Abstract—Based on the Flow Authority model, we propose the VSM (Vector-based Spread Maximization) algorithm that estimates the SSS (Steady-state Spread) objective function for multiple seeds based on SSS values of individual seeds to reduce computation. Based on three real-world large sparse networks, our empirical results indicate that VSM is more effective than two existing algorithms, and two orders of magnitude more efficient than one of them.

Index Terms—spread maximization; flow authority model

I. INTRODUCTION

Given a network, a number of researchers in different areas have studied how to find the set of most “important” nodes in the network. Aggarwal et al. [1] introduce the Flow Authority (FA) model, which specifies how information flows from nodes to their neighbors. Given a graph, the main question is how to efficiently find a set of nodes that initially has the information and maximizes the expected number of nodes that will assimilate the information. The authors define Steady-state Spread (SSS) as the objective function and propose RankedReplace as an algorithm to maximize SSS. RankedReplace repeatedly calls the objective function to guide its search for the top set of seeds, however, each SSS call can be time consuming.

We propose VSM that leverages spread information in the initial SSS calls and estimates the SSS value for future calls to reduce computation. Our main contributions include:

- an efficient method to estimate SSS of multiple seeds from SSS of individual seeds,
- our proposed VSM algorithm is more effective than two existing algorithms and two orders of magnitude more efficient than RankedReplace in 3 large real-world datasets, and
- a four orders of magnitude more efficient SSS algorithm.

We discuss related work in Sec. II. Sec. III provides the problem statement and more background on the RankedReplace algorithm and the SSS function. Sec. IV introduces our VSM algorithm. Sec. V discusses a more efficient SSS algorithm for large sparse graphs. We evaluate our algorithms in Sec. VI and conclude in Sec. VII.

II. RELATED WORK

Given a graph, Kempe et al. [2] discuss two diffusion models: Independent Cascade (IC) and Linear Threshold (LT). In the IC model, each node has only one chance to influence its neighbors. In the LT model, each node has an activation threshold; a node is active when the total influence from its active neighbors exceeds the threshold. Aggarwal et al. [1] introduce the Flow Authority model. Different from the two models above, the expected number of active nodes is directly estimated, instead of running (e.g. 10,000 [2]) Monte Carlo simulations, which could be computationally expensive. The key question of these three models is how to find the initial seed set that maximizes the expected number of active nodes.

The methods used in related work can be categorized into two general approaches. The first general approach uses an evaluation function for a node or a set of nodes to find the top set of nodes. Different sets of nodes are generated and the evaluation function guides the selection. For example, the Greedy [2] algorithm starts with sets, each containing only one node, successively generates sets with one additional node, and selects the set that maximizes the evaluation function, which is the objective function for the problem. Based on the submodularity property of the objective function, CELF [3] improves the Greedy algorithm with a “lazy forward” evaluation technique, which prunes nodes that cannot improve the set. Degree Discount [4] is similar except the evaluation function is a heuristic based on the neighbors of the node. PMIA [5] uses a tree of nodes with maximum influence to construct a heuristic as the evaluation function. SIMPATH [6] estimates the spread from a set by exploring paths from the set up to a threshold as the evaluation function. IPA [7] evaluates each candidate by calculating the spread from the current set and the candidate to the descendants of the candidate. They store influence paths for each node, but they limit the number of nodes to reduce memory usage. Borgs et al. [8] propose a nearly-optimal-time algorithm for the IC model that chooses a random set of initial nodes and finds their ancestors, which are seed candidates. The evaluation function of a seed candidate is the number of times it is an ancestor. Recognizing the large constant in the time complexity, TIM+ [9] improves Borgs et al.’s algorithm by bounding the number of initial nodes to a smaller number. IMM [10] further reduces the number of initial nodes by a Martingale approach, which allows some dependency between successive runs of finding ancestors to...
of nodes with the lowest probabilities are removed and the probabilities to its in-neighbors. At each iteration, a fraction of the top nodes with the highest values. Bayes Traceback [1] propagates values according to the graph structure and selects nodes found by two other algorithms. The second general approach found by their algorithms is more recognizable than sets of authors found in the DBLP data set, they illustrated that the top set of authors is more recognizable than sets found by two other algorithms. The second general approach propagates values according to the graph structure and selects nodes found by two other algorithms. The second general approach found by their algorithms is more recognizable than sets of authors found in the DBLP data set, they illustrated that the top set of authors propagates probabilities to its in-neighbors. At each iteration, a fraction of the nodes with the lowest probabilities are removed and the probabilities of the remaining nodes are redistributed.

III. PROBLEM STATEMENT AND BACKGROUND

We use the same formulation as Aggarwal et al. [1]. Consider a directed network \( G = (V, E) \), where \( V \) is a set of nodes and \( E \) is a set of edges. Each edge \( e = (i, j) \) of the network is associated with a propagation probability \( P_{ij} \) which specifies the probability by which the information propagated by node \( i \) is absorbed at the destination node \( j \). Given a set \( S \) of nodes, or Steady-State Spread (SSS), which assimilates the information is: \( SSS(S) = \sum_{i \in V} \pi(i) \). The goal is to find \( S \) of size \( k \) such that \( SSS(S) \) is maximized.

Aggarwal et al. [1] proposed RankedReplace to find \( S \) such that the objective function \( SSS(S) \) is maximized. They first calculate \( \pi(i) \), which is the steady-state probability that node \( i \) assimilates the information. The expected number of nodes, or Steady-State Spread (SSS), which assimilates the information is: \( SSS(S) = \sum_{i \in V} \pi(i) \). The goal is to find \( S \) of size \( k \) such that \( SSS(S) \) is maximized.

where \( N(i) \) is the set of in-neighbors of node \( i \), and \( p_{ji} \) is the propagation probability from node \( j \) to \( i \). Given an initial set \( S \) and a propagation probability matrix \( P \), Alg. 1 calculates SSS. \( q_f(i) \) is the estimate of the steady state probability of node \( i \) having the information at time \( t \). Initially, the value of \( q_0(i) \) is set to 1 where \( i \in S \), and 0 where \( i \notin S \). Then \( q_f(i) \) is iteratively updated by calculating the probability that at least one of \( i \)'s neighbors spreads the information to \( i \) (line 6) until the total spread converges. The Rank step of RankedReplace performs SSS for each node in the graph and the top \( k \) nodes form the initial \( S \). In the Replace step, a node in \( S \) is replaced with a node in \( V \setminus S \) if the SSS value improves. The algorithm stops if no replacement was made after \( r \) trials.

IV. VECTOR-BASED SPREAD MAXIMIZATION

To improve efficiency, our VSM (Vector-based Spread Maximization) algorithm estimates SSS and considers seed interactions. VSM is based on the Greedy algorithm proposed by Kempe et. al. [2]. For the IC and LT models, Kempe et. al. [2] show that the problem of finding a seed set \( S \) of size \( k \) that maximizes the total spread is NP-Hard. They also prove that if the objective function \( f \) is non-negative, monotone, and submodular, a general greedy approach guarantees a solution to be at least 1 - 1/e (63%) of the optimal solution. It iteratively finds new seed nodes that yield the highest spread gain, and it stops when \( k \) such seed nodes are found. Given the seed set \( S \), spread function \( f \), and a candidate node \( c \), the gain is calculated as: \( f(S \cup \{c\}) - f(S) \). SSS (Alg. 1) is an option for \( f \), however, it is relatively computationally expensive.

A. Estimating SSS

To estimate SSS from multiple seeds, we store and use the last vector \( q_t \) from SSS (Algorithm 1) with seed set of size 1. This vector, which we call SSS-vector, contains the influence spread probabilities at node \( i \) given the information from \( t \) seed or the second seed. This probability is the spread function \( f \), and a candidate node \( c \), the gain is calculated as: \( f(S \cup \{c\}) - f(S) \). SSS (Alg. 1) is an option for \( f \), however, it is relatively computationally expensive.

\[ \text{Algorithm 1 SSS}(S, P) \]

1: \( \forall i \in S, \; q_0(i) \leftarrow 1 \)
2: \( \forall i \notin S, \; q_0(i) \leftarrow 0 \)
3: \( t \leftarrow 0 \)
4: repeat
5: \( \forall i \in S, \; q_{t+1}(i) \leftarrow 1 \)
6: \( \forall i \notin S, \; q_{t+1}(i) \leftarrow 1 - \prod_{j \in N(i)} (1 - P_{ji} \cdot q_t(j)) \)
7: \( C_{t+1} \leftarrow \sum_{i \in S} (q_{t+1}(i) - q_t(i)) \)
8: \( t \leftarrow t + 1 \)
9: until \( C_t < 0.01 \cdot C_1 \)
10: return \( \sum_{i \in S} q_t(i) \)
where $S = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k} \{v_j\}$, The aggregate operator is “cumulative”: 
\[ q_{SS}(c) = q_{S} \oplus q_c \] (the proof is in [11]). That is, we can aggregate the SSS-vector of candidate $c$ and the SSS-Vector of $S$ without using Eq.3. To improve the estimation, we consider seed intersections (seeds sharing a common path and seeds blocked by others) and adjust the estimation accordingly. Due to space limitations, details are in [11].

### B. Improving efficiency of the Greedy Algorithm

The greedy algorithm calculates $eSSS(S \cup \{c\})$ for each candidate $c$ and the gain efficiently: \[ gain(c, S) = eSSS(S \cup \{c\}) - eSSS(S) \]. Because of the submodularity property of eSSS, we can improve the efficiency by not updating the gain of every candidate [3]. The submodularity property states: \[ gain(c, S \cup \{x\}) \leq gain(c, S) \], where $x$ is an additional seed (the newly added seed in our case) and $c$ is a candidate. eSSS is submodular [11]. To utilize the submodularity property of eSSS for reducing computation, we use a priority queue to store the gain of each candidate and the level number when the gain was updated [12]. If the largest updated gain at the current level is larger than the largest non-updated gain, we prune the gain updates for the rest of the candidates, which cannot yield a larger updated gain.

### C. VSM Algorithm

Our VSM (Vector-based Spread Maximization) algorithm uses the Greedy algorithm with eSSS as the evaluation function $f$. Alg. 2 illustrates our VSM algorithm. VSM finds the SSS values for each vertex using Alg. 3 (an improved version of SSS, which is discussed in Sec. V), saves the SSS-vectors, and populates the priority queue (lines 1-4). We initialize the seed set, aggregated SSS-vector of the seed set, and eSSS value of the seed set (lines 5-8). While the candidate’s level is less than the current level, its gain is not up to date (line 13). With “Ancestor Checking,” if the candidate is an ancestor or descendant of any seed in the seed set, the SSS-vectors are modified and the aggregated vector is updated (line 15-18). Otherwise, vectors of the seeds and candidate are not modified, we update the aggregated vector by aggregating existing aggregated vector of the seed set and vector of the candidate (line 20). We update the gain and level of the candidate in the priority queue and heapify the priority queue (lines 21-23). If the candidate is still at the head of the priority queue, the updated candidate is the best candidate and we do not use the previously saved vectors (lines 24-25). Otherwise, if the candidate’s gain is larger than the largest gain so far, we save the modified vectors so that we do not need to recalculate if the candidate eventually becomes the best candidate (lines 26-28). We remove the best candidate from the priority queue, update the vectors from the modified versions if needed, update the eSSS value of the seed sets, and add the best candidate to the seed set (lines 30-38). Generally, fewer than $2k$ ($k$ is the seed set size) vectors are used. Hence, an improved VSM generates vectors for only $2k$ nodes initially to reduce space and time. More details are in [11].

### D. Optimality, Time, and Space Complexity of VSM

Since VSM uses the Greedy algorithm with eSSS, which is non-negative, monotone, and submodular, VSM guarantees that the found solution is at least $1 - 1/e$ (63%) of the optimal solution based on eSSS (Theorem 2.1 in [2]). Though eSSS is an estimate of SSS, which is the objective function, our empirical results indicate that eSSS is within 0.12% of SSS (Sec. VI-C).

To select $k$ nodes from a graph of $n$ nodes ($k \ll n$), the nested loop starting on line 9 dominates VSM’s time—outer loop runs $O(k)$ times and inner loop runs $O(n)$ time [but $O(k)$ in practice due to pruning (Sec.IV-B)]. At each iteration of the inner loop, $O(kn)$ for $\text{BlockedVec}(c)$, $O(kn)$ for aggregating vectors, $O(n \log n)$ for $\text{heapify}()$, and $O(kn)$ for copying into $\text{savedVec}$. Hence, VSM’s time complexity is $O(k \cdot n \cdot k)$ or $O(k^2 n^2)$ [but $O(k^3 n)$ in practice]. Since VSM stores vectors for $2k$ nodes (the dominant data structure), the space complexity is $O(kn)$.
Algorithm 3 SSS2(S, P, hoplimit)

1: ∀i ∈ S  q^(i) ← 1
2: ∀i /∈ S  q^(i) ← 0
3: t ← 0
4: A ← outNeighbors(S)  // activated nodes
5: A_new ← A  // newly activated nodes
6: A_old ← ∅  // activated in previous iteration
7: repeat
8: ∀i ∈ S  q^(t+1)(i) ← 1
9: if t > 0 then
10: A_old ← A
11: A_new ← (A_old ∪ outNeighbors(A_new)) \ S
12: A_new ← A \ A_old
13: ∀i ∈ A  q^(t+1)(i) ← 1 − ∏_{j ∈ N(i)}(1 − p_{ij} · q^(t)(j))
14: C_t+1 ← ∑_{i ∈ A} [q^(t+1)(i) − q^(t)(i)]
15: t ← t + 1
16: until C_t < 0.01 · C_1 or t ≥ hoplimit
17: return ∑_{i ∈ A} q^(t)(i)

V. MORE EFFICIENT SSS AND GREEDYSSS

The SSS method in Alg. 1 updates the q value for all nodes except the seeds, however, many of them will remain zero, particularly in a large sparse graph. To improve the efficiency of SSS for large sparse graphs, we only update “activated” nodes that have positive spread. We use the out-going edges of the activated nodes of the previous iteration to find the activated nodes of the current iteration. Also, we keep track of newly activated nodes in the previous iteration so that we only need to add their out-neighbors as activated nodes in the current iteration. We only consider activated nodes for updating q, total spread, and change in total spread. To prevent finding a large number of activated nodes and not using them in the last iteration, we find activated nodes at the beginning of the loop for the current iteration.

Alg. 3 shows the improved algorithm called SSS2. We initialize the sets for activated nodes, newly activated nodes and old ones (lines 4-6). The activated nodes are updated to be the union of the old ones and out-neighbors of the newly activated nodes from the previous iteration. We then exclude the seeds and find the newly activated nodes (lines 10-12). We update q and C, and return the total spread considering only the activated nodes (lines 13, 14 and 17). Goyal et al. [6] observe that much of the spread is within 3 or 4 hops from the seeds. For efficiency, we stop updating q if the hop limit is exceeded (line 19).

Since SSS2 is faster than SSS, we propose GreedySSS, which is the same as VSM, except that it calls SSS2 (Alg. 3) instead of estimating SSS from SSS-vectors. We would like to see if GreedySSS is more effective (but slower) than VSM because SSS values are not estimated.

VI. EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

The main evaluation criterion is effectiveness as measured by SSS2 (Alg. 3) without a hop limit. To evaluate efficiency, we measure the CPU running time. To evaluate the accuracy of eSSS, we measure the % difference, which is (eSSS – SSS)/SSS * 100%. To evaluate the amount of storage for the SSS-vectors, we measure the number of (positive) entries in the SSS-vectors.

We use three datasets: DBLP, Last.fm, and Twitter from Aggarwal el. al [1]. DBLP has 684,911 authors and 7,764,604 edges. Last.fm has 818,800 users and 3,340,954 friendships. Twitter has 1,994,092 users and 6,450,193 edges.

We evaluate our proposed VSM (Sec. IV) and GreedySSS (Sec. V), and compare them with RankedReplace [1] and Bayes Traceback [1]. For VSM, we evaluate two versions: with or without ancestor checking for blocked seeds. We varied k from 20 to 100, with an increment of 20 as in [1]. VSM, GreedySSS and RankedReplace need to calculate SSS and we use our faster SSS2 algorithm (Alg. 3) for a comparison that focuses on differences not contributed by the improvement due to SSS2. The hop limit for SSS2 is 3. The replacement factor r is 10 for RankedReplace. The discard fraction f for Bayes Traceback is 0.25, 0.2, and 0.3 for DBLP, Last.fm and Twitter respectively (the parameters were selected to maximize effectiveness). The algorithms were implemented in Python and run on a 128GB, 8-core virtual machine on a Dell PowerEdge M620 with Ubuntu 14.04.

A. Efficiency of SSS2 and Selecting Hop Limit for SSS2

To compare the efficiency of our improved SSS2 (Alg. 3) with SSS (Alg. 1), we sampled 100,000 nodes from the three datasets and measured the running time of the two algorithms calculating SSS (without a hop limit) for all vertices in the subsets. The results in Table I indicate that our proposed improvement is about 4 orders of magnitude faster.

Our experiments with smaller datasets of 30K nodes indicate that VSM with hop limits of 2 and 3 achieves the same SSS as VSM with no hop limits (Table II). Interestingly, with and without ancestor checking for blocked seeds also yield the same SSS when the hop limit is 2, 3, or none. In terms of running time (not shown due to space limitation), raising the hop limit increases computation. As k increases, computation grows faster with ancestor checking than without ancestor checking. Interestingly, the increase in computation from a hop limit of 3 to none is much smaller than the increase from a hop limit of 2 to 3. For Last.fm and Twitter, the increase in computation from a hop limit of 3 to none is quite small. This indicates that a hop limit of 3 is close to convergence. In summary, a hop limit of 2 or 3, with less computation, yields the same effectiveness as no hop limit for datasets with 30K nodes. We conservatively choose 3 as the default hop limit.

B. Effectiveness and Efficiency of Algorithms

Table III displays the effectiveness of different algorithms. Generally, VSM with ancestor checking for blocked seeds is
more effective than without ancestor checking. For DBLP, VSM with ancestor checking outperforms the other algorithms consistently. For Twitter, VSM with ancestor checking outperforms the other algorithms. For Last.fm, VSM with ancestor checking outperforms the others, except when $k=60$. Interestingly, GreedySSS is generally less effective than VSM with ancestor checking, even though VSM estimates SSS, and GreedySSS measures SSS. One reason might be SSS with a low hop limit has not converged, while eSSS is more accurate in adjusting SSS-vectors for blocked seeds. Overall, VSM with ancestor checking is more effective than the other algorithms across the three datasets.

Some of the SSS values are similar to the highest value—at most 0.1% difference from the highest value. For DBLP, when $k=100$ VSM without ancestor checking is similar to the most effective algorithm. For the Twitter dataset, VSM without ancestor checking has similar SSS values as the most effective algorithm at $k=20, 60, 80$. For Last.fm, the two versions of VSM are similar to the most effective algorithm, except for VSM with ancestor checking at $k=60$. Overall, compared to VSM, BayesTraceback is significantly less effective, while the other algorithms are within 1% difference in effectiveness across the three datasets.

Figure 1 plots the running time of different algorithms. VSM with ancestor checking (hop=3) is about an order of magnitude faster than RankedReplace and VSM without ancestor checking (hop=3) is about 2 orders of magnitude faster. VSM without ancestor checking (hop=3) is generally faster (and more effective) than Bayes Traceback. Since GreedySSS measures SSS instead of estimating SSS, it is generally slower than VSM as expected. Note that we use our proposed SSS2 algorithm (Alg. 3) in RankedReplace in all our experiments. If we use the original SSS (Alg. 1), the original RankedReplace will be much slower (Sec. VI-A) [we did not wait for the original RankedReplace to complete after a few days].

C. Effectiveness, Efficiency, Space and eSSS Accuracy in VSM

The effectiveness of VSM with hop limits from 2 to 3 is displayed in Table IV. Generally, increasing the hop limit increases the effectiveness. The difference between hop limits of 2 and 3 is at most 0.2% and sometimes non-existent, which is similar to our earlier experiments with smaller data sets. Checking ancestors for blocked seeds generally yields higher SSS. However, the improvement is at most 0.1% for Twitter and Last.fm. For DBLP, the improvement can be as high as 0.8%. This relatively small improvement is unexpected because checking ancestors for blocked seeds should improve the accuracy of eSSS. However, with small hop limits, the SSS vectors are less accurate, which might degrade the effectiveness of ancestor checking and adjusting the SSS-vectors for blocked seeds.

Figure 1 plots the CPU times. Computation grows with $k$ and hop limit. Generally, increasing the hop limit by one could increase the computation by an order of magnitude due to more (positive) entries in the vectors (Table V) governed by out-degrees. Checking ancestors for blocked seeds could be 1 to 4 times slower. We also observe that the number

### Table II

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### Table III

SSS of algorithms bold: highest, underline: ≤ 0.1% from highest

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### Table IV

SSS vs hop limit and ancestor checking

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### Table V

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of blocked seeds are generally small (data not shown) and deaggregating/aggregating updated vectors when appropriate, instead of always aggregating vectors, reduces computation. For \( k > 100 \) GreedySSS runs faster than VSM on DBLP, and for \( k > 100 \) it is expected to be slightly faster on Twitter and LAST.FM. However, its accuracy is consistently lower than VSM on all three data sets.

Table V displays the number of (positive) entries in SSS vectors that VSM stores for calculating eSSS with \( k=100 \). The needed memory is less than 1 GB. When the hop limit increases, the number of entries grows rapidly due to the space complexity of \( O( k^b ) \), where \( b \) is the branching factor of a node and \( h \) is the hop limit. However, as we discussed above, we do not need a hop limit beyond 3. Table VI displays the number of unique nodes VSM (with ancestor checking) evaluates for the seed set. Generally, VSM evaluates a small number of nodes beyond \( k \).

Table VII shows the error rates of eSSS of the found seed set. When the hop limit increases, the SSS-vectors are more accurate and the error generally decreases. When we check ancestors for blocked seeds, the error generally decreases. Overall, eSSS with a hop limit of 3 and ancestor checking is within 0.12% of SSS.

VII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

We propose estimating SSS (eSSS) from SSS-vectors in our VSM algorithm. eSSS allows us to efficiently evaluate interactions among seeds its properties allow VSM to guarantee \((1−1/e)\) optimality with respect to eSSS. Our empirical results on 3 real-world datasets indicate that VSM is more effective than existing algorithms, but about two orders of magnitude more efficient than RankedReplace with our SSS2.

**REFERENCES**


