2001): Each BFS from one source can capture *all shortest-path contributions* involving that source.

Key insight: Instead of computing all pairs (v, w) , one BFS per node v is enough to accumulate betweenness scores for every other node.

Complexity: $O(nm)$ for unweighted graphs. Practical for graphs with up to $\sim 10^5$ edges.

Appendix: BFS Bookkeeping for Shortest Paths

Goal (unweighted graphs, source s): compute

- $d[v]$ = distance from s to v (in edges),
- $\sigma[v]$ = number of shortest $s \rightarrow v$ paths,
- $\text{Pred}[v]$ = predecessors of v on shortest $s \rightarrow v$ paths.

Initialization:

- For all v : $d[v] = \infty$, $\sigma[v] = 0$, $\text{Pred}[v] = \emptyset$.
- Set $d[s] = 0$, $\sigma[s] = 1$, push s in a queue Q .

BFS loop (standard queue):

- While Q not empty:
 - ▶ Pop v from Q .
 - ▶ For each neighbor w of v :
 - ▶ If $d[w] = \infty$ then
 $d[w] = d[v] + 1$; $\sigma[w] = \sigma[v]$; $\text{Pred}[w] = \{v\}$; push w .
 - ▶ Else if $d[w] = d[v] + 1$ then
 $\sigma[w] \leftarrow \sigma[w] + \sigma[v]$; add v to $\text{Pred}[w]$.

NetworkX examples

NetworkX quick start (Karate Club)

```
import networkx as nx

G = nx.karate_club_graph()
N, L = G.number_of_nodes(), G.number_of_edges()
print(f"N={N}, L={L}")
```

In NetworkX:

- `nx.degree_centrality` returns $\deg(v)/(N - 1)$
- `nx.closeness_centrality(G, wf_improved=False)`
- `nx.betweenness_centrality(G)`

When plotting the network centrality measures can be used to color the nodes.

Real network #1: Florentine families (Renaissance credit/marriage)

```
F = nx.florentine_families_graph()    # N=16, classic network
print("Nodes:", F.nodes())

degF = dict(F.degree())
cloF = nx.closeness centrality(F, wf_improved=False)
betF = nx.betweenness centrality(F, normalized=True)

def top5(name, d):
    print(name, sorted(d.items(), key=lambda x: x[1], reverse=True))

top5("Degree:", degF)
top5("Closeness:", cloF)
top5("Betweenness:", betF)
```

Story: Medici emerge as top “brokers” by betweenness—consistent with their historical role in finance and politics.

Real network #2: Karate Club (community split)

```
G = nx.karate_club_graph()

deg = nx.degree centrality(G)
clo = nx.closeness centrality(G, wf_improved=False)
bet = nx.betweenness centrality(G, normalized=True)

def tab(name, d):
    rows = sorted(d.items(), key=lambda x: x[1], reverse=True)[:5]
    print(name, [(v, round(val,3)) for v,val in rows])

tab("Degree cent:", deg)
tab("Closeness cent:", clo)
tab("Betweenness cent:", bet)
```

Story: The two leaders (nodes usually labeled 0 and 33) rank highly; the broker between factions has high betweenness.

Basic spectral theory

Why Linear Algebra for Networks?

- Adjacency matrix A_G : encodes all links of G .
- Degree vector: $A_G \mathbf{1} = (\deg(v_1), \dots, \deg(v_N))$.
- Laplacian $L = D - A$: central in diffusion, clustering, spanning trees.
- Many network measures (centrality, random walks, PageRank) reduce to eigenvalue/eigenvector problems.

Note

Eigenvalues of A_G reveal secrets of G .

- Google built its empire on one eigenvector (PageRank).
- Spotify/Youtube recommenders use eigenvector-like ideas.
- In social networks, eigenvector centrality captures being “friends with important people.”

Recall: Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Definition

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ then $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ is called an **eigenvector** of A if

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

for some λ , called **eigenvalue**. Assume $\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v}^\top \mathbf{v}} = 1$.

If A has only real eigenvalues then it can be diagonalized: \exists invertible P s.t.

$$A = P\Lambda P^{-1} \quad \text{with } \Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n).$$

The columns of P are the eigenvectors of A .

Note

If A is diagnosable then $A^k = P\Lambda^k P^{-1}$, $\Lambda^k = \text{diag}(\lambda_1^k, \dots, \lambda_n^k)$.

Spectral theorem

Theorem

If A is symmetric (i.e. $A = A^\top$), all eigenvalues are real, and eigenvectors form an orthogonal basis.

A is diagonalizable and for some orthogonal matrix U (i.e. $U^\top U = I_n$):

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Note (Variational characterization of eigenvectors)

The eigenvectors are the stationary points of $\mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x}$ subject to $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 1$:

- By KKT condition each optimum is a stationary point of

$$\text{Lagrangian} = \mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x} - \lambda(\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x} - 1).$$

- This gives $A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$. And for every such unit \mathbf{x} , $\mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x} = \lambda$.

In particular, the maximal eigenvalue is $\lambda_{\max} = \max_{\|\mathbf{x}\|=1} \mathbf{x}^\top A \mathbf{x}$.

Eigenvalue centrality

Motivation

In degree centrality all neighbours are treated equally.

Now: a node is important if connected to other important nodes.

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- We try to define an importance measure x_v for $v \in V$ s.t.

$$x_v \propto \sum_{u \sim v} x_u.$$

In matrix form: there exists $\lambda > 0$ and a positive \mathbf{x} s.t.

$$A_G \mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}.$$

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So centrality is given by an eigenvector of A_G with a positive eigenvalue.

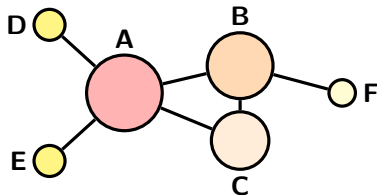
Theorem (special case of Perron-Frobenius)

As A_G has nonnegative entries, maximal eigenvalue is positive.

Since $\mathbf{1}^\top A_G \mathbf{1} = 2L > 0$ then $\lambda_{\max} > 0$.

The **principal eigenvector** has positive entries.

Eigenvector Centrality – Core–Periphery Example



Adjacency matrix (A):

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

Setup. A small core (A, B, C) connected as a triangle; three peripheral nodes (D, E, F) each attach to the core.

Why sizes differ.

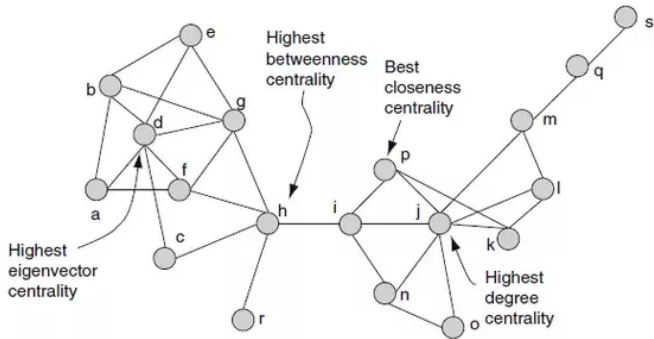
- A connects to two central nodes (B, C) and two peripherals (D, E) — very central.
- B beats C because it also connects to F .
- D, E, F are peripheral and get low scores.

Note (Potential problems)

- What if G is disconnected?
- What if λ_{\max} has multiplicity ≥ 2 ?

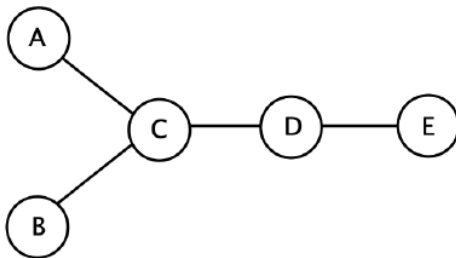
Normalized ratios:

$$x_A : x_B : x_C : x_D : x_E : x_F \approx 1.00 : 0.87 : 0.76 : 0.41 : 0.41 : 0.35.$$



Exercise 1

Determine the eigenvector centrality for all the nodes in the graph:



You may use a software in order to find the eigenvalues and vectors.

Random Walks and PageRank

Random Walks on a Graph

Definition (Random Walk on a Graph $G = (V, E)$)

This is a stochastic process $(X_t)_{t=0}^{\infty}$ with each $X_t \in V$ s.t.:

- Start with a node $v_0 = X_0$ chosen uniformly at random.
- If $X_t = i$ then X_{t+1} is a neighbour of i chosen uniformly at random from all its neighbours:

$$P_{ij} := \Pr(X_{t+1} = j | X_t = i) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\deg(i)}, & ij \text{ is a link} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

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The matrix $P = (P_{ij}) \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ is called the **transition matrix**.

Note: $P = D^+ A_G$, where $D = \text{diag}(\deg(1), \dots, \deg(N))$.

$\rightarrow (D^+)_{ii} = 1/D_{ii}$ is $D_{ii} \neq 0$ and $(D^+)_{ij} = 0$ otherwise.

The resulting Markov chain

Let $\pi^{(t)} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ be the distribution of X_t , i.e., $\pi_i^{(t)} = \Pr(X_t = i)$. We have

$$\pi_i^{(t+1)} = \sum_{j=1}^N \Pr(X_t = j) \Pr(X_{t+1} = i | X_t = j) = \sum_{j=1}^N \pi_j^{(t)} P_{j,i}.$$

In other words, $\pi^{(t+1)} = P^\top \pi^{(t)}$.

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Note

- Define $\pi = \frac{1}{\text{tr}(D)} D \mathbf{1}$ and recall $P = D^+ A_G$. So that

$$P^\top \pi = \frac{1}{\text{tr}(D)} A_G D^+ D \mathbf{1} = \frac{1}{\text{tr}(D)} A_G \mathbf{1} = \frac{1}{\text{tr}(D)} D \mathbf{1} = \pi.$$

- We have $\pi_i = \frac{\deg(i)}{\sum_{j=1}^N \deg(j)}$ and so π is a probability distribution.
(π defines the degree centrality!!)
- If $\pi^{(t)} = \pi$ then $\pi^{(s)} = \pi$ for all $s \geq t$; **stationary distribution**.

Eigenvalues of P

Note (Assume for simplicity all degrees positive; $D^+ = D^{-1}$)

The transition matrix P is similar to a symmetric matrix:

$$P = D^{-1}A_G = D^{-1/2}D^{-1/2}A_GD^{-1/2}D^{1/2} = D^{-1/2}SD^{1/2}$$

and so it is diagonalizable. All eigenvalues lie in $[-1, 1]$.

Theorem (About the eigenvalues of P)

If G has no bipartite component, eigenvalues lie in $(-1, 1]$.

If G is connected, $\lambda = 1$ has multiplicity one.

Let $S = U\Lambda U^\top$ with U orthogonal. Let \mathbf{u}_i be the i -th column of U . Then

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda_i \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^\top \quad \text{and so} \quad S^k = \sum_{i=1}^N \lambda_i^k \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i^\top \xrightarrow[k \rightarrow \infty]{} \mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{u}_1^\top,$$

where \mathbf{u}_1 is s.t. $S\mathbf{u}_1 = \mathbf{u}_1$.

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where \mathbf{u}_1 is s.t. $S\mathbf{u}_1 = \mathbf{u}_1$. It follows that $\boxed{P^k \longrightarrow \mathbf{1}\pi^\top}$.

Note

We define random walk on a directed graph in analogous way.

Algebraically more complicated as A_G is not symmetric and the eigenvalues are complex.

- Web graph = directed network of pages and hyperlinks.
- Eigenvector centrality does not work directly in directed graphs with sinks or disconnected components.
- PageRank modifies the random walk with teleportation:

$$P_\alpha = \alpha P + (1 - \alpha) \frac{1}{N} \mathbf{1}\mathbf{1}^T,$$

where P is the transition matrix of the web, $\alpha \in (0, 1)$.

- Stationary distribution of P_α = PageRank vector.

Computing Centrality in Python (NetworkX)

```
import networkx as nx

G = nx.karate_club_graph()

# Eigenvector centrality
eig = nx.eigenvector_centrality(G)
print(max(eig, key=eig.get))

# PageRank
pr = nx.pagerank(G, alpha=0.85)
print(max(pr, key=pr.get))
```

Karate club example: - Eigenvector centrality highlights the main hub (node 33). - PageRank is similar but also adapts to directed networks.

Conclusions

- Eigenvector centrality: nodes are important if linked to other important nodes.
- Perron–Frobenius ensures uniqueness and positivity of the principal eigenvector.
- PageRank extends the same idea to the Web via teleportation.
- Linear algebra (largest eigenvalue, eigenvector) is the foundation of centrality measures.