

Knowledge Discovery From Large Amounts Of Social Media Data

Loris Belcastro ¹ , Riccardo Cantini ¹  and Fabrizio Marozzo ^{1,*} 

¹ DIMES, University of Calabria, Rende, Italy

* Correspondence: fmarozzo@dimes.unical.it

Abstract: In recent years, social media analysis is arousing great interest in various scientific fields, such as sociology, political science, linguistics, and computer science. Large amounts of data gathered from social media are widely analyzed for extracting useful information concerning people's behaviors and interactions. In particular, they can be exploited to analyze the collective sentiment of people, understand the behavior of user groups during global events, monitor public opinion close to important events, identify the main topics in a public discussion, or detect the most frequent routes followed by social media users. As an example of the countless works in the state-of-the-art on social media analysis, this paper presents three significant applications in the field of opinion and pattern mining from social media data: *i*) an automatic application for discovering user mobility patterns, *ii*) a novel application for estimating the political polarization of public opinion, and *iii*) an application for discovering interesting social media discussion topics through a hashtag recommendation system. Such applications clearly highlight the abundance and wealth of useful information in many application contexts of human life that can be extracted from social media posts.

Keywords: Big Data; Social media analysis; Big Data analysis; Social media applications; Knowledge Discovery

1. Introduction

Massive amounts of digital data, generated every day on social media platforms, can be used to extract useful information about human interests, opinions and dynamics. [1]. The analysis of Social Big Data [2] belongs to a research area that deals precisely with studying the activities, interests, behaviors and opinions of users by analysing the posts published on social media platforms. A large community of researchers is focused on developing applications for analyzing Social Big Data, usually relying on advanced and scalable algorithms for obtaining accurate results in a reasonable time [3]. Novel machine learning applications are thus defined for extracting useful knowledge in different application fields, including trend discovery, social media analytics, pattern mining, sentiment analysis, and opinion mining. Different surveys have been proposed in the literature [4–6] for trying to summarize and describe the wide range of research papers published in recent years in this area.

This paper presents some of the most recent activities we have carried out in the field of Social Big Data analysis. In particular, it discusses how these research activities can be exploited and, if necessary, combined for the analysis of large amounts of social media data, aimed at extracting different kind of knowledge from three different perspectives: *i*) from the posts published by tourists who visit a city, we can discover the main tourist attractions and also the mobility patterns (i.e., trajectories) across them [7]; *ii*) from public discussions on social media close to important electoral events, it is possible to discover the political orientation of citizens and thus estimate the outcome of a political event [8]; *iii*) from hashtags used by social media users, we discover the main topics

Citation: Belcastro, L.; Cantini, R.; Marozzo, F. Knowledge Discovery From Large Amounts Of Social Media Data. *Appl. Sci.* **2022**, *1*, 0. <https://doi.org/>

39 underlying social media conversation and how users refer to them in publishing online
40 content [9].

41 Concerning the *trajectory analysis*, we introduce AUDESOME, an algorithm for
42 detecting user mobility patterns from content posted on social media. Starting from a
43 large set of geotagged posts (e.g., Flickr posts or tweets), it performs a series of operations
44 for detecting the keywords identifying the Places-of-Interest (PoIs) in a given area, the
45 Region-of-Interest (RoI) associated to each PoI, and frequent mobility patterns in user
46 movements across RoIs. Experimental results show that our technique is able to correctly
47 extract the most frequent trajectories and mobility patterns of user groups compared to
48 the techniques present in the state of the art.

49 About *opinion mining*, we present IOM-NN, a data-driven technique that exploits
50 feed-forward neural networks for estimating the political polarization of social media
51 users during elections. The technique repeatedly creates new categorization rules using a
52 limited number of classification rules, which are produced from an initial set of hashtags
53 that are notoriously in favor of specific political parties or factions. In particular, a
54 classification rule uses the words/hashtags in a post to evaluate if it is in favor of a
55 faction or not. Then, the classified posts of each user are used to determine his/her
56 political alignment and, consequently, from the analysis of a large number of users, to
57 estimate the outcome of a political event. Such a technique was tested on a real case
58 study, achieving results that are more accurate than opinion polls and other approaches
59 proposed in the literature.

60 Lastly, about *topic discovery*, we present HASHET, a model for recommending
61 a set of hashtags that are suitable for a given post. In particular, we discuss how the
62 recommendation abilities of our model can be leveraged for linking the content published
63 by users to the main discussion topics underlying social media conversation. HASHET
64 uses two latent spaces, independent from each other, to embed the textual content of
65 a post and the hashtags it contains. The first latent space is built through a pre-trained
66 BERT (*Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers*) language representation
67 model, which leverages a self-attention mechanism for detecting semantic and syntactic
68 features of texts. The second space, based on a CBOW (*Continuous Bag of Words*) trained
69 model, is used to extract the contextual relationships between words and hashtags. After
70 having identified in the embedding space of hashtags a clustering structure based on
71 topics, HASHET can be exploited to identify the main topics of discussion as well as the
72 topic to which a given tweet belongs. Several experiments proved that HASHET is the
73 best overall model in identifying the main topics of discussion, overcoming the other
74 state-of-the-art approaches.

75 All the applications discussed in this paper have been defined and executed in par-
76 allel on a Cloud platform, by exploiting ParSoDA [10], a library that enables developers
77 to create Cloud-based parallel applications for analyzing large volumes of social media
78 data. ParSoDA is composed of different packages, which include several functions that
79 are commonly used to process and analyze social media data, so as to discover different
80 types of information (e.g., user opinion, topic trends, user mobility patterns). In addition,
81 the library provides a set of interfaces and abstract classes to be implemented/extended
82 for creating new functions. ParSoDA is based on two of the most popular parallel
83 processing frameworks for Big Data (Apache Hadoop and Apache Spark), which are
84 fundamental to ensure scalability as the amount of data to be processed increases.

85 This work tries to summarize in a single paper, following a uniform descriptive
86 scheme, three examples of social media applications designed for analyzing data in
87 three different contexts. The aim is to highlight how, starting from the digital contents
88 that people share on social media (e.g., posts, videos or photos), extremely valuable
89 information for many disciplinary fields can be obtained. Starting from a common step-
90 by-step scheme, the presented applications are implemented using a single development
91 framework, also reporting the main results achieved. In this way, the Reader can find,
92 in a single place, three examples of trending applications in the area of social Big Data

93 analysis, useful to give an idea of the vastness of applications that can be implemented
94 in this area.

95 The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses related work. Section 3
96 introduces the metadata model proposed for integrating data gathered from different
97 social media. Section 4 introduces the ParSoDA library. Section 5 describes the three
98 applications of trajectory mining, opinion mining, and topic discovery. Finally, Section 6
99 concludes the paper.

100 2. Background

101 Over the past few years, several programmers and researchers have been working
102 on developing new tools, algorithms and programming models to extract relevant
103 information from Big Data. Generally, the volume of data to be processed exceeds the
104 computing capabilities of traditional IT systems, so clusters and Clouds are exploited to
105 effectively run parallel and distributed applications, capable of ensuring scalability and
106 acceptable execution times [3].

107 Even novel data mining techniques are created for extracting useful knowledge in
108 different application fields, including trend discovery, trajectory mining, predictive data
109 analytics, sentiment and opinion mining. Several surveys on this argument have been
110 proposed in literature [4–6] trying to summarize the innumerable research works that
111 have been published in the last years on this argument. In the following, some examples
112 of recent social media analysis applications are presented.

113 Social media analysis frequently aims at understanding human dynamics and
114 behaviors, such as understanding the most followed touristic routes and the period
115 of year when touristic attractions are visited [11][12], detecting the crowded areas of
116 a city where transport facilities need to be improved [13], finding the most suitable
117 areas for opening new businesses [14], analyzing the purchasing behavior of users [15],
118 uncovering the behaviors of fans following important sporting events [16].

119 Many research projects focus not only on the data analysis process, but also on other
120 data processing tasks (e.g., data cleaning, preparation, and transformation), which are
121 fundamentals while developing a data analysis application. These efforts, in particular,
122 aim at assisting researchers and data analysts in implementing all of the phases that
123 compose data analysis applications without having to start from scratch.

124 SOCLE [17] is a data preparation framework specifically designed for social media
125 applications, which provides a large set of operators for data pruning, data enrichment
126 and data normalization. Cuesta et al. [18] presented a MapReduce framework that
127 provides developers with easy-to-use modules for data collection, data storage and data
128 analytics (e.g., sentiment analysis and reporting). Still in the context of Twitter data,
129 Zhou et al. [19] proposed an unsupervised framework able to discover events from
130 large volumes of tweets through a pipeline process consisting of filtering, extraction and
131 categorization steps. You et al. [13] presented a Cloud-based framework for developing
132 social media analysis applications to support mobility in smart cities. It manages data
133 collection from social media platforms APIs (e.g., Flickr, Foursquare, Twitter) and from
134 other web sources (e.g., websites, blogs). SODATO (Social Data Analytics Tool) [20] is a
135 web-based tool for programming data analytics on social media data, which includes
136 some predefined analysis methods, such as sentiment analysis, text analysis, content
137 performance analysis, influencer analytics, and so on.

138 Taking into account the advances produced by research in this area, this paper
139 presents the definition of three significant applications of Social Big Data analysis in the
140 fields of trajectory mining, sentiment analysis, and topic detection. Such applications an-
141alyze large amounts of data and usually require long computation times. Consequently,
142to get results in a reasonable time, we used ParSoDA for enabling these applications to
143run on Cloud. The ParSoDA's runtime has been created specifically for dealing with
144large amounts of data. As a result, it is built on the MapReduce architecture and can run
145in parallel on distributed computing systems like HPC and Clouds.

146 3. Metadata model for social media data

147 One of the main problems to solve when working with social media data is to
 148 adopt a standardized data model for representing and integrating data coming from
 149 different sources. To this end, Belcastro et al. [10] proposed a unified metadata model
 150 for representing different data extracted from social media platforms. According to
 151 this model, each social media item (e.g., post, photo, or video) is described by a JSON
 152 document [21] organized into two sections. The first section, called *basic*, includes the
 153 main descriptive fields available in all major social media platforms (source, item ID,
 154 date and time, location coordinates, user information). The second section, called *extra*,
 155 contains specific fields that depend on each source. For example, Listing 1 and 2 show
 156 the metadata related to a tweet and a photo posted on Flickr. The basic section is the
 157 same for the two documents, instead the extra section contains specific information for
 158 tweets (e.g., retweet and retweet count) and for Flickr photos (e.g., a list of tags and the
 159 photo quality).

```
160 {
161   "BASIC":{
162     "SOURCE":"Twitter", "ID":"1234567890123",
163     "DATETIME":"2021-02-20T22:19:35.021",
164     "LOCATION":{"LNG":-0.1259,"LAT":51.5623},
165     "USER":{"USERID":"0123456789", "USERNAME":"mrpotato"}},
166   "EXTRA":{
167     "inReplyToScreenName":"djdna", "inReplyToUserId":987654321,
168     "inReplyToStatusId":9565757346292993,
169     "text":"@djdna perfect sound!",
170     "hashtags":["#festival", "#music"], "retweets":10, "isRetweet":true}
171 }
172 }
```

Listing 1: Metadata of a tweet.

```
174 {
175   "BASIC":{
176     "SOURCE":"Flickr", "ID":"43146791176",
177     "DATETIME":"2020-11-09T15:21:12.000",
178     "LOCATION":{"LNG":12.567772,"LAT":41.89256},
179     "USER":{"USERID":"987654321@N01", "USERNAME":"samjack"}},
180   "EXTRA":{
181     "title":"The Colosseum is amazing",
182     "description":"The Colosseum in Rome is really amazing"
183     "tags":[{"count":1,"value":"trip"},{"count":2,"value":"rome"}],
184     "dateTaken":"Oct 10, 2020 15:21:12 AM",
185     "accuracy": 15}
186 }
187 }
```

Listing 2: Metadata of a Flickr photo.

189 4. Scalable application using ParSoDA

190 ParSoDA (Parallel Social Data Analytics) [10] is a library for processing and an-
 191 alyzing in parallel large amounts of data collected from social media platforms. The
 192 main goal of ParSoDA is to allow programmers to easily extract knowledge from social
 193 media data by hiding the difficulty of defining a parallel/distributed application made
 194 up of many steps. In fact, programmers have a number of hurdles when designing and
 195 implementing these applications, including parallelizing complex algorithms, lowering
 196 communication costs, and optimizing memory utilization. For this purpose, the library
 197 allows to define a data analysis application starting from a general structure consisting
 198 of seven steps:

- 199 1. *Data acquisition* for collecting social media items and storing them in a persistent
 200 repository (e.g., HDFS [22]).
- 201 2. *Data filtering* for filtering social media items according to a set of functions.
- 202 3. *Data mapping* for transforming the information contained in each social media item
 203 through some functions.

- 204 4. *Data partitioning* for partitioning items into shards by a primary key and then
- 205 sorting them by a secondary key.
- 206 5. *Data reduction* for aggregating items contained in a shard according to a function.
- 207 6. *Data analysis* for analyzing data using a data analysis function in order to extract
- 208 the knowledge of interest.
- 209 7. *Data visualization* for visualizing data analysis results in a suitable visual format.

210 ParSoDA provides a predefined set of functions for each step. For example, Par-
 211 SoDA includes functions for crawling data from Twitter and Flickr, for filtering posts
 212 based on location or time of publication, for transforming data from one format to
 213 another, functions for classifying and clustering data and so on. However, users can
 214 extend this set of functions with their own.

215 Listing 3 shows the code of the application for extracting the user polarization
 216 between rival political factions. First, at line 3, a *SocialDataApp* is instantiated. Then the
 217 output path, the file system, and a file containing the keywords used to support the two
 218 factions are defined (*lines 4-7*). The rest of the code declares the functions to be used for
 219 data filtering, data mapping, data sorting, data reduction and data analysis.

```

220
221 1 public class UserPolarizationMain {
222 2     public static void main(String[] args) {
223 3         SocialDataApp app = new SocialDataApp("2 Faction User Polarization");
224 4         app.setOutputBasePath("outputApp");
225 5         app.setLocatFileSystem();
226 6         String[] cFiles = {"resources/twoFactionKeywords.json"};
227 7         app.setDistributedCacheFiles(cFiles);
228 8         Class[] cFunctions = {FileReaderCrawler.class};
229 9         String[] cParams = {"-i resources/tweetsFinal.json"};
230 10        app.setCrawlers(cFunctions, cParams);
231 11        Class[] mFunctions = {ClassifyTwoFactionsEvent.class};
232 12        String[] mParams = {"-f twoFactionKeywords.json"};
233 13        app.setMapFunctions(mFunctions, mParams);
234 14        String groupKey = "userId";
235 15        String sortKey = "DATETIME";
236 16        app.setPartitioningKeys(groupKey, sortKey);
237 17        Class rFunction = ReduceByTwoFactionsPolarization.class;
238 18        String rParams = "-t 5";
239 19        app.setReduceFunction(rFunction, rParams);
240 20        Class aFunction = TwoFactionsPolarization.class;
241 21        String aParams = null;
242 22        app.setAnalysisFunction(aFunction, aParams);
243 23        app.execute();
244 24    }
245 25 }
246

```

Listing 3: A user polarization application written using ParSoDA.

247 Using ParSoDA reduces the number of lines of code required to develop complex
 248 data analysis applications, as proved in [23]. In particular, ParSoDA allows programmers
 249 to save hundreds of lines of code in the main (as they only need to configure the functions
 250 to be used at each step) and in the other steps, where built-in functionalities are used
 251 and where the programmer needs only to define the function logic. Starting from the
 252 application main, ParSoDA creates and executes a chain of tasks for the different steps.
 253 Without ParSoDA, programmers must manually control the execution and parallelization
 254 of each step.

255 5. Social Big Data analysis applications

256 In this section, we show three examples of social media applications designed for
 257 analyzing big amounts of data gathered from social media. In particular, we focused
 258 on the extraction of knowledge from three different viewpoints. The first application

259 deals with *frequent trajectory mining from social media data*, for extracting the most frequent
 260 user trajectories and mobility patterns through a set of Points-of-Interest located in a
 261 geographical area (e.g., a city). The second application deals with *opinion mining from*
 262 *social media data*, for discovering the polarization of social media users during a political
 263 event (e.g., election, referendum), usually characterized by the competition of two or
 264 more political factions. The third application is on *topic discovery from social media*, for the
 265 suggestion of a proper set of hashtags for a given post that leverages the state-of-the-art
 266 techniques for natural language processing.

267 For each example, we describe the steps of the analysis by using an uniform de-
 268 scriptive schema and providing technical details with operating information, and the
 269 case study addressed with the results achieved and comparison with the main related
 270 work present in the state of the art.

271 5.1. Frequent trajectory mining from social media data

272 AUDESOME [7] is a method for extracting the most frequent user trajectories and
 273 mobility patterns through a set of Points-of-Interest (PoIs) located in a geographical area
 274 (e.g., a city). Generally, PoIs refer to tourist attractions, such as monuments, squares
 275 or bridges, or to business places, such as airports, shopping malls or train stations. A
 276 *trajectory* is a sequence of locations visited by a user. For analyzing users' behavior, it
 277 is useful to understand whether a user visited or not a PoI. Since information on a PoI
 278 is generally limited to an address or to GPS coordinates, it is hard to match trajectories
 279 with PoIs. For this reason, it is useful to define the so-called *Regions-of-Interest (RoIs)* that
 280 represent the boundaries of the PoIs' area [24].

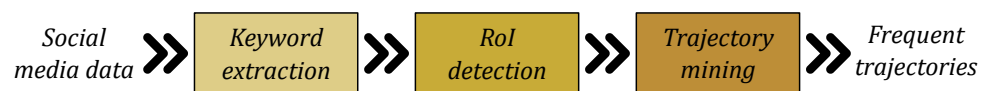


Figure 1. Execution flow of Frequent Trajectory Mining using AUDESOME.

281 In order to obtain the most frequent trajectories from a set of geotagged items from
 282 social media platforms, the following steps are performed (see Figure 1):

- 283 • *Keyword extraction* for discovering the main keywords that are used by social media
 284 users to identify the PoIs that are located in the area. Such keywords are used to
 285 group social media posts according to the place they refer to. The intermediate
 286 output of this step is the sets of keywords identifying the PoIs.
- 287 • *RoI detection* for extracting the Regions-of-Interest (RoIs) from social media posts
 288 that have been grouped by keywords. Specifically, the geotagged social media posts
 289 referring to a PoI are transformed into a series of geographical points and clustered
 290 to define RoIs. The intermediate output of this step is the RoIs calculated for the
 291 different PoIs, which can also be easily displayed on a map.
- 292 • *Trajectory mining* for finding the trajectories across RoIs for each user, and thus
 293 obtaining the mobility patterns (i.e., the most frequent trajectories).

294 5.1.1. Keyword extraction

295 The keyword extraction algorithm extracts the most relevant keywords used by
 296 social users to tag places-of-interest in a given area. The algorithm is composed of three
 297 steps:

- 298 1. *Keyword discovery*. The area of interest is divided into cells of equal size in order to
 299 assign the posts to each cell on the basis of geolocalization. Then, in each cell, the
 300 main keywords are found (sorted by frequency) by analyzing the description of the
 301 posts associated with a cell. The noisy keywords are then removed in the next step.
- 302 2. *Keyword selection*. To distinguish between high and low frequency keywords, a
 303 method based on a discrete L-curve [25] is used. Finding the elbow point of
 304 this curve allows to distinguish between high and low frequency keywords. The
 305 algorithm takes into account both global high frequency keywords (i.e., calculated

306 over the whole area) and local high frequency keywords (i.e., calculated on each
307 cell) for generating a list of the most representative keywords for each cell.
308 3. *Keyword grouping*. The most representative keywords are grouped by their textual
309 similarity using the Levenshtein's metric [26]. The algorithm produces a number
310 of sets containing similar keywords, where each set contains the keywords that
311 identify a specific PoI. During the RoI detection phase, each set of keywords is used
312 to find the associated RoI.

313 5.1.2. RoI detection

314 The RoI detection algorithm aims at defining the Regions-of-Interest by clustering
315 the geotagged items assigned to the different PoIs. In fact, the geotagged items can be
316 transformed into geographical points (i.e., pairs of (latitude, longitude)), which can
317 be aggregated through clustering. Specifically, an adapted version of DBSCAN [27] is
318 used for RoI mining with an automatic estimation of the parameters required by the
319 algorithm.

320 The DBSCAN algorithm needs two key parameters: *eps*, the radius of a neighbor-
321 hood with respect to some point; and *minPts*, the minimum number of points required
322 to form a cluster. These two parameters can be calculated using the following procedure
323 as defined in [27]:

- 324 1. Calculate the plot of the *k*-nearest-neighbor distances (*k*-dist), computed for each
325 point, and sorted by descending order [28]. As suggested in [27], for bi-dimensional
326 data, *k* can be set to 4.
- 327 2. Choose a *threshold point* on *k*-dist plot for separating noise points (i.e., all points
328 with a higher *k*-dist value than threshold) from points that are assigned to some
329 clusters (i.e., all points with a lower *k*-dist value than threshold). The threshold
330 point is calculated by estimating the noise percentage in the data (*noisePerc*).
- 331 3. The *k*-dist value of the threshold point is used as *eps* value. Concerning *minPts*, it
332 can be set as $k + 1$ [28].

333 Since DBSCAN calculates one or more clusters on a set of points, we select the
334 points that belong to the largest cluster, and starting from them we return the convex
335 polygon that encloses these points (i.e., a RoI).

336 5.1.3. Trajectory mining

337 At this step the input dataset is analyzed for finding behaviors and mobility patterns
338 of users. In order to prepare the data for analysis, the user's trajectories are transformed
339 from sequences of coordinates into sequences of RoIs. For this reason, the quality of the
340 RoIs influences the quality of the trajectories obtained.

341 Sequential pattern analysis is used to discover the sequences of RoIs that occur
342 most frequently in the data. In sequential analysis, the time dimension and chronological
343 order in which the values appear in the data are crucial. The sequences obtained from
344 the movements of the different users are analyzed together in order to discover the most
345 frequent ones. To this end, support and confidence are calculated for each frequent
346 trajectory found. By setting threshold values for these two factors, we are able to filter
347 and discover the most frequent trajectories followed by users.

348 5.1.4. Use cases and results

349 We experimentally evaluated the performance and scalability of AUDESOME using
350 more than 3 million of geotagged items, published in Flickr from January 2006 to May
351 2020 in the cities of Rome and Paris. Specifically, we evaluated the accuracy in extraction
352 of user trajectories of AUDESOME with respect to four existing techniques (see Table 1):
353 *DBSCAN* [29], *DSets-DBSCAN* [30], *Slope* [31], and *G-RoI* [24]. The experiments demon-
354 strate that AUDESOME achieves better results than existing techniques. AUDESOME
355 outperformed the other techniques by reaching a mean F1 score of 0.85 in Rome and 0.87
356 in Paris. For this step, our method turns out to be the most accurate one in finding trajec-

357 tories, achieving an overall improvement of the F1 score up to 0.39 (i.e., in comparison
 358 to DSets-DBSCAN). Also from the point of view of scalability, increasing the number
 359 of cores dedicated to the execution of the application leads to a significant reduction in
 360 overall execution times, which demonstrates the scalability of our method [32].

Algorithm	Rome dataset (F1)	Paris dataset (F1)
DBSCAN [29]	0.82	0.82
DSets-DBSCAN [30]	0.46	0.69
Slope [31]	0.68	0.77
G-RoI [24]	0.83	0.84
AUDESOME [7]	0.85	0.87

Table 1: Results comparison for the topic discovery task.

361 5.2. Opinion Mining from social media data

362 IOM-NN [8] is a recent methodology aiming at uncovering the polarization of social
 363 media users during a political event (e.g., election, referendum), usually characterized
 364 by the competition of two or more political factions. It is based on an iterative and
 365 incremental procedure that exploits feed-forward neural networks, aimed at determin-
 366 ing the political orientation of users by analyzing the political polarization of social
 367 media posts. IOM-NN is open source and an implementation is publicly available at:
 368 <https://github.com/SCAUnical/IOM-NN>. When using social media data for the
 369 estimation of the political polarization of public opinion, several issues several issues
 370 need to be addressed:

- 371 • *Language barrier.* Our technique is keyword-based, thus resulting language-independent.
- 372 • *Data imbalance.* A random sampling approach is used to balance the dataset across
 373 the different factions.
- 374 • *Data reliability.* We assessed the statistical significance of the collected data in order
 375 to understand whether geo-located users under analysis can actually be considered
 376 voters.
- 377 • *Misclassification.* Only rules that present a high likelihood in the association between
 378 a post and its assigned faction are used.



Figure 2. Execution flow of IOM-NN.

379 As shown in Figure 2, the proposed methodology is comprised of of three main
 380 steps:

- 381 1. *Keyword definition:* a set of keywords, related to the political event under analysis, is
 382 defined in order to gather data from the social media platforms (see Section 5.2.1).
- 383 2. *Classification of posts:* an iterative procedure based on feed-forward neural networks
 384 is leveraged for assigning the collected posts to a specific faction (see Section 5.2.2).
- 385 3. *Polarization of users:* starting from the classified posts, the political orientation of
 386 the users is calculated (see Section 5.2.3).

387 5.2.1. Collection of posts

388 During this phase a set P of social media posts are collected from different sources
 389 (e.g., Twitter, Flickr or other microblog platforms). Specifically, posts are searched and
 390 collected by using a set of keywords \mathcal{K} that people commonly use to refer to a political
 391 event \mathcal{E} on social media (es. faction-specific hashtags). Specifically, given a set of factions
 392 $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$, the methodology exploits two types of keywords in \mathcal{K} :

- 393 • $\mathcal{K}_{context}$, containing generic keywords or hashtags that can be associated to the
 394 political event \mathcal{E} , but that do not refer to any specific faction (e.g., $\#vote$, $\#election$);

- 395 • $\mathcal{K}_F = \mathcal{K}_{f_1} \dots \mathcal{K}_{f_n}$, which contains the keywords used for supporting each faction
396 $f \in \mathcal{F}$ (e.g., #votehillary, #maga, #imwithher, #votetrump).

397 5.2.2. Classification of posts

398 During this step, social media posts are incrementally classified as in favor of
399 a specific faction by leveraging an iterative process based on a feed-forward neural
400 network, specifically a multilayer perceptron.

401 As a first step, IOM-NN builds a classification model M_0 based on a small set of
402 manually-defined faction keywords ($\mathcal{K}_{\mathcal{F}}$). Such a model is then used for classifying a
403 part of the posts. Specifically, at this iteration, the algorithm classifies a post in favor of
404 a faction if it contains only positive keywords related to that faction. This means that,
405 at the end of the first iteration, just a small amount of posts are classified, since not all
406 users use the positive keywords in \mathcal{K}_F for expressing their support to a faction.

407 In the subsequent iterations, IOM-NN iteratively generates new classification rules
408 aimed at classifying posts that are not yet assigned to any faction. These rules are
409 extracted by a multilayered perceptron, which is specially trained to find out hidden
410 relationships between hashtags used by social media users and their political alignment.
411 The training phase exploits all the posts that have been classified at the previous itera-
412 tions. Afterwards, new posts are classified if they can be assigned to a specific faction
413 with a high probability (≥ 0.9 , by default), computed by a softmax activation on the set
414 of factions \mathcal{F} . The procedure iterates until a maximum number of iterations are made or
415 convergence is reached, i.e. there are no more posts to be classified or the percentage of
416 classified posts in the current iteration does not exceed a predetermined threshold.

417 5.2.3. Polarization of users

418 In this final phase, IOM-NN exploits the posts classified in the previous step in
419 order to estimate the political orientation of social media users who wrote those posts.
420 Then, starting from this estimate, the outcome of the political event \mathcal{E} is predicted.

421 As a first step, the classified posts are grouped by user to get the list of classified
422 posts for each user. Starting from this, for all users the algorithm computes the number of
423 posts published in favor of each faction $f \in \mathcal{F}$. Subsequently, users are filtered based on
424 how active they are on the social platform and how significant their political alignment
425 is with the assigned faction. Specifically, a user is considered only if he/she fulfills the
426 following criteria:

- 427 • He/she posted at least a minimum number of posts which show a political align-
428 ment.
- 429 • There exists a faction for which he/she has published more than 2/3 of his/her
430 posts.

431 Afterwards, the algorithm determines a faction score for each user, defined as the per-
432 centage of posts he/she wrote in favor of his/her preferred faction. At the end, all faction
433 scores are combined and normalized to obtain the overall polarization percentages for
434 each faction $f \in \mathcal{F}$, which represents the prediction of the outcome of the event \mathcal{E} .

435 5.2.4. Use cases and results

436 The effectiveness of the proposed methodology has been assessed on a real-world
437 case study, aimed at analyzing the polarization of a large number of Twitter users during
438 the 2016 US presidential election. In particular, our analysis focused on data collected
439 for ten US Swing States: *Colorado, Florida, Iowa, Michigan, Ohio, New Hampshire, North*
440 *Carolina, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Wisconsin*. The reason behind the choice of these
441 states is linked to their greater political uncertainty, which implies a marked strategic
442 importance, as their votes are more likely to be the deciding factor in a presidential
443 election. We leveraged the Search Twitter API for the extraction of tweets published in a
444 given area or place through geo-referencing, collecting about 820 thousands of tweets
445 posted by 140 thousands users.

State	Real	Polls	IOM-NN
Colorado	Clinton	Clinton	Clinton
Florida	Trump	Trump	Clinton
Iowa	Trump	Trump	Trump
Michigan	Trump	Clinton	Trump
New Hampshire	Clinton	Clinton	Clinton
North Carolina	Trump	Tie	Trump
Ohio	Trump	Trump	Trump
Pennsylvania	Trump	Clinton	Clinton
Virginia	Clinton	Clinton	Clinton
Wisconsin	Trump	Clinton	Trump
<i>Tweets</i>	-	-	818,403
<i>Users</i>	-	≈ 10,000	141,959
<i>Correctly classified</i>	-	6/10	8/10

Table 2: Results comparison in terms of winning candidate. The candidate is written in bold when it is correctly identified.

446 Table 2 provides a comparison between the results obtained by IOM-NN, the
 447 average opinion polls collected before voting and the real results of the political event.
 448 The achieved results show the greater accuracy of IOM-NN, which correctly identified
 449 the winning candidate in 8 out of 10 cases. It is also worth to note that IOM-NN allows
 450 the analysis of a much larger number of users at a lower cost, with respect to opinion
 451 polls, by exploiting the information-rich contents published by social media users.

452 5.3. Topic discovery from social media

453 HASHET [9] is a hashtag recommendation model designed for the suggestion of a
 454 proper set of hashtags for a given post, which leverages the state-of-the-art techniques for
 455 natural language processing, such as self-attention mechanism in transformer encoders
 456 and transfer learning from pre-trained language representation models.

457 In microblogging platforms, a hashtag is a generic string of characters and numbers
 458 that starts with the # symbol. It is generally used to label posts, linking them to trending
 459 topics, thus facilitating research and creating communities of like-minded users. How-
 460 ever, due to the absence of constraints in choosing hashtags, it is often hard for users
 461 to select the appropriate ones, which leads to a huge number of posts characterized by
 462 the absence of a representative hashtag. This phenomenon can affect the quality of the
 463 results achieved by hashtag-based techniques, such as IOM-NN, and can be mitigated
 464 by the use of appropriate recommendation models. In addition, such models can be
 465 used to link posts to discussion topics, by identifying a topic-based clustering structure
 466 in which semantically-related hashtags are grouped together.

467 The HASHET models relies on the mapping between two independent semantic
 468 spaces, obtained through the embedding of sentences and words/hashtags. Thanks
 469 to this mapping, the model can learn the hidden relationships that link a given post
 470 to the latent representation of the hashtags it contains. Differently from the other
 471 state-of-the-art models based on deep learning architectures, HASHET do not relies
 472 on a softmax-loss setting, but exploits a novel concept of locality in the latent space of
 473 hashtags. By following this approach the model becomes fully aware of both the semantic
 474 relationships among hashtags and the underlying topic-based clustering structure, which
 475 leads to a significant improvement in hashtag prediction compared to other techniques.
 476 In particular, the recommendation is performed by identifying the projection of the latent
 477 vector, associated to the input post, into the embedding space of hashtags. Afterwards,
 478 a set of hashtags to be recommended is found in this space using k -nearest neighbor
 479 search and semantic expansion.

480 Figure 3 depicts the main steps of HASHET, a description of which is provided in
 481 the following.



Figure 3. Execution flow of HASHET.

482 5.3.1. Semantic mapping

483 HASHET relies on the projection (i.e. semantic mapping) of embedded representa-
 484 tion of posts into the hashtag embedding space obtained by training a CBOW Word2Vec
 485 model [33]. Specifically, the embedding of a post is computed by exploiting the pre-
 486 trained BERT encoder, taking the hidden representation of the *CLS* token as the sentence
 487 embedding. The semantic mapping is performed by training a multi-layer perceptron
 488 to minimize the cosine distance between two latent vectors: *i*) the projection of the em-
 489 bedded representation of the post into the hashtags latent space, and *ii*) the embedded
 490 representation of its hashtags. In particular, the training process is performed as follows:

- 491 1. The BERT encoder is used for computing the embedded representation of the
 492 training posts, which are translated by the multi-layer perceptron, trained from
 493 scratch with a cosine distance loss until convergence is reached.
- 494 2. The entire semantic mapping model, comprising the BERT encoder and the multi-
 495 layer perceptron, is fully fine-tuned in an end-to-end fashion, in order to adapt the
 496 pre-trained feature of BERT to this particular downstream task. For this reason,
 497 in this training step, a small learning rate is used, in order to prevent pre-trained
 498 features from being distorted by large weight updates.

499 5.3.2. Hashtags recommendation

500 This phase concerns the use of the HASHET model for recommending hashtags to
 501 social media users. Specifically, given an input post, the corresponding embedding vector
 502 is computed, which is then projected into the hashtag latent space. Given this projection,
 503 named *target vector*, its k nearest hashtags are found and ordered by cosine similarity.
 504 As a last step, a semantic expansion process is performed, aimed at maximizing the
 505 hit rate of the recommendation system. In particular, given an expansion factor n , it
 506 includes in the output set the top- n semantically similar hashtags to those computed by
 507 the nearest neighbor search. As a result, the output set will consist of $k + n$ hashtags
 508 which are representative of both the semantic content of the input post and the spatial
 509 relationships of the hashtag embedding space.

510 5.3.3. Topic discovery

511 At this step, HASHET is exploited to identify the main topic of discussion of a given
 512 post. Firstly, we visualized the main topics present in the hashtag embedding space,
 513 identified by the different clusters formed by the spatial co-location of semantically
 514 similar hashtags. In order to achieve an effective visualization, we reduced the dimen-
 515 sionality of the latent vectors, projecting them into a 2D space using *Principal Component*
 516 *Analysis* and *t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding* techniques. Afterwards, we used
 517 *OPTICS*, a density-based clustering algorithm, identifying a partitioning of hashtags
 518 in a set of clusters $\mathcal{C} = \{c_1, \dots, c_m\}$, each related to a different topic of discussion. The
 519 main reason behind the choice of this clustering algorithm is linked to the density-based
 520 approach it leverages, which leads to the identification of clusters of arbitrary shape.
 521 Moreover, through the *cut-clustering* mechanism, *OPTICS* allows the identification of
 522 clustering structures at different levels of density (i.e., detail), which is particularly useful
 523 for dealing with the presence of micro-topics in social media conversation.

524 Starting from the HASHET model and the set of clusters \mathcal{C} the discussion topic for
 525 a given post p is determined as follows. Firstly the recommendation model is exploited
 526 in order to get a set of k hashtags suitable for that post. Afterwards, p can be classified in
 527 three ways:

- 528 • *Assignable*, if recommended hashtags belong to one cluster only.

- 529 • *Ambiguous*, if recommended hashtags belong to two or more clusters.
- 530 • *Neutral*, if recommended hashtags do not belong to any cluster.

531 Then, if p was labeled as *assignable*, it is assigned to the topic related to its corresponding
 532 cluster. Otherwise, if p is labeled as *neutral*, semantic expansion is iteratively used
 533 to recommend n additional hashtags, until a maximum expansion factor n is reached.
 534 Finally, *ambiguous* are not assigned to any specific topic, as we only focus on single-topic
 535 posts.

536 5.3.4. Use cases and results

537 In this section we show the results achieved by exploiting the recommendation abil-
 538 ities of HASHET for identifying the discussion topic of tweets related to COVID-19 pan-
 539 demic. As a first step, as explained in section 5.3.3, we extracted a set of discussion topics
 540 from the input dataset, which are representative of the online discussion about the health
 541 emergency. In particular, we identified discussion groups about anti-vaccine protests
 542 in the USA (*#protests*, *#losangeles*), pro-vaccination campaigns (*#covidvaccine*, *#healthcare*),
 543 smartworking (*#workfromhome*, *#remotework*), and COVID-19 prevention rules (*#wearamask*,
 544 *#washyourhands*).

545 Afterwards, we maintained only single-topic tweets, i.e. those having hashtags
 546 belonging to exactly one cluster. Then we masked the real hashtags and leveraged the
 547 HASHET model in order to identify the topic for each tweet as explained in Section
 548 5.3.3. Finally, discovered topics were compared to the real ones. Specifically, a topic
 549 assignment is correct if the recommended hashtags and the real ones belong to the
 550 same cluster, i.e., they are related to the same topic; otherwise the assignment may
 551 be neutral, ambiguous, or incorrect. This last case occurs when a unique but wrong
 552 cluster label can be determined from the recommended hashtags, i.e., the tweet can
 553 be assigned to a topic other than the one it actually belongs to. The results achieved
 554 by HASHET was compared with the main techniques present in the literature, which
 555 include unsupervised techniques and neural models based on different implementations
 556 of the attention mechanism.

Model	Correct	Incorrect	Neutral	Ambiguous
HF-IHU [34]	0.28	0.35	0.35	0.02
DBSCAN [35]	0.48	0.32	0.04	0.16
LDA-GIBBS [36]	0.51	0.22	0.05	0.22
TCAN [37]	0.66	0.08	0.11	0.15
BERT [38]	0.68	0.08	0.09	0.15
HASHET	0.77	0.07	0.03	0.13

Table 3: Results comparison with state-of-the-art techniques.

557 From the carried out comparison, shown in Table 3, we found what follows. Firstly,
 558 the HF-IHU technique achieved the worst results, while LDA-Gibbs and DBSCAN-based
 559 models performed better, being able to model the corpus of tweets in an unsupervised
 560 manner, identifying an underlying structure through topic modeling and clustering
 561 analysis. Deep learning models based on the attention mechanism achieved even better
 562 results, as they can fully exploit the semantic information contained in the analyzed
 563 tweets, by learning a representative latent representation of them. Finally, HASHET
 564 proved to be the best overall model in uncovering the main hashtag-based discussion
 565 topics, achieving both the highest percentage of correct and the lowest amount of
 566 incorrect and neutral classifications, which confirms the effectiveness of the proposed
 567 approach.

568 6. Conclusions

569 This paper discussed how different methodologies of social media analysis can be
 570 exploited and executed on Cloud for extracting a rich set of knowledge about users. In

571 particular, we focused on the extraction of knowledge from three different viewpoints:
572 *i*) from the posts published by tourists who visit a city, we discovered the main tourist
573 attractions and also the mobility patterns across them; *ii*) from public discussions on
574 social media close to important electoral events, we estimated the political orientation
575 of citizens and the outcome of a political event; *iii*) from hashtags used in posts, we
576 discover the main topics underlying social media conversation and how users refer to
577 them in publishing online content. Starting from a common step-by-step scheme, the
578 presented applications have been implemented and executed on Clouds using a single
579 development framework (ParSoDA), also reporting the main results achieved. The
580 obtained results highlight the abundance of valuable information that can be extracted,
581 in different application contexts, from social media data by using parallel computing
582 approaches.

583 As future works, there are still many open challenges that can be faced in the up-
584 coming years. For example, given that some data collected from social media platforms
585 may be unreliable, new automatic techniques can be defined to select the most reliable
586 and representative data before being used in decision-making processes. Furthermore,
587 new algorithms for the geotagging of posts starting from the text could be introduced,
588 as well as algorithms that suggest the best hashtags to be associated with a post to
589 increase its diffusion within the social network. The algorithms and techniques that
590 make it possible to distinguish the content published by bots and humans could also be
591 improved, in order to automatically and accurately separate these two types of content.
592 Possible critical issues that could limit the definition of new algorithms and applica-
593 tions for social media analysis are linked to the need to use large amounts textual and
594 geo-referenced data, which could be difficult to obtain due to the scarce use of some
595 social media platforms in some areas of the world, or the restrictions imposed on data
596 acquisition.

597 **Author Contributions:** Conceptualization, L.B., R.C. and F.M.; methodology, L.B., R.C. and
598 F.M.; investigation, L.B., R.C. and F.M.; writing—original draft preparation, L.B., R.C. and F.M.;
599 supervision, F.M. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

600 **Funding:** This research received no external funding

601 **Institutional Review Board Statement:** Not applicable

602 **Informed Consent Statement:** Not applicable

603 **Data Availability Statement:** The data that support the findings of this study are publicly available.
604 In particular, this data was gathered using Twitter APIs available at <https://developer.twitter.com>
605 and Flickr APIs available at <https://www.flickr.com/services/api/>.

606 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Talia, D.; Trunfio, P.; Marozzo, F. *Data Analysis in the Cloud: Models, Techniques and Applications*, 1st ed.; Elsevier Science Publishers B. V., 2015.
2. Olshannikova, E.; Olsson, T.; Huhtamäki, J.; Kärkkäinen, H. Conceptualizing Big Social Data. *Journal of Big Data* **2017**, *4*, 3.
3. Belcastro, L.; Marozzo, F.; Talia, D.; Trunfio, P. Big Data Analysis on Clouds. In *Handbook of Big Data Technologies*; Zomaya, A.; Sakr, S., Eds.; Springer, 2017; pp. 101–142. ISBN: 978-3-319-49339-8.
4. Adedoyin-Olowe, M.; Gaber, M.M.; Stahl, F. A Survey of Data Mining Techniques for Social Media Analysis. *Journal of Data Mining & Digital Humanities* **2014**, *6*, 25.
5. Hou, Q.; Han, M.; Cai, Z. Survey on Data Analysis in Social Media: A Practical Application Aspect. *Big Data Mining and Analytics* **2020**, *3*, 259–279.
6. Batrinca, B.; Treleaven, P.C. Social Media Analytics: a Survey of Techniques, Tools and Platforms. *Ai & Society* **2015**, *30*, 89–116.
7. Belcastro, L.; Marozzo, F.; Perrella, E. Automatic Detection of User Trajectories From Social Media Posts. *Expert Systems with Applications* **2021**, *186*, 115733.
8. Belcastro, L.; Cantini, R.; Marozzo, F.; Talia, D.; Trunfio, P. Learning Political Polarization on Social Media Using Neural Networks. *IEEE Access* **2020**, *8*, 47177–47187.
9. Cantini, R.; Marozzo, F.; Bruno, G.; Trunfio, P. Learning Sentence-To-Hashtags Semantic Mapping for Hashtag Recommendation on Microblogs. *ACM Transactions on Knowledge Discovery from Data (TKDD)* **2021**, *16*, 1–26.

10. Belcastro, L.; Marozzo, F.; Talia, D.; Trunfio, P. ParSoDA: High-Level Parallel Programming for Social Data Mining. *Social Network Analysis and Mining* **2019**, *9*.
11. Birmingham, L.; Lee, I. Spatio-temporal Sequential Pattern Mining for Tourism Sciences. *Procedia Computer Science* **2014**, *29*, 379–389. 2014 International Conference on Computational Science.
12. Kurashima, T.; Iwata, T.; Irie, G.; Fujimura, K. Travel Route Recommendation Using Geotags in Photo Sharing Sites. Proceedings of the 19th ACM International Conference on Information and Knowledge Management; ACM: New York, NY, USA, 2010; CIKM '10, pp. 579–588.
13. You, L.; Motta, G.; Sacco, D.; Ma, T. Social data analysis framework in cloud and Mobility Analyzer for Smarter Cities. Proceedings of 2014 IEEE International Conference on Service Operations and Logistics, and Informatics, 2014, pp. 96–101.
14. Ancillai, C.; Terho, H.; Cardinali, S.; Pascucci, F. Advancing Social Media Driven Sales Research: Establishing Conceptual Foundations for B-to-B Social Selling. *Industrial Marketing Management* **2019**, *82*, 293–308.
15. wen Shen, C.; Min Chen.; chen Wang, C. Analyzing the Trend of O2O Commerce by Bilingual Text Mining on Social Media. *Computers in Human Behavior* **2019**, *101*, 474–483. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2018.09.031.
16. Cesario, E.; Marozzo, F.; Talia, D.; Trunfio, P. SMA4TD: A Social Media Analysis Methodology for Trajectory Discovery in Large-Scale Events. *Online Social Networks and Media* **2017**, *3-4*, 49–62.
17. Amer-Yahia, S.; Ibrahim, N.; Kengne, C.K.; Ulliana, F.; Rousset, M.C. SOCLE: Towards a Framework for Data Preparation in Social Applications. *Ingénierie des Systèmes d'Information* **2014**, *19*, 49–72.
18. Cuesta, Á.; Barrero, D.F.; R-Moreno, M.D. A Framework for Massive Twitter Data Extraction and Analysis. *Malaysian J. of Computer Science* **2014**, *27*, 1.
19. Zhou, D.; Chen, L.; He, Y. An Unsupervised Framework of Exploring Events on Twitter: Filtering, Extraction and Categorization. Proceedings of the Twenty-Ninth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence, January 25-30, 2015, Austin, Texas, USA., 2015, pp. 2468–2475.
20. Hussain, A.; Vatrapu, R. Social Data Analytics Tool: Design, Development, and Demonstrative Case Studies. 2014 IEEE 18th International Enterprise Distributed Object Computing Conference Workshops and Demonstrations, 2014, pp. 414–417.
21. ECMA. ECMA-262: ECMAScript Language Specification. Fifth Edition. *ECMA (European Association for Standardizing Information and Communication Systems)* **2009**.
22. Shvachko, K.; Kuang, H.; Radia, S.; Chansler, R. The Hadoop Distributed File System. 2010 IEEE 26th Symposium on Mass Storage Systems and Technologies (MSST). IEEE, 2010, pp. 1–10.
23. Belcastro, L.; Marozzo, F.; Talia, D.; Trunfio, P. A High-Level Programming Library for Mining Social Media on HPC Systems. Post-Proc. of the High Performance Computing Workshop 2018, Cetraro, Italy, Advances in Parallel Computing. IOS Press, 2019, Vol. 34, *Advances in Parallel Computing*, pp. 3–21.
24. Belcastro, L.; Marozzo, F.; Talia, D.; Trunfio, P. G-RoI: Automatic Region-of-Interest Detection Driven by Geotagged Social Media Data. *ACM Transactions on Knowledge Discovery from Data* **2018**, *12*, 27:1–27:22.
25. Hansen, P.C. Analysis of Discrete Ill-Posed Problems by Means of the L-Curve. *SIAM Review* **1992**, *34*, 561–580.
26. Levenshtein, V.I. Binary Codes Capable of Correcting Deletions, Insertions, and Reversals. 1966, Vol. 10, *Soviet Physics Doklady*, pp. 707–710.
27. Ester, M.; Kriegel, H.P.; Sander, J.; Xu, X. A Density-based Algorithm for Discovering Clusters in Large Spatial Databases with Noise. Proceedings of the Second International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, 1996, KDD'96, pp. 226–231.
28. Schubert, E.; Sander, J.; Ester, M.; Kriegel, H.P.; Xu, X. DBSCAN Revisited, Revisited: Why and How You Should (Still) Use DBSCAN. *ACM Transactions on Database Systems (TODS)* **2017**, *42*, 19.
29. Zheng, Y.T.; Zha, Z.J.; Chua, T.S. Mining Travel Patterns From Geotagged Photos. *ACM Trans. Intell. Syst. Technol.* **2012**, *3*, 56:1–56:18.
30. Hou, J.; Gao, H.; Li, X. Dsets-Dbscan: A Parameter-Free Clustering Algorithm. *IEEE Transactions on Image Processing* **2016**, *25*, 3182–3193.
31. Lee, I.; Cai, G.; Lee, K. Exploration of Geo-Tagged Photos Through Data Mining Approaches. *Expert Systems with Applications* **2014**, *41*, 397 – 405.
32. Belcastro, L.; Kechadi, M.T.; Marozzo, F.; Pastore, L.; Talia, D.; Trunfio, P. Parallel Extraction of Regions-Of-Interest From Social Media Data. *Concurrency and Computation: Practice and Experience* **2021**, *33*, e5638.
33. Mikolov, T.; Chen, K.; Corrado, G.; Dean, J. Efficient Estimation of Word Representations in Vector Space. 1st International Conference on Learning Representations, ICLR 2013, Scottsdale, Arizona, USA, May 2-4, 2013, Workshop Track Proceedings; Bengio, Y.; LeCun, Y., Eds., 2013.
34. Otsuka, E.; Wallace, S.A.; Chiu, D. A Hashtag Recommendation System for Twitter Data Streams. *Computational Social Networks* **2016**, *3*, 1–26.
35. Ben-Lhachemi, N.; Nfaoui, E.H. Using Tweets Embeddings For Hashtag Recommendation in Twitter. *Procedia Computer Science* **2018**, *127*, 7–15. Proceedings of the First International Conference on Intelligent Computing in Data Sciences, ICDS2017.
36. Godin, F.; Slavkovic, V.; De Neve, W.; Schrauwen, B.; Van de Walle, R. Using Topic Models for Twitter Hashtag Recommendation. Proceedings of the 22nd International Conference on World Wide Web, 2013, pp. 593–596.

-
37. Li, Y.; Liu, T.; Hu, J.; Jiang, J. Topical Co-attention Networks for Hashtag Recommendation on Microblogs. *Neurocomputing* **2019**, *331*, 356–365.
 38. Devlin, J.; Chang, M.W.; Lee, K.; Toutanova, K. BERT: Pre-training of Deep Bidirectional Transformers for Language Understanding. Proceedings of the 2019 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long and Short Papers); Association for Computational Linguistics: Stroudsburg, PA, USA, 2019; pp. 4171–4186.