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| Opinion Forming - A network theory problem |

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# Introduction

If we consider a group of individuals as a network, the ways in which opinions are spread and changed can be thought of as a graph colouring problem.

A social network, the graph of relationships among a group of individuals, plays a fundamental role as a medium for the spread of information, ideas, and influence among its members.

Zehmakan, A. N. (2020). Opinion forming in Erdős–Rényi random graph and expanders. *Discrete Applied Mathematics*, *277*, 280-290.

Social media such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram have served as a crucial tool for communication and information disseminating in today’s life. Therefore, studying different social behaviours like how people form their opinion regarding a new product or an election or how the information spreads through a social network have attracted a substantial amount of attention. Many different processes, from bootstrap percolation to rumour spreading, have been introduced to model this sort of social phenomena

https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/frai.2020.00045/full

A network where each vertex represents a person, the colour of the vertex determines the opinion of that individual and the edge joining two vertices is a relationship between individuals. It plays an important role in influencing the decisions people make and acts as a medium for the spread of information and ideas.

Opinion spread can therefore be modelled by considering the influence of an individual’s neighbours have upon the individual.

In the simplest case, we consider two opinions (colours for practical simulations), and opinions are formed/changed based on a simple rule.

Rule – at each timestep every vertex update, the colour of that vertex updates itself based on the majority of the neighbouring vertices, if at all the number of vertices of the opposing colour is the same, the vertex retains its colour.

It is simple to show how some setups are quite straightforward and settle into stable configurations whilst some settle into cycles (all v swap vertices). We discover that there are longer step times, a cycle of 1-2 once it starts looping and common ending colour vector which it ends up on.

In this project we investigate discovering, classifying, and determining dynamics of graphs based on their initial configurations through an approach based on exhaustive simulations backed by theoretical results.

# Origin of Opinion forming

The beginning of opinion forming was with people’s exposure to relevant information and

experiences, they then process the information and come to a judgement with a reasoning behind it. The different reasonings are then aggregated through either informal interactions or opinion polls.

# Implementation of Opinion Forming

The formation of opinions within a group of people has been a subject of interest in many areas Mastroeni, L., Vellucci, P., & Naldi, M. (2019). Agent-based models for opinion formation: A bibliographic survey. *IEEE Access*, *7*, 58836-58848.

Yin, X., Wang, H., Yin, P., & Zhu, H. (2019). Agent-based opinion formation modeling in social network: A perspective of social psychology. *Physica A: Statistical Mechanics and its Applications*, *532*, 121786., few of the most common ones are discussed below.

## Sociology and Psychology

Since the study of online opinion formation involves both psychological behaviour and network dynamics, it has been a hot topic in sociology and nonlinear physics Castellano, C., Fortunato, S., & Loreto, V. (2009). Statistical physics of social dynamics. *Reviews of modern physics*, *81*(2), 591. In general, one’s opinion represents his attitude or standpoint towards a certain object, and opinion dynamics aims to reveal how social opinions evolve and converge by defining different interaction mechanisms from individual levels Ding, F., Liu, Y., Shen, B., & Si, X. M. (2010). An evolutionary game theory model of binary opinion formation. *Physica A: Statistical Mechanics and its Applications*, *389*(8), 1745-1752. Although there have been many literatures on opinion model, most of them focus on nonlinear physics or statistical physics methods or simulate the opinion interaction merely using the principle of the minority being subordinate to the majority, which falls short on theoretically illustrating how the opinion interaction process is affect by multiple factors relevant to both parties. Yin, X., Wang, H., Yin, P., & Zhu, H. (2019). Agent-based opinion formation modeling in social network: A perspective of social psychology. *Physica A: Statistical Mechanics and its Applications*, *532*, 121786. In fact, the evolution of group opinion is a complex and holistic process, thus the characteristics and thoughts of everyone are necessary to be considered. For instance, some breaking news propagate rapidly on social networking sites and get widely discussed. The background players behind the diffusion are individual netizen who hierarchically forwarding the topics, and such spreading behaviour depends on the psychological attitude (e.g., support, opposition, etc.) of individual. It indicates that opinion formation is a fusion process of individual opinions, where a group of interacting agents continuously fuse their opinions on the same issue based on established rules. Dong, Y., Zhan, M., Kou, G., Ding, Z., & Liang, H. (2018). A survey on the fusion process in opinion dynamics. *Information Fusion*, *43*, 57-65. Therefore, it is of great significance to consider more psychological factors to model opinion formation at the individual level.

Sociology and psychology theories are also important theory evidence to describe microcosmic individual interaction and macroscopic group behaviour in the process of opinion formation. Specifically, theories of behavioural psychology like stimulus–response theory Watson, J. B. (1913). Psychology as the behaviorist views it. *Psychological review*, *20*(2), 158. (later improved as stimulus–object–response) may be employed to explain individual behaviours in opinion formation: if we regard opinions received as a stimulus, individual response is to decide whether to change his opinion. And the famous attitude change model proposed by Hovland is a theory basis to simulate individual mental state: stick to the point of view or transform the attitude Janis, I. L., & Hovland, C. I. (1959). An overview of persuasibility research. *Personality and persuasibility*, 1-26.. Moreover, human behaviour including mental activity is the result of the individual interaction, and is also influenced by group environment, which has been confirmed by the sociology research, *e.g.,* Asch experiment and Lewin’s Field Theory [1].

Distance plays a great deal in forming connections and is a fundamental element of establishing social links. Geo-social platforms are also highly correlated, and this could be further used to network. One of the great aspects of opinion forming when looking at it from the social point of view, we consider the identification of influential spreaders of the information and the impact of homophily. Homophily is the principle where the contact between similar people occurs faster than among dissimilar people. Khanam, K. Z., Srivastava, G., & Mago, V. (2020). The homophily principle in social network analysis. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2008.10383*.

Sociological and psychological features have also been introduced into opinion models, such as memory,[18](https://aip.scitation.org/doi/full/10.1063/1.4866011) inertia,[19,20](https://aip.scitation.org/doi/full/10.1063/1.4866011) noise,[21](https://aip.scitation.org/doi/full/10.1063/1.4866011) and conviction,[22](https://aip.scitation.org/doi/full/10.1063/1.4866011) characterizing the way in which these features change individual behavior and the global dynamics in a specific scenario. Xiong, F., & Liu, Y. (2014). Opinion formation on social media: an empirical approach. *Chaos: An Interdisciplinary Journal of Nonlinear Science*, *24*(1), 013130.

## Economics and Finance

Within the standard Keynesian multiplier framework, extended by a micro-model of interactive formation of individual consumption propensities, we demonstrate that socioeconomic interactions can lead to cyclical fluctuations in aggregate economic activity. Westerhoff, F., & Hohnisch, M. (2007). A note on interactions-driven business cycles. *Journal of Economic Interaction and Coordination*, *2*(1), 85-91. Each firm has fixed social relations to other firms and is either optimistic or pessimistic. If a firm is optimistic, it expects higher sales and consequently increases its production. A pessimistic firm, however, decreases its production since it fears a reduction in sales. A firm’s opinion is influenced by two aspects. A firm tends to be optimistic (pessimistic) (i) if national income increases (decreases) and/or (ii) if more (fewer) firms it interacts with are optimistic. The mood of firms is dynamically updated. We incorporate this opinion formation model into a simple yet consistent macroeconomic framework and establish a robust bi-directional feedback process between firms’ sentiments and national income. Accordingly, changes in firms’ sentiments cause changes in national income, which, in turn, feedback on firms’ sentiments. We have observed this phenomenon both for a square lattice network and for a scale-free network [2]

## Political

One of the big impacts of opinion forming in politics is during the elections and protests. One can easily model the dynamics of an election using data available on social media and then study the characteristics of distinct group of people who are like minded.

Given that Twitter is increasingly appropriated for both conversation and collaboration [11], and that tweets can be seen as an electronic word-of-mouth communication [13], it is likely that we can learn something about political sentiment by eavesdropping on these conversations. Typical uses of Twitter, including daily chatter, information sharing, reporting news and conversing [13], can all contain indicators of political opinion and sentiment. Skoric, M., Poor, N., Achananuparp, P., Lim, E. P., & Jiang, J. (2012, January). Tweets and votes: A study of the 2011 singapore general election. In *2012 45th hawaii international conference on system sciences* (pp. 2583-2591). IEEE.

‘In this light, the formation of public opinion is understood to be a process that revolves around individuals. It begins with their exposure to politically relevant experiences and information. Each individual processes this information, thereby coming to a judgment that yields an attitude. The attitudes of different individuals are then aggregated, either through informal interactions or more formal mechanisms, such as elections or opinion polls.’

Shawn W. Rosenberg, in [International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences (Second Edition)](https://www.sciencedirect.com/referencework/9780080970875/international-encyclopedia-of-the-social-and-behavioral-sciences), 2015

## Public opinion - Media (POV)

Media provide people with cues as to what could ideally lead into formed opinions, but these are usually short lived. One example could be people evaluating the performance of a politician and/or their party based on the issues which are glorified by the media themselves. If the issue stays longer on media’s agenda, people start to take sides, and form biases leading to opinions.

‘For example, in the evaluation of President George Bush in 1991, his overall job approval rating was high, corresponding with the victory in the Gulf War. However, in 1993 his approval rating was far lower than it was in 1991 because the Persian Gulf crisis was overshadowed by intense media coverage of economic recession. During this time, Bush's approval rating was more strongly linked to his performance concerning the economy than to his performance on foreign policy matters.’ Edwards III, G. C., Mitchell, W., & Welch, R. (1995). Explaining presidential approval: The significance of issue salience. *American Journal of Political Science*, 108-134.

## Social Influence

Social influence is the process by which individuals adapt their opinion, revise their beliefs, or change their behaviour because of social interactions with other people. In our strongly interconnected society, social influence plays a prominent role in many self-organized phenomena such as herding in cultural markets, the spread of ideas and innovations, and the amplification of fears during epidemics. Yet, the mechanisms of opinion formation remain poorly understood, and existing physics-based models lack systematic empirical validation. Moussaïd, M., Kämmer, J. E., Analytis, P. P., & Neth, H. (2013). Social influence and the collective dynamics of opinion formation. *PloS one*, *8*(11), e78433.

Two controlled experiments we reported showing how participants answering factual questions revise their initial judgments after being exposed to the opinion and confidence level of others. Based on the observation of 59 experimental subjects exposed to peer-opinion for 15 different items, an influence map was drawn that described the strength of peer influence during interactions.

A straightforward process model derived from the observations demonstrates how opinions in a group of interacting people can converge or split over repeated interactions. Two major attractors of opinion were identified: (*i*) the *expert effect*, induced by the presence of a highly confident individual in the group, and (*ii*) the *majority effect*, caused by the presence of a critical mass of laypeople sharing similar opinions. Additional simulations reveal the existence of a tipping point at which one attractor will dominate over the other, driving collective opinion in each direction. These findings have implications for understanding the mechanisms of public opinion formation and managing conflicting situations in which self-confident and better-informed minorities challenge the views of a large, uninformed majority [5]

## Agent based Models

When group members’ actions follow a set of rules, their behaviour may be described by an agent-based model. Agent-based models may be employed to describe a variety of characteristics of the agents involved and the way they interact, allowing us to understand the evolution of the opinions of the individuals, and if and how they reach a final consensus or whether the agents polarize around a small number of different opinions. Mastroeni, L., Vellucci, P., & Naldi, M. (2019). Agent-based models for opinion formation: A bibliographic survey. *IEEE Access*, *7*, 58836-58848.

Many opinion models are based on agent-based modelling as it is a successful method used in social dynamics.

Agent-based models may be employed to describe a variety of characteristics of the agents involved and the way they interact, allowing us to understand the evolution of the opinions of the individuals, and if and how they reach a final consensus or whether the agents polarize around a small number of different opinions.

Extant studies show that opinion formation in social network is of immense importance in various fields such as word of mouth marketing, political election, and social governance [4]

# Introduction to graph theory

A graph is a mathematical structure containing two finite sets V and E and can be denoted by G = (V, E). V represents the vertices and E stands for the edges. Graphs have order and size, the number of vertices in a graph is called the order of the graph and the number of edges is the size.

Chart

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Figure 1: Order of the graph - 6, size of the graph - 6

The figure below can be used to show how to name the vertices and the edges of a graph.

The vertex-set can be called as VA = (a, b, e, d, c)

The edge-set can be called as EA= (ab, be, ed, dc, ca, ad, bd)

Chart, radar chart

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Figure 2: vertex and edge set

## Diverse kinds of graphs

1. Fully connected Graphs – A graph which has a path(edge) between each pair of vertices is called a fully connected graph.
2. Disconnected Graphs – A graph where the vertices are split into 2 or more disjoint groups, such that one cannot link a vertex in one group to the vertex in another group by traversing along through the edges is called a disconnected graph.
3. Planar graphs – A graph which can be drawn on a plane such that no edges cross each other and only intersect at the vertices of that graph.
4. Circular Graphs – It is an undirected graph whose vertices can be associated with a finite system of chords of a circle such that two vertices are adjacent if and only if the corresponding chords cross each other.

A close-up of a dart board

Description automatically generated with low confidence

Figure

Diagram, radar chart

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Figure

1. Bipartite Graphs – A graph G whose vertices can be divided into two disjoint sets M and N such that each edge of the original graph G connects a vertex of set M and set N, such a graph is called a bipartite graph.

Diagram

Description automatically generated

Figure

1. Loop less/Simple Graphs – When there is at most one edge joining two vertices, no edge may join a vertex to itself, and the edges are not directed, the graph formed is called a loop less graph or a simple graph.
2. Digraphs or Directed Graphs are graphs where the edges are directed between any given two vertices. The direction of the edge is denoted by the arrow on that very edge.

A picture containing diagram

Description automatically generated

Figure

## Formulas

The maximum number of edges possible in a single graph with ‘n’ vertices is nC2 where nC2 is equal to n(n-1)/2.

The number of single graphs possible with ‘n’ vertices = 2nC2. = 2n(n-1)/2.

Chart, line chart

Description automatically generated

Figure

For example, consider the triangle above.

n = 3.

nC2 = 3

2nC2 = 23 = 8

The 8 graphs are as follows:

Chart, line chart

Description automatically generated

Figure

## Centrality

Centrality is the measure of closeness of a node from the other nodes in a graph. It can be calculated using various measures, couple of the most important ones are node prominence and structural importance. Centrality indices answers the question “What characterizes an important vertex?” The answer is given in terms of the real-valued function on the vertices of the graph, where the values produced are expected to provide a ranking of the most important nodes.

The word ‘important’ here has a wide number of meanings, leading to many different definitions of centrality. It can be categorized by either the network flow or by walk structure which further disassociates into various categories.

The **Betweenness centrality** is the measure of a vertex within a graph. It is the number of times a node acts as a bridge along the shortest path between two other nodes.

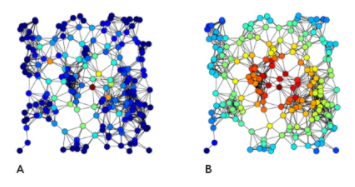
The **Closeness centrality** of a node is the average length of the shortest path between the node and all the other nodes in the graph.

The **Eigenvector centrality** is the measure of the influence a node has on the network.

The **Degree centrality** can be defined as the number of links incident upon a node, which is the number of ties the node has.

The **harmonic centrality** reverses the sum and reciprocal operations in the definition of closeness centrality.

The **Katz centrality** is a generalization of degree centrality. Degree centrality measures the number of direct neighbours, and Katz centrality measures the number of all nodes that can be connected through a path, while the contributions of distant nodes are penalized

A picture containing vector graphics

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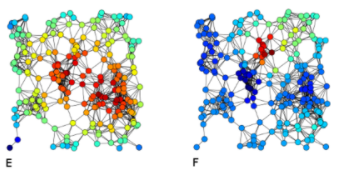


Figure 9: Same network but different applications of centrality indices.

There are a couple of limitations to the centrality indices, one of them being obvious wherein one application of centrality is often sub-optimal for a different application. The other one

## Adjacency Matrix

An adjacency matrix is a square n X n matrix that is used to represent a finite graph by storing the nodes labelled as one if they are adjacent and 0 if they are not.

In case of a simple graph, as in the figure below. The diagonal will always be made up of zeroes since edges from a vertex to itself (loops) are not allowed in simple graphs.

The adjacency matrix of an undirected simple graph is symmetric, and therefore has a complete set of real eigenvalues and an orthogonal eigenvector basis The set of eigenvalues of a graph is the spectrum of the graph.

Diagram

Description automatically generated

Figure 10: Adjacency matrix

The representation of the matrix is different for undirected and undirected graphs.

A screenshot of a computer

Description automatically generated with low confidence

Figure

## Isomorphism

Two graphs are said to be isomorphic if there exists a one-to-one correspondence between their vertices. For graphs G1 and G2, if the number of edges joining any two vertices of G1 is equal to the number of edges joining the corresponding vertices of G2, they are said to be isomorphic graphs.

Chart, scatter chart

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Figure 12: Isomorphic graphs

In the diagram above, a1 has two edges and its corresponding vertex d2 has two edges as well. Similarly, d1<->a2, b1<->b2 and c1<->c2 all have the same number of edges to their corresponding vertex, making this and isomorphic pair of graphs.

## Euler’s Analysis of Seven Bridges of Königsberg

The foundation of graph theory started when Leonhard Euler laid negative resolution to ‘*Seven Bridges of Königsberg*’. This is an infamous mathematical problem where two mainlands in the city of *Königsberg* in Prussia (now Russia) were set on both sides of Pregel river. These two mainlands were connected by seven bridges.

Diagram

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Figure 13: Seven bridges problem

The problem was to devise a way wherein one would cross each bridge one and only once. Euler proved that this problem has no solution. How he did this is by first pointing out that choice of route inside either landmass are irrelevant as the only important feature is the sequence in which the bridges are crossed. This enabled him to rephrase the problem in a more abstract way where the landmasses were nodes, and the bridges were the edges. It does not really matter whether the edges are curved or straight. The resulting structure is a graph.

Diagram

Euler's abstract representation of the seven bridges problem.

Figure 14: Euler's abstract representation of seven bridges problem

## Graph Colouring

Graph colouring was first introduced when in 1852, when Francis Guthrie postulated the four-colour conjecture, observed that four colours were sufficient to colour the map of any region such that no region sharing the same border (adjacent borders) have the same colour. Francis’ brother approached his teacher (Augustus De Morgan) at the university college, who later wrote to William Hamilton in 1852.

This transformed into the problem of deciding whether it is possible to colour the vertices of every planar graph with four colours such that no two adjacent vertices are assigned the same colour.

**Vertex colouring** arises more commonly than edge colouring or map colouring. It can be defined as the assignment where f:VG->C from its vertex-set onto a k element set C whose elements are called colours (C = 1,2,3…k). For any k, such an assignment is called vertex-colouring.

Diagram

Description automatically generated with medium confidence

Figure 15: Vertex-colouring

A **colour class** in a vertex-colouring of a graph G is a subset of VG containing all the vertices of a given colour.

A **proper vertex-colouring** is vertex-colouring of the graph is such that the endpoints of each edge are appointed distinct colours.

The **Chromatic number** of a graph is G is denoted by x(G), is the minimum number of distinct colours required for a proper vertex-colouring of G. A graph G is k-chromatic if x(G) = k.

## Popular lemmas in Graph Theory

**Regularity lemma** states that every dense graph can be partitioned into a small number of regular pairs and a few leftover edges. Since regular pairs behave as random bipartite graphs in many ways, the Regularity Lemma provides us with an approximation of an arbitrary dense graph with the union of a constant number of random-looking bipartite graphs.

**Handshaking lemma** states that in every finite undirected graph, the number of vertices that touch an odd number of edges is even.

**Diagram

Description automatically generated**

Figure

From the figure above, the vertices 4, 5, 2 and 6 are even number of vertices who are connected to an odd number of edges. The sum of the degrees of their edges is 2 + 3 + 2 + 3 + 3 + 1 = 14. This is known as the **degree sum formula**. It states that the sum of the degrees of the vertices in a graph is twice of the number of edges present in the graph.

**Graph removal lemma** states that when a graph contains a few copies of a given subgraph, then all the copies can be eliminated by removing a small number of edges.

# Introduction to network analysis

The study of graphs can be divided into two sections based on their symmetry namely as Symmetric and Asymmetric relations.

*Symmetric relations* are the binary relations where if a=b true then b=a is also true, where a, b belong to the set X. Set X here can be called symmetric.

Asymmetric relations can be better explained with the help of digraphs, Digraphs are graphs made of a set of vertices connected by directed graphs.

Network analysis has many applications in statistics, particle physics, electrical engineering, economics, etc.

## Application of Graph Theory in puzzles

1. 4 cube problem
2. Ramsey theory
3. Six people at a party problem
4. The eight circles problem

## Bootstrap Percolation

In statistical mechanics, bootstrap percolation is a percolation process in which a random initial configuration of active cells is selected from a lattice or other space, and then cells with few active neighbours are successively removed from the active set until the system stabilizes. The order in which this removal occurs makes no difference to the final stable state. Bootstrap percolation can be interpreted as a cellular automaton, resembling Conway's Game of Life, in which live cells die when they have too few live neighbours. However, unlike Conway's Life, cells that have become dead never become alive again. [2]

## Majority Bootstrap Percolation

In majority bootstrap percolation on a graph G, an infection spreads according to the following deterministic rule: if at least half of the neighbours of a vertex v are already infected, then v is also infected, and infected vertices remain infected forever. Percolation occurs if eventually every vertex is infected. [3]

## Proof for max number of edges theorem.

Text, letter

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Figure

We know that the degree of each vertex in a simple graph is 1 less than the number of vertices(n).

= n-1

For n=2,

Degree = n-1 = 2-1 = 1

Since the sum of the degrees is even for a simple undirected graph, we can denote it by ∑d(v)=2m

For n=2, ∑d(v)=n-1

For n vertices the total degree is n(n-1)

This implies, 2m = n(n-1)

m = n(n-1)/2

m being the number of edges

**Degree for the bipartite graph**

For a vertex, the number of adjacent vertices is called the degree of the vertex and is denoted deg(v). The degree sum formula for a bipartite graph state that

Summation of degree (v) = Summation of degree (u) = |E|

**Cases for graphs**

All cases assume that the point of contact retains their opinion when at a 50-50 situation,

Case one

For first iteration, al the vertices change to opposite colour since they are each connected to two vertices of the opposite colour. For the second iteration, the state goes back to the starting state and so on.

Case two

The graph remain unchanged as the vertex is connected to one same and one opposite colour, at this point, the vertex can either change to the opposite colour which will result in a case like case 1 and ultimately leading into cycles. Or it chooses not to change the colour leading into the same graph repeatedly.

Case three

For this graph, again there are two possibilities, one wherein the graph remains the same because the vertex decided not to change due to a 50-50 probability. On the other hand, middle blue vertex changes into red and then the first vertex changes into red as well in the following iteration resulting in an entire red graph.

**Outcomes we already know**

**Attempt at explaining the cyclic graphs:**

**Case 1**

We start with a simple graph G made up of four vertices A, B, C, and D and the edge set AB, BC, CD, and DA. Each vertex represents an individual and is assigned a colour to show either a similarity or difference in opinion. We use the colours red and blue to differentiate here. Assuming if a vertex(person) comes across a case where they are in contact with 1 similar and 1 dissimilar opinion, they go with their original choice and retain their opinion.

We start off with A and C being red and B and D being blue. This is a special case wherein the graph would change but remain the same in terms of isomorphism. Let us take vertex A to understand this. Vertex A is of the opinion ‘X’ on some issue M, and so is vertex C. But vertex B and D are of the opinion ‘Y’ on the same issue. A is connected to both B and D and hence has A changes its opinion from ‘X’ to ‘Y’ since for A both B and D go with opinion Y. Similarly, B, C, and D all change their opinion only to land up in an identical situation. This cycle would go on and on.

**Case 2**

Consider the same graph in case 1 except this time, the vertex pair with same opinions are A, B as opposed to C, D. In this case, no vertices would never change their opinion assuming the same clause wherein if a vertex comes across a situation where it faces 1 similar and 1 opposed opinion it retains its original choice. Hence there is no cycle, and the graph remains the same.

**Modelling opinion forming**

Chart, radar chart

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Figure

An observer interconnected with a set of subjects by mutual relations of trust (Solid green line) or distrust (dotted red line). Starting from a small set of opinions (in this case just one) marked with a + in black and a connection of unknown subjects (grey question marks), the observer gradually forms opinions on all subjects.

The formed opinion is determined as a product of the opinion and the sign of the relation between the source subject and the target subject. A positive opinion is formed when the source opinion and the relation are either both positive or both negative; a negative opinion is formed otherwise.

# Code Explanation

Using the code in [graph.py](https://github.com/Sanskar-16/capstone/blob/master/code/graph.py), we run simulation for various number of graphs and colour vectors.

Initially we import all the necessary libraries for the project including the infamous ones like NumPy, Pandas and Time. We also import the network library to deal with matrices and graph related components.

Next, we declare all the variables and data structures, followed by a custom list containing all the features for graphs in the format of a dictionary, this reduces complexity when dealing with the key-value pairs during multiple iterations.

We have also implemented the code in the conventional format where it follows object-oriented programming, s. Object oriented programming might be preferred to abstract data types, data encapsulation, information hiding, and modularization [6]. This makes it easier to maintain and modify the code.

We also use two clever functions to generate and manipulate the list of all the possible graphs and all the possible colour vectors for that number of vertices, the interesting part about this function is that while generating the colour vectors for the user input, it halves the list, in a way where all the cases are considered and we end up saving computational and memory resources. Let us take an example to understand why this is feasible:

For a graph denoted by the adjacency matrix

[[0,1,1],

[1,0,1],

[1,1,0]]

It will produce a similar result when multiplied to either the colour vector [1, -1, 1] or the colour vector [-1, 1, -1] i.e., the next colour vector for both the iterations would be a vector consisting of all the vertices of the same colour denoted by either [1, 1, 1] or [-1, -1, -1]. This indicates that the graphs get infinitely stuck in a loop for the same colour. To avoid redundancy, we eliminate half the colour vector list by inferring results about all the colour vectors.

Since the time for which the program runs increases exponentially after crossing n=5, we also implement a call-back function using a simple if-else check while generating the graph list for similar higher number of vertices [see appendix 1]

We declare various other functions which I will explain briefly, to begin with, we have the function get\_zero\_matrix [see appendix 2]. Since the list of graphs in generated in a n bit binary string filled with 1s and 0s where n is equal to the number of vertices, we manually assign it to a matrix form for performing operations on it later. Then we have another function named check\_connected which does exactly as it name suggests, from the list of all graphs, it checks for connected graphs as that is a basis rule for our configurations.

While dealing with the result of the product of the matrix and the colour vector, we encounter 0s in the resulting colour vector which is meant to be used for the next iteration, The way we have modelled the problem, it assumes that in case where a person is exposed to equal number of opposing opinions, their opinion does not change and they keep their original opinion. When we apply this to our model, it implies that when the result of the product of the matrix and the colour vector sums to give 0, we assign that vertex the colour it previously had.

To put this explanation into practice, we implement a function called check\_for\_zeroes. This function is responsible for checking the sum of the resulting colour vector, and if an index is 0, the function assigns that index the value of the previous colour vector’s that very index.

Next, we have two simple functions responsible for calculating the length of step-time and cycle over which the iterations loop and appending all the results to the table which later get saved as a csv file. These functions are called calculate\_length\_of\_cycle and append\_to\_table.

Once all the functions are declared, we take input from the user for the number of vertices and run the program on that very input resulting in a data frame finally converted to a csv file, which consists of various columns [see appendix 3]

Using the code in [analysis.ipynb](https://github.com/Sanskar-16/capstone/blob/master/code/analysis.ipynb), we analyse the csv file obtained containing the results.

# Data Visualisation and Analysis

Bar plot based on x as the number of vertices and y as the percent of individual step times it contains, assorted colours show the value for different step times across all the vertices from two till 6.

Chart

Description automatically generated

Figure

Chart, histogram

Description automatically generated

Figure

Chart, histogram

Description automatically generated

Figure

Step time analysis percentage wise for all the graphs starting with 2 vertices and going up till 8 vertices -

A computer screen with a blue background

Description automatically generated with low confidence

Figure

A screenshot of a computer

Description automatically generated with medium confidence

Figure

A screenshot of a computer

Description automatically generated with medium confidence

Figure

A picture containing chart

Description automatically generated

Figure

A screenshot of a computer

Description automatically generated with medium confidence

Figure

A screenshot of a computer

Description automatically generated with medium confidence

Figure

A screenshot of a computer

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Figure

A screenshot of a computer

Description automatically generated with medium confidence

Figure

Cycle analysis percentage wise for all the graphs starting with 2 vertices and going up till 8 vertices -

Interesting insights

We notice from the

# Conclusion

After considering the code driven approach to model and simulate results for the given problem statement, we can conclude that there all configurations either settle into a stable state, start looping after a certain number of cycle or end up in a loop.

We also see that the increase in the number of configurations is exponential, which is an expected outcome as the configurations depend on the graph list and colour vector list which in turn are increasing exponentially. This means that when the number of vertices increases, the cycles are bigger and so are the loops, implying much more complex patterns in opinion distribution.

I would have further added to this project by expanding on the colour vectors from only two colours to more, indicating that the opinions are not just contrasting but there are multiple points of view which resonates more to a real-life situation.

Another approach could be where an individual’s opinion weighs more than another individual. A real-life example from the industry of sports, wherein the infamous athlete Cristiano Ronaldo replaces the bottles of Coca-Cola with water, resulting in a whopping $4 billion dollar loss in the market value of the American drink giant [7]. To apply this to the model, we could add weights to specific variables which would alter the entire process of opinion formation.

Furthermore, this project could also be looked at from the point of view of probabilistic approach where we calculate conditional probability based on the value of various kinds of graph components like clique, and centralities and consider them while making operations to avoid redundant calculations and much more optimal results.

Lastly, as we move up to higher vertices, we can implement a check for isomorphic graphs eliminating similar cases and optimizing the time complexity on top of that. Besides that, another check could be implemented for every graph where the iterations are checked and stored while performing, in case of repetition of a similar iteration, they could be then overlooked since we would already know how they would end up.

# Glossary

Lemma - A subsidiary or intermediate theorem in an argument or proof.

Arc – An arc is a directed line

Edge – A line joining a pair of vertices

Loop – Edge/Arc that joins a vertex to itself

Adjacent – Next to or adjoining something else.

Walk – Series of vertices and edges.

Path – A walk where no repeated vertices.

Clique – In an undirected graph G = (V, E), it is a subset of vertices C ⊆ V, such that every two distinct vertices are adjacent.

Width – In an undirected graph in which every subgraph has a vertex of degree at most k, which is some vertex in the subgraph touches k or fewer of the subgraph’s edges. The width of the graph is the smallest value of k for which it is k-degenerate. It measures how sparse the graph is.

Size – The size of the graph is the number of edges in the graph.

Order – The number of vertices in a graph is the order of the graph.

Dump

Relate this to how this project could be extended by adding extra features - For the most part, this research effort has focused on the second step in the opinion formation process, the social psychology of how individuals process information (either from direct or indirect experience) when forming an attitude. The critical outcome or dependent variable is an attitude. Typically, this is defined as an individual's overall evaluation of an object with some degree of favour or disfavour. In this view, an attitude consists of three types of elements: cognitive (beliefs); affective (emotions or feelings); and behavioural (intent to act). These elements can affect one another. While they are usually consistent, they may not be. Attitudes are also related to one another.

In a way that has important consequences for attitude strength and stability, this interlatitudinal structure may vary regarding its elaboration, its coherence, and the degree to which it has a hierarchical structure. A central aim of the research is to examine how different conditions (both situational and dispositional) affect the processing of information and thus the resulting attitude. The research is designed on the presumption that all individuals operating under similar conditions will process information in the same way. Consequently, subjects' responses are aggregated, and inferences are made regarding how the ‘average’ person will form, maintain, or change their opinions under the conditions examined.

# Appendix

Text

Description automatically generated

Appendix

Text

Description automatically generated

Appendix

Graphical user interface, application

Description automatically generated

Appendix

A picture containing text, skiing, snow, slope

Description automatically generated

Appendix 4: All graphs with three vertices

A picture containing text, sky, line, envelope

Description automatically generated

Appendix : Unique graphs with three vertices

A picture containing shape

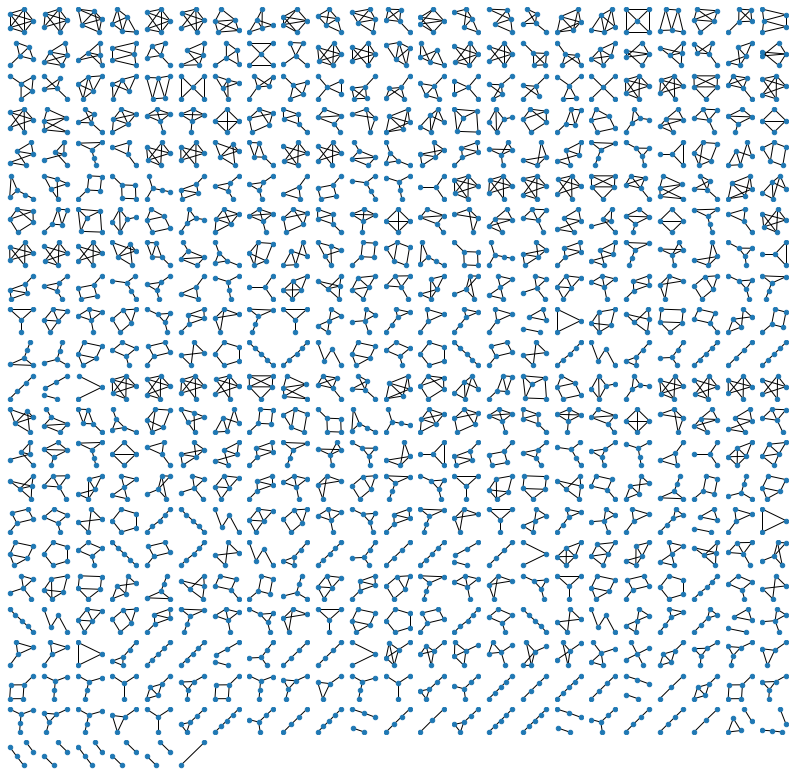
Description automatically generated

Appendix : All graphs with four vertices

Shape, polygon

Description automatically generated

Appendix : Unique graphs with four vertices



Appendix : All graphs with five vertices

Diagram

Description automatically generated with medium confidence

Appendix : Unique graphs with five vertices

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[8]

[] <https://github.com/Sanskar-16/capstone/blob/master/code/plotting-graphs.ipynb>

[] <https://github.com/Sanskar-16/capstone/blob/master/code/visualisation.py>

[] <https://github.com/Sanskar-16/capstone/blob/master/code/graph.py>

[] <https://github.com/Sanskar-16/capstone/blob/master/code/analysis.ipynb>

[] <https://github.com/Sanskar-16/capstone>

/ TODO

* Make introduction and conclusion bigger [1]
* Make the report full of references.
* Reference stuff in appendix
* Run the finer analysis for updating appendix
* Dump all the plots in the appendix and talk about them in the data analysis part
* Proofread everything making sure it is not exactly copy paste