Community structure: Clusters and partitions

Seminars in Social Networks and Markets

Tightly-knit subgroups



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Tightly-knit subgroups



1 = club administrator, 34 = instructor

What is a "cluster"?

- The exact notion of "tightly-knit subgroup" may depend on the domain
- But a formal definition is crucial, if we want to identify such regions or clusters
- Let's discuss some of the possibilities

Cliques

A *k*-clique is a subset of *k* nodes forming a complete subgraph



For example, {A, C, D} is a 3-clique {A, D} is a 2-clique

Maximal vs maximum cliques

- A k-clique is maximal if it is not contained in any q-clique with q > k
- A k-clique is maximum if there is no q-clique in the graph with q > k



{A, C, D} is a maximal and maximum 3-clique

{A, D} is a 2-clique but it is not maximal

{A, B} is a maximal 2-clique but it is not maximum, because of {A, C, D}

Finding cliques

- We can look for k-cliques in time O(n^k·k²) by enumerating all subsets of k nodes
- Practical only if k is a very small constant
- In fact, finding a maximum clique is NP-hard, even if we allow approximations!
- Finding a *maximal* clique is easy:
 - Start from any node (a 1-clique!) and greedily try to extend the clique one node at a time

Density of a set of nodes

- The clique definition can be relaxed
- The **density** of a set S of at least 2 nodes is

density(S) =
$$\frac{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{v \in S} \deg_S(v)}{\binom{|S|}{2}}$$

- density(S) is always between 0 and 1:
 - 0 if the subgraph induced by S consists of isolated nodes
 - 1 for a clique
 - In fact, density(S) is exactly the *probability* that two distinct random nodes of S are linked by an edge
- However, finding large, high-density subsets of nodes remains NP-hard...

k-cores

- A *k*-core is a set of nodes S such that each node in S has at least *k* neighbors in S
- Any k-clique is a (k-1)-core, but the reverse is not true



Finding the k-cores

- Iterative approach:
 - 1. Consider the input graph G
 - 2. Remove from G all nodes with degree < k
 - 3. If no node is removed, stop; else go back to 2
- Polynomial time, even if k is large

k-connected components

- We already defined the **connected components** of a graph:
 - A connected component is a maximal set of nodes *S* such that there is a path between every pair of nodes in *S*
- To generalize this to k-connected components, we need a notion of independence between paths
 - Two paths between *u* and *v* are **node-independent** if they do not share any node, except *u* and *v*
 - Two paths between u and v are edge-independent if they do not share any edge

k-connected components

- A k-(node)-connected component is a maximal set of nodes S, of at least k nodes, such that there are k node-independent paths between every pair of nodes in S
- So, to disconnect *S* we have to remove *at least k* nodes



- The above graph has two 2-connected components: {A, C, D, E} and {A, B, F}
- The graph itself is connected but not 2-connected

k-edge-connected components

- A *k*-edge-connected component is a maximal set of nodes *S* such that there are *k* edge-independent paths between every pair of nodes in *S*
- So, to disconnect *S* we have to remove *at least k* edges



- The above graph has two 3-edge-connected components: {A, C, D, E} and {B, F, G, H}
- The graph itself is 1-edge-connected but not 2-edge-connected

Menger's Theorem

- Let *s*, *t* be distinct nodes of a graph
- Edge version: the minimum number of edges whose removal disconnects s and t is <u>equal</u> to the maximum number of edge-independent paths from s to t
- Node version: if s and t are not adjacent, the minimum number of nodes whose removal disconnects s and t is <u>equal</u> to the maximum number of node-independent paths from s to t

Connectivity values of a subgraph

- $\kappa(G) = \max \{ \kappa : G \text{ is } \kappa \text{-connected} \}$
- $\lambda(G) = \max \{\lambda : G \text{ is } \lambda \text{-edge-connected}\}$
- $\kappa(G) \le \lambda(G) \le minimum degree$
- $\lambda(G)$ can be arbitrarily larger than $\kappa(G)$:



Computing node- and edge-connectivity

- The max-flow/min-cut theorem is a generalization of Menger's Theorem (edge version)
- To compute the edge-connectivity between two nodes s and t, we can use any maximum-flow algorithm:
 - assign capacity 1 to every edge
 - invoke the max-flow algorithm, with source *s* and sink *t*
 - the maximum amount of flow that can be sent is the value of the edge-connectivity between s and t
- To compute $\lambda(G)$, repeat for all pairs *s*, *t* and return the minimum
 - In fact, the source can be fixed arbitrarily! Iterate only over t
- A similar approach works for node-connectivity as well

Graph bipartitioning

- How "well" can a network be split into two parts?
- Partition V(G) into S, T:
 - $S \cup T = V(G)$
 - $S \cap T = \emptyset$



- But: need to formalize the objective function...
- One idea is to minimize the size of the cut:

 $e(S,T) = |\{\{u,v\} \in E(G) : u \in S, v \in T\}|$

Graph bipartitioning

Finding a globally minimum cut is easy, but it may yield trivial solutions:



Graph bipartitioning

- Different options to circumvent the problem:
 - 1. Impose that S and T have *prescribed* size
 - |S| = p, |T| = q for given p, q
 - 2. Impose that S and T have similar size
 - $|S| \le (1+\epsilon)n/2$, $|T| \le (1+\epsilon)n/2$ for given $\epsilon > 0$
 - 3. Incorporate the sizes in the *objective function*

Graph bipartitioning objective functions

• Expansion:

 $\frac{e(S,T)}{\min(|S|,|T|)}$

• Cut-ratio (or sparsity):



Conductance:

e(S,T) $\min(\operatorname{vol}(S),\operatorname{vol}(T))$ $(\operatorname{vol}(X) = \sum_{i \in X} \deg(i))$

Graph bipartitioning algorithms we'll discuss

- With prescribed sizes:
 - Local search: Kernighan-Lin algorithm
 - Spectral bipartitioning
- Conductance minimization:
 - Variant of spectral bipartitioning

Homophily, assortativity and modularity

Homophily

- Social networks often exhibit homophily: people tend to select friends with similar characteristics
- Immutable characteristics (like ethnicity, language) influence the formation of links (selection)
- In turn, existing links influence people's behavior and mutable characteristics (like living place) (social influence)

Spatial segregation



Spatial segregation



Assortative and disassortative mixing

- Homophily is also known as assortative mixing
- The reverse phenomenon is disassortative mixing, where people tend to form links with others who are *unlike* them
- More rare: main example is the sexual contact network

Quantifying assortativity: notation

- Let *c_i* be the class (category), or type, of node *i*
- The number of edges running between nodes of the same type is

$$\sum_{(i,j)\in E} \delta(c_i, c_j) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j\in V} A_{ij}\delta(c_i, c_j)$$

where $\delta(c_i, c_j) = 1$ if $c_i = c_j$ and 0 otherwise

Quantifying assortativity: notation

 We compare this with the *expected* number of edges between nodes when edges are placed at random:

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j \in V} \frac{k_i k_j}{2m} \delta(c_i, c_j)$$

where k_i is the degree of i

The modularity score

• The normalized difference is called the **modularity** of the clustered network:

$$Q(G) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i,j \in V} \left(A_{ij} - \frac{k_i k_j}{2m} \right) \delta(c_i, c_j)$$

- Modularity is between -1 and +1
- Positive modularity = assortativity
- Negative modularity = disassortativity

General approaches to clustering

- Divisive methods
 - Start with 1 global cluster, and recursively subdivide it into smaller clusters
- Agglomerative methods
 - Start with n individual node clusters, and iteratively aggregate them into larger clusters
- Other methods
 - Local search, algebraic, ...

Girvan-Newman method

- Example of a divisive hierarchical method
- Produces a sequence of partitions: each is a **refinement** of the previous one
- At the end, return the partition with highest modularity score

Girvan-Newman method

- 1. Initialization: all nodes have the same type
- 2. Find the edge(s) with highest betweenness
- 3. Remove that edge(s) from the graph
 - If the graph splits, assign a different type to each component
- 4. If there are edges, go back to point 2
- 5. Return the partition with highest modularity











Girvan-Newman in practice

- Works well for moderate size networks (up to a few thousand nodes)
- Recomputing the betweenness values at every step is the computational bottleneck
- Option: use *approximate* betweenness (Riondato & Kornaropoulos 2014)

Newman's greedy method

- Example of an agglomerative hierarchical method
- Produces a sequence of partitions: each is a coarsening of the previous one
- At the end, return the partition with highest modularity score

Newman's greedy method

- 1. Initialization: each node has a distinct type
- 2. Join the pair of communities that results in the **larger increase in modularity** (may be negative!)
- 3. Merge their types
- 4. If there is more than one type, go back to 2
- 5. Return the partition with highest modularity

Spectral modularity maximization

1. Consider the modularity matrix, B:

$$B_{ij} = A_{ij} - \frac{\deg(i)\deg(j)}{2m}$$

- Compute the eigenvector x of B associated to the largest (= most positive) eigenvalue
- 3. Each node *i* goes in community 1 if $x_i \ge 0$, and in community 2 if $x_i < 0$
- Good quality solutions, but limited to 2 clusters