### 1.022 Introduction to Network Models

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Lecture 3

## Bipartite graphs

- A graph $G(V, E)$ is called bipartite when
$\Rightarrow V$ can be partitioned in two disjoint sets, say $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$; and
$\Rightarrow$ Each edge in $E$ has one endpoint in $V_{1}$, the other in $V_{2}$

- Useful to represent e.g., membership or affiliation networks
$\Rightarrow$ Nodes in $V_{1}$ could be people, nodes in $V_{2}$ clubs
$\Rightarrow$ Associated graph $G\left(V_{1}, E_{1}\right)$ joins members of same club


## Adjacency matrix

- Algebraic graph theory deals with matrix representations of graphs $\Rightarrow$ Leverage algebra to 'visualize' graphs as if being plotted
- Q: How can we capture the connectivity of $G(V, E)$ in a matrix?
- A: Binary, symmetric adjacency matrix $\mathbf{A} \in\{0,1\}^{|V| \times|V|}$, with entries

$$
A_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
1, & \text { if }(i, j) \in E \\
0, & \text { otherwise }
\end{array} .\right.
$$

$\Rightarrow$ Note that vertices are indexed with integers $1, \ldots,|V|$

- In words, A is one for those entries whose row-column indices denote vertices in $V$ joined by an edge in $E$, and is zero otherwise


## Adjacency matrix examples

- Examples for undirected graphs and digraphs

$$
\mathbf{A}_{u}=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right), \quad \mathbf{A}_{d}=\left(\begin{array}{llll}
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

- If the graph is weighted, store the $(i, j)$ weight instead of 1


## Adjacency matrix properties

- Adjacency matrix useful to store graph structure.
$\Rightarrow$ Also, operations on A yield useful information about $G$
- Degrees: Row-wise sums give vertex degrees, i.e., $\sum_{j=1}^{|V|} A_{i j}=d_{i}$
- For digraphs $\mathbf{A}$ is not symmetric and row-, colum-wise sums differ

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{|V|} A_{i j}=d_{i}^{\text {out }}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{|V|} A_{i j}=d_{j}^{\text {in }}
$$

- Spectrum: $G$ is $d$-regular if and only if $\mathbf{1}$ is an eigenvector of $\mathbf{A}$, i.e.,

$$
\mathbf{A} \mathbf{1}=d \mathbf{1}
$$

## Walks, Paths, and Cycles


walk

path between $i$ and $j$

cycle

shortest path

- Walks: Let $\mathbf{A}^{r}$ denote the $r$-th power of $\mathbf{A}$, with entries $A_{i j}^{r}$
- $\left[A^{2}\right]_{i j}:=\sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{i k} A_{k j}$
- Corollary: $\operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{A}^{2}\right) / 2=|E|$ and $\operatorname{tr}\left(\mathbf{A}^{3}\right) / 6=\# \triangle$ in $G$
$\Rightarrow$ You will prove this in your homework


## Incidence matrix

- A graph can be also represented by its $|V| \times|E|$ incidence matrix $\mathbf{B}$ $\Rightarrow \mathbf{B}$ is in general not a square matrix, unless $|V|=|E|$
- For undirected graphs, the entries of $\mathbf{B}$ are

$$
B_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{lc}
1, & \text { if vertex } i \text { incident to edge } j \\
0, & \text { otherwise }
\end{array} .\right.
$$

- For digraphs we also encode the direction of the edge, namely

$$
B_{i j}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
1, & \text { if edge } j \text { is }(k, i) \\
-1, & \text { if edge } j \text { is }(i, k) \\
0, & \text { otherwise }
\end{array} .\right.
$$

## Incidence matrix examples

- Examples for undirected graphs and digraphs

$\mathbf{B}_{u}=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0\end{array}\right), \quad \mathbf{B}_{d}=\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}-1 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 & -1 & 0\end{array}\right)$
- If the graph is weighted, modify nonzero entries accordingly


## Triadic closure

- Networks are rarely static structures $\Rightarrow$ Think about their evolution
$\Rightarrow$ How are edges formed? $\Rightarrow$ Universal feature $\Rightarrow$ Triadic closure
- If two people in a social network have a friend in common, then there is an increased likelihood that they will become friends at some point in the future

(a) Before B-C edge forms.

(b) After B-C edge forms.

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- Triadic closure is very natural $\Rightarrow$ Some reasons ...
$\Rightarrow$ Opportunity: B and C have a higher chance of meeting
$\Rightarrow$ Trusting: B and C are predisposed to trusting each other
$\Rightarrow$ Incentive: $A$ might have incentive to make $B$ and $C$ friends


## Homophily

- We tend to be similar to our friends $\Rightarrow$ Well known for long time $\Rightarrow$ Age, race, interests, beliefs, opinions, affluence, ...
- Contextual (as opposed to intrinsic) effect on network formation $\Rightarrow$ Contextual: Friends because we attend the same school $\Rightarrow$ Intrinsic: Friends because a common friend introduces us


Moody, James. "Race, School Integration, and Friendship Segregation in America." American Journal of Sociology 107 (2001): 679-716. © University of Chicago Press. All rights reserved. This content is excluded from our Creative Commons license. For more information, see https://ocw.mit.edu/help/faq-fair-use/.

- In previous slide, B and C high chance of becoming friends
$\Rightarrow$ Even if they are not aware of common knowledge of A


## Measuring homophily

- Is homophily present or is it an artifact of how the network is drawn?
$\Rightarrow$ We need to formulate a precise mathematical measure
- Consider a small network of girls ( $q=3 / 9$ ) and boys ( $p=6 / 9$ )

- If edges are agnostic to gender, portion of cross-gender edges is $2 p q$
$\Rightarrow$ Homophily Test: If the fraction of cross-gender edges is significantly less than 2 pq , then there is evidence for homophily
$\Rightarrow$ Cross-gender edges $5 / 18<8 / 18=2 p q \Rightarrow$ Mild homophily


## Hearing about a new job

- Mark Granovetter (1973) interviewed people that changed jobs
- Most heard about new jobs from acquaintances rather than close friends
$\Rightarrow$ Explanation takes into account local properties and global structure


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- $A$ 's friends $E, C$, and $D$ form a tightly-knit group
- $B$ reaches to a different part of the network $\Rightarrow$ New information
- Deleting $(A, B)$ disconnects the network $\Rightarrow(A, B)$ is a bridge
$\Rightarrow$ But bridges are rare in real-world networks


## A social network closer to reality

- In real life, there are other multi-step paths joining $A$ and $B$
$\Rightarrow$ If $(A, B)$ is deleted, distance becomes more than $2 \Rightarrow$ Local bridge
$\Rightarrow$ An edge is a local bridge when it is not part of a triangle


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- Closely knit group of friends are eager to help
$\Rightarrow$ But have almost the same information as you


## Strong triadic closure

- How does overrepresentation of bridges relate to acquaintances?
- Consider two different levels of strength in the links of a social network $\Rightarrow$ Strong ties correspond to friends, weak ties to acquaintances


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- A violates the Strong Triadic Closure if it has strong ties to two other nodes $B$ and $C$, and there is no edge at all (strong or weak) between $B$ and $C$


## Local bridges and weak ties

- Tie strength $\Rightarrow$ Local/interpersonal feature
- Bridge property $\Rightarrow$ Global/structural feature
- How do these two features relate in light of the strong triadic closure?
- If A satisfies the strong triadic closure and is involved in at least two strong ties, then any local bridge it is involved in must be a weak tie


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- Acquaintances are natural sources of new information
$\Rightarrow$ Strict modeling assumptions, first-order conclusions, testable

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