Online Social Networks and Media

Opinion formation models

OPINION FORMATION IN SOCIAL NETWORKS

Diffusion of items

• So far we have assumed that what is being diffused in the network is some discrete item:

E.g., a virus, a product, a video, an image, a link etc.

- For each network user a binary decision is being made about the item being diffused
 - Being infected by the virus, adopt the product, watch the video, save the image, retweet the link, etc.
 - This decision may happen with some probability, but the probability is over the discrete values {0,1} and the decisions usually do not change

Diffusion of opinions

- The network can also diffuse opinions.
 - What people believe about an issue, a person, an item, is shaped by their social network
- People hold opinions that may change over time due to social influence
- Opinions may assume a continuous range of values, from completely negative to completely positive.
 - Opinion diffusion is different from item diffusion
 - It is often referred to as opinion formation.

Modeling opinion formation

- There is a lot of work from different perspectives:
 - Psychologists/Sociologists: field experiments and decades of observations
 - Statistical Physicists: model humans as particles and predict their behavior
 - Mathematicians/Economists: Use game theory to model human behavior
 - Computer Scientists: build algorithms on top of the models
- Questions asked:
 - How do societies reach consensus?
 - Not always the case, but necessary for many issues in order for society to function
 - When do we get polarization or opinion clusters?
 - More realistic in the real world where consensus tends to be local

Opinion formation models

• An opinion is a real value

– E.g., a value in the interval [0,1], or [-1,1]

 Opinions are shaped through our interactions with our social network





Social Influence

• There are two main types of social influence:

 Normative Influence: Users influenced by opinion of neighbors due to social norms, conformity, group acceptance, avoiding ridicule, etc

- Informational Influence: Users lacking necessary information, or not trusting their information, use opinion of neighbors to form their opinions
- Asch's conformity experiment [55]:



Opinion formation models literature

- Long list of models
 - Ising model
 - Claudio Castellano, Santo Fortunato, and Vittorio Loreto. 2009. Statistical physics. of social dynamics. Rev. Mod. Phys. 81 (May 2009), 591–646.
 - Voter model
 - Holley and Liggett. 1975. Ergodic Theorems for Weakly Interacting Infinite Systems and the Voter Model. The Annals of Probability 3, 4 (1975), 643–663.
 - DeGroot Model
 - DeGroot. 1974. Reaching a consensus. JASA 69, 345 (1974), 118–121
 - Friedkin-Johnson model
 - Friedkin and Johnsen. 1990. Social influence and opinions. Journal of Mathematical Sociology 15, 3-4 (1990), 193–206.
 - Bounded Confidence models
 - Deffuant, Neau, Amblard, and Weisbuch. Mixing beliefs among interacting agents. Advances in Complex Systems. 2000.
 - Krause. A discrete nonlinear and non–autonomous model of consensus formation. Communications in difference equations. 2000.
 - Axelrod cultural dynamics
 - Axelrod. The dissemination of culture: A model with local convergence and global polarization. Journal of conflict resolution. 1997.
 - ... and multiple variants of those...

De Groot opinion formation model

- Every user *i* has an opinion $z_i \in [0,1]$
- The opinion of each user in the network is iteratively updated, each time taking the average of the opinions of its neighbors and herself

$$z_{i}^{t} = \frac{w_{ii}z_{i}^{t-1} + \sum_{j \in N(i)} w_{ij}z_{j}^{t-1}}{w_{ii} + \sum_{j \in N(i)} w_{ij}}$$

- where N(i) is the set of neighbors of user i.

• This iterative process converges to a consensus

What about personal biases?

 People tend to cling on to their personal opinions



Another opinion formation model (Friedkin and Johnsen)

- Every user *i* has an intrinsic opinion $s_i \in [0,1]$ and an expressed opinion $z_i \in [0,1]$
- The public opinion z_i of each user in the network is iteratively updated, each time taking the average of the expressed opinions of its neighbors and the intrinsic opinion of herself

$$z_{i}^{t} = \frac{w_{ii}s_{i} + \sum_{j \in N(i)} w_{ij}z_{j}^{t-1}}{w_{ij} + \sum_{j \in N(i)} w_{ij}}$$

Opinion formation as a game

- Assume that network users are rational (selfish) agents
- Each user has a personal cost for expressing an opinion

$$c(z_i) = w_{ii}(z_i - s_i)^2 + \sum_{j \in N(i)} w_{ij}(z_i - z_j)^2$$
Inconsistency cost: The cost for
deviating from one's intrinsic opinion
Conflict cost: The cost for
disagreeing with the opinions
in one's social network

Each user is selfishly trying to minimize her personal cost.

D. Bindel, J. Kleinberg, S. Oren. *How Bad is Forming Your Own Opinion?* Proc. 52nd IEEE Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science, 2011.

Opinion formation as a game

The opinion z_i that minimizes the personal cost of user i

$$z_i = \frac{w_{ij}s_i + \sum_{j \in N(i)} w_{ij}z_j}{w_{ij} + \sum_{j \in N(i)} w_{ij}}$$

• In linear algebra terms (assume 0/1 weights): $(L + I)\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{s} \Rightarrow \mathbf{z} = (L + I)^{-1}\mathbf{s}$

where L is the Laplacian of the graph.

Reminder: The Laplacian is the negated adjacency matrix with the degree on the diagonal

Understanding opinion formation

 To better study the opinion formation process we will show a connection between opinion formation and absorbing random walks.

Random Walks on Graphs

- A random walk is a stochastic process performed on a graph
- Random walk:
 - Start from a node chosen uniformly at random with probability $\frac{1}{n}$.
 - Pick one of the outgoing edges uniformly at random
 - Move to the destination of the edge
 - Repeat.
- Made very popular with Google's PageRank algorithm.

The Transition Probability matrix





 $P[i, j] = 1/d_{out}(i)$: Probability of transitioning from node *i* to node *j*.

Node Probability vector

- The vector p^t = (p^t₁, p^t₂, ..., p^t_n) that stores the probability of being at node v_i at step t
 p⁰_i = the probability of starting from state i (usually) set to uniform
- We can compute the vector p^t at step t using a vector-matrix multiplication

$$p^t = p^{t-1} P = p^0 P^t$$

• After many steps $p^t \to \pi$ the probability converges to the stationary distribution π

Stationary distribution

- The stationary distribution of a random walk with transition matrix P, is a probability distribution π , such that $\pi = \pi P$
- The stationary distribution is independent of the initial vector if the graph is strongly connected, and not bipartite.
- All the rows of the matrix P^{∞} are equal to the stationary distribution π
- The stationary distribution is an eigenvector of matrix *P*
 - the principal left eigenvector of P stochastic matrices have maximum eigenvalue 1
- The probability π_i is the fraction of times that we visited state i as $t \to \infty$

Random walk with absorbing nodes

 Absorbing nodes: nodes from which the random walk cannot escape.



• Two absorbing nodes: the red and the blue.

P. G. Doyle, J. L. Snell. Random Walks and Electrical Networks. 1984

- In a graph with more than one absorbing nodes a random walk that starts from a nonabsorbing (transient) node t will be absorbed in one of them with some probability
 - For a transient node t we can compute the probabilities of absorption at an absorbing node s



- The absorption probability can be computed iteratively:
 - The absorbing nodes have probability 1 of being absorbed in themselves and zero of being absorbed in another node.
 - For the non-absorbing nodes, take the (weighted) average of the absorption probabilities of your neighbors
 - if one of the neighbors is the absorbing node, it has probability 1
 - Repeat until convergence (= very small change in probs)

$$P(Red|Pink) = \frac{2}{3}P(Red|Yellow) + \frac{1}{3}P(Red|Green)$$
$$P(Red|Green) = \frac{1}{4}P(Red|Yellow) + \frac{1}{4}$$
$$P(Red|Yellow) = \frac{2}{3}$$



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 - if one of the neighbors is the absorbing node, it has probability 1

2

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Repeat until convergence (= very small change in probs)

$$P(Blue|Pink) = \frac{2}{3}P(Blue|Yellow) + \frac{1}{3}P(Blue|Green)$$
$$P(Blue|Green) = \frac{1}{4}P(Blue|Yellow) + \frac{1}{2}$$
$$P(Blue|Yellow) = \frac{1}{3}$$

 Compute the absorption probabilities for red and blue



- The absorption probability has several practical uses.
- Given a graph (directed or undirected) we can choose to make some nodes absorbing.
 - Simply direct all edges incident on the chosen nodes towards them and create a self-loop.
- The absorbing random walk provides a measure of proximity of transient nodes to the chosen nodes.
 - Useful for understanding proximity in graphs
 - Useful for propagation in the graph
 - E.g, on a social network some nodes are malicious, while some are certified, to which class is a transient node closer?

Penalizing long paths

• The orange node has the same probability of reaching red and blue as the yellow one

P(Red|Orange) = P(Red|Yellow)

P(Blue|Orange) = P(Blue|Yellow)

• Intuitively though it is further away



Penalizing long paths

• Add a universal absorbing node to which each node gets absorbed with probability α .

With probability α the random walk dies

With probability $(1-\alpha)$ the random walk continues as before

The longer the path from a node to an absorbing node the more likely the random walk dies along the way, the lower the absorbtion probability

$$P(\underline{Red}|Green) = (1 - \alpha) \left(\frac{1}{5}P(\underline{Red}|\underline{Yellow}) + \frac{1}{5}P(\underline{Red}|\underline{Pink}) + \frac{1}{5}\right)$$



Linear Algebra

• The transition matrix of the random walk looks like this

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} P_{TT} & P_{TA} \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

- *P_{TT}*: transition probabilities between transient nodes
- *P_{TA}*: transition probabilities from transient to absorbing nodes
- Computing the absorption probabilities corresponds to iteratively multiplying matrix *P* with itself

Linear algebra

• The fundamental matrix

$$F = P_{TT} + P_{TT}^2 + \dots = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P_{TT}^i = (1 - P_{TT})^{-1}$$

- F[i, j] = The probability of being in a transient state t_j when starting from state t_i after any number of steps

• The transient-to-absorbing matrix Q

$$Q = FP_{TU}$$

- Q[i, k] = The probability of being absorbed in absorbing state a_k when starting from transient state t_i

$$P^{\infty} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & Q \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix}$$

Propagating values

- Assume that Red has a positive value and Blue a negative value
- We can compute a value for all transient nodes in the same way we compute probabilities
 - This is the expected value at the absorbing node for the non-absorbing node

$$V(Pink) = \frac{2}{3}V(Yellow) + \frac{1}{3}V(Green)$$
$$V(Green) = \frac{1}{5}V(Yellow) + \frac{1}{5}V(Pink) + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{2}{5}$$
$$V(Yellow) = \frac{1}{6}V(Green) + \frac{1}{3}V(Pink) + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6}$$



Linear algebra

 Computation of values is essentially multiplication of the matrix Q with the vector of values of the absorbing nodes

$$\boldsymbol{v} = Q\boldsymbol{s}$$

- s: vector of values of the absorbing nodes - v: vector of values of the transient nodes

Electrical networks and random walks

- Our graph corresponds to an electrical network
- There is a positive voltage of +1 at the Red node, and a negative voltage -1 at the Blue node
- There are resistances on the edges inversely proportional to the weights (or conductance proportional to the weights)
- The computed values are the voltages at the nodes

$$V(Pink) = \frac{2}{3}V(Yellow) + \frac{1}{3}V(Green)$$
$$V(Green) = \frac{1}{5}V(Yellow) + \frac{1}{5}V(Pink) + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{2}{5}$$
$$V(Yellow) = \frac{1}{6}V(Green) + \frac{1}{3}V(Pink) + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6}$$



Springs and random walks

- Our graph corresponds to a spring system
- The Red node is pinned at position +1, while the Blue node is pinned at position -1 on a line.
- There are springs on the edges with hardness proportional to the weights
- The computed values are the positions of the nodes on the line



Springs and random walks

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Application: Transductive learning

- If we have a graph of relationships and some labels on some nodes we can propagate them to the remaining nodes
 - Make the labeled nodes to be absorbing and compute the probability for the rest of the graph
 - E.g., a social network where some people are tagged as spammers
 - E.g., the movie-actor graph where some movies are tagged as action or comedy.
- This is a form of semi-supervised learning/classification
 - We make use of the unlabeled data, and the relationships
- It is also called transductive learning because it does not produce a model, but just labels the unlabeled data that is at hand.
 - Contrast to inductive learning that learns a model and can label any new example

Back to opinion formation

- The value propagation we described is closely related to the opinion formation process/game we defined.
 - Can you see how we can use absorbing random walks to model the opinion formation for the network below?

s = +0.5



Reminder:

$$z_{i} = \frac{s_{i} + \sum_{j \in N(i)} w_{ij} z_{j}}{1 + \sum_{j \in N(i)} w_{ij}}$$

Opinion formation and absorbing random walks

- One absorbing node per user with value the intrinsic opinion of the user
- One transient node per user that links to her absorbing node and the transient nodes of her neighbors
- The expressed opinion for each node is computed using the value propagation we described
 - Repeated averaging



It is equal to the expected intrinsic opinion at the place of absorption

Opinion of a user

- For an individual user u
 - u's absorbing node is a stationary point
 - u's transient node is connected to the absorbing node with a spring.
 - The neighbors of u pull with their own springs.





Opinion maximization problem

• Public opinion:

$$g(z) = \sum_{i \in V} z_i$$

- Problem: Given a graph G, the given opinion formation model, the intrinsic opinions of the users, and a budget k, perform k interventions such that the public opinion is maximized.
- Useful for image control campaign.
- What kind of interventions should we do?

Possible interventions

- 1. Fix the expressed opinion of k nodes to the maximum value 1.
 - Essentially, make these nodes absorbing, and give them value 1.
- 2. Fix the intrinsic opinion of k nodes to the maximum value 1.
 - Easy to solve, we know exactly the contribution of each node to the overall public opinion.
- 3. Change the underlying network to facilitate the propagation of positive opinions.
 - For undirected graphs this is not possible

$$g(z) = \sum_{i} z_i = \sum_{i} s_i$$

- The overall public opinion does not depend on the graph structure!
- What does this mean for the wisdom of crowds?

Fixing the expressed opinion



Fixing the expressed opinion



Opinion maximization problem

- The opinion maximization problem is NP-hard.
- The public opinion function is monotone and submodular
 - The Greedy algorithm gives a $\left(1 \frac{1}{e}\right)$ -approximate solution
- In practice Greedy is slow. Heuristics that use random walks perform well.

A. Gionis, E. Terzi, P. Tsaparas. Opinion Maximization in Social Networks. SDM 2013

Additional models

- Ising model
- Voter model
- Bounded confidence models
- Axelrod cultural dynamics model

A Physics-based model

- The Ising ferromagnet model:
 - A user *i* is a "spin" s_i that can assume two values: ±1
 - The total energy of the system is

$$H = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle} s_i s_j$$

Defined over the neighboring pairs

- A spin is flipped with probability $\exp(-\frac{\Delta E}{T})$ where ΔE is the change in energy, and T is the "temperature" of the system.
- The model assumes no topology
 - Complete graph (all-with-all), or regular lattice.
- For low temperatures, the system converges to a single opinion

The Voter model

- Each user has an opinion that is an integer value
 - Usually opinions are in {0,1} but multiple opinion values are also possible.
- Opinion formation process:
 - At each step we select a user at random
 - The user selects one of its neighbors at random (including herself) and adopts their opinion
- The model can be proven to converge for certain topologies.

Bounded confidence model

 Confirmation bias: People tend to accept opinions that agree with them

– "<u>Why facts don't change our minds</u>" (New Yorker)

• Bounded Confidence model: A user *i* is influenced by a neighbor *j* only if $|z_i - z_j| \le \epsilon$

for some parameter ϵ

Bounded Confidence models

• Defuant model: Given a parameter μ at time t, a randomly selected user i selects a neighbor j at random, and if $|z_i^t - z_j^t| \le \epsilon$ their opinions are updated as:

$$z_{i}^{t+1} = z_{i}^{t} + \mu(z_{j}^{t} - z_{i}^{t})$$
$$z_{j}^{t+1} = z_{j}^{t} + \mu(z_{i}^{t} - z_{j}^{t})$$

Similar to Voter model

 Hegselmann-Krause (HK) model: Each node *i* updates their opinions as the average of the opinions of the neighbors that agree with them

$$z_{i}^{t} = \frac{w_{ii}z_{i}^{t-1} + \sum_{j \in N(i): |z_{i}^{t} - z_{j}^{t}| \le \epsilon} w_{ij}z_{j}^{t-1}}{w_{ii} + \sum_{j \in N(i): |z_{i}^{t} - z_{j}^{t}| \le \epsilon} w_{ij}}$$

Similar to DeGroot model

Bounded Confidence models

 Depending on the parameter
 e and the initial opinions, bounded confidence models can lead to plurality (multiple opinions), polarization (two competing opinions), or consensus (single opinion)



Axelrod model

- Cultural dynamics: Goes beyond single opinions, and looks at different features/habits/traits
 - Tries to model the effects of social influence and homophily.
- Model:
 - Each user *i* has a vector σ_i of *F* features
 - A user *i* decides to interact with user *j* with probability

$$\omega_{ij} = \frac{1}{F} \sum_{f=1}^{F} \delta(\sigma_i(f), \sigma_j(f))$$
 Fraction of common features

- If there is interaction, the user changes one of the disagreeing features to the value of the neighbor
- The state where all users have the same features is an equilibrium, but it is not always reached (cultural pockets)

Empirical measurements

- There have been various experiments for validating the different models in practice
- Das, Gollapudi, Munagala (WSDM 2014)
 - User surveys:
 - estimate number of dots in images
 - Estimate annual sales of various brands.
 - For each survey:
 - Users asked to provide initial answers on all questions in the survey
 - Then, each user shown varying number of (synthetic) neighboring answers.
 - Users given opportunity to update their answers



Online User Studies



- Define $s = \frac{|o_i o_f|}{|o_i o_e|}$
 - $(o_i: original opinion, o_f: final opinion, o_e: closest neighboring opinion)$
- User behavior categorized as:
 - Stubborn (s < 0.1)
 - DeGroot (0.1 < s < 0.9)
 - Voter (s > 0.9)

Voter vs DeGroot





Effect of number of neighboring opinions

- Voter model is prevalent for large number of neighbors,
- DeGroot becomes more prevalent for smaller number of neighbors

Biased Conforming Behavior



- Adoption of neighboring opinions not uniform random (unlike Voter Model)
- Users give higher weights to "close by" opinions

Other problems related to opinion formation

Modeling polarization

 Understand why extreme opinions are formed and people cluster around them

- Modeling herding/flocking
 - Understand under what conditions people tend to follow the crowd
- Computational Sociology

- Use big data for modeling human social behavior.

R. Hegselmann, U. Krause. *Opinion Dynamics and Bounded Confidence. Models, Analysis, and Simulation*. Journal of Artificial Societies and Social Simulation (JASSS) vol.5, no. 3, 2002

Acknowledgements

 Many thanks to Evimaria Terzi, Aris Gionis and Sreenivas Gollapudi for their generous slide contributions.

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