



Event Detection in Twitter

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Abstract:

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Event Detection in *Twitter**

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Abstract

Twitter, as a form of social media, is fast emerging in recent years. Users are using *Twitter* to report real-life events. This paper focuses on detecting those events by analyzing the text stream in *Twitter*. Although *event detection* has long been a research topic, the characteristics of *Twitter* make it a non-trivial task. Tweets reporting such events are usually overwhelmed by high flood of meaningless “bubbles”. Moreover, event detection algorithm needs to be scalable given the sheer amount of tweets. This paper attempts to tackle these challenges with *EDCoW* (*Event Detection with Clustering of Wavelet-based Signals*). *EDCoW* builds signals for individual words by applying wavelet analysis on the frequency-based raw signals of the words. It then filters away the trivial words by looking at their corresponding signal auto-correlations. The remaining words are then clustered to form events with a modularity-based graph partitioning technique. Experimental studies show promising result of *EDCoW*. We also present the design of a proof-of-concept system, which was used to analyze netizens’ online discussion about Singapore General Election 2011.

1 Introduction

Microblogging, as a form of social media, is fast emerging in recent years. One of the most representative examples is *Twitter*, which allows users to publish short *tweets* (messages within a 140-character limit) about “what’s happening”. Real-life events are reported in *Twitter*. For example, the Iranian election protests in 2009 were extensively reported by *Twitter* users. Reporting those events could provide different perspectives to news items than traditional media, and also valuable user sentiment about certain companies/products.

This paper focuses on detecting those events to have a better understanding of what users are really discussing about in *Twitter*. *Event detection* has long been a research topic [23]. The underlying assumption is that some related words would show an increase in the usage when an event is happening. An event is therefore conventionally represented by a number of keywords showing *burst* in appearance count [23, 11]. For example, “iran” would be used more often when users are discussing about the Iranian

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election protests. This paper also adapts such representation of *event*. Nevertheless, the characteristics of *Twitter* pose new challenges:

- The contents in *Twitter* are dynamically changing and increasing. According to <http://tweespeed.com>, there are more than 15,000 tweets per minute by average published in *Twitter*. Existing algorithms typically detect events by clustering together words with similar burst patterns. Furthermore, it is usually required to pre-set the number of events that would be detected, which is difficult to obtain in *Twitter* due to its real-time nature. A more scalable approach for event detection is therefore desired.
- Conventionally, *event detection* is conducted on formal document collections, e.g. academic papers [11] and news articles [6]. It is assumed that all the documents in the collections are somehow related to a number of undiscovered events. However, this is not the case in *Twitter*, where tweets reporting big real-life events are usually overwhelmed by high flood of trivial ones. According to a study by Pear Analytics [16], about 40% of all the *tweets* are pointless “babbles” like “have to get something from the minimart downstairs”. Such *tweets* are important to build a user’s *social presence* [10]. Nevertheless, they are insignificant and should not require attention from the majority of the audience. It is therefore naive to assume that any word in *tweets* showing burst is related to certain big event. A good example is the popular hashtag “#musicmonday”. It shows some bursts every Monday since it is commonly used to suggest music on Mondays. However, such bursts obviously do not correspond to an event that majority of the users would pay attention to. Event detection in *Twitter* is expected to differentiate the big events from the trivial ones, which existing algorithms largely fail.

To tackle these challenges, this paper proposes *EDCoW* (*Event Detection with Clustering of Wavelet-based Signals*), which is briefly described as follows. *EDCoW* builds signals for individual words which captures only the bursts in the words’ appearance. The signals can be fast computed by *wavelet analysis* and requires less space for storage. It then filters away the trivial words by looking at their corresponding signal auto-correlations. *EDCoW* then measures the *cross correlation* between signals. Next, it detects the events by clustering signals together by *modularity*-based graph partitioning, which can be solved with a scalable eigenvalue algorithm. To differentiate the big events from trivial ones, *EDCoW* also quantifies the event’s *significance*, which depends on two factors, namely the number of words and the *cross correlation* among the words relating to the event.

In the rest of this paper, we first present a brief survey of relate work in Section 2. Next, we give a concise description of wavelet analysis, before *EDCoW* is illustrated in detail in Section 4. Experimental studies are presented in Section 5 to show the performance of *EDCoW*. In Section 6, we present the design of a proof-of-concept system, which was used to analyze netizens’ online discussion about Singapore General Election 2011. Finally, we conclude with directions for future work in Section 7.

2 Related Work

Existing event detection algorithms can be broadly classified into two categories: *document-pivot* methods and *feature-pivot* methods. The former detects events by clustering documents based on the semantics distance between documents [23], while the latter studies the distributions of words and discovers events by grouping words together [11]. *EDCoW* could be viewed as a *feature-pivot* method. We therefore focus on representative *feature-pivot* methods here.

In [11], Kleinberg proposes to detect events using an infinite-state automaton, in which events are modeled as state transitions. Different from this work, Fung et al. model individual word's appearance as binomial distribution, and identify burst of each word with a threshold-based heuristic [6].

All these algorithms essentially detect events by analyzing word-specific signals in the time domain. There are also attempts to analyze signals in the frequency domain. [7] applies *Discrete Fourier Transformation* (DFT), which converts the signals from the time domain into the frequency domain. A burst in the time domain corresponds to a spike in the frequency domain. However, DFT cannot locate the time periods when the bursts happen, which is important in event detection. [7] remedies this by estimating such periods with the Gaussian Mixture model.

Compared with DFT, *wavelet transformation* has more desirable features. *Wavelet* refers to a quickly vanishing oscillating function [5, 9]. Unlike the sine and cosine used in the DFT, which are localized in frequency but extend infinitely in time, wavelets are localized in both time and frequency domain. Therefore, wavelet transformation is able to provide precise measurements about when and to what extent bursts take place in the signal. This makes wavelet transformation a better choice for event detection, and is applied in this paper to build signals for individual words. It has also been applied to detect events from Flickr data in [4].

There is recently an emerging interest in harvesting collective intelligence from social media like *Twitter*. For example, [17] try to detect whether users discuss any new event that have never appeared before in *Twitter*. However, it does not differentiate whether the new event, if any, is trivial or not. In [19], the authors exploit tweets to detect critical events like earthquake. They formulate event detection as a classification problem. However, users are required to specify explicitly the events to be detected. And a new classifier needs to be trained to detect new event, which makes it difficult to be extended.

3 Wavelet Analysis

Wavelet analysis is applied in *EDCoW* to build signal for individual words. This section gives a brief introduction of related concepts.

3.1 Wavelet Transformation

The wavelet analysis provides precise measurements regarding when and how the frequency of the signal changes over time [9]. The wavelet is a quickly vanishing oscillat-

ing function. Unlike sine and cosine function of Fourier analysis, which are precisely localized in frequency but extend infinitely in time, wavelets are relatively localized in both time and frequency.

The core of wavelet analysis is *wavelet transformation*. *Wavelet transformation* converts signal from the time domain to the time-scale domain (scale can be considered as the inverse of frequency). It decomposes a signal into a combination of *wavelet coefficients* and a set of linearly independent basis functions. The set of basis functions, termed *wavelet family*, are generated by scaling and translating a chosen *mother wavelet* $\psi(t)$. Scaling corresponds to stretching or shrinking $\psi(t)$, while translation moving it to different temporal position without changing its shape. In other words, a wavelet family $\psi_{a,b}(t)$ are defined as [5]:

$$\psi_{a,b}(t) = |a|^{-1/2} \psi\left(\frac{t-b}{a}\right) \quad (1)$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a \neq 0$ are the scale and translation parameters respectively, and t is the time.

Wavelet transformation is classified into *continuous wavelet transformation* (CWT) and *discrete wavelet transformation* (DWT). Generally speaking, CWT provides a redundant representation of the signal under analysis. It is also time consuming to compute directly. In contrast, DWT provides a non-redundant, highly efficient wavelet representation of the signal. For (1) a special selection of the mother wavelet function $\psi(t)$ and (2) a discrete set of parameters, $a_j = 2^{-j}$ and $b_{j,k} = 2^{-j}k$, with $j, k \in \mathbb{Z}$, the wavelet family in DWT is defined as $\psi_{j,k}(t) = 2^{j/2} \psi(2^j t - k)$, which constitutes an orthonormal basis of $L^2(\mathbb{R})$. The advantage of orthonormal basis is that any arbitrary function could be uniquely decomposed and the decomposition can be inverted.

DWT provides a non-redundant representation of the signal S and its values constitute the coefficients in a wavelet series, i.e. $\langle S, \psi_{j,k} \rangle = C_j(k)$. $C_j(k)$ denotes the k -th coefficient in scale j . DWT produces only as many coefficients as there are sample points within the signal under analysis S , without loss of information. These wavelet coefficients provide full information in a simple way and a direct estimation of local energies at the different scales.

Assume the signal is given by the sampled values, i.e. $S = \{s_0(n) | n = 1, \dots, M\}$, where the sampling rate is t_s and M is the total number of sample points in the signal. Suppose that the sampling rate is $t_s = 1$. If the decomposition is carried out over all scales, i.e. $N_J = \log_2(M)$, the signal can be reconstructed by $S(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_J} \sum_k C_j(k) \psi_{j,k}(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{N_J} r_j(t)$, where the wavelet coefficients $C_j(k)$ can be interpreted as the local residual errors between successive signal approximations at scales j and $j+1$ respectively, and $r_j(t)$ is the detail signal at scale j , that contains information of the signal $S(t)$ corresponding with the frequencies $2^{j-1}\omega_s \leq |\omega| \leq 2^j\omega_s$.

3.2 Wavelet Energy, Entropy, and H -Measure

Since the wavelet family in DWT is an orthonormal basis for $L^2(\mathbb{R})$, the concept of energy derived from Fourier theory can also be applied [1]. The wavelet energy of

signal S at each scale j ($j \leq N_J$) can be computed as:

$$E_j = \sum_k |C_j(k)|^2 \quad (2)$$

The wavelet energy at scale $N_J + 1$ can be derived as:

$$E_{N_J+1} = \sum_k |A_{N_J}(k)|^2 \quad (3)$$

The total wavelet energy carried by signal S is subsequently computed as follows:

$$E_{total} = \sum_{j=1}^{N_J+1} E_j \quad (4)$$

A normalized ρ -value measures the *relative wavelet energy* (RWE) at each individual scale j :

$$\rho_j = \frac{E_j}{E_{total}} \quad (5)$$

$\sum_{j=1}^{N_J+1} \rho_j = 1$. The distribution $\{\rho_j\}$ represents the signal's wavelet energy distribution across different scales [18].

Evaluating the Shannon Entropy [21] on distribution $\{\rho_j\}$ leads to the measurement of *Shannon wavelet entropy* (SWE) of signal S [18]:

$$SWE(S) = - \sum_j \rho_j \cdot \log \rho_j \quad (6)$$

SWE measures the signal energy distribution at different scales (i.e. frequency bands). H -Measure of signal S is defined as:

$$H(S) = SWE(S) / SWE_{max} \quad (7)$$

which is a normalized value of $SWE(S)$. SWE_{max} is obtained with a uniform distribution of signal energy across different scales, e.g. $\{\rho_j\} = \{\frac{1}{N_J+1}, \frac{1}{N_J+1}, \dots, \frac{1}{N_J+1}\}$.

4 EDCoW in Detail

This section details EDCoW's three main components: (1) signal construction, (2) *cross correlation* computation, and (3) *modularity*-based graph partitioning.

4.1 Construction of Signals with Wavelet Analysis

The signal for each individual word (unigram) is built in two stages. Assuming T_c is the current time. In the first stage, the signal for a word w at T_c can be written as a sequence:

$$S_w = [s_w(1), s_w(2), \dots, s_w(T_c)] \quad (8)$$

$s_w(t)$ at each sample point t is given by its *DF-IDF* score, which is defined as:

$$s_w(t) = \frac{N_w(t)}{N(t)} \times \log \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{T_c} N(i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{T_c} N_w(i)} \quad (9)$$

The first component of the right hand side (RHS) of Eq. (9) is *DF* (document frequency). $N_w(t)$ is the number of tweets which contain word w and appear after sample point $t - 1$ but before t , and $N(t)$ is the number of all the tweets in the same period of time. *DF* is the counterpart of *TF* in *TF-IDF* (Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency), which is commonly used to measure words' importance in text retrieval [20]. The difference is that *DF* only counts the number of tweets containing word w . This is necessary in the context of *Twitter*, since multiple appearances of the same word are usually associated with the same event in one single short tweet. The second component of RHS of Eq. (9) is equivalent to *IDF*. The difference is that, the collection size is fixed for the conventional *IDF*, whereas new tweets are generated very fast in *Twitter*. Therefore, the *IDF* component in Eq. (9) makes it possible to accommodate new words. $s_w(t)$ takes a high value if word w is used more often than others from $t - 1$ to t while it is rarely used before T_c , and a low value otherwise.

In the second stage, the signal is built with the help of a sliding window, which covers a number of 1st-stage sample points. Denote the size of the sliding window as Δ . Each 2nd-stage sample point captures how much the change in $s_w(t)$ is in the sliding window, if there is any.

In this stage, the signal for word w at current time T'_c is again represented as a sequence:

$$S'_w = [s'_w(1), s'_w(2), \dots, s'_w(T'_c)] \quad (10)$$

Note that t in the first stage and t' in the second stage are not necessarily in the same unit. For example, the interval between two consecutive t 's in the first stage could be 10 minutes, while that in the second stage could be one hour. In this case, $\Delta = 6$.

To compute the value of $s'_w(t')$ at each 2nd-stage sample point, *EDCoW* first moves the sliding window to cover 1st-stage sample points from $s_w((t' - 2) * \Delta + 1)$ to $s_w((t' - 1) * \Delta)$. Denote the signal fragment in this window as $\mathcal{D}_{t'-1}$. *EDCoW* then derives the *H*-measure of the signal in $\mathcal{D}_{t'-1}$. Denote it as $H_{t'-1}$. Next, *EDCoW* shifts the sliding window to cover 1st-stage sample points from $s_w((t' - 1) * \Delta + 1)$ to $s_w(t' * \Delta)$. Denote the new fragment as $\mathcal{D}_{t'}$. Then, *EDCoW* concatenates segment $\mathcal{D}_{t'-1}$ and $\mathcal{D}_{t'}$ sequentially to form a larger segment \mathcal{D}_{t^*} , whose *H*-measure is also obtained. Denoted it as H_{t^*} . Subsequently, the value of $s'_w(t')$ is calculated as:

$$s'_w(t') = \begin{cases} \frac{H_{t^*} - H_{t'-1}}{H_{t'-1}} & \text{if } (H_{t^*} > H_{t'-1}); \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

If there is no change in $s_w(t)$ within $\mathcal{D}_{t'}$, there will be no significant difference between $s'_w(t')$ and $s'_w(t' - 1)$. On the other hand, an increase/decrease in the usage of word w would cause $s_w(t)$ in $\mathcal{D}_{t'}$ to appear in more/fewer scales. This is translated into an increase/decrease of the wavelet entropy in \mathcal{D}_{t^*} from that in $\mathcal{D}_{t'-1}$. And $s'_w(t')$ encodes how much the change is.

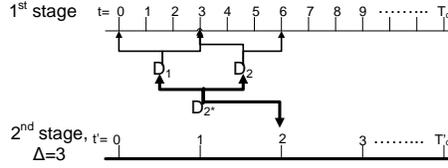


Figure 1: Two Stages of Signal Construction

Figure 1 illustrates the two stages of signal construction in *EDCoW*. Figure 2 gives an example of the signals constructed based on tweets published by a number of Singapore-based *Twitter* users on June 16, 2010. On that day, there was a heavy

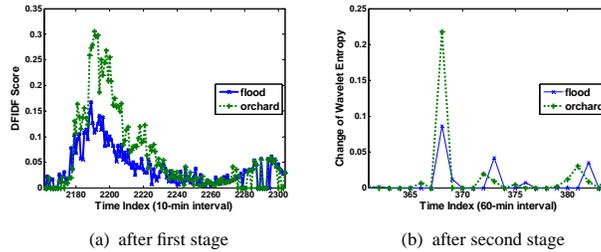


Figure 2: Example of Signals (2 stages)

downpour in Singapore, which caused flash flood in the premium shopping belt Orchard road. At each sample point in Figure 2(a), $N_w(t)$ is the number of the tweets published in the past 10 minutes which contains the specific word, while $N(t)$ is the number of all the tweets published in the same period of time. Figure 2(b) is generated with $\Delta = 6$, i.e. one 2nd-stage sample point encodes the change of a word’s appearance pattern in the past 60 minutes. Figure 2 shows that the bursts of the words are more salient in the corresponding 2nd-stage signals.

By capturing the change of a word’s appearance pattern within a period of time in one 2nd-stage sample point, it reduces the space required to store the signal. In fact, event detection needs only the information whether a word exhibits any burst within certain period of time (i.e. Δ in the case of *EDCoW*). As we can see in Figure 2, 1st-stage signal contains redundant information about the complete appearance history of a specific word. Nevertheless, most existing algorithms store data equivalent to the 1st-stage signal.

After the signals are built, each word is then represented as its corresponding signal in the next two components¹.

¹In the rest of this paper, “signal” and “word” are used interchangeably.

4.2 Computation of Cross Correlation

EDCoW detects events by grouping a set of words with similar patterns of burst. To achieve this, the similarities between words need to be computed first.

This component receives as input a segment of signals. Depending on the application scenario, the length of segment varies. For example, it could be 24 hours, if a summary of the events happened in one day is needed. It could also be as short as a few minutes, if a timelier understanding of what is happening is required. Denote this segment as $\mathcal{S}^{\mathcal{I}}$, and individual signal in this segment $S_i^{\mathcal{I}}$.

In signal processing, *cross correlation* is a common measure of similarity between two signals [14]. Represent two signals as functions, $f(t)$ and $g(t)$, the *cross correlation* between the two is defined as:

$$(f \star g)(t) = \sum f^*(\tau)g(t + \tau) \quad (12)$$

Here, f^* denotes the complex conjugate of f . Computation of *cross correlation* basically shifts one signal (i.e. g in Eq. (12)) and calculates the dot product between the two signals. In other words, it measures the similarity between the two signals as a function of a time-lag applied to one of them.

Cross correlation could also be applied on a signal itself. In this case, it is termed as *auto correlation*, which always shows a peak at a lag of zero, unless the signal is trivial zero signal. Given this, the *auto correlation* (with zero time lag) could be used to evaluate how trivial a word is. Denote signal $S_i^{\mathcal{I}}$'s *auto correlation* as $A_i^{\mathcal{I}}$.

Cross correlation computation is a pair-wise operation. Given the large number of words used in *Twitter*, it is expensive to measure *cross correlation* between all pairs of signals. Nevertheless, a large number of signals are in fact trivial. Figure 3 illustrates the distribution of $A_i^{\mathcal{I}}$ within $S_i^{\mathcal{I}}$ of 24-hour worth of signal. The distribution is highly skewed, i.e. the majority of the signals are trivial (with $A_i^{\mathcal{I}} \approx 0$). Given this, we discard the signals with $A_i^{\mathcal{I}} < \theta_1$. To set θ_1 , *EDCoW* first computes the *median*

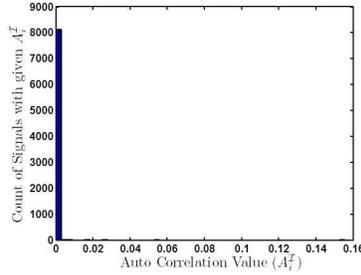


Figure 3: Skewed Distribution of Auto Correlation Values

absolute deviation (*MAD*) of all $A_i^{\mathcal{I}}$ within $S_i^{\mathcal{I}}$:

$$MAD(\mathcal{S}^{\mathcal{I}}) = \text{median}(|A_i^{\mathcal{I}} - \text{median}(A_i^{\mathcal{I}})|) \quad (13)$$

MAD is a statistically robust measure of the variability of a sample of data in the presence of “outliers” [22]. In the case of *EDCoW*, we are interested in those “outliers” with outstandingly high $A_i^{\mathcal{I}}$ though. Therefore, we filter away those signals with $A_i^{\mathcal{I}} <$

θ_1 , and θ_1 is set as follows:

$$\theta_1 = \text{median}(A_i^T) + \gamma \times \text{MAD}(\mathcal{S}^T) \quad (14)$$

Empirically, γ is not less than 10 due to the high skewness of A_i^T distribution.

Denote the number of the remaining signals as \mathcal{K} . *Cross correlation* is then computed in a pair-wise manner between all the remaining \mathcal{K} signals. Currently, the *cross correlation* between a pair of signals is calculated without applying time lag². Denote the *cross correlation* between S_i^T and S_j^T as X_{ij} .

It is observed that the distribution of X_{ij} exhibits a similar skewness as the one shown in Figure 3. Given this, for each signal S_i^T , *EDCoW* applies another threshold θ_2 on X_{ij} , which is defined as follows:

$$\theta_2 = \text{median}_{S_j^T \in \mathcal{S}^T}(X_{ij}) + \gamma \times \text{MAD}_{S_j^T \in \mathcal{S}^T}(X_{ij}) \quad (15)$$

Here, γ is the same as the one in Eq. (14). We then set $X_{ij} = 0$ if $X_{ij} \leq \theta_2$.

The remaining non-zero X_{ij} 's are then arranged in a square matrix to form the *correlation matrix* \mathcal{M} . Since we are only interested in the similarity between pairs of signals, the cells on the main diagonal of \mathcal{M} are set to be 0. \mathcal{M} is highly sparse after applying threshold θ_2 . Figure 4 shows a portion of matrix \mathcal{M} built from the data used in Figure 2. It shows the *cross correlation* between the top 20 words with the highest A_i^T on that day.

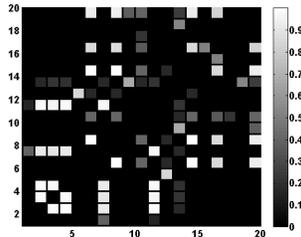


Figure 4: Illustration of Correlation Matrix \mathcal{M} . The lighter the color of the cell in the matrix, the higher the similarity between the two signals is, and vice versa.

The main computation task in this component is the pair-wise *cross correlation* computation, which apparently has a time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$, where n is the number of individual signals involved in the computation. n is generally very small after filtering with θ_1 (in Eq. (14)). For example, in the experimental studies, less than 5% of all the words remain after filtering with θ_1 . The quadratic complexity is therefore still tractable.

4.3 Detection of Event by Modularity-based Graph Partitioning

Matrix \mathcal{M} is a symmetric sparse matrix. From a graph theoretical point of view, it can be viewed as the adjacency matrix of a sparse undirected weighted graph $\mathcal{G} =$

²As mentioned earlier, cross correlation measure the similarity between two signals as a time lag applied to one of them. By varying the time lag, it is possible to study the temporal relationship between two words, e.g. a word appears earlier than another in an event. We plan such study in future work.

(V, E, W) . Here, the vertex set V contains all the \mathcal{K} signals after filtering with *auto correlation*, while the edge set $E = V \times V$. There is an edge between two vertices v_i and v_j ($v_i, v_j \in V$) if $X_{ij} > \theta_2$, and the weight $w_{ij} = X_{ij}$.

With such a graph theoretical interpretation of \mathcal{M} , event detection can then be formulated as a graph partitioning problem, i.e. to cut the graph into subgraphs. Each subgraph corresponds to an event, which contains a set of words with high *cross correlation*. And the *cross correlation* between words in different subgraphs are expected to be low.

Newman proposes a metric called *modularity* to measure the quality of such partitioning [12, 13]. The *modularity* of a graph is defined as the sum of weights of all the edges that fall within subgraphs (after partitioning) subtracted by the expected edge weight sum if edges were placed at random. A positive modularity indicates possible presence of partitioning. We can define node v_i 's *degree* as $d_i = \sum_j w_{ji}$. The sum of all the edge weights in \mathcal{G} is defined as $m = \sum_i d_i/2$. The *modularity* of the partitioning is defined as:

$$Q = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{ij} (w_{ij} - \frac{d_i \cdot d_j}{2m}) \delta_{c_i, c_j} \quad (16)$$

where c_i and c_j are the index of the subgraph that node v_i and v_j belong to respectively, and δ_{c_i, c_j} is the Kronecker delta. $\delta_{c_i, c_j} = 1$ if $c_i = c_j$, or $\delta_{c_i, c_j} = 0$ otherwise.

The goal here is to partition \mathcal{G} such that Q is maximized. Newman has proposed a very intuitive and efficient spectral graph theory-based approach to solve this optimization problem [13]. It first constructs a *modularity matrix* (B) of the graph \mathcal{G} , whose elements are defined as:

$$B_{ij} = w_{ij} - \frac{d_i \cdot d_j}{2m} \quad (17)$$

Eigen-analysis is then conducted on the symmetric matrix B to find its largest eigenvalue and corresponding eigenvector (\vec{v}). Finally, \mathcal{G} is split into two subgraphs based on the signs of the elements in \vec{v} . The spectral method is recursively applied to each of the two pieces to further divide them into smaller subgraphs.

Note that, with the modularity-based graph partitioning, *EDCoW* does not require extra parameter to pre-set the number of subgraphs (i.e. events) to be generated. It stops automatically when no more subgraph can be constructed (i.e. $Q < 0$). This is one of the advantages *EDCoW* has over other algorithms.

The main computation task in this component is finding the largest eigenvalue (and the corresponding eigenvector) of the sparse symmetric modularity matrix B . This can be efficiently solved by *power iteration*, which is able to scale up with the increase of the number of words used in tweets [8].

4.4 Quantification of Event Significance

Note that *EDCoW* requires each individual event to have at least two words, since the smallest subgraph after graph partitioning contains two nodes. This is rationale, since it is rare that a real-life big event would only be described by one word if there are so many users discussing about it. Nevertheless, since each tweet is usually very short

(less than 140 characters), it is not reasonable for an event to be associated with too many words either.

Given this, *EDCoW* defines a measurement to evaluate the events’ *significance*. Denote the subgraph (after partitioning) corresponding to an event as $C = (V^c, E^c, W^c)$. V^c is the vertex set, $E^c = V^c \times V^c$, W^c contains the weights of the edges, which are given by a portion of *correlation matrix* \mathcal{M} . The event *significance* is then defined as:

$$\epsilon = \left(\sum w_{ij}^c \right) \times \frac{e^{1.5n}}{(2n)!}, \quad n = |V^c| \quad (18)$$

Eq. (18) contains two parts. The first part sums up all the *cross correlation* values between signals associated with an event. The second part discounts the *significance* if the event is associated with too many words. The higher ϵ is, the more significant the event is. Finally, *EDCoW* filters events with exceptionally low value of ϵ (i.e. $\epsilon \ll 0.1$).

5 Empirical Evaluation

To validate the correctness of *EDCoW*, we conduct an experimental study with a dataset collected from *Twitter*.

5.1 Dataset Used

The dataset used in the experiments is collected with the following procedure:

1. Obtain the top 1000 Singapore-based³ *Twitter* users with the most followers from <http://twitaholic.com/>. Denote this set as U .
2. For each user in U , include her Singapore-based followers and friends within 2 hops. Denote this aggregated set as U^* .
3. For each user in U^* , collect the tweets published in June 2010.

*Twitter REST API*⁴ is used to facilitate the data collection. There is a total of 19,256 unique users, i.e. $|U^*| = 19,256$. The total number of tweets collected is 4,331,937. The tweets collected are tokenized into words. Stop-words are filtered. We also filter (1) words with non-English characters, and (2) words with no more than three characters. Stemming is also applied. There are 638,457 unique words in total after filtering and stemming.

5.2 Experimental Settings

Before applying *EDCoW*, we further clean up the dataset. First of all, rare words are filtered, since they are less possible to be associated with an event. A threshold of

³A user is considered Singapore-based if she specifies “Singapore” as her location in the profile.

⁴*Twitter API*: <http://dev.twitter.com/doc#rest-api>.

five appearances every day by average is applied⁵. We further filter words with certain patterns being repeated more than two times, e.g. “booooo” (“o” being repeated 5 times) and “hahahaah” (“ha” being repeated 3 times). Such words are mainly used for emotional expression, and not useful in defining events. There are 8,140 unique words left.

To build signals for individual words, we set the interval between two consecutive 1st-stage sample points to be 10 minutes, and $\Delta = 6$. By doing so, the final signals constructed capture the hourly change of individual words’ appearance patterns. *EDCoW* is then applied to detect events on every day in June 2010.

5.3 Correctness of *EDCoW*

In a typical information retrieval context, *recall* and *precision* are two widely used performance metrics. Given a collection of document, *recall* is defined as the fraction of the relevant documents retrieved to the total number of relevant documents should have been returned. In the case of *EDCoW*, “relevant” means there is a real-life event corresponding to the detected event. However, it is not feasible to enumerate all the real-life events happened in June 2010 in the dataset. It is therefore difficult to measure *EDCoW*’s *recall*. Given this, we concentrate on *precision* rather than *recall*, which measures the portion of the “relevant” events detected by *EDCoW* to all the events detected. Table 1 lists all the events (with $\epsilon > 0.1$) detected by *EDCoW*.

Since no ground truth is available about all the “relevant” events, we manually check the events detected by *EDCoW* one by one. There is no event (with $\epsilon > 0.1$) detected on June 1-3, 6, and 19-30. Out of the 21 events detected, we find three events which do not correspond to any real-life event, i.e. Event 6, 9, and 10 in Table 1. There is one event which is a mixture of more than one real-life event, i.e. Event 7. It is associated with two words, which correspond to two non-related real-life events. Event 13 is detected to associate with two words “#svk” and “#svn”, which relate to two teams in the World Cup 2010. There was no clear real-life event related to the two teams on that day though. Therefore, the *precision* of *EDCoW* in this case is 76.2%.

EDCoW has one tunable parameter, i.e. γ in Eq. (14) and (15). The result so far is obtained with $\gamma = 40$. We also study *EDCoW*’s performance with different γ values, i.e. $\gamma = 10, 20, 30, 50$.

A smaller value of γ (i.e. $\gamma < 40$) fails to filter away signals with trivial *auto correlation*, many of which are included in the graph partitioning to form the events. In this case, most of the events detected by *EDCoW* are associated with a large number of words, and therefore small ϵ values. We also manually check the events detected by *EDCoW* with different γ values. None of the five events with $\epsilon > 0.1$ detected by *EDCoW* with $\gamma = 10$ corresponds to any real-life event. The *precision* in this case is 0. For $\gamma = 20$, only one out of seven events is “relevant”, which corresponds to Event 3 in Table 1. This is translated to a *precision* of 14.3%. For $\gamma = 30$, only two out of 12 events are “relevant”, which correspond to Event 2 and 3 in Table 1. The *precision* is therefore 16.7%.

⁵To be consistent with Eq. (9), here we count the word appearance by the number of tweets using the word, even the word may appear in one single tweet more than once.

| Day | Event | € value | Event Description |
|-------|--------------------------------|---------|---|
| 1-3 | No event detected | | |
| 4 | 1. democrat, naoto | 0.417 | Ruling Democratic Party of Japan elected Naoto Kan as chief. |
| | 2. ss501, suju | 0.414 | Korean popular bands Super Junior's and SS501's performance on mubank. |
| | 3. music, mubank | 0.401 | Related to Event 2, mubank is a popular KBS entertainment show. |
| | 4. shindong, youngsaeng | 0.365 | Related to Event 2, Shindong and Youngsaeng are member of the two bands. |
| | 5. junior, eunhyuk | 0.124 | Related to Event 2, Eunhyuk is a member of super junior. |
| 5 | 6. robben, break | 0.404 | No clear corresponding real-life even |
| 6 | No event detected | | |
| 7 | 7. kobe, kristen | 0.417 | Two events: Kristen Stewart won some MTV awards, and Kobe Bryant in a NBA match. |
| | 8. #iphone4, ios4, iphone | 0.416 | iPhone 4 released during WWDC 2010 |
| 8 | 9. reformat, hamilton | 0.391 | No clear corresponding real-life event |
| | 10. avocado, commence, ongoing | 0.124 | No clear corresponding real-life event |
| 9 | 11. #failwhale, twitter | 0.360 | A number of users complained they could not use twitter due to over-capacity. A logo with whale is usually used to denote over-capacity. |
| 10 | 12. vuvuzela, soccer | 0.387 | People started to talk about world cup. |
| 11 | 13. #svk, #svn | 0.418 | #svk and #svn represent Team Slovakia and Slovenia in World Cup 2010. |
| 12 | 14. #kor, greec, #gre | 0.102 | A match between South Korea and Greece in World Cup 2010. |
| 13 | 15. whale, twitter | 0.417 | Similar as Event 10. |
| 14 | 16. lippi, italy | 0.326 | Italy football team coach Marcello Lippi made some comments after a match in World Cup 2010. |
| 15 | 17. drogba, ivory | 0.417 | Football player Drogba from Ivory Coast is given special permission to play in World Cup 2010. |
| | 18. #prk, #bra, north | 0.114 | A match between North Korea and Brazil in World Cup 2010. |
| 16 | 19. orchard, flood | 0.357 | Flood in Orchard Road. |
| 17 | 20. greec, #gre, nigeria | 0.122 | A match between Greece and Nigeria in World Cup 2010. |
| 18 | 21. #srb, podolski | 0.403 | A match between Germany and Serbia in World Cup 2010. Podolski is a member of Team Germany in World Cup 2010. |
| 19-30 | No event detected | | |

Table 1: All the Events Detected by *EDCoW* in June 2010

A larger value of γ filters more signals away. In this case, some of the “relevant” events, if any, are already filtered before graph partitioning is applied to detect them. We again manually check the events detected. Although more events (with $\epsilon > 0.1$) are detected, only one new “relevant” event other than those listed in Table 1 is detected. It is associated with two words “ghana” and “#gha”, and corresponds to a match between team Ghana and Serbia on June 13, 2010. There are another eight “relevant” events out of the total 40 detected events, which correspond to Event 1, 2, 3, 5 (with different words though), 7, 11, 13, and 20 in Table 1. The *precision* is 22.5%.

Due to space constraint, the details of the events detected with different values of γ are omitted here. We only summarize the *precision* achieved with different γ in Table 2. $\gamma = 40$ achieves the best *precision* among all the settings studied in the experimental study.

| γ value | <i>precision of EDCoW</i> |
|----------------|---------------------------|
| 10 | 0 |
| 20 | 14.3% |
| 30 | 16.7% |
| 40 | 76.2% |
| 50 | 22.5% |

Table 2: Comparison of Correctness with Different γ

5.4 Comparison with Other Methods

In the experimental study, *EDCoW* is applied to detect the events on a daily basis. To some extent, this is equivalent to topic modeling, whose goal is to discover the “topics” that occur in a collection of documents. Given this, we aggregate all the tweets published within one day as one single document, and then apply topic modeling on the collection of documents (i.e. all the 30 documents for June 2010). We apply Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA), a widely used statistical topic modeling technique, on the document collection. We then compare the result generated from LDA with that by *EDCoW*.

In LDA, each document is a mixture of various topics, and the document-topic distribution is assumed to have a Dirichlet prior (with hyper-parameter α). Each topic itself is a mixture of various words, and the topic-word distribution is again assumed to have a Dirichlet prior (with hyper-parameter β) as well. LDA is conditioned on three parameters, i.e. Dirichlet hyper-parameters α , β , and topic number T ⁶. In this study, they are set as $T = 50$, $\alpha = 50/T$ and $\beta = 0.1$. Due to the space constraint, the complete result of all the topics (each topic is represented as a list of top words) is omitted here. Instead, the top-4 topics identified on June 16, 2010 are listed in Table 3. The “probability” in this table is the probability that the corresponding topic appears in a document (i.e. all the tweets published on one particular day).

As it can be seen from Table 3, one of the obvious drawbacks of applying LDA in the context of event detection is that, the result generated by LDA is more difficult to

⁶Due to space constraint, readers are referred to [2] for the details of LDA.

| Day | Topic ID | Probability | Top Words |
|-----|----------|-------------|--|
| 16 | 13 | 0.229 | flood, orchard, rain, spain, road, weather, singapor, love, cold |
| | 48 | 0.095 | time, don, feel, sleep, love, tomorrow, happi, home, hate |
| | 11 | 0.091 | time, love, don, feel, wait, watch, singapor, hope, life |
| | 8 | 0.079 | watch, world, cup, match, time, love, don, south, goal |

Table 3: Topics Detected by LDA on June 16, 2010

interpret than the one listed in Table 1. Although “flood” and “orchard” are identified as the top words for the most related topic on June 16, 2010, they are mixed with other words as well. It is also not straightforward to see that Topic 8 may be related to “world cup”. The other two top topics in Table 3 are even more difficult to interpret as their top-words are all trivial words. Moreover, after setting the number of topics (i.e. T), it would always return a distribution over T topics for each document no matter whether the document (i.e. tweets published within one particular day) has discussed about any real-life event or not. Further processing is required to improve the results generated by LDA in the context of event detection, e.g. applying threshold-based heuristics to filter non-eventful topics and words. In contrast, *EDCoW* has the ability to filter trivial words away before applying clustering technique to detect the events. More importantly, it requires no parameter to specify the number of events. It can automatically generate different number of events based on users’ discussions in the tweets.

6 Voters’ Voice: Seeing *EDCoW* in Real Action

Instead of only validating *EDCoW* in experimental setting, we further prove its applicability in a more practical setting. We designed a proof-of-concept system, called *Voters’ Voice*, which was used to detect the events in netizens’ discussion about Singapore General Election (SGE) 2011 on a daily basis. The detected events are basically the topics that attracted the most significant discussion, which reflect the focal points of discussion about SGE 2011. On top of event detection, *Voters’ Voice* also provides additional insights like netizens’ sentiments. Figure 5 gives an overview of *Voters’ Voice*.

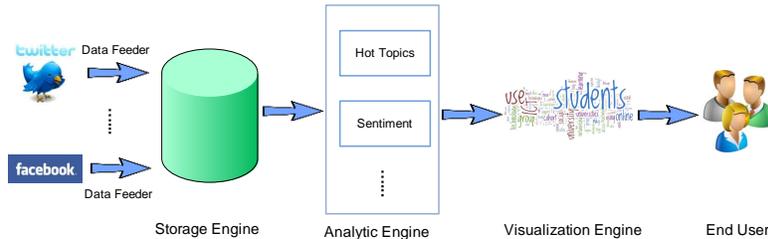


Figure 5: Overview of *Voters’ Voice*

6.1 Data Collection

In the experimental study, we detect events from the *tweets* of general discussions. In contrast, in *Voters' Voice*, we are interested in a more focused discussion, i.e. SGE 2011. As mentioned earlier, users usually publish *tweets* about various topics. It is not reasonable to assume that all the users would be interested in SGE-related topics. If we apply the same strategy we used to collect *tweets* in the experimental study, it could be expected that the events detected would include many non-SGE-related ones. Given this, we apply a different strategy in collecting the tweets:

1. We identify a set of key phrases that could potentially be used to discuss different parties in SGE 2011, including political parties' name, their candidates' name, and the constituencies they contest in.
2. We then monitor the Twitter public timeline with Twitter Streaming API⁷ for tweets containing any of those key phrases.
3. For each *tweet* containing any key phrase, we collect it if it is published by Singapore-based users.

We started collecting *tweets* from April 13, 2011 till May 13, 2011. There is a total of 147,129 *tweets* collected. Figure 6 illustrates the volume change over time. It is observed that the the volume change trend coincides with the major milestones in SGE 2011. There is steep increase in the volume starting from April 27, which was the nomination day. There is an even more steep increase from May 7, which was the polling day; and it quickly dies off two days after the polling day. There is an obvious drop in the volume on May 4, when Prime Minister went online to interact with netizens on Facebook. Many users therefore switched their discussion venue from Twitter to Facebook to participate in the online interaction with Prime Minister, which caused the volume of tweets to drop⁸.

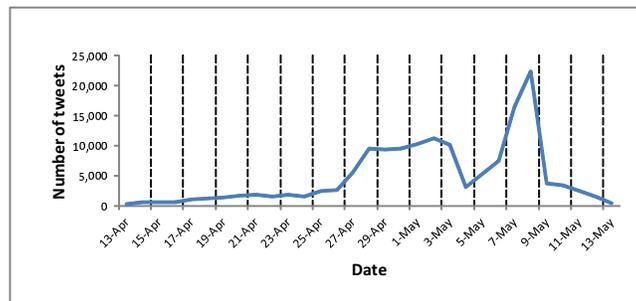


Figure 6: Trend of Tweet Volume Change

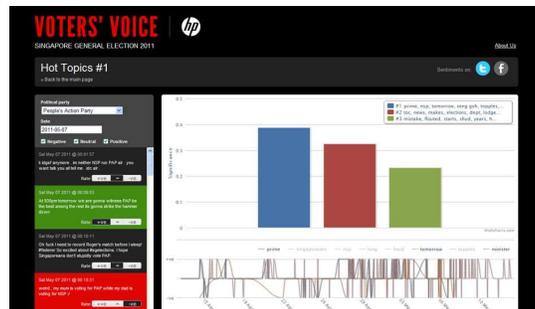
⁷Twitter Streaming API: http://dev.twitter.com/pages/streaming_api

⁸At the same time, we do observe a steep increase in the volume of posts in Facebook on the same day, which further supports this explanation.

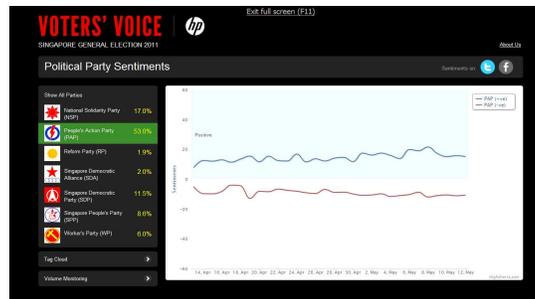
6.2 Analytics and Visualization of Results

EDCoW is then applied to analyze what the focal points are in the party-specific discussions on a daily basis, i.e. what are the topics that attract the most significant discussion (as measured by Eq. (18)) about different parties everyday. As mentioned earlier, a topic is basically a group of non-trivial keywords showing similar usage patterns. To make the detected topics easier to understand, we further extract entity based on the detected event-related keywords with some intuitive heuristics. For example, for an event which is represented by a group of keywords including “tin”, “pei”, and “ling”, we are able to extract “tin pei ling” (Tin Pei Ling is a candidate in SGE 2011) as an entity. Besides hot topic detection, we also apply sentiment analysis technology [3] to find out what are netizens’ opinions (positive, neutral, or negative) regarding the detected topics. We then further aggregate the sentiments on the detected topics to generate the sentiments about different political parties on a daily basis.

The analytics results (including the detected hot topics and sentiments) are then visualized and presented to end users. Figure 7 shows some screen captures of the visualization.



(a) Daily Hot Topics about a Party



(b) Sentiment Trend of a Party

Figure 7: *Voters' Voice*

In Figure 7(a), the top right panel lists the significant topics (events) detected by *EDCoW* about a party on a particular day. Each vertical bar corresponds to one of such topics, and the altitude of each bar represents each topic’s significance (as measured by

Eq. (18)). When any of the vertical bar is clicked (to select one topic), the bottom right panel display the sentiment changes over time of all the words/phrases related to the corresponding topic (recall that a topic is basically a group of related words). On the left panel, all the tweets related to the corresponding topic are listed, with its sentiment polarity displayed in different colors (tweets with *positive/negative* sentiment are highlighted in green/red respectively, and *neutral* sentiment is represented with no color).

Figure 7(b) presents the trends of different parties' sentiment over time. Users can choose one party by clicking on one of the seven parties listed on the left panel. Subsequently, the selected party's sentiment trend over time is displayed on the right panel. For each selected party, there will be two lines: the one on the top shows the trend of positive sentiment; while the one on the bottom shows that of negative sentiment. Each point on the two lines displays the ratio of the tweets carrying positive/negative sentiment to the total number of tweets about the selected party on one day. Users are also allowed to select more than one party on the left panel, so that their sentiment trends could be compared in the right panel.

6.3 Results and Impact of *Voters' Voice*

Voters' Voice has been used to summarize netizens' discussion to understand what the focal points are about SGE 2011. Table 4 lists some of the detected events/topics near the nomination day (Apr 27) and the polling day (May 7).

The events/topics detected are different from what are covered on the same days in the traditional media, like news paper. It shows that event detection from Twitter-like social media could be complementary to traditional media by providing different perspective on the major events. The results generated by *Voters' Voice* have also been cited in Singapore local newspaper to give readers a better understanding of social media's impact in SGE 2011 [15].

7 Conclusions and Future work

This paper focuses on detecting events by analyzing the contents published in *Twitter*. This paper proposes *EDCoW* (*Event Detection with Clustering of Wavelet-based Signals*). Experimental studies show that *EDCoW* achieves a fairly good performance. We've also designed a proof-of-concept system, called *Voters' Voice*, to see *EDCoW*'s usage in a real-life scenario, i.e. Singapore General Election 2011. The results generated have been cited by Singapore local news paper, which to some extent shows the practical usage of *EDCoW*. Nevertheless, *EDCoW* still has space for improvement.

First of all, currently *EDCoW* treats each word independently. Such treatment may potentially group words associated with different real-life events together, as shown by the experimental study results. We plan to extend *EDCoW* by incorporating more factors, e.g. words need to be semantically close enough to be clustered to form an event. Second, we plan to study *EDCoW*'s performance with dataset of a larger scale. We also plan to investigate the possibility of compiling a ground truth automatically for the dataset, so that a more objective comparison with other algorithms could be

| Date | Topic | Description |
|--------|---|---|
| Apr 27 | Vivian Balakrishnan, elections | Netizens utter sentiments about Vivian Balakrishnan's (a candidate from People's Action Party, the ruling party) focusing on non bread-and-butter issues during the campaign. |
| Apr 28 | teck siong, disqualified, deadline | Ng Teck Siong (an independent candidate) was disqualified from contesting in Tanjong Pagar constituency on the basis of him submitting his nomination form late by 35 seconds. |
| May 7 | parliament, tin pei ling, sylvia lim, worried | While the polling results being counted, netizens were actively discussing about the possible outcome. They seems to be interested in Tin Peiling (a candidate from the ruling party) and Sylvia Lim (a candidate from Worker's Party, an opposition party). Sylvia Lim appeared to be more favorable than Tin Peiling (e.g. "I am so worried that Sylvia Lim does not get into Parliament, but Tin Pei Ling does."). |
| May 8 | gracious, loser, lina chiam, listen | Netizens show sympathy and appreciation to Lina Chiam (a candidate from Singapore People's Party, an opposition party) after the results were announced officially (e.g. "What a gracious loser, what a loss. SPP's Lina Chiam overheard saying: 'Listen to Sitoh Yih Pin and be a good resident.". Sitoh Yih Pin is a candidate from the ruling party who contested in the same constituency). |

Table 4: Examples of the Events Detected during SGE 2011

conducted. Third, currently *EDCoW* does not exploit the relationship among users. It deserves a further study to see how the analysis of the relationship among users could contribute to event detection. Last but not least, the current design of *EDCoW* does not apply time lag when computing the *cross correlation* between a pair of words. We plan to introduce time lag and study the interaction between different words, e.g. whether one word appears earlier than another in one event. This could potentially contribute to study the temporal evolution of event.

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