

## Lecture 7

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## 7.1 Random Walks on Weighted Graphs

We now define random walks on weighted graphs. We will let  $A$  denote the adjacency matrix of a weighted graph. We will also the graph to have self-loops, which will correspond to diagonal entries in  $A$ . Thus, the only restriction on  $A$  is that is be symmetric and non-negative.

When our random walk is at a vertex  $u$ , it will go to node  $v$  with probability proportional to  $a_{u,v}$ :

$$m_{u,v} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{a_{u,v}}{\sum_w a_{u,w}}.$$

So that  $m_{u,v}$  can be the probability of moving from  $v$  to  $w$ , I am going to have to do something I hate: multiplying by vectors from the right.

In matrix notation, we can form the matrix of probabilities,  $M$ , by setting

$$\begin{aligned} d_u &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_w a_{u,w} \\ D &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n) \\ M &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} D^{-1}A. \end{aligned}$$

I will call  $M$  the *walk matrix* of the weighted graph. We must be careful when dealing with  $M$  because it is not symmetric, and so its eigenvectors are not necessarily orthogonal, or might not even exist. However,  $M$  is very close to symmetric. If we define the *normalized adjacency matrix*

$$N \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} D^{-1/2}AD^{-1/2},$$

we can see that  $M$  and  $N$  have the same eigenvalues and related eigenvectors. To make this more precise, let  $v$  be an eigenvector of  $N$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ . Setting  $w = vD^{1/2}$ , we find

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda v &= vN \\ \lambda v &= vD^{1/2}MD^{-1/2} \\ \lambda wD^{-1/2} &= wD^{-1/2}D^{1/2}MD^{-1/2} \\ \lambda wD^{-1/2} &= wMD^{-1/2} \\ \lambda w &= wM. \end{aligned}$$

The main questions we will ask about random walks are: Do they converge to a steady state? How quickly do they converge? And, what can we learn about  $A$  from their convergence? For an example of a walk that doesn't converge, consider the graph consisting of two nodes connected by an edge. A random walk starting at one of the nodes will alternate between the two nodes forever. By slightly modifying  $A$ , we can force the walk to converge to a steady state: all we need to do is add a small self-loop at each vertex. In the rest of this lecture, we will consider a larger modification: we will add a self-loop at each vertex large enough to guarantee that the walk stays put with probability  $1/2$ . That is, we want:

$$a_{u,u} \geq \sum_{v \neq u} a_{u,v}, \quad \text{which implies } m_{u,u} \geq 1/2.$$

In this case, one can show that  $M$  is positive semi-definite, its largest eigenvalue is 1, and the corresponding left eigenvector is  $(d_1, \dots, d_n)$ . So, the walk will eventually settle down to hit node  $i$  with probability  $d_u / \sum_w d_w$ . For future use, we set

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_w d_w \\ \pi_u &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} d_u / \sigma. \end{aligned}$$

Knowledge about the second eigenvalue of  $M$  can be used to bound how quickly the walk converges to  $\pi$ . Let  $p^0(i)$  denote the initial probability of being at node  $i$ , and  $p^t(i)$  denote the probability of being at node  $i$  after  $t$  steps, where

$$p^t \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} p^0 M^t.$$

One can prove (see [Lov96, Theorem 5.1])

**Theorem 7.1.1.** *Let  $\mu_2$  denote the second-largest eigenvalue of a positive semi-definite walk matrix  $M$ . For any vertex  $u$ , let  $p^0$  be the probability distribution concentrated at  $u$  ( $p^0(u) = 1$ ). Then, after  $t$  steps we have for every vertex  $v$ ,*

$$|p^t(v) - \pi(v)| \leq \sqrt{\frac{d_v}{d_u}} \mu_2^t.$$

Similarly, if  $\mu_2$  is large, one can use the corresponding eigenvector to find an initial distribution that does not converge rapidly (This might be an exercise).

## 7.2 Conductance

For weighted graphs, and for that matter irregular graphs, there is a more natural notion than the isoperimetric number that I defined a few lectures ago. It is called *conductance*. Note: calling one concept conductance and the other isoperimetric number is my own convention. Usage in the literature is mixed.

For a partition of the vertex set of a graph  $(S, \bar{S})$ , we define the conductance of the cut to be

$$\Phi(S) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\sum_{u \in S, v \notin S} a_{u,v}}{\min\left(\sum_{w \in S} d_w, \sum_{w \notin S} d_w\right)}.$$

To simplify writing expressions such as this, I will define the volume of a set of vertices  $S$  by

$$\text{vol}(S) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{w \in S} d_w,$$

the volume of a set of edges  $F$  to be

$$\text{vol}(F) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{(u,v) \in F} a_{u,v},$$

and

$$\partial(S) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{(u, v) \in E : u \in S, v \in \bar{S}\}.$$

So, we can write

$$\Phi(S) = \frac{\text{vol}(\partial(S))}{\min(\text{vol}(S), \text{vol}(\bar{S}))}.$$

Finally, we define the conductance of a graph by

$$\Phi(G) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min_{S \subset V} \Phi(S).$$

Cheeger's Theorem has a nicer form for conductance and walk matrices (See [Lov96, Theorem 3.5] for a proof):

$$\frac{\Phi^2}{8} \leq 1 - \mu_2 \leq \Phi.$$

Of course, you can also get a Laplacian version by taking the normalized Laplacian:

$$L = 2(I - M) = D^{-1/2}(D - A)D^{-1/2}.$$

There is a strong relationship between  $\Phi(G)$  and the rate at which random walks converge. The easy direction comes from letting  $S$  be a set such that  $\Phi(S) = \Phi(G)$  and  $\text{vol}(S) \leq \text{vol}(V)/2$ . Then, consider the initial distribution

$$p^0(u) = \begin{cases} d_u / \sum_{w \in S} d_w & \text{if } u \in S \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

In one step, the probability the walk will land in a vertex not in  $S$  is

$$\sum_{u \in S, v \notin S} p_1(u) m_{u,v} = \frac{\sum_{u \in S, v \notin S} a_{u,v}}{\sum_{u \in S} d_u} = \Phi(S).$$

One can show that in each successive step, even less probability mass will escape. So, we must wait at least  $1/4\Phi(S)$  steps before even a quarter of the probability mass escapes to  $\bar{S}$ , which should have at least half the probability mass under  $\pi$ .

In the next section, we will prove a partial converse to this observation. That is, if  $\Phi(G)$  is big, then every random walk must converge quickly.

### 7.3 The Lovasz-Simonovits Theorem

Most people who examine random walks use some function to determine how close the walk is to convergence. Lovasz and Simonovits [LS90] use a curve instead. To describe the curve, I will first have to introduce some notation. For now, fix some probability distribution,  $p$ . We will work with a normalized version of  $p$ , given by

$$\rho(u) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{p(u)}{d_u}.$$

As the walk converges,  $\rho(u)$  approaches  $1/S$  for all  $u$ .

Random walks, and most processes on graphs, are usually best understood by treating the edges as the most important objects, rather than the vertices. I will now try to do that here. First, I will replace every edge  $(u, v)$  by two directed edges, one from  $u$  to  $v$ , denoted  $(u, v)$ , and one from  $v$  to  $u$ , denoted  $(v, u)$ . Then, I will consider the probability mass that is about to be transported over an edge  $(u, v)$ , and denote it by

$$p(u, v) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} p(u)m_{u,v}.$$

We will usually work with a normalized version of this term:

$$\rho(u, v) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{p(u, v)}{a_{u,v}} = \frac{p(u)}{d_u}.$$

So,  $\rho(u, v)$  only depends upon  $u$ .

Now, let  $e_1, \dots, e_{2m}$  be an ordering of the directed edges satisfying

$$\rho(e_1) \geq \rho(e_2) \geq \dots \geq \rho(e_{2m}).$$

We now define some points on the critical curve,  $I(x)$ . For each  $0 \leq k \leq 2m$ , we set

$$s_k \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^k a_{e_i}, \text{ and the point}$$

$$I(s_k) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^k a_{e_i} (\rho(e_i)).$$

Observe that  $s_{2m} = S$  and  $I(s_{2m}) = 1$ . We now extend  $I$  to a function on all of  $[0, \sigma]$  by making it piecewise linear between these points. Note that the slope of the curve  $I$  between  $s_k$  and  $s_{k+1}$  is

$$\frac{I(s_{k+1}) - I(s_k)}{s_{k+1} - s_k} = \frac{a_{e_{k+1}} (\rho(e_{k+1}))}{a_{e_{k+1}}} = \rho(e_{k+1}).$$

Two important conclusions follow.

- As  $\rho(e)$  only depends on the start vertex of edge  $e$ , and the slope only depends on  $\rho(e)$ , the curve does not depend on the order in which we place edges with the same start vertex.
- As  $\rho(e_i)$  is monotonically decreasing, the slopes are as well. Thus, the curve is concave.

As the walk converges, the curve approaches the line from  $(0, 0)$  to  $(\sigma, 1)$ . We will now show that the curve for each time step of a walk lies under the curve for the previous step. Our notation will be to superscript all terms by  $t$ , the time step. Note that at each time step we may have a different ordering of the vertices.

**Theorem 7.3.1.** *For every initial distribution  $p^0$ , all  $t$ , and every  $x \in [0, \sigma]$ ,*

$$I^t(x) \leq I^{t-1}(x).$$

Before proving this theorem, we make one simple claim about  $I$ :

**Claim 7.3.2.** *For every  $c_1, \dots, c_{2m}$  such that  $c_i \leq a_{e_i}$ ,*

$$\sum_{i=1}^{2m} c_i (\rho(e_i)) \leq I \left( \sum_{i=1}^{2m} c_i \right).$$

*Proof sketch.* This should be obvious: since the terms  $(\rho(e_i))$  are monotonically decreasing, one maximizes the sum by maxing out the coefficients of the leading terms, as much as possible. Stated differently, if  $c_1 < a_{e_1}$ , then increasing  $c_1$  and decreasing some other  $c_i$  to preserve  $\sum c_i$  will increase the sum. Once you max out  $c_1$ , proceed with  $c_2$ , and so on.  $\square$

*Proof of Theorem 7.3.1.* Order the edges so that

$$\rho(u_1, v_1) \geq \rho(u_2, v_2) \geq \dots \geq \rho(u_{2m}, v_{2m}).$$

It suffices to prove the theorem in the case where  $x = s_k^t$  for some  $k$  so that  $(u_1, v_1), \dots, (u_k, v_k)$  are exactly the set of edges entering some set of vertices,  $W = \{u_1, \dots, u_k\}$ . We then have

$$\begin{aligned} I^t(s_k) &= \sum_{i=1}^k a_{(u_i, v_i)} \rho^t(u_i, v_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k p^t(u_i, v_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k p^t(u_i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k p^{t-1}(v_i, u_i), \text{ as mass out equals mass in,} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k a_{(v_i, u_i)} \rho^{t-1}(v_i, u_i), \\ &\leq I^{t-1} \left( \sum_{i=1}^k a_{(v_i, u_i)} \right) \text{ by Claim 7.3.2} \\ &= I^{t-1}(s_k), \end{aligned}$$

$\square$

That was easy, so we will push it a little further: we will prove that the curve  $I^t$  has to lie below  $I^{t-1}$  by an amount depending on  $\Phi(G)$ .

**Theorem 7.3.3.** *For every initial distribution  $p^0$ , all  $t$ , and every  $x \in [0, \sigma/2]$ ,*

$$I^t(x) \leq \frac{1}{2} (I^{t-1}(x - 2\Phi x) + I^{t-1}(x + 2\Phi x))$$

and for  $x \in [\sigma/2, \sigma]$ ,

$$I^t(x) \leq \frac{1}{2} (I^{t-1}(x - 2\Phi(\sigma - x)) + I^{t-1}(x + 2\Phi(\sigma - x))).$$

This theorem tells us that we can draw chords below the curve  $I^{t-1}$ , below which  $I^t$  must lie. If you examine the proof, you will find that it only depends on the conductance of the level sets under  $p^t$ . So, if the walk stagnates, then you know that one of the level sets has poor conductance.

Before proving Theorem 7.3.3, we will show how it can be applied.

**Theorem 7.3.4.** *For every initial probability distribution,  $p^0$ , every  $x \in [0, \sigma]$  and every time  $t$ ,*

$$I^t(x) \leq \min(\sqrt{x}, \sqrt{\sigma - x}) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\Phi^2\right)^t + x/\sigma.$$

In particular, for every set of vertices  $W$ ,

$$\left| \sum_{w \in W} p^t(w) - \pi(w) \right| \leq (\sqrt{x}, \sqrt{\sigma - x}) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\Phi^2\right)^t,$$

where  $x = \sum_{w \in W} d_w$ .

*Proof of Theorem 7.3.4.* Consider the curve

$$R^0(x) = \min(\sqrt{x}, \sqrt{\sigma - x}) + x/\sigma.$$

It is easy to show that

$$I^0(x) \leq R^0(x), \text{ for all } x \in [0, \sigma].$$

While we can not necessarily reason about what happens to the curves  $I^t$  when we draw the chords indicated by Theorem 7.3.3, we can reason about the chords under  $R^0$ . If we set

$$R^t(x) = \frac{1}{2} (R^{t-1}(x - 2\Phi x) + R^{t-1}(x + 2\Phi x)),$$

for  $x \in [0, \sigma/2]$ , and

$$R^t(x) = \frac{1}{2} (R^{t-1}(x - 2\Phi(\sigma - x)) + R^{t-1}(x + 2\Phi(\sigma - x))),$$

for  $x \in [\sigma/2, \sigma]$ , then an elementary calculation reveals that

$$R^t(x) \leq \min(\sqrt{x}, \sqrt{\sigma - x}) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\Phi^2\right)^t + x/\sigma.$$

As all the curves are concave, we have

$$I^t(x) \leq R^t(x),$$

which proves the theorem.  $\square$

Before I prove Theorem 7.3.3, I want to conjecture that a better proof exists. Please try to find one!

*Proof of Theorem 7.3.3.* We will only consider the case  $x \in [0, \sigma/2]$ , and again observe that it suffices to prove the theorem in the case where  $x = s_k$ , for some  $k$ . Moreover, we may assume that the edges  $(u_1, v_1), \dots, (u_k, v_k)$  consist of all edges leaving some vertex set  $W = \{u_1, \dots, u_k\}$ .

Applying the same derivation, we find

$$\sum_{i=1}^k a_{(u_i, v_i)} \rho^t(u_i, v_i) = \sum_{i=1}^k a_{(v_i, u_i)} \rho^{t-1}(v_i, u_i).$$

At this point, we stop and divide the edges  $\{(v_i, u_i)\}_{i=1}^k$  into two classes. Class  $W_1$  will consist of all edges  $(v_i, u_i)$  where  $v_i \in W$  and  $v_i \neq u_i$ ; that is, the set of internal edges excluding self-loops. Class  $W_2$  will consist of all other edges: the self-loops  $(w, w)$  for  $w \in W$  and incoming edges  $(v_i, u_i)$  for  $v_i \notin W$  and  $u_i \in W$ . We obtain the sum

$$\sum_{(u,v) \in W_1} a_{(u,v)} \rho^{t-1}(u, v) + \sum_{(u,v) \in W_2} a_{(u,v)} \rho^{t-1}(u, v).$$

We will show momentarily that

$$\sum_{(u,v) \in W_1} a_{(u,v)} \rho^{t-1}(u, v) \leq (1/2) I^{t-1}(x - 2\Phi x), \quad (7.1)$$

and

$$\sum_{(u,v) \in W_2} a_{(u,v)} \rho^{t-1}(u, v) \leq (1/2) I^{t-1}(x + 2\Phi x), \quad (7.2)$$

which will complete the proof.

To prove (7.1), observe the sum of the weights of the internal, non-self-loop edges is at most  $x/2 - \Phi x$ . So, by Claim 7.3.2, we immediately have

$$\sum_{(v,u) \in W_1} a_{(v,u)} \rho^{t-1}((v, u)) \leq I^{t-1}(x/2 - \Phi x).$$

To prove the stronger bound required by (7.1), note that we have been very loose by maxing out some coefficients, and letting others be zero. If we instead set  $c_{(v,u)} = a_{(v,u)}/2$  and  $c_{(v,v)} = \sum_{u:(v,u) \in W} a_{(v,u)}/2$ , we have

$$c_{(v,u)} \leq a_{(v,u)}/2 \quad (7.3)$$

for all  $(v, u)$  and

$$\sum_{(v,u)} c_{(v,u)} = \sum_{(v,u) \in W_1} a_{(v,u)} \leq x/2 - \Phi x,$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{(v,u) \in W_1} a_{(v,u)} \rho^{t-1}(v, u) &= \sum_{(v,u)} c_{(v,u)} \rho^{t-1}(v, u) \\ &= (1/2) \sum_{(v,u)} 2c_{(v,u)} \rho^{t-1}(v, u) \\ &\leq (1/2) I^{t-1}(x - 2\Phi x), \end{aligned}$$

by (7.3) and Claim 7.3.2. The proof of (7.2) is similar.  $\square$

For some examination of how this proof technique can be used to find cuts around a vertex, see [ST03, Section 3].

## References

- [Lov96] Laszlo Lovasz. Random walks on graphs: a survey. In T. Szonyi D. Miklos, V. T. Sos, editor, *Combinatorics, Paul Erdős is Eighty, Vol. 2*, pages 353–398. Janos Bolyai Mathematical Society, Budapest, 1996.
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