

Highly-efficient minimization of network connectivity in large-scale graphs

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ABSTRACT

Network connectivity minimization is a fundamental problem in controlling the spread of virus in Internet and facilitating information propagation in online social networks. The problem aims to identify a budget number of key nodes whose removal would minimize the connectivity of a network. However, the existing solutions heavily rely on the number of edges, making it challenging to handle large and densely connected social networks. In this study, we present a fast algorithm that is independent of the number of edges. To achieve this, we first introduce a surrogate matrix that approximates the residual adjacency matrix with arbitrary small predefined error. We then devise an efficient approach for calculating the key nodes by optimizing the eigenvalues of the surrogate matrix. Remarkably, the algorithm has a small time complexity of $O(knr^3)$, with r being a small tunable number. Our algorithm thereby maintains a linear scalability in terms of the number of nodes and is unaffected by the number of edges. Hence, it has the capability to efficiently handle large and dense social networks. At last, we evaluate its performance against state-of-the-art techniques using diverse real-world datasets. The experimental results demonstrate the superiority of our proposed method in terms of both solution quality and computational efficiency.

CCS CONCEPTS

• Mathematics of computing → Graph algorithms.

KEYWORDS

Network immunization; Network connectivity; complex network

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Relevance Declaration: Our paper focuses on identifying the key nodes regarding network connectivity in complex

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graphs. This is crucial to protect online social networks from rumors and immunize Internet from computer viruses. Consequently, our research agrees well with the track ‘Security and privacy’ in the Web Conference 2024.

1 INTRODUCTION

The optimization of network connectivity assumes great significance due to its capacity to delineate the structural properties of a complex network across a wide range of security applications [1, 2]. For instance, when examining the dynamics of SIR/SIS epidemic spreading, the occurrence of a SIR/SIS epidemic outbreak is typically contingent upon the connectivity of the principal eigenvalue of the adjacency matrix [3]. To mitigate such epidemics, it becomes imperative to minimize connectivity by means of patient isolation and the reduction of physical interactions between individuals. In the realm of Internet networks, natural connectivity acts as an evaluative metric for discerning network robustness [1]. Bolstering robustness requires the identification and preservation of critical nodes/edges within these networks. Hence, the optimization of network connectivity assumes pivotal importance in the manipulation of a network’s dynamical function.

The optimization of network connectivity is commonly achieved by identifying and manipulating a collection of important nodes and edges [4]. Given a budget number k , the total number of potential node or edge sets is $\binom{n}{k}$ ($\binom{m}{k}$ for edge sets), where n and m correspond to the numbers of nodes and edges, respectively. As a result, the brute-force algorithm demonstrates exponential complexity and is impracticable for large-scale networks. To address the exponential time complexity, the most advanced methodologies can be classified into three distinct categories: (i) Heuristic algorithms[5]: These kinds of methods identify influential nodes based on various topological indices such as degree, betweenness, and PageRank. Although they usually have low time complexity, they cannot provide a guarantee regarding the quality of the solutions. (ii) Greedy algorithms [1, 6]: The algorithms select a candidate node at each step based on the marginal gain in network connectivity that occurs after removing each node. Research has shown that numerous connectivity functions adhere to the property of diminishing returns, which ensures an approximation ratio of $1 - 1/e$ for greedy algorithms [7, 8]. However, recalculating the marginal gain for every node at each step is computationally expensive in large-scale networks. (iii) Optimization of simplified objective functions [9, 10]: The algorithms optimize some simplified objective functions to calculate the influential nodes. However, similar to heuristic algorithms, these methods also lack a guarantee of solution quality.

In this study, we present a novel algorithm aimed at optimizing network connectivity in an efficient manner. In particular, the network connectivity can be efficiently represented by the combination of eigenvalues of a network's adjacency matrix [4]. Hence, we focus on how to accelerate the calculation of eigenvalues of the adjacency matrix after node perturbation. The primary contributions of this research can be summarized as follows: (a) *Surrogate matrix*. We introduce a straightforward *simple* surrogate matrix that closely mimics the eigenvalues of the *complex* perturbed adjacency matrix. Through rigorous analysis, we prove that the eigenvalues of the surrogate matrix and the perturbed adjacency matrix can be manipulated to predetermined small errors. (b) *A new algorithm*. By leveraging the surrogate matrix, we propose an expedient algorithm for optimizing node-level network connectivity with an approximation ratio of $1 - 1/e$. Our algorithm offers two significant advantages when compared to existing methods: (1) *effectiveness*, as it accounts for the perturbation of multiple eigenvalues, enabling it to effectively handle networks with small eigenvalue gaps; (2) *efficiency*, characterized by linear time complexity relative to the number of nodes. Notably, the time complexity of our algorithm remains unaffected by the number of edges, thereby ensuring scalability for large and dense networks. To the best of our knowledge, our algorithm is the most efficient solution for the connectivity minimization problem.

2 RELATED WORK

Our work touches on the network connectivity formalisms and optimization algorithms that are summarized as follows:

Network connectivity formalisms. Investigating network connectivity entails an examination of the degree to which a network is interconnected [1, 11, 12], as exemplified by various components such as graph diameter [13], clustering coefficient [14], and the presence of a giant component [15]. Conversely, from a dynamics standpoint, the focus primarily resides on investigating the dissemination models of SIS/SIR/SIRS [3], independent cascade failure [16], linear threshold model [17], and others [1]. Extensive research has demonstrated that a considerable number of dynamics are intricately tied to network connectivity, irrespective of the specific dynamics under investigation, and are solely dependent on the network's topology [18]. Chen et al. [7] has provided a comprehensive summary of connectivity metrics, elucidating how different metrics can be unified through combinations of eigenvalues derived from the adjacency matrix of a network.

Network connectivity minimization. The objective of network connectivity minimization is to identify a subset of nodes/edges whose removal can significantly reduce connectivity metrics. A commonly utilized metric for connectivity assessment is the reciprocal of the largest eigenvalue of the adjacency matrix or Laplacian matrix [19, 20]. Chen et al. [21] addressed the problem of selecting optimal nodes and edges to minimize the largest eigenvalue of the adjacency matrix. Prakash et al. [22] employed self-similar selection

to propose an immunization approach for online networks. Zhang et al. [20] focused on minimizing eigenvalues of the nonbacktracking matrix through the manipulation of nodes and edges. Chen et al. [4] systematically formalized the connectivity minimization problem and introduced a fast QR-decomposition method to optimize connectivity.

A closely related problem is influence maximization, which aims to identify a subset of nodes that can maximize the activation of nodes in the final graph state [9, 17, 23–25]. Morone and Makse [9] established a connection between influence maximization and immunization problems. More recently, Fan et al. [10] introduced deep learning techniques into influence maximization. As our paper diverges from the focus of influence maximization, we limit the discussion of its details.

Our study bears some similarity to the connectivity optimization techniques discussed in refs. [4, 6]. In these references, the employed algorithm exhibited a time complexity of $O(k(mr + nr^3))$ that depends on the number of edges, rendering it computationally burdensome for dense networks. In contrast, our approach proposes to optimize the surrogate matrix. This stands in contrast to the adjacency matrix-based approach outlined in refs. [4, 6]. To the best of our knowledge, our algorithm is the fastest non-heuristic method to optimize network connectivity.

3 PROBLEM DEFINITION

In this study, we adopt a standardized notation system to enhance clarity and consistency in our mathematical framework. Specifically, the inequality $A < 0$ implies that the matrix A is negative definite, while the inequality $A < B$ implies that $A - B$ is negative definite. Let $G = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E})$ be a finite undirected and unweighted graph of n nodes and m edges without self-loops, with node set $\mathcal{V} = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and edge set $\mathcal{E} = \{(i, j) | i, j \in \mathcal{V}\}$. The connections of nodes are represented by the adjacency matrix $A = (a_{ij})_{n \times n}$ with the entry a_{ij} denoting the adjacency relation between nodes i and j . If nodes i and j are linked to either by an edge $e \in \mathcal{E}$ with unit weight, then $a_{ij} = a_{ji} = 1$. Otherwise, $a_{ij} = a_{ji} = 0$. d_i is the degree of node i and d_{max} denotes the largest degree. We suppose that the adjacency matrix A has n distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \dots > \lambda_n$ ($\Lambda^{(n)} = \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n\}$) with the corresponding eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ ($U^{(n)} = [\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n]$), $A = U^{(n)}\Lambda^{(n)}U^{(n)T}$. The largest eigenvalue of A is also denoted as λ_A ($\lambda_A = \lambda_1$). When we find a budget size k of influential nodes and remove the nodes from the graph, we obtain the adjacency matrix A' of the remaining graph by setting zero for the rows and columns of A that correspond to the removed nodes. The eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A' are denoted as eigen-pair $(\lambda'_i, \mathbf{v}'_i)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. If we specify a matrix notation, $\lambda_i(B)$ means the i -th largest eigenvalue of B . Without specification, $\lambda_i = \lambda_i(A)$, $\lambda'_i = \lambda_i(A')$.

Definition of network connectivity[4, 6]: The network connectivity is usually defined as

$$\zeta(G) = \sum_{\pi \in G} f(\pi), \quad (1)$$

where π is a subgraph of G , $f(\cdot)$ is a nonnegative mapping function $f : \pi \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$, $f(\emptyset) = 0$ for empty set; otherwise $f(\pi) > 0$. $\zeta(G)$ actually means the aggregation of all subgraphs in the network. In a large number of real scenarios, $\zeta(G)$ could be represented by a combination function of eigenvalues of A , $\zeta(G) = F(\Lambda^{(r)})$, where $F(\Lambda^{(r)})$ is a function of the top- r eigenvalues of A . Choosing appropriate function $f(\cdot)$ plays a crucial role in accurately emulating diverse connectivity metrics such as path capacity, triangle capacity, natural capacity, and others (See ref. [4]). In this paper, we minimize the connectivity based on the optimization of top- r eigenvalues. The problem could be formalized as:

Problem 1(Connectivity minimization): Finding k optimal nodes that, when removed, could minimize $\zeta(G \setminus \mathcal{S})$.

Input: The adjacency matrix A of a network, a budget integer k , and a connectivity measure $\zeta(G)$;

Output: A subset \mathcal{S} of k nodes that minimize $\zeta(G \setminus \mathcal{S})$.

Previous research [6] established the NP-hardness of the connectivity minimization problem. Consequently, the widely employed approach is the greedy algorithm. At each step, the greedy algorithm calculates the marginal gain of $\zeta(G)$ for each node and chooses a candidate node that could minimize $\zeta(G)$. The current best implementation of the greedy algorithm [4, 6] demonstrates a time complexity of $O(k(mr + nr^3))$ that depends on the number of edges and proves to be impractical for dense networks. Consequently, to accelerate the greedy algorithm, the central issue of the greedy algorithm is to simplify the evaluation complexity of marginal gains, which is the main concern of our paper.

4 THE PROPOSED ALGORITHM

In order to efficiently calculate the marginal gains of $\zeta(G)$ for each node in the greedy algorithm, we first propose a surrogate matrix to approximate $\lambda_{A'}$ and the surrogate matrix has simpler formalism than A . We then introduce a fast algorithm to minimize the connectivity metric based on the surrogate matrix.

4.1 The proposed surrogate matrix

Given a candidate node set \mathcal{S} , we first define the surrogate matrix as follows:

Definition 1 (Surrogate matrix): The surrogate matrix is defined as $A - D$, where D represents a diagonal matrix $D = \text{diag}\{c, c, 0, c, \dots, 0\}_{n \times n}$, $D(i, i) = c$ if node $i \in \mathcal{S}$; $D(i, i) = 0$ otherwise. c is a real positive number.

We highlight the relative ease in calculating the surrogate matrix in comparison to the more complex process of obtaining the residual adjacency matrix. Specifically, the residual adjacency matrix is derived by assigning zeros to the rows and columns corresponding to the nodes within the set \mathcal{S} .

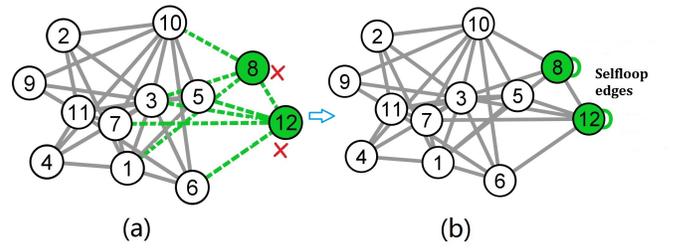


Figure 1: Schematic translation of the node removal problem. Removing a set of nodes is equivalent to the addition of negative self-loop edges.

On the other hand, the surrogate matrix is obtained through the addition of a single self-loop edge for each node within \mathcal{S} (refer to Fig. 1).

We then provide an example to help understand the utilization of the surrogate matrix. Let us consider the spreading dynamics of an epidemic in an example network in Fig. 1, and let us consider the SIS spreading model. Let ρ_i be the infection probability of node i , $\rho_i = 0$ means susceptible state, $\rho_i = 1$ means complete infection. Supposing that two nodes labeled 8 and 12 (green) need to be immunized, we explore two strategies: (1) Removing the connections associated with nodes 8 and 12 (Fig. 1(a)). (2) Considering the application of negative feedback to these nodes using pinning control techniques [26] (Fig. 1(b)), where the feedback is formally defined as $c(0 - \rho_i)$ (see ref. [26] for the pinning control details). Both approaches successfully achieve immunization of the network (More details are shown in the *Appendix A*). In this study, we employ the concept of thresholds to examine the spreading dynamics of networks [3, 27]. For the first case, where two nodes are removed, the threshold is denoted as $\lambda_{A'}$ [27]. In the second case, the threshold is characterized by the largest eigenvalue λ_{A-D} of the matrix $A - D$, with D being the feedback diagonal matrix [26, 28]. The diagonal elements of matrix D indicate the feedback applied to the nodes. Since both strategies prevent the two specified nodes 8 and 12 involved in the spreading dynamics, the two approaches should share similar thresholds, i.e., $\lambda_{A'} \approx \lambda_{A-D}$. However, this conjecture currently lacks rigorous analysis and we will provide strict proofs in the following part.

Theorem 1: The eigenvalues of the surrogate matrix approximate the eigenvalues of A' at $c > \lambda_A$,

$$\lambda_i(A') = \lambda_i(A - D) + O(c^{-1}), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n - |\mathcal{S}|. \quad (2)$$

By appropriately tuning the parameter c , we can ensure that the eigenvalues of $A - D$ closely approximate those of A' with an arbitrarily small error. Additionally, as $c \rightarrow +\infty$, the top- r eigenvalues of $A - D$ coincide with those of A' . Before proving Theorem 1, we first prove that the largest eigenvalue of $A - D$ and A' satisfies Eq. 2.

Lemma 1: The largest eigenvalue $\lambda_{A'}$ of the residual network has the upper and lower boundary $\lambda_{A-D} - \frac{d_{max}^2}{c - \lambda_A} \leq \lambda_{A'} \leq \lambda_{A-D}$ at $c > \lambda_A$. If $c \rightarrow +\infty$, $\lambda_{A'} = \lambda_{A-D}$.

Proof: Without loss of generality, we suppose that the node set $\mathcal{S} = \{1 : k\}$ and consider two cases.

Case 1: We rewrite matrix A using block matrix formalism and construct the following quadratic form,

$$\begin{aligned} f_1\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}\right) &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}^T (A - D) \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} - cI & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} \quad (3) \\ &= \mathbf{x}^T A_{22} \mathbf{x}, \end{aligned}$$

where A_{11} is the adjacency matrix within the nodes in \mathcal{S} , A_{22} actually represents the adjacency matrix of the residual network, $A_{22} = A'$, and $A_{12} = A_{21}^T$ is the adjacency matrix between set \mathcal{S} and the residual nodes.

Recalling that for arbitrary matrix Q and arbitrary vector \mathbf{x} , the Rayleigh entropy $R(Q, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{\mathbf{x}^T Q \mathbf{x}}{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}}$ has the property $\lambda_{Q, \min} \leq R(Q, \mathbf{x}) \leq \lambda_{Q, \max}$, where $\lambda_{Q, \min}$ and $\lambda_{Q, \max}$ are the minimum and maximum eigenvalues of Q respectively. If we set \mathbf{x} as the eigenvector corresponding to the largest eigenvalue of A_{22} , we have

$$f_1\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}\right) = \lambda_{A_{22}} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} \leq \lambda_{A-D} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (4)$$

Hence, we arrive at $\lambda_{A_{22}} \leq \lambda_{A-D}$.

Case 2: Supposing $c > \lambda_A$, we construct the following quadratic form,

$$\begin{aligned} f_2\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}\right) &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}^T (A - D) \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} - cI & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} \quad (5) \\ &= \mathbf{y}^T A_{11} \mathbf{y} - c \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} + 2 \mathbf{y}^T A_{12} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{x}^T A_{22} \mathbf{x}. \end{aligned}$$

We focus on the terms,

$$\begin{aligned} &-c \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} + 2 \mathbf{y}^T A_{12} \mathbf{x} \\ &= -c \sum_i y_i^2 + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq k} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n-k} 2A_{12}(i, j) y_i x_j \\ &= -\sum_{1 \leq i \leq k} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n-k} A_{12}(i, j)^2 \left(\sqrt{\frac{\alpha c}{d_{max}}} y_i - \sqrt{\frac{d_{max}}{\alpha c}} x_j \right)^2 \\ &-c \sum_{1 \leq i \leq k} (1 - \alpha \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n-k} \frac{A_{12}(i, j)}{d_{max}}) y_i^2 \\ &+ \sum_{1 \leq i \leq k} \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n-k} (A_{12}(i, j) \sqrt{\frac{d_{max}}{\alpha c}} x_j)^2 \\ &\leq -c \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n-k} (1 - \alpha) y_j^2 + \sum_{1 \leq j \leq n-k} \frac{d_{max}^2}{\alpha c} x_j^2 \\ &= -c(1 - \alpha) \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{y} + \frac{d_{max}^2}{\alpha c} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}, \quad (6) \end{aligned}$$

where α is a positive number. Hence, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f_2\left(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}\right) &\leq \mathbf{y}^T (A_{11} - c(1 - \alpha)I) \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{x}^T (A_{22} + \frac{d_{max}^2}{\alpha c} I) \mathbf{x} \\ &\leq \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}^T B \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}, \quad (7) \end{aligned}$$

where $B = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} - c(1 - \alpha)I & 0 \\ 0 & A_{22} + \frac{d_{max}^2}{\alpha c} I \end{pmatrix}$ is a block diagonal matrix. Since $\lambda_{A_{11}} < \lambda_A$, when we set $c(1 - \alpha) = \lambda_A$, we have $A_{11} - c(1 - \alpha)I < 0$. If we set $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}$ as the eigenvector corresponding to the largest eigenvalue of $A - D$, we have

$$\lambda_{A-D} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} \leq \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}^T B \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (8)$$

Based on the property of *Rayleigh entropy*, we can get

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_{A-D} &\leq \lambda_B = \max\{\lambda_{A_{11}} - \lambda_{A'} I, \lambda_{A_{22} + \frac{d_{max}^2}{\alpha c} I}\} \\ &= \lambda_{A_{22}} + \frac{d_{max}^2}{c - \lambda_A}. \quad (9) \end{aligned}$$

Recalling that $\lambda_{A_{22}} \leq \lambda_{A-D}$ and Eq. 9, we have

$$\lambda_{A-D} - \frac{d_{max}^2}{c - \lambda_A} \leq \lambda_{A'} = \lambda_{A_{22}} \leq \lambda_{A-D}. \quad (10)$$

In Eq. 10, when $c \rightarrow +\infty$, $\lambda_{A'} = \lambda_{A-D}$. Hence $\lambda_{A'}$ satisfies the lemma. \square

Next, we show that the other eigenvalues also satisfy Theorem 1.

Lemma 2: The eigenvalues of A' satisfies $\lambda_i(A') = \lambda_i(A - D) + O(c^{-1})$, $i = 2, \dots, n - |\mathcal{S}|$.

Proof: We first focus on the case $i = 2$. Let \mathbf{x}_i and \mathbf{y}_i ($|\mathbf{x}_i| = 1, |\mathbf{y}_i| = 1$) be the eigenvectors corresponding to the i -th largest eigenvalues of A' and $A - D$ respectively. Based on Lemma 1, we have $\lambda_{A - \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^T - D} - \frac{d_{max}^2}{c - \lambda_A} \leq \lambda_{A' - \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^T} \leq \lambda_{A - \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^T - D}$. We concern the matrix $[(A - D - \lambda_{A-D} \mathbf{y}_1 \mathbf{y}_1^T) + (\lambda_{A-D} \mathbf{y}_1 \mathbf{y}_1^T - \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^T)]$. Note that for arbitrary vector \mathbf{v} ($|\mathbf{v}_i| = 1$), $|\mathbf{v}^T (\lambda_{A-D} \mathbf{y}_1 \mathbf{y}_1^T - \lambda_1 \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_1^T) \mathbf{v}| < 2|\lambda_1 - \lambda_{A-D}|$. Since the largest eigenvalue of matrix $(A - D - \lambda_{A-D} \mathbf{y}_1 \mathbf{y}_1^T)$ is the second largest eigenvalue of $A - D$, we have $\lambda_2(A - D) = \lambda_1(A - D - \lambda_{A-D} \mathbf{y}_1 \mathbf{y}_1^T) + O(|\lambda_1 - \lambda_{A-D}|)$ and hence $\lambda_2(A') = \lambda_2(A - D) + O(c^{-1})$.

For the case $i > 2$, we consider the matrix $[A - D - \sum_{t=1}^i \lambda_{t, A-D} \mathbf{y}_t \mathbf{y}_t^T + (\sum_{t=1}^i \lambda_{t, A-D} \mathbf{y}_t \mathbf{y}_t^T - \sum_{t=1}^i \lambda_t \mathbf{x}_t \mathbf{x}_t^T)]$. Iteratively using the derivation of case 2 could arrive at lemma 2. \square

4.2 Fast spectral calculation of the surrogate matrix

The core issue of the greedy algorithm is to calculate the eigenvalues of the residual adjacency matrix. Recognizing the remarkable approximation between the eigenvalues of $A - D$ and those of the residual matrix A' , we introduce a

time-efficient approach to calculate the eigenvalues of $A - D$ as a viable alternative to computing those of A' .

In the process of identifying a suitable candidate node j , we construct a vector $\mathbf{v}_{n \times 1}$ that has only one nonzero entry $\mathbf{v}_j = 1$. We then execute partial-QR decomposition $[U^{(r)}, \mathbf{v}] = QR$. Importantly, it should be noted that the column vectors incorporated within $U^{(r)}$ are orthonormal, we only need to orthogonalize \mathbf{v} from $U^{(r)}$ as

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v} - \sum_{i=1}^r (\mathbf{v}^T U^{(r)}(:, i)) U^{(r)}(:, i) = \mathbf{v} - \sum_{i=1}^r U^{(r)}(j, i) U^{(r)}(:, i). \quad (11)$$

We can also calculate the magnitude of \mathbf{u} as $\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{1 - \sum_i U^{(r)}(j, i)^2}$.

Then the partial-QR decomposition on $[U^{(r)}, \mathbf{v}]$ is

$$[U^{(r)}, \mathbf{v}] = [U^{(r)}, \mathbf{u}] \begin{bmatrix} I & \mathbf{r} \\ 0 & \|\mathbf{u}\| \end{bmatrix}, \quad (12)$$

where I is the identity matrix and $\mathbf{r} = U^{(r)}(j, :)^T$. For the partial-QR decomposition $[U^{(r)}, \mathbf{v}] = QR$, $Q = [U^{(r)}, \mathbf{u}]$ and $R = \begin{bmatrix} I & \mathbf{r} \\ 0 & \|\mathbf{u}\| \end{bmatrix}$.

Theorem 2: Matrix A could be effectively approximated by considering its top- r eigenvalues and their corresponding eigenvectors, along with an accompanying error denoted as E , i.e., $A = U^{(r)} \Lambda^{(r)} U^{(r)T} + E$. When adding a new node j to set \mathcal{S} , the eigenvalues of modified matrix $A - D$ are equal to that of $Z = R \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda^{(r)} & 0 \\ 0 & -c \end{bmatrix} R^T$.

Proof: Since $A = U^{(r)} \Lambda^{(r)} U^{(r)T} + E$, we have

$$A - D = [U^{(r)}, \mathbf{v}] \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda^{(r)} & 0 \\ 0 & -c \end{bmatrix} [U^{(r)}, \mathbf{v}]^T + E. \quad (13)$$

The eigenvalues of $A - D$ are determined by the first part of the right-hand side of Eq. 13. Since $[U^{(r)}, \mathbf{v}]$ has the QR decomposition formalism $[U^{(r)}, \mathbf{v}] = QR$, we can arrive at

$$A - D = QR \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda^{(r)} & 0 \\ 0 & -c \end{bmatrix} R^T Q^T + E. \quad (14)$$

Let $Z = R \begin{bmatrix} \Lambda^{(r)} & 0 \\ 0 & -c \end{bmatrix} R^T$, Z is a symmetric matrix and could be decomposed as $Z = U_Z \Lambda_Z U_Z^T$. Hence, we can arrive at

$$A - D = Q U_Z \Lambda_Z U_Z^T Q^T + E. \quad (15)$$

Since Q and U_Z are orthonormal matrices, Λ_Z and $Q U_Z$ actually mean the top eigenvalues and corresponding eigenvectors of $A - D$. \square

Remark: Theorem 2 presents a practical approach for evaluating all the eigenvalues of the matrix $A - D$. Specifically, explicitly calculating the λ_{A-D} possesses time complexity $O(n^3)$. In contrast, the computation of the eigenvalues of Z exhibits a time complexity of $O(r^3)$. Given the fact that $r \ll n$, it is evident that the calculation of Z is a notably more efficient procedure.

4.3 The proposed Connectivity Optimization Algorithm (COA)

In this section, we introduce the details of the connectivity optimization method. The proposed algorithm is shown in Algorithm 1. In Algorithm 1, we initialize the set \mathcal{S} empty. In lines 3-13, at each step, we first calculate the marginal gains of $\zeta(\cdot)$ for each node (lines 4-8) and then choose the best node corresponding to the maximum marginal gain (line 9). We then update the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $A - D$ (lines 10-12).

Algorithm 1: Connectivity optimization algorithm (COA)

- 1 Input:** The adjacency matrix A , the budget size k , and a connectivity measure $\zeta(\cdot) = F(\cdot)$
 - 2 Output:** Node set \mathcal{S}
- 1: Initialize $S = \emptyset$ and c as the largest degree of nodes.
 - 2: Calculate top- r eigenvalues $\Lambda^{(r)}$ and eigenvectors $U^{(r)}$ of A .
 - 3: **while** count = 1 to k **do**
 - 4: **while** $i \notin \mathcal{S}$ **do**
 - 5: Calculate matrix R and Z that correspond to i .
 - 6: Compute the whole eigenvalues Λ_Z of Z .
 - 7: $I(i) = F(\Lambda^{(r)}) - F(\Lambda_Z)$.
 - 8: **end while**
 - 9: Add $j = \text{argmax}_j I(j)$ to \mathcal{S} .
 - 10: Calculate matrix R and Z that correspond to j .
 - 11: Compute the eigen decomposition of $Z = U_Z \Lambda_Z U_Z^T$.
 - 12: $\Lambda^{(r)} = \Lambda_Z^{(r)}$, $U^{(r)} = (Q U_Z)^{(r)}$.
 - 13: $A = A - D$.
 - 14: **end while**
 - 15: **return** set \mathcal{S} .
-

Lemma 3: The time complexity of COA is $O(knr^3 + mr)$, among which the greedy iteration costs $O(knr^3)$.

proof: For the initialization, lines 1-2 calculate the top- r eigenvalues and eigenvectors, which have time complexity $O(nr^2 + mr)$. For lines 4-8, at each round, calculating the connectivity drop of each node requires traversing all eigenvalues with complexity $O(nr^3)$, and choosing a candidate node requires $O(n)$ (lines 9). Lines 10-12 update the eigenvalues and eigenvectors after the removal of a node. Hence, the overall time complexity is $O(knr^3 + mr)$. \square

Lemma 4: The space complexity of the COA method is $O(nr + m)$.

proof: In the algorithm, we need $O(m)$ for matrix A , $O(nr)$ for matrix U and Q , $O(r^2)$ for R and Z . Hence, the total space complexity is $O(nr + m)$. \square

Lemma 5: The COA algorithm could arrive at $(1 - 1/e)$ approximation ratio at arbitrary small error.

Proof: Based on Theorem 1, $\lambda_{A'} = \lambda_{A-D} + O(c^{-1})$. For arbitrary small error ε , if we set $c = \lambda_A + O(1/\varepsilon)$, the eigenvalue difference between $A - D$ and A' is $O(\varepsilon)$. Based on the diminishing return property of the objective function $\zeta(\cdot)$

[4, 21], the greedy algorithm has $(1 - 1/e)$ approximation ratio at arbitrary small error ε . Hence, we have Lemma 5. \square

Parameter determination: Our algorithm COA (in Algorithm 2) has two parameters r and c . For the determination of parameter r , previous investigations have consistently demonstrated that the number of prominent eigenvalues of real networks aligns with the number of the communities [29, 30]. Given this, we use the modularity-based method [31] to detect communities and determine r . In practical applications, it is often feasible to set r to a considerably smaller value than the actual number of communities, thereby optimizing time efficiency. For instance, experimental results have verified that even with $r = 100$, an error rate lower than 1% can be achieved. For the determination of parameter c , larger c yields a diminished level of approximation error in the surrogate matrix. In the experiments, we could set $c = 2d_{max}$ that is empirically enough to have high solution quality. Moreover, empirical evidence has indicated that smaller values of c contribute to achieving higher precision. Significantly, the experimental results affirm that the approximation error between the eigenvalues of $A - D$ and A' is consistently below 1%.

5 EXPERIMENT

Here, we are interested in the performance of real data. Our experiments run on a computer with 4 2.4GHz Intel(R) i7 CPUs, 128GB memory, and 64bit Ubuntu 20.04.

5.1 Experimental setup

Datasets. We perform experiments on six different social networks ¹: (1) BitcoinSocial: A user trust/distrust network from the *Bitcoin OTC* platform with 5875 nodes and 21489 edges. (2) Hamstersterfriends: A social network containing friendships between users of the website *Hamsterster* with 1788 nodes and 12476 edges. (3) Twitter: A network representing user-user following information on *Twitter* with 22322 nodes and 31823 edges. (4) Facebook: The friendship of Facebook users with 63392 nodes and 816831 edges. (5) Epinions: The social network of the online product rating site *Epinions* with 119130 nodes and 704267 edges. (6) Flixster: The social network of *Flixster*, an online movie rating site with 2523386 nodes and 7918801 edges. All these networks are treated as undirected and unweighted.

Comparing methods. We compare our algorithm with seven state-of-the-art methods. (1) Degree: Nodes are ranked by their degree. (2) K-shell [32]: The method is based on the K-shell decomposition of the network. (3) PageRank [33]: The PageRank scores of nodes are calculated by the recursive PageRank equation. (4) Eigenvector [34]: The importance of a node is characterized by the entry of the principal eigenvector. (5) Netshield [21]: It is a method aiming at minimizing the largest eigenvalue of the adjacency matrix. (6) Contain [4]: The method optimizes the connectivity of a network based on top- r eigenvalues. (7) Finder [10]: It is a method based on reinforcement learning. (8) Brute force

(Exact) method. It costs more than 24 hours in networks with millions of nodes. Hence, we omit its connectivity performance and only discuss its time consumption.

Parameter settings. The PageRank method has a parameter to tune the probability of teleportation, which is tuned to the optimal performance. For other parameters, we set $c = 2d_{max}$ and r as the number of communities unless otherwise stated. In the experiments, we also investigate the influence of c and r on the results. See the code on <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/connectivityoptimization-0DE2>.

Evaluation Metrics. We use two connectivity metrics: the largest eigenvalue λ'_1 of the residual networks and the size of triangles in the residual networks [4, 35]. If different methods have similar performance, we compare their time consumption and smaller time consumption is better.

5.2 Experiment results

In the experiments, the performance of the COA algorithm was assessed from three distinct viewpoints: solution quality, time consumption, and parameter sensitivity.

Solution quality. The proposed COA method is initially compared with baseline methods using two connectivity metrics, namely the largest eigenvalue λ'_1 and the number of triangles. It is worth noting that smaller values of these connectivity metrics indicate superior performance.

Figure 2 visually demonstrates that our COA method consistently achieves the smallest value for λ'_1 across the tested networks. Consequently, the proposed COA outperforms the existing methods. The performance of classical heuristic methods, such as *Degree*, *K-shell*, *PageRank*, *Eigenvector*, and *Finder*, exhibits fluctuations across different networks, failing to guarantee solution quality. It is worth noting that our method attains nearly equivalent performance to *Contain*. However, *Contain* explicitly computes the top- r eigenvalues of the adjacency matrices of the residual networks, requiring the manipulation of all edges connected to the nodes in the influential set S , resulting in increased time consumption. In contrast, our COA adopts a simple surrogate matrix $A - D$ to mitigate the time complexity.

Figure 3 shows the triangle numbers of different methods. We observe that our method has the largest drop of the triangle number, revealing the effectiveness of our method. The number of triangles agrees well with that of the largest eigenvalue λ'_1 in Fig. 3. The results also demonstrate that our method outperforms the existing methods.

Time complexity result. We conducted a time consumption comparison between the COA method, *Contain*, and the brute force methods (refer to Fig. 4). This comparison is justified as only these three methods are reliant on the calculation of top- r eigenvalues.

Figure 4 illustrates the time consumption analysis of our COA algorithm compared to *Contain* and the brute force methods across various networks. The results confirm the efficiency of COA, as it consistently exhibits the lowest time consumption. Notably, the time consumption of COA increases

¹Konect Data Collection, [Http://konect.cc/networks/](http://konect.cc/networks/)

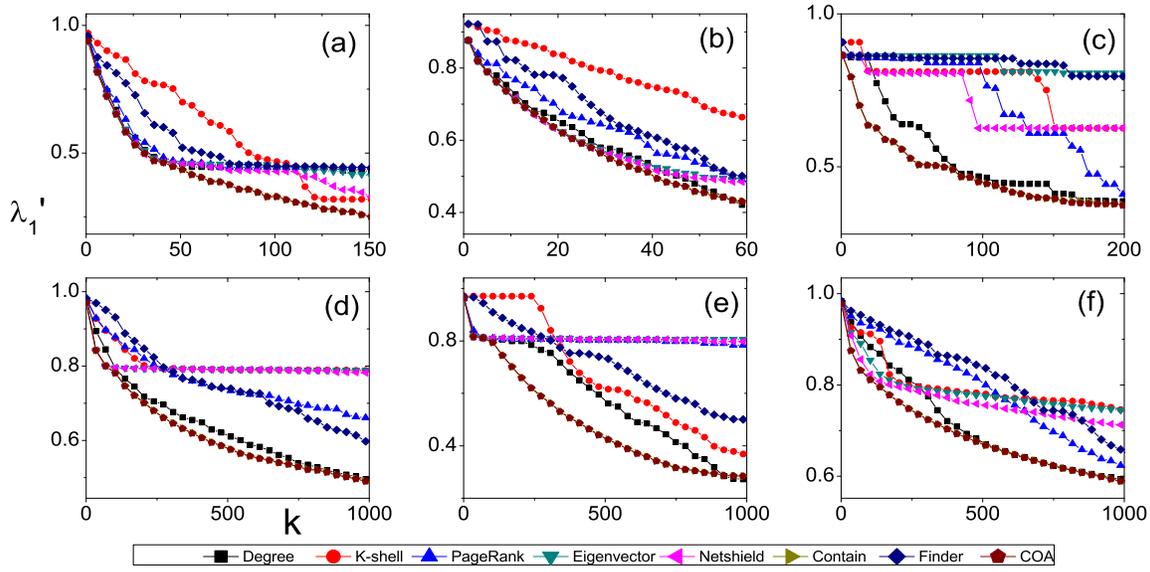


Figure 2: The comparison of largest eigenvalues λ_1' of different methods. Smaller λ_1' is better. (a) BitcoinSocial. (b) Hamstersterfriends. (c) Twitter. (d) FacebookWOSN. (e) Epinions. (f) Flixster.

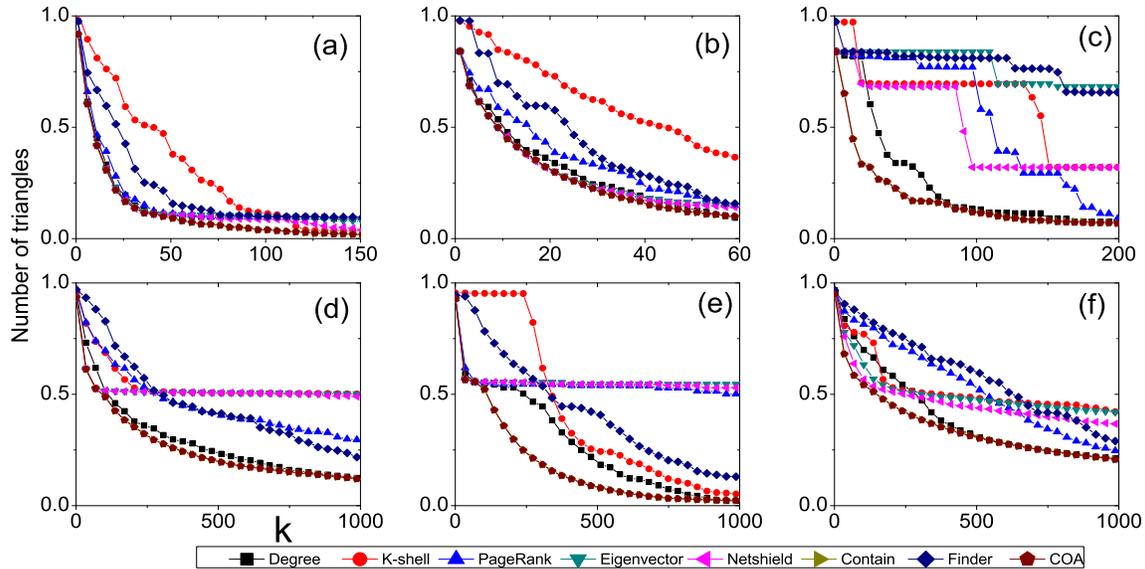


Figure 3: The comparison of triangle numbers of different methods. Smaller triangle number is better. (a) BitcoinSocial. (b) Hamstersterfriends. (c) Twitter. (d) FacebookWOSN. (e) Epinions. (f) Flixster.

gradually with the parameter k , owing to the algorithm’s iteration (lines 4-8 in Algorithm 2), which has a linear relationship with the number of nodes and is independent of the number of edges. In contrast, the time complexities of *Contain* and the brute force methods rely on the number of edges, resulting in a higher time consumption overall compared to COA. Consequently, COA outperforms the other methods in terms of time consumption. It is worth mentioning that in

certain networks (Figures 4(a)-(b)), *Contain* exhibits higher time consumption than the brute force method. This discrepancy can be attributed to the intricate connections within these networks and the varying time consumption involved in the spectral decomposition of parameter Z (line 6 in Algorithm 2) within these smaller networks. However, for larger networks (Figures 4(c)-(f)), *Contain* consistently displays

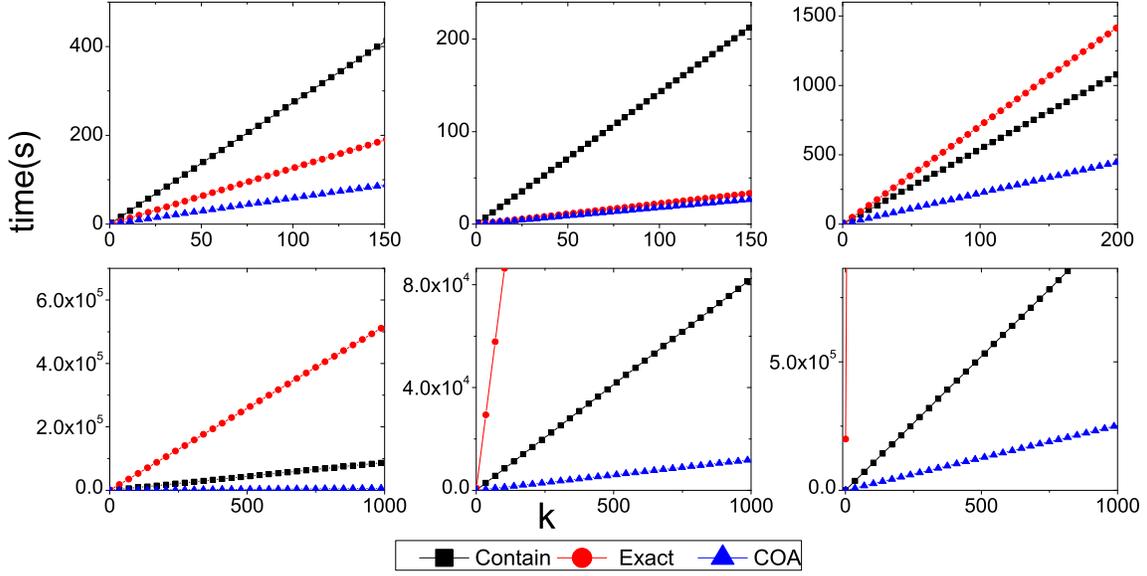


Figure 4: The time consumption of different methods. Smaller time is better. (a) BitcoinSocial. (b) Hamsterfriends. (c) Twitter. (d) FacebookWOSN. (e) Epinions. (f) Flixster.

lower time consumption than the brute force method, aligning with previous findings in the literature.

Parameter sensitivity. There are two parameters, r and c , associated with COA approach. First, we validate the impact of r on the connectivity performance. We employ the COA algorithm to identify influential nodes under various values of r and subsequently evaluate λ'_1 of the residual network A' , as demonstrated in Fig. 5(a). The findings exhibited in Fig. 5(a) demonstrate that with an increase in the value of r , the achieved λ'_1 on the BitcoinSocial network decreases, indicating improved performance. Through extensive experimentation, we discover that a value of $r = 50$ yields highly satisfactory results, with errors less than 2%. Moreover, similar trends are observed in the other four networks and we omit them due to space constraints.

To analyze the impact of parameter c on the approximation error between the largest eigenvalue of $A - D$ and A' , we present the results in Figure 5(b). The figure demonstrates that as c increases, λ_{A-D} rapidly converges to λ'_1 in the BitcoinSocial network. Notably, when $c = 10\lambda_A$, the disparity between the largest eigenvalues of $A - D$ and A' is less than 2%, providing empirical evidence for the effectiveness of Theorem 1. The results are similar for the other four networks, we omit four networks due to space limitation.

6 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we study the problem of how to efficiently minimize network connectivity. Initially, we propose a *simple* surrogate matrix as an approximation for the *complex* residual adjacency matrix. Through rigorous proof, we establish that the top- r eigenvalues of the surrogate matrix

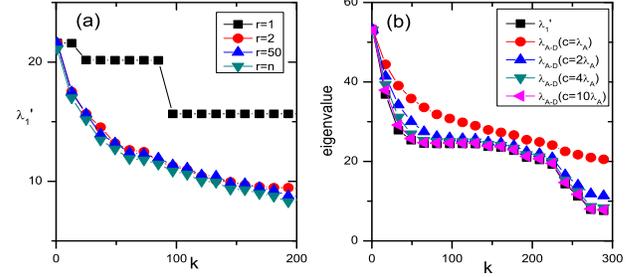


Figure 5: Parameter sensitivity results. (a) Influence of r on λ'_1 on BitcoinSocial network. (b) Influence of c on λ'_1 on BitcoinSocial network.

closely resemble those of the residual networks, with negligible predefined errors. To optimize network connectivity, we subsequently devise a rapid algorithm that calculates the top- r eigenvalues of the residual networks and selects the optimal node-set. Notably, our algorithm boasts a small time complexity of $O(knr^3)$, which remains invariant to the number of edges. Consequently, it demonstrates scalability for large and dense networks. Experimental results validate the superior performance of our algorithm compared to existing methods, thereby validating our theoretical analysis.

The primary focus of our study concerns the resolution of the largest eigenvalue and the number of triangles. As part of future work, we aim to explore alternative approaches for connectivity optimization.

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A APPENDIX A: MOTIVATION DETAILS

In this part, we only brief the SIS model and pinning control of the SIS model, and provide some outline of the critical thresholds of the dynamics. For proof details, please refer to refs. [26, 29, 36, 37].

SIS model. Considering the susceptible-infected-susceptible (SIS) spreading model [38] in a network $G(N, E)$ denoted by an adjacency matrix $A = (a_{ij})_{N \times N}$. Let $\rho_i(t)$ represent the

1045 infection probability of node i at time t . The general dynam- 1103
 1046 ics of each node could be written as [36, 38] 1104

$$1047 \frac{\partial \rho_i(t)}{\partial t} = -\rho_i(t) + \beta[1 - \rho_i(t)] \sum_{j \in N_i} \rho_j(t), \quad (16) \quad 1105$$

1048 where N_i is the neighboring set of node i . 1106
 1049 1107

1050 Here, we utilize a convenient approach to calculate the 1108
 1051 threshold of the network. When protecting a network, we 1109
 1052 usually desire controlling the state of all nodes onto the 1110
 1053 susceptible state, $\rho_i(t) \approx 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, N$. When all the 1111
 1054 $\rho_i(t) \rightarrow 0$, the high-order terms $\rho_i(t) \cdot \rho_j(t)$ of the right hand 1112
 1055 side (r.h.s) of Eq. 16 is much smaller than the terms $\rho_i(t)$ 1113
 1056 and $\rho_j(t)$. Thus, we neglect the influence of the high-order 1114
 1057 terms $\rho_i(t) \cdot \rho_j(t)$ of the r.h.s of Eq. 16 and obtain 1115
 1058 1116

$$1059 \frac{\partial \rho_i(t)}{\partial t} = -\rho_i(t) + \beta \sum_{j \in N_i} \rho_j(t). \quad (17) \quad 1117$$

1060 Equation 17 could be written in matrix formalism, 1118
 1061 1119

$$1062 \frac{\partial \rho(t)}{\partial t} = (\beta A - I)\rho(t), \quad (18) \quad 1120$$

1063 where $\rho(t) = [\rho_1(t), \rho_2(t), \dots, \rho_N(t)]^T$. Equation 18 is a linear 1121
 1064 dynamical system. According to the controllability principle 1122
 1065 [39], $\rho(t)$ could be controlled onto $\rho(t) = \mathbf{0}$ when the largest 1123
 1066 eigenvalue of $(\beta A - I)$ is negative that is 1124
 1067 1125
 1068 1126
 1069 1127

$$1070 \beta_c = \frac{1}{\lambda_1}, \quad (19) \quad 1128$$

1071 where λ_1 is the largest eigenvalue of A . The critical threshold 1129
 1072 of Eq. 19 could be characterized the reciprocal of its largest 1130
 1073 eigenvalue. 1131
 1074 1132

1075 When we remove the nodes in \mathcal{S} , only the nodes in the 1133
 1076 residual network follows the above equation. Hence, the criti- 1134
 1077 cal threshold of the residual network is characterized by λ'_1 . 1135
 1078 1136

1079 More strict derivation of Eq. 19 could also be found in ref. 1137
 1080 [37]. 1138

1081 **Pinning control.** We design negative feedback for the 1139
 1082 chosen influential nodes. Without loss of generality, we sup- 1140
 1083 pose $\mathcal{S} = \{1 : k\}$ and modified SIS dynamics for the nodes 1141
 1084 in \mathcal{S} is 1142

$$1085 \frac{\partial \rho_i(t)}{\partial t} = -\rho_i(t) + \beta[1 - \rho_i(t)] \sum_{j \in N_i} \rho_j(t) + c[0 - \rho_i(t)], \quad (20) \quad 1143$$

1086 where the last term of the r.h.s of Eq. 20 represents feedback. 1144
 1087 The feedback is inclined to control the $\rho_i(t)$ to 0. 1145
 1088 1146

1089 For the nodes in \mathcal{S} , when the dynamics arrive at station- 1147
 1090 ary state, $\frac{\partial \rho_i(t)}{\partial t} = 0$, we have $\rho_i(t) = \frac{\beta \sum_{j \in N_i} \rho_j(t)}{c+1+\beta \sum_{j \in N_i} \rho_j(t)}$. S- 1148
 1091 ince $\rho_i(t) \in [0, 1]$ and $\sum_{j \in N_i} \rho_j(t) < d_{max}$, we have $\rho_i(t) <$ 1149
 1092 $\frac{\beta d_{max}}{c+1+\beta d_{max}}$. When $c \rightarrow +\infty$, $\rho_i(t) \rightarrow 0$. When c is large, 1150
 1093 the nodes in \mathcal{S} are rarely influenced by its neighbors, the 1151
 1094 following equation 22 has similar stationary state with Eq. 1152
 1095 20. We note that the second terms of the r.h.s of Eq. 21 and 1153
 1096 Eq. 20 influence the dynamics little, because when $c \rightarrow +\infty$, 1154
 1097 $\rho_i(t) \rightarrow 0$ in Eq. 21. 1155
 1098 1156
 1099 1157

$$1100 \frac{\partial \rho_i(t)}{\partial t} = -\rho_i(t) + \beta \sum_{j \in N_i} \rho_j(t) + c[0 - \rho_i(t)]. \quad (21) \quad 1158$$

1101 1159
 1102 1160

The dynamics of the other nodes still follows Eq. 17. Hence, 1103
 the dynamics of the whole nodes could be modeled as 1104

$$\frac{\partial \rho(t)}{\partial t} = (\beta A - D - I)\rho(t). \quad (22) \quad 1105$$

$\rho(t)$ could be controlled onto $\rho(t) = \mathbf{0}$ when the largest eigen- 1107
 value of $(\beta A - D - I)$ is negative that is $\beta_c = \frac{1}{\lambda_{1, \beta A - D}}$. If 1108
 we set $c' = D/\beta$ and $D' = D/\beta$, $\beta_c = \frac{1}{\lambda_{1, A - D'}}$. Hence, the 1109
 critical threshold of the residual network is characterized by 1110
 $\lambda_{1, A - D'}$. 1111
 1112

Combining the analysis of SIS and pinning control models, 1113
 we shows that the critical threshold of the residual network 1114
 could be characterized by λ'_1 and $\lambda_{1, A - D'}$ respectively. The 1115
 two formalisms should be equivalent. Here, we only outline 1116
 the SIS and pinning control, which provides intuition to con- 1117
 jecture that $A - D$ has similar eigenvalues of A' . See Theorem 1118
 1 for the strict proof. 1119
 1120