5-28-2015

Mining News Content for Popularity Prediction

Moayad Alshangiti

Follow this and additional works at: http://scholarworks.rit.edu/theses

Recommended Citation

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Thesis/Dissertation Collections at RIT Scholar Works. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses by an authorized administrator of RIT Scholar Works. For more information, please contact ritscholarworks@rit.edu.
Mining News Content for Popularity Prediction

By

Moayad Alshangiti

Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Information Technology

Rochester Institute of Technology

B. Thomas Golisano College

of Computing and Information Sciences

Department of Information Sciences and Technologies

May 28, 2015
Student Name: Moayad Alshangiti

Thesis Title: Mining News Content for Popularity Prediction

Thesis Committee

Name         Signature         Date

Dr. Qi Yu, chair

Dr. Jai Kang, committee

Dr. Xumin Liu, committee
Abstract

The problem of popularity prediction has been studied extensively in various previous research. The idea behind popularity prediction is that the attention users give to online items is unequally distributed, as only a small fraction of all the available content receives serious users attention. Researchers have been experimenting with different methods to find a way to predict that fraction. However, to the best of our knowledge, none of the previous work used the content for popularity prediction; instead, the research looked at other features such as early user reactions (number of views/shares/comments) of the first hours/days to predict the future popularity. These models are built to be easily generalized to all data types from videos (e.g. YouTube videos) and images, to news stories. However, they are not considered very efficient for the news domain as our research shows that most stories get 90% to 100% of the attention that they will ever get on the first day. Thus, it would be much more efficient to estimate the popularity even before an item is seen by the users. In this thesis, we plan to approach the problem in a way that accomplishes that goal. We will narrow our focus to the news domain, and concentrate on the content of news stories. We would like to investigate the ability to predict the popularity of news articles by finding the topics that interest the users and the estimated audience of each topic. Then, given a new news story, we would infer the topics from the story’s content, and based on those topics we would make a prediction for how popular it may become in the future even before it’s released to the public.
Contents

1 Introduction 1
  1.1 Overview ................................................. 1
  1.2 Proposed Approach ...................................... 2
  1.3 Thesis Organization (Outline) ......................... 3

2 Background 4
  2.1 Term Frequency - Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF) ........ 4
  2.2 Non-negative Matrix Factorization (NMF) .................... 6
  2.3 Linear and Logistic Regression ............................ 6
  2.4 Performance Measures .................................... 8
    2.4.1 Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) ....................... 8
    2.4.2 Kendall Rank Correlation Coefficient .................. 8
    2.4.3 Accuracy, Precision, Recall, and F-score ............... 9

3 Related Work 11

4 Dataset 15
  4.1 Data Collection .......................................... 15
  4.2 Data Cleaning ............................................ 16
  4.3 Data Preparation ......................................... 17
  4.4 Data Exploration and Analysis ........................... 20
    4.4.1 Dataset size ........................................ 20
    4.4.2 Story distribution over categories .................... 20
    4.4.3 Average number of words ............................ 20
    4.4.4 Popularity Distribution ............................... 21
    4.4.5 Attention on 1st day vs. following days ............... 22

5 Experiment 23
  5.1 Approach Summary ....................................... 23
  5.2 Constructing the Terms Dictionary ...................... 24
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5.3 Building the TF-IDF Matrix</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 Discovering Hidden Topics using NMF</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5 Integrating Heterogeneous Features</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.6 The Regression Prediction Model</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.7 The Ranking Prediction Model</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.8 The Classification Prediction Model</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Results and Discussion</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1 Results Summary</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2 Model Evaluation</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Conclusion</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Future Work</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>References</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of Figures

1 An example of what the user sees when browsing foxnews.com . . . 2
2 An example for a regression model line fit through explanatory
variable points ................................................................. 7
3 An example of the provided popularity metrics with each story.
This particular story had 27 Facebook shares, 80 Twitter shares/tweets,
and 86 comments .............................................................. 16
4 The complete crawling process used to collect the stories and their
popularity metrics ............................................................. 17
5 A story example of the PHP portal created to manually review all
the stories in the dataset .................................................... 18
6 An example of the text cleaning process ................................. 19
7 The Fox News dataset distribution over categories .................... 20
8 The Huffington Post dataset distribution over categories ............ 21
9 Word count per story for both datasets ................................ 21
10 The distribution of popularity for Fox News dataset ................. 22
11 The distribution of popularity for The Huffington Post dataset ... 22
12 The amount of attention (number of Twitter shares) received per
story on day1, day2, and day3 for the Fox News dataset .......... 23
13 Linear regression behaviour with different $K$ values for the Fox
News dataset ................................................................. 27
14 Linear regression behaviour with different $K$ values for the Huffin-
gton Post dataset .......................................................... 27
15 Kendall rank correlation coefficient performance with different $K$
values for the Fox News dataset ......................................... 29
16 Kendall rank correlation coefficient performance with different $K$
values for the Huffington Post dataset ............................... 30
## List of Tables

1. An example of the matrix generated by TF-IDF .................................. 4
2. An example of a regression model data points ................................. 7
3. Classification model performance with different $K$ values for the Fox News dataset ................................................................. 30
4. Classification model performance with different $K$ values for the Huffington Post dataset ............................................................. 31
5. A summary of the best results found for the regression, ranking, and classification models ................................................................. 32
6. A comparison between the RMSE of the original content matrix and the summarized version produced by our approach ............................ 32
7. Model performance on the Fox News dataset when predicting for Twitter shares .................................................................................. 33
8. Improving the S-H Model performance by utilizing the content .......... 34
1 Introduction

1.1 Overview

The news domain attracts a significant amount of users’ attention. Both traditional newspapers (e.g., The New York Times) and non-traditional electronic news websites (e.g., Engadget) compete to build the biggest possible user base. To measure their success, news providers track the number of views, comments, and/or shares on social media for each of their articles/blogs. Using those metrics, they observed that out of the large number of published articles/blogs, only a small percentage receives serious user attention. The ability to predict that small percentage is crucial for the news business and a key factor for the success of one news provider over the other as popularity prediction can help in forecasting trends, planning for advertisement campaigns, and estimating future profit/costs.

In general, accurate popularity prediction can lead to improvements in: (1) advertisement planning, (2) profit/cost estimation, (3) recommender systems performance, as users can be directed to the interesting/popular part of the data, (4) search engines design and implementation, as items with higher predicted popularity can be ranked higher than the items with lower predicted popularity, (5) published material, as the interest and preferences of the majority of users is understood better, and (6) system administration, as it can help with caching strategies, traffic management, and possible bottleneck identification.

The complexity of the problem is far greater than it sounds as too many factors play a role in explaining the attention of users for specific items. Nonetheless, we could break those factors into extrinsic factors (unrelated to the characteristics of the item, e.g., a recommendation from a friend) and intrinsic factors (related to the item, e.g., the title of a video). The extrinsic factors have been covered in various previous studies (Lerman & Hogg, 2010; He, Gao, Kan, Liu, & Sugiyama, 2014; Kim, Kim, & Cho, 2012; Lerman & Hogg, 2012; J. G. Lee, Moon, & Salamatian, 2010). However, the more difficult problem, the intrinsic factors, still has not
received that much attention. This lack of attention is due to the complexity in capturing those intrinsic factors, and to the notion that building models around the intrinsic factors (e.g. based on the text of news stories), may lead to a solution that is not easily extended to other data types such as images or videos— which might be considered an issue for researchers aiming for a general solution. In this thesis, we focused on building a model that uses the intrinsic factors of a news story to explain its popularity with less focus on building a general solution.

1.2 Proposed Approach

We will investigate the use of content in popularity prediction. We believe that the content of a story matters in determining whether it will be popular or not. The basic intuition behind our approach is that when most users browse their favorite news source (e.g. Fox News), they only see the story’s title and the media (images/videos) used with the story as seen on Figure 1. Next, they evaluate whether they find the topic of the story (inferred from the title) or the media used with the story, interesting or not, and based on that, they decide whether to read or skip the story. Thus, we can assume that most users have a list of topics that they find interesting, and that they use that list to find their next story to read. Since each news source usually has a large base of the same loyal readers, we can assume that a set of latent topics exist and may be unique to that news source, where each topic attracts the same set of readers. Thus, by finding these topics,
and their estimated audience, we can build a rough estimation of how popular that topic will be the next time around. Moreover, to capture the possible user’s interest in the media used in the story (e.g. set of images or videos), we will keep track of how many images and/or videos exist in each story. Compared with existing methods, this is a much better approach for the news domain as we can make predictions even before an item is released to the public.

We will approach the problem using regression, ranking, and classification models. Approaching the problem using a regression model means that we will try to predict the exact number of attention (e.g. comments/views/shares). Whereas, approaching it using a ranking model, means that we will try to predict the ranking/order of stories by the amount of attention they will receive from highest to lowest. Finally, in the classification model, instead of predicting a continuous value, we will try to classify whether a story will be popular or not.

1.3 Thesis Organization (Outline)

In the remainder of this thesis, we will first cover some necessary background information in section 2 that the reader should know to fully comprehend the presented work. In section 3, we discuss the previous research done to solve the problem of popularity prediction in sect. In section 4 we discuss how we gathered the data needed for this research, and explain all the cleaning process and any data transformations we did on the dataset, and end this section with an overall analysis of the dataset. Finally, we discuss our experiment and results in sections 5 and 6.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms</th>
<th>News Articles (Documents)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iPhone 6 released!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apple</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Google</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iPhone</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Android</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iOS</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>App Store</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: An example of the matrix generated by TF-IDF

2 Background

2.1 Term Frequency - Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF)

This is one of the most popular algorithms in the field of information retrieval. It is mainly used to find the most important words that describe the content of a document. Given a set of documents, TF-IDF will output a document-term matrix with values that represent the weight (i.e. importance) of word $i$ in document $j$.

An example of what TF-IDF would output given a set of articles about technology can be seen in Table 1. The numbers represent the TF-IDF weight (importance score) of term $i$ (e.g. Apple) to article $j$ (e.g. iPhone 6 released). As seen in Table 1, such a technique can help tremendously in understanding the content of documents—or articles in our case.

As explained by (Jeffrey David Ullman, Anand Rajaraman, 2015), TF-IDF finds the words that describe a document based on the observation that important words that describe the documents are the least frequent words; whereas, the most frequent words carry the least significance in explaining the content of the document. This observation might feel a bit counter-intuitive but it has been proven that the most frequent words are actually stop words that do not carry any significance themselves such as the words ”the”, ”or”, and ”is”. Based on the
mentioned observation, TF-IDF was introduced with following equations:

\[ TF_{i,j} = \frac{f_{i,j}}{\max_k(f_{k,j})} \]  \hspace{1cm} (1)

\[ IDF_i = \log\left(\frac{N}{n_i}\right) \]  \hspace{1cm} (2)

\[ W_{i,j} = TF_{i,j} \times IDF_i \]  \hspace{1cm} (3)

The first equation (1) captures the term frequency \( TF_{ij} \) (i.e. number of occurrences) of term \( i \) in article \( j \) and divides it by the maximum frequency found for term \( i \) among all the articles in the corpus. For example, if we were looking at article \( j \) (e.g. iPhone 6 released) where the term \( i \) (e.g. Apple) occurred two times and we know that the maximum occurrence of the same term \( i \) was nine times at another article \( k \) in the corpus, then the \( TF_{ij} \) value for the term \( i \) and article \( j \) is \( 2/9 \).

The second equation (2) uses the inverse document frequency \( IDF_i \) to properly scale down/up the value of \( TF_{ij} \) through dividing the total number of documents by the number of documents that mentions term \( i \) in the corpus. For example, if we had a total of three articles in our corpus and the term \( i \) (e.g. Google) has been mentioned in two documents out of the three, then the \( IDF_i \) for term \( i \) is \( \log\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) \).

The third equation (3) is used to calculate the final weight score of TF-IDF for term \( i \) and article \( j \) by simply multiplying the values from the first and second equations.

It is important to point out that, for simplicity reasons, we are not explaining that there’s a need for additional text processing before using TF-IDF such as word stemming. However, readers should be aware that all the required text processing will be handled in the experiment.
2.2 Non-negative Matrix Factorization (NMF)

In recent years, non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) has become well-known in the information retrieval field. NMF is used to find two non-negative matrices whose product can approximate the original matrix; thus, resulting in a smaller compressed version (D. D. Lee & Seung, 1999). It was used in a number of computer science fields including computer vision, pattern recognition, document clustering, and recommender systems. The technique has shown tremendous success especially after it won the Netflix challenge (Koren, Bell, & Volinsky, 2009) by greatly improving their movie recommendation system. In a movie recommendation setting, the system usually maintains data about users and the ratings given for items by each user in the form of a matrix. However, that matrix is usually very sparse as users rarely rate items, which is where NMF comes in. NMF tries to approximate that matrix as an inner product of two low-rank matrices, as seen in equation (4), in order to capture the latent feature space that explains why user $u$ gave that specific rating to item $i$.

$$V_{u,i} \approx W_{u,k} \times H_{k,i}$$

(4)

The $W$ matrix shows us the level of influence that the factors in the latent space have on the taste of user $u$; whereas, the $H$ matrix would shows us the importance of the latent space factors in rating item $i$. Then, given those two matrices, we can approximate values for the empty slots in the original matrix. This technique won the Netflix challenge, and since then has been used in many domains, but to the best of our knowledge, has never been used in the popularity prediction domain.

2.3 Linear and Logistic Regression

Regression is a statistical approach for modeling the relationship between a response variable $y$, and one or more explanatory variables (i.e. features). The goal behind regression models, whether linear or logistic, is to find the best line
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>X (Model Feature)</th>
<th>Y (Model Response)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: An example of a regression model data points

fit throughout the feature points that would explain their relationship with the response variable. For example, based on the data in Table 2, a typical scenario would be to predict the value of the response variable $y$ based on the value of the explanatory variable $x$. As seen in Table 2, we know the value of $y$ when $x$ is {0.5, 1, 1.5, 2, 3}, and using a regression model we can predict the value of $y$ for other values of $x$ (e.g. when $X$ is 4) by fitting a line through the data points as seen in Figure 2. For instance, using our fitted line, we predict that $y$ will be 4 when $x$ is 4.

Figure 2: An example for a regression model line fit through explanatory variable points

In general, when we use a simple regression model, we try to fit the best line between the given points that would minimize the distance measured vertically between the points and the model line. Next, we use the fitted line to make predictions. In linear regression the fitted line is used to predict the continues
value of the response variable \( y \); whereas, in logistic regression, the fitted line is used to break the observations into two classes (e.g. popular/not-popular), so for example, we could label all points that fall above the fitted line as class \( A \) (e.g. popular) and all points that fall below the fitted line as class \( B \) (e.g. not-popular).

In our work, we use linear regression to predict the exact number of shares (i.e. the response variable) using the hidden topics found in the content (i.e. explanatory variables). Moreover, we use logistic regression to classify stories as either ”popular” or ”not-popular” using the same set of explanatory variables.

### 2.4 Performance Measures

#### 2.4.1 Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)

To measure the performance of a regression model, a number of performance metrics can be used; among those is Root Mean Square Error or RMSE. The RMSE is used to measure the difference between the true and predicted values using the following formula:

\[
\sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{n} \right) \sum (\text{predicted} - \text{actual})^2}
\]

where \( n \) is the number of observations in the dataset, \( \text{predicted} \) is a vector representing the predicted values, and \( \text{actual} \) is a vector representing the true values.

#### 2.4.2 Kendall Rank Correlation Coefficient

The Kendall Correlation Coefficient is a statistical test that measures the similarity between two orderings through the following formula:

\[
\frac{(n_c) - (n_d)}{\frac{1}{2}n(n-1)}
\]

where \( n_c \) is the number of concordant pairs, \( n_d \) is the number of discordant pairs, and \( n \) is the number of observations. The Kendall Correlation Coefficient ranges from -1 to +1, where +1 means there is a perfect match between the
two rankings, and -1 means that the two rankings are opposites. For instance, if vector-1 is \{1,2,3,4\}, vector-2 is \{4,3,2,1\}, and vector-3 is \{1,2,3,4\}, and we want to measure the correlation between vector-1 and the other two vectors using Kendall Correlation Coefficient. Then, using the given formula, we will find that the correlation between vector-1 and vector-2 would be -1; whereas, the correlation between vector-1 and vector-3 would be +1. Thus, it gave us a good indication of the similarity in the ordering between the two vectors.

2.4.3 Accuracy, Precision, Recall, and F-score

Unlike the previous models, to measure the performance of a classification model, multiple metrics are needed as follows:

First, there is the accuracy metric that measures the overall performance of the classification model. It uses the following formula:

\[
Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FP + FN + TN}
\]

where \(TP\) is the number of correct classifications for the positive class, \(TN\) is the number of correct classifications for the negative class, \(FP\) is the number of incorrect classifications for the positive class, and \(FN\) is the number of incorrect classifications for the negative class. Simply put, it divides the number of correct classifications by the total number of classifications — both correct and incorrect classifications.

Second, there is the precision metric that measures the accuracy of the positive class predictions, specifically, out of all the positive class predictions, how many were correct? This intuition is captured by the following formula:

\[
Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}
\]

Third, there is the recall metric that measures how accurate is our classification for the true positive cases, specifically, out of all the positive cases, how many did
we accurately classify as positive? This intuition is captured by the following formula:

\[
Recall = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}
\]  

(9)

Finally, there is the f-score metric which is a measure that acts as a weighted average of precision and recall. This means that the f-score measure is a mean for us to determine how well our model is doing on both precision and recall as seen in its formula:

\[
f-score = \frac{2 \times Precision \times Recall}{Precision + Recall}
\]  

(10)

It’s important to note in here that the reason why we used Precision and Recall is that those measures focus on the positive class (i.e. popular class) which is our main focus. Remember that the goal of popularity prediction is to find the popular fraction of stories using those measures, and thus we can determine how well we’re accomplishing our goal.
3 Related Work

Szabo and Huberman were the first to notice that there is a linear relationship between the log-transformed long-term popularity of a given item and its early view patterns (Szabo & Huberman, 2010). Based on that observation, they proposed a linear regression model on a logarithmic scale that predicts the total number of views for a future date using the number of views from an earlier date. They tested their model using YouTube videos and Digg stories—a popular user-driven news website where users post links to news articles and collectively vote them up or down. They were able to estimate the popularity with only 10% error rate using a simple linear model.

A follow up study on that approach suggested that not all dates are equally important in terms of the attention they get; thus, using different weights for different days would improve the overall model. That simple change resulted in up to 20% improvement in accuracy (Pinto, Almeida, & Gonçalves, 2013).

A similar study investigated the ability to predict the number of comments for a future date based on the number of comments from an earlier date. They tried three different techniques: a simple linear model, a linear model on a logarithmic scale that was suggested by Szabo and Huberman, and a constant scaling model. Surprisingly, their results showed that the simple linear model outperformed the other two models (Tatar, Antoniadis, de Amorim, & Fdida, 2012).

The previously mentioned approaches are simple and accurate but they rely on the early view patterns which is a problem when it comes to news articles as they have a short life span. It would be much more convenient if the popularity was predicted even before the public sees the articles.

Another study on popularity prediction argued that merely using the number of comments to predict popularity is not enough. Thus, they argued that using social influence, represented by the number of friends a user has, would result in a better ranking accuracy for popularity prediction. To test their claim, they used three datasets from Youtube, Flicker, and Last.fm, and they presented good
results that prove how considering other features such as social influence can help in popularity prediction (He et al., 2014).

Moreover, Lerman and Hogg studied predicting the popularity of news on Digg by considering the website layout and by modeling user voting behavior explicitly as a stochastic model. They found that the two most important factors for popularity prediction are the quality of the story and the social influence of users in Digg. They built a model that evaluates how interesting a story is (story’s quality) based on the early user reactions to it through the voting system. Then, based on how interesting the story is and how connected the submitter is (social influence), they predicted the final voting count that a story will receive (Lerman & Hogg, 2010, 2012).

Also an interesting model based approach was suggested in a different study where they worked on predicting the number of votes based on exploiting users voting behavior. They argued that users are either mavericks or conformers where mavericks are users that vote based on the opinion of the majority, and conformers are users who vote against the opinion of the majority, and that when a user votes, one of those two personalities prevail. Based on that, they built a model that incorporated both the suggested user personalities and the early number of votes to predict the future number of votes for a given item (Yin, Luo, Wang, & Lee, 2012).

With a different focus, a study characterized the popularity patterns of YouTube videos and demonstrated the impact of referrers (i.e. source of incoming links) on popularity prediction (Figueiredo, Benevenuto, & Almeida, 2011; Figueiredo, 2013).

Using a different approach, another study predicted the probability that a thread in a discussion forum will remain popular in the future using a biology inspired survival analysis technique. They identified risk factors such as the total number of comments and the time between the thread creation and its first comment, and used those risk factors as input for their model. Next, using that
input, they output a metric for popularity that shows the probability of whether a thread will remain popular in the future or not (J. G. Lee et al., 2010).

It’s worth mentioning that some work has approached this problem as a classification problem as well where they predict whether an item will be popular or not (Wu, Timmers, Vleeschauwer, & Leekwijck, 2010; Bandari, Asur, & Huberman, 2012; Kim et al., 2012). An example of such work is where the authors used reservoir computing which is a special type of neural networks to predict the popularity of items based on early popularity data (Wu et al., 2010). However, their model was complex and could not outperform the simpler linear regression model suggested by Szabo and Huberman. Also, another study focused on analyzing the popularity of news blogs (Kim et al., 2012). They used SVM, baseline, and similar matching to classify blogs. Their results show that they were able to predict whether an article will be popular or not after eight hours from submission with an overall accuracy of 70%.

The only attempt, to the best of our knowledge, which tries to predict the popularity of items without incorporating early popularity metrics was in 2012, where researchers attempted to predict the popularity of news articles based on factors related to the content (Bandari et al., 2012). They considered the following factors: the news source, the article’s category, the article’s author, the subjectivity of the language in the article, and number of named entities in the article. Their results show that they were able to predict ranges of popularity (classification) with accuracy up to 84% without considering other factors that have been extensively used in previous research such as early view/comment/vote data or social influence. They evaluated their work on a one-week worth of news dataset from 1350 different news source that they collected using a news aggregator API service. We align ourselves with this kind of work. However, they only used features extracted from the content, not the content itself.

This research differs from this work and all the previous research in that it focuses on studying the content of items and what makes them attractive to users,
specifically the news content. Also, the approach suggested in this research makes predictions even \textit{before} an item is released as it does not rely on data from the first few days to make predictions.
4 Dataset

4.1 Data Collection

We used Alexa, which is an Amazon.com company for web analytics, to find two popular news sources to crawl for stories. Based on Alexa, The Huffington Post and Fox News are among the top-20 most visited news websites in the United States and among the most famous around the world. For that reason, we started crawling the two websites for stories on December 24th, 2014 and stopped on March 15th, 2015 which gave us approximately three months’ worth of data.

PHP was used to read all the RSS feeds provided by both websites. Fox News had 12 RSS feeds broken down by different categories; whereas, The Huffington Post had 20 RSS feeds, also broken down by categories. It was a straight XML document read for all the RSS feeds. The RSS provided the title, category, and the link to each story. Next, the HTML structure of each website was analyzed and four patterns were found in common between the stories of Fox News, and three patterns for The Huffington Post. Using those patterns, all the links were crawled to get the complete text for each story. All the data was stored in a MySQL database to allow for complex queries — if needed. An hourly job was scheduled to read the RSS of both websites for new stories through the whole period, and a separate job was scheduled every 30 seconds to crawl the full body for the stories using the links stored in the MySQL database.

Next, to get the popularity metrics (number of comments/Facebook and Twitter shares), found with every story as seen in Figure 3, a separate script was needed as those metrics were populated through JavaScript after the page loads, and since PHP only retrieves the static HTML files prior to any JavaScript manipulation, it wasn’t possible to retrieve those metrics with it. Thus, a combination of our JavaScript code, CasperJS\(^1\), and PhantomJS\(^2\) was used to crawl the two websites for popularity metrics. The script used stimulates a browser request, and then it

\(^1\)http://casperjs.org/
\(^2\)http://phantomjs.org/
Figure 3: An example of the provided popularity metrics with each story. This particular story had 27 Facebook shares, 80 Twitter shares/tweets, and 86 comments.

waits 10 seconds to allow for any existing JavaScript to execute and manipulate the HTML, then it pulls the final HTML code which includes the actual popularity metrics. A separate job was scheduled for each website to run the script every second and pull the popularity metrics for the stories stored in the MySQL database based on their publication day.

We started collecting the popularity metrics for each story on daily basis for a period of seven days starting from the publication day. Previous research (Szabo & Huberman, 2010) shows that by the end of the first day, users lose interest in Digg news stories. It is worth mentioning that we also collected the category each story falls under and the number of images/videos contained in the body of each story.

To run the previously mentioned jobs, two Amazon Elastic Compute Cloud or EC2 machines were configured and used throughout the crawling period. The whole crawling process is summarized in Figure 4.

4.2 Data Cleaning

Since the dataset was collected through an automated process that may fail from time to time, it was necessary to manually check the stories in the dataset to confirm its consistency and integrity. Thus, after the data collection was complete, a simple PHP portal was created, as seen in Figure 5, which pulls stories from the database and places our version of the story on the left side, and opens the actual
Figure 4: The complete crawling process used to collect the stories and their popularity metrics

4.3 Data Preparation

First, we combined the title and body of each story, and then we removed whitespace, numbers, Punctuation, HTML tags, and stop words. Next, we enforced lower case letters and applied word-stemming on the whole body of text. Figure 6 shows an example of a before and after for an example text. It’s worth mentioning that we found the Text Mining Package to be a great help in accomplishing this task (Feinerer, Hornik, & Meyer, 2008).
Before Processing:

Graduate study in a computing discipline that only focuses on traditional computing approaches is not flexible enough to meet the needs of the real world. New hardware and software tools are continually introduced into the market. IT professionals must have a specific area of expertise as well as be adaptable and ready to tackle the next new thing—or just as often, retrofit available technologies to help their users adapt to the latest trends. The MS in information sciences and technologies provides an opportunity for in-depth study to prepare for today’s high-demand computing careers. Companies are drowning in data-structured, semi-structured, and unstructured. Big data is not just high transaction volumes; it is also data in various formats, with high velocity change, and increasing complexity. Information is gleaned from unstructured sources—such as Web traffic or social networks—as well as traditional ones; and information delivery must be immediate and on demand.

After Processing:

graduate studi comput disciplin focus tradit comput approach flexibl enough meet need real world new hardwar softwar tool continu introduc market pro-
profession must specify area expertise well adapt readi tackle next new thing or just often retrofit avail technolog help user adapt latest trend ms inform science technolog provid opportun indepth studi prepar today highdemand comput career compani drown datastruct semistruct unstructur big data just high transact volum also data various format high veloc chang increas complex inform glean unstructur source such web traffic social networksa well tradit one inform deliveri must immedi demand

Figure 6: An example of the text cleaning process

Second, we removed very short stories. Since we are exploring the possible use of content to predict popularity, we must have stories with enough content (words). Thus, we decided to remove all stories with fewer than 40 words.

Third, we removed outliers from the dataset. We used the Extreme Studentized Deviate test or ESD which uses the following formula to find the outliers in the dataset:

\[
[\text{mean} - (t \times SD), \text{mean} + (t \times SD)]
\]  \hspace{1cm} (11)

where \(SD\) is Standard Deviation and \(t\) is a threshold value that we determine based on our data. As seen by the formula, the ESD test declares any point more than \(t\) standard deviations from the mean to be an outlier value. We found three to be a good value for the \(t\) threshold. We used ESD on both Twitter and Facebook shares and kept only the stories that fall between the upper and lower bounds.

Fourth, we generated two text files, one for each news source, with the complete dataset. The text files contain the following for each story: 1) story id, 2) story text, 3) story category, 4) story image count, 5) story video count, 6) story Twitter shares, and 7) story Facebook shares.
4.4 Data Exploration and Analysis

This section will explore the content of the dataset:

4.4.1 Dataset size

The initial Fox News dataset had approximately 27,000 stories. However, after we cleaned and prepared the dataset for analysis, the Fox News dataset size dropped to 23,363 stories. As for the Huffington Post dataset, it had approximately 29,000 stories and was cut down to 23,583 stories after cleaning and preparing the dataset.

4.4.2 Story distribution over categories

The Fox News dataset has 12 categories/sections for news stories. The distribution of the stories in the dataset can be seen in Figure 7. We can see that most stories are from the sports, world (i.e. international news), and national (i.e. local news) categories/sections.

As for the Huffington Post dataset, there’s a larger variety of categories/sections. The dataset has 20 categories/sections, as seen in Figure 8, with a the majority of stories being from the blogs, world (i.e. international news), and entertainment category/section.

4.4.3 Average number of words

The Fox News dataset word count distribution can be seen in Figure 9 which clearly shows that this dataset consists mostly of stories with word count between 20
Figure 8: The Huffington Post dataset distribution over categories

![The Huffington Post dataset distribution over categories](image)

Figure 9: Word count per story for both datasets

![Fox News Dataset](image)

![The Huffington Post Dataset](image)

90 and 500 words. As seen in Figure 9, the Huffiong Post dataset average number of words is 273 word per story which is higher than the Fox News dataset but it had a very similar distribution with word count falling between 100 and 700 words for most of the dataset.

4.4.4 Popularity Distribution

The metrics we are using to measure popularity are Twitter and Facebook shares. We believe that Twitter and Facebook shares indicate user’s interest more than
just merely clicking or viewing the story as it requires the user to interact with the story by clicking on the share button. The distribution of those two metrics on a logarithmic scale can be seen in Figure 10 and 11 for the Fox News and Huffington Post datasets respectively.

4.4.5 Attention on 1st day vs. following days

For both the Fox News dataset and Huffinton Post dataset, we found that news stories do received 90%-100% of all the attention they will ever get during the first day as seen in Figure 12 — which shows the number of Twitter shares received by Fox New stories on the first, second, and third day. This proves our point that unlike YouTube videos where a video may still be relevant and attracts attention for years to come, news stories have a very short life span, a few hours in some cases, which shows how important it is to predict the popularity even before the release of the news story.
5 Experiment

5.1 Approach Summary

We summarize our suggested approach here and give further details in the following section:

• We built a matrix that represents the content of our dataset using *term frequency-inverse document frequency* (TF-IDF). The TF-IDF matrix was built using the text of the stories (both title and body). This can be generalized to any domain as long as the content can be represented as a matrix.

• We applied non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) to the TF-IDF matrix to find the latent topics that help in explaining the user’s interest in each story. Moreover, NMF helped in summarizing the original term-based matrix which gave us a smaller matrix that is much more computationally efficient to use for model training and prediction. In our case, it resulted in an up to 90% smaller matrix and gave us better accuracy than the original term-based matrix.

• We integrated the other features that we extracted from the content to the matrix to help increase our model’s accuracy. To be specific, we added the...
story’s category, the number of images, and number of videos found in the body of each story.

- We used the final matrix in our regression, ranking, and classification models to predict the popularity of news stories.

5.2 Constructing the Terms Dictionary

When we built the terms dictionary, which is the first step to build the TF-IDF matrix, we found that it had a large number of terms for both datasets due to infrequent terms (terms that occur in only a few stories). For that reason, we had to pick a threshold that would allow us to drop the infrequent terms and lower the final TF-IDF matrix size. We picked two thresholds, a low one (20), and a high one (80). This means that for the low threshold (20), we dropped all the terms that occurred in fewer than 20 stories; whereas, for the high threshold we dropped all the terms that occurred in fewer than 80 stories. Next, we compared the performance of both on predicting popularity using a regression model, and compared the results between the two. We found the error rate difference to be minimal. This may be due to the fact that the less frequent a term is, the less useful it is to help in other stories in the dataset. As a result, we used the matrix with the high threshold (80) in our model evaluation as it is a smaller matrix, which makes it computationally more efficient. After applying our threshold, the Fox News dataset dictionary had 4822 terms; while, the Huffington Post dataset dictionary had 6107 terms.

5.3 Building the TF-IDF Matrix

The TF-IDF matrix $A$ has rows that represent stories and columns that represent terms (from the dataset dictionary), where element $A_{ij}$ represents the TF-IDF weight of term $j$ in story $i$. Based on that, the $A$ matrix for the Fox New dataset had 23,363 rows and 4822 columns; whereas, the $A$ matrix for the Huffington Post
dataset had 23,583 rows and 6107 columns.

5.4 Discovering Hidden Topics using NMF

To explain how we used NMF to discover the hidden topics, let’s assume that there are \( m \) articles and \( n \) distinct terms. We use a matrix \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \) to denote the TF-IDF matrix, where \( A_{ij} \) represents the TF-IDF weight of word \( j \) in article \( i \). Note that entries in the TF-IDF matrix all take non-negative real values. In this regard, the \( i \)-th row of \( A \) represents article \( i \) while the \( j \)-th column of \( A \) represents term \( j \).

NMF computes two low-rank matrices \( G \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times K} \) and \( H \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times m} \) to approximate the original TF-IDF matrix \( A \), i.e., \( A \approx GH' \). More specifically,

\[
    a_j \approx \sum_{k=1}^{K} G_{jk} h_k
\]

where \( a_j \) is the \( j \)-th column vector in \( A \), representing term \( j \), and \( h_k \) is the \( k \)-th column of \( H \). Eq. 12 shows that each term vector \( a_j \) is approximated by a linear combination of the column vectors in \( H \) weighted by the components of \( G \). In practice, we have \( K \ll m \) and \( K \ll n \). Hence, \( H \) can be regarded as a new basis that contains a lower number of basis vectors than \( A \). These new basis vectors capture the latent topics that characterize the underlying content of the articles.

Consequently, \( G \) is the new representation of the articles using the latent topics. It can also be regarded as a projection of \( A \) onto the latent topic space \( H \).

To apply NMF, we need to choose a factorization rank \( K \), so we experimented with different values for \( K \) until we found the value that gave us the best accuracy for each of the models. In our experiment, we built seven matrices, each with a different \( K \) value as follows: 200, 400, 500, 1000, 1500, 2000, and 3000. Next, we used those matrices with all three models and documented the results in the following sections.
5.5 Integrating Heterogeneous Features

The hidden topics discovered using NMF are expected to provide a good and compact approximation of the TF-IDF matrix, which captures the content of the news articles. The remaining challenge is how to exploit the new content representation to achieve popularity prediction. Recall that entries $G_{jk}$’s for $k \in [1, K]$ essentially denote the importance or weight of each of the $K$ topics in article $j$. Therefore, if we treat topics as features to describe the content of article $j$, $G_{jk}$’s can be used as the feature values in a popularity prediction model. Meanwhile, as part of our collected data, the numbers of Twitter and Facebook shares show people’s interest in an article, which provides a natural indicator of its popularity. Therefore, we choose these numbers as the response of our popularity prediction model.

Besides the hidden topics, some other features embedded in a news article may also be useful for popularity prediction. For example, we also included the story’s category as a feature in our model based on our observation that the category of a story plays a big role in determining its future popularity. Moreover, we noticed that there is a fraction of stories where the attention is not on the textual part of the story but the media used in the story whether that be a set of images or videos. Thus, we decided to use the number of images and the number of videos used within a story as features in our model as well.

5.6 The Regression Prediction Model

We propose to exploit a multivariate regression model to integrate these heterogeneous set of features for popularity prediction. We trained the model with 10-fold cross validation. The in-sample (training) and out-of-sample (testing) errors can be seen in Figure 13 for the Fox News dataset, and in Figure 14 for the Huffington Post dataset— when predicting for both Twitter and Facebook shares. We used Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) to evaluate the linear regression model.

As a general observation, we noticed that as we increase the factorization rank
Figure 13: Linear regression behaviour with different $K$ values for the Fox News dataset

Figure 14: Linear regression behaviour with different $K$ values for the Huffington Post dataset
value, we get a lower in-sample (training) error. This held true for both datasets and when predicting for both Twitter and Facebook shares.

For the Fox News dataset, we observed that when predicting for Twitter shares, we got a U-shape where $K$ is 1000, and an almost U-shape with Facebook where $K$ is 2000. Thus, we picked a $K$ value of 1000 when predicting for Twitter and a $K$ value of 2000 when predicting for Facebook.

For the Huffington Post dataset, we observed that when predicting for twitter shares, the simpler model gave the best out-of-sample (testing) error; whereas, when predicting for Facebook, we get our U-shape pattern again where $K$ is 500. Thus, we picked a $K$ value of 500 when predicting for Twitter and Facebook shares.

5.7 The Ranking Prediction Model

We used the predictions of the linear regression model to solve this as a ranking problem. For each factorization rank $K$, we sorted vector-1 which has the correct ordering of stories by the number of shares from highest to lowest, and vector-2 which has our predicted values of shares sorted from highest to lowest as well, and we compared the two vectors. To compare the two vectors, we used Kendall rank correlation coefficient, and we demonstrated the in-sample (training) and out-of-sample (testing) results in Figure 15 and in Figure 16.

In general, we noticed that the ranking correlation increased and decreased based on how well the linear regression model performed. Thus, for the in-sample (training) results, we found that the correlation increases as we increased the factorization rank $K$; moreover, the out-of-sample (testing) results for the Fox News dataset, acted similarly to the linear model in that the highest correlation was when $K$ is 1000, when predicting for Twitter shares, and 2000 when predicting for Facebook shares. The values we picked for $K$ when training the linear model, are the best ones for the ranking model as well. As for the Huffington Post dataset, we found the highest correlation is when $K$ is 500, when predicting for
5.8 The Classification Prediction Model

We chose to break the dataset up into 25% popular stories and 75% unpopular stories to make it more realistic as popular stories in real-world data represent only a fraction of the available content. Thus, we labeled the top 25% most shared stories in both datasets as popular, and labeled all other stories as not-popular. We used logistic regression for classification and we experimented with different values for the factorization rank $K$ in here as well. To measure the performance we used common classification measures: accuracy, precision, recall, and f-score. The in-sample and out-of-sample results can be seen on table 3 for the Fox News dataset, and table 4 for the Huffington Post dataset.

In general, we observed that for the in-sample results (training), we got a similar pattern to that of the other models where we get a higher accuracy and f-score as we increase the factorization rank. This is seen for both datasets.

As for the out-of-sample results (testing), we observed that for the Fox News
Figure 16: Kendall rank correlation coefficient performance with different $K$ values for the Huffington Post dataset

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Twitter Accuracy (in-sample)</th>
<th></th>
<th>Twitter Accuracy (out-of-sample)</th>
<th></th>
<th>Facebook Accuracy (in-sample)</th>
<th></th>
<th>Facebook Accuracy (out-of-sample)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K=200</td>
<td>K=500</td>
<td>K=1000</td>
<td>K=2000</td>
<td>K=200</td>
<td>K=500</td>
<td>K=1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>0.7993</td>
<td>0.8195</td>
<td>0.8351</td>
<td>0.8711</td>
<td>0.7902</td>
<td>0.8018</td>
<td>0.8003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision</td>
<td>0.6359</td>
<td>0.6785</td>
<td>0.7063</td>
<td>0.7692</td>
<td>0.6104</td>
<td>0.6317</td>
<td>0.6194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>0.4531</td>
<td>0.5221</td>
<td>0.5778</td>
<td>0.6885</td>
<td>0.4329</td>
<td>0.4871</td>
<td>0.5112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-score</td>
<td>0.5292</td>
<td>0.5901</td>
<td>0.6356</td>
<td>0.7266</td>
<td>0.5065</td>
<td>0.5501</td>
<td>0.5601</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>0.8018</td>
<td>0.8218</td>
<td>0.8592</td>
<td>0.8774</td>
<td>0.8018</td>
<td>0.8218</td>
<td>0.8592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision</td>
<td>0.6367</td>
<td>0.6743</td>
<td>0.7406</td>
<td>0.7773</td>
<td>0.6367</td>
<td>0.6743</td>
<td>0.7406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>0.4613</td>
<td>0.5396</td>
<td>0.6623</td>
<td>0.7065</td>
<td>0.4613</td>
<td>0.5396</td>
<td>0.6623</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-score</td>
<td>0.5350</td>
<td>0.5995</td>
<td>0.6993</td>
<td>0.7402</td>
<td>0.5350</td>
<td>0.5995</td>
<td>0.6993</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.8082</td>
<td>0.8217</td>
<td>0.8198</td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.8082</td>
<td>0.8217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision</td>
<td>0.6226</td>
<td>0.6431</td>
<td>0.6557</td>
<td>0.6469</td>
<td>0.6226</td>
<td>0.6431</td>
<td>0.6557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>0.4442</td>
<td>0.5039</td>
<td>0.5870</td>
<td>0.5965</td>
<td>0.4442</td>
<td>0.5039</td>
<td>0.5870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-score</td>
<td>0.5185</td>
<td>0.5650</td>
<td>0.6194</td>
<td>0.6207</td>
<td>0.5185</td>
<td>0.5650</td>
<td>0.6194</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Classification model performance with different $K$ values for the Fox News dataset
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Twitter Accuracy (in-sample)</th>
<th>Facebook Accuracy (in-sample)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K=200</td>
<td>K=500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>0.7556</td>
<td>0.761</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision</td>
<td>0.51964</td>
<td>0.56275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recall</td>
<td>0.07417</td>
<td>0.12376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F-score</td>
<td>0.1298</td>
<td>0.2029</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Classification model performance with different $K$ values for the Huffington Post dataset

dataset, as seen in Table 3, we get a higher $f$-score as we increase the value for $K$ but the overall accuracy starts to drop after $K$ is 500 when predicting for Twitter shares, and 1000 when predicting for Facebook shares. The same pattern is seen for the Huffington Post in Table 4, where the $f$-score value increases with higher $K$ value; whereas, the overall accuracy starts to drop after $K$ is 200 for Twitter shares, and 500 for Facebook shares.
Table 5: A summary of the best results found for the regression, ranking, and classification models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset</th>
<th>Original Content Matrix</th>
<th>Summarized Content Matrix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fox News Dataset</td>
<td>Huffington Post Dataset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Twitter</td>
<td>Facebook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Twitter</td>
<td>Facebook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regression RMSE</td>
<td>0.6742068</td>
<td>0.7312376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ranking Kendall Correlation</td>
<td>0.5547424</td>
<td>0.5119817</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classification Accuracy</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: A comparison between the RMSE of the original content matrix and the summarized version produced by our approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dataset</th>
<th>Original Content Matrix</th>
<th>Summarized Content Matrix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fox News Dataset</td>
<td>Huffington Post Dataset</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Twitter</td>
<td>Facebook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Twitter</td>
<td>Facebook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fox News</td>
<td>0.761400</td>
<td>0.6742068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Huffington Post</td>
<td>1.123824</td>
<td>0.9445133</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6 Results and Discussion

6.1 Results Summary

Table 5 has the best results for the regression, ranking, and classification models based on the results of the testing sample. Overall, we had better results with the Fox News dataset than the Huffington Post dataset in all three models. We would like to highlight the drastic difference done to the size of the original content matrix. For instance, in the regression model, the original term-based content matrix for Fox News had 4822 columns and was cut down to 1000 columns (20% the original size) when predicting for Twitter shares, and to 2000 columns (41% the original size) when predicting for Facebook shares. Also, the original content matrix for Huffington Post had 6107 columns and was cut down to 500 columns (8% the original size) when predicting for Twitter and Facebook shares. This drastic size reduction lead to a summarized representation that is much more computationally efficient for model training and prediction. Moreover, to prove that the new representation, which uses the latent topics for prediction, performs much better than the original content matrix, we compared the two using a regression model and displayed the results in Table 6.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Used</th>
<th>RMSE</th>
<th>Kendall Correlation</th>
<th>Accuracy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Features-without-content</td>
<td>0.8382228</td>
<td>0.3241783</td>
<td>0.7741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content-without-features</td>
<td>0.710004</td>
<td>0.5272800</td>
<td>0.7793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Content-with-features</td>
<td>0.6742068</td>
<td>0.5547424</td>
<td>0.7983</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Model performance on the Fox News dataset when predicting for Twitter shares

### 6.2 Model Evaluation

To evaluate our model and show the importance of utilizing content when predicting the popularity of items, we compare the following models as we try to predict the total number of Twitter shares on both dataset:

- **Features-without-content model**: We only used the category, number of images, and number of videos as features for this model. We did not incorporate the content.

- **Content-without-features model**: We used only the content without any of the other features.

- **Content-with-features model**: We used both content and features.

For the comparison done on the Fox News dataset, shown in Table 7, we observe that the biggest improvement happens when the content is considered. We can see that the lowest performance happens when considering the features only; then a jump in performance happens when we consider the content, and then a good improvement happens when we merge the two which proves that the content can greatly impact the performance, and when merged with any other features, it can improve the overall accuracy.

Moreover, we show that it can be combined with other models to improve their overall accuracy. We used the S-H Model that uses linear regression on a logarithmic scale proposed by (Szabo & Huberman, 2010) which is considered the simplest and most accurate model to date. The model uses the early user reactions (e.g. Twitter shares) to predict the future reactions. In our case, we
Table 8: Improving the S-H Model performance by utilizing the content

used the number of Twitter shares received on the first day to predict the final number of Twitter shares. Note that in the news domain, as previously mentioned, most stories receive 90% to 100% of the attention they will ever get on the first day! This means that in reality this model may not be the best model for the news domain as what matters is the level of attention that the story will get on the first day and not after. It is unfair to compare our model against the S-H model as we predict even before an item is released to the public. Thus, we instead prove that we can improve it by leveraging the content using our suggested approach as seen in Table 8. The RMSE was already very low when using the S-H model but we were able to get an even lower value when we included the content, and we got an even better result when we added the features and content.
7 Conclusion

In this work, we’ve discussed the short life span nature of news stories, and explained how it is more efficient to predict the popularity of stories even before they are released to the public. To tackle this challenge, we have investigated the ability to use the content of news stories for popularity prediction. We presented an approach that uses non-negative matrix factorization to discover the latent topics that explain the user’s interest in the content of a given story. Then, using these topics, we estimated the popularity of other stories. To show the effectiveness of our approach, we evaluated our work on two real-world datasets and showed how utilizing the content can increase the overall performance whether the goal is to use a regression, ranking or a classification model. Moreover, we showed how our approach summarized the term-based matrix, that represents the content, and reduced its size by up to 90% without losing any prediction accuracy. In contrast, our summarized version, had higher overall accuracy than the original term-based matrix. Finally, we proved that the content can be used with other models to improve their overall performance for popularity prediction. We summarize our major contributions as follows:

- We suggested a non-negative matrix factorization (NMF) based approach that utilizes content information to achieve popularity prediction. We used the popularity of news stories as a motivating example, but the proposed approach can be applied to other domains where popularity of the items need to be estimated before the items are released to the public.

- We showed how our approach can summarize the content and produce a matrix up to 90% smaller than the original term-based matrix, which makes it much more computationally efficient for model training and prediction.

- We proved that our summarized content representation can produce better prediction results than the original term-based content matrix.
• We conduct a comprehensive set of experiments to evaluate the performance of our proposed method on two real-world datasets.

• We showed how our approach can be merged with other models to improve their overall accuracy.
8 Future Work

In this work, we have only used the textual content of stories. A possible extension of this work would be to study other content types such as images/videos and how utilizing their content using our approach can help in predicting their popularity. Moreover, the current work drops all terms that do not occur in at least \( x \) number of stories; whereas, a better approach might be to first evaluate the term importance, and based on that, a decision of whether the term should be dropped or kept is made. We could measure how popular the term is in social media (e.g. Twitter), and use that to evaluate the term’s importance. Another approach, would be to use the Stanford Entity Resolution Framework \(^3\) to find important entities, and use that to determine if a term should be kept or not. Finally, the use of social influence may by investigated to improve this work by studying the users who tweeted the stories and the content of their tweets.

\(^3\)http://infolab.stanford.edu/serf/
References


38


