

Aalto University  
School of Science  
Master's Programme in Computer, Communication and Information Sciences

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# Inferring Voting Networks in Online Elections

Master's Thesis  
Espoo, March 14, 2020

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Supervisor: Professor Aristides Gionis  
Advisor: Blank M.Sc. (Tech.)

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Ananth Mahadevan

# Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>6</b>
1.1	Thesis Outline . . . . .	7
<b>2</b>	<b>Graph Theory</b>	<b>8</b>
2.1	Preliminaries . . . . .	8
2.1.1	Undirected Graphs . . . . .	8
2.1.2	Directed Graphs . . . . .	9
2.2	Signed Graphs . . . . .	10
2.2.1	Balance Theory . . . . .	12
2.2.2	Status Theory . . . . .	14
2.3	Hierarchy in directed networks . . . . .	15
2.4	Link and Sign Prediction . . . . .	16
<b>3</b>	<b>Vote Prediction</b>	<b>19</b>
3.1	Result versus Vote Prediction . . . . .	19
3.2	Voting and Signed networks . . . . .	20
3.3	Linear Combination of Graphs . . . . .	21
3.4	Local Signed Network . . . . .	23
3.4.1	Prediction Based on Balance Theory . . . . .	24
3.4.2	Prediction Based on Status Theory . . . . .	26
3.4.3	Iterative Prediction Model . . . . .	30
<b>4</b>	<b>Wikipedia</b>	<b>33</b>
4.1	Principles of Wikipedia . . . . .	33
4.2	Formal Organization of Wikipedia . . . . .	34
4.2.1	Editors . . . . .	35
4.2.2	Administrators . . . . .	36
4.2.3	Bureaucrats . . . . .	37
4.2.4	Arbitration Committee . . . . .	38
4.3	Request for Adminship . . . . .	38

<b>5</b>	<b>Experiments</b>	<b>41</b>
5.1	Datasets . . . . .	41
5.1.1	Wikipedia RfA Data . . . . .	42
5.1.2	User Contribution Data . . . . .	42
5.2	Graph Combination Model . . . . .	43
5.2.1	Graphs . . . . .	44
5.2.1.1	Topic Similarly Graph . . . . .	44
5.2.1.2	Talk and Interaction Graph . . . . .	44
5.2.1.3	Signed Graph and Triadic Features . . . . .	45
5.2.2	Data Preparation . . . . .	45
5.2.3	Supervised Classification . . . . .	47
5.3	Local Signed Network Models . . . . .	47
5.3.1	Iterative Balance Model . . . . .	48
5.3.2	Iterative Status Model . . . . .	50
5.4	Voting Order Experiments . . . . .	52
5.5	Evaluation Metrics . . . . .	54
5.5.1	Receiver Operating Characteristics . . . . .	55
5.5.2	Precision Recall . . . . .	55
<b>6</b>	<b>Results and Discussion</b>	<b>57</b>
6.1	Test Dataset Results . . . . .	57
6.1.1	Graph Combination Model Results . . . . .	58
6.1.2	Iterative Model Results . . . . .	61
6.2	Complete WIKI-RfA Results . . . . .	62
6.2.1	New Voter Analysis . . . . .	62
6.2.1.1	Iterative Balance Model Results . . . . .	63
6.2.2	Iterative Status Model Results . . . . .	65
6.3	Voting Order Results . . . . .	66
6.3.1	Failed RfA Results . . . . .	66
6.3.2	Successful RfA Results . . . . .	68
<b>7</b>	<b>Conclusions and Future Work</b>	<b>69</b>

# Chapter 1

## Introduction

In recent years, researchers have become increasingly interested in understanding the behaviour of voters in social networks. Knowledge of the factors that motivate voters, for example, voting for bills in the United States Congress [29] or electing administrators in Wikipedia [10, 28, 35], is of great importance in selecting successful policies or candidates. Voting is a classic problem and has been studied in the fields of game theory and political science [31, 49, 69]. More recently, there is a focus on using information from the interaction network of voters to model their behaviour. This provides an insight into these interactions and effect of influence of other individuals on voters within a community.

Votes can be represented as a *signed* network with positive or negative links. Finding groups using clustering techniques [7, 13, 39] and predicting signed links [14, 36, 37] in these networks is well researched. These approaches provide understanding of the group dynamics at play and predict votes and in such a network. However, they do not consider the iterative and chronological nature of the voting that takes place in these networks. Moreover, in cases where research does focus on voter models, they rely on external features to build machine learning models that are task-specific and static [28, 29].

In this thesis, we propose a model that creates a local signed network consisting of the neighbours of the current voter and the votes already cast in the election in question. It will then predict the vote that when added to the network will comply the most with concepts of balance and status in signed networks. After all the votes are cast in a session, the model can be easily updated to improve quality and is, therefore, iterative and dynamic. The model is also flexible and can incorporate external features to build the local signed network of a voter. The results for Wikipedia administrator elections shows that our model outperforms machine learning based models

and traditional signed link prediction solutions.

## 1.1 Thesis Outline

The rest of the thesis is organized in the following manner. Firstly, we discuss the background relating to signed graphs and hierarchy in directed networks in Chapter 2. Next, in Chapter 3 we describe the vote prediction problem and approaches to solving it. Chapter 4 provides a comprehensive view of Wikipedia and the election process for administrators. In Chapter 5 we explain the datasets used, construction of the model and evaluation criteria. After that, we report our findings in Chapter 6 and discuss their implications. Finally, we conclude the thesis and present future work in Chapter 7.

## Chapter 2

# Graph Theory

Change Chapter to Background and include signed link prediction theory here as well

In this chapter, we will provide the fundamentals of the graph theory concepts required to understand the rest of the thesis. In Section 2.1 we cover the basic definitions and terminologies used to describe different types of graphs. Then we define a signed graph and discuss its unique properties in Section 2.2. We outline the social theories of balance and status in signed networks in Sections 2.2.1 and 2.2.2. Lastly, we explain techniques of finding hierarchies in directed networks and the concept of agony in Section 2.3.

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### 2.1 Preliminaries

In this section, we define the various types of graphs and their basic properties. The notation and terminologies used closely follow those used in Diestel [18]. Graphs are structures that describe relationships between entities. These entities are called *vertices* and entities related to one another are joined by edges. The terms graph, vertices and edges can be used interchangeably with *network*, *nodes* and *links* respectively.

Graphs can be classified broadly into two types based on whether the edges possess a direction. We now go on to define them in detail.

#### 2.1.1 Undirected Graphs

An undirected graph is pair  $G = (V, E)$ , where  $V$  is the set of vertices and  $E$  is the set  $E \subseteq \{(u, v) \mid u, v \in V\}$  of unordered pairs of vertices called edges. In this thesis we will deal only with *simple graphs*, i.e. no self loops,



$(u, v) \in V \times V$ ,  $u \neq v$  and there is at most one edge between vertices  $u$  and  $v$ .

The number of the vertices in a graph is called the *order* of the graph and is denoted by  $n = |G|$ . In turn, the *size* of a graph is the number of edges denoted by  $m = \|G\|$  or  $m = |E|$ . A vertex  $u$  is *adjacent* to  $v$  if they are the end points of an edge,  $(u, v) \in E$ . All the vertices adjacent to a vertex  $v$  is called the *neighbourhood* of  $v$  and is denoted by  $N(v)$ . The *degree* of a vertex  $v$  is the number of nodes adjacent to that vertex and is denoted by  $d(v) = |N(v)|$ .

The edges of an undirected graph can also have an associated value. This value can indicate the distance or similarity between a pair of vertices. These values are called *weights* and the corresponding graph is called a *weighted undirected graph*. Therefore, a weighted graph is defined as a triple  $G = (V, E, w)$ , where  $w : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$  is a function that maps an edge  $e$  to a positive real weight  $w(e)$ . Now an *unweighted graph* is simply a weighted graph where the function  $w$  is defined as: if  $e \in E$  then  $w(e) = 1$  else  $w(e) = 0$ . The degree of a vertex  $v$  in a weighted graph is the sum of the weights to all the neighbours of  $v$  and is defined as  $d(v) = \sum_{u \in N(v)} w((u, v))$ . An example of a weighted undirected graph is shown in Figure 2.1.

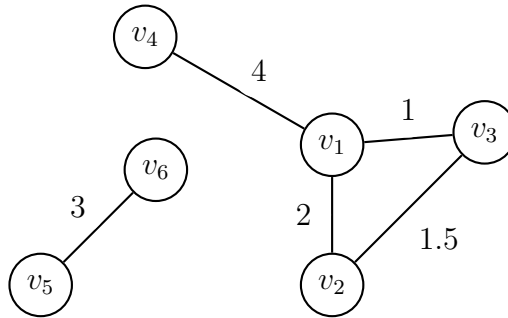


Figure 2.1: An example of a weighted undirected graph

### 2.1.2 Directed Graphs

The main distinction regarding a *directed graph* (or *digraph*) is that the edges are ordered pairs, i.e.  $(u, v) \neq (v, u)$ . Therefore, a directed graph has a similar definition: a pair  $G = (V, E)$ , where  $V$  is the set of vertices and  $E$  is the set of *ordered* pairs of vertices. Now given an edge  $e = (u, v)$  we can define a source function  $\text{src} : E \rightarrow V$  such that  $\text{src}(e) = u$  and a destination function  $\text{dest} : E \rightarrow V$  where  $\text{dest}(e) = v$ . These functions classify the vertices in an edge  $e$  as either the source or the destination. In this thesis, we deal only

with *simple directed graphs*, i.e. no self-loops, and there can be at most one edge from  $u$  to  $v$ .

As the edges now have an inherent direction, we can define the *successors* and *predecessors* of a node  $v$ . A vertex  $u$  is called the *successor* of a node  $v$  if there exists a directed edge from  $v$  to  $u$ , therefore the set of successors for a vertex  $v$  can be defined as  $S(v) = \{u \mid (v, u) \in E\}$ . A *predecessor* of a node  $v$  is a vertex  $u$  such that there exists a directed edge from  $u$  to  $v$ , the set of predecessors for a vertex  $v$  can be defined as  $P(v) = \{u \mid (u, v) \in E\}$ . Now, a vertex  $u$  that is either a successor or a predecessor of a vertex  $v$  can be called a neighbour of the vertex  $v$ . Therefore, we define the *neighbourhood* of a vertex  $v$  as the set of vertices in the union of successors and predecessor, i.e.  $N(v) = S(v) \cup P(v)$ . This definition is also compatible with undirected graphs because if  $(u, v) \in E$  then  $(v, u) \in E$ .

Directed graphs can also have values associated with each directed edge called a *weight*. A *weighted directed graph* can be defined as a triple  $G = (V, E, w)$ , where the weight function  $w : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$  maps each edge  $e$  to a weight  $w(e)$ . The indegree of a vertex  $v$  is defined as the sum of the edge weights from the predecessors of  $v$  and is denoted as  $d_{\text{in}}(v) = \sum_{u \in P(v)} w((u, v))$ . Similarly, the outdegree of a vertex  $v$  is defined as the sum of the edge weights to the successors of  $v$  and is denoted by  $d_{\text{out}}(v) = \sum_{u \in S(v)} w((v, u))$ . Figure 2.2 shows an example of a weighted directed graph.

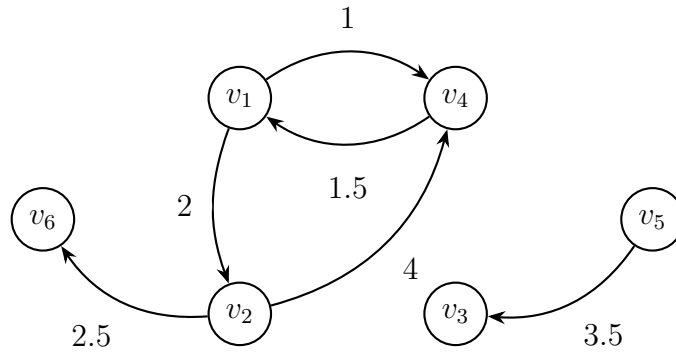


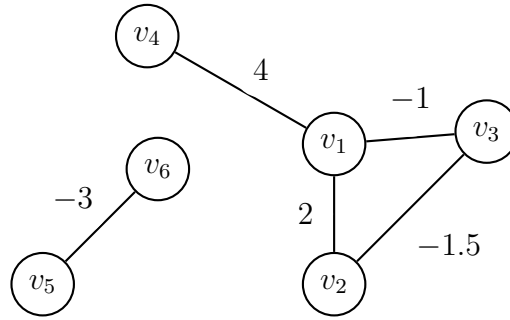
Figure 2.2: An example of a weighted directed graph

## 2.2 Signed Graphs

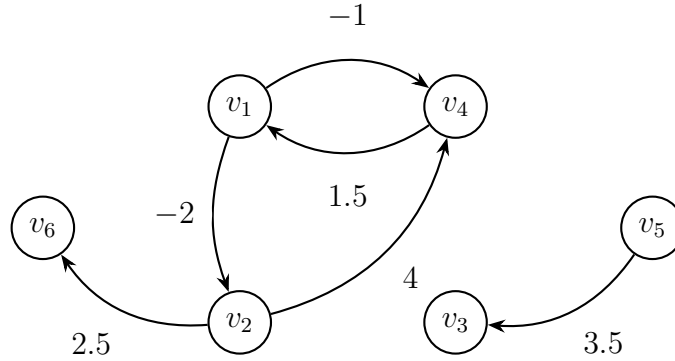
The simple weighted graphs we have defined so far only have non-negative edge weights that can represent similarity or closeness. In the 1950s, social psychologists found it desirable to express liking, disliking or indifference in

social interactions. This was formalized by Harary [24] using graphs with weights  $(-1, 0, 1)$ . These graphs are therefore called *signed graphs*, where a negative edge weight can denote dissimilarity between a pair of vertices. In this thesis we will use notations and terms similar to Gallier [19], Kunegis et al. [34], Hou [26] and Zaslavsky [68].

A signed graph is a triple  $G = (V, E, w)$ , where  $V$  is the set of vertices,  $E$  is the set of pairs of vertices and the weight function  $w : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . The weight function now takes an edge  $e$  and maps it to a signed weight  $w(e)$ . We can partition the edges into positive and negative edges,  $E = E^+ \cup E^-$ , where  $E^+ = \{e \mid w(e) > 0\}$  and  $E^- = \{e \mid w(e) < 0\}$ . Similar to Zaslavsky [68], we consider undirected signed graphs and directed signed graphs as distinct and separate entities. We can see some examples of signed graphs in Figure 2.3.



(a) A undirected signed graph



(b) A directed signed graph

Figure 2.3: Examples of Signed Graphs

We can now proceed to define a few more terms. The degree of a vertex  $v$  is now the sum of the absolute edge weight of its neighbours, called the

*signed degree* and is defined as

$$\bar{d}(v) = \sum_{u \in N(v)} |w((u, v))|$$

This can also be extended to *signed indegree* and *signed outdegree* denoted by  $\bar{d}_{\text{in}}(v)$  and  $\bar{d}_{\text{out}}(v)$  and defined as

$$\bar{d}_{\text{in}}(v) = \sum_{u \in P(v)} |w((u, v))|$$

$$\bar{d}_{\text{out}}(v) = \sum_{u \in S(v)} |w((v, u))|$$

We can create a  $n \times n$  square weight matrix  $W$ , where each entry  $w_{ij}$  is defined as

$$w_{ij} = \begin{cases} w((v_i, v_j)) & \text{if } (v_i, v_j) \in E \\ 0 & \text{if } (v_i, v_j) \notin E \end{cases}$$

The signed degree matrix  $\bar{D}$  is a diagonal matrix consisting of the signed vertex degrees,  $\bar{D} = \text{diag}(\bar{d}(v_1), \dots, \bar{d}(v_n))$ . We can now define the *signed Laplacian*,  $\bar{L}$  as

$$\bar{L} = \bar{D} - W$$

The signed Laplacian along with results from spectral analysis of signed graphs [26, 34], will be useful for balance theory of signed graphs.

### 2.2.1 Balance Theory

In the 1940s, Heider [25] proposed that when there are either *positive relations* (friendship, love, support) and *negative relations* (enmity, hate, oppose) in a group, the group tends towards *balance*. Balance is the concept that all members aim to maintain consistency in the relations they share with other members of the group. In a group of three members this can be seen as having three positive relations or one positive and two negative relations. In Figure 2.4 the triads  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are *balanced* and mirror aphorisms such as "the friend of my friend is also a friend" and "the enemy of my enemy is a friend" respectively. Therefore, triads  $B_3$  and  $B_4$  can be called *unbalanced* or *imbalanced* that denotes the cognitive dissonance between the members of the triad. The dissonance can be understood by the counterintuitive nature of the phrase "the friend of my friend is my enemy" described by triad  $B_3$ .

Harary and Cartwright [11] generalized this notion of balance by using signed graphs. As these relations are typically symmetric, balance is usually defined for undirected signed graphs. This can be seen in Figure 2.4 where solid edges are positive and dashed edges are negative. Davies [15] also offers an alternate definition of *weak balance* where triads of type  $B_2$  are considered to have lesser predictive utility as relationships of these type are less common in real-life social networks.

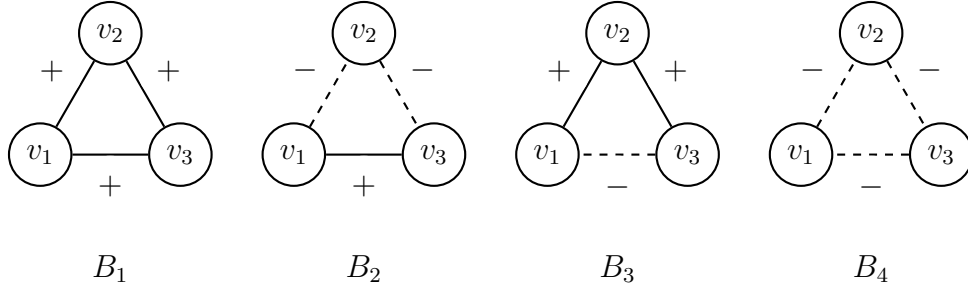


Figure 2.4: Triads in undirected signed graphs.  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are *balanced* triads as they have even number of negative edges.  $B_3$  and  $B_4$  are *unbalanced* as they have odd number of negative edges.

The concept of balance can be generalized for an undirected signed graph  $G = (V, E, w)$ . The sign of a cycle  $C$  in the signed graph  $G$  is defined as the product of the edge weights  $sgn(C) = \prod_{e \in C} w(e)$ . A signed network  $G$  is then said to be balanced if and only if all the sign of all cycles in network are positive. Therefore, every cycle in  $G$  must have an even number of negative edges. This leads to result from Harary [24] that states that if a graph  $G$  is balanced, then there is a partition of the vertices  $V = V_1 \cup V_2$  such that edges within the vertices of each set is positive and edges between the sets are negative. This means that we can have a bipartite graph when we delete the positive edges and negative edges span between the two sets of vertices. An example of a balanced signed graph is shown in Figure 2.5. Here the partition of the vertex set is  $V_1 = \{v_1, v_3, v_4, v_7, v_8\}$  and  $V_2 = \{v_2, v_5, v_6, v_9\}$ .

The signed Laplacian matrix  $\bar{L}$  of a signed graph  $G$  is always positive-semidefinite and  $\bar{L}$  is positive-definite iff  $G$  is *unbalanced* [26, 34, 68]. If the smallest eigenvalue of a graph  $G$  is denoted by  $\lambda_1(G)$ , then  $G$  is balanced iff  $\lambda_1(G) = 0$ . Hou [26] provides bounds on the value of  $\lambda_1(G)$  and Li et al. [40] show that  $\lambda_1(G)$  can be used as a measure of how far the signed graph  $G$  is from being balanced.

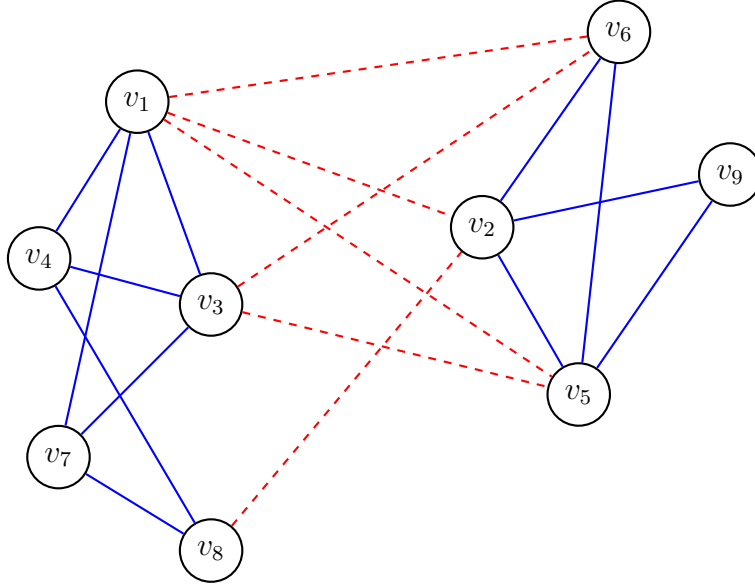


Figure 2.5: A balanced signed graph. Solid blue edges are positive and dashed red edges are negative. Every cycle in this graph contains an even number of negative edges.

### 2.2.2 Status Theory

Guha et al. [22] mention implicitly that a signed edge from  $u$  to  $v$  can be interpreted in an asymmetric manner different from "friend" or "enemy". Leskovec et al. [36, 37] introduce the concept of *status* to contextualize directed signed edges. A positive edge  $u \xrightarrow{+} v$  indicates that  $v$  has a higher status than  $u$  and a negative edge  $u \xrightarrow{-} v$  means that  $v$  has a lower status than  $u$ . This concept of relative status can be propagated transitively along multiple steps which might lead to contradictions with balance theory [37].

Given three vertices  $v_1, v_2$  and  $v_3$ , the presence of an edge  $v_1 \xrightarrow{+} v_2$  indicates that  $v_1$  thinks  $v_2$  has higher status, the edge  $v_2 \xrightarrow{+} v_3$  indicates that  $v_2$  thinks  $v_3$  has higher status. Now we wish to close this triad with an edge from  $v_3$  to  $v_1$ . Status theory would say that through transitivity  $v_1$  has lower status than  $v_3$ , therefore the prediction is  $v_3 \xrightarrow{-} v_1$ . Whereas, in balance theory we would predict a positive edge  $v_3 \xrightarrow{+} v_1$  to make the cycle have even number of negative edges. This example can be seen in triads  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  shown in Figure 2.6.

There are also cases when status theory is ambivalent to the edge that closes a triad. Consider the example when we have the edges  $v_1 \xrightarrow{+} v_2$  and  $v_2 \xrightarrow{-} v_3$ . If we were to indicate the status of a vertex  $v$  using the function

$\sigma(v)$ , then the edges describe the following :  $\sigma(v_2) > s(v_1)$  and  $\sigma(v_2) > \sigma(v_3)$ . Therefore, we have no knowledge of the relative difference in status between the vertices  $v_1$  and  $v_3$ . Hence, both edges  $v_3 \xrightarrow{+} v_1$  ( $\sigma(v_3) > \sigma(v_1)$ ) and  $v_3 \xrightarrow{-} v_1$  ( $\sigma(v_1) > \sigma(v_3)$ ) are equally valid for status theory. Balance theory on the other hand can only predict  $v_3 \xrightarrow{-} v_1$  to keep the triad balanced. This case is shown in Figure 2.6 as triads  $S_3$  and  $S_4$ .

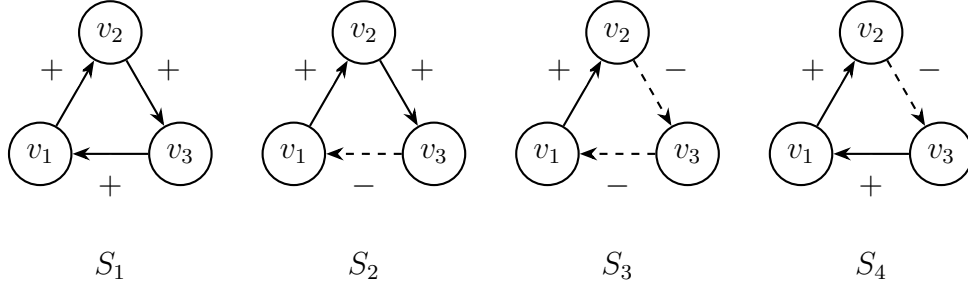


Figure 2.6: Triads in directed signed graphs. Triads  $S_2$ ,  $S_3$  and  $S_4$  are compliant with status theory. Only triads  $S_1$  and  $S_3$  are compliant with balance theory.

Each positive link inwards ( $d_{\text{in}}^+(v)$ ) and negative link outwards ( $d_{\text{out}}^-(v)$ ) increases status. Each positive link outwards ( $d_{\text{out}}^+(v)$ ) and negative link inwards ( $d_{\text{in}}^-(v)$ ) decreases status. Therefore,  $\sigma(v) = d_{\text{in}}^+(v) + d_{\text{out}}^-(v) - d_{\text{out}}^+(v) - d_{\text{in}}^-(v)$  is a heuristic for the status of a node [36]. An interesting fact is that the edge  $u \xrightarrow{-} v$  can be converted into positive edge in the opposite direction  $u \xrightarrow{+} v$ . This fact reduces the number of unique triads that can be formed using status theory and will be used in edge prediction tasks that will be discussed in coming chapters.

## 2.3 Hierarchy in directed networks

Hierarchies exist in all social structures, from the explicit levels found in nature such as the food chain or organizational structures in businesses to more implicit stratification that occurs on social media or online networks. A common method to represent such hierarchies is through a tree, for example, the chain of command in the military or within governments. Trees have well defined levels and a single person at the top. If we generalize this structural concept then we get a *Directed Acyclic Graph* (DAG) which represents a partial ordering set. DAGs have perfect hierarchy while structures such as cycles tend to have no hierarchy. Other directed graphs occur somewhere between these two extremes.

Gupte et al. [23] provide a method to discern the levels of stratification present in a given directed network when no prior information of the hierarchy exists. They define a measure of the hierarchy of a given directed network  $G$  as  $h(G)$  along with a polynomial algorithm to find the largest hierarchy in that network. They define a concept of *social agony* which posits that agony is present when a person having a higher rank in network interacts with a person who has a lower rank. Therefore, if we define the rank of a node in graph  $G$  as the function  $r : V \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , then a directed edge  $u \rightarrow v$  causes agony when  $r(u) \geq r(v)$ . The agony for the edge can be quantified as  $\max(r(u) - r(v) + 1, 0)$ . The agony of the graph  $G$  wrt to rank function  $r$  is defined as

$$A(G, r) = \sum_{(u,v) \in E} \max(r(u) - r(v) + 1, 0)$$

As nodes in a graph tend to minimize the overall agony, the agony of a network  $G$  is the smallest possible agony over all possible ranking for  $r$ ,  $A(G) = \min_{r \in \text{Rankings}} A(G, r)$ . The hierarchy of a given network  $G$ , denoted by  $h(G)$  can now be expressed in terms of the agony of the network,  $h(G) = 1 - \frac{1}{m} A(G)$ , where  $m$  is the number of edges. We can see examples of hierarchy in unweighted directed graph in Figure 2.7.

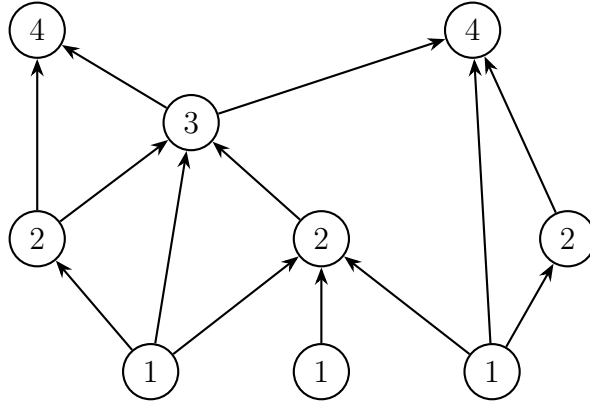
Therefore, finding a ranking of the nodes that minimizes the agony of the network gives us the optimal hierarchy present in that network. Gupte et al. [23] and Tatti [51] present a polynomial algorithm that can solve the dual of the agony minimization problem to obtain the optimal ranking  $r$  for unweighted graphs. Tatti [52] provides an alternate approach using a capacitated circulation solver that can handle weighted digraphs as well as additional cardinality constraints. These algorithms allows us to find the levels of hierarchy present in any given directed social network and analyse the interaction between members belonging to different strata in that community.

We will explain in future chapters how hierarchies in social network is intrinsically linked to the theory of status in directed signed networks. We show one can use the concept of agony of a directed signed graph  $G$  to quantify the violation to status theory and use it as a metric to predict an unknown signed edge.

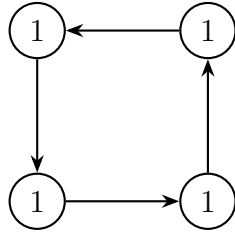
## 2.4 Link and Sign Prediction

The *link prediction problem* is defined by Liben-Nowell and Kleinberg [41] as inferring possible future edges between vertices in a social network. The datasets used was split into training edges and testing edges which had a

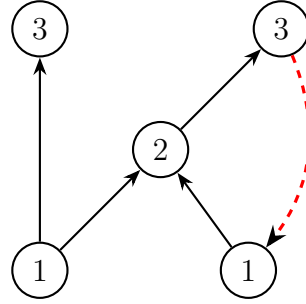




(a) DAG has perfect hierarchy,  $h(G) = 1$  and agony of each edge is 0



(b) Cycle has no hierarchy,  $h(G) = 0$  and each edge has agony of 1



(c) Graph with some hierarchy  $h(G) = \frac{2}{5}$ . Red dashed edge has agony of 3 and solid black edges have 0 agony.

Figure 2.7: Examples of hierarchy in unweighted directed graphs. Numbers inside nodes indicate the rank of vertex.

common core set of vertices. They showed that topological features such as number of common neighbours and Katz's centrality index can be used in a unsupervised setting to accurately predict edges.

Leskovec et al. [36] extended the link prediction problem to signed networks. They also introduced the problem of *edge sign prediction*: predict the sign of a given edge  $(u, v)$  using the existing signed network  $G$ . A supervised model for the task is proposed that uses network features such as indegree and outdegree of a node along with *triad* features. The edge nodes  $u$  and  $v$  and a common neighbour  $w$  form a triad. The directed edge between  $(u, w)$  and  $(w, u)$  can be either forward or backwards and each edge is either positive or negative. Therefore there are 16 possible triad types for a given neighbour  $w$ . They analyse these triadic features from the trained model and show how they relate to balance and status theory. For the link prediction

problem, the information from the negative edges in the signed network offers improvement in the overall accuracy of the model. This seminal paper inspired many more approaches to solving these problems for signed graphs.

Matrix factorization and latent space approaches facilitate link prediction and sign prediction tasks for multiple edges simultaneously in a signed network [1, 21, 27]. Supervised algorithms for both tasks can be improved using additional node features such as inverse square metric [2] or node rankings [48]. Models that use graph motifs [32, 42] generalize the concept of triadic feature for link and sign prediction. Chiang et al. generalize balance theory for longer cycles and use it as features to improve link prediction [14]. Tang et al. [50] discuss the importance of predicting negative links and highlight methods to overcome the inherent imbalance present in signed network datasets. Cesa et al. [12] and Chiang et al. [13] utilize clustering techniques to solve sign prediction and link prediction respectively. Shuang et al. [65] and Karimi et al. [29] create bespoke models incorporating user behaviour and political party affiliation respectively to predict the sign of edges present in the signed networks.

## Chapter 3

# Vote Prediction

In this chapter, we cover the main motivation behind predicting the vote of an individual voter and present the methods that can be used to solve this task. We discuss the contrast in perspectives that is present when predicting the result compared to predicting a vote in Section 3.1. Next, we explain how the problem of vote prediction is intrinsically linked to the tasks of edge and sign prediction in signed network in Section 3.2. In Section 3.3, we describe a supervised machine learning framework that can use graphs features from voting and non-voting data. Lastly, we present our novel approach of constructing a local signed graph of the current voter and using balance and status theory to predict the vote in Section 3.4.

### 3.1 Result versus Vote Prediction

In this thesis, we are interested in the voting behaviour for a collective action. In such cases, members of a community come together as *voters* to decide on a particular *candidate* item during a *session*. In a government parliament the voters are the elected members of the parliament and the candidate is usually a bill or policy matter. When it is promotion within a political party or an online community such as Wikipedia, the members vote on a candidate who has been nominated for the position. In all these cases we have two levels of decisions being made. The first the individual decisions that a voter makes with regard to the candidate. The second is the final decision that the group arrives to after everyone has voted. We refer to task of predicting the former as *vote prediction* and the latter as *result prediction*.

Result prediction provides a macro level perspective of the incentives of a community. We can create models based on the characteristics of a candidate to predict the result of a collective action. This will lead to understanding on

a communal level of what features are preferred and if there are voting blocks formed within the members based on the type of candidate. This translates to practical examples such as party level dynamics in a parliament, the topic of a bill or the credentials of a nominee [9, 66, 67].

On the other hand, when we focus on the vote prediction problem, we get a deeper understanding of the dynamics between voters and the candidate. In fields such as game theory, this is well studied using frameworks such as *strategic voting models* and *momentum* [3, 6, 44, 49, 69]. These models are more theoretical and are studied under synthetic conditions. Nevertheless, they still provide a foundation on which we can construct practical models that can utilize additional external features. One such popular approach is using textual information from bills, speeches and legislature to predict votes of politicians in parliament [8, 20]. The next important step is to represent the voting data as networks and leveraging network features to understand and predict voter behaviour.

## 3.2 Voting and Signed networks

Votes by nature express a positive or negative relationship between a *voter* and a *candidate*. Therefore, *signed graphs* provide an intuitive way to structurally represent the voting pattern of members in a community. These signed voting networks can be used to develop models to solve the task of vote prediction and analyse voter behaviour.

Correlation clustering and community detection of signed voting graphs can discover trends and vote blocks in communities [4, 7]. Analysing the networks using social theories of balance and status provides knowledge of voter behaviour and features for prediction methods [16, 39]. The vote prediction task can be broken down into two subtasks which are analogous to link and sign prediction in signed networks.

The first subtask is to predict who will vote next given a candidate  $c$  and a set of previous votes. This subtask is similar to link prediction in a signed network where we aim to predict possible future edges of the type  $(v, c)$ . The complexity subtask depends on the format of voting that takes place. If there is a known voting order, such as in roll call in parliamentary proceedings or explicit timestamps then it is essentially solved. If the voting occurs simultaneously, the subtask can be reduced to predicting the possible subset of members who will vote in a given session. When the voting is iterative and there is no known underlying process of who votes next, then a separate model might be required to infer the voting sequence. This case can be combinatorially hard as we would need to find the correct ordering of

votes in a session.

The second subtask is to predict how a voter  $v$  will vote for a candidate  $c$  given the previous votes in the session. This task translates into predicting the sign of an edge  $(v, c)$  in the current session. We call this subtask the *independent vote prediction* problem. It is independent in nature as we are only interested in the decision of the voter  $v$  assuming that we have complete prior knowledge of how the previous votes have been cast. This problem can be framed as a supervised learning task, using features of the interaction between the current voter  $v$ , previous voters  $U$  and the candidate  $c$  to predict the sign of the edge  $(v, c)$ . We can utilize theories of balance and status in signed networks to create models similar to those by Karimi et al. [29] and Jankowski-Lorek et al. [28] to predict voter behaviour.

### 3.3 Linear Combination of Graphs

In this section we explain how the approaches outlined in Section 2.4 can be applied to solve the *independent vote prediction* problem. As discussed previously, the *edge sign prediction* task in signed network is analogous to vote prediction. The models proposed by Leskovec et al. [36] can be used to predict the sign of the edge  $(v, c)$ . Voting in a community takes place across many sessions in a chronological manner. Therefore, we must partition the training and testing datasets to avoid data leakage. We propose the following framework to gather features using a linear combination of the voting history and several auxiliary graphs.

We denote the directed signed graph for the current voting session as  $S = (V_S, E_S, w_S)$ . The current voter in consideration is denoted by  $v$  and the candidate of the session is  $c$ . In this thesis, for all the models we assume that each session has a unique candidate. The votes that have been cast prior to the current voter exist as edges  $(u, c)$  in the session  $S$  and the set of prior voters is denoted as  $U = \{u \mid (u, c) \in E_S\}$ . The history  $H = (V_H, E_H, w_H)$  is defined as the directed signed graph containing the votes from sessions chronologically prior to  $S$ . We also define a set of auxiliary graphs  $A = \{G_1, G_2, \dots, G_l\}$  based on external non-voting data. These auxiliary graphs can be either directed or undirected, weighted or unweighted, signed or unsigned. This is similar to the relational layer in *Multidimensional Social Networks* (MSN) described by Kazienko et al. [30] and Jankowski-Lorek et al. [28]. However, the auxiliary graphs capture different relations between a subset of the voting members which will be used to generate additional features for the vote prediction task.

Algorithm 1 describes how to generate a feature vector  $\mathbf{a}$  from the auxil-

iary graphs  $A$ . The algorithm finds the intersection of the prior voters  $U$  and the neighbourhood of the current voter  $v$  in the graph  $G_i$  which we call the *voting neighbourhood*. Then the feature  $\mathbf{a}_i$  is computed as the weighted sum of the voting neighbourhood plus the edge weight to the candidate  $(v, c)$ . Figure 3.1 provides an example with three auxiliary graphs and two prior voters  $u_1$  and  $u_2$ . The dashed red edges are the votes cast in the current session  $S$  by the prior voters. We see that in the example  $G_1$  is a directed graph,  $G_2$  is an undirected graph and  $G_3$  is a signed directed graph. The current voter  $v$  has different relations to his voting neighbourhood in each auxiliary graph and therefore each feature is a different combination of edge weights.

In addition to the auxiliary feature vector  $\mathbf{a}$ , we can also create triad features based on the historical voting graph  $H$ . Similar to Leskovec et. al. [36] and Karimi et al. [29] we can form a set of unique triads  $T$ . Then, for each node  $u$  in the common neighbourhood of  $N_{vc}$  we can count the triad formed from the three vertices. Algorithm 2 describes this procedure.

We can now create a feature matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  for all the sessions in a given dataset. Each row is the concatenation of the auxiliary feature vector and the triadic feature vector  $\mathbf{x} = [\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{t}]$ . The target vector  $\mathbf{y}$  is the vector of true votes. Now we train a linear machine learning model and use it to predict the votes in a test dataset.

---

**Algorithm 1:** Auxiliary feature vector for voter  $v$

---

**Input:** Voter  $v$ , Candidate  $c$ , Set of auxiliary graphs  $A$ , Current voting session  $S$  and Prior voters  $U$

**Result:** Auxiliary Feature vector  $\mathbf{a}$

```

1 Initialize  $\mathbf{a}$  of length  $|A|$ 
2 foreach  $G_i$  in  $A$  do
3    $Z = N_i(v) \cap U$  // neighbours in  $G_i$  who have voted
4    $\mathbf{a}_i \leftarrow 0$ 
5   foreach  $z$  in  $Z$  do
6     /* vote in current session multiplied by the edge
       weight in  $G_i$  */
7      $\mathbf{a}_i += w_S((z, c)) \cdot w_i((v, z))$ 
8   end
9    $\mathbf{a}_i += w_i((v, c))$  // Add edge weight to candidate
10 end
11 return  $\mathbf{a}$ 

```

---

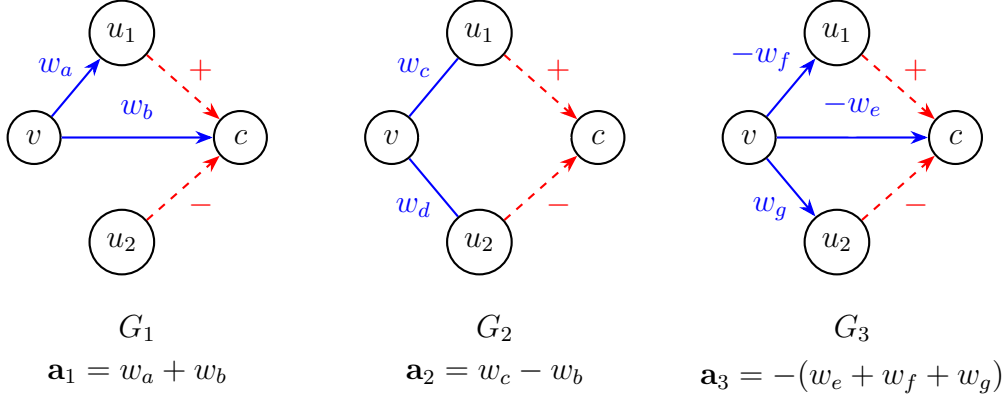


Figure 3.1: Example auxiliary features for  $v$  from combination of three graphs and two prior voters  $u_1$  and  $u_2$ . Dashed red lines are prior votes in the session. Solid blue lines are edge weights in auxiliary graph.  $\mathbf{a}_i$  is feature for voter  $v$  from auxiliary graph  $G_i$

---

**Algorithm 2:** Triad feature vector for voter  $v$

---

**Input:** Voter  $v$ , Candidate  $c$ , Set of unique triads  $T$ , Voting history graph  $H$

**Result:** Triad Feature vector  $\mathbf{t}$

```

1  $k \leftarrow |T|$ 
2 Initialize counters  $cnt_1, \dots, cnt_k$  to 0
3  $N_{vc} = N_H(v) \cap N_H(c)$  // common neighbours in  $H$ 
4 foreach  $u$  in  $N_{vc}$  do
5   | Let  $\Delta$  be the triad formed by vertices  $\{v, u, c\}$ 
6   | Classify  $\Delta$  as the  $j$ th triad in  $T$ 
7   | Increment counter  $cnt_j$ 
8 end
9  $\mathbf{t} \leftarrow [cnt_1, \dots, cnt_k]$ 
10 return  $\mathbf{t}$ 

```

---

### 3.4 Local Signed Network

In this section, we present an unsupervised method that can be used iteratively in predicting the votes in a session. This method builds on top the concept of a *voting neighbourhood* introduced in the previous section and relies solely on the social theories of balance and status in signed networks to predict a vote. However, unlike the triads features used in the supervised method, we will utilize generic measures of the balance or status of a network

and predict the vote that preserves these measures the best.

As defined in the previous section, the directed signed graph of the current session is  $S = (V_S, E_S, w_S)$  and  $v$  is the voter,  $c$  is the candidate and  $U$  is the set of prior voters in the session.  $H = (V_H, E_H, w_H)$  is the directed signed graph that contains the historical voting records prior to the current session. The first step is to construct a signed *relationship graph*  $R = (V_R, E_R, w_R)$  from the history voting graph  $H$ . The edges of this graph capture simple signed relationship between the voters such as *agreement* or *concurrence* and can be constructed uniquely based on the given problem. Based on whether we use balance or status theory to predict the vote, the relationship graph is either unweighted or weighted respectively.

We now define the *Local Signed Network* (LSN) of a voter  $v$  as the intersection of the session and the relationship graph  $LSN = S \cap R$ . We assume that candidate  $c$  is present in the relationship graph so that we get all the prior vote edges  $(u_j, c)$  in the LSN. The *voting neighbourhood* that we described in the previous section is the set of vertices for the LSN i.e.,  $V_{LSN} = V_S \cap V_R$ . There are three main types of edges present in the LSN. The first are the prior vote edges  $(u_j, c)$ , from the prior voters to the candidate. The second are the relationship edges  $(v, u_j)$ , from the voter to the prior voters. The third is the relationships between the prior voters  $(u_j, u_k)$ . All these three types of edges can be seen in the undirected LSN shown in Figure 3.2c. We will now cover how to predict the edge  $(v, c)$  in the LSN using balance and status theory.

### 3.4.1 Prediction Based on Balance Theory

As described in Section 2.2.1, balance theory is applied to undirected signed graphs. Therefore, we construct a undirected signed relationship graph  $R$  using voting history. The signed relations the edges  $E_R$  in this graph describe should be symmetric in nature for e.g., the probability of agreements or disagreement between a pair of nodes  $u$  and  $v$ . Now, we create the LSN from the intersection of the session graph  $S$  and relationship graph  $R$  and keep the LSN an undirected graph by ignoring the direction of the voting edges  $(u_j, c)$ .

Now, we turn to the task of predicting the sign of the edge  $(v, c)$  in the LSN. The voter  $v$  can cast either a positive or negative vote for the candidate  $c$ . This gives us two possibilities  $w_{LSN}((v, c)) = +1$  or  $w_{LSN}((v, c)) = -1$ . We state that the voter aims to maintain the balance in the LSN. Therefore, we can predict the vote that when added as the edge  $(v, c)$  to the LSN results in a more balanced network. This indicates that we require a measure of the *imbalance* of a network. If  $\bar{L}_{LSN}$  is the signed Laplacian of the LSN with



eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \lambda_n$ , then Li et al. [40] show that the smallest eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$  is a measure of the imbalance of the LSN. Therefore, the larger  $\lambda_1$  is, the more imbalanced the network is and if  $\lambda_1 = 0$ , then the network is perfectly balanced.

Combining these concepts we have Algorithm 3. When given a LSN and an edge  $(v, c)$  to predict, we first assume the vote is positive, add it to the LSN and compute the smallest eigenvalue denoted by  $\lambda_1^+$ . Next, we assume the vote is negative and add the edge to the LSN and the corresponding smallest eigenvalue is  $\lambda_1^-$ . Now, if  $\lambda_1^+ < \lambda_1^-$ , then we can predict that the vote is positive as the resulting LSN is more balanced. Similarly, if  $\lambda_1^- < \lambda_1^+$ , we predict a negative vote as it results in a more balanced network. This deterministic rule does not capture the gap between  $\lambda_1^+$  and  $\lambda_1^-$ . Therefore, the ratio  $r = \frac{\lambda_1^-}{\lambda_1^+}$  can be used to express the confidence in predicting the vote is positive. As  $\lambda_1^+$  approaches 0 (or  $\lambda_1^-$  increases),  $r$  approaches  $\infty$  and when  $\lambda_1^-$  approaches 0 (or  $\lambda_1^+$  increases),  $r$  approaches 0. Also, when  $\lambda_1^+ = \lambda_1^-$ ,  $r = 1$  which indicates that we are equivocal between the vote being positive and negative. We can convert the ratio  $r$  into a measure of the probability that the given edge  $(v, c)$  is positive by defining  $p = 1/(1 + e^{(1-r)})$ . Therefore, the output of the model is a probability measure that can be compared similar to the output of a logistic regression model.

Figure 3.2 shows an example of how we can iteratively predict votes using balance theory. The current voter at every iteration  $i$  is  $v = u_{i+1}$ . We start in the first iteration  $i = 1$  with one prior voter  $u_1$  who has voted negatively for the candidate  $c$  seen by the dotted red line in Figure 3.2a. The current voter  $v$  has a negative relation towards  $u_1$  indicated by the solid blue line. Now, in this triad we know "v disagrees with  $u_1$ " and " $u_1$  disapproves of  $c$ ". Using the intuition provided by balance theory, we can predict that the edge  $(v, c)$  is positive as it results in the triad being balanced. This result can be verified empirically by observing the values of smallest eigenvalue. We see that  $\lambda_1^+ = 0$  and  $\lambda_1^- = 1$  and therefore, the positive vote probability is  $p = 1$ . Now, in the next iteration,  $v$  becomes the prior voter  $u_2$  and we add the edge  $(u_2, c)$  with the true vote (in this example we assume it was the same as the prediction made) and we get the next voter as the new  $v$ .

In the second iteration  $i = 2$ , the new voter  $v$  has a positive relation with the prior voter  $u_1$  as seen in Figure 3.2b. By preserving the relation between  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  from the previous iteration there are larger cycles in the LSN. Similar to the previous iteration, we can observe the smallest eigenvalues and conclude that a negative vote leads to more balanced network and positive vote probability is now  $p = 0$ . Now, in the third iteration  $i = 3$ , the smallest eigenvalues in both cases are equal. Therefore, we are equivocal in the vote

being positive or negative and the positive vote probability is  $p = 0.5$ .

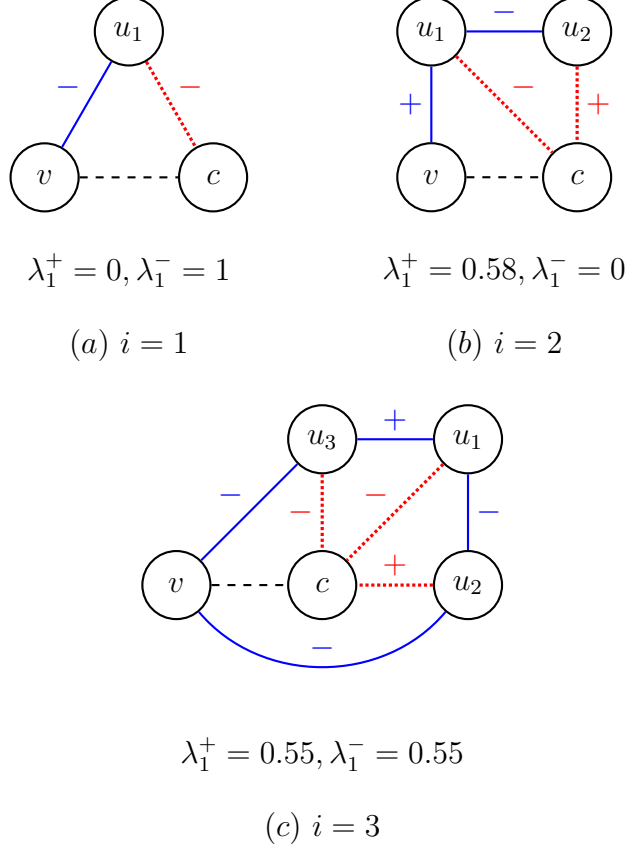


Figure 3.2: Local Singed Network prediction based on balance theory. At every iteration  $i$  the dotted red lines are prior votes, solid blue lines are relationships based on voting records and the dashed black edge  $(v, c)$  is the edge whose sign is being predicted.  $\lambda_1^+$  and  $\lambda_1^-$  correspond to the smallest eigenvalue of the signed Laplacian  $\bar{L}_i$  based on whether  $w((v, c)) = +1$  or  $w((v, c)) = -1$ .

### 3.4.2 Prediction Based on Status Theory

We mentioned in Section 2.2.2 that status theory is described for directed signed networks. The relationship graph  $R$  should, therefore, be constructed from the history  $H$  as a directed signed network. The directed edges  $(u, v)$  should denote asymmetric relation between the nodes for e.g., the ratio of concurrence: a measure of times that  $u$  has voted after  $v$  in a session and agreed. The LSN created from the intersection of the session  $S$  and the relation is also a directed signed graph.

---

**Algorithm 3:** Predict positive vote probability using balance theory

---

**Input:** Voter  $v$ , Candidate  $c$ , Local Signed Network  $LSN$ **Result:** Probability of edge  $(v, c)$  being positive

```

1  $w_{LSN}((v, c)) \leftarrow +1$  // Assume positive vote
2 Compute signed Laplacian  $\bar{L}_+$ 
3  $\lambda_1^+ \leftarrow$  smallest eigenvalue of  $\bar{L}_+$ 
4  $w_{LSN}((v, c)) \leftarrow -1$  // Assume negative vote
5 Compute signed Laplacian  $\bar{L}_-$ 
6  $\lambda_1^- \leftarrow$  smallest eigenvalue of  $\bar{L}_-$ 
7  $w_{LSN}((v, c)) \leftarrow 0$  // Reset edge weight
8  $r \leftarrow \lambda_1^- / \lambda_1^+$ 
9  $p \leftarrow 1 / (1 + e^{(1-r)})$ 
10 return  $p$ 

```

---

Similar to predicting the vote using balance theory, the vote is either positive or negative. Now, we state that the voter aims to maintain the status in the resulting LSN. Therefore, we predict the vote  $(v, c)$  that when added to the LSN best preserves status in the network. Therefore, we need a measure of how much a given network conforms to the theory of status. However, to the best of our knowledge, there are no existing methods to quantify and measure the extent that a network conforms to status theory. In this thesis, we present a quantitative definition of status theory in a network and also present a novel method of using the agony of a directed network to measure the compliance with status theory.

As we discussed in Section 2.2.2, signed edges can be interpreted as recognition of relative status. This means that a positive edge  $u \xrightarrow{+} v$  indicates that  $v$  has a higher status than  $u$ , and a negative edge  $u \xrightarrow{-} v$  indicates that  $v$  has lower status than  $u$ . Let us assume that there is an implicit status function  $\sigma : V \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  that maps each node in the network to a quantity that correlates with status. Therefore, the edges  $u \xrightarrow{+} v$  and  $u \xrightarrow{-} v$  indicate  $\sigma(u) < \sigma(v)$  and  $\sigma(u) > \sigma(v)$  respectively. This is how we predict the missing sign of an edge in a triad. Leskovec et al. [37] provide a way to compute this status function  $\sigma$  from the node degrees as seen in Section 2.2.2. However, this measure is still defined locally and can be used only to predict the sign of an edge. We still require a framework to quantify violations and measure how much the network complies with status theory. We define that an edge  $e = (u, v)$  *violates* status theory if  $w(e)\sigma(u) \not\leq w(e)\sigma(v)$ . Now, we can define when a network is perfectly complaint with status.

**Definition 1.** *Perfect Status Compliance* A directed signed network  $G = (W, E, w)$  with an implicit status function  $\sigma : V \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  is said to be perfectly status complaint if  $\forall e = (u, v) \in E, \text{sgn}(w(e))\sigma(u) \leq \text{sgn}(w(e))\sigma(v)$

Therefore, the number of edges that are in violation to status theory can be a rudimentary measure of the status compliance of a given network. However, in the case of most signed directed networks, we do not possess the implicit status function  $\sigma$ . Hence, even computing the number of edges that violate status theory is not possible. Therefore, if we can infer the status function  $\sigma$  from the structure of the signed network then we can measure the status compliance of that network.

We can now use the concept of *agony* described in Section 2.3 to find the optimal hierarchy of a given directed network. The notion of hierarchy is strongly related to status theory for signed networks. In a DAG, then there no cycles and we can find a status function  $\sigma$  such that there are no edges that violate status theory. Moreover, agony is a measure of the violation of edges with respect to a ranking function. Nevertheless, agony and hierarchy were primarily defined for unsigned networks. We can easily remedy this by using the fact that a negative edge  $u \rightarrow v$  can be transformed into a positive edge  $u \leftarrow^+ v$ . If  $G$  is a signed network then we denote the unsigned directed network obtained from the transformation described as  $G'$ .

Now, the agony of an edge  $(u, v)$  in  $G'$  given a status function (called rank function in Gupte et al. [23]) is  $\max(\sigma(u) - \sigma(v) + 1, 0)$ . Therefore, agony is a quantification of the status violation of an edge. The agony of the network with respect to a status function  $\sigma$  is defined as the sum of the agony of each edge in the network denoted by  $A(G', \sigma)$ . The agony of the network  $A(G') = \min_{\sigma}(A(G', \sigma))$  is the smallest agony over all possible ranking of the nodes. In this way, the agony of the network is a more generalized measure of status compliance than just counting the number of violating edges. Therefore, we can use one of the algorithms mentioned in Section 2.3 to compute agony of  $G'$ . We call this value as the agony of the original signed network  $G$  and denote  $\alpha = \alpha(G) = A(G')$ . The complete process is outlined in Algorithm 4. Now, the agony of a signed network  $G$  is a measure of how far  $G$  is from being perfectly status complaint. Theorem 1 shows that when  $\alpha = 0$  the network is perfectly status complaint.

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $G = (V, E, w)$  be a directed signed graph. Then  $\alpha(G) = 0$  if and only if  $G$  is perfectly status complaint.*

*Proof.* The transformed unsigned directed network is  $G' = (V', E', w')$ . The agony of a the directed network  $G^{prime}$  is 0 when the network has perfect hierarchy [23]. Therefore, there exists a status function  $\sigma$  such that the agony

of all edges  $G'$  i.e.,  $\sigma(u) \leq \sigma(v), \forall (u, v) \in E'$ . Therefore, there are no edges in  $G$  that violate status theory and  $G$  is perfectly status complaint. Hence proved.  $\square$

---

**Algorithm 4:** Compute Agony for a directed signed network

---

**Input:** Directed signed graph  $G = (V, E, w)$   
**Result:** Signed Agony  $\alpha$  of  $G$

```

1 Initialize  $G' = (V', E', w')$ 
2  $V' \leftarrow V$ 
3 foreach  $e \in E$  do
4   if  $w(e) < 0$  then
5      $e' \leftarrow (\text{dest}(e), \text{src}(e))$     // Change direction of the edge
6      $E' \leftarrow E' \cup \{e'\}$ 
7      $w'(e') \leftarrow -w(e)$               // Make the weight positive
8   else
9      $E' \leftarrow E' \cup \{e\}$ 
10     $w'(e) \leftarrow w(e)$ 
11  end
12 end
13  $\alpha \leftarrow \text{Agony}(G')$ 
14 return  $\alpha$ 

```

---

Now, we can compute the agony of the LSN and utilize it to predict the sign of the vote. We follow a process similar to predicting the sign using balance theorem. First, first assume the vote is positive and add the edge  $(v, c)$  to the LSN and compute the agony and call it as  $\alpha^+$ . Next, we assume the vote is negative and add the edge and compute the agony of the LSN and call it  $\alpha^-$ . If  $\alpha^+ < \alpha^-$ , then it means that the positive vote results in a LSN that has fewer violations of status and therefore, we can predict the vote is positive. Similarly, we predict a negative vote if  $\alpha^- < \alpha^+$ . Alternatively, we can also compute the probability of a positive vote as  $p = 1/(1 + e^{(1-r)})$ , where  $r = \alpha^-/\alpha^+$ . This process is detailed in Algorithm 5.

We see a directed LSN similar to the one in Figure 3.2a in Figure 3.3. The branches indicate the two possibilities for the vote edge  $(v, c)$ . The left branch assumes that the vote is positive and adds it to the LSN. When we transform the negative edges in the LSN we get a cycle. As a cycle indicates that there is no hierarchy in the LSN the agony  $\alpha^+ = 3$  reflects the fact that each edge violates status theory. The right branch assumes that the vote is negative and includes it in the LSN. After transformation, we see that all

the edges comply with status theory and therefore, the agony  $\alpha^- = 0$ . Now, the corresponding positive vote probability is  $p = 0$  indicating that we would predict a negative vote. Note this result is contradictory to balance theory where we predict a positive vote for the same LSN.

---

**Algorithm 5:** Predict positive vote probability using status theory

---

**Input:** Voter  $v$ , Candidate  $c$ , Local Signed Network  $LSN$

**Result:** Probability of edge  $(v, c)$  being positive

```

1  $w_{LSN}((v, c)) \leftarrow +1$  // Assume positive vote
2  $\alpha^+ \leftarrow SignedAgony(LSN)$ 
3  $w_{LSN}((v, c)) \leftarrow -1$  // Assume negative vote
4  $\alpha^- \leftarrow SignedAgony(LSN)$ 
5  $w_{LSN}((v, c)) \leftarrow 0$  // Reset edge weight
6  $r \leftarrow \alpha^- / \alpha^+$ 
7  $p \leftarrow 1 / (1 + e^{(1-r)})$ 
8 return p
```

---

### 3.4.3 Iterative Prediction Model

Now, Algorithm 6 describes a model that can predict the votes in a session iteratively. We have the order of votes in the session denoted by  $O$  and the true votes function  $w^*$ . We create the session graph and initialize it with the candidate  $c$  and the first voter as seen in line 6. This is because we need at least one prior vote information to effectively predict a vote. In most settings, such as bills in a government parliament or promotion of a member in a community, there are always sponsors or nominators who propose the candidate in that session. Therefore, we are justified in starting the session with the candidate and the first vote cast in the session graph  $S$ . Next, for each subsequent voter  $v$  in the list, we add it the session and create the LSN. The *Predict* function in line 12 can be based on either balance (Algorithm 3) or status theory (Algorithm 5). Then, we add the true vote of voter  $v$  to the session  $G$  and move on to the next voter in the list. After all the votes are predicted in the session, we can update the relationship graph  $H$  with the data from the current session  $S$ . This can include operations such as adding nodes that were not present in  $R$  and updating the edge weights based on the votes cast in the current session.

In this process we can predict all the votes in all the sessions by starting with an empty relationship graph and updating it after every session. Therefore, the model can be compared to a "batch" machine learning model,

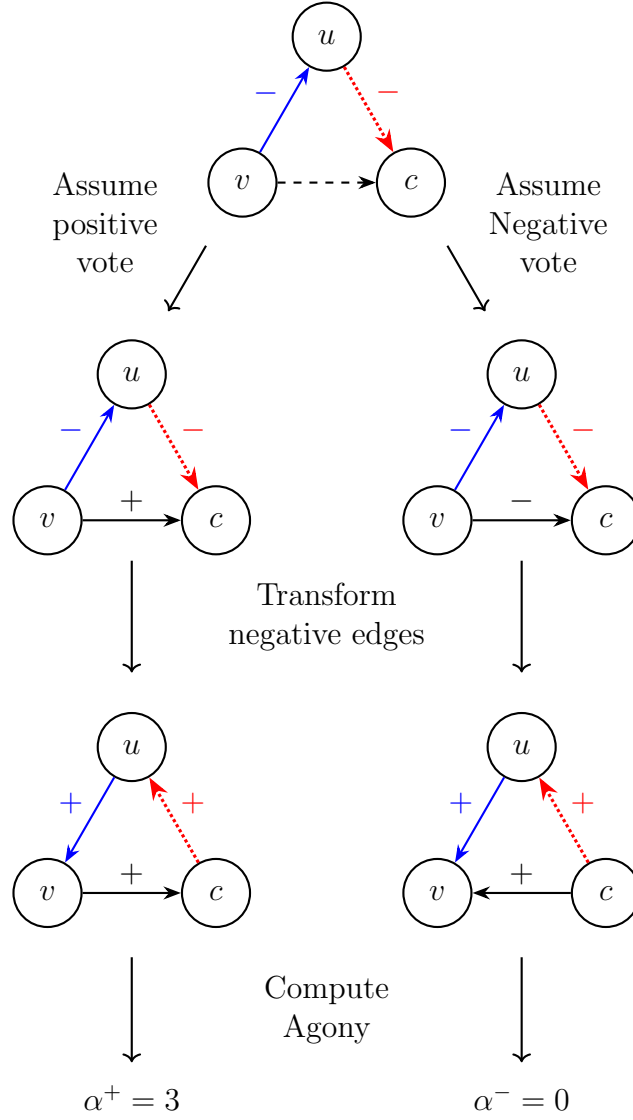


Figure 3.3: Example of LSN sign prediction using status theory.

where each batch is a voting session and the model parameter is the relationship graph  $R$ . In a batch, the model will predict votes based the parameters which is the information gathered from the previous sessions contained in the relationship graph  $R$ . After the batch is complete, the model updates its "parameters" or the graph with data from the current session. We can bootstrap the model from a complete *blank slate* where  $R$  is an empty graph and then iteratively predicts sessions and updates  $R$ . The model iteratively improves.

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**Algorithm 6:** Iterative Prediction Model

---

**Input:** Candidate  $c$ , Relation graph  $R = (V_R, E_R, w_R)$ , Order of voters in current session  $O$  and true votes  $w^*$

**Result:** Predictions for current session

```

1  $k \leftarrow |O|$ 
2  $u \leftarrow O[1]$  // First voter
3  $V_S \leftarrow \{c, u\}$  // candidate and first voter
4  $E_S \leftarrow \{(u, c)\}$  // first vote
5  $w_S((u, c)) \leftarrow w^*((u, c))$  // Assign true vote
6 Initialize session graph  $S = \{V_S, E_S, w_S\}$ 
7  $predictions \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
8 for  $i \leftarrow 2$  to  $k$  do
9    $v \leftarrow O[i]$ 
10   $V_S \leftarrow V_S \cup \{v\}$ 
11   $LSN \leftarrow S \cap R$ 
12   $p \leftarrow Predict(v, c, LSN)$ 
13   $predictions \leftarrow predictions \cup p$ 
14   $E_S \leftarrow E_S \cup \{(v, c)\}$ 
15   $w_S((v, c)) \leftarrow w^*((v, c))$  // Assign true vote
16 end
17  $Update(R, S)$  // Update Relations graph
18 return  $predictions$ 

```

---



## Chapter 4

# Wikipedia

In this chapter, we provide an overview of the inner workings and decision making processes of Wikipedia. Firstly, in Section 4.1 we state the fundamental principles of Wikipedia and how it guides editors on the website. Next, we describe the roles and responsibilities of the different categories of Wikipedia users in Section 4.2. Lastly, we explain the election process for administrators and discuss the voting behaviour in terms of existing research.

### 4.1 Principles of Wikipedia

Wikipedia is the largest online encyclopedia, with over six million pages of content in the English version. It is maintained by an open collaborative effort of multiple editors from all across the world. All the knowledge and content is free and is supported by the non-profit Wikimedia Foundation. The size and popularity of Wikipedia is attributed to the ability for anyone to edit any content. All editors on Wikipedia follow five fundamental principles, called the "Five Pillars", shown in Figure 4.1. These five pillars provide a foundational framework for collaboration amongst users and contribution towards the betterment of the Wikipedia project.

The first pillar states that Wikipedia is first and foremost an encyclopedia [63]. Therefore, it must not contain any original research, propaganda or advertisements [61]. Materials that do not have reliable references will be removed by other edits.

The second pillar specifies that articles on Wikipedia should strive for a neutral point of view. This might include presenting multiple perspectives on the same subject accurately and not championing any one viewpoint as "correct" or "the truth". If disagreements are present, then discussions must take place for building consensus.

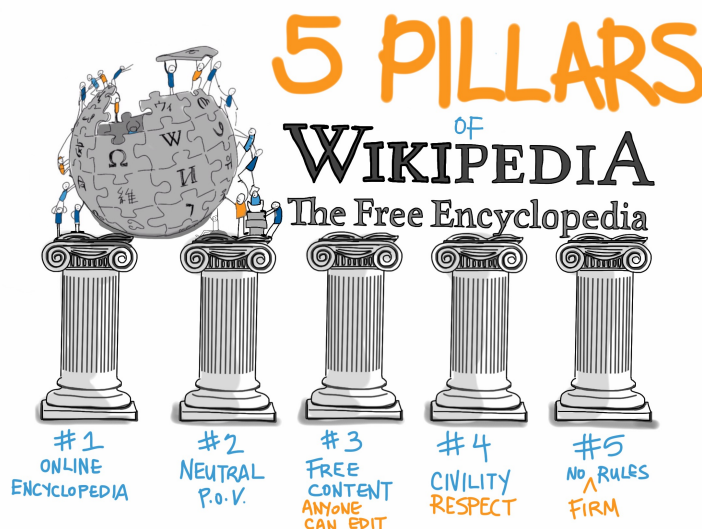


Figure 4.1: Five Pillars of Wikipedia. Image downloaded from <https://www.flickr.com/photos/gforsythe/21684596874>

The third principle enshrines the ideal that all content available on Wikipedia is free to edit and share. However, this does not mean copyright violation and plagiarism is tolerated by the community. There is no ownership of an article by an editor; anyone may freely modify any content.

The fourth pillar describes Wikipedia’s code of conduct. It asks users to act in good faith and assume good faith on the part of other editors. Wikipedia etiquette urges disputes and disagreements, such as edit wars [58], to be resolved with civility while respecting other editors.

The fifth and last pillar reminds users that all rules in Wikipedia are essentially just policies and guidelines meant to help with collaboration. They can evolve and change to reflect the requirement of the community. It assuages the fear of making mistakes and encourages editors to be bold, though not reckless.

## 4.2 Formal Organization of Wikipedia

In this section, we describe the various categories of users and explain their roles and responsibilities. All the facts and figures we provide in this thesis are from the English version of Wikipedia. We define a ”user” of Wikipedia as a person who contributes to the encyclopedia and a ”reader” as someone who simply accesses the content.

Wikipedia began as completely open platform with no restrictions on who could edit a page or create a new article. Changes and edits that were made to a page were published immediately. This led to many pages that contained erroneous text, biased content and gibberish. Therefore, this led to the English version of Wikipedia introducing restrictions and tools to protect the more controversial pages. They also introduced categories of users to help protect and maintain the quality of the content available on Wikipedia. We proceed to explain the four main user types as seen in Figure 4.2.



(a) Editors



(b) Administrators



(c) Bureaucrats



(d) Arbitration Committee

Figure 4.2: Logos for each category of user that signify the role that they play in the Wikipedia community.

### 4.2.1 Editors

Editors (or Wikipedians) are the primary users who edit and create all the content on Wikipedia [64]. Figuratively, they hold Wikipedia in the palm of their hands, as seen by the logo in Figure 4.2a. There are two main types of editors on Wikipedia, namely *registered* and *unregistered*. A registered user is someone who has a unique username and a permanent *talk page* to communicate with other users. By contrast, unregistered users contribute without a registered username and are usually referred to as *IPs*, as they are only identified by their IP addresses. Unregistered users usually have similar rights as those of regular users to edit, discuss and contribute, but with

certain exceptions [59]. Unregistered users cannot create a new article, edit a protected page, become administrators or vote in elections to promote users within Wikipedia. As the focus of the thesis will be on the elections within Wikipedia, when we refer to editors in the coming chapters and sections, we refer to registered users.

Wikipedia has over 38 million registered users, and this number is constantly rising. However, only roughly 0.37% ( $\approx 144\,000$ ) of registered users are active, i.e., have performed some action in the past 30 days. An even smaller percentage of those active users participate in the community discussion forums on Wikipedia. Now, we will explain what tasks editors perform and how contribution is recorded in Wikipedia.

Each page in Wikimedia is classified into a *namespace* based on the type of information that page contains [60]. Namespaces separate pages into sets to distinguish content pages from administrative or editor related pages. For example, the MAIN (or ARTICLE) namespace contains all the encyclopedic content and the USER namespace contains the user pages and information related to their user accounts. Each page in Wikipedia also has a corresponding *talk page*, which are used by editors to discuss changes to the page in question. For instance, the USER TALK namespace has talk pages corresponding to each user page and acts as a system to message particular users. Figure 4.3 shows a list of the subject namespaces and their corresponding talk namespaces. Now, we define a *user contribution* as any addition, deletion or modification of a page under any namespace in Wikipedia [55]. Wikipedia collects and stores every user contribution so that it can track cases of vandalism and copyright infringement.

The quality and quantity of the contribution of each editor varies significantly. There are many occasional users who merely correct minor spelling and grammar errors in articles. At the same time, there are dedicated editors who constantly create new articles, update large portions of text, and include new references and images.

### 4.2.2 Administrators

*Administrators* (or *admins*) are editors who are given access to certain tools and powers to maintain content on Wikipedia. Administrators can delete and restore deleted pages, block and unblock users and IP addresses from editing, and protect and remove protection from sensitive pages [56]. These tools are associated with a mop that is used to clean up Wikipedia and is represented by their logo, seen in Figure 4.2b. There are currently 1 141 administrators, of whom 500 are active. Although admins have access to these tools, they are considered to be no more important than regular editors. Administrators

**Wikipedia data structure**

Namespaces			
Subject namespaces		Talk namespaces	
<b>0</b>	(Main/Article)	Talk	<b>1</b>
<b>2</b>	User	User talk	<b>3</b>
<b>4</b>	Wikipedia	Wikipedia talk	<b>5</b>
<b>6</b>	File	File talk	<b>7</b>
<b>8</b>	MediaWiki	MediaWiki talk	<b>9</b>
<b>10</b>	Template	Template talk	<b>11</b>
<b>12</b>	Help	Help talk	<b>13</b>
<b>14</b>	Category	Category talk	<b>15</b>

Figure 4.3: A list of the namespaces in Wikipedia [60].

are elected through a week-long process called *Request for Adminship* (RfA), at the end of which successful candidates are instated by a Bureaucrat. We will cover the RfA process in detail in the coming sections.

Along with the tools and power, administrators also have certain responsibilities. They are not to misuse the tools at their disposal in conflicts of interest or disrupt Wikipedia by acting in bad faith. Administrators serve indefinitely, but can be removed by Bureaucrats on the decision of the Arbitration Committee for abuse of powers or inactivity. Admins help with various areas of Wikipedia, such as processing administrative backlogs, helping with ant-vandalism efforts, and managing copyright issues.

### 4.2.3 Bureaucrats

*Bureaucrats* (or *Crats*) are users who perform certain actions [57]. They are usually administrators and oversee procedural rules and enforce decisions. There are a total of 19 bureaucrats currently in the English Wikipedia. Bureaucrats are involved in the granting or revoking of administrator status to users and adding and removing bots (software robots that carry out repetitive tasks on Wikipedia). Bureaucrats are bound by the policy and the consensus of the community in granting these roles or permissions and are, therefore, expected to be good arbiters of consensus. Hence, they should be

able to identify criteria for a "consensus" and also explain the reasons behind their actions when requested.

Bureaucrats are also elected through a process similar to RfA, called *Request for Bureaucratship* (RfB), but higher thresholds of acceptance are usually demanded for considered selection. Interestingly, Bureaucrats are also appointed following the final decision of another Bureaucrat, therefore, they have complete control over the whole process. However, a Bureaucrat cannot revoke the bureaucratic position of others. They also carry out the requests from the Arbitration Committee to remove the permissions and privileges of admins or bots. As their name suggests, Crats perform only bureaucratic duties and are therefore represented by the logo seen in Figure 4.2c.

#### 4.2.4 Arbitration Committee

The *Arbitration Committee* (or *ArbCom*) resolves disputes that have not reached a resolution through community discussion or administrator oversight [54]. Their goal is to decisively bring binding solutions to ongoing disputes and is reflected in the fact their logo is a balance scale, as seen in Figure 4.2d. It is formed by a panel of experienced editors, usually administrators, who are elected by the community annually. There are currently 11 active members of the ArbCom.

The ArbCom only deals with disputes related to editor conduct and not content related disputes. It can impose sanctions that would restrict editors from contributing to certain topics and also recommend the revoking of administrative privileges in cases of misuse. Although the ArbCom can take the initiative on matters it deems are important, it usually acts on formal requests made to the committee. As it is the last step in dispute resolution, it only accepts a case when all other methods have failed. This is evident from the fact that only 9 cases were accepted in 2019.

### 4.3 Request for Adminship

In this section, we will describe the election process to select administrators in the English version of Wikipedia called *Request for Adminship* (RfA). We cover the origin and history of the process, the evolution of the format and the properties that lead to successful candidates. Lastly, we also cover the existing research that has been carried out in understanding and predicting RfAs.

In the early days of Wikipedia, the founder, Jimmy Wales, directly sent emails to the users to appoint them as administrators. Jimmy said that he

felt that getting administrative privileges is "not a big deal". However, as the Wikipedia community grew, a long and intense process was developed to select future administrators. A RfA is a week-long period during which all registered Wikipedia users can vote on a candidate standing for the position of administrator.

There are four main phases of a RfA: the nomination and beginning the period, answering questions posed by the community, voting to show support, opposition or neutrality towards the candidate, and the closing of the RfA by a Bureaucrat.

The first phase begins with the creation of a RfA page for the nominee. The candidates are most often nominated by another well-known and respected editor. However, self-nomination is a possibility. Self-nominated candidates are usually under more scrutiny to ensure they are not overeager new users nor editors with prior issues. Nominations are usually accompanied by an introductory statement from the nominator indicating the qualities the candidate possesses. Nominees can decline a nomination if they wish to, in which case the RfA is closed immediately as unsuccessful. Therefore, nominators usually only choose candidates who show good promise and discuss the potential nomination prior to starting the RfA process.

Once a candidate accepts the RfA nomination, they are required to answer three standard questions.

1. What admin work do you intend to take part in?
2. What are your best contributions to Wikipedia, and why?
3. Have you been in any conflicts over editing in the past or have other users caused you stress? How have you dealt with it and how will you deal with it in the future?

The first question aims to discern the value addition that a particular candidate will bring to Wikipedia if given admin privileges. The community tends to look for initiative from nominees in utilizing existing tools to help with chores such as reverting errors, identifying vandalism or copyright infringements. The answer to the second question provides the community the candidate's achievements and quality of work. Editors who have several multiple good contributions tend to be more successful. In answering the third question candidates demonstrate their conflict management skills. The community values users who can interact in a civil manner and an administrator is also involved in resolving disputes and therefore, users who were involved in heated discussions or edit wars are unfavourable. Apart from

these three fixed questions the candidate may also receive several open questions aimed at testing their knowledge of Wikipedia procedures or opinions on controversial issues.

Once all questions have been answered, the RfA moves to the voting phase. During this phase, any registered user may vote in either Support, Oppose or Neutral sections. Votes are generally followed by a comment providing reasoning that explains their vote. Candidates can reply to opposition commenters to try and resolve any issues and convert their views. However, candidates should refrain from verbose rebuttals as it might invite more opposition. This phase is nerve-racking for the candidate as the tide of the election changes constantly throughout the week and it is not possible to reply to every comment in a civil and respectful manner.

At any point in the RfA, the candidate can withdraw their nomination for any reason. At the end of the week, a Bureaucrat halts the voting and proceeds to read all the comments. The Bureaucrat has to conclude if consensus has been reached or not regarding the nomination. Bureaucrats are highly experienced and will discount votes cast by sockpuppets (users who have multiple accounts) and meatpuppets (new users recruited to influence decisions). Although the decision is not based on majority voting, RfAs with more than 75% support generally pass and by contrast ones with lesser than 65% support are bound to fail.

The Bureaucrat can also invoke clauses such as "Not Now" (WP:NOTNOW [53]) and "Not a snowball's chance in hell" (WP:SNOW [62]) to terminate RfAs that they deem have no chance to pass. These measure exists so that frivolous RfA do not waste the time of the community. If the Bureaucrat decides that the nomination is successful, the candidate is promoted and the RfA is closed as successful. If the nomination fails then the Bureaucrat explains their reasoning and closes the RfA as a failure. Renomination of a failed candidate can occur after waiting for a reasonable period of time from the previous failed RfA.

RfAs have been extensively studied from a sociological and behavioural aspects [17, 33]. Burke et al. [9] proposed a model based on RfA guides to predict the success of a potential nomination. Since then, there have been various models based on social networks [10, 46, 47] or user features and contributions [5, 45] to identify influential voters and overall voting patterns.



## Chapter 5

# Experiments

In this chapter, we will outline the experiments carried out on the Wikipedia elections of administrators using the vote prediction models that we presented in chapter 3. Firstly, we describe the existing sources of data from Wikipedia and the datasets used in the experiments in Section 5.1. Next, in Section 5.2, we discuss the implementation of the linear combination of graph model described in Section 3.3. Then, we cover the implementation of the vote prediction models based on the theories of balance and status in signed networks in Section 5.3. Furthermore, in Section 5.4, we discuss the experiments conducted on the voting order and its impact on the predictive power of the models proposed. Lastly, we explain the metrics which we can use to evaluate the performance of the models in Section 5.5.

### 5.1 Datasets

As we discussed in Section 4.3 and 4.2.1, Wikipedia keeps detailed information on the election proceedings for the RfA process as well as contributions made by every editor on Wikipedia. These act as sources to get data regarding the elections and user contributions. There are existing datasets compiled by the Stanford Network Analysis Project (SNAP) [38] on both Wikipedia RfAs and edit histories. However, the RfA dataset has missing features and timestamps for votes that would restrict the usability in the proposed voting models. Similarly, the *wiki-meta* and *wiki-talk* datasets possess information until 2008 and lack a username mapping to the network nodes. Due to these limitations, we proceeded to scrape Wikipedia dumps and APIs to obtain our own RfA and user contribution datasets, which we will now describe.

### 5.1.1 Wikipedia RfA Data

To obtain the RfA data, we parsed through the entire XML dump of Wikipedia from January 2019. We filtered the pages related to the RfA process and then extracted each vote and the corresponding comment and timestamp. Each vote extracted has the features show in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Features of each vote in the WIKI-RfA dataset

Feature	Data Type	Description
<b>SRC</b>	text	username of the source
<b>TGT</b>	text	username of the target
<b>VOT</b>	$[-1, 0, 1]$	Oppose, Neutral or Support vote
<b>RES</b>	$[-1, 1]$	Failure or Success of RfA
<b>YEA</b>	date	year of the RfA
<b>DAT</b>	date & time	timestamp of the vote
<b>TXT</b>	text	accompanying textual comment
<b>UID</b>	alphanumeric	unique identifier for the RfA

As we can see, the format of the data is very similar to the SNAP dataset. We have an additional unique identifier field, called UID, to aid in distinguishing RfA of users who have had multiple nominations. We collected 226 781 votes from 4 557 elections with over 13 000 unique usernames. There are 166 214 ( $\approx 73\%$ ) support, 46 918 ( $\approx 20\%$ ) oppose and 13 649 ( $\approx 6\%$ ) neutral votes. As the voting format of RfA changes throughout the years, there might be issues in successfully extracting the source username or timestamp information. Regardless, only 1.6% of votes have missing timestamps and 0.4% have a missing source. We will refer to this dataset as WIKI-RfA and it will provide the information regarding the votes cast in a RfA.

### 5.1.2 User Contribution Data

As we discussed in Section 4.2.1, every edit made by a user is stored as a contribution. Wikipedia provides an API to query all the contributions of a particular user [43]. We utilized this API and collected the contribution data of all the unique users we obtained from the WIKI-RfA dataset. There are 16 features that the API provides for each edit; we describe the most import features in Table 5.2.

As many users change their username, some of the usernames present in the WIKI-RfA dataset might not have any contributions linked to their old usernames. We were able to collect the user contribution details more than

Table 5.2: Important features of each contribution in the USER-CONTRIB dataset

Feature	Data Type	Description
<b>user</b>	text	username of the editor
<b>title</b>	text	title of the page edited
<b>namespace</b>	int	namespace of the page edited
<b>timestamp</b>	date & time	timestamp of the edit
<b>size</b>	int	new size of the edit
<b>sizediff</b>	int	size delta of the edit against its parent
<b>new</b>	boolean	if the editor created a new page
<b>minor</b>	boolean	if it is a minor edit
<b>comment</b>	text	accompanying comment

11000 of the total unique username, amounting to 100GB of data. We call this dataset USER-CONTRIB and it provides a wealth of information on the editing habits of the users who take part in Wikipedia RfAs. For instance, grouping the contributions of a particular user by the namespace, we get the proportion of the edits in different Wikipedia namespaces and the respective sizes and quality of their edits.

## 5.2 Graph Combination Model

In this section, we describe how we implement the linear combination of graphs model proposed in Section 3.3, we call this the *Graph Combination* model. The model requires auxiliary graphs derived from other non-election based information as well as triadic features derived from the election data. Therefore, we first discuss the auxiliary graphs that we create from the USER-CONTRIB dataset and then describe the triadic features from the WIKI-RFA data. Then, we describe the process of preparing the data to suit the supervised machine learning task and to also prevent data leaks. Lastly, we discuss the logistic regression model that we use as the linear predictor trained on the features derived from the auxiliary and signed networks.

The terms used in Chapter 3 can now be defined for the problem of predicting votes in a Wikipedia RfA. A candidate  $c$  is the nominee who wishes to gain administrators privileges in the Wikipedia RfA. The voters  $v$  are the registered users in Wikipedia. A session relates to the proceedings of a particular RfA.

### 5.2.1 Graphs

First, we discuss the creation of the topic similarity network of users. Then, we describe the process of forming the talk graph between users. Lastly, we define the triadic features we extract from the previous voting data.

#### 5.2.1.1 Topic Similarly Graph

In Table 5.2, we see that every contribution has a title of the page where the edit was made. We can utilize the page titles to understand the topics that the user most edits. For a particular user, we gather all their edits in the MAIN namespace. We choose the MAIN namespace as it contains all the content articles on Wikipedia. By contrast, the edits in other namespaces such as, USER and HELP, are not indicative of the topics that they are most likely to possess information about. Then, we count the number of edits grouped by each page title and choose the top 100 most edited pages in the MAIN namespace. Then we create a set of the words from all the top 100 page titles and remove common stop words using a natural language corpus. This set now indicates the users topics of interest. Once we have collected the topic set for all the unique users in the WIKI-RFA dataset, we can compute the similarity between a pair of users using the Jaccard similarity measure. We can take this similarity measure and construct a undirected weighted graph where a link between nodes indicates the similarity in the topics of the user nodes. However, we threshold the value of similarity so that we can obtain only meaningful edges and not a complete graph.

#### 5.2.1.2 Talk and Interaction Graph

We discussed in the previous chapter on how every registered user has a talk page and how it is used as a medium of communication. Therefore, we can similarly gather the contributions of a certain editor in the USER TALK namespace and use it to measure interactions with other users. We will create two auxiliary graphs in this manner, a *user talk graph*, where each edge also contains the number of times they have written on another users page and a *interaction graph*, which only indicates if two users have interacted via a talk page. We can obtain the number of talk page edits and the target user by grouping by the page titles and extracting the username from the page title respectively. These graphs will be directed in nature and the talk graph is weighted, while the interaction graph is unweighted. In both these graphs, an edge  $u \rightarrow v$  indicate that user  $u$  has written in the talk page of user  $v$ .

In the Line 3 described in Algorithm 1, we can define  $N_i$  in directed graphs  $G_i$  as successors of a node rather the neighbourhood. This allow us

to understand the influence of edge direction in directed auxiliary graphs. Therefore, we will construct two more additional auxiliary graphs which are reversed, i.e., an edge  $u \rightarrow v$  indicates that user  $v$  has written on the talk page of user  $u$ . Hence, we can compare the contribution each direction brings to the model by analysing the feature importances.

### 5.2.1.3 Signed Graph and Triadic Features

The WIKI-RfA dataset contains the voting information of users in RfAs. These votes form a signed directed network and we can utilize triadic features as proposed by Leskovec et al. [36]. We utilize a slightly modified naming scheme to identify unique triads in the RfA data. Considering the edge we want to predict between a voter  $v$  and a candidate  $c$  and the other node  $u$ . There are two directions for the edges  $(v, u)$  and  $(u, c)$  and each edge can have three values, namely -1, 0 or +1 corresponding to oppose, neutral or support respectively. This leads to  $2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 3 = 36$  possible triads.

We denote the edge  $v \rightarrow u$  as "F" and the edge  $v \leftarrow u$  as "B" indicating a forward or a backward edge. Similarly, the edge  $u \rightarrow c$  is "F" and  $u \leftarrow c$  is "B". The edge labels are "-", "0", and "+" corresponding to oppose, neutral and support. We have a nomenclature where "FB+-", indicates  $v \xrightarrow{+} c$  and  $u \xleftarrow{-} c$ . Figure 5.1 shows more examples of this triad nomenclature.

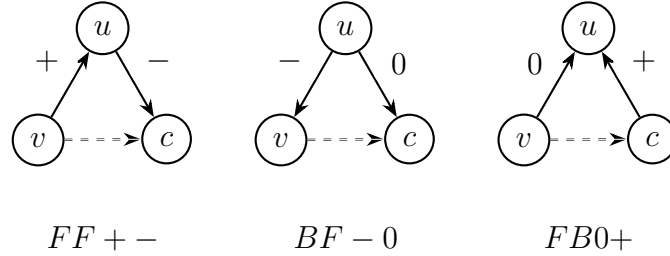


Figure 5.1: Examples of triad nomenclature in Wikipedia RfA elections

We collect all the 36 unique triads in the set  $T$  and then utilize it to count the triads for a particular edge, as seen in Algorithm 2. Therefore, for each edge to be predicted  $(v, c)$ , we have a triadic feature vector of length 36 containing the counts of the triads formed by all the common neighbours  $u$ .

## 5.2.2 Data Preparation

As only roughly 6% of all votes are neutral votes, we will not try to predict neutral votes. This is in line with the Wikipedia RfA process where neutral votes are not counted for the support percentage. However, we will use the

neutral votes to gather the triadic features and can utilize the additional information to predict votes. As we discussed in Section 3.2, the graph combination model is an extension of the sign prediction models for the voting setting. A major requirement to predict votes is to ensure that there is no *data leakage* when creating the training features  $\mathbf{X}$ , similar to the process used by Kairimi et al. [29]. A data leak is when we have information about the future present in the training data. This can cause the model that we train to overfit on the leaked data and not generalize. In our problem setting, we divide the whole WIKI-RfA into three parts, namely *dev*, *train* and *test*. As we are predicting votes, we will split the datasets based on the number of votes chronologically and round up to the closest RfA so that it is contiguous.

The *dev* (or development) dataset will be the set of RfAs which we use to construct the auxiliary and signed graphs. We ensure that the USER-CONTRIB dataset is also restricted to the edits that happened until the date of the last RfA in the dev dataset. Therefore, all the five auxiliary graphs and the signed graphs are created only with information that is present in the time frame of the dev dataset.

Next, the *train* (or training) dataset is what we use to create the feature matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  and target matrix  $\mathbf{y}$ . In this dataset, we only consider the support and oppose votes to be part of the prediction task and hence, filter out all the neutral votes. Now, for each vote, we create the auxiliary feature vector  $\mathbf{a}$  using the five auxiliary graphs and the triadic feature vector  $t$  from the signed voting graph as described in Algorithms 1 and 2 respectively. These features are concatenated into a feature vector  $\mathbf{x}$ , which is of length 41 (5 auxiliary and 36 triadic) and is a row in the feature matrix. The corresponding true vote is also collected in the target  $y_i$ . The *dev* and *train* splits ensure that the auxiliary and triadic features are strictly not overlapping. This allows the feature matrix  $\mathbf{X}$  to be independent of time and therefore, be cross validated.

Lastly, the *test* dataset contains votes that the model trained on the training dataset would not have seen and can be used to evaluate the performance of the model. The feature matrix for the test dataset,  $\mathbf{X}_{test}$  and the target,  $\mathbf{y}_{test}$  are also constructed in a similar manner. For each vote in the test dataset, we gather the auxiliary and triadic features from the same graphs as we used for the training phase. We create each row of  $\mathbf{X}_{test}$  by concatenating these features and gathering the true vote as the target. As the auxiliary features and triadic features have different ranges, we standardize both training and testing feature matrices so that all features have a mean of zero and standard deviation of one. This will help the linear models train and reach an optimal faster as well as allow for ease in interpreting the coefficients of a linear model.

### 5.2.3 Supervised Classification

Once we have created the training and testing feature matrices,  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{X}_{test}$  and the target vectors,  $\mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{y}_{test}$ , the task is a regular supervised classification problem. We can use any traditional linear classification models such as support vector classifiers (e.g., linear SVC), logistic regression models or gradient boosting methods (e.g., XGBoost). We choose a logistic regression (LR) model for its interoperability and robustness to overfitting.

Given a feature vector  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  with  $n$  features, a logistic regression model learn to predict the probability of the form

$$P(\text{support} \mid \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta\mathbf{x})}} \quad (5.1)$$

Where  $\beta_0$  and  $\beta = (\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n)$  are the coefficients that the model learns using the training data.

The WIKI-RfA dataset has a class imbalance problem. Support votes are 73% compared to oppose votes at 20%. Therefore, we will utilize class weights inversely proportional to the class frequencies while training so that the model learns to predict negative votes effectively. As the training features  $\mathbf{X}$  are independent of time, we can use  $k$ -fold cross validation to tune the regularization parameter for the logistic regression model.

## 5.3 Local Signed Network Models

We now discuss the implementation and significance of the local signed network models discussed in Section 3.4 to predict votes in Wikipedia RfAs.

These models are iterative models and an important feature is that they are unsupervised. Therefore, they do not require any learning of parameters or preparation of data for training. Consequently, we can bootstrap the models to start from the first available RfA. We achieve this by beginning with an empty relationship graph  $R$ . In the first RfA, the LSN network for all the votes contain only the nodes for voter  $v$  and candidate  $c$ . Therefore, the model will predict all votes with probability 0.5 of being support votes, as there is no information available. After the first RfA is over, the relationship graph  $R$  will be updated with the voting details. Now, in the second RfA there is more information present and the model can be predict votes with more certainty. In this manner, the models can iteratively learn and predict all the votes present in the WIKI-RfA dataset.

In a similar fashion, the iterative models elegantly handle new users for whom we have no information. If at any point the current voter  $v$  is new and

there is no information in the relationship graph, then the model predicts support vote probability of 0.5, because the LSN contains only the nodes  $v$  and  $c$ . This new voter is then integrated into the relationship graph when it is updated after the RfA session, shown in Line 17. Therefore, this new voter's information is now available for future vote predictions.

In this thesis, we wish to separately study the votes that are predicted with no information. Therefore, in our implementation we specifically mark these votes. Firstly, we can accurately evaluate the models using only on the votes predicted with information. Next, we can analyse the distribution of the informationless votes and devise strategies to effectively guess the vote in the case when it is a new user. Lastly, we can verify if there is some herd mentality when new voters vote for the first time.

We proposed two models, one using balance theory and another using status theory. Both the models make use of only the election data, therefore, we will use the WIKI-RfA dataset. First, we describe the iterative balance model and define the relationship graph based on agreement between voters in Wikipedia RfAs. Secondly, we explain the iterative status model and the relationship graph based on follower ratio in RfAs.

### 5.3.1 Iterative Balance Model

The *Iterative Balance Model* uses balance theory of the local signed network to predict the independent vote in a Wikipedia RfA. As discussed in Section 3.4.1, we require a signed symmetric measure between two voters. We now propose a measure based on the *agreement ratio* between two users  $u$  and  $v$ . The ratio is the number of times  $u$  and  $v$  have voted the same divided by the number of common RfAs they have participated in. For example, if  $u$  and  $v$  have participated in 12 common RfAs and have voted the same in 9 RfAs, then the agreement ratio is 0.75, indicating that they agree more than they disagree. Therefore, if they have an agreement ratio of 0.5, then they neither agree or disagree to a significant degree. The agreement ratio is symmetric and we can convert into a signed measure by subtracting 0.5 from the ratio.

Hence, we define a signed undirected *agreement graph*  $A = (V_A, E_A, w_A)$ , where the weight function is defined as seen in Equation (5.2).

$$w_A((u, v)) = \frac{\text{Number of times } u \text{ and } v \text{ have voted the same}}{\text{Number of common RfAs for } u \text{ and } v} - 0.5 \quad (5.2)$$

This agreement graph  $A$  is the relationship graph  $R$  for the iterative balance model described in Algorithm 6. In Line 17 there is a method,  $Update(R, S)$  to update the relationship graph after the end of a voting



session. Therefore, we require a method to update the signed weights in the agreement graph  $A$  given the RfA voting details in a session  $S$ .

For notational ease, we assume that each edge  $e = (u, v) \in E_A$  contains two attributes,  $e.agree$  and  $e.common$ , the agreement ratio and the number of common RfAs between the nodes respectively. Then, once we get the voting information from the session, we can update the agreement ratio and the number of common RfAs in a straightforward manner. This process is shown in Algorithm 7. We can bootstrap the model by beginning with an empty agreement graph  $A$ . Then for votes with no information the predicted support probability is 0.5. After the RfA session is over, these new voters can be incorporated into the agreement graph when it is updated, as seen in

Line 17.

---

**Algorithm 7:** Update Agreement graph after a session

---

**Input:** Session graph  $S$ , Candidate  $c$ , Agreement graph  $A$   
**Result:** Updated Agreement graph  $A$

```

// Get all voters
1  $O \leftarrow V_S - \{c\}$ 
2 Order  $O$  by timestamp
3 for  $v \in O$  do
4    $vote_v \leftarrow w_S((v, c))$ 
5   foreach  $u$  who voted after  $v$  do
6      $vote_u \leftarrow w_S((u, c))$ 
7      $e \leftarrow (v, u)$ 
8     if  $e \in E_A$  then
9        $agree \leftarrow e.agree$ 
10       $common \leftarrow e.common$ 
11      if  $vote_v = vote_u$  then
12         $agree \leftarrow ((agree \cdot common) + 1) / (common + 1)$ 
13      else
14         $agree \leftarrow (agree \cdot common) / (common + 1)$ 
15      end
16       $common \leftarrow common + 1$ 
17    else if  $vote_u = vote_v$  then
18      // if  $e$  is a new edge
19       $common \leftarrow$  number of elections  $v$  and  $u$  have in common
20       $agree \leftarrow 1 / common$ 
21       $E_A \leftarrow E_A \cup \{e\}$ 
22    end
23     $e.agree \leftarrow agree$ 
24     $e.common \leftarrow common$ 
25     $w_A(e) \leftarrow e.agree - 0.5$ 
26 end
27 return  $A$ 

```

---

### 5.3.2 Iterative Status Model

The *Iterative Status Model*, as described in Section 3.4.2, utilizes status theory in the LSN to predict votes. Therefore, to predict votes in Wikipedia RfAs, we require a directed signed relationship graph. Similar to the agreement ratio for the iterative balance model, we propose a *follower ratio* and

a corresponding directed signed *follow graph*  $F = (V_F, E_F, w_F)$ .

An edge  $u \rightarrow v$  in  $F$  indicates that node  $u$  follows  $v$  in RfAs, as in  $u$  votes after  $v$  in RfAs and  $u$  votes the same as  $v$  in those RfAs. Then, we define the *follower ratio* as the number of times  $u$  has agreed with  $v$  when  $u$  has voted after  $v$  divided the total number of RfAs in which  $u$  has voted after  $v$ . Therefore, if  $u$  and  $v$  have 12 RfAs in common and in 8 of those,  $u$  has voted after  $v$  and in 5 out of 8,  $u$  has voted the same as  $v$ , then the follower ratio is  $5/8 = 0.625$ . Then, if the follower ratio is below 0.5, it indicates that  $u$  tends to vote the opposite of what  $v$ . If the follower ratio for  $(u, v)$  is 0.625, the follower ratio in the other direction is not the same. Therefore, the measure is not symmetric and we can convert it into a signed measure by subtracting 0.5 from the follower ratio. The weight function  $w_F$  for the follow graph can be defined as seen in Equation (5.3).

$$w_F((u, v)) = \frac{\text{Number of times } u \text{ voted after and agreed with } v}{\text{Number of times } u \text{ voted after } v} - 0.5 \quad (5.3)$$

The update rule for the follow graph is similar to that for the agreement graph. We assume that every edge  $e = (u, v) \in E_F$ , has the attributes *e.follow* and *e.common*, the follower ratio and the number of elections where  $u$  voted after  $v$  respectively. After a RfA voting session, the session graph  $S$  can be used to update the follower ratio and the corresponding weight as show in Algorithm 8.

In a RfA we are predicting a vote  $v$  given the previous voters  $U$ , the current session graph  $H$  and the follow graph  $F$ , as seen in Algorithm 5. When we create the LSN, we only consider the edges of type  $v \rightarrow u_i$  from the follow graph  $F$ . This is because the voter  $v$  is voting after the voters in  $U$ , therefore, the edges  $v \leftarrow u_i$  provide information that is not consistent with the current voting situation. This can also be a point that can be analysed

to see if the revered follower edges provide more benefit to the model or not.

---

**Algorithm 8:** Update Follow graph after a session

---

**Input:** Session graph  $S$ , Candidate  $c$ , Follow graph  $F$   
**Result:** Updated Follow graph  $F$   
*// Get all voters*  
1  $O \leftarrow V_S - \{c\}$   
2 Order  $O$  by timestamp  
3 **for**  $v \in O$  **do**  
4      $vote_v \leftarrow w_S((v, c))$   
5     **foreach**  $u$  *who voted after*  $v$  **do**  
6          $vote_u \leftarrow w_S((u, c))$   
7          $e \leftarrow (u, v)$   
8         **if**  $e \in E_F$  **then**  
9              $follow \leftarrow e.follow$   
10             $common_{uv} \leftarrow e.common$   
11            **if**  $vote_v = vote_u$  **then**  
12                 $follow \leftarrow ((follow \cdot common_{uv}) + 1) / (common_{uv} + 1)$   
13            **else**  
14                 $follow \leftarrow (follow \cdot common_{uv}) / (common_{uv} + 1)$   
15            **end**  
16             $common_{uv} \leftarrow common_{uv} + 1$   
17         **else if**  $vote_u = vote_v$  **then**  
18             *// if  $e$  is a new edge*  
19              $common_{uv} \leftarrow$  number of elections where  $u$  voted after  $v$   
20              $follow \leftarrow 1 / common_{uv}$   
21              $E_F \leftarrow E_F \cup \{e\}$   
22         **end**  
23          $e.follow \leftarrow follow$   
24          $e.common \leftarrow common_{uv}$   
25          $w_F(e) \leftarrow e.follow - 0.5$   
26     **end**  
27 **end**  
28 **return**  $F$

---

## 5.4 Voting Order Experiments

The iterative models based on balance and status theory predict votes in the order that they were cast. In this thesis, we wish to analyse the importance of the voting order on the predictive quality of the model. To achieve this,

we gather two more RfAs that occurred in May and August of 2019. These RfA are not part of the WIKI-RFA dataset, and therefore the models trained on the dataset will have not seen these votes before.

The first is the RfA of user *HickoryOughtShirt?4*, that was completed on 1st May 2019. The RfA was successful with 182 support, 19 oppose and 9 neutral votes. This is an example of a RfA that did not have much opposition and consensus was evident in the proceedings. This RfA can be used to test if the model is able to effectively predict the negative votes that did appear in this election, given that they are as low as 9% of all votes cast.

The second RfA we collected was the unsuccessful nomination of the user *Hawkeye7* in August 2019. In fact, this was the third RfA nomination for the user. He was successful in his initial nomination in November 2009. Post that, he lost his administrative privileges following an ArbCom decision for misuse of his administrative tools. The second nomination in February 2016 resulted in failure even after receiving a significant amount of support votes (191 support and 95 opposition votes). The third nomination in August 2019 also resulted in failure after a fairly close voting phase. He received 91 support, 83 oppose and 15 neutral votes. This RfA is a perfect example of how Wikipedia RfAs are not a majority voting election. Therefore, it will be useful to study if the models are able to effectively generalize the information that have learnt from the WIKI-RFA dataset. Also, we can analyse the impact of the order of votes to see if that can affect the prediction in especially close RfAs.

We first predict the votes in both RfAs in the same order that they took place in. We call this the *normal* vote ordering. Next, we reverse the order of votes from the second vote cast. This is because the first votes cast in Wikipedia RfAs are of the nominators and they provide the starting point for the iterative predictions. We refer to this ordering as *reversed* vote ordering. Lastly, we randomly permute the votes, except the first one cast by the co-nominator. We do 10 trails and then compare the results from the models. This is called *random* voting order.

By studying the predictive quality of both the status and balance based iterative models, we can understand the role of the voting order in each approach. We can also gain insights into creating a more global model of vote prediction if the voting order does not vastly affect the model’s predictive accuracy.

## 5.5 Evaluation Metrics

In this section, we discuss the various metrics that we can use to evaluate the implementation of the models discussed in the previous sections. As mentioned in Section 5.1, the WIKI-RFA dataset has an imbalance of support votes. Therefore, simple measures such as *accuracy* scores might be misleading as the baseline accuracy for predicting all votes as support votes is nearly 73%. The models we implement in Section 5.2 and 5.2 output probabilities, and hence the metrics must also be able to utilize these results.

The independent vote prediction task at hand is binary classification task. The models implemented provide the probability of the vote being a support vote. Therefore, we have a target class  $y \in \{-1, 1\}$  corresponding to oppose and support and the result is a probability  $p \in [0, 1]$  for being a support vote. Hence, we propose traditional metrics such as Receiver Operator Characteristics (ROC) and Precision Recall (PR) to evaluate the results of the model.

If we choose a threshold  $\theta$ , for the probabilities that we have as the output from the model, we can predict all outputs where  $p > \theta$  as  $+1$  and where  $p \leq \theta$  as  $-1$ . When we compare our predictions with the true outputs  $y$ , we get four possible outcomes. First, when the prediction is  $+1$  and the true outcome is also  $+1$ , then it is called a *true positive* (TP). Second, when the prediction is  $-1$  and the true output is also  $-1$ , then it is a *true negative* (TN). However, if the predicted output is  $-1$  and the true output is  $+1$ , then it is referred to as a *false negative* (FN). Similarly, if the prediction is  $+1$ , but the true output is  $-1$ , then it is a *false positive* (FP). These four values can be represented in a *confusion matrix*, as seen in Figure 5.2.

		True Outcome	
		+1	-1
Predicted Outcome	+1	True Positive (TP)	False Positive (FP)
	-1	False Negative (FN)	True Negative (TN)

Figure 5.2: Confusion Matrix for binary classification task

### 5.5.1 Receiver Operating Characteristics

Now, the *true positive rate* (TPR) is the measure of the number of correct positive predictions made out all the available true positive outcomes and is defined as,  $TPR = TP/(TP + FN)$ . Similarly, the *false positive rate* (FPR) measures the number of incorrect classifications of negative samples out of all the available negative samples, i.e.,  $FPR = FP/(FP + TN)$ . Therefore, the ROC curve is the space defined by the TPR as a function of the FPR, i.e., the TPR on y-axis and FPR on the x-axis. Each point on the ROC curve corresponds to a confusion matrix at some threshold. A model that randomly predicts outcomes will form a diagonal line, indicating that the TPR and FPR are equal. A perfect classifier would have a point at  $(0, 1)$ , which indicates that there are samples that are misclassified. Although the ROC curve can be visually inspected to compare models, we utilize the *area under the ROC curve* (AUC-ROC) as a quantitative measure of a model's performance. Therefore, the baseline random predicting model has a AUC-ROC of 0.5.

The AUC-ROC score is unaffected by an imbalanced dataset. This means that a high AUC-ROC score might hide the fact that the baseline accuracy of predicting all samples as positive might indeed be higher than 0.5. Therefore, we need to be careful when interpreting the quality of the model solely based on the AUC-ROC score.

### 5.5.2 Precision Recall

*Recall* is the same as true positive rate (TPR), i.e.,  $recall = TP/(TP + FN)$ . The ratio of the number of true positive predictions out of all the predicted positive outcomes is called *precision* (or positive predictive rate). It is defined as,  $precision = TP/(TP + FP)$ . Precision and recall are in tension, meaning that improving precision reduces recall and vice versa. Therefore, the Precision-Recall (PR) curve is the space defined by representing precision as a function of recall, i.e., precision on y-axis and recall on the x-axis. Each point on the PR curve corresponds to a single confusion matrix obtained from a particular value of the threshold. The baseline for the PR curve is based on the frequency of the positive label in the true outcomes and appears as a horizontal line in the plots. Hence, the PR curve is affected by the imbalance present in the dataset. Therefore, we define two measures to better represent the imbalances present in the WIKI-RFA dataset.

The PR curve is usually defined with respect to the positive label probability. We refer to this curve as the positive PR curve and denote it by  $PR_{pos}$ . The positive baseline is computed as ratio of the true positive outputs and the

total number of samples,  $\text{baseline}_{\text{pos}} = (TP + FN)/(TP + FN + FP + TN)$ . This will be higher for the WIKI-RFA dataset as there are more positive samples, i.e., support votes. We can measure the positive label performance by computing the area under the positive PR curve ( $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$ ), it is also called average precision score. The  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$  score should be higher than the positive baseline to be significant. Even so, the  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$  does not tell us if the model has learnt to predict negative votes equally well.

For this purpose, we define the negative PR curve as the PR curve where we consider the probability of predicting a negative outcome and denote it by  $\text{PR}_{\text{neg}}$ . As we have a binary classification task, if the positive probability vector is  $\mathbf{p}$ , then the negative probability vector is simply  $\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{p}$ . Now considering  $-1$  to be the positive label, we can plot a  $\text{PR}_{\text{neg}}$  curve in the same manner. The negative baseline for the  $\text{PR}_{\text{neg}}$  curve is defined as the ratio of the true negative samples divided by the total number of samples,  $\text{baseline}_{\text{neg}} = (TN + FP)/(TP + FN + FP + TN)$ . As the negative samples, i.e., oppose votes, are the minority in the WIKI-RFA dataset, the corresponding negative baseline will also be lower. We can measure the performance of the model in predicting negative samples by computing the area under the  $\text{PR}_{\text{neg}}$  curve ( $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{neg}}$ ). This measure is more import for evaluating the performance of our models.

Add F1 score para



## Chapter 6

# Results and Discussion

In this chapter, we present the results of the experiments described in Chapter 5 and discuss the performance of the models. First, in Section 6.1, we describe the development, training and testing split of the dataset. Then, we present the results of the graph combination model and discuss the most important features of the logistic regression classifier. Moreover, we compare it to the performance of the iterative models in the same test dataset and explain the shortcoming of the graph combination model. Second, we display the results of the iterative models using the entire WIKI-RfA dataset in Section 6.2. Further, we examine the performance of the iterative models and discuss the optimal selection of threshold to predict results. Lastly, the results of the voting order experiments are presented in Section 6.3. We analyse the significance of the voting order on the performance of the iterative models.

### 6.1 Test Dataset Results

As we describes in Section 5.2.2, for the graph combination model requires the WIKI-RfA dataset to be split into three part to prevent data leak. Although we performed the experiments for many variation of these three splits, we will show the results from the 30 – 30 – 40 split into development (dev), training (train) and testing (test) respectively. As the model aims to predict votes, we choose to split it on the percentage of votes, as seen in Table 6.1. We round up the nearest RfA ending so that we have contiguous elections in each split. In Table 6.1, we see this manifested as small overlaps between the last dates of the previous splits and the first dates. The time frame overlap is almost exactly seven days, the exact duration a RfA. Next, we present the details of the auxiliary and signed graphs formed from the dev dataset and

the graph combination model’s performance on the test dataset.

Table 6.1: WIKI-RfA dataset split information

Feature	Development	Training	Testing
Percentage	30%	30%	40%
Number of votes	62833	62807	83830
Number of RfAs	1668	1551	1314
First Date	22/02/2004	31/10/2006	24/06/2008
Last Date	06/11/2006	30/06/2008	01/01/2019

Next, we also show the results of the iterative models on the test dataset. We achieve this by evaluating the iterative models’ results in the same time period as the test data. Through this approach, we can compare the benefits of the iterative model, which can utilize both the development and training datasets to learn and update its respective relationship graph.

We provide the evaluation metrics for all models along with the baseline for the test dataset, as seen in Table 6.2. The  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{neg}}$  baseline shows that negative votes are the minority in the test test. Similarly, the  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$  baseline shows that a model predicting all votes as support votes can achieve nearly 77% accuracy. Now, we discuss the results of each model in more detail.

Table 6.2: Results of different models for the test split of the WIKI-RfA dataset

Model	AUC-ROC	$\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$	$\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{neg}}$
Baseline	0.5	0.776	0.224
Graph Combination	0.542	0.798	0.251
Iterative Balance	0.815	0.922	0.614
Iterative Status	0.754	0.9	0.486

### 6.1.1 Graph Combination Model Results

We start by describing the details of the auxiliary and signed graphs formed from the dev dataset, as seen in Table 6.3. The *% of test users covered* refers the percentage of unique users in the test dataset present in the graph. It can be used as a proxy to measure the amount of information a graph can provide to a vote in a RfA in the test dataset. We see that the *similarity*

*graph* is fairly dense and is completely connected, as we chose the minimum similarity of an edge of 0.03 to be considered viable. It also has the largest coverage of nodes in the test dataset. The *talk graph* also has a large strongly connected component (as it is directed) and a smaller test user coverage. The *social interaction graph* is the same as the talk graph, but is unweighted, therefore, has the same statistics as the talk graph. As we explained in Section 5.2.1.2, we also include the reversed talk and social interaction graphs to gain additional features. The *signed graph* by far is the smallest, least dense and weakest connected graph of all the graphs. This is because, the signed graph only contains the voting data from the dev dataset. It will contribute the triadic feature and is hence fine for that task.

Table 6.3: Information of graphs formed using development data split

Graph	$ G $	$\ G\ $	density	largest component size	% of test users covered
Topic Similarity	6368	1463465	0.0721	6368	27.3
Talk	5477	213307	0.0071	3489	18.9
Signed Voting	4675	65595	0.003	1083	9

Using these auxiliary and signed graphs we prepare the training and testing feature matrices  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{X}_{text}$  and target vectors,  $\mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{y}_{test}$  respectively. We train the *Logistic Regression* model on the train feature matrix and target vector using cross validation. The feature importances of the trained LR model are shown in Figure 6.1. We see both, the five auxiliary features and the 36 triadic features. *Talk Graph R* and *Social Interactions R* features refer to the reversed version of the talk and social interaction graphs respectively. We see that the topic similarity graph has the largest coefficient. The importance of the similarity feature amongst the auxiliary feature can be explained by the fact that, the topic similarity has the largest coverage of test users and therefore contributes the most information.

Among the other features the triad *FB++* has the next largest coefficient. This result is consistent with balance theory, which would predict a positive edge to maintain the balance in the triad. However, for this triad, status theory does not have a preference of either a positive or negative edge. Attempting to interpret the result in terms of status theory we have: if a candidate and voter have a mutual friend who they both respect, then it is more likely that the voter will support the candidate. Though this motivation is not a typically expected behaviour, it might suggest some unique cognitive biases present in voters.

The other triadic feature that is significant is the triad "FB-". Yet, here the coefficient is negative, indicating that the prediction is more likely to be a negative edge, i.e., an oppose vote. This result again is consistent only with balance theory. Balance theory predicts the vote is negative to balance the resulting triad to be balanced. Status theory implies that, if the candidate and voter share a common friend, who looks up to the candidate, but the voter does not respect, then the voter is ambivalent to the candidate. However, the result indicate that the voter in this case has a negative view of the candidate and votes against them more often. Therefore, we see the results agreeing more strongly with balance theory rather than status theory.

And then, we see that both versions of the social interaction graphs are more significant than the talk graph. This indicates that simple existence correspondence is more important than the amount of correspondence or the direction of correspondence between voters and their voting neighbourhood.

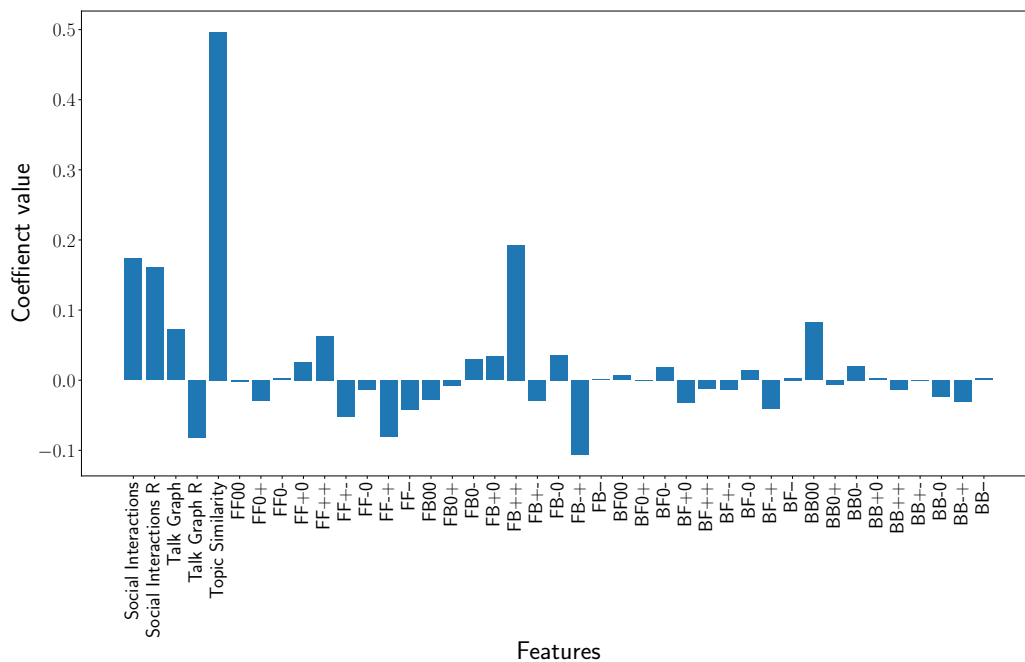


Figure 6.1: Feature importances for Logistic Regression model

Then, we tested the trained LR model on the test feature matrix and evaluated the output with the target vectors. The results and the evaluation metrics are seen in Table 6.2. We see that the graph combination model does not perform very well. It has marginal gains on all three baseline metrics. We can analyse these in more details looking at the ROC and PR curves, shown in Figure 6.2. The ROC-AUC curve shows that model is a marginal

improvement over the 0.5 baseline. Similarly, the  $PR_{neg}$  curve depicts that the model fails to learn to predict negative votes more than the baseline of 0.2. This combined with the marginal gain in predicting positive votes implies that the model has not learnt any statistically significant information.

We can understand the low performance of the model through its lack of information. As the features that are created for each vote are only depended on the dev dataset, they have limited impact when predicting votes in the test dataset. This is due to the fact that RfAs are chronological, as there are many more newer users in the test dataset and there is no information available on them in the dev dataset. This problem does might reduce, if we change the percentage of data in the dev, train and test datasets. However, if we increase the size of dev dataset split, it leads to lack of training data. In this case, the LR model cannot efficiently learn the coefficients for the features that have more information, leading again to only marginal improvements over the baselines.

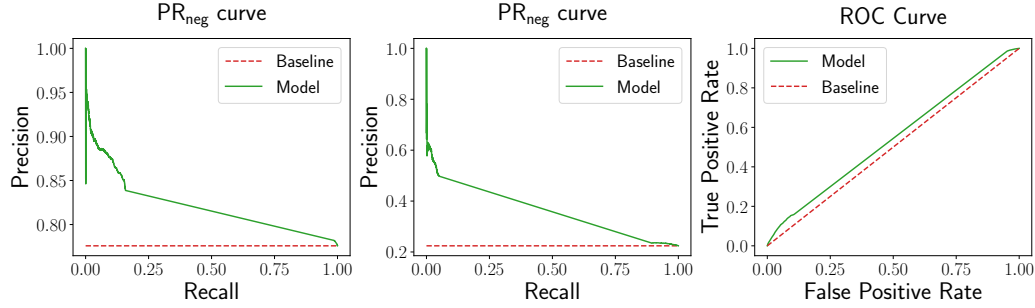


Figure 6.2: Logistic Regression plots for test data

### 6.1.2 Iterative Model Results

Now, we discuss the results of the iterative models for the test dataset. We see the evaluation metrics for both the iterative balance and balance models in Table 6.2. These are the results are the predictions that the iterative models makes for the RfA present in the test dataset. We see that both models perform much better than the baselines as well as the graphical combination model.

However, directly comparing the iterative models' result to the graphical model's result is not fair. Because, the iterative models incorporate each election as they progress in the test dataset and utilize that information to predict the next RfA votes. Therefore, the predictions of the iterative model are not independent. In spite of this, analysing the improvement that the

iterative models proves useful in understanding the inherent shortcomings of the graphical combination model discussed previously.

Out of both models, we see that the *Iterative Balance Model* performs much better. We see that the model is able to better predict both positive and negative votes, seen by the large  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$  and  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{neg}}$  scores respectively. This is in line with the previous analysis that balance theory better predicts triads in the voting neighbourhood. Here, we see that the LSN of the voter conforms more according to balance theory than status theory.

Another analysis, both the iterative balance and status models achieve better performance than the graphical combination model utilizing only the voting data. Furthermore, this indicates that there is a scope of incorporating the auxiliary features to the iterative models to further improve the performance of the models. Moreover, it clearly shows that solving the problem lack of information in the graph combination model can lead to better predictions.

We can analyse the models further considering the complete WIKI-RFA dataset.

## 6.2 Complete WIKI-RFA Results

The iterative models described in Section 5.3, can be bootstrapped to predict all the votes in the WIKI-RFA dataset. The results for the models along with the baselines are shown in Table 6.4. We see the complete dataset is more imbalanced than the test dataset, seen by the larger and smaller  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$  and  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{neg}}$  baselines respectively.

### 6.2.1 New Voter Analysis

As discussed in Section 5.3, we marked all votes that were predicted without any information from encountering new voters. This amounted to 11812 or approximately 5.7% of all votes predicted. The distribution of the true value of these votes is 9217 support and 2595 oppose votes. This shows that new voters are almost 3x more likely to vote positively. We analysed these new voters' vote with the progress of the election of the time to study herd mentality. Comparing these votes to the sign of the cumulative sum of votes until that point, we see that nearly 81% of new votes are the same as the herd. Similarly, we also compare the new voters to the vote cast by the person before them. We see that 76% of new voters agree with the previous voter. Therefore, we can adopt a simple strategy of predicting the new voters

to have a probability of supporting equal to the ratio of support votes cast until that point.

Table 6.4: Results of iterative models on the complete WIKI-RFA dataset

Model	AUC-ROC	AUC-PR <sub>pos</sub>	AUC-PR <sub>neg</sub>
Baseline	0.5	0.784	0.216
Iterative Balance	0.835	0.935	0.635
Iterative Status	0.784	0.917	0.502

Table 6.5: Information of relationship graphs of iterative models using entire WIKI-RFA dataset

Relationship Graph	$ G $	$\ G\ $	density	largest component size
Agreement Graph	11924	2451028	0.0345	11908
Follow Graph	11924	3136303	0.0220	11563

### 6.2.1.1 Iterative Balance Model Results

The iterative balance models performs very well even when predicting all the votes in the entire WIKI-RFA dataset. The results in Table 6.4, shows that on every metric the balance model has a significant margin over the baseline. Especially, we see that negative votes are predicted almost three times better than the baseline, seen by the AUC-PR<sub>neg</sub> score of 0.635. This indicates that the model has collected useful information in the *agreement graph*, seen in Table 6.5. The graph at the end of the dataset is fairly large and dense and is nearly connected. Therefore, a rich representation of relationships between Wikipedia users is stored in the agreement graph.

The plots in Figure 6.3, show that the model consistently performs well above the baselines. Now, in choosing an optimal threshold for the model, we turn to the plots in Figure 6.4. These show how the F1 score changes as we move out threshold parameter  $\theta$ . We see that the F1<sub>pos</sub> score only starts to decrease gradually after  $\theta = 0.5$  and there is a peak for the F1<sub>neg</sub> score a little after the point of  $\theta = 0.5$ . Therefore, we can choose  $\theta = 0.53$ , to obtain a F1<sub>pos</sub> = 0.887 and F1<sub>neg</sub> = 0.602. This gives us F1<sub>macro</sub> = (0.887 + 0.602)/2 = 0.745. This threshold also indicates that even if  $\lambda_1^+$  of the LSN is slightly smaller than  $\lambda_1^-$  then the vote is to be predicted positive. Therefore, the model has good compliance with balance theory.

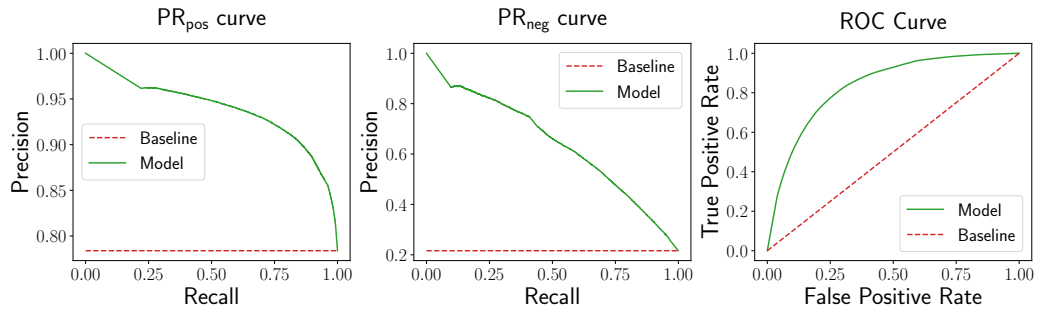


Figure 6.3: Plots for the Iterative Balance Model on the complete WIKI-RFA dataset

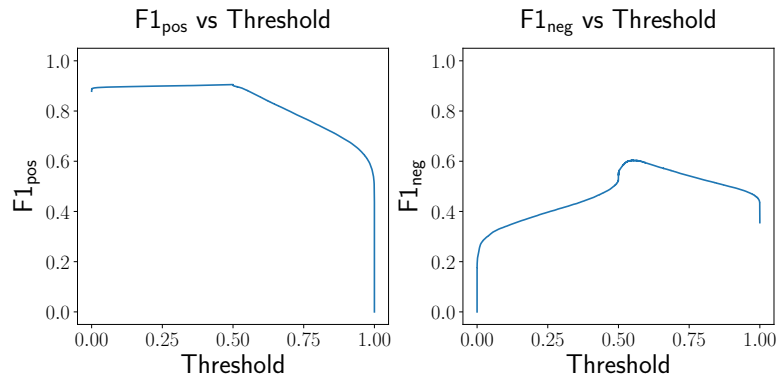


Figure 6.4: F1 score versus threshold plots for Iterative Balance Model



### 6.2.2 Iterative Status Model Results

Table 6.4 show that the iterative status model also performs admirably above the baseline results. We also see in Table 6.5, that the *follow graph* is large, fairly dense and has large strongly connected components. However, its performance is still marginally worse than the iterative balance model.

In Figure 6.5, we see that the  $PR_{\text{pos}}$  curve is nearly identical to that of the iterative balance model. This is also reflected in the high AUC- $PR_{\text{pos}}$  score comparable to the iterative balance model. However, the  $PR_{\text{neg}}$  curve clearly shows that there is a lower quality when predicting negative votes. This translates in the smaller AUC- $PR_{\text{neg}}$  score and explains the overall lower AUC-ROC score of the model. The reason for the lower predictive power can be explained from our previous analysis of the graph combination models. We see that in reality, the triads where status theory is ambivalent actually have a preference for a particular sign. Therefore, the cases when the agony of the LSN is equal for both cases, i.e.,  $\alpha^+ = \alpha^-$ , should not map to  $p = 0.5$ . Rather we must incorporate the information from analysis of other signed network to craft heuristic strategies can be adopted to resolve these ambiguities in status theory prediction.

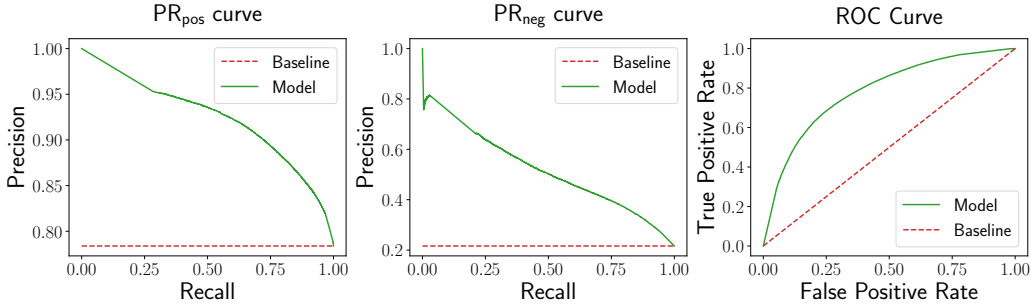


Figure 6.5: Plots for the Iterative Status Model on the complete WIKI-RFA dataset

In Figure 6.6, we see a similar issue with a majority of support vote probabilities being 0.5. The  $F1_{\text{pos}}$  curve is again identical to the  $F1_{\text{pos}}$  curve of the iterative balance model. However, the  $F1_{\text{neg}}$  curve shows that there is an inflection at  $\theta = 0.5$ . The change is quite drastic with  $F1_{\text{neg}} = 0.05$  at  $\theta = 0.49$  and  $F1_{\text{neg}} = 0.32$  at  $\theta = 0.5$ . This also affects the choice for an optimal threshold for the model. We see that the  $F1_{\text{neg}}$  increases as threshold is increased beyond  $\theta = 0.5$ . This indicates that closer to 0.5, there are many false positives. However, choosing  $\theta$  at the peak of  $F1_{\text{neg}}$  at 0.75 is not suitable as the  $F1_{\text{pos}}$  score starts to drop more. Hence, we can choose  $\theta = 0.63$  as the constrained optimum giving us  $F1_{\text{pos}} = 0.861$  and  $F1_{\text{neg}} = 0.504$ , therefore,

$F1_{\text{macro}} = 0.606$ . This deterministic metric is also lower than the 0.745 of the iterative balance model. The choice of threshold at  $\theta = 0.6$  suggests that the  $\alpha^+$ , the agony for the positive vote case, must be considerably lower than  $\alpha^-$ , the agony for the negative vote case, to predict that vote to be positive. Therefore, this also indicates that we can make additional modifications to status theory to increase the predictive power of the iterative status model.

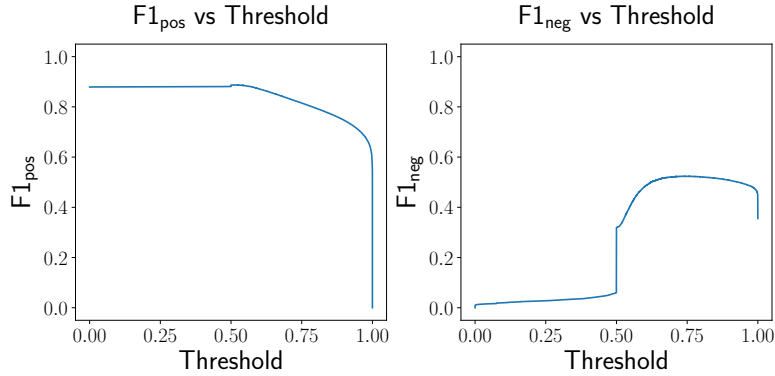


Figure 6.6: F1 score versus threshold plots for Iterative Status Model

## 6.3 Voting Order Results

In Section 5.4, we discussed how to study the effects of voting order on the performance of the iterative models trained on the complete WIKI-RfA dataset. The results for the third RfA nomination of user *Hawkeye7* is presented in Table 6.6 and is referred to the *failed RfA*. Similarly, the results of user *HickoryOughtShirt?4* is shown in table 6.7 and is called the *successful RfA*.

### 6.3.1 Failed RfA Results

We see that the voting in the failed RfA is fairly tight. The  $AUC-PR_{\text{pos}}$  score is 0.52 and  $AUC-PR_{\text{neg}}$  is 0.479, indicating that the election did indeed have more support votes than oppose. Nevertheless, the RfA failed as the Bureaucrat responsible concluded that the consensus was to not promote the user.

For the *normal voting order*, as seen in Table 6.6, the balance models performs much worse when compared to the status model. In fact, the iterative balance model performs below the baseline for all metrics. This can be attributed to the fact that this particular user had two previous nominations

of which one was successful. Therefore, a symmetric measure of agreement might not be helpful in predicting the balance as the election progresses, especially when the voting margins are tight. On the other hand, we see that the iterative status model performs better the iterative balance model, but is still worse than the baseline metrics for a random model. This clearly shows that both models are struggling to predict votes in a RfAs with a narrow margin of difference between support and oppose votes.

For the *reversed voting order*, we see that iterative balance model performs considerably better compared to the normal voting order. Especially, we see that all the metrics, i.e., AUC-ROC, AUC-PR<sub>pos</sub> and AUC-PR<sub>neg</sub> scores have improved above the baseline, increasing the model's overall performance. This is interesting, as it suggests that the LSNs formed by reversing the voting order provides better information on the voting behaviour than the actual voting order. Similarly, we see the status model also gaining in performance when the voting order is reversed. Although the AUC-PR<sub>neg</sub> score is still below the baseline, we see the overall performance has improved. We can explain the model's difficulty in predicting negative votes using our previous analysis that status theory complies less with the true data than balance theory. Therefore, we infer that reversing the voting order improves the performance of both models.

Meanwhile, the results of the average of ten *random voting orders* for both models lie in between the results for the normal and reversed voting methods. We see that the result for the iterative balance model is above the baseline for all metrics and the iterative status model is close to the baseline. Therefore, we see that the voting order does affect the performance of the iterative models and that we can benefit from reversing the voting order and averaging the results to obtain better predictions for RfAs that have tight margins.

Table 6.6: Results for different vote orderings for the failed RfA

Model	Vote Order	AUC-ROC	AUC-PR <sub>pos</sub>	AUC-PR <sub>neg</sub>
Baseline	-	0.5	0.52	0.479
Iterative Balance	Normal	0.392	0.490	0.403
	Reversed	0.575	0.606	0.529
	Random	0.527	0.552	0.517
Iterative Status	Normal	0.454	0.532	0.457
	Reversed	0.515	0.563	0.466
	Random	0.493	0.538	0.480

### 6.3.2 Successful RfA Results

In Table 6.7, we see that the result of the RfA is clearly evident in the  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$  and  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{neg}}$  baselines. Nearly, all votes are supporting the candidate and there are a few minority opposition votes. For this RfA, we see the results are in line with the results we obtained for the unsuccessful RfA.

For the *normal voting order*, we see that the iterative balance model has  $\text{AUC-ROC}$  and  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$  scores lower than the baseline but  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{neg}}$  scores well above the baseline. This indicates that the model is better able to predict oppose votes, but at the cost of the better predictions for the support votes. We see a similar phenomenon for the iterative status model where the  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$  is below the baseline but the overall  $\text{AUC-ROC}$  is slightly above a random predictor. This highlights the difficulty of predicting the oppose votes in a fairly clear election.

Once again, in the results for the *reversed voting order*, we see that both iterative models have better performance across all metrics. Especially, we see both models have much larger  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$  scores and that boosts the  $\text{AUC-ROC}$  scores as the positive votes are the majority in the RfA. As a result, we also see that the  $\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{neg}}$  scores drop, indicating the tension in optimizing both positive and negative vote prediction.

The average of 10 *random voting order* results show that the performance of the models are overall better than the normal voting order. A note to consider is that this analysis and results are only for the two new RfAs and can be further analysed in detail as a separate project.

Table 6.7: Results for different vote orderings for the successful RfA

Model	Vote Order	AUC-ROC	$\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{pos}}$	$\text{AUC-PR}_{\text{neg}}$
Baseline	-	0.5	0.905	0.095
Iterative Balance	Normal	0.48	0.90	0.231
	Reversed	0.649	0.933	0.216
	Random	0.607	0.921	0.273
Iterative Status	Normal	0.503	0.898	0.211
	Reversed	0.628	0.931	0.151
	Random	0.612	0.921	0.230

## Chapter 7

# Conclusions and Future Work

- Explain the quality of results with the election perspective
- Future work is to extend this to other election settings and investigate generality of this approach
- Possible future work in congressional voting data
- Can also tackle the other problem in information cascade theory of how to predict who is most likely to vote next
- This can lead to a complete model of election dynamics and could incorporate elements of game theory and network inference

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