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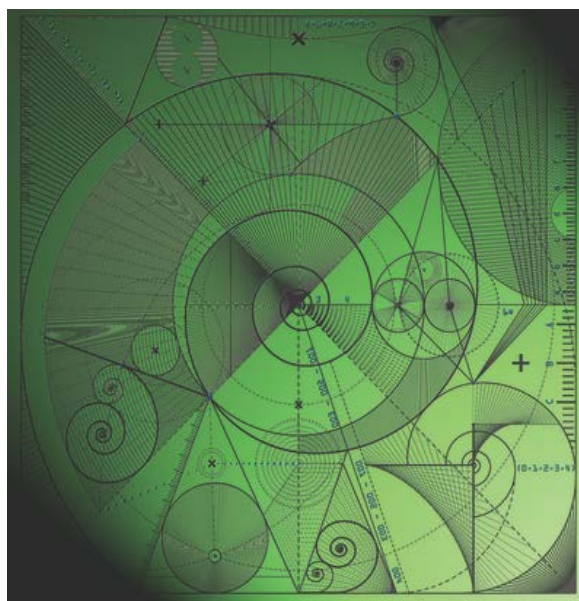
Preprint MPS-2014-22

27 June 2014

Weighted α -rate dominating sets in social networks

by

**Danica Vukadinović Greetham, Anush
Poghosyan and Nathaniel Charlton**



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Danica Vukadinović Greetham¹, Anush Poghosyan¹, and Nathaniel Charlton^{1,2}

¹ Centre for the Mathematics of Human Behaviour
Department of Mathematics and Statistics

University of Reading, UK

{d.v.greetham, a.poghosyan, n.a.charlton}@reading.ac.uk

² CountingLab Ltd
Reading, UK

Abstract. We are looking into variants of a domination set problem in social networks. While randomised algorithms for solving the minimum weighted domination set problem and the minimum α and α -rate domination problem on simple graphs are already present in the literature, we propose here a randomised algorithm for the minimum weighted α -rate domination set problem which is, best to our knowledge, the first such algorithm. A theoretical approximation bound based on simple randomised rounding technique is given. The algorithm is implemented in Python and applied to a UK Twitter mentions networks using a measure of individuals' influence (klout) as weights. We argue that measures on vertices could be interpreted as the cost of getting those individuals on the board for a campaign or a behaviour change intervention. The minimum weighted α -rate dominating set problem can therefore be seen as finding a set that minimises the total cost and each individual in a network has at least $\alpha * 100\%$ of its neighbours in the chosen set. We also test our algorithm on generated graphs with several thousand vertices and edges. Our results on this real-life Twitter networks and generated graphs show that the implementation is reasonably efficient and thus can be used for real-life applications when creating social network based interventions, designing social media campaigns and potentially improving users' social media experience.

Keywords: α -rate dominating sets, weighted domination, social networks optimisation

The social media advertising industry in UK is growing annually in double figures. Social media platforms provide unique opportunities in comparison with the other channels to monitor, respond, amplify, and lead consumer behavior. Looking to wider socio-economic horizon, the social media is also slowly but steadily becoming an important channel to run policy information and education campaigns on mass scale, and an exclusive channel to get the attention of some of the socio-demographic groups, especially in younger population, who are not reading newspapers or watching traditional television. All this opens interesting opportunities for social network based behaviour change interventions[15].

In health-related behaviour change context, for an intervention to work at the individual level, it is often of the utmost importance that a support network exist (see e.g. [8]). In this way an individual is surrounded with social support. Also, a support network needs to have a major influence on the individual, as possible negative influences also come from her/his social network (for example in interventions aimed at addictive behaviours).

For these reasons, one often needs to find a set of nodes/individuals such that all other or indeed all individuals are connected to that set. In graph theory such a set is called a dominating set and a problem of finding a dominating set of minimal cardinality is NP complete [7]. The notion was generalised introducing k -domination where each node needs to have at least k neighbours in the dominating set, and α domination where $0 < \alpha \leq 1$, where each node not in the dominating set needs at least $\alpha * 100$ percentage of neighbours in the dominating set [12]), and α -rate domination [6] where each node (including ones in the dominating set) needs to have at least $\alpha * 100$ percentage of neighbours in the dominating set. Again, finding minimum cardinalities of α and α -rate dominating sets is NP-complete.

Here, we introduce α -rate dominating sets problems on weighted networks. Why weighted networks? It might be that the “best” candidates (from structural perspective) for dominating sets are not feasible for different reasons: they cannot be a part of intervention because they do not have desired attributes, or they do not have time to invest into intervention. We want to overcome this assigning a cost to be part of intervention to each node. Thus, our goal is to find a most cost effective set that we can control or dominate network from. Note that here we do not model negative influences that come from a social network, but just require at least $\alpha * 100$ percents of neighbours to be in the support network.

In the next section we give preliminaries and formally define the problem. In Section 2 an overview of the previous work is given. In Section 3 theoretical upper bound on weighted α -rate dominating set is given which leads to simple randomised rounding algorithm using linear programming formulation of the problem. In Section 4 we analyse the results obtained from the algorithm’s application on a Twitter network and generated graphs and compare them for non-weighted case with the existing algorithm in [5] for α -rate domination. We conclude in the Section 5.

1 Preliminaries

In this section we introduce the notation and definitions that we use throughout this paper.

A graph or undirected graph G is an ordered pair $G = (V, E)$ where V is a set, elements of which are called vertices or nodes, and E is a set of unordered pairs of distinct vertices called edges. If G is a graph of order n , then $V(G) = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ is the set of vertices in G , d_v denotes the degree of v , and $\bar{d}_v = d_v + 1$. Let $N(v)$ denote the *neighbourhood* of a vertex v . Also, let $N(V) = \bigcup_{v \in V} N(v)$ and $N[V] = N(V) \cup V$. Then $\bar{d}_v = |N[v]|$. Denote by $\delta(G)$ and $\Delta(G)$

the *minimum* and *maximum* degrees of vertices of G , respectively. Put $\delta = \delta(G)$ and $\Delta = \Delta(G)$.

A set D is called a *dominating set* if every vertex not in D is adjacent to one or more vertices in D . The minimum cardinality of a dominating set of G is the *domination number* $\gamma(G)$.

Let α be a real number satisfying $0 < \alpha \leq 1$. A set $X \subseteq V(G)$ is called an α -*dominating set* of G if $|N(v) \cap X| \geq \alpha d_v$ for every vertex $v \in V(G) \setminus X$, i.e. v is adjacent to at least $\lceil \alpha d_v \rceil$ vertices of X . The minimum cardinality of an α -dominating set of G is called the α -*domination number* $\gamma_\alpha(G)$. It is easy to see that $\gamma(G) \leq \gamma_\alpha(G)$, and $\gamma(G) = \gamma_\alpha(G)$ if α is sufficiently close to 0. A set $X \subseteq V(G)$ is considered an α -*rate dominating set* of G if for any vertex $v \in V(G)$, $|N[v] \cap X| \geq \alpha d_v$. The minimum cardinality of an α -rate dominating set of G is called the α -*rate domination number* $\gamma_{\times\alpha}(G)$. It is easy to see that $\gamma_\alpha(G) \leq \gamma_{\times\alpha}(G)$.

Now we consider the vertex-weighted graphs. These are finite and undirected graphs with no loops and multiple edges in which each vertex has been assigned a weight. Let w_v be the weight (cost) of each vertex v of graph G . Let $\gamma_w(G)$ denote a minimum weight of a dominating set X of G and let $\gamma_{\times\alpha,w}$ denote a minimum weight of an α -rate dominating set D . Finding an α -rate dominating set D of G such that $\sum_{v \in D} w_v$ is minimised is the main problem studied in this paper.

2 Previous work

Variants of domination have been studied extensively and have various applications for real life problems. Smaller number of studies in domination parameters consider weighted graphs in particular.

The minimum weighted dominating set problem is one of the classic *NP*-hard optimisation problems in graph theory. Zou et al. [20] studied the minimum-weighted dominating set and the minimum-weighted connected dominating set problems on a node-weighted unit disk graph and devised approximation algorithms for these problems with performance ratios of $5 + \varepsilon$ and $4 + \varepsilon$ respectively. In [18] Polynomial Time Approximation Scheme (PTAS) was generalised for weighted case in polynomial growth bounded graphs with bounded degree constraint. A variant of the weighted dominating set problem - the weighted minimum independent k -domination (WMIkD) problem was studied by Yen in [19]. An algorithm linear in the number of vertices of the input graph for the WMIkD problem on trees is presented.

Discussing a more general domination set problem [3], where the direct connections are replaced with shortest paths corresponding to some measure f defined on the vertices of a graph, the authors give an approximation algorithm for the vertex-weighted version. Using randomised rounding they prove the approximation ratio of $O(\log \Delta)$ for their randomised algorithm, where Δ is the maximum cardinality of the sets of vertices that can be dominated by any single vertex, or in our case a maximum degree of the vertices in the graph.

In [2], the maximum spanning star forest problem is discussed, which is the complement problem of domination set. A 0.71-approximation algorithm for this problem is given, and for vertex-weighted case a 0.64-approximation algorithm is presented.

The α -domination was introduced by Dunbar et al. in [12]. Introduced by Zverovich et al. [6] the concept of α -rate domination can be considered as a particular case of an α dominating set in the same graph. Note that both the α and α -rate domination problems are known to be *NP*-complete. Thus it is of importance to determine bounds for α and α -rate domination numbers and various similar parameters. In [5] and [6] the authors explicitly provide new upper bounds and randomised algorithms for finding the α and α -rate domination sets in terms of a parameter α and graph vertex degrees on undirected simple finite graphs by using probabilistic constructions. Their algorithm is bounded by:

$$\gamma_{\times\alpha}(G) \leq \left(1 - \frac{\hat{\delta}}{(1 + \hat{\delta})^{1+1/\hat{\delta}} \tilde{d}_\alpha^{1/\hat{\delta}}} \right) n, \quad (1)$$

where \tilde{d}_α is a closed α -degree of G and $\hat{\delta} = \lfloor \delta(1 - \alpha) \rfloor + 1$.

Studies of the propagation of influence in the context of social networks carried out by Wang et al. in [16] resulted in introducing new variants of domination such as the positive influence dominating set (PIDS) and total positive influence dominating set (TPIDS). From the definitions given in [16] it is easy to see that PIDS and TPIDS problems are equivalent to α -dominating and α -rate dominating set problems respectively for a special case when $\alpha = 1/2$. Wang et al. proved that both these problems are *NP*-hard. Thus, it is important to study approximability of the problems. In their work Dinh et al. [4] generalise PIDS and TPIDS by allowing any $0 < \alpha < 1$ and show that both problems can be approximated within a factor $\ln \Delta + O(1)$ and present linear time exact algorithm for trees.

3 Randomised rounding algorithm

In this section we present an approximation algorithm by randomised rounding for constructing a minimum weighted α -rate dominating set problem. The algorithm is based on probabilistic method [1] and the techniques used by Chen et al. [3] for simple domination with measure functions (where adjacency maybe replaced with limited length paths) on weighted graphs.

Let us assume that for every vertex v_i , $1 \leq i \leq n$ the variable x_i has the following meaning: $x_i = 1$ if v_i is contained in the α -rate dominating set and $x_i = 0$ otherwise. We consider the following linear programming relaxation LP

of an integer program IP:

$$\begin{aligned}
\min \quad & \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i \\
\text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{v_j \in N[v_i]} x_j \geq \lceil \alpha N(v_i) \rceil, \quad \forall v_i \in V \\
& 0 \leq x_i \leq 1, \quad \forall 1 \leq i \leq n.
\end{aligned}$$

As we know LP is polynomial-time solvable and we may get an optimal solution $\{\hat{x}_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$. If we denote with IP_{OPT} an optimal solution of the corresponding integer program IP we have that

$$IP_{OPT} \geq \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \hat{x}_i. \quad (2)$$

We obtain an IP solution $\{x_i\}_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ by using randomised rounding, setting $x_i = 1$ with probability \hat{x}_i and 0 otherwise. Let D be a set of vertices that have assigned ones after rounding, i.e. $D = \{v_i | x_i = 1, 1 \leq i \leq n\}$.

In the next step we estimate the probability that D is a feasible solution for IP . For any vertex $v \in V$, with d_v neighbours, let $k = \lceil \alpha N(v) \rceil$. We know that $\sum_{i=1}^{\bar{d}_v} x_i \geq k$, and $\forall x_i, 0 \leq x_i \leq 1$. Now, the probability that v_i is α -rate dominated is equal to

$$Pr(v_i \text{ is } \alpha\text{-rate dominated}) = 1 - (Pr(v_i \text{ is not } \alpha\text{-rate dominated})).$$

We can look at this as a sum of \bar{d}_v independent trials, random processes, where the success probability of each trial i is equal to x_i . It is equal to checking how many vertices in $N[v]$ are actually in α -rate dominating set. Thus, all the possible outcomes would be equal to cumulative distribution function(CDF) of Poisson's binomial distribution [17]. Let $S = 1, 2, \dots, \bar{d}_v$, and $\mathcal{F}_k = \{A | A \subseteq S, |A| = k\}$ denote all subsets of S with exactly k members where we are going over all possible combinations. Then $|\mathcal{F}_k| = \binom{\bar{d}_v}{k}$. Let A^C denote a complementary set, i.e. $S \setminus A$.

$$Pr(v_i \text{ is not } \alpha\text{-rate dominated}) = \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} \sum_{A \in \mathcal{F}_l} \left(\prod_{i \in A} x_i \right) \left(\prod_{j \in A^c} (1 - x_j) \right). \quad (3)$$

Theorem 1

$$Pr(v_i \text{ is not } \alpha\text{-rate dominated}) < \frac{1}{2}. \quad (4)$$

Proof. Let the random variable X be the number of neighbours that vertex v has in D . Then X follows Poisson's binomial distribution with parameters $x_1, \dots, x_{\bar{d}_v}$:

$$Pr(X = l) = \sum_{A \in \mathcal{F}_l} \left(\prod_{i \in A} x_i \right) \left(\prod_{j \in A^c} (1 - x_j) \right).$$

Showing our goal (4) is equivalent to showing

$$\frac{1}{2} \leq \sum_{l=k}^{\bar{d}_v} \sum_{A \in \mathcal{F}_l} \left(\prod_{i \in A} x_i \right) \left(\prod_{j \in A^c} (1 - x_j) \right) = Pr(k \leq X). \quad (5)$$

So we are looking for a minimum of the right hand side of (5) subject to $\sum_{i=1}^{\bar{d}_v} x_i \geq k$ (this minimum must exist by continuity and compactness). Clearly the minimum will be found when $\sum_{i=1}^{\bar{d}_v} x_i = k$; increasing one of the x_i s without changing the others will clearly only increase the RHS. So we may assume that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\bar{d}_v} x_i = k. \quad (6)$$

Now we can use the result from [10], Theorem 5, that shows that tail distribution function of Poisson's binomial distribution attains its minimum in binomial distribution, i.e. when all probabilities are equal. The theorem states that for two integers b , and c such that $0 \leq b \leq np \leq c \leq n$, the probability $P(b \leq X \leq c)$ reaches its minimum where all the probabilities $p_1 = \dots = p_n = p$, unless $b = 0$ and $c = n$. Here p_i s are probabilities (or parameters) of Poisson's binomial distribution, and n and p are parameters of related binomial distribution. We apply that theorem taking two integers b and c to be our k and \bar{d}_v respectively. We have that p , the equal probability is $\frac{k}{\bar{d}_v}$ from (6), whence np equals our k . The theorem gives us

$$\sum_{l=k}^{\bar{d}_v} \binom{\bar{d}_v}{l} p^l (1-p)^{\bar{d}_v-l} \leq Pr(k \leq X).$$

Thus, we will be done if we can show that

$$\sum_{l=k}^{\bar{d}_v} \binom{\bar{d}_v}{l} p^l (1-p)^{\bar{d}_v-l} \quad (7)$$

is at least $\frac{1}{2}$. Let Y be a random variable of binomial distribution with \bar{d}_v trials each of probability p . Then observe that in fact $Pr(Y \geq k)$ is equal to (7) above. The median of Y is bounded by $\lfloor \bar{d}_v p \rfloor$ and $\lceil \bar{d}_v p \rceil$ [13], but $\bar{d}_v p$ is exactly the integer k , so k is the unique median of Y . It follows from the defining property of medians that $Pr(Y \geq k) \geq \frac{1}{2}$, and thus $Pr(Y < k) < \frac{1}{2}$ and the proof is complete. \square

Hence, the probability is lower bounded by $\frac{1}{2}$, and the feasibility follows. Let A_i denote the event that vertex v_i is α -rate dominated and let $B = \cap_{i=1}^n A_i$ be the event that all vertices are dominated. Using a technique identical to one carried out in [3], with amplification approach (repeating randomised rounding $t = O(\log_2 \Delta)$ times) which results in $Pr([x_i = 1]) = 1 - (1 - \hat{x}_i)^t$. We obtain

that the expected value of the solution resulted from randomised rounding, given that event B happens, (i.e. that the solution is feasible) is

$$\begin{aligned}
E \left[\sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i | B \right] &= \sum_{i=1}^n w_i Pr([x_i = 1] | B) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \frac{Pr(B | [x_i = 1])}{Pr[B]} Pr(x_i = 1) \\
&\leq \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \frac{1}{\prod_{j \in N(v_i)} Pr(A_j)} (1 - (1 - \hat{x}_i))^t \\
&\leq \frac{t}{2^\Delta} \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \hat{x}_i \\
&\leq O(\log_2 \Delta OPT).
\end{aligned}$$

Hence, there exists a particular solution that it is within $(O \log_2 \Delta)$ ratio to the optimal solution. \square

A simple randomised rounding algorithm AlgRR follows immediately, by first solving LP and then rounding the solutions to zero or one. All vertices with ones then create an α -rate domination set with the sum of the weights within $O(\log_2 \Delta)$ factor of the optimal solution. We implemented AlgRR in Python.

4 Twitter UK mentions network

The Twitter data-set was collected on our behalf by Datasift, a certified Twitter partner, which allowed us to access the full Twitter firehose rather than being rate-limited. The data-set consists of all UK based³ Twitter users that sent tweets with at least one mention between 8 Dec 2011 and 4 Jan 2012 (28 days in total). Mentions are messages that include an @ followed by a username and are used to address people. Thus, if person A posts a tweet containing “@ B ” that means A is addressing the tweet to B specifically. Mentions are not private messages and can be read by anyone who searches for them. A tweet can be addressed to several users simultaneously using @ repetitively.

4.1 Data

We preprocessed the data, removing empty mentions and self-addressing which left us with 3,614,705 time-stamped arcs (individual mentions) from a total of 819,081 distinct usernames, or nodes. We then removed all users who didn’t tweet but just received messages, as we did not have a weight measure for them. There were approximately 50k nodes that appeared both as tweeters and receivers. We aggregated data on weekly basis and kept only two-directional arcs (thus if person A mentioned B and person B mentioned A at least once during

³ All Twitter users appearing in our data-set had selected the UK as their location.

a week there is a bi-directional edge between A and B in a weekly graph). For simplicity, we treated those bi-directional edges as undirected. This left us with 4 undirected weekly graphs with around 5k nodes in each and around 3.5k edges in average. For each vertex we retrieved its *Klout* score and used it as a weight. The Klout score measures an individual’s influence based on her/his social media activity⁴ It is a single number that represents the aggregation of multiple pieces of data about individuals’ social media activity, based on a score model which is not publicly available [14]. The descriptive statistics of the Twitter mentions weekly graphs are given in Table 1 below. As the 4 mentions graphs are quite sparse, we

Table 1. Twitter mentions network statistics, ME denotes number of multi-edges in the original graphs, CC number of connected components in the undirected graphs, K is a klout number.

| Graph | ME | V | E | CC | δ | Δ | δ_{avg} | K_{min} | K_{max} | K_{avg} |
|--------|--------|------|------|------|----------|----------|----------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| twitt1 | 244829 | 5775 | 3716 | 2174 | 1 | 16 | 1.2869 | 10 | 71 | 33 |
| twitt2 | 236104 | 5537 | 3537 | 2094 | 1 | 19 | 1.2776 | 10 | 71 | 34 |
| twitt3 | 226707 | 5279 | 3434 | 1957 | 1 | 15 | 1.3010 | 10 | 71 | 34 |
| twitt4 | 244362 | 5597 | 3599 | 2093 | 1 | 16 | 1.2860 | 10 | 71 | 33 |

experimented in addition with random graphs with similar number of nodes and greater number of edges (denoted *rnd-d*, where d is for dense). We created those random graphs using NetworkX [9] `dense_gnm_random_graph` method which picks a graph randomly out of the set of all graphs with n nodes and m edges. Additionally, we used NetworkX method `powerlaw_cluster_graph` to create graphs with similar number of vertices and edges as random but that also satisfy preferential attachment and high average clustering (we used 0.8 for probability of triangles)[11]. These graphs are denoted with *pref-d*. The details are given in Table 2 .

Table 2. Examples of created random graphs statistics.

| name | V | E | CC | δ | Δ | δ_{avg} | K_{min} | K_{max} | K_{avg} |
|--------|------|-------|----|----------|----------|----------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| rnd-d | 5000 | 50000 | 1 | 4 | 41 | 20 | 1 | 71 | 36 |
| pref-d | 5000 | 49835 | 1 | 9 | 615 | 19.93 | 1 | 71 | 36 |

⁴ In Twitter, Klout focuses on retweets of a user’s tweets, their username mentions by other users, their list memberships on other users’ curated lists, a number of followers and a number and frequency of replies i.e. how engaged they are.

4.2 Results

In this section we investigate how our randomised rounding algorithm AlgRR performs on some real and created networks. We also compare it with the existing α -rate domination algorithm for simple (non-weighted) graphs from [5] (denoted here as AlgA). We have run both algorithms on 4 weekly Twitter random and preferential graphs. As algorithms are randomised, we have run both algorithms 100 times taking averages. Results are presented in Tables 3 and 4 below. The results show that for dense networks (networks denoted with *pref-d* and *rnd-d*) the algorithm AlgRR outperforms algorithm A significantly and not only on minimum weights (which would be expected, as algorithm A optimises the size of α -rate dominating set, while algorithm AlgRR optimises the weights) but also on the sizes of α -rate dominating sets. According to the theoretical bounds of algorithm A the probability with which each candidate vertex for α -rate dominating set is selected gets close to 1 for dense network *pref-d*, thus resulting in selecting all the nodes of the network. However on sparse networks such as *twitt1-4* Algorithm A slightly outperforms algorithm AlgRR.

Table 3. Alpha-rate domination sets' sizes (#), weights(W) and running times(T) for AlgA, for different graphs and $\alpha = 0.25, 0.5, 0.75$ respectively.

| Graph | Avg# | AvgW | Min# | Max# | MaxW | MinW | AvgT(ms) |
|------------|------|--------|------|------|--------|--------|----------|
| pref-d0.25 | 5000 | 193419 | 5000 | 5000 | 193419 | 193419 | 12.71 |
| pref-d0.5 | 5000 | 194267 | 5000 | 5000 | 194267 | 194267 | 12.87 |
| pref-d0.75 | 5000 | 188938 | 5000 | 5000 | 188938 | 188938 | 13.09 |
| rnd-d0.25 | 4730 | 182675 | 4689 | 4768 | 184149 | 180909 | 12.11 |
| rnd-d0.5 | 4991 | 191934 | 4985 | 4998 | 192222 | 191573 | 12.35 |
| rnd-d0.75 | 4998 | 194278 | 4994 | 5000 | 194343 | 194082 | 12.58 |
| twitt10.25 | 4328 | 146960 | 4259 | 4408 | 149577 | 144171 | 3.21 |
| twitt10.5 | 5291 | 179701 | 5222 | 5334 | 181377 | 176986 | 4.21 |
| twitt10.75 | 5056 | 171733 | 4993 | 5113 | 173600 | 169609 | 3.80 |
| twitt20.25 | 4612 | 157207 | 4539 | 4670 | 159495 | 154516 | 3.22 |
| twitt20.5 | 5453 | 185872 | 5436 | 5475 | 186780 | 185343 | 3.77 |
| twitt20.75 | 5259 | 179254 | 5217 | 5297 | 180618 | 177888 | 3.58 |
| twitt30.25 | 3960 | 135557 | 3879 | 4031 | 138291 | 132624 | 2.70 |
| twitt30.5 | 4897 | 167738 | 4854 | 4946 | 169551 | 165730 | 3.60 |
| twitt30.75 | 4753 | 162770 | 4697 | 4794 | 164233 | 160732 | 3.24 |
| twitt40.25 | 4195 | 142143 | 4119 | 4289 | 145122 | 139323 | 3.24 |
| twitt40.5 | 5127 | 173809 | 5069 | 5183 | 175550 | 171776 | 3.64 |
| twitt40.75 | 5036 | 170727 | 4979 | 5092 | 172826 | 168874 | 3.53 |

Since the algorithm AlgRR is based on *LP*-relaxation technique it runs in polynomial time. Our results show that the fastest run for algorithm is 6.99 ms on *twitt3* network where $\alpha = 0.25$, and the longest time it takes to run is 1180.02 ms on dense network (*rnd-d*) where $\alpha = 0.75$.

Table 4. Alpha-rate domination sets' sizes, weights and running times for AlgRR, for different graphs and $\alpha = 0.25, 0.5, 0.75$ respectively.

| Graph | Avg# | AvgW | Min# | Max# | MaxW | MinW | AvgT(ms) |
|------------|------|--------|------|------|--------|--------|----------|
| pref-d0.25 | 979 | 16647 | 578 | 1512 | 30845 | 7124 | 65.70 |
| pref-d0.5 | 2158 | 51541 | 1498 | 2777 | 75523 | 28143 | 139.24 |
| pref-d0.75 | 3489 | 109794 | 2661 | 4279 | 149581 | 71461 | 256.96 |
| rnd-d0.25 | 1604 | 28367 | 960 | 2420 | 56342 | 10869 | 341.29 |
| rnd-d0.5 | 2688 | 68953 | 1843 | 3664 | 115395 | 34074 | 870.87 |
| rnd-d0.75 | 3901 | 130250 | 2747 | 4770 | 180502 | 70105 | 1180.02 |
| twitt10.25 | 4628 | 153367 | 4607 | 4655 | 154355 | 152560 | 8.79 |
| twitt10.5 | 4817 | 159901 | 4792 | 4837 | 160658 | 158939 | 9.11 |
| twitt10.75 | 5665 | 191648 | 5665 | 5665 | 191648 | 191648 | 9.29 |
| twitt20.25 | 4443 | 148065 | 4413 | 4469 | 148980 | 147007 | 7.77 |
| twitt20.5 | 4595 | 153249 | 4566 | 4625 | 154311 | 152196 | 8.06 |
| twitt20.75 | 5431 | 184481 | 5431 | 5431 | 184481 | 184481 | 8.13 |
| twitt30.25 | 4191 | 140094 | 4166 | 4220 | 141094 | 139172 | 6.99 |
| twitt30.5 | 4360 | 145765 | 4321 | 4391 | 146869 | 144362 | 7.13 |
| twitt30.75 | 5159 | 175854 | 5159 | 5159 | 175854 | 175854 | 7.26 |
| twitt40.25 | 4459 | 147854 | 4447 | 4471 | 148289 | 147384 | 7.80 |
| twitt40.5 | 4637 | 153552 | 4624 | 4651 | 154067 | 153058 | 8.12 |
| twitt40.75 | 5468 | 184486 | 5468 | 5468 | 184486 | 184486 | 8.16 |

The analysis of AlgA has shown similar spread of solutions for different runs, and were relatively stable. For algorithm AlgRR the results in Table 4 show significant difference between minimum and maximum cardinalities of α -rate dominating sets for dense networks *pref-d* and *rnd-d*. This indicates that the values of variables in the solutions obtained by *LP* relaxation are spread out over $(0, 1)$ interval (i.e. are fractional). We have verified the spread and consistency by performing additional 200 runs for algorithm AlgRR where $\alpha = 0.25$ for *pref-d* and *rnd-d* networks and recorded the average number of variables in the solution obtaining values from $(0, 0.5]$ and $(0.5, 1)$ intervals as well as the average number of variables with values equal to 1 (see Table 5). Our results also show that by

Table 5. Spread of variables' values in the solutions obtained by *LP* relaxation in AlgRR

| name | α | Avg# Var $\in (0, 0.5]$ | Avg# Var $\in (0.5, 1]$ | Avg# Var = 1 |
|---------------|----------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------|
| <i>rnd-d</i> | 0.25 | 808 | 744 | 838 |
| <i>pref-d</i> | 0.25 | 503 | 477 | 494 |

increasing the number of runs for algorithm AlgRR up to 200 on *pref-d* and *rnd-d* networks, the difference between minimum and maximum cardinalities of

α -rate dominating sets does not change significantly compared with the results obtained from 100 runs. Thus it can be concluded that more runs are unlikely to achieve better results.

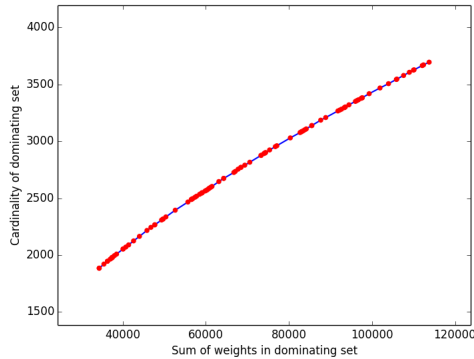


Fig. 1. Variation in size and weight for 100 runs of AlgRR, for *rnd-d*, $\alpha = 0.5$

On Figure 1 given are sizes and weights for 100 runs for AlgRR on *rnd-d* networks where $\alpha = 0.5$. Similar plots were obtained for all graphs and for both algorithms.

5 Conclusion

We have explored how to pick optimal sets of individuals for interventions in social networks. If each person in network has assigned a cost, the aim was to find a group of people having minimum sum of costs so that each individual in network has at least $\alpha * 100$ percent of its neighbourhood in this designated group. We presented a randomised algorithm for finding approximation of minimum weight α rate domination set in graphs. We proved that this algorithm’s output is within $O(\log_2 \Delta)$ ratio of the optimal solution. We are not aware of any other existing algorithms that work for α -rate domination on vertex-weighted networks. We have shown on the real-life networks that the algorithm compares beneficially with the existing algorithm for non-weighted version and for the denser generated networks produces in most cases not just sets with smaller sums of weights but also significantly smaller sets. This is compensated by longer running time, as a linear program needs to be solved. Thus, although we were able to run our algorithm in reasonable time on graphs with around 50k edges, it would be interesting to look at the different solutions scalable for very large networks.

Acknowledgments. This work is partially funded by the RCUK Digital Economy programme via EPSRC grant EP/G065802/1 ‘The Horizon Hub’. We would like to thank Datasift for the provision of the data analysed.

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