INFLUENTIALS AND THE SPREAD OF INNOVATIONS

MICHAEL LIN 470414095

ABSTRACT. This report explores the *influential hypothesis* - a minority of individuals, called influentials, who can spread innovations to an exceptional number of peers are important to the spread of ideas/innovations. We explore this idea by performing computer simulations modelling the interpersonal influence process under various conditions and on real social networks. It was found that the importance of influentials in initiation or spread of ideas/innovations depended on the degree distribution of the network which suggests a reexamination of the *influential hypothesis*.

1. Introduction

The spread of influence is a well studied phenomena in social science and diffusion research that looks to understand how influence is spread and what factors contribute to large cascades of influence within a population. This phenomena can be found in many domains such as the circulation of news by the media, the adoption of new technologies, and the promotion of products by social media influencers. One hypothesis on how innovations are spread is called the *influential hypothesis*[1], which suggests that a minority of individuals called *influentials* are able to spread ideas/innovations to an exceptional number of peers. However, this model does not explain the characteristics of influentials or precisely how responsible they are in the cascade of influence on the (non-influential) population.

In this report, we argue that it is unclear what characteristics underpin influentials and whether they can be attributed to the adoption of social changes, new technologies, cultural fads and other diffusion processes. By performing a series of computer simulations of influence spread on various network models, it was found that there are instances where influentials show greater responsibility in the spread of influences. However, under other conditions it was found that influentials are only marginally more important than the average individual. Although our models are simplifications of the complexities of reality, our results highlights the importance of population interconnectedness in dictating the responsibility of influentials in the cascade of influence.

2. Interpersonal Influence Model

For our model of the spread of influence, we assume that every individual makes a binary decision on an innovation X such as decision A or B. Moreover, we assume that the innovation exhibits positive externalities meaning the probability of an individual choosing B over A increases with the number of people choosing B. While this model is not fully generalised, as it excludes negative externality behaviours and innovations with multiple decisions, it is a reasonable general case to consider. For example, in marketing and diffusion research, positive externalities arise in many areas of research such as network effects, learning from others, and conformity pressures [1].

2.1. Threshold Model. A simple model to capture the aforementioned behaviour is to represent each individual i by a node, which can be in one of two discrete states $\{0,1\}$, with a threshold rule ϕ_i . An individual in state 1 is said to be influenced by an innovation while an individual in state 0 is uninfluenced by an innovation. Defining p_i to be the proportion of node i's neighbours who are influenced (in state 1), then the probability of i being influenced (in state 1) is given by

$$P[\text{Node } i \text{ in state } 1] = \begin{cases} 1 & p_i \ge \phi_i \\ 0 & p_i < \phi_i \end{cases}$$
 (Threshold Rule)

where $\phi_i \in [0, 1]$ refers to the minimum proportion of i's neighbours that need to be influenced for i to be influenced. Intuitively, ϕ_i refers to individual i's willingness/ease to be influenced by their neighbours. For simplicity, we assume every individual's susceptibility to be influenced is the same meaning for every individual i we have $\phi_i = \phi$ for some fixed ϕ .

2.2. Influence Networks. Alongside the rule describing how individuals are able to influence each other, we also need to describe who influences whom. However, social networks are not yet fully understood in terms of their network properties. Consequently, we make the following assumptions about our generated influence network for computer simulation. We assume that every individual i in a population of size N has n_i neighbours who they can influence, where n_i is drawn from an influence distribution p(n) with known average n_{avg} that is much less than the population size $n_{avg} \ll N$. Of note is that n_i refers not to the number of individuals that i knows but the number of other individuals they can influence due to different factors such as their character, expertise, reputation and community. Additionally, we explore the scenario where individual influence is unidirectional, meaning an individual i can influence its neighbour j but j cannot influence i, and bidirectional, meaning if i can influence its neighbour j then j can influence i. This is to represent scenarios where an individual follows other individuals such as Instagram influencers where influence is spread in one direction, and when individuals can influence each other such as within a family.

To describe the *influence distribution*, we use two common random graph models which contain properties similar to real social networks called Poisson Random Graphs and Scale-Free Networks.

2.2.1. Poisson Random Graph. The Poisson random graph model is a simple random graph model where the influence distribution p(n) is Poisson meaning $p(n) \sim Poisson(\lambda)$ with λ representing the average number of neighbours. In a world described by a Poisson random graph, the network exhibits no structure meaning influence connections between neighbours are random. Additionally, the influence distribution has little variation around its average meaning individuals who are more influential generally aren't exceptionally more influential. With this model, connections can be either one way or two way. Consequently, this influence distribution can model worlds where the spread of influences are bidirectional or unidirectional.

- 2.2.2. Scale-Free Networks. The scale-free random graph model is a common model which is used to simulate a network that is more reminiscent of a social network. Specifically, the influence distribution p(n) follows a power law distribution meaning $p(n) \sim n^{-\alpha}$ for some α . Unlike the Poisson random graph, scale-free networks contain large hubs which represent people who are connected to a significantly larger number of people than the average person. Using this model, we can more closely explore how people who can influence a larger proportion of the community compare with the average person.
- 2.3. INFLUENTIALS. The characteristics of influentials is not well-defined and often described as a group who can influence an exceptional number of peers. For our analysis, we focused on seeing whether relative high number of neighbours is a characteristic of influential people by analysing the degree of influence of subsets of the simulated population based off the number of connections of each individual. Specifically, we analysed the following groups based off the number of connections

$$0 - 5, 5 - 10, 10 - 15, 15 - 20, 95 - 100, n_{norm}$$

where 0-5 represents the people in the simulated data who are in the top 5% ranked by number of connections and n_{norm} represents the subset of the population who are at most half a standard deviation away from the average degree n_{avg} of the network.

- 2.4. INFLUENCE DYNAMICS. For our model of influence, we implemented the following algorithm below to simulate the spread of influence[2].
 - (1) Generate a graph G (Poisson/Scale-Free) of N nodes, where n_{avg} is known.
 - (2) Assign nodes to the following groups $0-5, \ldots, 95-100, n_{norm}$.
 - (3) For each group, simulate the spread of influence for each node in the group according to the following algorithm. (Spread of influence from a single node).
 - (a) Set all nodes to state 0 except for the initial node which is set to 1.
 - (b) Simulate the spread of influence for this initial state with known threshold ϕ .

3. Results

Our measure of interest is the cascade size (proportion of network influenced) that can be generated by an individual within each group. This model allows for both local and global cascades. Local cascades only affect a small number of individuals that are typically close to the initial influencing node. In contrast, global cascades can affect an exceptional number of individuals and are usually limited by the size of the population. With this measurement, a comparison between groups can be quantified the average cascade size for each group. Additionally, it was found that the cascade size was invariant of the population size so a population of N = 100 was chosen due to computational limitations. Our simulations was performed for $\phi = 0.05, 0.10, 0.15, 0.18, 0.20, 0.25, 0.50$ and for consistency each simulation was repeated 100 times.

3.1. THE CASCADE WINDOW. The first observation made from our simulations was that the ability for a node to initiate a cascade depended significantly on the average degree for all tested networks independent of groups. Specifically, each degree distribution, choice of ϕ and had an interval for n_{avg} denoted as the cascade window where local and global cascades are possible as seen in Figure 1 and 2. Outside this window, n_{avg} is either too small or too high. When n_{avg} is too small, even though individuals are more susceptible to innovations the network lacks connections to reach many of these individuals. When n_{avg} is too high the network is highly connected and the higher number of activated neighbours needed to influence an individual means the initial influenced individual is unable to propagate innovations. Additionally, while the cascade window shifts with the choice of ϕ , the relationship between population groups remain relatively similar as seen in Figure 1 and 2. From this, we can conclude that the role of an individual in spreading innovations on a population depends much more on the network structure rather than the individual's personal degree of influence.

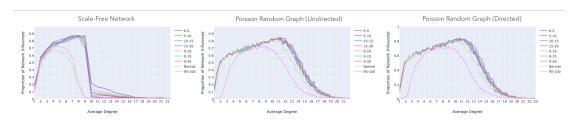


FIGURE 1. Proportion of network influenced across different average degrees and different degree distributions with $\phi = 0.10$.

3.2. Poisson and Scale-Free Influence Distributions. The second point of interest is the comparison of cascade size between groups and influence distributions. Between the directed and undirected Poisson random graph, there did not appear to be any noticeable difference in the cascade window, multiplier or cascade size across groups as seen in Figure 1, 2, and 3. This suggests that unidirectional and bidirectional influence relationships do not alter the spread of influence. Rather, it depends on the influence distribution itself which in this case is the same.

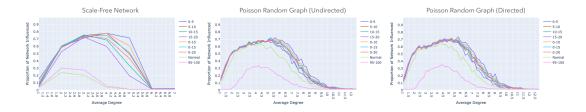


FIGURE 2. Proportion of network influenced across different average degrees and different degree distributions with $\phi = 0.18$.

In both the Poisson random graph and scale-free network, the higher-degree groups (0-5, 5-10, 10-15, 15-20) consistently had a higher cascade size while 95-100 consistently had a relatively smaller cascade size as illustrated in Figure 1 and 2. This result between groups can be associated to how being more connected (higher degree) leads to greater opportunities to influence others (higher cascade sizes) rather than the influence distribution. Additionally, the 95-100 group can reach fewer neighbours and these neighbours are more likely to have more neighbours so they would be less susceptible to being influenced. As the normal group generally had a cascade size lower than the higher-degree groups in both influence distributions, the relative cascade difference between higher-degree groups and the normal groups was found to quantify this difference as seen in Figure 3. In the scale-free network, every higher-degree group compared to the normal group had a multiplier significantly greater than 1 within the cascade window for all ϕ . This suggests that higher-degree groups are much more influential than the average node and play a significant role in contributing to cascades of influence. However, the multiplier in the Poisson random graph is much more modest. In Figure 3, while the multiplier peaks at around 3.8 meaning the 0-5 cascade is typically 3.8 times the normal group, outside the peak of the cascade window the multiplier is much more modest suggesting that the higher-degree groups are not as significantly influential compared with the average node. These results give mixed support for the influential hypothesis as it showcases for scale-free networks the larger role of influentials in cascades whereas in Poisson random graphs influentials have a more modest success in initiating the spread of influence.



FIGURE 3. Comparison of relative cascade size between different population groups for $\phi = 0.18$. This is found by dividing cascade size between two groups.

3.3. Simulation on Real Social Networks. Our simulation was applied on two different social networks. Advogato [3] is a social community platform where (undirected) links represent relationships between people and contained approximately 5000 nodes. Facebook [4] is a social network where (undirected) links represent friendships between people and contained approximately 4000 nodes. Both networks represent populations where the spread of influence can be thought of as the spread of ideas amongst friends. Separating the nodes using the same population grouping as described above and running our simulation for the aforementioned ϕ values, we arrived at the results in Figure 4.

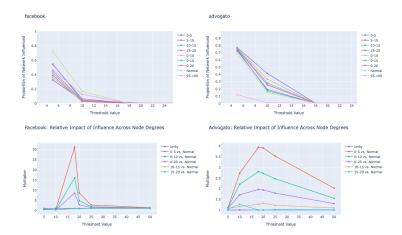


FIGURE 4. Application of influence simulation on two real social networks (Facebook and Advogato). The top row shows the cascade size across different ϕ . The bottom row shows the relative cascade size between different population groups.

In the Facebook data, the normal group consistently outperforms all other groups in initiating cascades unlike in either of our models as seen in the Figure (top-left). Interestingly the 95-100 group performs similarly to the higher-degree group. In contrast, the relative position of groups in the Advogato data is reminiscent of the Poisson (and to some extent the scale-free) as seen in Figure 4 (top-right). Looking at the multiplier plots, we can see that the multiplier is generally small in both social networks (ignoring the large spike in the Facebook multiplier (bottom-left) due to a larger drop in normal cascade relative to other groups for $\phi = 0.18$). These results support the idea that higher-degree groups may not always play a large role in initiating cascades with the Facebook network showing the biggest cascades coming from the normal group while in the Advogato network there only appears to be a modest increase in influence for higher-degree groups.

4. Conclusion

In this report, it was found through simulation that an individual's role in global cascades depended more on the structure of interpersonal connections within a population rather than their degree of influence. Specifically, there are networks (Poisson, Advogato and Facebook) where the number of neighbours that an individual can directly influence does not play a significant role in contributing to their ability to initiate or contribute to a cascade. In other cases (scale-free), influential individuals play a much bigger role in initiating and spreading influence throughout the population. While our models are a simplification of real influence networks, the results suggest a reexamination of the influence hypothesis, and motivates the exploration of other characteristics and attributes of influential individuals and the network structures that allow for these cascades.

References

- [1] Duncan J. Watts and Peter Sheridan Dodds. Influentials, networks, and public opinion formation. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 34:441–458, 2007.
- [2] Priscilla Chen and Michael Lin. Influentials and the Spread of Innovations Github Repository Code Reference. https://github.com/MiLinny/Influentials, 2020.
- [3] Ryan A. Rossi and Nesreen K. Ahmed. The network data repository with interactive graph analytics and visualization. In AAAI, 2015.
- [4] Julian J. McAuley and Jure Leskovec. Discovering social circles in ego networks. CoRR, abs/1210.8182, 2012.

Code Appendix

The computational component of this project was done in multiple separate jupyter notebooks for the simulation component with parameter tuning and for the visualisation of the results. This code can be found in the associated Github repository https://github.com/MiLinny/Influentials.

The code in the Github repository can be found in /Code. This directory contains the code used for performing the simulations in jupyter notebooks starting with Simulator. A dashboard for exploring some of the results can be found in /Code/Dashboard.ipynb but requires packages mentioned in the Github readme. This feature shows visualisations of results mentioned and unmentioned in this report including preliminary results identifying influentials using the PageRank algorithm.

Rather than overload the code appendix with all the code, this report only contains some of the helper code used for simulating the cascade of influence for a specific network input to give an idea. Hence, the post-processing and visualisation code has been omitted in this report. Additionally, the actual implementation was specialised for each network and whether the network was directed or undirected. The whole code for simulating cascades can be found in /Code/SimulationHelper.py of the Github repository.

The below code is split into three blocks grouped by purpose: Network Helper Functions, Simulation Helper Functions, and Simulation Functions.

- Network Helper Functions: Functions used for initialising/setting influence and time attributes to the network.
- Simulation Helper Functions: Functions used to simulate the spread of influence such as the function simulate_spread.
- Simulation Functions: Functions used for generating the graph, determining the groups of interest, running the influence cascade for each group, and summarising the results.

```
import networkx as nx
2 import numpy as np
def set_time(G, value, node=None, time='time'):
  Set the time of an individual node in a network G or the time of all nodes to value.
              :: a networkx graph
         node :: a reference to a node in G
10
         value :: a non-negative integer
11
      111
12
     if node:
         G.nodes[node][time] = value
14
     else:
15
         time_attrib = {i : value for i in G.nodes()}
16
         nx.set_node_attributes(G,time_attrib, time)
17
  def set_influence(G, value, node=None, label='is_influenced'):
  Set influence of individual node in a network G or all nodes to value.
20
         G
             :: a networkx graph
21
         node :: a reference to a node in G
22
         value :: an integer 0 or 1
      111
     if node:
25
         G.nodes[node][label] = value
26
     else:
27
         influence_attrib = { i : value for i in G.nodes() }
         nx.set_node_attributes(G,influence_attrib, label)
  def get_is_influenced(G, node, label='is_influenced'):
30
31
         Returns if node in G is influenced.
32
33
     return G.nodes[node][label]
  def get_number_influenced(G, label='is_influenced'):
36
         Get the number of influenced nodes.
37
38
     return sum(nx.get_node_attributes(G, label).values())
39
```

```
def get_uninfluenced_neighbours(G, nodes, label='is_influenced'):
         Return a set of neighbours of nodes
         that are uninfluenced.
     neighbours = set()
     for node in nodes:
10
         friends = list(G.neighbors(node))
11
         neighbours.update([friend for friend in friends if G.nodes[friend] [label] ==
12
     return neighbours
13
14
  def update_influence(G, node, phi, time, label='is_influenced'):
         Assumes the node isn't currently influenced.
17
         Update a node's influence status.
18
         Returns true or false.
19
20
     friends = list(G.neighbors(node))
     num_friends = len(friends)
22
23
     ## Node with no friends cannot be influenced
24
     if num_friends == 0:
25
        return False
27
     ## Calculate the number of friends who can influence
28
     ## current node and compare with threshold.
29
     num_influenced = sum([1 for friend in friends if G.nodes[friend][label] == 1])
30
     if (num_influenced/num_friends) > phi:
         set_influence(G, 1, node=node)
         set_time(G, time, node=node)
33
         return True
34
     return False
35
```

```
1 def simulate_spread(G, initial_node, phi):
2
           Simulates the spread of influence from initial node under threshold phi.
           Tracks the component of influenced nodes, determines the uninfluenced
           neighbours of this component, and determines whether the neighbours
           can be influenced.
           Returns the number of influenced nodes and expected time to be influenced.
       G_{tmp} = G.copy()
10
       set_influence(G_tmp, 1, node=initial_node)
11
       N = G_tmp.number_of_nodes()
12
       t = [0 for _ in range(N)]
       time, num_influenced = 1, 1
       t[0] = 1
15
       influenced_nodes = set([initial_node])
       ## Iteratively compute the number of nodes (update t[time]) influenced at
       ## each time step until a time step is reached where no neighbours to
       ## the influenced component can be influenced.
20
       while num_influenced > 0:
21
           num_influenced = 0
22
           neighbours = get_uninfluenced_neighbours(G_tmp, influenced_nodes)
           for node in neighbours:
               if update_influence(G_tmp, node, phi, time):
25
                   num_influenced += 1
26
                   influenced_nodes.add(node)
27
           t[time] = num_influenced
           time += 1
30
       ## Determine the empirical expected time to be influenced
31
       expected_time = sum([i * t[i] for i in range(N)])/N
32
       return (len(influenced_nodes), expected_time)
```

```
def run_simulation(G, phi=0.18, q=0.1, directed=False):
      111
         Simulation of influential cascade on network G.
         Returns the average size of influenced nodes and average expected
         time to be influenced from the relevant populations.
10
      # Set the initial state of the network.
11
      set_influence(G, 0)
12
      set_time(G, 0)
      # Find high-degree and low-degree groups
15
      degree_ordered_nodes = sorted(list(G.nodes()), key=lambda x: G.degree(x),
16

    reverse=True)

      N = G.number_of_nodes()
17
      degree_ordered_nodes = sorted(list(G.nodes()), key=lambda x: G.degree(x),
18

    reverse=True)

      influential_nodes_5 = degree_ordered_nodes[:int(0.05*N)]
19
      influential_nodes_10 = degree_ordered_nodes[int(0.05*N):int(0.1*N)]
20
      influential_nodes_15 = degree_ordered_nodes[int(0.1*N):int(0.15*N)]
      influential_nodes_20 = degree_ordered_nodes[int(0.15*N):int(0.2*N)]
22
      bottom_nodes = degree_ordered_nodes[int(0.9*N):]
      # Find normal degree groups
25
      average = np.mean(list(dict(G.degree()).values()))
26
      lower, upper = int(np.floor(average)), int(np.ceil(average))
27
      normal_nodes = [x for x in G.nodes() if lower <= G.degree(x) <= upper ]
29
      influential_S_5, influential_S_10 = [], []
30
      influential_S_15, influential_S_20 = [], []
31
      influential_t_5, influential_t_10 = [], []
32
      influential_t_15, influential_t_20 = [], []
      normal_S, bottom_S = [], []
      normal_t, bottom_t = [], []
35
36
      ## Calculate the number of influenced nodes (S) and expected time of influenced
```

```
## nodes for each node in each group
38
       for node in influential_nodes_5:
39
           S, t = simulate_spread(G, node, phi)
40
           influential_S_5.append(S)
41
           influential_t_5.append(t)
42
       for node in influential_nodes_10:
43
           S, t = simulate_spread(G, node, phi)
           influential_S_10.append(S)
45
           influential_t_10.append(t)
46
       for node in influential_nodes_15:
47
           S, t = simulate_spread(G, node, phi)
48
           influential_S_15.append(S)
49
           influential_t_15.append(t)
       for node in influential_nodes_20:
51
           S, t = simulate_spread(G, node, phi)
52
           influential_S_20.append(S)
53
           influential_t_20.append(t)
54
       for node in bottom_nodes:
           S, t = simulate_spread(G, node, phi)
56
           bottom_S.append(S)
57
           bottom_t.append(t)
58
       for node in normal_nodes:
59
           S, t = simulate_spread(G, node, phi)
           normal_S.append(S)
           normal_t.append(t)
62
63
       return [np.mean(influential_S_5), np.mean(influential_S_10),
64
           np.mean(influential_S_15), np.mean(influential_S_20), np.mean(influential_S_5
           + influential_S_10), np.mean(influential_S_5 + influential_S_10 +
           influential_S_15), np.mean(influential_S_5 + influential_S_10 +
           influential_S_15 + influential_S_20), np.mean(normal_S), np.mean(bottom_S),
               np.mean(influential_t_5), np.mean(influential_t_10),
65
                \rightarrow np.mean(influential_t_15), np.mean(influential_t_20),
                → np.mean(influential_t_5 + influential_t_10), np.mean(influential_t_5
                + influential_t_10 + influential_t_15), np.mean(influential_t_5 +
                   influential_t_10 + influential_t_15 + influential_t_20),
                → np.mean(normal_t), np.mean(bottom_t)]
```