

# Lecture Notes on Spectral Analysis of Graphs

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## 1 Introduction

Recall that given a graph  $G(V,E)$ , we define its expansion  $\alpha(G)$  as,

$$\alpha(G) = \min_{U \subset V} \frac{|\delta(U)|}{\min(|U|, |V-U|)}.$$

Previously, we estimated  $\alpha(G)$  via the all-pairs multi-commodity flow problem. Now we will try to estimate  $\alpha(G)$  through an eigenvalue analysis.

**Definition 1.1** Given an  $n$  by  $n$  matrix  $M$ , we call  $\lambda$  an eigenvalue of  $M$  if there exists  $0 \neq x \in R^n$  such that  $Mx = \lambda x$ . We say  $x$  is an eigenvector associated with  $\lambda$ .

**Definition 1.2** Given an undirected graph  $G = (V,E)$  with  $|V| = n$ , its adjacency matrix  $A$  is given by  $A_{ij} = 1$  if  $(i,j) \in E$  and  $A_{ij} = 0$  otherwise.

Note that the above definition implies that  $A$  is symmetric. From now on we will restrict our attention to graphs  $G$  that have no self loops, in which case  $A_{ii} = 0$ .

So what is the combinatorial meaning of  $Ax$ ? If we think of  $x \in R^n$  as an assignment of numbers  $x_i$  to each vertex  $i$  of  $G$ , then  $Ax$  corresponds to the operation of assigning to each node in  $G$  the sum of its neighbors' values.

Also observe that in the case where  $G$  is  $d$ -regular  $A$  has  $d$  ones in each row, so  $A\vec{1} = d*\vec{1}$ . I.e. if  $G$  is  $d$ -regular then  $d$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$ .

**Lemma 1.3** Let  $G(V,E)$  be a connected,  $d$ -regular graph with adjacency matrix  $A$ . If  $x \neq c\vec{1}$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda$ , then  $\lambda < d$ .

*Proof.* Let  $S = \{i \mid x_i = \max_j x_j\}$ . We have  $\emptyset \neq S \neq V$  since  $x \neq c\vec{1}$ . Since  $G$  is connected, there exists an edge  $(i,j) \in E$  with  $i \in S, j \notin S$ . So  $(Ax)_i < d*x_i$  since  $(Ax)_i$  is the sum of  $d$  components of  $x$ , all of which are  $\leq x_i$  and at least one of which (namely  $x_j$ ) that is strictly  $< x_i$ . So  $\lambda < d$ . ■

If  $G$  were not connected, then the above lemma is not necessarily true: Let  $C, V-C$  be two components of  $G$ . let  $x = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$  with  $x_i = 1$  if  $i \in C$  and zero otherwise. Since  $C$  is  $d$ -regular,  $Ax = dx$ . In fact, the number of components of  $G$  equals the dimension of the space of eigenvectors with eigenvalue  $d$ .

Now we state (without proof) two basic facts about matrices:

**Claim 1.4** Suppose  $M$  is a symmetric  $n$  by  $n$  matrix. Then the eigenvalues of  $M$  are real and  $M$  has  $n$  orthonormal eigenvectors  $w_1, \dots, w_n$  (note that  $\{w_i\}$  spans  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ). Furthermore, if  $\lambda_i$  is the eigenvalue associated with  $w_i$ , then  $M = PDP^T$  where  $D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$  and  $P = [w_1, \dots, w_n]$ .

**Claim 1.5** Let  $M$  be an  $n$  by  $n$  matrix. The following are equivalent:

(i) If  $\lambda$  is an eigenvalue of  $M$ , then  $\lambda \geq 0$ .

(ii)  $x^T Mx \geq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

If these properties hold then we call  $M$  positive semi-definite. If  $M$  is symmetric then the above are equivalent to,

(iii)  $M = N^T N$  for some matrix  $N$ .

**Lemma 1.6** Let  $M$  be a symmetric, positive semi-definite matrix with orthonormal eigenvectors  $w_1, \dots, w_n$  and associated eigenvalues  $0 \leq \lambda_1 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$ . Let  $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid x \perp w_1\}$  and let  $S_1 = \{x \in S \mid \|x\| = 1\}$ . Then,

$$\lambda_2 = \min_{0 \neq x \in S} \frac{x^T Mx}{x^T x} = \min_{x \in S_1} x^T Mx.$$

*Proof.* The second equality follows since we can replace  $x$  by  $x/\|x\|$ .

Take  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Since  $\{w_i\}$  spans  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we can find  $\alpha_i$  such that  $x = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i w_i$ . So,

$$Mx = M \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i w_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i * M w_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \lambda_i.$$

And since  $\{w_i\}$  is an orthonormal set,

$$x^T Mx = \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j \lambda_i w_i w_j = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \alpha_i^2.$$

Now,  $x \in S_1$  iff  $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^2 = 1$  and  $\alpha_1 = 0$ . And to minimize  $\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \alpha_i^2$  subject to  $\alpha_1 = 0$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^2 = 1$  we set  $\alpha_2 = 1$ ,  $\alpha_i = 0$  for  $i \neq 2$ . So,

$$\min_{x \in S_1} x^T Mx = \lambda_2.$$

■

## 2 Which matrix do we use?

Up until now, we've been looking at  $A$ , the adjacency matrix of  $G$ . Another useful matrix is  $L$ , the Laplacian matrix of  $G$ , where  $L$  is defined as follows.

**Definition 2.1** Given a graph  $G = (V, E)$  we define the Laplacian matrix  $L$  by  $L_{ij} = \text{deg}(i)$  if  $i = j$ ,  $L_{ij} = -1$  if  $(i, j) \in E$ , and 0 otherwise.

So if  $\phi = \text{diag}(\text{deg}(1), \dots, \text{deg}(n))$ , then  $L = \phi - A$ . Because  $L$  has row and column sums equal to 0, 0 is an eigenvalue of  $L$ , and  $\vec{1}$  is the corresponding eigenvector. This is very useful because it also holds for nonregular graphs,  $G$ .

In order to use [1.5], we want to show  $L = N^T N$  for some matrix  $N$ . We can define  $N$  by letting each column correspond to a node  $1 \dots n$ , and each row correspond to an edge  $e_1 \dots e_m$ , where  $|E| = m$ , and placing  $\pm 1$  in the entries corresponding to edges and endpoints. Specifically, we will set  $N_{ij} = 1$  if  $e_i = (j, k)$  for some  $k > j$ ,  $N_{ij} = -1$  if  $e_i = (j, k)$  for some  $k < j$ , and  $N_{ij} = 0$  otherwise.

Thus,  $L = N^T N$ , so from [1.5] we have  $0 = \lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n$ . Notice that here all of our eigenvalues are “flipped”, so instead of looking at  $\lambda_{n-1}$ , we are interested in the behaviour of  $\lambda_2$ .

In order to bound  $\lambda_2$ , we will consider  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , which is a labeling on  $V$ . So the new label on node  $i$  is  $(Lx)_i = \sum_{(i,j) \in E} (x_i - x_j)$ . In  $x^T Lx$ , this means each edge will appear in the sum

$$\text{as } x_i(x_i - x_j) + x_j(x_j - x_i) = (x_i - x_j)^2, \text{ and so } x^T Lx = \sum_{(i,j) \in E} (x_i - x_j)^2.$$

Then we can find the first two eigenvalues in the following way:

$$\lambda_1 = \min_{0 \neq x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{x^T Lx}{x^T x} = \min_{0 \neq x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{\sum_{(i,j) \in E} (x_i - x_j)^2}{\sum_i x_i^2} = 0,$$

and so for the corresponding eigenvector,  $\omega_1$ , we have  $(\omega_1)_i = (\omega_1)_j \forall i, j$ .

$$\lambda_2 = \min_{0 \neq x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x\omega_1 = 0} \frac{\sum_{(i,j) \in E} (x_i - x_j)^2}{\sum_i x_i^2}$$

This acts like a 1-D embedding problem where one wants to minimize the strain on the edges. We will use this to obtain upper and lower bounds on  $\lambda_2$  in terms of  $\alpha(G)$ . Note that this is equivalent to finding upper and lower bounds on  $\alpha(G)$  in terms of  $\lambda_2$ .

**Claim 2.2**  $2\alpha \geq \lambda_2 \geq \frac{\alpha^2}{2\Delta}$  where  $\Delta = \text{maximum degree of } G$ .

Notice that for expander graphs,  $2\alpha$  and  $\frac{\alpha^2}{2\Delta} = \frac{\alpha}{\Delta} \frac{\alpha}{2}$  are close. But for other graphs,  $\frac{\alpha}{\Delta}$  could be quite small. Here we will prove the easier half of this inequality. The other part, while not conceptually difficult, is based on a more elaborate argument using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality.

**Lemma 2.3**  $2\alpha \geq \lambda_2$

*Proof.* Pick any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\sum x_i = 0$ . Then

$$\lambda_2 \leq \frac{\sum_{(i,j) \in E} (x_i - x_j)^2}{\sum_i x_i^2}.$$

Look at a partition  $(A, B)$ ,  $a = |A| \leq |B| = b$  which achieves  $\alpha: \frac{e(A,B)}{a} = \alpha$ . Then set  $x_i = \frac{1}{a}$  if  $x_i \in A$ , and  $x_i = \frac{-1}{b}$  if  $x_i \in B$ . So

$$\sum x_i = a \frac{1}{a} + b \frac{-1}{b} = 0.$$

We also have

$$\sum x_i^2 = a \frac{1^2}{a^2} + b \frac{(-1)^2}{b^2} = \frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b}.$$

Thus we obtain:

$$\frac{\sum_{(i,j) \in E} (x_i - x_j)^2}{\sum_i x_i^2} = \frac{e(A, B) \left(\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b}\right)^2}{\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b}} = e(A, B) \left(\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b}\right) \leq 2 \frac{e(A, B)}{a} = 2\alpha.$$

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