
Active Link Inference for Case Building Investigation

Abstract

1 How can we infer connections between entities, given the evidences of their
2 relations? How can we help an investigator to find salient patterns by connecting
3 the dots more efficiently? For example in combating online human trafficking,
4 connecting the related escort advertisements outlines an organized activity, which
5 is the first step to identify the target who is advertising the victims. This paper
6 presents a principled way of inferring links where the user is able to actively
7 provide feedback and guide the inference. We show how our method helps an
8 investigator to find related entities to an initial lead and explains why they are
9 related, when mining millions of escort advertisements posted in one of the largest
10 classified advertising websites. As an active link inference method, our proposal
11 has broad applications wherever the connections between entities are not given a
12 priori, in particular for mapping out the covert web of entities in fraud detection
13 and counterterrorism.

14 1 Introduction and Related Works

15 In many applications, we are interested in how different datapoints are related to each-other, in
16 addition to what are the characteristics of each individual datapoint. In most cases, the relation
17 between the datapoints should be inferred from the available data. We are proposing an active
18 network inference algorithm for such settings which supports large scale data while incorporating
19 the user's feedback to guide the network inference. We are tailoring this approach for combating
20 human trafficking in online escort advertisements to find how different advertisements are linked
21 together and point to organized activities; e.g. advertisements for different potential victims which are
22 linked by phone numbers, catch phrases or text patterns, images with the same background, or other
23 evidences of connection. For case building and target identification in this domain, an initial lead is
24 treated as the seed query to find connected entities and identify the person of interest. Currently, this
25 task is performed by an expert investigator through manual exploration of the available data. Our
26 proposed algorithm makes this process semi-automatic and more efficient.

27 More precisely, our data includes a sample of millions
28 of escort advertisements scraped from Backpage.com for
29 cities across the US and Canada posted between August
30 2013 to January 2017 obtained from [2]. We are modelling
31 this data as a k-partite graph, in which advertisements are
32 connected to different types of evidences they share, e.g.
33 phone numbers, bigrams, images, etc. The user's feed-
34 back is then used to guide the navigation through this
35 graph when finding related advertisements. Here, we ad-
36 just the weight and importance of each of the evidence
37 modalities (e.g. phone numbers would become stronger
38 indicators than bigrams), as well as the relevance of spe-
39 cific evidences (e.g. some phone numbers are relevant
40 to the current seed). The main intuition of the proposed
41 approach is that the candidates are explored in order of
42 how well connected they are to the positive nodes already explored (weighted sum of all paths which
43 shows the shared evidences) whereas importance of connections (weights) are learned based on user's

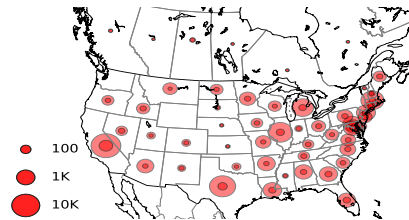


Figure 1: Reported cases to a human trafficking hotline. This maps shows the distribution of online escort advertisements in our data which use a phone number associated with the reported human trafficking cases [6].

44 feedback. Our proposed method is compared against different baselines, including a random-walk
 45 with restart at negative feedbacks.

46 Our method uses selective labeling as in active learning which enables analyzing data where labels
 47 are scarce. In this setting, the task of recovering only the relevant portion of the data, is referred to as
 48 active search [4]. Active search is similar to active binary classification, however the objective is to
 49 achieve the highest recall for a given class of interest, instead of the overall classification accuracy.
 50 When targeting a specific class is the goal, e.g. for detecting fraud, or drug discovery, the active
 51 search technique achieves better performance compared to the uncertainty sampling common in
 52 active classification [8]. Here, the utility function is defined to be the exact recall objective which is
 53 then optimized given the fixed query budget. More relevant to our work is active search on graphs
 54 formulated in [8], where given the relations between the entities, the goal is to find the entities of
 55 the same label. In our case, the relationships are not given a priori and should be inferred based on
 56 the user’s feedback. Note that we are interested in explainable connections backed by shared pieces
 57 of information, not mere similarity. A basic assumption in the active search is that the target class
 58 clusters together based on some similarity measure [4]. In this sense, the problem closely resembles
 59 active local clustering which is even more relevant to our work, as it looks for only positive entities
 60 which are connected by the given evidences, i.e. are explainable. Clustering nodes in graphs is a
 61 widely studied problem, a.k.a. community detection. Here, we are interested in a subclass of local
 62 clustering algorithms, which are generally applied to tackle the volume of the large scale data. As
 63 oppose to the global clustering algorithms that partition a given graph, the local methods retrieve
 64 a cluster by expanding from a given seed node. Having such an algorithm, one can take a peeling
 65 strategy to cluster all the network – detecting and removing clusters one by one, e.g. see [1]. From
 66 the many algorithms proposed for local clustering in graphs, the ones that consider attributes or labels
 67 for nodes and cluster heterogeneous graphs are more relevant to our work [1, 7]. These approaches
 68 consider labels or attributes as an additional information source or meta data on nodes, and develop
 69 unsupervised algorithms to cluster the data. We are proposing a semi-supervised or active paradigm,
 70 since labels are not readily available, and we are acquiring the labels provided by the expert user
 71 while retrieving relevant entities. Moreover, although the relevant entities are assumed to be highly
 72 connected, our objective is different that the clustering algorithms as we are interested to find highly
 73 connected entities with positive labels which reflect the user’s interest.

74 2 Methodology

75 Consider n datapoints $\mathcal{D} = \{d_1, d_2 \dots d_n\}$ connected to k different types of evidences (e.g. phone
 76 number, image, bi-grams) which we refer to as modalities. Let evidence set $\mathcal{E} = \{\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2 \dots \mathbf{X}_k\}$
 77 denote the set of indicator matrices for these k modalities, i.e. $\mathbf{X}_m \in \mathbb{R}_+^{n \times c_m}$ for $m \in [1 \dots k]$ where
 78 c_m is the cardinality (number of unique evidences) of modality m (e.g. number of unique phone
 79 numbers). Each column of \mathbf{X}_m shows a set of datapoints that share the corresponding evidence
 80 (e.g. datapoints that all share a particular phone number), and each row of \mathbf{X}_m shows the evidences
 81 associated to the corresponding datapoint (all the phone numbers mentioned in a particular datapoint).
 82 Given this data, we consider:

83 **Definition 1 (Active Link Inference)** *Given seed datapoint of interest, i , and assuming an unknown*
 84 *label set $\mathbf{y} = \{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n\}$ where $y_j = 1$ if the user deems node y_j related to the node i and zero*
 85 *otherwise, find the maximum number of related entities to i given a fixed query budget, $b > 0$.*

86 Considering each indicator matrix shows the biadjacency matrix of a 2-partite graph, we build a k-partite graph representation
 87 for the data. Given which and seed node of interest
 88 v_i , the Active Link Inference translates to finding positive
 89 nodes that are (tightly) connected to node v_i with length even
 90 paths (i.e. through shared evidences); whereas positive nodes
 91 means when we query label of the found endpoint v_j , we have
 92 $y_j > 0$. Our proposed method navigates through this graph
 93 to efficiently find these nodes while learning the importance
 94 of each modality and each piece of evidence from the labels
 95 (user’s feedbacks) obtained while expanding.

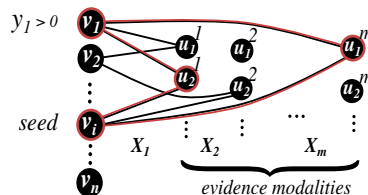


Figure 2: evidence graph.

97 We consider a weight for each partition of the evidence graph to enforce the importance of its
 98 corresponding modality in the given evidence set, i.e. $\Theta = [\theta_1, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_k]$; θ_m denotes the
 99 weight/importance of modality m . Correspondingly, we consider the evidence flow coming from

100 each partition separately, i.e. considering a tie-strength vector for each expansion candidate v_j as:
 101 $\mathbf{s}^j = [s_1^j, s_2^j, \dots, s_k^j]$ where s_m^j shows the tie strength of reaching v_j from evidences in modality m .
 102 We can consider s_m^j simply as the number of (length two) paths that go through evidences in partition
 103 m to reach v_j . To enforce the hypothesis that rare evidences are more important, we further weigh
 104 down the evidences by their prevalence (the number of datapoints they are associated with) measured
 105 as their degree in the graph. In more detail, if node v_i and v_j are connected through evidence u ,
 106 this evidence contributes to their tie strength by $1/d_u^2$, as each edge is down weighted by the degree.
 107 Moreover, the tie strength score of reaching v_j is summed from all the currently explored (labeled)
 108 positive nodes, $L^+ = \{j \in L \mid y_j > 0\}$, i.e.

$$s_m^j = \sum_{v_i \in L^+} \sum_{u \in \mathcal{N}(v_i) \cap \mathcal{N}(v_j)} \frac{1}{d_u^2} \quad (1)$$

109 To infer the next node, we pick $j^* \leftarrow \arg \max_j \sum_m s_m^j \theta_m^j$ as the node with highest overall evidence
 110 support. Now let node v_j denote this last queried node, for which we observe the label y_j . We
 111 adjust the modality which most supported the selection of node j , i.e. we first determine the support
 112 modality, $m^* = \arg \max_m s_m^j \theta_m^j$; then we adjust the importance/credit of the modality m^* as
 113 $\theta_{m^*}^j = \delta \theta_{m^*}^j$ if $y_j < 0$ and $\theta_{m^*}^j = (2 - \delta) \theta_{m^*}^j$ if $y_j > 0$; where $\delta \in (0, 1)$ is the learning rate. Given
 114 the observed labels, one can also adjust evidence flow weights, assuming some pieces of evidence
 115 (within or across different modalities) are more relevant to the seed. To enforce this, we also consider
 116 the negative flow that passes through an evidence. In more detail, instead of Equation 1 we use:

$$s_m^j = \sum_{v_i \in L^+} \sum_{u \in \mathcal{N}(v_i) \cap \mathcal{N}(v_j)} \frac{1}{d_u^2} - \sum_{v_i \in L^-} \sum_{u \in \mathcal{N}(v_i) \cap \mathcal{N}(v_j)} \frac{1}{d_u^2} \quad (2)$$

117 where $L^- = \{j \in L \mid y_j < 0\}$.

118 To evaluate the performance of the the proposed method and the effect of different its components,
 119 we consider four baselines described as follow.

120 **No Feedback (NF)**: baseline uses the scoring scheme described above to expands from the node
 121 with the current maximum score, but ignores the feedback from the user. The resulted algorithm is
 122 similar to a local clustering where expansion is purely based on the connectivity.

123 **No Modality (NM)** baseline uses the feedback to re-weigh the evidences; however the importance of
 124 different modalities is not adjusted based on the feedback.

125 **No Negative Evidence Flow (NE)** baseline uses the feedback to learn the importance of different
 126 modalities but ignores the negative instances.

127 **Random Walk (RW)** baseline expands from the seed by randomly walking through its neighbors.
 128 This walk restarts from the seed whenever it reaches a negative node. In this way, the random walk is
 129 taking into account the feedbacks by only expanding on positives. We are however not learning from
 130 what caused the algorithm to reach to a positive or negative instance.

131 3 Experiments

132 For each advertisement, we have access to its unstructured text (title and body), attached images, date
 133 and location posted. We use a publicly available regular expression extractor, which is developed for
 134 the same source of data previously[3] to extract basic features from the advertisement text, which
 135 are: phone number, email, url, and name. We also consider unigrams and bigrams used in both title,
 136 and body.¹ From these advertisements, we build two datasets, one of roughly 2.5 million ads posted
 137 in DC, Maryland, Virginia area (HT-DMV), and another one of about 4 million ads posted between
 138 July to December 2013 (HT-13), which is chosen to include activities associated with a list of phone
 139 numbers reported to a victim advocacy groups [3], the spatial frequency of which was plotted earlier
 140 in Figure 1. For the evaluation of the algorithms, and since labels are not available in these datasets,
 141 we keep some modalities that strongly indicate relations between ads to derive labels. In more detail,
 142 we construct labels by connected components formed when only using url, email, and phone numbers.
 143 This means that two ads are assumed ‘truly’ related only if they share either of these hard identifiers.

144 We also include Discogs from KONECT[5], a publicly available datasets in our experiments. This
 145 dataset is collected from a large online music database, and provides information about 3.5 million

¹filtering those that appear in more than 10k advertisements, to trim out stop word and common phrases.

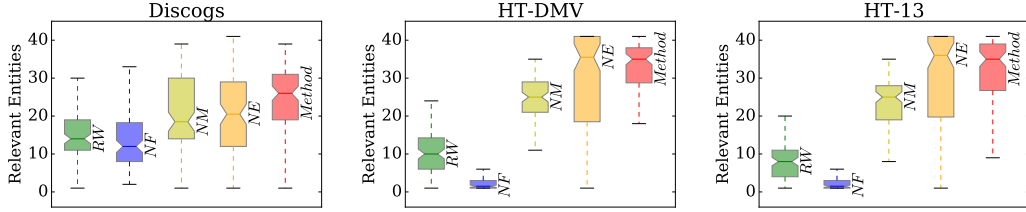


Figure 3: Comparison with baselines on three datasets.

146 different releases: date of the release, artists (primary and extra) involved, record labels, track
 147 information, companies involved in the production of the release, etc. In this dataset we treat artists
 148 as true labels and consequently we are learning to find releases of the same artist as the given seed
 149 release based on their shared i

150 Figure 3 shows the number
 151 of relevant entities found by
 152 the proposed method and
 153 the four baselines, on three
 154 datasets, in terms of how
 155 many relevant entities they
 156 found within a fixed query
 157 budget of 40. We can see
 158 that indeed expanding only
 159 based on topology and ignoring
 160 the user’s feedback (NF) is
 161 showing the poorest performance.
 162 Moreover, the random walk (RW)
 163 method which uses the feedback
 164 to restart but ignores the
 165 importance of different
 166 modalities and doesn’t remember
 167 the factors that resulted in
 168 reaching a negative, is only
 169 doing slightly better. The
 170 variations which only consider
 171 weights on evidences (NM) or
 172 modalities (NE) are also not
 173 doing as good as when
 174 incorporating both as in the
 proposed method.

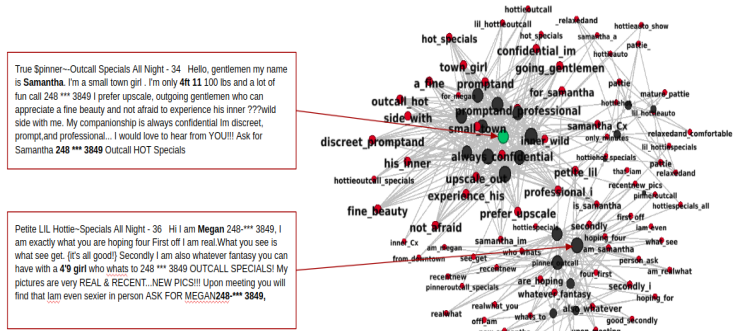


Figure 4: Green advertisement shows the seed advertisement used in this case study. The black nodes are the related advertisements discovered which are connected to the seed through shared evidences, plotted as red nodes. Here near duplicates (repeats over time) and high confidence matches (possible repeats) are filtered out. We can see the original text used in the seed advertisement in the box on the top left. The bottom left box shows the text of a connected advertisement which is advertising a different person. Although these two text don’t show high similarity, these two ads are truly related as they share the same phone number. The ANI was able to correctly discover it, and this representation explains how these ads are connected through shared evidences.

175 Here, we use a general purpose graph visualization tool for plotting example results. However, a
 176 specific graphic user interface should be developed to facilitate deriving and navigating through the
 177 results.

178 References

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