CSE 158 – Lecture 12
Web Mining and Recommender Systems

Social networks
We’ve already seen networks (a little bit) in week 3

- i.e., we’ve studied inference problems defined on graphs, and dimensionality reduction/community detection on graphs
- \textbf{Q:} what do social & information networks \textbf{look} like?
- \textbf{Q:} how can we build better \textbf{models} that are tailored to the properties of social networks?
Social networks

- Social and information networks often follow **power laws**, meaning that a few nodes have **many** of the edges, and many nodes have **a few** edges.

  e.g. web graph (Broder et al.)
  e.g. power grid (Barabasi-Albert)
  e.g. Flickr (Leskovec)
Certain nodes act as **hubs** and **authorities**
Social networks are **small worlds**: (almost) any node can reach any other node by following only a few hops.
Social networks

How can we characterize, model, and reason about the structure of social networks?

1. Models of network structure
2. Power-laws and scale-free networks, “rich-get-richer” phenomena
3. Triadic closure and “the strength of weak ties”
4. Small-world phenomena
5. Hubs & Authorities; PageRank (maybe)
Social networks

How can we **characterize, model, and reason about** the structure of social networks?

- This topic is not discussed in Bishop, and is covered only a little bit in Charle’s Elkan’s notes (Chapter 14)
- For this lecture I more closely followed Kleinberg & Easley’s book “Networks, Crowds, and Markets”
- (A pre-publication draft of) this book is available (**for free!**) on the author’s webpage: http://www.cs.cornell.edu/home/kleinber/networks-book/
Social networks

See also: entire classes devoted to this topic (maybe I’ll teach one some day...)

NETS 112 “Networked Life” (Michael Kearns @ UPenn)

cs224w “Social & Information Network Analysis” (Jure Leskovec @ Stanford)
Definitions

1. Node degree

The node degree (in an undirected network) of a node $u$ is the number of edges incident on $u$. 

degree = 6
1. Node degree

- in_degree = 2
- out_degree = 4

- The in-degree (in a directed network) of a node $u$ is the number of edges $(v \rightarrow u)$
- The out-degree of $u$ is the number of edges $(u \rightarrow v)$
Definitions

2. Connected components

- If there is a path from \((a \rightarrow b)\) and from \((b \rightarrow a)\) then they belong to the same strongly connected component.
- If there is a path from \((a \rightarrow b)\) or from \((b \rightarrow a)\) then they belong to the same weakly connected component.
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Models of network structure
A basic problem in network modeling is to define a random process that generates networks that are similar to those in the real world (why?)

- To define a “null model”, i.e., to test assumptions about the properties of the network
- To generate “similar looking” networks with the same properties
- To extrapolate about how a network will look in the future
The simplest model:
Suppose we want a network with $N$ nodes and $E$ edges
- Create a graph with $N$ nodes
- For every pair of nodes $(i, j)$, connect them with probability $p$
- If we want the expected number of edges to be $E$, then we should set

\[ p = E / \binom{N}{2} \]

- This is known as the “Erdos-Renyi” random graph model
Network models
Example of a graph generated by this process \( (p = 0.01) \):
Network models

The Erdos-Renyi model

• Do Erdos-Renyi graphs look “realistic”?
• e.g. what sort of degree distributions do they generate, and are those similar to real-world networks?

\[ p(\text{deg}(v) = k) = \binom{\nu-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{\nu-k} \]
Network models

The Erdos-Renyi model

\[
p(\text{deg}(v) = k) = \binom{N-1}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-1-k}
\]

- What does the **degree distribution** of the graph look like as \( N \to \infty \), but while \( (N-1)p \) remains constant
- In other words, what does the degree distribution converge to if we fix the expected degree = \( c \)
  - i.e.:

\[
\lim_{N \to \infty} p(\text{deg}(v) = k) = ?
\]
Recall(\?)\,: Poisson limit theorem

If \( n \to \infty \) and \( np \to c \) (with \( c > 0 \)) then

\[
\frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k} \to e^{-c} \frac{c^k}{k!}
\]

Proof is “easy”: just apply Stirling’s approximation for large factorials:

\[
n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left( \frac{n}{e} \right)^n
\]

and simplify until you get the desired result
So, for large graphs, node degrees of an Erdos-Renyi random model are Poisson distributed:

\[
\text{Poisson pmf: } \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} e^{-\lambda}
\]

Q: But is this actually a realistic degree distribution for real-world networks?

So, for large graphs, node degrees of an Erdos-Renyi random model are Poisson distributed:
Network models

Properties of Erdos-Renyi graphs

• If $np < 1$, then the graph will almost surely have no connected components larger than $O(\log(N))$
• If $np = 1$, then the graph will (almost surely) have a largest connected component of size $O(N^{2/3})$
• If $np$ is a constant $> 1$, then the graph will have a single “giant component” containing a constant fraction of the vertices. No other component will contain more than $O(\log(N))$ vertices
• Various other obscure properties
Which of these results is realistic?

- Giant components

![Diagram showing network components]

Giant strongly connected component

Small disconnected components

(the “bow-tie” and “tentacle” structure of the web)
Which of these results is realistic?

- Giant components
  See other examples from the Stanford Network Analysis Collection, e.g.

- astrophysics citation network – 99% of nodes in largest WCC, 37% of nodes in largest SCC
- astrophysics collaboration network – 95% of nodes in largest WCC, 95% of nodes in largest SCC
- Wikipedia talk pages – 99% of nodes in largest WCC, 30% of nodes in largest SCC
Which of these results is realistic?

- Poisson-distributed degree distribution?

Degree distributions of a few real-world networks:

- e.g. web graph (Broder et al.)
- e.g. power grid (Barabasi-Albert)
- e.g. Flickr (Leskovec)

Note: log-log plots
Network models

Which of these results is realistic?
Network models

Which of these results is realistic?

- Real-world networks tend to have power-law degree distributions
  \[ p(x) = Cx^{-\alpha} \]
  (plotting \( x \) against \( p(x) \) looks like a straight line on a log-log plot)
- This is different from a Poisson distribution, which has a mode of \( np \)
Network models

Which of these results is realistic?

Poisson

Power-law
Network models

Which of these results is realistic?

- For example, consider the difference between a road network and a flight network:

  In the former, nodes have similar degrees; the latter is characterized by a few important “hubs”

(pictures from [www.sydos.cz](http://www.sydos.cz) and )
How can we design a model of network formation that follows a power-law distribution?

• We’d like a model of network formation that produces a small number of “hubs”, and a long-tail of nodes with lower degree
• This can be characterized by nodes being more likely to connect to high-degree nodes
Consider the following process to generate a network (e.g. a web graph):

1. Order all of the $N$ pages $1, 2, 3, \ldots, N$ and repeat the following process for each page $j$:
2. Use the following rule to generate a link to another page:
   a. With probability $p$, link to a random page $i < j$
   b. Otherwise, choose a random page $i$ and link to the page $i$ links to
Network models

1. Order all of the N pages 1,2,3,...,N and repeat the following process for each page j:
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Network models

Preferential attachment models of network formation

- This step is important:
  “2b. Choose a random page $i$ and link to the page $i$ links to”
- Critically, this will have higher probability of generating links to pages that already have high degree
  - It can be rewritten as
  “2b. Link to a random page $i$ in proportion to its degree”, i.e.,
  $$p(\text{link to } i) = \frac{\deg(i)}{\sum_j \deg(j)}$$
- This phenomenon is referred to as “rich get richer”, i.e., a page that already has many links is likely to get more
Network models

Preferential attachment models of network formation

• Most importantly, networks created in this way exhibit power-law distributions (in terms of their in-degree) (proof is in Bollobas & Riordan, 2005)
  • Specifically, the number of pages with $k$ in-links is distributed approximately according to $1/k^c$, where $c$ grows as a function of $p$ (i.e., the higher the probability that we copy a link from another page, the more likely we are to see extremely popular pages)
Network models

Other models of network formation

- e.g. Kronecker graphs (Leskovec et al., 2010) – are built recursively through Kronecker multiplication of some template
- Intuitively, communities recursively form smaller “copies” of themselves in order to build the complete network
So far...

• We’ve seen two models of network formation – Erdos Renyi and Preferential Attachment
• Erdos Renyi captures some of the basic properties of real-world networks (e.g. a single “giant component”) but fails to capture power-law distributions, which are ubiquitous in real networks
• Power-law distributions are characterized by the “rich-get-richer” phenomenon – nodes are more likely to connect to other nodes that are already of high degree
“Friendship paradox”

• What are the consequences of a highly imbalanced degree distribution?
• E.g. why does it seem that my friends have more friends than I do?
  • My co-authors have more citations than I do
  • My sexual partners have had more sexual partners than I have
  • etc.
Explanation

Average node degree =

\[
\frac{1}{|V|} \sum_{v \in V} \text{deg}(v) = \frac{2|E|}{|V|} = \mu
\]

\[
\text{var}\ (\text{deg}(v)) = \frac{1}{|V|} \sum_{v \in V} \text{deg}(v)^2 - \mu^2
\]
Explanation

Average degree of a neighbor =

\[
\frac{3 \sum_{\text{edges } u,v} \deg(u)}{2|E|} - \frac{\sum_{u} \deg(u)^2}{2|E|} = \frac{(\text{var}(\deg(u)) + \mu^2) - \mu^2}{2|E|} = \frac{\text{var}(\deg(u))}{2|E|} + \mu
\]
Explanation

\[ \text{av deg} = \mu \]

\[ \text{av deg \_Friend} = \frac{\text{var(\text{deg}(\text{F}))}}{\mu} + \mu \]

\[ \geq \mu \]
Further reading:
• Original Erdos-Renyi paper: “On the evolution of random graphs” (Erdos & Renyi, 1960)
• Power laws: “Power laws, Pareto distributions and Zipf’s law” (Newman, 2005)
  http://dx.doi.org/10.1080%2F00107510500052444
• Easley & Kleinberg, Chapter 13 & 18
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Triadic closure; strong & weak ties
So far we’ve seen (a little about) how networks can be characterized by their connectivity patterns.

What more can we learn by looking at higher-order properties, such as relationships between *triplets* of nodes?
Q: Last time you found a job, was it through:

- A complete stranger?
- A close friend?
- An acquaintance?

A: Surprisingly, people often find jobs through acquaintances rather than through close friends (Granovetter, 1973)
Motivation

• Your friends (hopefully) would seem to have the greatest motivation to help you
• But! Your closest friends have limited information that you don’t already know about
• Alternately, acquaintances act as a “bridge” to a different part of the social network, and expose you to new information

This phenomenon is known as the strength of weak ties
Motivation

- To make this concrete, we’d like to come up with some notion of “tie strength” in networks
- To do this, we need to go beyond just looking at edges in isolation, and looking at how an edge connects one part of a network to another

Refs:
“Getting a Job”, Granovetter (1974)
**Q:** Which edge is most likely to form **next** in this (social) network?

**A:** (b), because it creates a **triad** in the network
“If two people in a social network have a friend in common, then there is an increased likelihood that they will become friends themselves at some point in the future” (Ropoport, 1953)

Three reasons (from Heider, 1958; see Easley & Kleinberg):

• Every mutual friend $a$ between $bob$ and $chris$ gives them an opportunity to meet
• If $bob$ is friends with $ashton$, then knowing that $chris$ is friends with $ashton$ gives $bob$ a reason to trust $chris$
• If $chris$ and $bob$ don’t become friends, this causes stress for $ashton$ (having two friends who don’t like each other), so there is an incentive for them to connect
The extent to which this is true is measured by the (local) **clustering coefficient**:

- The clustering coefficient of a node $i$ is the probability that two of $i$'s friends will be friends with each other:

\[
C_i = \frac{\sum_{j,k \in \Gamma(i)} \delta((j,k) \in E)}{k_i(k_i-1)}
\]

where $\Gamma(i)$ is the set of neighbours of $i$, $k_i$ is the degree of node $i$, and $\delta((j,k) \in E)$ is an indicator function that is 1 if $(j,k)$ is an edge and 0 otherwise. (edges $(j,k)$ and $(k,j)$ are both counted for undirected graphs).

- This ranges between 0 (none of my friends are friends with each other) and 1 (all of my friends are friends with each other).
The extent to which this is true is measured by the (local) **clustering coefficient**:

- The clustering coefficient of the graph is usually defined as the average of local clustering coefficients

\[
\bar{C} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} C_i
\]

- Alternately it can be defined as the fraction of connected triplets in the graph that are closed (these do not evaluate to the same thing!):

\[
C = \frac{\text{# of closed triplets}}{\text{# of connected triplets}} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\text{# } \begin{array}{c} \text{circles} \\ \text{+ line} \end{array}}{\text{# circles} + \text{# line}}
\]
Next, we can talk about the role of edges in relation to the rest of the network, starting with a few more definitions.

1. **Bridge edge**

An edge \((b,c)\) is a *bridge* edge if removing it would leave no path between \(b\) and \(c\) in the resulting network.
In practice, “bridges” aren’t a very useful definition, since there will be very few edges that completely isolate two parts of the graph.

2. **Local** bridge edge

An edge \((b,c)\) is a **local bridge** if removing it would leave no edge between \(b\)'s friends and \(c\)'s friends (though there could be more distant connections).
We can now define the concept of “strong” and “weak” ties (which roughly correspond to notions of “friends” and “acquaintances”)

3. Strong triadic closure property

If (a,b) and (b,c) are connected by strong ties, there must be at least a weak tie between a and c
Granovetter’s theorem: if the strong triadic closure property is satisfied for a node, and that node is involved in two strong ties, then any incident local bridge must be a weak tie.

**Proof (by contradiction):**
1. Node b has two strong ties (to a and e).
2. Suppose it has a strong tie to c via a local bridge.
3. But now a tie must exist between c and a (or c and e) due to strong triadic closure.
4. So b → c cannot be a bridge.
Granovetter’s theorem: so, if we’re receiving information from distant parts of the network (i.e., via “local bridges”) then we must be receiving it via **weak ties**

**Q:** How to test this theorem empirically on real data?

**A:** Onnela et al. 2007 studied networks of mobile phone calls

Defn. 1: Define the “overlap” between two nodes to be the Jaccard similarity between their connections

\[ O_{i,j} = \frac{|\Gamma(i) \cap \Gamma(j)|}{|\Gamma(i) \cup \Gamma(j)|} \]

(picture from Onnela et al., 2007)
Secondly, define the “strength” of a tie in terms of the number of phone calls between $i$ and $j$.

Finding: the “stronger” our tie, the more likely there are to be additional ties between our mutual friends.

(picture from Onnela et al., 2007)
Another case study (Ugander et al., 2012)

Suppose a user receives four e-mail invites to join facebook from users who are already on facebook. Under what conditions are we most likely to accept the invite (and join facebook)?

1. If those four invites are from four close friends?
2. If our invites are from found acquaintances?
3. If the invites are from a combination of friends, acquaintances, work colleagues, and family members?

hypothesis: the invitations are most likely to be adopted if they come from distinct groups of people in the network
Strong & weak ties

Another case study (Ugander et al., 2012)

Let’s consider the connectivity patterns amongst the people who tried to recruit us

(picture from Ugander et al., 2012)
Strong & weak ties

Another case study (Ugander et al., 2012)

Let’s consider the connectivity patterns amongst the people who tried to recruit us

- **Case 1:** two users attempted to recruit
- **y-axis:** relative to recruitment by a single user
- **finding:** recruitments are more likely to succeed if they come from friends who are not connected to each other

(picture from Ugander et al., 2012)
Strong & weak ties

Another case study (Ugander et al., 2012)

Let’s consider the connectivity patterns amongst the people who tried to recruit us.

(picture from Ugander et al., 2012)
So far:

Important aspects of network structure can be explained by the way an edge connects two parts of the network to each other:

- Edges tend to close open triads (clustering coefficient etc.)
- It can be argued that edges that bridge different parts of the network somehow correspond to “weak” connections (Granovetter; Onnela et al.)
- Disconnected parts of the networks (or parts connected by local bridges) expose us to distinct sources of information (Granovettor; Ugander et al.)
Some of the assumptions that we’ve seen today may not hold if edges have *signs* associated with them.

**Balanced:** the edge $a \rightarrow c$ is *likely* to form.

**Imbalanced:** the edge $a \rightarrow c$ is *unlikely* to form.

(see e.g. Heider, 1946)
Further reading:

• Easley & Kleinberg, Chapter 3
• The strength of weak ties
  (Granovetter, 1973)
  http://goo.gl/wVJVIN
• Bearman & Moody
  “Suicide and friendships among American adolescents”
  http://www.soc.duke.edu/~jmoody77/suicide_ajph.pdf
• Onnela et al.’s mobile phone study
  “Structure and tie strengths in mobile communication networks”
• Ugander et al.’s facebook study
  “Structural diversity in social contagion”