#### Chapter 13

### **Diffusion: Decision-Based**

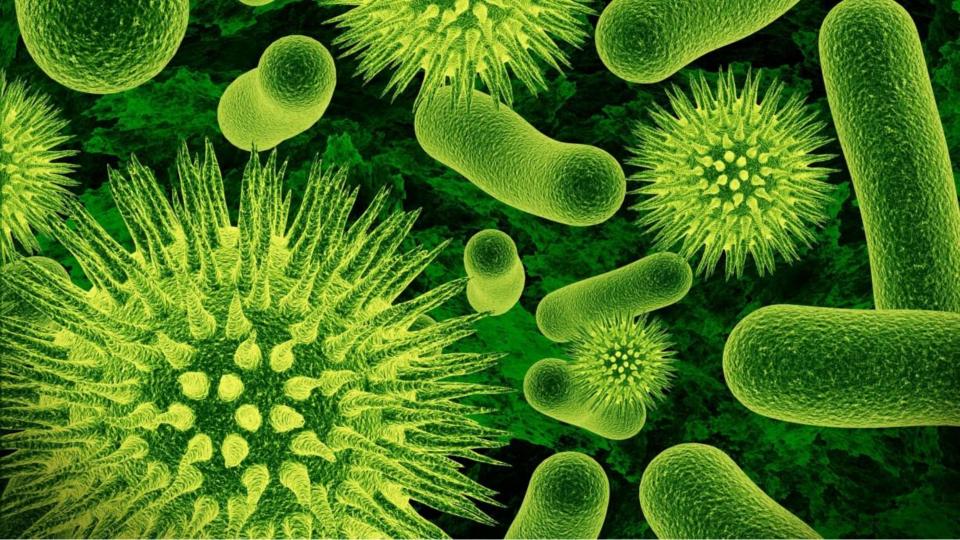
#### Summary

- Diffusion phenomena
- Human Behaviours
- Threshold based models
- Diminishing returns
- Influence Maximization
- Advanced topics: Herding

#### Reading

• Chapter 19 of Kleinberg's book



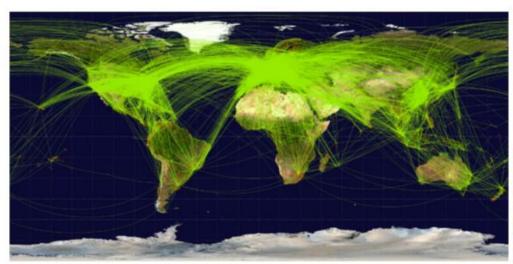








### Why study diffusive processes matter?

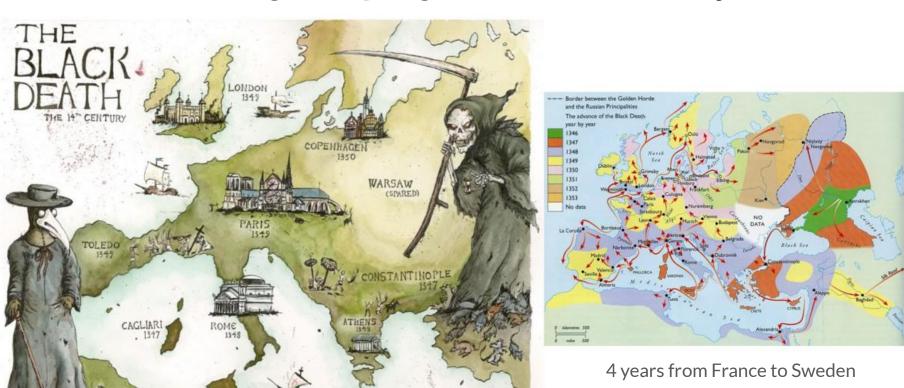


High mobility

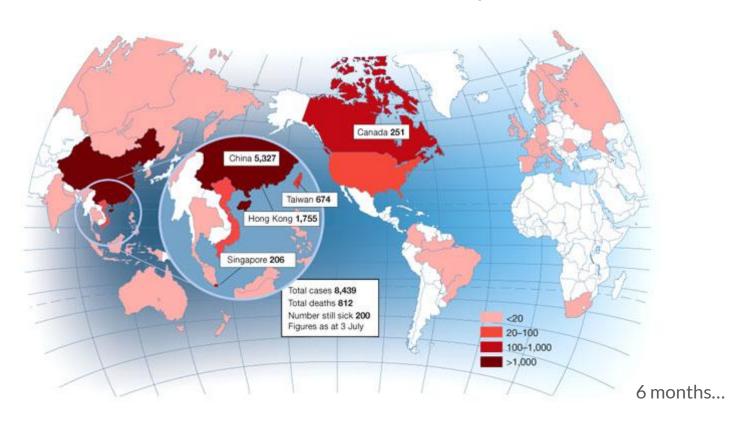
High population density



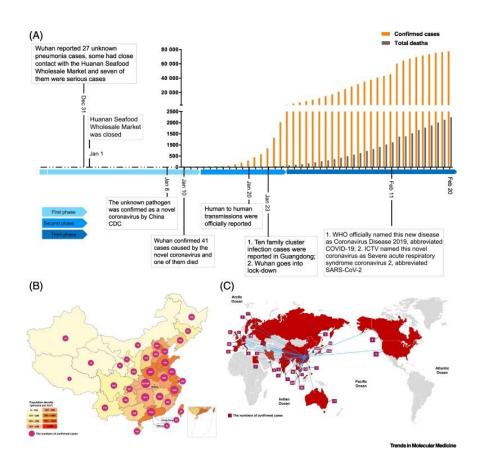
### The great plague in 14th century



### SARS in 21th century



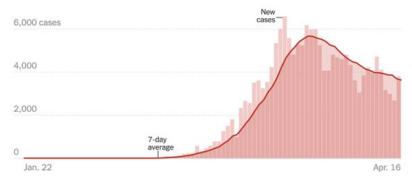
### Covid-19 today...

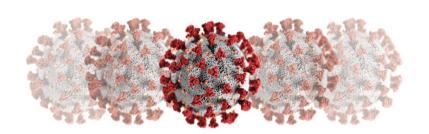


#### How Cases Are Growing

Here's how the number of new cases is changing over time:

#### New reported cases by day in Italy





### How can we model diffusive phenomena?

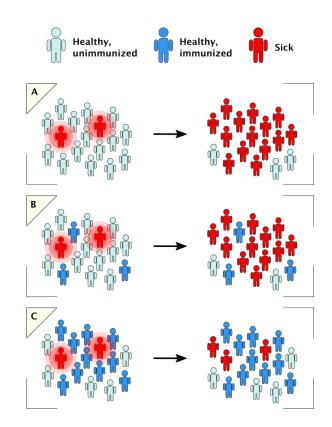


A First Approximation:

## Mean Field modeling

MF Theory analyze high-dimensional models by studying a simpler models that approximate the original by averaging over degrees of freedom.

- Such models consider a large number of individual components that interact with each other.
- In MFT, the effect of all the other individuals on any given individual is approximated by a single averaged effect.



## Network effects

Diffusion happens only when the carries of the diseases/virus/idea are connected to susceptible nodes.

Diffusive phenomena can modeled describing:

- "node statuses"
- "transition rules"

We will always start from a MF model, then extend it to a networked context.



#### Spreading speed & patterns will vary depending on:

- model's parameter values (as in mean field)
- Initial infection seeds
- Topology that surrounds infected nodes (e.g., communities may act as barriers)
- Degree of homophily of connected nodes
- .

## **Modeling Human Behaviours**



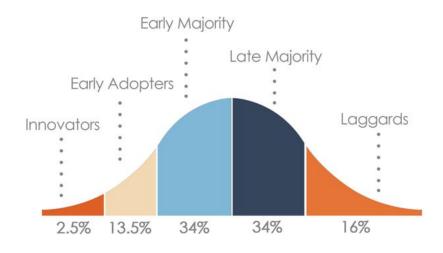
## Diffusion of Innovations

Models of product adoption & decision making

An individual observes decisions of its peers and makes its own decision

#### Example:

You decide to buy an iPad only if only k% of the population has already done so



Rogers, Everett M. Diffusion of innovations. Simon and Schuster, 2010.

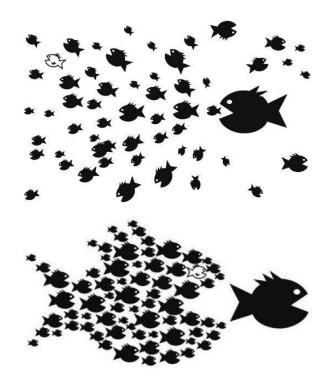
### **Collective Action**

#### Everyone sees everyone else's behaviour

- No network structure

#### Example:

- clapping, getting up and leaving in a theater
- keep your money or not in a stock market
- neighborhoods in cities changing their ethnic composition
- riots, protests, strikes...



Granovetter, Mark. "Threshold models of collective behavior." American journal of sociology 83.6 (1978): 1420-1443.

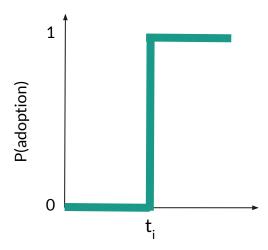
### Collective Action Idea

N people: everyone observes all actions

- Each person i has a threshold t<sub>i</sub>
  Node i will adopt the behaviour iff at least t<sub>i</sub> other people are adopters

  - Small t<sub>i</sub>: early adopter Large t<sub>i</sub>: late adopter

The population is described  $\{t_1,...,t_n\}$ - F(x) is the fraction of people with threshold  $t_i \le x$ 



#### Collective Action

## Description

Think of the step-by-step change in number of people adopting the behaviour:

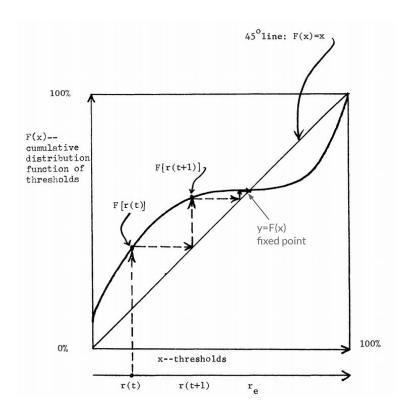
- F(x): fraction of the people with threshold  $\leq x$
- **s(t)**: number of participants at time t

#### Easy to simulate:

- s(0) = 0
- s(1) = F(0)
- s(2) = F(s(1)) = F(F(0))
- $s(t+1) = F(s(t)) = F^{t+1}(0)$

Fixed point: F(x) = x

There could be other fixed points but starting from 0 we never reach them



## Simulations

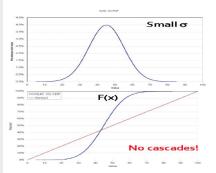
Each threshold t<sub>i</sub> is drawn independently from some distribution:

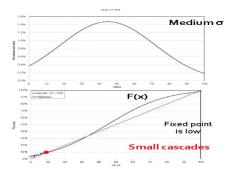
-  $F(x) = Pr[threshold \le x]$ 

Let's assume a normal distribution with

- mean μ>n/2
- variance σ

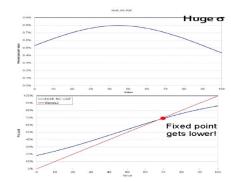
Increasing variance allow bridges from early adopters to mainstream...





#### ... until the fixed point lowers!





## Collective Action Limitations

#### Limitations:

- No notion of social structure
- Leverages only volume of early adoptions, not their characteristics
- Captures only number of participants, not their awareness
- Simplified threshold:

Richer distributions?
Derivating threshold from more basic assumptions (e.g., game theoretic models)



### Cascades and Threshold based models

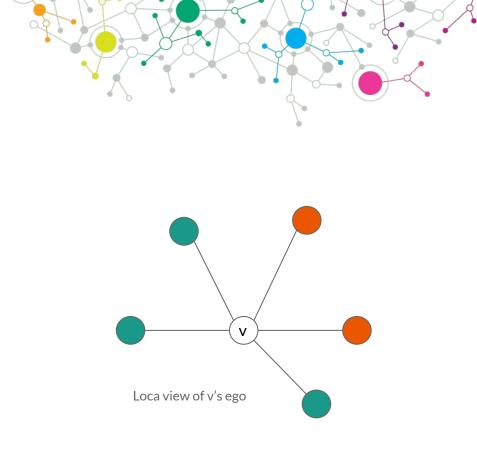


#### Cascades

## Game theoretic models

Based on 2 players coordination games

- Each player chooses a technology
- Each person can adopt only one "behaviour" (e.g., A or B)
- Your gain increase if your friend has adopted the same behaviour as you

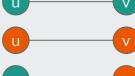


#### Payoff

## Game theoretic models

#### **Payoff matrix:**

- if u and v adopt the same behaviour A they each get payoff a>0
- if u and v adopt the same behaviour B they each get payoff b>0
- if u and v opposite behaviours they each get 0





Each node v plays a copy of the game with each of its neighbors

#### Payoff:

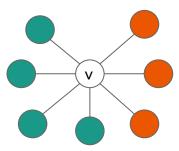
Sum of nodes payoff per game

#### Decision rule

- let v have d neighbors
- assume fraction p of v's neighbor adopt A

Payoff<sub>v</sub> = 
$$a^*p^*d$$
 if v chooses A  
=  $b^*(1-p)^*dif v$  chooses B

- v chooses A if:  $a^*p^*d > b^*(1-p)^*d$ 



v chooses A if p>q 
$$q=rac{b}{a+b}$$

#### Cascades

### **Example**

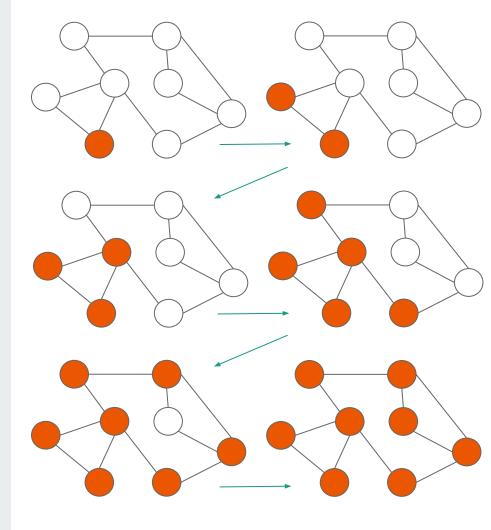
Graph where everyone starts with B. Small set S of early adopters of A

- Hard wire S: they keep using A no matter what payoffs tell them to do

Payoff are set in such a way that nodes say:

- If at least 30% of my friends are red I'll be red

NB: the cascade process (fixed S, the threshold and, the network topology) is deterministic.



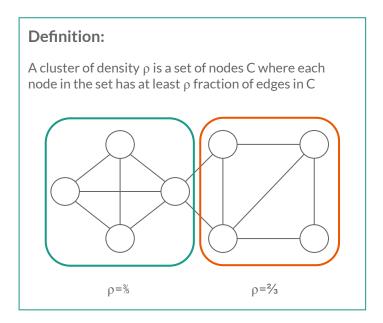
#### Cascades

### **Stopping cascades**

What prevents cascades from spreading?

Assuming an homogeneous threshold **q**:

- if G/S contains a cluster of density > (1-q) than S can not cause a cascade
- if S fails to create a cascade then there is a cluster of density >(1-q) in G/S



## **Diminishing Returns**



Case Study

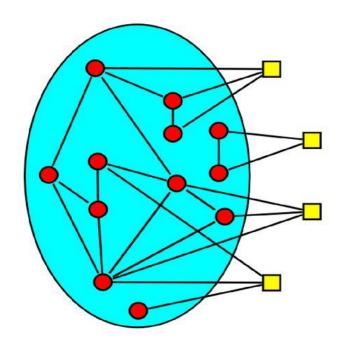
## Adoption Curve: LiveJournal

Group memberships spread over the network:

- Red circles represent existing group members
- Yellow squares may join

#### Question

How does prob. of joining a group depend on the number of friends already in the group?

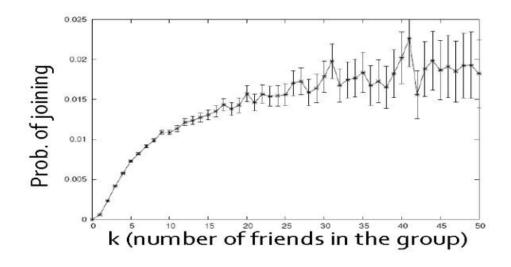


Backstrom, Lars, et al. "Group formation in large social networks: membership, growth, and evolution." ACM SIGKDD (2006).

# Adoption Curve: LiveJournal (cont'd)

Probability of joining increases with the number of friends in the group...

... but increases get smaller and smaller...



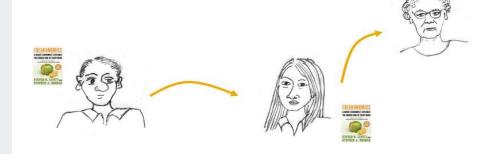
Case Study

## Diffusion and Viral Marketing

Senders and followers of recommendations receive discounts on products

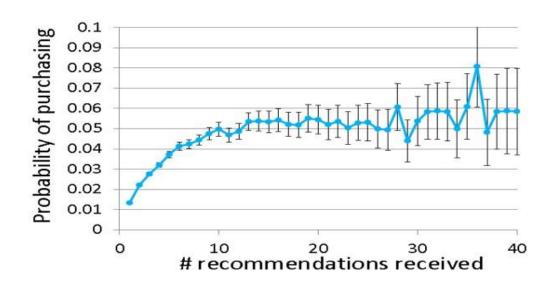
**Data:** Incentivated Viral Marketing program

- 16 million recommendations
- 4 million people, 500k products



Leskovec, Jure, Lada A. Adamic, and Bernardo A. Huberman. "The dynamics of viral marketing." ACM Transactions on the Web (TWEB) 1.1 (2007): 5-es.

# Diffusion and Viral Marketing (cont'd)



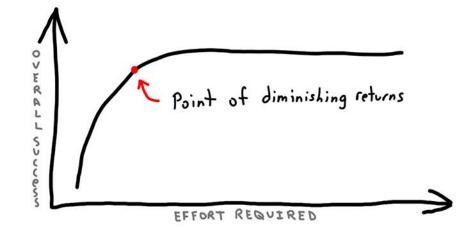
Let's abstract a little bit...

### Diminishing Returns' Law

(network effect)

There is a point where an increased level of inputs does not equal to an equal increase level of outputs.

In other words, after a certain point each input will not increase outputs at the same rate.



### **Influence Maximization**



## How to create big cascades?

#### Blogs - Information epidemics

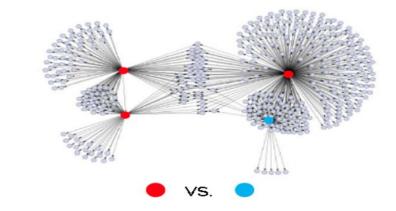
- which are the influential/infectious blogs?
- Which blogs create big cascades?

#### Viral Marketing

- Who are the influencers?
- Where should I advertise?

#### Disease spreading

- Where to place monitoring stations to detect epidemics?



## Most influential sets of nodes

**S:** initial active set

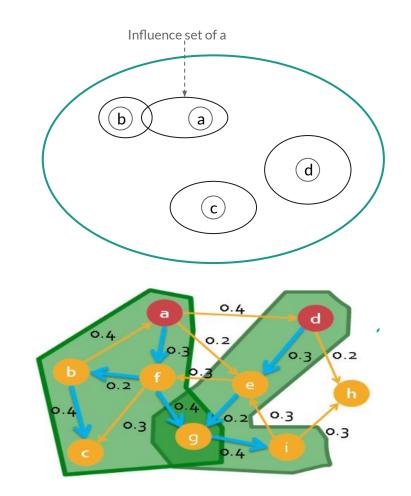
**f(S):** expected size of final active set

S is more influential if f(S) is larger e.g., f({a,b}) < f({a,c}) < f({a,d})

#### **Problem:**

Find the most influential set of size k

Namely, the set S of k nodes producing the largest expected cascade size f(S) if activated



## How hard is the problem?

NP-HARD!

But if f(S) is «diminishing returns»

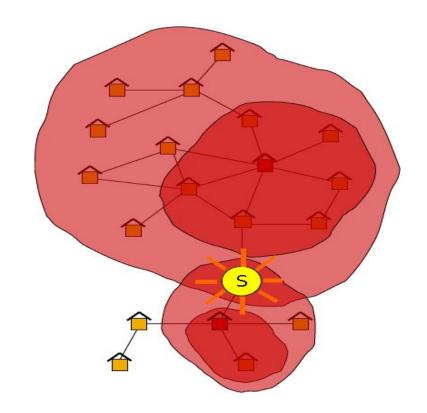
- Monotonic and submodular
- Then the approximated solution computed with a greedy algorithm (hill climbing) has a bounded distance with the global optimum!



## Related problem: outbreak detection

#### Which node(s) initiated a cascade?

- Given a real city water distribution, and data on how contaminants spread in the network
- Detect the contaminant as quickly as possible



### Advanced Topic:

## Herding





#### Influence of actions of others

- Everyone sees everyone else's behaviour
- Sequential decision making

#### Example: Picking a restaurant

- Consider you are choosing a restaurant in an unfamiliar town
- Based on Yelp reviews you intend to go to restaurant A
- When you arrive there is no one eating at A buth the next door restaurant B is nearly full

#### What will you do?

- Information that you can infer from other's choices may be more powerful than your own

#### 5 Tips On Picking A Good Restaurant



## Herding

- There is a decision to be made
- People make the decision sequentially
- Each person has some private information that helps guide the decision
- You can't directly observe private information of the others but can see what they do

You can make inferences about the private information of others



# Herding experiment

Consider an urn with 3 marbles. It can be either:

- Majority-blue: 2 blue, 1 red, or

- Majority-red: 1 blue, 2 red

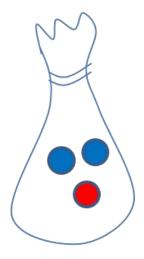
Each person wants to best guess whether the urn is majority-blue or red.

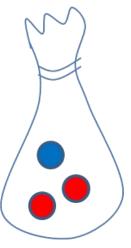
- Guess red if P(majority-red | what seen or heard) > ½

#### Experiment: one by one each person:

- 1. draw a marble
- 2. Privately looks at the color and puts the marble back
- 3. Publicly guesses whether the urn is majority-red or blue

You see all the guesses beforehand: how should you make your guess?





## Herding experiment

#### State of the world:

whether the urn is MR or MB

#### Payoffs:

- utility of making a correct guess

#### Signals:

- Models private information (color you draw)
- Models public information (MR & MB guesses of people before you)

Decision: Guess MR if P(MR|past actions)>½

Analysis (Bayes rule):

- #1 Follow her own color (private signal)

$$P(MR|\mathbf{r}] = rac{P(MR)P(r|MR)}{P(r)} = rac{1/2 \cdot 2/3}{1/2} = 2/3$$
  $P(r) = P(r|MB)P(MB) + P(r|MR)P(MR) = rac{1}{2}rac{1}{3} + rac{1}{2}rac{2}{3} = 1/2$ 

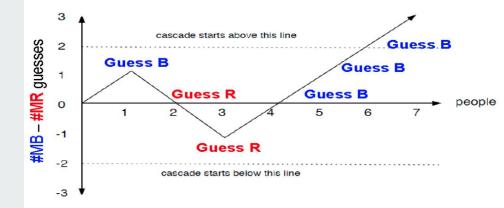
- #2 Guesses her own color (private signal)
   #2 knows #1 revealed her color, so #2 gets 2 colors
   If they are the same, easy.
   If not, break the tie in favor of her own color
- #3 gets 3 signals.
   If #1 and #2 are opposite, #3 goes with her own color.
   If #1 and #2 are equal, #3 decision conveyed no info.
   Cascade starts.

## Herding experiment

How does this unfold?

#### You are the Nth person

- #MB = #MR: you guess your color
- |#MB #MR| = 1: your color makes you indifferent, or reinforces your guess
- |#MB #MR| ≥2: ignore your signal. Go with majority.



Cascade begins when the difference between the number of blue and red guesses reaches 2

#### **Chapter 12**

### Conclusion

#### **Take Away Messages**

- Diffusive processes can be modeled both in Mean Field and on network topologies
- 2. Social Contagion can be described using adoption Thresholds
- 3. Diminishing returns' law play a relevant role in social contagion
- 4. Influence maximization is a key issue

#### **Suggested Readings**

- Chapter 19 of Kleinberg's book
- Rogers, E. M. "Diffusion of innovations"
- Granovetter, M. "Threshold models of collective behavior."

#### What's Next

Chapter 14: **Diffusion: Epidemics** 

