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Targeted Content Delivery for Social Media Content

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Targeted Content Delivery for Social Media Content

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ABSTRACT

Spotting contextually relevant keywords is fundamental to effective content suggestions on the Web. In this regard, misspellings, entity variations and off-topic discussions in content from Social Media pose unique challenges. Here, we present an algorithm that assists content delivery systems by identifying contextually relevant keywords and eliminating off-topic keywords. A preliminary user study over data from MySpace and Facebook clearly suggests the usefulness of our work in delivering more targeted content suggestions.

Categories and Subject Descriptors
I.4 [Information Systems Applications]: Miscellaneous

General Terms
Contextual Content Delivery, Social Media Content

Keywords
Mutual Information, Contextual keywords

1. INTRODUCTION

Content Delivery is the task of complementing content that a user is viewing (Web search results or a Web page) with related content such as advertisements, similar articles, RSS feeds, images, tags and so on. Suggested content is pushed to a user because it is deemed relevant to the content the user is viewing and with the goal of minimizing his information seeking efforts. Typically, content delivery involves spotting keywords in the content being consumed and matching those with keywords in the content being delivered. More sophisticated techniques append spotted key-words with synonyms or category level metadata to deliver additional content. Zemanta\(^1\) is one such content delivery application that offers suggestions on user blogs by matching what a user writes with a database of pre-indexed multimodal content to deliver related text links, images and tags.

Compared to traditional online media, content on Social Media poses unique challenges for content delivery. User-generated content on blogs, discussion forums etc. tends to be more informal compared to content found in scientific or news articles. Given the interactional purpose to communication in Social Media, fragmented sentences, misspellings and entity variations are commonplace. Typically, users are also sharing an experience which results in the main message being overloaded with off-topic content. These characteristics, more prevalent in Social Media than elsewhere on the Web, affect the accuracy in identifying contextual keywords, i.e., keywords that are relevant to the main discussion. This in turn affects content suggestions that are matched against identified keywords. Poor suggestions impair user experience, are intrusive and over time, reduce user attention. Consider these examples shown at [2] where the presence and elimination of off-topic keywords significantly affects the relevance of content suggestions.

The contribution of this work is a simple yet effective algorithm to accurately identify contextual keywords, i.e., keywords that are relevant to the main discussion in the content a user is viewing, and eliminate off-topic keywords. The goal is to assist content delivery systems in generating more relevant or targeted content suggestions. The algorithm is based on well-founded principles of information theory and is applied after keywords have been identified in content and before suggestions are made.

As a test case, we evaluate the algorithm on posts from discussion forums on social networking sites. Data on these sites are good representatives of off-topic chatter given the majority teen and tween user demographic. Using Google AdSense for content delivery, we evaluate the targeted nature of content suggestions with and without using our algorithm. According to user evaluations over 57 posts, our algorithm results in 22% more targeted content suggestions.

2. REACHING CONTEXTUAL KEYWORDS

The task before us is to identify keywords in content that are relevant to the main discussion. As a first step, we spot keywords and phrases (henceforth referred to as keywords) and then identify contextually relevant keywords while eliminating off-topic ones. Data for this work was crawled from three MySpace forums and a Facebook ‘To Buy’ Marketplace forum (see Table 1).
### Table 1: Crawl Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Venue on SNS</th>
<th>No. of Posts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training Data</td>
<td>8000, 2000, 2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronics, Gadgets</td>
<td>resp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test Data</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text Data</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Spotting Keywords and Phrases**

Spotting keywords in text is a well-studied problem. Keyword extraction [9], named entity identification [7], information extraction [5] etc. accomplish this goal using different strategies. Spotting keywords however, is not our focus. In this work, we used the Yahoo Term Extractor [3] (YTE), an off-the-shelf keyword extraction service built over Yahoo’s search API. YTE uses an index built off the Web, takes as input a text snippet and returns key words and phrases in text. We chose YTE because we did not want to be limited by frequencies from the 12000 post corpus for tf.idf calculations. Also, a recent work comparing YTE, tf.idf and mutual information techniques for keyword identification concluded that YTE did better than tf.idf in identifying keywords in a document and all three were similar in characterizing document content for larger values of k [10].

To test YTE’s efficacy on crawled posts, we marked keywords in 100 test posts from MySpace using YTE and saves unique spotted keywords. Recall and precision were calculated against annotators who were instructed to mark names of products, services and category names such as books, car, camera etc. Recall and precision were calculated against annotations that both users agreed upon. With an inter-annotator agreement of 0.59, YTE’s recall and precision were 52% and 71% respectively. YTE failed to spot keywords that were misspelled or were variations not frequent on the Web. To overcome this, we use a simple heuristic of assuming title keywords, as in blog titles, to be good indicators of context. Using these keywords as stimulus, our algorithm expands the context by including content keywords that are strongly associated with the title keywords.

Our clustering algorithm starts by placing all title keywords in cluster C1 and content keywords in cluster C2. The idea is to gradually expand C1 by adding keywords from C2 that are strongly associated with C1. At every iteration, the algorithm measures the change in Information Content (IC) of C1, IC(C1,k), before and after adding a keyword k, from C2 to C1. The keyword that results in a positive and minimum IC(C1,k) score is added to C1 and removed from C2. Additionally, keywords resulting in negative IC(C1,k) scores are discarded as off-topic. The algorithm terminates when all keywords in C2 have been evaluated or when no more keywords in C2 have positive IC(C1,k) scores (no strong associations with C1).

**Word association strengths** are measured using the information theoretic notion of mutual information. **Word co-occurrence counts** are obtained from the Web using AltaVista. First, we describe preliminaries and then detail the clustering algorithm using an example shown in Table 2.

The algorithm starts by adding every keyword from C2 to C1 and measuring the change in Information Content (IC) of C1. IC(C1) is the strength of the semantic associations between words in the cluster and is defined as the average pairwise Mutual Information (MI) of the words.

\[
IC(C1) = \frac{MI(C1)}{|C1|} = \sum_{w_i \neq w_j} \frac{MI(w_i, w_j)}{|C1|} \tag{1}
\]

where |C1| denotes the cardinality of the cluster C1 and \(|C1|\) is the number of word pairs in the cluster C1, normalizing for clusters of different sizes. MI(C1) is the Mutual Information of cluster C1, defined as the sum of pairwise Mutual Information of words within the cluster.

\[
MI(C1) = \sum_{w_i \neq w_j \in C1} MI(w_i, w_j) \tag{2}
\]

Recall that \(w_i\) or \(w_j\) can be a single word or a phrase. The MI of words \(w_i, w_j \in C1\) measures their association strength in terms of their co-occurrence statistics. It is defined as the point-wise realization of the MI between two random variables \(W_i\) and \(W_j\) in V, a vocabulary of words[4].

\[
MI(w_i, w_j) = p(w_i, w_j) \log \frac{p(w_i, w_j)}{p(w_i)p(w_j)} \tag{3}
\]

Standard definition for point-wise mutual information ignores the joint probability term, \(p(w_i, w_j)\) in (3). We keep this term to ensure the consistency of (2). Here, \(p(w_i|w_j)\) is the probability of \(w_j\) co-located with word \(w_i\) (preceeding or following) within a window. Unlike standard bi-gram models in language modeling that require words to occur in language. Creating word clusters using co-occurrence based association strengths have been used in the past for assigning words to syntactic and semantic categories, learning language models and so on.

However, generating semantically cohesive keyword clusters still does not indicate which clusters are relevant to the discussion. To overcome this, we use a simple heuristic of assuming title keywords, as in blog titles, to be good indicators of context. Using these keywords as stimulus, our algorithm expands the context by including content keywords that are strongly associated with the title keywords.

**Identifying Contextual Keywords**

The main contribution of our work is to identify keywords that are related to the main discussion and those that are off-topic. One solution to this problem is to use tf.idf to rank discriminatory terms in a document higher. However, not all discriminatory terms are necessarily relevant to the discussion (see sample at [2]). A more promising approach is to cluster words that have strong semantic associations with one another, namely words that are called to mind in response to a given stimulus, thereby separating strongly related and unrelated keywords. One way to measure semantic associations is to use word co-occurrence frequencies in
a sequence, we do not care about word order. Maximum likelihood estimates of the parameters are calculated as

\[ p(w_i) = \frac{n(w_i)}{N} \quad p(w_j|w_i) = \frac{n(w_i, w_j)}{n(w_i)} \quad (4) \]

where \( n(w_i) \) is the frequency of word \( w_i \) on the Web; \( n(w_i, w_j) \) is the co-occurrence count of words \( w_i \) and \( w_j \); \( N \) is the number of tokens available on the Web\(^2\).

Word and word pair frequency estimates are obtained by querying AltaVista. We chose AltaVista mainly for its NEAR functionality for obtaining counts for co-occurring words. This operator constrains Web search to documents containing two words within ten words of one another, in either order. When obtaining counts for phrases we use “double quotes” around it. The process of obtaining frequency estimates is conducted offline and automated using a script that generates search terms for all words and word pairs in \( C_1 \cup C_2 \) and issues Altavista queries.

Plugging (4) into (3), we have MI of two words as shown in (5). This measure is symmetric, i.e., \( MI(w_i, w_j) = MI(w_j, w_i) \). When \( n(w_i, w_j) = 0 \), we define \( MI(w_i, w_j) = 0 \).

\[ MI(w_i, w_j) = \frac{n(w_i, w_j)}{N} \log \frac{n(w_i, w_j)}{n(w_i) n(w_j)} \quad (5) \]

As every keyword \( k_i \) is added from \( C_2 \) to \( C_1 \), the change in Information Content of \( C_1 \) is measured as

\[ IC(C_1, k_i) = IC(C_1) - IC(C_1) \quad (6) \]

where \( IC(C_1) \) is the information content of \( C_1 \) after adding keyword \( k_i \) from \( C_2 \). \( IC(C_1, k_i) \) is positive when \( k_i \) is strongly associated with words in \( C_1 \) and negative when \( k_i \) is unrelated to words in \( C_1 \). Bullet 3, Table 2 shows the computed \( IC(C_1, k_i) \) scores for words in \( C_2 \) at the end of the first iteration.

At this time, the algorithm eliminates keywords that result in negative \( IC(C_1, k_i) \) scores (Bullet 4). This is done only at the first iteration when \( C_1 \) has only title keywords. The intuition is that if content keywords are unrelated to the context-indicating title keywords, they will not contribute to subsequent steps that build the title keyword cluster.

Next, the keyword that results in a positive and minimum \( IC(C_1, k_i) \) score, ‘canon hv20’ in this example, is greedily added to \( C_1 \). The reasoning behind the pick is as follows. A keyword \( k_i \) occurring in specific contexts with words in \( C_1 \) will increase the Information Content of the Content Relatively less than a keyword that occurs in generic contexts. For ex.,

\(^2\)Due to lack of recent statistics, we use a conservative estimate of \( N=70 \) billion calculated for AltaVista in 2003 [6] if \( C_1 \) has the keyword ‘speakers’, the keyword ‘beep’ that occurs in maximally constrained or specific contexts of malfunctioning ‘speakers’ will have lower association strengths with \( C_1 \) compared to a keyword ‘logitech’ that occurs in minimally constrained or broader contexts with ‘speakers’.

As the algorithm continues, the keyword occurring in a maximally constrained context with \( C_1 \) is removed from \( C_2 \) and added to \( C_1 \) at every iteration. This strategy has the tendency of adding specific to general keywords from \( C_2 \) to \( C_1 \) (see Bullet 5). The alternate strategy is to greedily add the keyword that occurs in minimally constrained or generic contexts with \( C_1 \). This tends to pick generic keywords first and runs out of keywords that add to the Information Content of \( C_1 \) (see Bullet 6). In our experiments we use the first strategy to have as many related, specific keywords for targeted content delivery.

Drawbacks of the Algorithm: The algorithm does poorly when the assumption that title keywords are always contextual in nature does not hold or when no keywords are spotted in the title. One way to tell if title keywords are relevant is to measure their association strengths with all content keywords. If all title-content clusters have low association strengths, it is an indication of non-contextual title keywords. When no keywords are spotted in the title, we use all title words (minus stopwords) to seed \( C_1 \). If the words are too generic, they do not selectively pick contextual keywords from the content. In both these cases, a viable option is to ignore our algorithm and use the content as is.

Algorithm Complexity: Using title keywords as starting points reduces the context space from all keywords to a few title keywords. The best case running time of our algorithm is \( O(MN) \) where \( M = |C_1| \), size of the title cluster and \( N = |C_2| \), size of the content cluster. Best case scenario occurs when all keywords in \( C_2 \) are off-topic or only one \( C_2 \) keyword is contextually relevant. One iteration of the algorithm after computing \( MN \) association strengths suffices to partition relevant and noisy keywords. Worst case complexity is \( O(MN^2) \) when there are no off-topic keywords and the algorithm has to evaluate all \( N \) keywords in \( C_2 \) one after another, computing \( MN \) association strengths at every step, for \( N \) iterations. It is possible that multiple words resulting in similar Information Content change scores in the same iteration can be added to \( C_1 \) to reduce the time complexity of the algorithm. This is an important focus of future investigations, especially given the wordier nature of blogs.

In the 220 crawled test posts from MySpace and Facebook, average size of \( C_1 \) was 3 and that of \( C_2 \) was 9. Average execution time of the cluster algorithm was 4.3ms per post.
3. EXPERIMENTS AND EVALUATION

The goal of our experiments is to highlight the importance of using only contextually relevant keywords for content delivery. Using Google AdSense that matches content on web pages with advertisements, we show that contextual keywords (returned by our algorithm) help AdSense deliver more relevant ad suggestions. We used 57 posts (42 from MySpace and 15 from Facebook’s test dataset) for this experiment. These posts had at least one spotted keyword in the title, less than ten keywords in the post for ease of user evaluation and at least three keywords, so there was chance of off-topic content. We recruited 36 graduate students and briefed them on the problem and experiment.

First, all 57 posts were processed by our keyword spotting and cluster algorithm to extract contextual keywords. Next, two sets of ads were generated for each post using Google AdSense. The first set, Ads<sub>k</sub>, contained ads generated from the content as is. The second set, Ads<sub>x</sub>, contained ads generated using keywords returned by our algorithm. Snapshots of ads for all posts were captured on a single day and stored offline (see sample at [2]). Each post had a maximum of 8 ads, 4 in each set. The 57 user posts were divided into ten sets, nine sets with six posts and one with three posts. Every set was evaluated by three randomly chosen users for a total of 30 evaluators used for the study.

Each user was shown a set of six posts one after another. Three users evaluated only three posts in the last set. For each post, users were also shown ads from the two sets, Ads<sub>k</sub> and Ads<sub>x</sub> randomly arranged with checkboxes to indicate preferences. Users were instructed to read every post and accompanying ads (url and text) and click the checkbox against the ads they thought were relevant to the post. Instructions provided to the evaluators and a sample user response can be found at [2].

Results: Users responded by picking ads that they thought were relevant to the post. We aggregated responses for the 57 posts by counting the number of ads that users picked from each set. We counted only ads that two or more evaluators picked to ensure at least 50% inter-evaluator agreement. Table 3 shows statistics for the total number of ads displayed for all posts and their keywords and the number of ads users picked as relevant from the two sets. Users thought that 52% of the ads shown using keywords returned by our algorithm were relevant, compared to 30% of relevant ads generated using the content as is. For several posts, Ads<sub>k</sub> and Ads<sub>x</sub> had ads in common. A more accurate measure of user feedback is the number of ads that were deemed relevant and were unique to each set. Table 3 also shows these statistics. According to evaluator picks, processing content using our algorithm led to 22% more targeted unique ads.

For 54 of the 57 posts, ads generated using contextual keywords had more unique ads generated than using the content as is - a clear indication of the importance and effectiveness of our algorithm.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3: Targeted Content Delivery</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using content as is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of ad impressions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number and % of ads picked as relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number and % of Unique ads picked as relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using keywords returned by our algorithm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of ad impressions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number and % of ads picked as relevant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number and % of Unique ads picked as relevant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

It is fairly well understood that user-generated content on Social Media has characteristics different from content we find elsewhere on the Web. What has not been extensively studied is how these characteristics affect content-analysis applications that work well on traditional media content. Here, we focussed on one particular characteristic of Social Media content - the prevalence of off-topic noise, and how it affects content delivery. The outcome of this work is useful for any application that needs to identify highly contextual keywords in content.

Using a simple heuristic of title keywords indicating the right context and the relationship between constrained contexts and word association strengths, we presented an intuitive way of partitioning a set of keywords into contextually relevant and off-topic ones. The algorithm is efficient, domain independent and easily adoptable. Preliminary user studies with posts from MySpace and Facebook and using Google AdSense clearly suggest the importance of eliminating off-topic noise and the efficacy of the algorithm in assisting targeted content delivery. A similar but large scale experiment using blogs and Zemanta is in the pipeline.

5. REFERENCES