Characterizing the dynamical importance of network nodes and links

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The largest eigenvalue of the adjacency matrix of the networks is a key quantity determining several important dynamical processes on complex networks. Based on this fact, we present a quantitative, objective characterization of the dynamical importance of network nodes and links in terms of their effect on the largest eigenvalue. We show how our characterization of the dynamical importance of nodes can be affected by degree-degree correlations and network community structure. We discuss how our characterization can be used to optimize techniques for controlling certain network dynamical processes and apply our results to real networks.

In recent years, there has been much interest in the study of the structure of networks arising from real world systems, of dynamical processes taking place on networks, and of how network structure impacts such dynamics [1]. Remarkably, the largest eigenvalue of the network adjacency matrix (which we denote $\lambda$) has recently emerged as the key quantity determining many important properties for the study of a variety of different dynamical network processes. Some examples are the following: (i) for a heterogeneous collection of chaotic and/or periodic dynamical systems coupled by a network of connections, the critical coupling strength $\lambda$ for the emergence of coherence is proportional to $1/\lambda$; (ii) the critical disease contagion probability for the onset of an epidemic scales as $1/\lambda$; (iii) in percolation on a network, the condition for the emergence of a giant component also involves $\lambda$ [2]. In addition to these, there are other notable examples where $\lambda$ plays a similar role [3].

In many situations it might be desirable to control dynamical processes that take place on networks. For example, in epidemic spreading, one would like to increase the threshold for epidemic transmission. In percolation, one might like to identify the key nodes holding the network together and protect them (e.g., in the transportation network or the internet) or disrupt them (e.g., in the case of a terrorist network or pathogen protein network). Such strategies would greatly benefit from a quantitative characterization of the effect of the removal of the different nodes or edges in the network. We will define the dynamical importance of nodes and edges as the relative change in the largest eigenvalue of the network adjacency matrix upon their removal. This provides an objective quantification of the relative importance of the different elements of the network that could potentially be used to formulate control strategies for those network processes that are governed by the largest eigenvalue of the network adjacency matrix. We also will describe an efficient way to approximate the dynamical importance.

We consider a network as a directed graph with $N$ nodes, and we associate to it a $N \times N$ adjacency matrix whose elements $A_{ij}$ are positive if there is a link going from node $i$ to node $j$ with $i \neq j$ and zero otherwise ($A_{ii} \equiv 0$). We denote the largest eigenvalue of $A$ by $\lambda$, where $Au = \lambda u$ and $u^T A = \lambda u^T$ with $u$ and $\lambda$ denoting the right and left eigenvectors of $A$. According to Perron’s theorem [7], of all the eigenvalues of $A$, the one with largest magnitude is real and positive and the components of the eigenvectors $u$ and $v$ all have the same sign (which we choose to be positive). It is often the case that $\lambda$ is well separated from the second largest eigenvalue. We define the dynamical importance of edge $i \rightarrow j$, $I_{ij}$, as the amount $-\Delta \lambda_{ij}$ by which $\lambda$ decreases upon removal of the edge, normalized by $\lambda$:

$$I_{ij} \equiv \frac{-\Delta \lambda_{ij}}{\lambda}. \quad (1)$$

Similarly, the dynamical importance of node $k$ is defined in terms of the amount $-\Delta \lambda_k$ by which $\lambda$ decreases upon removal of the node (or equivalently removal of all edges into and out of node $k$):

$$I_k \equiv \frac{-\Delta \lambda_k}{\lambda}. \quad (2)$$

We will now use a perturbative analysis in order to provide approximations $\tilde{I}$ to the dynamical importance $I$ in terms of $u$ and $\lambda$. We first consider the importance of an edge $I_{ij}$. Let us denote the matrix before the removal of the edge by $A$ and after the removal by $A + \Delta A$, the largest eigenvalue of $A + \Delta A$ by $\lambda + \Delta \lambda$ and its corresponding right eigenvector by $u + \Delta u$. For large matrices, it is reasonable to assume that the removal of a link or node has a small effect on the spectral properties of the network, so that $\Delta u$ and $\Delta \lambda$ are small. Left multiplying

$$(A + \Delta A)(u + \Delta u) = (\lambda + \Delta \lambda)(u + \Delta u) \quad (3)$$
by \( v^T \) and neglecting second order terms \( v^T \Delta A \Delta u \) and \( \Delta u v^T \Delta u \), we obtain \( \Delta \lambda = v^T \Delta Au / v^T u \). Upon removal of edge \( i \rightarrow j \), the perturbation matrix is \( (\Delta A)_{ij} = -A_{ij} \delta_{ij} \delta_{jm} \), and therefore

\[
\hat{I}_{ij} = \frac{\delta_{ij} v_i u_j}{\lambda v^T u} \tag{4}
\]

We now examine the effect of removing node \( k \). Upon its removal, the perturbation matrix is given by \( (\Delta A)_{ij} = -A_{ik} (\delta_{ik} + \delta_{jk}) \). However, in this case we cannot assume \( \Delta u \) is small as we did before, since \( \Delta u_k = -u_k \) (the left and right eigenvectors have zero \( k \)-th entry after the removal of node \( k \)). Therefore, we set \( \Delta u = \delta u - u_k \hat{e}_k \), where \( \hat{e}_k \) is the unit vector for the \( k \)-th component, and we assume \( \delta u \) is small. Left multiplying Eq. 3 by \( v^T \) and neglecting second order terms \( v^T \Delta A \delta u \) and \( \Delta \lambda v^T \delta u \), we obtain \( \Delta \lambda = (v^T \Delta Au - u_k v^T \Delta A \hat{e}_k) / (v^T u - u_k v_k) \). Using the expression for \( \Delta A \), we get \( v^T \Delta Au = -2 \lambda u_k v_k \) and \( u_k v^T \Delta A \hat{e}_k = \lambda u_k v_k \). Considering the network to be large \((N \gg 1)\), we assume \( u_k v_k \ll v^T u \) and obtain

\[
\hat{I}_k = v_k u_k / v^T u \tag{5}
\]

The commonly used eigenvector centrality \( \mathbf{I} \) of node \( k \) is defined as the eigenvector component \( u_k \). Although closely related to it, \( \hat{I}_k \) and \( I_{ij} \) take into account the possible asymmetry of \( A \) and are defined in such a way that they quantify the relative change in \( \lambda \) upon removal of the node or link. For a review of other measures of node importance, see [1] and references therein.

We will now present examples of the dynamical importance of nodes in simulated and real networks. We consider unweighted networks (i.e., the nonzero elements \( A_{ij} \) are identically one), but we emphasize that our considerations also apply to weighted networks. In considering the simulated examples, we will try to mimic the often complex structure of real world networks. This complexity is evidenced by the fact that the degree distribution in a large number of examples has been found to be highly heterogeneous (often following a power law in the so-called scale-free networks [11]), where the out-degree and in-degree are defined by \( d^\text{out}_i = \sum_{j=1}^N A_{ij} \) and \( d^\text{in}_i = \sum_{j=1}^N A_{ji} \). In the case of an undirected network \( A = A^T \) and \( d^\text{in}_i = d^\text{out}_i \equiv d_i \). The ‘degree distribution’ \( P(d^\text{in}, d^\text{out}) \) is defined as the probability that a randomly chosen node has degrees \( d^\text{in} \) and \( d^\text{out} \) [in the undirected case we write \( P(d) \) to denote the corresponding degree distribution]. Furthermore, it has been observed that the degrees at the ends of a randomly chosen edge often have positive or negative correlations (referred to as assortative or disassortative mixing by degree [11], respectively). For example, the ratio

\[
\rho = \langle d^\text{in}_i d^\text{out}_j \rangle \epsilon / \langle d_i \rangle \epsilon^2 \tag{6}
\]

where \( \langle \ldots \rangle \epsilon \) denotes an average over edges, \( \langle Q_{ij} \rangle \epsilon \equiv \sum_{i,j} A_{ij} Q_{ij} / \sum_{i,j} A_{ij} \), is larger (smaller) than 1 in assortative (disassortative) networks.

A mean field approximation, \( A_{ij} \propto d^\text{out}_i d^\text{in}_j \), yields \( \rho = 1, u_i = d^\text{out}_i \), and \( v_i = d^\text{in}_i \), and thus \( \hat{I}_k = d^\text{out}_k d^\text{in}_k / \sum_{k=1}^N d^\text{out}_k d^\text{in}_k \). We will denote this reference importance by \( \hat{I}_k \). (For an undirected network this is equivalent to ranking nodes by their degree \( \mathbf{I} \).)

Our first examples consist of networks with positive and negative degree-degree correlations. We choose (somewhat arbitrarily) to examine networks in which the in- and out-degrees at each node are uncorrelated, \( P(d^\text{in}, d^\text{out}) = P_{in}(d^\text{in})P_{out}(d^\text{out}) \), and have the same distribution, \( P_{in}(d) = P_{out}(d) = \hat{P}(d) \). The networks are generated by first prescribing a target degree sequence \( (d^\text{in}_i, d^\text{out}_i) \). In order to generate networks with a power law degree distribution, \( \hat{P}(d) \propto d^{-\gamma} \), we will use, following [12], the sequence of expected degrees \( (i + i_0 - 1)^{-1/\gamma} \) for the in-degrees, and a random permutation of this sequence for the out-degrees, where \( i = 1, \ldots, N \), and \( c \) and \( i_0 \) are chosen to obtain a desired maximum and average degree. From these sequences, the adjacency matrix is constructed by setting \( A_{ij} = 1 \) for \( i \neq j \) with probability proportional to \( d^\text{out}_i d^\text{in}_j \) and zero otherwise \((A_{ii} = 0)\) (this is a generalization of the model in Chung et al. [12]). Finally, the following (based on a simplification of the method in Ref. [11]) is repeated until the network has the desired amount of degree-degree correlations as evidenced in the value of \( \rho \): Two edges are chosen at random, say connecting node \( i \) to node \( j \) and node \( n \) to node \( m \), and are replaced with two edges connecting node \( i \) to node \( m \) and node \( n \) to node \( j \) if \( s(d_i d^\text{out}_i d^\text{in}_j - d^\text{in}_i d^\text{out}_j d^\text{in}_i) < 0 \), and are left alone otherwise. Setting \( s = +1 \) or \( -1 \) we produce assortative or disassortative networks, respectively.

We construct two different asymmetric networks of size \( N = 2000 \) following the algorithm above with \( \gamma = 2.5 \), and \( c, i_0 \) chosen such that \( \langle d \rangle = 50 \) and \( d_{\text{max}} = 350 \). For networks (i) and (ii) we used \( s = +1 \) and \( s = -1 \), respectively, until a desired value of \( \rho \) was reached. This resulted in values of \( \rho \) of 1.6 and 0.69 for networks (i) and (ii), respectively.

In Fig. 1 we show on a logarithmic scale (base 10) our approximation to the node dynamical importance

![Figure 1](image_url)

**FIG. 1:** Node dynamical importance \( I_k \) and \( \hat{I}_k \) (solid line) as a function of \( \log_{10}(d^\text{in}_k d^\text{out}_k) \) for (a) an assortative network (open circles), and (b) a disassortative network (boxes).
\( \hat{I}_k \) versus \( \sqrt{d^\text{in}_k d^\text{out}_k} \) for networks (i) (open circles) and (ii) (boxes), and the reference importance \( I^0_k \) (solid line). We see that for the assortative network there is a rough monotonic relation between \( \hat{I}_k \) and \( \sqrt{d^\text{in}_k d^\text{out}_k} \), while for the disassortative case a functional relationship even less clear and the nodes with low value of \( \sqrt{d^\text{in}_k d^\text{out}_k} \) have importance comparable to the highly connected nodes (since, due to the disassortativity, they act as bridges connecting the hubs). In both cases \( I^k \) and its approximation by \( \hat{I}_k \) [Eq. (i)] are essentially the same to within the size of the plotted points in the figure (this will also apply to Fig. 2).

Our next example is motivated by the fact that it is sometimes observed that real networks can be subdivided into more or less well defined communities which have different statistics, and thus potentially different dynamical importance. As a simple model of such situation, we specify a division of the nodes in the network into two groups of the same size, \( A \) and \( B \), \( (A \cup B = \{1,2,\ldots,N\}, A \cap B = \emptyset) \), and then we construct a network following the steps above with \( s = +1 \), but only rewire the edges if all the nodes in consideration belong all to group \( A \) (\( i, j, n, m \in A \)). The effect of this division is to create a subnetwork (group \( A \)) with a correlation that is larger than that for the whole network.

In Fig. 2 we show the node dynamical importance \( I_k \) for this network (stars) and the uncorrelated reference \( I^0_k \) (solid line). We see that the dynamical importance captures the subdivision existing in the network. Nodes in the assortative region \( A \) are more dynamically important than nodes with the same connectivity \( \sqrt{d^\text{in}_k d^\text{out}_k} \) outside of this region. This shows that the node dynamical importance can depend on the subdivision of the network into communities, and suggests that in networks with strong community subdivision the node dynamical importance could be weakly correlated with the degree.

We will now consider the dynamical importance of the nodes in the undirected yeast protein interaction network [13, 14] (\( N = 2361 \)), the directed Kiel University email network [16] (\( N = 64385 \)), and the undirected internet autonomous systems (AS) network [17] (\( N = 21885 \)).

![FIG. 2: Node dynamical importance \( I_k \) for the two-community network described in the text (stars) and the uncorrelated reference \( I^0_k \) (solid line).]

![FIG. 3: Logarithm of the dynamical importance \( \hat{I}_k \) as a function of the logarithm of \( \sqrt{d^\text{in}_k d^\text{out}_k} \) for (a) the yeast protein interaction network [13, 14], (b) the Kiel University email network [16], and (c) the internet (AS) network [17]. Figure (d) shows \( I_k \) versus \( I_k \) for the AS network. The solid line is the identity.](image)
In Fig. 4 we show the dynamics on a complex network. (iii) Another use of Eq. (5) might be to determine from a given network a reduced simpler network with fewer nodes, but almost the same dynamics (in the sense of having almost the same \( \lambda \)). This could be done by successive removal of the nodes of lowest \( I_k \) (as in the idea of the ‘k-core’ \[17\]), and offers a potential tool for facilitating the understanding of the dynamics on a complex network. (iv) As compared to degree-based node ranking, the approximation \( I_k \) of Eq. (5) requires computation of the eigenvectors \( u \) and \( v \) and hence more complete network information.

In conclusion, we have presented an objective, quantitative measure of the dynamical importance of edges and nodes in a network. The dynamical importance of a node or edge measures how the largest eigenvalue, which controls various important dynamical processes in networks, changes upon removal of the given node or edge. We have shown how knowledge of the dynamical importance of nodes can be used to optimize strategies to control dynamical processes dependent on the largest eigenvalue of the adjacency matrix of the network.

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