

Understanding Group Structures and Properties in Social Media

Lei Tang and Huan Liu

Abstract The rapid growth of Web 2.0 and social networking sites enables people to connect to each other more conveniently than ever. With easy-to-use social media, people contribute and consume contents, leading to a new form of human interaction and the emergence of collective behavior. In this chapter, we aim to understand group structures and properties by extracting and profiling communities in social media. We present some challenges of community detection in social media. A prominent one is that networks in social media are often heterogeneous. We introduce two types of heterogeneity presented in online social networks and elaborate corresponding community detection approaches for each type, respectively. Social media provides not only interaction information but also textual and tag data. This variety of data can be exploited to develop a viable solution to profiling individual groups in understanding group formation. We also suggest some future work in understanding group structures and properties.

1 Introduction

Social media such as Facebook, MySpace, Twitter, BlogSpot facilities people of all walks of life to express their thoughts, voice their opinions, and connect to each other anytime and anywhere. For instance, popular content-sharing sites like Del.icio.us, Flickr, and YouTube allow users to upload, tag and comment different types of contents (bookmarks, photos, videos). Users registered in these sites can also become friends, a fan or a follower of others. Social media offers rich informa-

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tion of human interaction and collective behavior in a much larger scale (hundreds of thousands or millions of actors). It is gaining increasing attention across various disciplines including sociology, behavior science, anthropology, computer science, epidemics, economics, marketing business, to name a few.

With the prolific and expanded use of web and social media, virtual communities and online interactions have become a vital part of human experience. Members of virtual communities tend to share similar interests or topics, and connect to each other in a community more frequently than with those outside the community. For example, there can be two groups browsing news at a website, say *digg.com*: one is interested in topics related to *Meteorology*, while the other in *Politics*; A blogger (say the owner of *http://hunch.net/*) who publishes blog posts actively on “machine learning” often has links on his/her blog site to other bloggers who concentrate on “machine learning” as well. It would be interesting to find these like-minded individuals for developing many other applications to enhance personal experience or to improve business intelligence. In this work, we focus on *communities* (or equivalently *groups*) in social media. There is a wide range of applications to find out the groups (a.k.a. *community detection*) based on the interactions among actors and capture group properties via shared topics, including visualization [5], recommendation and classification [13], influence study [1], direct marketing, group tracking and recommendation.

Community detection is a classical task in social network analysis. However, some new features presented in networks of social media entail novel solutions that handle online communities.

- *Heterogeneity*. Networks in social media tend to involve multiple types of entities or interactions. For instance, in content sharing sites like Flickr and YouTube, multiple types of entities: users, tags, comments and contents are intertwined with each other. Sometimes, users within the same social network site can interact with each other in various forms, leading to the heterogeneous type of interactions between them. It is intriguing to explore whether or not exploiting the heterogeneous information can help identify communities. It is also challenging to figure out ways to effectively fusing these heterogeneous types of information.
- *Large-Scale Networks*. Networks in social media are typically of a much larger scale than traditional social network analysis. Traditional social network analysis relies on circulation of questionnaires or surveys to collect interaction information of human subjects, limiting the scale of analysis to hundreds of actors mostly. Hence, scalability is seldom a focus there. Networks in social media, on the contrary, involve a much larger number actors, which calls attention to the scalability of community detection. In addition, large-scale networks yield similar patterns, such as power-law distribution for node degrees and small-world effect [2]. It is yet not clear how these patterns can help or guide data mining tasks.
- *Collective Intelligence*. In social media, crowd wisdom, in forms of tags and comments, is available. Is it possible to employ the collective intelligence to help understand the group structure and property? For instance, how to characterize a group? How to differentiate a group from others in social media? What are potential causes that make some users form a community? One way is to pro-

file groups in order to capture group interests shared by members within one group. This profile might change as well. How can we update the group interests accordingly as information evolves?

Given the concerns above, we will mainly discuss two research issues concerning communities in social media: (1) Identifying communities in social media, via the readily-available interaction information; and (2) Profiling groups dynamically using descriptive tags via taxonomy adaptation. The two research tasks are highly related to each other. The first task identifies groups, serving as the basis for the second one; and the second task helps understand the formulation of identified groups and unravel properties why users join together to form a group. In the following section, we first introduce networks in social media, define the problems of interest and the motivations. We will then elucidate the technical details with challenges and solutions for both tasks in the subsequent sections.

2 Heterogeneous Networks in Social Media

There are two types of heterogeneous networks that demand special attention. We first illustrate these two types of networks and then the necessity for considering heterogeneity in community detection.

2.1 Heterogeneous Networks

With social media, people can connect to each other more conveniently than ever. In some social networking sites, entities other than human beings can also be involved. For instance, in YouTube, a user can upload a video and another user can tag it. In other words, the users, videos, and tags are knit together in the same network. The “actors” in the network are not homogeneous. Furthermore, examining activities of users, we can observe different interaction networks between the same set of actors. Take YouTube as an example. A user can become a friend of another user; he can also subscribe to another user. The existence of different relations suggests that the interactions between actors are not homogeneous. Networks involving heterogeneous actors or interactions are referred as *heterogeneous networks*. Accordingly, heterogeneous networks can be categorized in two different types:

- *Multi-Mode Networks* [16]. A multi-mode network involves heterogeneous actors. Each mode represents one type of entities. For instance, in YouTube example above, a 3-mode network can be constructed, with videos, tags and users each representing a mode. This is denoted in Figure 1. There are disparate interactions among the three types of entities: users can upload videos, and can also provide tags for some videos. Intuitively, two users contributing similar videos or tags are likely to share interests. Videos sharing similar tags or users are more likely

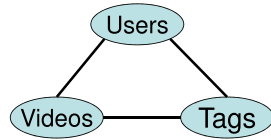


Fig. 1 An example of multi-mode network in YouTube

to be related. Note that in the network, both tags, and videos are also considered as “actors”, though the user is probably the major mode under consideration.

Other domains involving networks or interactions also encounter multi-mode networks. An example of multi-mode network is academic publications as shown in Figure 2. Various kinds of related objects (researchers, conferences/journals, papers, words) are considered. Scientific literature connects papers by citations; papers are published at different places (conferences, journals, workshops, thesis, etc.); and researchers are connected to papers through authorship. Some might relate to each other by serving simultaneously as journal editors or on conference program committees. Moreover, each paper can focus on different topics, which are represented by words. Words are associated to each other based on semantics. At the same time, papers connect to different conferences, journals (venues for publication). In the network, there are multiple types of objects. And objects relate to others (either the same type or different types) through different links.

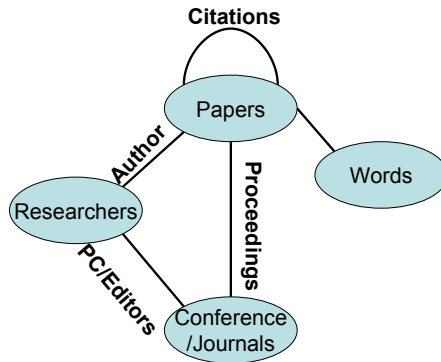


Fig. 2 An example of multi-mode network in Academia

- *Multi-Dimensional Networks* [14]. A multi-dimensional network has multiple types of interactions (relations) between the same set of users. Each dimension of the network represents one type of activity (or one relation) between users. For instance, as in Figure 3, at popular photo and video sharing sites (Flickr and YouTube), a user can connect to his friends through email invitation or the provided “add as contacts” function; users can also tag/comment on the social contents like photos and videos; a user at YouTube can respond to another user

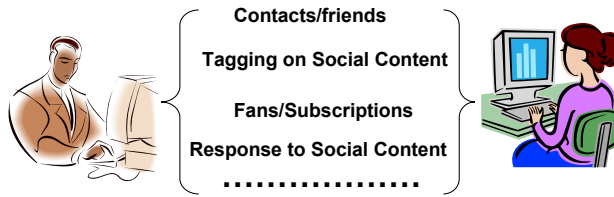


Fig. 3 An Example of Multi-Dimensional Network

by uploading a video; and a user can also become a fan of another user by subscription to the user's contributions of social contents. A network among these users can be constructed based on each form of activity, in which each dimension represents one facet of diverse interaction.

Actually, directed networks can be considered as a special case of multi-dimensional network. Take email communications as an example. People can play two different roles in email communications: senders and receivers. These two roles are not interchangeable. Spammers in the network send an overwhelming number of emails to normal users but seldom receive responses from them. The sender and receiver roles essentially represent two different interaction patterns. A 2-dimensional network can be constructed to capture the roles of senders and receivers. In the first dimension, two actors are deemed related if they both send emails the same person; In the other dimension, two actors interact if they both receive emails from another actor. A similar idea is also adopted as "Hubs" and "Authorities" on Web pages [7].

A multi-dimensional network is also called a *multi-relational network* [18] if each dimension of the interaction denotes one relation. Generally, a multi-dimensional network allows multiple relations to coexist between two actors.

In this chapter, we do not emphasize the concept *multi-relational network*, as "multi-relational" has been used with different connotations depending on the domains. For example, multi-relational data mining [3], which originates from the field of database, focuses on data mining tasks with multiple relational tables. This concept can be extended to networks as well. One special case is to consider each table as the interaction of two types of entities, leading to a multi-mode network. Meanwhile, social scientists [18] use multi-relational network for a different meaning. A multi-relational network is a network in which the connections (edges) between actors represent different type of relations, e.g., father-of, wife-of, etc. Unless specified explicitly, a *multi-relational network* is equated to a *multi-dimensional network* thereafter in the chapter.

Note that the two types of networks (multi-mode and multi-dimensional) mentioned above are not exclusive. A complicated network can be both multi-mode and multi-dimensional at the same time. As presented later, techniques to address these two types of networks can be fused together for community discovery.

2.2 Motivation

Social media offers an easy-access platform for diverse online social activities, but also introduces heterogeneity in networks. Thus, it calls for solutions to extract communities in heterogeneous networks, which will be covered in the next section. However, it remains unanswered why one cannot reduce a heterogeneous network to several homogeneous ones (i.e., one mode or one dimension) for investigation. The reason is that, the interaction information in one mode or one dimension might be too noisy to detect meaningful communities. For instance, in the YouTube example in Figure 1. It seems acceptable if we only consider the user mode. In other words, just study the friends network. On the one hand, some users might not have any online friends either because they are too introvert to talk to other online users, or because they just join the network and are not ready for or not interested in friends connections. On the other hand, some users might abuse connections, since it is relatively easy to make connections in social media compared with physical world. As mentioned in [13], a user in Flickr can have thousands of friends. This can hardly be true in the real world. It might be the case that two online users get connected but they never talk to each other. Thus, these online connections of one mode or one dimension can hardly paint a true picture of what is happening.

One type of interaction provides limited (often sparse) information about the community membership of online users. Fortunately, social media provides more than just a single friendship network. A user might engage in other forms of activities besides connecting to friends. It is helpful to utilize information from other modes or dimensions for more effective community detection. It is empirically verified that communities extracted using multiple-mode or multiple-dimension information are more accurate and robust [14].

3 Community Extraction in Heterogeneous Networks

We first formulate the community detection problems for multi-mode networks and multi-dimensional networks, respectively; and then present viable solutions and their connections.

3.1 Multi-Mode Networks

Given an m -mode network with m types of actors

$$\mathbb{X}_i = \{x_1^i, x_2^i, \dots, x_{n_i}^i\} \quad i = 1, \dots, m$$

where n_i is the number of actors for \mathbb{X}_i , we aim to find community structures in each mode. Let $R_{i,j} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i \times n_j}$ denote the interaction between two modes of actors \mathbb{X}_i and

Table 1 Notations

symbol	representation
m	number of modes in a multi-mode network
n_i	number of actors in mode i
k_i	number of communities at mode i
$R_{i,j}$	interaction matrix between mode i and j
C_i	community indicator matrix of mode i
$A_{i,j}$	group interaction density between mode i and j
c_{st}^i	the (s,t) -th entry of C_i
\mathcal{R}	a multi-dimensional network
R_d	the d th dimension of multi-dimensional network
n	number of actors within a multi-dimensional network
d	the dimensionality of a multi-dimensional network
k	number of communities within a network
C	the community indicator matrix

\mathbb{X}_j , k_i and k_j denote the number of latent communities for \mathbb{X}_i and \mathbb{X}_j , respectively. The interactions between actors can be approximated by the interactions between groups in the following form [9]:

$$R_{i,j} \approx C_i A_{i,j} C_j^T$$

where $C_i \in \{0, 1\}^{n_i \times k_i}$ denotes some latent cluster membership for \mathbb{X}_i , $A_{i,j}$ the group interaction, and T the transpose of a matrix. In other words, the group identity determines how two actors interact, which is essentially making similar assumption as that of block models [12]. The difference is that block models deal with the problem from a probabilistic aspect and concentrate on one-mode or two-mode networks. Here we try to identify the block structure of multi-mode networks via matrix approximation:

$$\min \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq m} w_{ij} \|R_{i,j} - C_i A_{i,j} C_j^T\|_F^2 \quad (1)$$

$$s.t. C_i \in \{0, 1\}^{n_i \times k_i} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m \quad (2)$$

$$\sum_{t=1}^{k_i} c_{st}^i = 1, \quad s = 1, 2, \dots, n_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \quad (3)$$

where w_{ij} are the weights associated with different interactions and c_{st}^i the (s,t) th entry of C_i .

The constraints in Eq. (3) force each row of the indicator matrix to have only one entry being 1. That is, each actor belongs to only one community. Unfortunately, the discreteness of the constraints in Eq. (2) makes the problem NP-hard. A strategy that has been well studied in spectral clustering is to allow the cluster indicator matrix to be continuous and relax the hard clustering constraint as follows:

$$C_i^T C_i = I_{k_i}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m \quad (4)$$

This continuous approximation of C_i can be considered as a low-dimensional embedding such that the community structure is more prominent in these dimensions. Consequently, the problem can be reformulated as

$$\min_{C, A} \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq m} w_{ij} \|R_{i,j} - C_i A_{i,j} C_j^T\|_F^2 \quad (5)$$

$$s.t. \quad C_i^T C_i = I_{k_i}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m \quad (6)$$

Since the solution of C_i of the above formulation is continuous, a post-processing step is required to obtain the disjoint partition of actors. A commonly used technique is to treat each column of C_i as features and then conduct k-means clustering to obtain discrete assignment of clusters [10]. Below, we briefly describe the computation of $A_{i,j}$ and C_i in Eq. (5).

Note that the problem in Eq. (5) is too complicated to derive a closed-form solution. However, it can be solved iteratively. First, we show that $A_{i,j}$ has a closed-form solution when C_i is fixed. Then, we plug in the optimal $A_{i,j}$ and compute C_i via alternating optimization. Basically, fix the community indicator at all other modes while computing the community indicator C_i at mode i . We only include the key proof here due to the space limit. Please refer to [9, 16] for details.

Theorem 1. *If C_i are given, the optimal group interaction matrix $A_{i,j}$ can be calculated as*

$$A_{i,j} = C_i^T R_{i,j} C_j \quad (7)$$

Proof. Since $A_{i,j}$ appears only in a single term, we can focus on the term to optimize $A_{i,j}$.

$$\begin{aligned} & \|R_{i,j} - C_i A_{i,j} C_j^T\|_F^2 \\ &= \text{tr} [(R_{i,j} - C_i A_{i,j} C_j^T)(R_{i,j} - C_i A_{i,j} C_j^T)^T] \\ &= \text{tr} [R_{i,j} R_{i,j}^T - 2C_i A_{i,j} C_j^T R_{i,j}^T + A_{i,j} A_{i,j}^T] \end{aligned}$$

The second equation is obtained via the property that $\text{tr}(AB) = \text{tr}(BA)$ and column orthogonality of C_i and C_j . Setting the derivative with respect to $A_{i,j}^t$ to zero, we have $A_{i,j} = C_i^T R_{i,j} C_j$. The proof is completed. \square

Given the optimal $A_{i,j}$ as in Eq. (7), it can be verified that

$$\|R_{i,j} - C_i A_{i,j} C_j^T\|_F^2 = \|R_{i,j}\|_F^2 - \|C_i^T R_{i,j} C_j\|_F^2 \quad (8)$$

Since $\|R_{i,j}^t\|_F^2$ in (8) are constants, we can transform formulation in Eq. (5) into the following objective:

$$\max \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq m} w_{ij} \|C_i^T R_{i,j} C_j\|_F^2 \quad (9)$$

$$s.t. \quad C_i^T C_i = I_{k_i}, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m \quad (10)$$

Note that C_i is interrelated with C_j ($j \neq i$). There is no closed form solution in general. However, given C_j ($j \neq i$), the optimal C_i can be computed as follows:

Theorem 2. Given C_j ($j \neq i$), C_i can be computed as the top left singular vectors of the matrix P_i concatenated by the following matrices in column-wise:

$$P_i = \left[\left\{ \sqrt{w_{ij}} R_{i,j} C_j \right\}_{i < j}, \left\{ \sqrt{w_{ki}} R_{k,i}^T C_k \right\}_{k < i} \right] \quad (11)$$

Proof. We only focus on those terms in the objective involving C_i .

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \sum_{i < j} w_{ij} \|C_i^T R_{i,j} C_j\|_F^2 + \sum_{k < i} w_{ki} \|C_k^T R_{k,i} C_i\|_F^2 \\ &= \sum_{i < j} w_{ij} \operatorname{tr} (C_i^T R_{i,j} C_j C_j^T R_{i,j} C_i) + \sum_{k < i} w_{ki} \operatorname{tr} (C_i^T R_{k,i}^T C_k C_k^T R_{k,i}) \\ &= \operatorname{tr} \left[C_i^T \left(\sum_{i < j} w_{ij} R_{i,j} C_j C_j^T R_{i,j} + \sum_{k < i} w_{ki} R_{k,i}^T C_k C_k^T R_{k,i} \right) C_i \right] \\ &= \operatorname{tr} (C_i^T M_i C_i) \end{aligned}$$

where M_i is defined as

$$M_i = \sum_{i < j} w_{ij} R_{i,j} C_j C_j^T R_{i,j} + \sum_{k < i} w_{ki} R_{k,i}^T C_k C_k^T R_{k,i} \quad (12)$$

So the problem boils down to a well-defined max-trace problem with orthogonality constraints. The community indicator matrix C_i has a closed form solution, which corresponds to the subspace spanned by the top k_i eigenvectors of M_i . Note that M_i is normally a dense $n_i \times n_i$ matrix. Direct calculation of M_i and its eigenvectors is expensive if n_i is huge (which is typically true in social media). However, M_i can be written as

$$M_i = P_i P_i^T \quad (13)$$

where P_i is defined as in Eq. (11). Thus the optimal C_i , which corresponds to the top eigenvectors of M_i can be computed as the top left singular vectors of P_i . Note that the ordering of columns in P_i does not affect the final solution. \square

As can be seen in Eq. (11), the clustering results of interacted objects, essentially form weighted features for clustering of the i th mode. The matrix M_i , being the outer product of P_i , acts like a similarity matrix for clustering. Based on Theorem 2, we can update the cluster indicator matrix iteratively based on the ‘‘attributes’’ obtained from the clustering results of related objects.

Once the approximate cluster indicator matrix C_i is computed, k-means can be applied to obtain the discrete assignment of communities for actors at each mode. The overall description of the algorithm is presented in Figure 4. In the algorithm, we specify the objective to be calculated via Eq. (9), as the direct calculation of the original formation in Eq. (5) usually requires computation of dense matrices, which is not applicable for large-scale multi-mode networks.

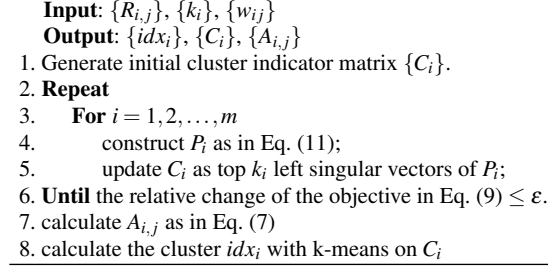


Fig. 4 Algorithm for Community Extraction in Multi-Mode Networks

3.2 Multi-Dimensional Networks

In a multi-dimensional network, there are multiple dimensions of interactions between the same set of users. A latent community structure in social media exists among these actors, indicating various interactions along different dimensions. The goal of community extraction in a multi-dimensional network is to infer the shared community structure. A d -dimensional network is represented as

$$\mathcal{R} = \{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_d\}$$

R_i represents the interactions among actors in the i -th dimension. For simplicity, we assume the interaction matrix R_i is symmetric. We use $C \in \{0, 1\}^{n \times k}$ to denote the community membership of each actor.

Since the goal of community extraction in multi-dimensional networks is to identify a shared community structure that explains the interaction in each dimension, one straightforward approach is to average the interaction in each dimension, and treat it as a normal single-dimensional network. Then, any community extraction methods proposed for networks or graphs can be applied. This simple averaging approach becomes problematic if the interaction in each dimension is not directly comparable. For example, it can be the case that in one dimension, users interact with each other frequently in one dimension (say, leave some comment on friend's photos), whereas talk to each other less frequently in another (say, sending emails in Facebook). Averaging the two types of interaction might misrepresent the hidden community information beneath the latter dimension with less frequent interactions. One way to alleviate this problem is to assign different weights for each dimension. Unfortunately, it is not an easy task to assign appropriate weights for effective community extraction.

Another variant is to optimize certain averaged clustering criteria. Let $Q_i(C)$ denote the cost of community structure C on the i th dimension of interaction R_i . We list some representative criteria in existing body of literature as follows:

- Block model approximation [19] minimizes the divergence of the interaction matrix and block model approximation:

$$\min Q = \ell(R; C^T \Lambda C) \quad (14)$$

where ℓ is a loss function to measure the difference of two matrices, and Λ a diagonal matrix roughly representing the within-group interaction density.

- Spectral Clustering [10] minimizes the following cost function

$$\min Q = \text{tr}(C^T L C) \quad (15)$$

where L is the graph Laplacian.

- Modularity maximization [11] maximizes the modularity of a community assignment:

$$\max Q = \text{tr}(C^T B C) \quad (16)$$

where B is a modularity matrix.

Given a multi-dimensional network, we can optimize the following cost function,

$$\min_C \sum_{i=1}^d w_i Q_i(C) \quad (17)$$

The weighted optimization criterion with graph Laplacian and random walk interpretation are presented in [20]. Weighted modularity maximization is explored in [14] as a baseline approach.

The drawback of the aforementioned two approaches is that they can be sensitive to noisy interactions. Assigning proper weights can help alleviate the problem, but it is equally, if not more, difficult to choose a good heuristic of weighting scheme. Instead, an alternative paradigm based on structural features is proposed in [14] to overcome these disadvantages. The basic idea is that the community structure extracted from each dimension of the network should be similar. Hence, we can extract the “rough” community structure at each dimension, and then integrate them all to find out the shared community structure. Thus, the paradigm consists of two phases: (i) *structural feature extraction from each dimension* and (ii) *cross-dimension integration*.

- **Phase I: Structural Feature Extraction** *Structural features* are extracted from network connectivity information, which are indicative of some community structure. Any methods finding out a community assignment can be used to extract structural features. Note that finding out a discrete assignment of clusters with respect to the criteria in Eq. (14) - Eq. (16) is NP-complete. Commonly used algorithms are very sensitive to the network structure [4] and suffer from local optima. In practice, some approximation scheme of the discrete assignment is often exploited.

One widely used relaxation, as we have done in the previous section, is to allow C to be continuous while satisfying certain orthogonal constraints (i.e., $C^T C = I_k$). This relaxation results in an approximation of C which can be considered as a lower-dimensional embedding that captures the community structure. The optimal C typically corresponds to the top eigenvectors of a certain matrix. This

relaxation is adopted in [11] for modularity maximization and many spectral clustering approaches [10]. Note that after relaxation, the obtained community indicator matrix C is typically globally optimal with respect to certain criteria. This avoids the randomness of a discrete assignment due to noise in the network structure or algorithm initialization. Hence, structural feature extraction based on relaxed community indicator is a more favorable solution.

Networks in social media are very noisy. Extracting some prominent structural features indeed help remove the noise, enabling more accurate community identification in the second stage. One effective heuristic to select $2k$ structural features if there are k communities in the network [14]. Of course other alternatives can also be explored.

- **Phase II: Cross-Dimension Integration** Assuming a latent community structure is shared across dimensions in a multi-dimensional network, we expect that the extracted structural features to be “similar”. However, dissimilar structural feature-values do not necessarily indicate that the corresponding community structures are different as an orthogonal transformation or reordering of columns in C can be “equivalent” solutions [14]. Instead, we expect the structural features of different dimensions to be highly correlated after certain transformation. Thus, the integration boils down to finding transformations that can be applied to the extracted structural features to maximize the correlation.

To capture the correlations between multiple sets of variables, (generalized) canonical correlation analysis (CCA) [6] is a standard statistical technique. CCA attempts to find a transformation for each set of variables such that the pairwise correlations are maximized. Here we briefly illustrate one scheme of generalized CCA that turns out to equal to principal component analysis (PCA) under certain constraints.

Let $C_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times \ell_i}$ denote the ℓ_i structural features extracted from the i th dimension of the network, and $w_i \in \mathbb{R}^{\ell_i}$ be the linear transformation applied to the structural features of network dimension i . The correlation between two dimensions after transformation is

$$(C_i w_i)^T (C_j w_j) = w_i^T (C_i^T C_j) w_j = w_i^T O_{ij} w_j$$

with $O_{ij} = C_i^T C_j$ representing the covariance between the structural features of the i th and the j th dimensions. One scheme of generalized CCA attempts to maximize the summation of pairwise correlations in the following form:

$$\max \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^d w_i^T O_{ij} w_j \quad (18)$$

$$s.t. \sum_{i=1}^d w_i^T O_{ii} w_i = 1 \quad (19)$$

Here, the objective in Eq. (18) is to maximize the pairwise correlations; and the constraints in Eq. (19) confine the scale of transformation. Using standard Lagrange multiplier and setting the derivatives respect to w_i to zero, we obtain

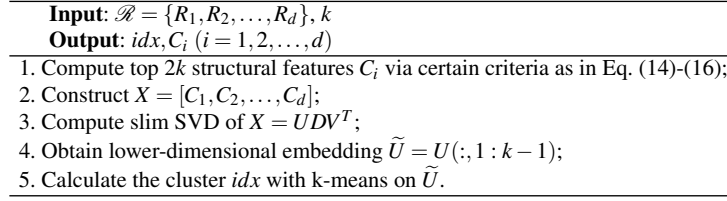


Fig. 5 Algorithm for Community Extraction in Multi-Dimensional Networks

the following:

$$\begin{bmatrix} O_{11} & O_{12} & \cdots & O_{1d} \\ O_{21} & O_{22} & \cdots & O_{2d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ O_{d1} & O_{d2} & \cdots & O_{dd} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_d \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} O_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & O_{22} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & O_{dd} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_d \end{bmatrix} \quad (20)$$

Recall that our structural features extracted from each dimension satisfy $C_i^T C_i = I$. Thus, the matrix $diag(O_{11}, O_{22}, \dots, O_{dd})$ in Eq. (20) becomes an identity matrix. Hence $\mathbf{w} = [w_1, w_2, \dots, w_d]^T$ corresponds the top eigenvector of the full covariance matrix on the left-hand side in Eq. (20). This is essentially equivalent to PCA applied to data of the following form:

$$X = [C_1, C_2, \dots, C_d] \quad (21)$$

After the transformation w to the structural feature sets, the corresponding community at each dimension get aligned with each other. In order to partition the actors into k disjoint communities, we can extract the top $k - 1$ dimensions such that the community structure is most prominent. Let $X = UDV^T$ be the SVD of X . It follows that the top $(k - 1)$ vectors of U are the lower-dimensional embedding.

In summary, to handle multiple dimensions of network interaction, we can first extract structural features from each dimension. Then, we concatenate all the structural features and perform PCA to find out the low-dimensional embedding. Based on the embedding, k-means can be applied to find out the discrete community assignment. The detailed algorithm is summarized in Figure 5.

Differing from the two alternatives (average interaction or average criteria to optimize), the proposed approach is more robust to noisy interactions in multi-dimensional networks. Moreover, this scheme does not require any weighting scheme for real-world deployment.

Comparing the algorithms for multi-mode networks and multi-dimensional networks respectively, we can find a common component in these two algorithms: *extract structural features and concatenate them to form a feature-based data set of actors, and then apply SVD to obtain the lower-dimensional embedding* (Steps 4-5 in Figure 4 and Steps 2-4 in Figure 5). The basic scheme is to *convert the network*

interactions into features. This scheme can work not only for community identification, but also for relational learning and behavior prediction [13].

A network of social media can be both multi-mode and multi-dimensional. One can combine the two algorithm to handle multi-mode and multi-dimensional challenges. The combination is straightforward: if there are within-mode interactions that are multi-dimensional, we can simply append to P_i in Eq. (11) some structural features that are indicative of the community structure. That is,

$$P_i = \left[\left\{ \sqrt{w_{ij}} R_{i,j} C_j \right\}_{i < j}, \left\{ \sqrt{w_{ki}} R_{k,i}^T C_k \right\}_{k < i}, \left\{ C_i^d \right\} \right] \quad (22)$$

where C_i^d denotes the structural features extracted from d th dimension of interaction in the i th mode. This way the presented algorithm is able to handle diverse heterogeneous networks.

4 Understanding Groups

In earlier sections, we concentrate on group structures. That is, how to extract groups from network information. Extracting groups is the first step for further analysis to answer questions such as “why are these people get connected to each other?” In this section, we seek to capture group profiles in terms of topics or interests they share. This helps understand group formation as well as other group related task analysis. As group’s interests might change over time, a static group profile cannot keep pace with an evolving environment. Therefore, *dynamic online group profiling* [15] is proposed to serve the need.

4.1 Group Profiles

Group profiling has strong potential for alert systems, direct marketing, or group tracking. As for direct marketing, it is highly possible that the online consumers of products will form several groups, and each group posts different comments and opinions on the product. If a profile can be constructed for each group, the company can design its new product based on the feedback of various groups. Group profiles can be also used to connect dots on the Web. It is noticed that the whole online network (e.g., blogosphere) can be divided into three regions [8]: singletons who do not interact with others; isolated communities; and a giant component. Isolated communities actually occupy a very stable portion of the entire network, and the likelihood of two isolated communities to merge is very low as network evolves. Group profiles provided, it is possible for one isolated group or singleton to find other similar groups thus encouraging more interactions among them.

To describe groups, a set of topics is a sensible way. Police might want to track a coterie with interest in topics related to “dirty bombs”, “massive destruction”, or

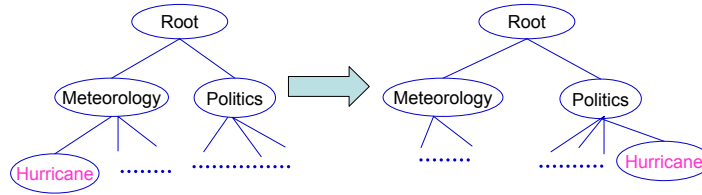


Fig. 6 “Hurricane” Example

“sabotage” to thwart crimes before they occur; a company might want to find different groups who are interested in its products (e.g., brands, functionality, or price ranges); an organization might just be interested in the opinions of various groups on the major policies (e.g., “boosting the US force presence in Iraq”), critical decisions (e.g., GM’s voluntary departure packages). Since a group consists of people with shared interests, one intuitive way of describing a group is to clip a group with some topics shared by most of the members in the group.

Social media provides not only network connectivity, but also text information. For instance, in blogosphere, bloggers upload blog posts; in content sharing sites like Digg.com and Del.icio.us, users post news or bookmarks. These content information essentially represents the latent interests of individuals. Moreover, users also provide tags on the shared content. These tags serve as topics. If a tag is used commonly for the majority of members of a group, it is not surprising that the group is interested in this tag-related topics. We can aggregate the frequent tags used in a group to capture the shared interests.

However, the topics (tags) associated with different communities can be inordinate, and the number of total topics can be huge. Moreover, these provided tags can be highly correlated as different users use tags at different granularity. Facing a large number of topics, we need to find a more suitable representation. Organizing the topics into a tree-structured taxonomy or hierarchy is a natural solution, as it provides more contextual information with refined granularity compared with a flat list. The left tree in Figure 6 shows one simple example of a topic taxonomy. Basically, each group is associated with a list of topics. Each topic can be either a non-leaf (internal) node like *Meteorology* or *Politics*, or a leaf node like *Hurricane*. Different groups can have shared topics. Given a topic taxonomy, it is easy to find related or similar topics via parent, sibling, child nodes. Taxonomies also facilitate the visualization of relationships between different groups and the detection of related or similar groups.

A topic taxonomy is often provided by human beings based on topic semantics or abridged from a very large taxonomy like Yahoo! or Google directory. It is a relatively stable description. However, group interests develop and change. Let us look at an example about “Hurricane”. As shown in Figure 6, in a conventional topic taxonomy, the topic *Hurricane* is likely under *Meteorology*, and not related to *Politics*. Suppose we have two groups: one is interested in *Meteorology* and the other in *Politics*. The two groups have their own interests. One would not expect that

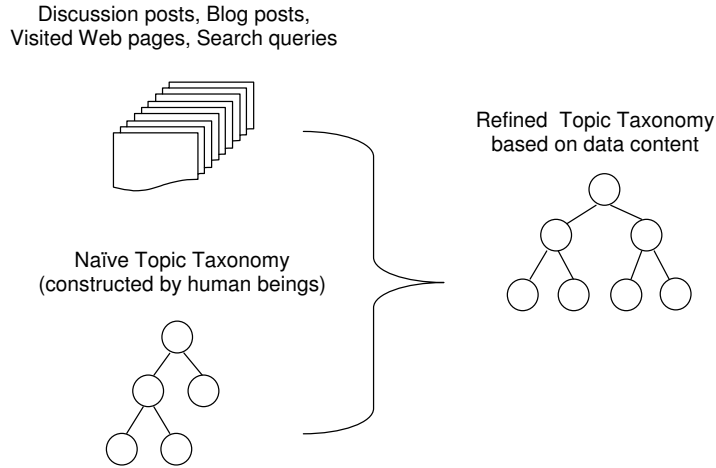


Fig. 7 Topic Taxonomy Adaptation for Group Profiling

“Hurricane” is one of the key topics under *Politics*. However, in a period of time in 2005, there was a surge of documents/discussions on “Hurricane” under *Politics*. Before we delve into why this happened, this example suggests *the change of group interests and the need for corresponding change of the taxonomy*. A good number of online documents in topic *Hurricane* are more about *Politics* because Hurricanes ‘Katrina’ and ‘Rita’ in the United States in 2005 caused unprecedented damages to life and properties; and some of the damages might be due to the faults of federal emergency management agency in preparation for and responding to the disasters.

This example above demonstrates some inconsistency between a stagnant taxonomy and changing interests of an online group. Group interests might shift and the semantics of a topic could be changed due to a recent event. To enable a topic taxonomy to profile the changing group interest, we need to allow the topic taxonomy to adapt accordingly and reflect the change, which entails *dynamic group profiling*. The dynamic changes of semantics are reflected in documents under each topic, just like in the *hurricane example*. This observation motivates us to adjust a given topic taxonomy in a data-driven fashion.

Figure 7 illustrates a typical process of topic taxonomy adaption. By observing the difference between the original taxonomy and the newly generated taxonomy, we notice that topics can emerge and disappear for various groups. Given recent text data (e.g., blog posts, visited web pages, submitted search queries) extracted from social media and a given topic taxonomy, we aim to automatically find a revised taxonomy of topics (tags) that is consistent with the data and captures dynamic group interests.

4.2 Taxonomy Adaptation

Several ways can be exploited to find profiles for groups. Given some labeled training data, for example, a classifier can be constructed. This training data can be gleaned from social media easily. The tags provide the topic information while the shared contents act like the data. Some online directories (e.g., Yahoo! directory) also provide extensive labeled documents. With a robust classifier built from the available data, new documents can be labeled automatically by the classifier. If the label are consistent with the associated tags, the taxonomy, in a sense, captures the relationship of tags. Otherwise, it requires taxonomy adaptation to better capture the relationship of tags. So the corresponding classification performance based on a taxonomy is one effective way of indirectly measuring how good a topic taxonomy is in group profiling. In other words, the quality of a topic taxonomy reduces to the classification performance (e.g. recall, precision, ROC, etc.) based on the taxonomy.

Since the topic taxonomy does not change significantly in a short time period, and it is very likely only a small portion of the tags change their position, Tang et al. [17, 15] propose to adapt a predefined taxonomy according the classification performance on the data rather than generating a new taxonomy. Three elementary operations are defined to change a taxonomy locally:

- Promote: roll up one node to upper level;
- Demote: push down one node to its sibling;
- Merge: merge two sibling nodes to form a super node;

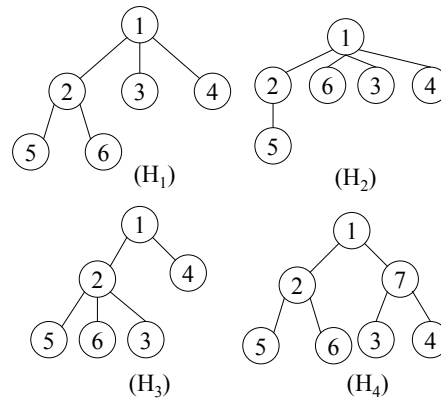


Fig. 8 Elementary Operations. H_1 is the original hierarchy. H_2 , H_3 and H_4 are obtained by performing different elementary operations. H_2 : Promote node 6; H_3 : Demote node 3 under node 2; H_4 : Merge node 3 and node 4.

Then a wrapper approach is exploited as in Figure 9. The basic idea is, given a predefined taxonomy and training data, a different hierarchy can be obtained by performing the three elementary operations. Then, the newly generated hierarchy is evaluated on some validation data. If the change results in a performance improvement, we keep the change; otherwise, new change to the original taxonomy is explored. Finally, if no more change can lead to performance improvement, we

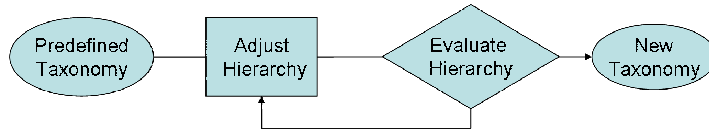


Fig. 9 Taxonomy Adaptation via Classification Learning

output the new taxonomy which acclimatizes the taxonomic semantics according to the data. In [17, 15], the hierarchy adjustment follows a top-down traversal of the hierarchy. In the first iteration, only promoting is exploited to adjust the hierarchy whereas in the next iteration, demoting and merging are employed. This pair-wise iteration keeps running until no performance improvement is observed on the training data. As shown in the experiment, two iterations are often sufficient to achieve a robust taxonomy for classification which outperforms the predefined taxonomy and the taxonomy generated via clustering.

5 Summary and Future Work

Social media is replete with diverse and unique information. It provides heterogeneous network data as well as collective wisdom in forms of user-generated contents and tags. In this chapter, we present important research tasks and intriguing challenges concomitant with social media, and elaborate issues related to the understanding of online group structures and properties. In particular, we discuss two aspects of the problem: (1) how to extract communities given multi-mode and multi-dimensional data, and (2) how to dynamically capture group profiles.

The social-media networks are heterogeneous: their idiosyncratic entities and various interactions within the same network result in multi-mode and multi-dimensional networks, respectively. Although abundant, the information can be sparse, noisy, and partial. Therefore, special care is required to attain the understanding of group structures and properties. We present some feasible solutions to extract reliable community structures in both types of networks. We also show that the two algorithms share a common component to extract “structural features” from each mode or dimension and then concatenate them to find some lower-dimensional embedding which is indicative of the community structure. This simple scheme has been shown effective in community extraction in social media. Another task equally important to community extraction is to capture group interests based on textual and tag information. We describe dynamic group profiling via topic taxonomy adaptation specially designed for capture group properties using noisy and time-sensitive tag information.

This chapter has only addressed a couple of essential issues. Many research directions are worthy pursuing in our endeavor to understand group structures and properties in social media. We propose some below for further research:

- How can one determine the number of communities in heterogeneous networks? In the current models, we assume the number of communities at each mode or dimension is fixed. Some parameter-free process will be very useful to automatically determine the number of communities.
- It is interesting to study communities at different degrees of granularity in heterogeneous networks. One possibility is to handle heterogeneity with hierarchical clustering.
- To deal with multi-dimensional networks, our current solution is to integrate different dimensions of interactions globally. Since it is more likely that some groups are more involved in one dimension than in other dimensions, can one integrate the interactions in different dimensions differently depending on dimensional intensities. It is a challenge to simultaneously find out a common community structure as well as the integration scheme for each group.
- Extracting communities in dynamic heterogeneous networks demands effective solutions. Social media is evolving continuously, newcomers joining the network, extant members generating new connections or becoming dormant. It is imperative to efficiently update the acquired community structure in an online fashion. It is also interesting to consider the temporal change of individuals for community detection.
- The work of group profiling only employs descriptive tags to profile groups. More can be attempted for group profiling. For example, can we profile groups discriminatively such that the tags can be used with link data that can differentiate groups from neighboring groups? How to integrate this discriminative profiling into a taxonomy? Moreover, the current scheme of group profiling does not allow one topic to have multiple parent nodes (topics). But certain tags (especially those words with multiple meanings) can relate to different parent nodes depending on the context.

In a nutshell, social media is a rich data source of large quantity and high variety and is a fruitful field with many great challenges for data mining. In achieving the understanding of group structures and properties in social media, we genuinely expect that this line of research will help introduce many new solutions as well as many novel problems in understanding social media.

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