



A fuzzy model to enhance user profiles in *microblogging* sites using deep relations

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Abstract

Social Networking Sites (SNS) have entailed a revolution for society. They have given a say to everyone regardless of their status and this has been translated into loads of data. The task of *profiling users* constitutes a way to learn from this data in order to show users only the content that is relevant to them. Several recommendation system techniques have been used to address this problem, being mainly based on what the user explicitly says about themselves, on what the user publishes in the SNS and on the similarities between users. However, in social media context, it is also possible to use relations between users. Considering basic relations like *follower* or *followee* to extract information from them may result in noise, since they do not imply that users share interest or even ideas. In this work, we present a fuzzy framework to enrich user profiles with complex properties in order to have an even better representation of them. We use basic relations defined by SNSs to complete the information available in user profiles with topics of interest and ideas towards them and to define deep relations that will enable new ways of analysis. We use these deep relations to create clusters of similar users that, ultimately, will allow the expansion of properties from known users to the rest of the cluster. We tested our proposal with a dataset of Tweets in Spanish related to a political event. Our experiments prove the potential that this approach has for a lot of applications in *microblogging* context.

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1. Introduction

Social Networking Sites (SNS) have revolved our lives as they have given a say to masses. It has been proven that they have the capacity to mobilise hundreds of people from all around the world as long as they seek a noble, common cause [1].

SNSs gained a lot of adepts in the last ten years [2], although in the last few of them, tendency has shifted in favour of anonymous social media [3]. It was expected that, by 2020, data on the Internet would have growth to 40000

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Table 1

$R^{m \times n}$ matrix representation of a user profile, for a total of m users and n attributes. In this table, each row stands for the preferences of a user meanwhile each column represents in which grade the users *matches* the attribute P .

	P_1	P_2	P_3	...	P_n
u_1	v_{11}	v_{12}	v_{13}	...	v_{1n}
u_2	v_{21}	v_{22}	v_{23}	...	v_{2n}
u_3	v_{31}	v_{32}	v_{33}	...	v_{3n}
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\ddots	\vdots
u_m	v_{m1}	v_{m2}	v_{m3}	...	v_{mn}

exabytes, reaching 175 zettabytes by 2025 [4,5]; most of this data is unstructured and unlabelled but, thanks to social media mechanics, it is possible to address with these issues in order to extract knowledge from *chaos*.

One step towards *learning* from SNSs is *profiling users*. This task consists in, given a set of users and topics of interest, gathering the properties that identify one user among the rest (within a certain degree of accuracy), and it is particularly useful for customising content in an always-growing information flow [6]. Profiling users and their interests are not trivial tasks. Traditional SNSs have, normally, three main features: a user profile, a list of connected profiles and the possibility to interact among other users and their lists [7]. There are several ways to define a user profile, but the vast majority of them rely on what users share about themselves and the content they create.

There are advanced aspects that are not being included in current analysis of social networks, such as the topics of interest of the users and their opinions about these. These concepts are inherently imprecise (the interest towards a topic will be up to a certain degree and the opinions may vary in different aspects regarding the same topic) and thus they might be modelled using fuzzy relations and sets [8,9]. In order to include those aspects, it is possible to analyse the content of the messages they share, but it may not be enough in real scenarios, because of (1) errors made by automatic analysis tools and machine learning techniques; (2) lack of a sufficient number of useful messages; and (3) users may avoid expressing their sincere opinions, especially in controversial topics where their friends or society may judge them [10].

However, we are not neutral individuals forging our personal perspective from the world but a product of society, and because of this, we are not owners of our ideas, at least to some extent. Our behaviour is a reflection of the world we live in, and SNSs behave like some sort of mirror from reality. Even though users try not to manifest *deep* beliefs, they interact with other users that may not have this restraint, and these interactions may disclose the actual profile of the user. An in-depth analysis of relations and interactions between users (and messages) will allow us to tackle with those issues (e.g. [11]).

For example, it is possible that a user declares that “*videogames are for children*” but, in reality, they follow accounts that keep them posted about novelties in this world, which might imply that they are interested but they do not want the world to know.

The purpose of this work is multiple: (1) we want to enhance user profiles in *microblogging* sites by adding new attributes, specifically, topics of interest and ideas about these, using fuzzy techniques; (2) we want to obtain high-level relations between users, as sharing interest and/or ideas; and (3) we want to refine profile attributes by the use of deep analysis of social networking sites. Thereby, we present in this document a fuzzy framework to attain these targets.

1.1. Problem statement

A user profile can be defined as a set of triplets (u, P, v) , being u an user, P an item, property or attribute relative to the user u and v the value that the attribute P takes for the user u .

It is frequent that these triplets are stored as rating matrices $R^{m \times n}$ (see Table 1), where m is the number of users and n the number of items, in order to efficiently apply algebraic operations [12]. For each user u , the values v regarding each P will be either provided by the user or estimated through their interactions and content generated within the system.

1 Machine learning techniques are usually employed to infer attribute values, hereby leading to interpretability prob-
 2 lems in most cases: state-of-the-art methods behave as *black boxes* which implies relying purely in the training data.
 3 Depending on the applications of profiling users, this can entail an issue, especially if we are using user profiles in a
 4 way that will cause a social impact [13].

5 The rest of this document is organised as follows. In the next section, we provide a review of related work in the
 6 field. Section 3 describes our proposal to extend user profiles with topics of interest and ideas towards them. Section 4
 7 introduce the concept of deep relation, that will be used in section 5 to define social groups. In section 6, we show that
 8 social groups can be used to expand properties through the network of users. Section 7 shows experimental results for
 9 an application of our proposal. Finally, sections 8 and 9 show our conclusions and future work, respectively.

10 2. Related work

11 In this section, we present a review of literature related to our work.

12 User profiling has been a task for Recommendation Systems for many years now. These engines give recom-
 13 mendations based on the preferences a user (or a similar one) shows towards specific products. In order to perform this
 14 task, they try to define a profile for each user as well as relations between them.

15 Usually, a profile is defined as *the set of attributes (independent or not) that characterise a user and allows distin-
 16 guishing them among others* [14,15]. Mainly, it is possible to define a profile by using previous knowledge from the
 17 user (*content based*, *CB*) or by relations with the rest of them (*collaborative filtering*, *CF*) [16]. The former method
 18 presents good accuracy as their recommendations are computed from explicit actions of the user, but it has a problem
 19 not easy to address regarding serendipity; the latter can solve this problem as it gives recommendations based on the
 20 similarity cluster, but it normally tends to very sparse feature matrices, especially at the beginning (*cold start*). Since
 21 there is not an optimal choice, it is common to use hybrid systems in which recommendations are based both on user
 22 previous actions and relations among them.

23 In the context of a SNS, content-based approaches work from what the user publishes in social media (e.g. text,
 24 photos, videos, audio, links, etc.) and what is explicitly expressed in them (e.g. we can understand from the text
 25 “Lebron saved the game with a triple in the last second” that the author is interested in basketball). Content-based
 26 systems have special relevance in fields like event recommendation, since events are time dependant and, normally,
 27 they have no attendance records [17]; also, they are being used to match user accounts across different SNSs in
 28 order to avoid and/or enrich profiles taking advantages of different privacy settings and published content [18]; most
 29 commonly, they are used in order to compute properties from users based on what they share (e.g. Sarna and Bhatia
 30 [19] apply content-based approaches to calculate the credibility of a given user).

31 On the other hand, collaborative filtering systems compute similarity measures between users and give recom-
 32 mendations based on interests of other users. In the domain of a SNS, this can be understood as common interests of the
 33 communities, leading to another problem regarding how to detect and model communities. CF methods are being used
 34 for detecting trust [20,21] and identifying malicious users (e.g. [22]), among others, since these applications rely on
 35 similarities between users.

36 As we can come to understand from the previous paragraphs, these techniques are not only used to recommend
 37 products (books, films, insurances, etc., e.g. [23–27]) but also people (friends or even a date, e.g. [28–31]). This
 38 is especially relevant in social networks where engines suggest who to follow based on your connections and the
 39 connections of your friends. Until now, traditional SNSs show bias towards friending as many people as possible in
 40 order to be popular or even an *influencer*, and at first, we can think that the task of recommending people is easy:
 41 we have more chances to know a friend of a friend that a random user, so at first glance, we can recommend friends
 42 of friends. Although, in social media, we also follow people we have not ever met just because they are famous or
 43 because our interests are alike (famous within a field). Once again, the logical approach consists in using a mixed
 44 technique that can suggest friends from close people (low distance between them) and from similarity clusters (same
 45 interests) [32].

46 Whereas suggesting people may be a complex but achievable task, it can be blurrier to detect user opinions. Predict-
 47 ing a user’s rating of a product can be accomplished by using *CB* and *CF* methods together, but ideas are a bit tricky.
 48 We have a lot of connections (people who follow us and people we follow) in social media that do not necessarily
 49 imply sharing interests or opinions with them: they can be our neighbours, friends from school or college, family or
 50 even journalists, writers or politicians. Befriending them does not mean that we share their interests (we can be just

1 interested in their lives) or ideas (we can follow them because we share topics but not opinion. This happens quite
 2 often with politicians and journalists). All in all, we can conclude that there is a lot of noise in these explicit relations
 3 (follower/following) for a recommendation system to work acceptably [33].

4 *Microblogging* social networks such as *Twitter* present peculiar mechanics that we can use to take advantage in the
 5 analysis process, specifically, actions like *retweet* (copy), reply, mark as favourite and naming another user. However,
 6 due to the shortness of the texts, traditional techniques of information retrieval (tag extraction, topic detection, and so
 7 on) generate very sparse matrices that stand in the way of recommendation systems [34,35].

8 In order to address this issue, we propose a fuzzy model that is able to propagate features through deep relations,
 9 diminishing the sparsity with low noise due to tailored relations, to enrich the profile of the users with properties of
 10 their environment that may reveal hidden features of the users.

11

12 3. Extending profiles

13

14 In this section, we address the process of extending the properties of user profiles.

15 Usually, properties on profiles can be defined by users themselves, they can be calculated (number of interactions
 16 per day, number of followers, mean length of messages...), they can be opinions from other users, and/or they can be
 17 defined by several other ways.

18 We want to enrich user profiles with *complex* properties in order to have an even better representation of each user.
 19 We consider that a property is *complex* when one of the following criteria applies:

20

- 21 a) If they require analysis in order to be extracted
- 22 b) If they are inherently imprecise (fuzzy)

23

24 As we already stated, the profile of a user goes beyond of what is explicitly shown. Our profile is influenced by
 25 other people in our social neighbourhood. What we say, how we say it and to whom we say it can be used to discover
 26 attributes buried deep into our personality and interests. This is part of what we have called *deep profile* of a user
 27 (non-superficial, possibly hidden at first sight), and we use complex properties in order to depict it precisely.

28 Throughout this document, we will consider that we have a dataset M of messages written by a set of users U , and
 29 a set of topics T that we are interested in studying.

30 Our start point will be the basic relations that come as a consequence of social networks mechanics, and we are
 31 going to describe them in this section. Mechanics in *microblogging* sites are determined by interactions between users,
 32 between users and messages and/or between messages.

$$33 \quad \forall u, v \in U, follows(u, v) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } u \text{ is subscribed to } v \text{ updates} \\ \text{false} & \text{in any other case} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

$$36 \quad \forall u \in U, \forall m \in M, author(u, m) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } u \text{ is the author of } m \\ \text{false} & \text{in any other case} \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

$$38 \quad \forall u \in U, \forall m \in M, favourite(u, m) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } u \text{ likes the message } m \\ \text{false} & \text{in any other case} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

$$40 \quad \forall m \in M, \forall u \in U, mention(m, u) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } m \text{ names user } u \\ \text{false} & \text{in any other case} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

$$43 \quad \forall m, n \in M, copy(m, n) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } m \text{ is a verbatim copy of } n \\ \text{false} & \text{in any other case} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

$$45 \quad \forall m, n \in M, reply(m, n) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } m \text{ is an answer to } n \\ \text{false} & \text{in any other case} \end{cases} \quad (6)$$

47

48 3.1. Analysing message content

49

50 Analysing message content can determine non-explicit features of the text, particularly if we combine it with
 51 the previous concepts (relations). In order to do this, we are going to use tools to measure message properties. We
 52 introduce the requirements we require for these tools in this section.

1 We want to add to user profiles the topics they are interest in and the ideas they have with respect to those topics.
 2 There are a number of algorithms that can be applied in order to extract topics (e.g. [36–38]) and sentiment (e.g. [39–
 3 41]) from messages. We will choose an algorithm for extracting topics and another one for analysing sentiment. The
 4 chosen algorithm should not affect the results of the rest of the paper, as long as they satisfy the requirements that we
 5 are going to present below.

6 Thus, we will have two functions:

- 8 • $sentiment(m)$ stands for the output of the chosen algorithm for sentiment analysis when passing the message m .
- 9 • $topics(m)$ will yield the topics that the message m is referring to, using the selected method for topic detection.

11 In order for the model to be consistent, we are going to consider the following premises:

13 1. For any given message m , if n is a copy of m , then they have the same sentiment score.

$$15 \forall m, n \in M, copy(n, m) \Rightarrow sentiment(m) = sentiment(n) \quad (7)$$

16 2. For any given message m , let n be a copy of m . Then, they need to refer to the same topics.

$$18 \forall m, n \in M, copy(n, m) \Rightarrow topics(m) = topics(n) \quad (8)$$

20 3. For any given message m , if n is a response to m , then they need to share at least one topic.

$$22 \forall m, n \in M, reply(m, n) \Rightarrow topics(m) \cap topics(n) \neq \emptyset \quad (9)$$

24 3.2. Adding interest to profiles

26 Our personality may be reflected in our actions. The news we read, the hobbies we have and the jokes we like are
 27 a useful factor in order to determine our profile. In a SNS, an approximation to this kind of information can be made
 28 by considering the topics of interest of users. They tend to follow others with similar interests and, ultimately, they
 29 will interact (copy, reply, mark as favourite...) with the content they are interested in. The purpose of this section is to
 30 present our proposal to include *topics of interest* to user profiles.

31 Let us remember that we have restricted the topics to a set of them that we are interested in studying (T). Then, we
 32 can consider a subset of T that will stand for any topic that the user u is interested in, even remotely:

$$33 Topics_u = \{t : t \in T \wedge [\quad (10)$$

$$34 \quad \exists m \in M : (author(u, m) \wedge t \in topics(m))$$

$$35 \quad \vee \exists m, n \in M : (author(u, m) \wedge copy(m, n) \wedge t \in topics(n))$$

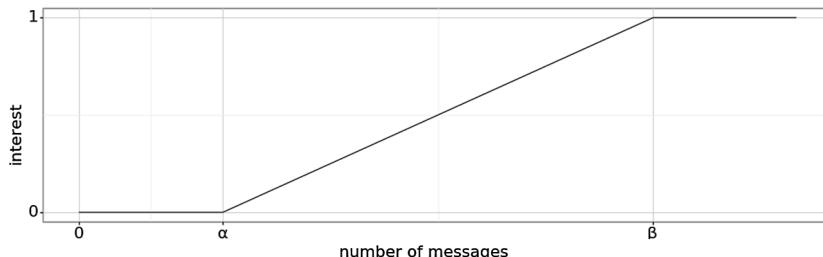
$$36 \quad \vee \exists m, n \in M : (author(u, m) \wedge reply(m, n) \wedge t \in topics(n))\}$$

39 Equation (10) is a crisp set that includes all the topics that:

41 a) the user has explicitly mentioned in their messages
 42 b) the user has mentioned by republishing someone's publication
 43 c) the user has referred to by replying to someone's publication.

45 It is noticeable that when a user replies to someone's content it does not necessarily imply that they are referring to
 46 the same topic than the original message. However, microblogging messages are short texts and it is not unreasonable
 47 to think that the noise would be minimum. It is preferable to cope with this noise than to exclude the information that
 48 *replies* may offer us. This could vary depending on the context (for example, if the topics are prone to interactions of
 49 users with unexpected behaviour, like *Internet trolls*), and it will enable a very substantial field for further research.

50 The interest that any given users has on these topics is not absolute. On the contrary, they will be more interested in
 51 some topics rather than others. This makes *interest* an imprecise concept, since users will be interested in some topic
 52 up to a certain degree. We modelled it as a fuzzy subset of T . Let us consider the following function:

Fig. 1. Behaviour of the membership function (α, β) -interest.

$$\text{interest}(u, t) = |\{m : m \in M \wedge \text{author}(u, m) \wedge [t \in \text{topics}(m) \vee \exists n \in M : (\text{reply}(m, n) \wedge t \in \text{topics}(n))]\}| \quad (11)$$

that yields the number of times that the user u has written about the topic t , including also the number of times that he/she has replied to another user's message regarding topic t . Notice that copies are already included in *authored* messages (since they are republished messages). Consecutively, we can consider a normalised interest function

$$(\alpha, \beta)\text{-interest}(u, t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } \text{interest}(u, t) \leq \alpha \\ \frac{x-\alpha}{\beta-\alpha}, & \text{if } \alpha < \text{interest}(u, t) < \beta \\ 1, & \text{if } \beta \leq \text{interest}(u, t) \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

where α and β are context-dependant parameters (Fig. 1).

Thereupon, it is possible to define the topic-of-interest profile of a user as follows:

Definition 3.1 (*Topics-of-interest profile*). The topic-of-interest profile of a user u , $\text{Profile}_T(u)$, is the fuzzy set $(T, (\alpha, \beta)\text{-interest})$

$$\text{Profile}_T(u) = \{(t, (\alpha, \beta)\text{-interest}(u, t)) : t \in T\} \quad (13)$$

In this way, $\text{Profile}_T(u)$ stands for the degree in which the user is interested in each topic of T . $\text{Profile}_T(u)$ can be translated into a rating matrix $R^{|U| \times |T|}$, where the value of each cell will be the result of the mapping $(\alpha, \beta)\text{-interest}$, and thus defining the profile of a user as stated in section 1.1.

3.3. Adding ideas to profiles

In several use cases, it will be useful to know the opinion of a user regarding a certain topic. For example, a given user may have interacted with content referring to *alcoholic beverages*. Thus, he/she will have a degree of interest towards them. However, if the interaction was in order to manifest their dislike, the user should have "negative" interest towards *alcoholic beverages*. Attending only to the Topic-of-Interest Profile, a system could recommend the user some beers, but that would not be relevant at all for the user. In this section, we propose adding the *actual thinking* of the user regarding the topics of interest.

Once again, modelling the ideas that a user may have regarding some topic is an imprecise concept. Users may have positive or negative opinions, but it is difficult to represent how much positive or negative their idea is. In fact, opinions may vary through time. They could even have contradictory opinions on the same matter whatsoever. Let us offer a few examples:

- Jane considers herself a fervent patriot. She really loves her country, its traditions and its people. She is also against any kind of violence. She despises all kinds of wars and human suffering. She has tweet'ed a lot of times manifesting these opinions. Recently, another country has declared war to hers in order to take control of a region full of mineral resources. She finds herself in a contradiction. She does not like wars, but she cannot do anything to avoid it. In fact, she may be required to fight against the enemy in order to protect her life and their beloved ones. She has values, but she needs to betray them in order to survive. She has also tweet'ed about this.

Table 2

Example of the rating matrix for a fictional user that likes beer (but despises alcohol-free ones), that is passionate about football (even though he/she thinks that it is opium for society) and that has controversial thoughts regarding climate change.

Topic	HP	P	Z	N	HN
beer	0.3	0.7	0.2	0	0.3
football	0.6	0.5	0	0.1	0.4
climate change	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.2

- *Mark likes psychoactive drugs. He has always enjoyed the feeling of losing control and letting his mind dream with alternate realities. He has published a few posts in Facebook with his stories under the influence, with reference to the drugs he had ingested. He has been taking drugs occasionally for the last 10 years now, even though he completed his medical degree 2 years ago. When he studied the effects that these harmful chemicals have on his health, he stopped publishing content praising drugs, since he understood that it is not good for public health. He even deleted all his posts regarding to this topic. However, he still likes a few posts every once in a while from the communities he used to participate in.*

In the first example, we could say that *Jane* has a *positive* interest in topics regarding her country. She has also a *negative* idea about war. When she encounters these controversial thoughts about fighting for her life and her country and keeping the peace, she betrayed her values. That could be interpreted as *positive patriotism* and *negative war* or, alternatively, as *positive patriotism* and *neutral war* (overall thinking). However, if we compare *Jane* to other people that will give their lives just because they refuse to fight, then *Jane* should be considered as *neutral war* or, at least, *less negative than the others*.

In the second example, *Mark* has deleted all his posts regarding drugs, so it is not possible anymore to classify his ideas as *positive* towards the topic *drugs*. For any profiling algorithm, he will be marked as *neutral drugs*. However, if we consider his *likes* with communities that revolve around drugs, we should mark him at least with a *bit positive* towards *drugs*.

For all these reasons, we modelled the ideas that a user may have as a fuzzy concept. Let us consider the following linguistic labels $L = \{HP, P, Z, N, HN\}$ (very positive, positive, neutral, negative, very negative) that measures the sentiment of messages. We represent the ideas of a user u for a specific topic t with a sentiment L by the following function.

$$sentiment(u, t, l) = |\{m : m \in M \wedge author(u, m) \wedge t \in topics(m) \wedge sentiment(m) \text{ is } l\}| \quad (14)$$

Analogously to interest, we are going to define a fuzzy set that relates users, topics and sentiment towards them. Considering the next function:

$$(\alpha, \beta)\text{-sentiment}(u, t, l) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } sentiment(u, t, l) \leq \alpha \\ \frac{x-\alpha}{\beta-\alpha}, & \text{if } \alpha < sentiment(u, t, l) < \beta \\ 1, & \text{if } \beta \leq sentiment(u, t, l) \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

Definition 3.2 (Idea profile). The Idea Profile $Profile_I(u)$ of a user u stands for the degree in which, given a topic $t \in T$ and a sentiment $l \in L$, the user agrees with the pair (t, l) .

$$\begin{aligned} Profile_I(u) = & \{(t, (\alpha, \beta)\text{-sentiment}(u, t, HP), \\ & (\alpha, \beta)\text{-sentiment}(u, t, P), (\alpha, \beta)\text{-sentiment}(u, t, Z), \\ & (\alpha, \beta)\text{-sentiment}(u, t, N), (\alpha, \beta)\text{-sentiment}(u, t, HN)) : t \in T\} \quad (16) \end{aligned}$$

$Profile_I(u)$ can be translated into a rating matrix $R^{|U| \times |T| \times |L|}$, where the value of each cell will be the result of the mapping $(\alpha, \beta)\text{-sentiment}$, analogously to the interest matrix, and thus defining the ideas of a user towards a topic (Table 2).

1 **4. Deep relations** 23 In the previous section, we presented our proposal to extend profiles with complex properties (*Topic-of-Interest* 4 and *Idea Profile*). We used an algorithm of topic detection and another one for sentiment analysis of the messages, 5 jointly with basic relations between users.

6 In this section, we are going to use both complex properties in order to define relations far more complex than the 7 basic ones (or directly deduced from them) already presented.

8 These relations will be determined by two measures (*shareinterest* and *shareidea*) used to measure these complex 9 aspects:
1011 1. The degree in which two users share topics of interest.
12 2. The degree in which two users share the same idea regarding the topics of interest.
1314 Normally, these relations go unnoticed in standard analysis of SNS datasets, especially in the cases where users 15 themselves try to hide their opinion (e.g. in controversial topics), hence the reason to name them *deep relations* (they 16 require a *deep analysis* and sometimes they may stay hidden). The interest of these relations is obvious, especially in 17 order to be included in collaborative filtering approaches.18 The rest of these sections is organised as follows. First, we introduce three metrics based on basic relations that 19 will be used to calculate *deep relations*; then we present *shareinterest* relation; and finally, we explain its analogous 20 concept, *shareidea*.
2122 *4.1. Some metrics based on basic relations* 2324 We present in this section some metrics that will be used to define *shareinterest* and *shareidea* measures.
2526 From the analysis of masses instead of individuals, it is possible to obtain fuzzy relations (between users) that are 27 helpful in order to discover the non-explicit (or even hidden) properties of user profiles. Even if we do not know the 28 content of the messages, we can argue that two users share interests up to a certain degree if they *like* or *reply* to the 29 same messages.30 **Definition 4.1 (Co-copies).** Given two users u and v , we define $\text{cocopies}(u, v)$ as the number of times that both users 31 have *retweeted* the same message:
32

33
$$\text{cocopies}(u, v) = |\{x : x \in M \wedge \exists m, n \in M : [\text{author}(u, m) \wedge \text{author}(v, n) \wedge 34 \wedge \text{copy}(m, x) \wedge \text{copy}(n, x)]\}| \quad (17)$$

35

36 **Definition 4.2 (Co-replies).** Given two users u and v , we define $\text{coreplies}(u, v)$ as the number of times that both 37 users have replied to the same message:
38

39
$$\text{coreplies}(u, v) = |\{x : x \in M \wedge \exists m, n \in M : [\text{author}(u, m) \wedge \text{author}(v, n) \wedge 40 \wedge \text{reply}(m, x) \wedge \text{reply}(n, x)]\}| \quad (18)$$

41

42 **Definition 4.3 (Co-favourites).** Given two users u and v , we define $\text{cofavourites}(u, v)$ as the number of times that 43 both users have marked as favourite the same message:
44

45
$$\text{cofavourites}(u, v) = |\{x : x \in M \wedge \text{favourite}(u, x) \wedge \text{favourite}(v, x)\}| \quad (19)$$

46

47 *4.2. Shareinterest* 4849 In this subsection, we introduce measures for the degree in which two users share topics of interest. We will 50 propose two different measures, with the first one based on the *Topic-of-Interest Profile*. The intersection of the *Topic- 51 of-Interest Profile* of two users will be a fuzzy subset of T , that represents the topics of interest shared by those two 52 users. Thus, we can use the cardinality of these fuzzy subsets to measure the degree in which they share topics.
53

1 **Definition 4.4 (Shareinterest).** Given two users u and v , we define $shareinterest(u, v)$ as addition of the common
 2 interest between them for each topic in T :

$$3 \quad shareinterest(u, v) = \\ 4 \quad \sum_{t \in Topics_u} \min\{(\alpha, \beta)\text{-interest}(u, t), (\alpha, \beta)\text{-interest}(v, t)\} \quad (20) \\ 5 \\ 6 \\ 7$$

8 Despite the potential of this approach, it is complex to compute. It depends on (1) the *Topic-of-Interest Profile* of
 9 each user, (2) on the calculus of $topic(m)$ for each message on the dataset M and (3) on the calculus of (α, β) –
 10 $interest(u, t)$ for each user and topic.

11 For this reason, we present here a second proposal to model this relation that will not depend on the algorithm that
 12 we used for $topic(m)$. It will also be less complex to compute. This proposal, that we will call *heuristic*, will be based
 13 on the relations defined in the previous section:

- 14 • *co-copies* and *co-favourites* are an obvious choice since they would directly share the topics.
- 15 • *co-replies* would be a good choice taking into consideration that the typical behaviour is to respond to publications
- 16 that are interest to you, so you would not change the topic
- 17 • Lastly, we need to consider interactions between both users as if they were *co-replies*, *co-copies* and *co-favourites*,
- 18 since similarities are as good between two authors than with a third person (if user u publishes a message and v
- 19 marks it as favourite, they would share that message's topic).
- 20

21 **Definition 4.5 (Heuristic shareinterest).** Given two users u and v , we define the heuristic $H_{shareinterest}(u, v)$ as:

$$22 \quad H_{shareinterest}(u, v) = \gamma \cdot coreplies(u, v) + cocopies(u, v) + \\ 23 \quad + cofavorites(u, v) + |\{m : m \in M \wedge author(u, m) \wedge \exists n \in M : [author(v, n) \wedge \\ 24 \quad \wedge (copy(m, n) \vee reply(m, n) \vee favourite(u, n))]\}| \quad (21) \\ 25 \\ 26$$

27 For two users u and v replying to a third one, restriction from equation (9) states that u needs to share a topic with
 28 the original author just as v , but it does not mean that it is the same topic between u and v . However, taking into
 29 account that *tweets* are really short texts, it will not be unreasonable to think that they will be referring to the same
 30 one. To cope with this assumption, we can establish an empirical grade γ in which this actually happens, although it
 31 will be context-dependant.

32 4.3. Shareidea

33 In this subsection, we introduce measures for the degree in which two users share ideas towards topics of interest.
 34 We will propose two different measures, with the first one based on the *Idea Profile*.

35 **Definition 4.6 (Shareidea).** For two given users u and v , we define $shareidea(u, v)$ as:

$$36 \quad shareidea(u, v) = \\ 37 \quad \sum_{t \in Topics_u} \sum_{l \in L} \min\{(\alpha, \beta)\text{-sentiment}(u, t, l), (\alpha, \beta)\text{-sentiment}(v, t, l)\} \quad (22) \\ 38 \\ 39 \\ 40$$

41 $shareidea(u, v)$ is also complex to compute. It depends (1) on the *Idea Profile* of each user, (2) on the calculus of
 42 $sentiment(m)$ for each message in the dataset M and (3) on the calculus of (α, β) – $sentiment(u, t, l)$ for each user
 43 and topic.

44 Analogously to the case of *shareinterest*, we present a second proposal to model the relation, so it will not be
 45 influenced by the chosen algorithm for $sentiment(m)$ and in order to reduce the complexity. This proposal, that we
 46 will call *heuristic*, will be based on relations defined in the previous section. In this case, we will only contemplate
 47 *co-copies*, *co-favourites* and copies/favourites between them, since *replies* cannot be considered to be in the same line
 48 of thinking (users can answer in order to manifest their agreement/disagreement and there is no *a priori* way of
 49 distinguishing between them).

1 **Definition 4.7 (Heuristic shareidea).** Given two users u and v , we define the heuristic $H_{shareinterest}(u, v)$ as:

2
$$H_{shareidea}(u, v) = cocopies(u, v) + cofavorites(u, v) + |\{m : m \in M \wedge$$

 3
$$\wedge author(u, m) \wedge \exists n \in M : [author(v, n) \wedge (copy(m, n) \vee favourite(u, n))]\}|$$
 (23)

4 **5. Social groups**

5 In a social networking site, a Social Group is defined as a set of users that are related between them in a certain
 6 manner. Normally, basic relations are used to define them (explicit social groups). Since we introduced new relations
 7 that are more complex, it makes sense to use these to obtain not-so-obvious social groups.

8 In the previous section, we do not have relations *per se*, but tools to measure the degree in which two users are
 9 related. However, for a given measure μ between two users, we can normalise that metric in the interval $[0, 1]$ to
 10 obtain the underlying fuzzy relation:

11
$$R_\mu(u, v) = norm(\mu(u, v))$$
 (24)

12 where

13
$$norm(x) = \frac{x - x_{min}}{x_{max} - x_{min}}$$

14 being x_{min} and x_{max} the minimum and maximum values of the variable x .

15 In this manner, we have the fuzzy relations $R_{shareinterest}$ and $R_{H_{shareinterest}}$ that can be used to model topics of
 16 interest for u and v ; and we have the fuzzy relations $R_{shareidea}$ and $R_{H_{shareidea}}$ that can be used to model ideas that
 17 users u and v share regarding topics of interest.

18 Given a fuzzy relation R between users, we can represent R as a weighted graph $G_R = (U, R)$, where the set of all
 19 users U are the vertices and the relation being the links between them.

20 **Definition 5.1 (Social group).** A social group regarding R is a connected component of G_R .

21 **Definition 5.2 (Social group of a user).** Given a user $u \in U$, the social group of u regarding R is the maximal connected
 22 component of G_R with u as a member.

23 Arguably, the simplest relation R that we can use would be one of the obvious relations (*follower*, *friends*, etc.).
 24 Nonetheless, *deep relations* like the ones we described above can be used as well to give a different perspective on the
 25 links between users.

26 We can establish a protocol to translate each deep relation into a possible link in the following way: let $R(u, v)$ be
 27 the number of messages of u related in some manner with user v .

28 **Definition 5.3 (R -neighbours).** For any user u , we can define their neighbours with regard to relation R as

29
$$Neighbour(R, u) = \{v : R(u, v) > 0, \forall v \in U\}$$
 (25)

30
$$Neighbour^t(R, u) = \{v : R(u, v) > t, \forall v \in U\}$$
 (26)

31 Let us illustrate how will be denoted a social group of interest towards a specific topic. Consider a scenario where
 32 we want to study different opinions for the topic *climate change*. We detected that NASA is a relevant actor in
 33 discussions of this topic but, currently, the account of the agency in Twitter has 30.3 million followers. Most of them
 34 would not even be interested in *climate change* itself, so it does not make sense to analyse all these users' opinions.
 35 Fortunately, we can define a metric CC such that

36
$$CC(u, v) = |\{n : n \in M \wedge author(v, n) \wedge$$

 37
$$\wedge \exists m \in M : [author(u, m) : reply(n, m) \wedge$$

 38
$$\wedge "climate change" \in topics(n)\}|$$
 (27)

1 which stands for the number of messages of v that reply to one of u 's messages that specifically talks about *climate*
 2 *change*. This metric will yield the relation R_{CC} .

3 Now, we can define a graph $G_{CC}(U, Neighbour(R_{CC}, "@nasa"))$ that would specifically represent users inter-
 4 ested in NASA's *tweets* about *climate change*, regardless of these users being actual followers of the agency's account.

6. Improving profile by propagation of properties through social groups

8 Building profiles through content analysis may not be enough. There are a number of cases in which profile at-
 9 tributes may differ from real ones (e.g. users that do not explicitly manifest their opinion or users who use irony to
 10 do it). Social Groups may be used to alter the value of these properties. In this section, we introduce the concept of
 11 *Social Property* as a way of creating profile attributes that contemplate both content analysis and Social Groups.

12 As the old adage says, *you will be judged by the company you keep*. Despite prejudice, it is not unreasonable to
 13 think that users will interact with groups and communities related to them in a certain manner, from family and friends
 14 to completely unknown persons with common interests and hobbies. In the previous sections, we enriched profiles
 15 with the concepts of *Topic-of-Interest* and *Idea Profiles*, but those are based on what users publish (or republish).
 16 These are good approaches but they may not be sufficient on their own, since the analysis did not include relations
 17 with the environment. For example, not all users who like *fine arts* are artists. There is no need for them to create
 18 content related to arts, but that does not mean that it is not among their passions. However, it is more likely that they
 19 follow and interact with accounts of artists.

20 The benefit of defining Social Groups by particular relations is that we are assuring the connected users share
 21 characteristics (in the previous example, they share interest in the topic *climate change*). We can take advantage of
 22 this situation to infer properties of the users.

24 **Definition 6.1 (Direct property).** Being Q a property on messages. $Q(m)$ stands for the *degree in which message m*
 25 *verifies Q*. We define Q_{direct} of a user u as

$$27 Q_{direct}(u) = \sum_{m \in authored_u} Q(m) \quad (28)$$

29 where $authored_u = \{m : m \in M \wedge author(u, m)\}$.

31 This would be a *content-based* approach towards profiling users. The downside of this method is that they need to
 32 explicitly show the property in at least one of their messages. Consider a user that has written a message regarding
 33 *climate change*. It will not be possible to extract an opinion but as we said earlier, it is possible to infer it from your
 34 neighbours. In the previous example, we defined a graph G_{CC} that would represent users interested in *climate change*.
 35 Picking a random user v related in some way to NASA by the relation R_{CC} , it is likely that we find another user w
 36 related to v (but not to NASA) who is also *climate aware*. If w is also related to other users in G_{CC} , it would not be
 37 unreasonable to assert that w is interested in *climate change* to some extent.

39 **Definition 6.2 (Social property).** Considering Q_{direct} as a property on users. We can define a social property $Q_{extended}$
 40 as

$$42 Q_{extended}^{(i)}(u) = Q_{extended}^{(i-1)}(u) + \varphi \sum_{x \in Neighbourhood(u)} Q_{extended}^{(i-1)}(x) \quad (29)$$

44 where i stands for the i -th iteration of the algorithm. Initial values (when $i = 0$) would be:

$$46 \forall u \in U, Q_{extended}^0(u) = Q_{direct}(u) \quad (30)$$

48 The main advantage of this approach is that it can model people bias. We are not only what we post but who we
 49 are, and our actions offline affects to how users of SNS interact with us. Following the same line of exemplification,
 50 imagine a *tweet* from Donald Trump that says "*Climate change is a very important issue*". Any model will probably
 51 say that the user is worried about the topic *climate change*. However, any person from all around the world would
 52 know that this message is ironic, since Donald Trump has expressed his disagreement with scientific community on

1 this specific topic for many years. If Barack Obama would issue the same statement, again, any sentiment model
 2 would describe the same concern about climate, and it will not shock us.

3 Let us elaborate this example to illustrate the behaviour of our proposal. Suppose that we collect a number of
 4 messages from 50 users, where a few of them are related to climate change.

- 6 • Trump has only one tweet related to climate change that reads: *Climate change is a very important issue*.
- 7 • Obama had already published the exact same tweet regarding climate change: *Climate change is a very important*
 8 *issue*. It is important to notice that none of them is a copy of the other.
- 9 • For any sentiment algorithm, the polarity of both tweets will be the same, since they are a verbatim copy. Thus,
 10 both Obama and Trump will be marked with a positive polarity towards climate change.
- 11 • There are 20 users that share ideas with Trump. The analysis of their messages has reported that their polarity is
 12 negative towards climate change.
- 13 • There are 15 users that share ideas with Obama. The analysis of their messages has reported that their polarity is
 14 positive towards climate change.
- 15 • The rest of the users are not connected to those 35.
- 16 • We apply our proposal for property expansion. The polarity of Trump's neighbourhood will be negative and it
 17 will decrease the calculated polarity for Trump. The polarity of Obama's neighbourhood will be positive, hereby
 18 reinforcing his polarity.
- 19 • After expansion, the polarity of Trump will be negative towards climate change meanwhile Obama's will still be
 20 positive.

22 7. Experiments and discussion

24 There are a number of potential applications of our proposals, one of them being the assistance in the process of
 25 labelling datasets. In this section, we present our results when applying the proposed methodology to tag and profile
 26 users in SNSs, particularly in microblogging sites such as *Twitter*.

27 We wanted to prove that we can assist the tagging process of user profiles through the expansion of properties using
 28 deep relations. We believe that we can achieve reasonable accuracy in the expansion with a low number of well-tagged
 29 users. Labelling tweets and users requires that an expert reads the content and, following guidelines, assigns one or
 30 more labels. This is a tedious process that could be simpler if the system asks the expert to tag specific users in key
 31 points (or even random ones) and expand the knowledge to the rest of them.

32 In order to evaluate our proposal, a dataset of labelled users and/or messages was required. Most Twitter datasets
 33 are built using the standard (or streaming) API from the microblogging site. Raw data coming from the official API is
 34 extremely complex, so dataset creators normally reduce the amount of data keeping basic information, like messages,
 35 entities and, in some cases, the original author. Unfortunately, they get rid of some columns that are necessary to
 36 evaluate our proposal (e.g. the field that states if the message is a *retweet* or not and, in such case, the reference to
 37 the original message). To the best of our knowledge, there is no dataset available in the literature that would offer us
 38 sufficient tagged data to validate our framework while keeping relations between users/messages.

39 For this reason, we created our own dataset from almost two thousand tweets in Spanish collected during a political
 40 event. It is important to notice that the number of instances is not enough to validate our proposal. The task of tagging
 41 dataset is extremely time consuming and we do not have enough resources to put together a big dataset. This is a proof
 42 of concept and results should be taken with caution since further experimentation and analysis are required.

43 We collected more than 1900 Spanish tweets (from more than 850 users) containing a hashtag of a political event
 44 after Spain National Election during April 2019 to ensure they were related to the same topic. The results of these
 45 elections were not sufficient for any political party to form a government. In the course of the event, they were
 46 discussing if there should be a coalition government or not. We labelled messages in three classes,

- 48 1. Positive, if they were in favour of a coalition government.
- 49 2. Negative, if they were against a coalition government.
- 50 3. Neutral, if the tweet was neither in favour nor against.

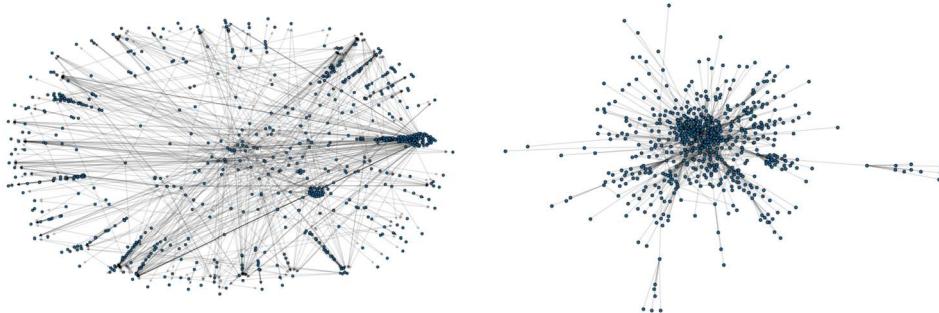


Fig. 2. At the left, graph of users using a basic *retweet relation*. At the right, same users are plotted using *co-copies*. There are remarkable differences in the distribution and centrality of the users.

Table 3
Distribution of message instances over the three classes in our dataset.

Class	No. instances
Positive	563
Neutral	185
Negative	110

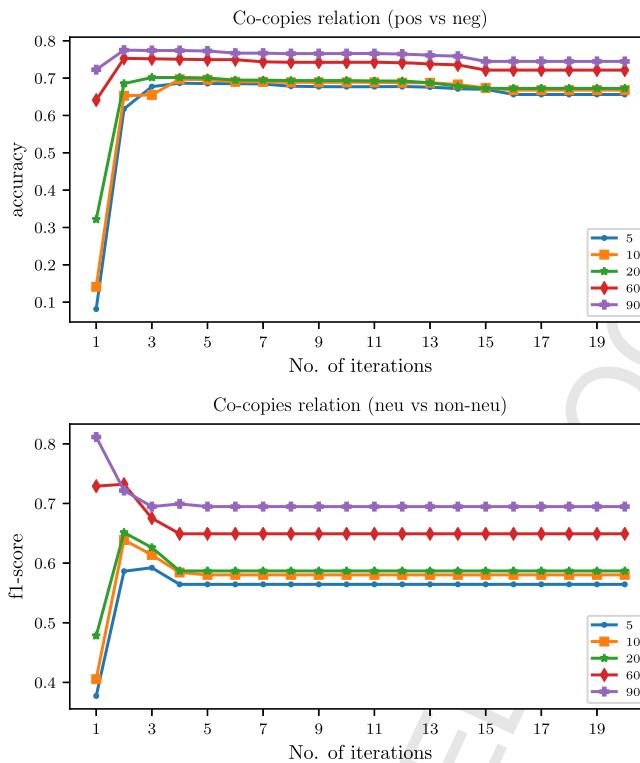
Number of instances per class can be seen in Table 3. After that, we aggregated tweets belonging to the same author in order to decide on the polarity of the user. We used this as a direct property (see eq. (28)) and we use *co-copies* (see eq. (17)) to build social groups. Fig. 2 shows differences in distribution of user graph when using *retweets* (copies) and *co-copies*. There are noteworthy differences when using *co-copies*: the graph is not directed anymore, allowing that the knowledge can be transferred in both directions; relations no longer revolve around popular users; it is possible to find key users that connect clusters of the graph. Overall, the graph is not centred in popular users but on the groups that are relevant to the analysis of the topic in question.

Once we tagged the dataset, we randomly selected a certain percentage of users (hereafter *known users*) and we removed the label for the rest of them. Then, we expanded the labels from *known users* to the rest of them using a *cross validation* scheme to ensure consistency of the results.

Fig. 3 shows results of the expansion process. After 3 iterations, the accuracy stabilises and even decreases if we keep iterating. This suggests that there is an optimal number of iterations that needs to be determined. Results show that, with only 20% of known users (approximately 40), the proposed methodology is able to classify the rest of the users with an accuracy of almost 0.7 in 3 iterations (see Table 4).

However, from the second graph in Fig. 3, it is noticeable that the errors are mainly related to neutral uses. There is a significant decrease in the performance of our algorithm when classifying neutral users: it tends to tag them as either positive or negative (see Table 5). Despite this being true, we need to remember that we only tagged messages. Users' polarity was computed through the aggregation of the polarity of the tweets. For those users that we only have one tweet collected, if the message was said to be neutral, then we would have the user labelled as neutral. This is not enough to say that users were actually neutral, since there may be tweets manifesting a clear opinion on the topic that we did not collect.

We wondered how many of those users were, in fact, neutral. Due to the high cost of examining the full timeline for all users, we did a second sampling to check how many users were correctly classified by our algorithm in spite of the lack of information in their messages. By examining the full *timeline* of the sample, our experts confirmed that 51 out of 86 users were incorrectly classified as neutral (see Table 6). Everything seems to indicate that the proposed methodology is able to amend the errors of content-based approaches through expansion of the attributes.



25 Fig. 3. Behaviour of accuracy and f_1 -score with different number of *known users*. We restricted the knowledge of the polarity of the users to
26 those known users in order to see if the expansion algorithm is capable of estimating the polarity of the rest of them. First graph shows good
27 performance when distinguishing between positive and neutral users. Second graph shows a decrease in this performance when referring to neutral
28 users. However, this could be a problem related to the dataset (see discussion).

29
30 Table 4
31 Goodness of the positive vs. negative classification using a specific percentage of known users.

32 Known users	33 Accuracy		34 f_1 -score		35 Precision		36 Recall	
	37 mean	38 std	39 mean	40 std	41 mean	42 std	43 mean	44 std
5%	0.6402	0.1325	0.9844	0.0089	0.9694	0.0172	1.0000	0.0000
10%	0.6524	0.1211	0.9751	0.0306	0.9680	0.0171	0.9846	0.0576
20%	0.6683	0.0823	0.9827	0.0090	0.9661	0.0173	1.0000	0.0000
30%	0.7096	0.0536	0.9831	0.0093	0.9669	0.0179	1.0000	0.0000
40%	0.7140	0.0531	0.9836	0.0086	0.9678	0.0166	1.0000	0.0000
50%	0.7299	0.0240	0.9820	0.0090	0.9676	0.0170	0.9972	0.0126
60%	0.7326	0.0245	0.9824	0.0091	0.9682	0.0177	0.9974	0.0118
70%	0.7425	0.0176	0.9837	0.0087	0.9681	0.0168	1.0000	0.0000
80%	0.7503	0.0166	0.9829	0.0088	0.9689	0.0173	0.9975	0.0110
90%	0.7584	0.0141	0.9823	0.0086	0.9678	0.0170	0.9976	0.0107

43 44 8. Conclusions

45
46 In this article, we presented a fuzzy model to complete, amend and/or enrich user profiles in social networking
47 sites, especially in those with the same interaction mechanisms as *microblogging* sites such as Twitter.

48 We designed a fuzzy framework that relies on the actual meaning of the actions we take on SNSs to add complex
49 attributes to user profiles (interest and ideas towards specific topics). Copying or replying explicitly declare interest to
50 what the user is saying, thus avoiding the noise from common relations like *following*. We also established heuristic
51 mappings to determine the degree in which two users share interest or opinion in some topic, as a measure of similarity
52 that can be applicable to define clusters.

1 Table 5

2 Goodness of neutral vs. non-neutral classification using a specific percentage of known users.

3 Known users	4 Accuracy		5 f1-score		6 Precision		7 Recall	
	8 mean	9 std	10 mean	11 std	12 mean	13 std	14 mean	15 std
5% 5%	0.7871	0.1325	0.5575	0.0089	0.5512	0.0172	0.5897	0.0000
10% 10%	0.8045	0.1211	0.5763	0.0306	0.5861	0.0171	0.5900	0.0576
20% 20%	0.8174	0.0823	0.5866	0.0090	0.6063	0.0173	0.5873	0.0000
30% 30%	0.8536	0.0536	0.6261	0.0093	0.7299	0.0179	0.5641	0.0000
40% 40%	0.8544	0.0531	0.6244	0.0086	0.7428	0.0166	0.5511	0.0000
50% 50%	0.8730	0.0240	0.6517	0.0090	0.8032	0.0170	0.5541	0.0126
60% 60%	0.8761	0.0245	0.6586	0.0091	0.8169	0.0177	0.5586	0.0118
70% 70%	0.8830	0.0176	0.6693	0.0087	0.8651	0.0168	0.5516	0.0000
80% 80%	0.8930	0.0166	0.6896	0.0088	0.9187	0.0173	0.5568	0.0110
90% 90%	0.9002	0.0141	0.7021	0.0086	0.9836	0.0170	0.5486	0.0107

14 Table 6

15 Statistics regarding the classification of neutral users. A thorough analysis of a
16 second sample proved that our proposal correctly amended the polarity of 51 out
17 of 86 users.

18 Errors that were, indeed, correctly classified

19 <i>a priori</i> error	20 86	21
22 false error (corroborated by experts second analysis)	51	59.3%
23 true error	35	40.7%

24 We established a methodology to determine social groups and expand specific attributes from users to their social
25 group and vice versa, based on the premise that we are influenced by our environment. Altering user profiles through
26 the use of social properties may highlight users that are trying to show an image of themselves that do not correspond
27 to what their environment actually thinks of them. Alternative, it can also be used to reinforce or amend specific
28 attributes of the user profile, closing the gap between the computed value of a model and the real value.29 We tested our proposal with a small dataset in order to prove the interest that our fuzzy model has. We obtained
30 good results when expanding the knowledge from well-labelled users to others connected using *co-copies*. Despite
31 that further experimentation is required, our tests show that the method works well when predicting the actual polarity
32 of *a priori* neutral users.33

9. Future work

34 Although the intent of this document is to define a theoretical framework to create deep user profiles, we are
35 currently in the process of developing a tool that put this scheme into practice. There are also a few parameters whose
36 values require both theoretical and experimental research, since they are critic for the behaviour of the algorithm. This
37 is the case of α and β for equations (12) and (15), γ for equation (21) and φ for the expansion of social properties
38 (eq. (29)). We aim to tackle with these in particular domains, since they are context-dependant parameters. Finally, in
39 order to validate our proposal, we need to create a dataset of labelled messages and include relations between users
40 and messages. We plan to make this dataset available for the scientific community.41

Declaration of competing interest

42 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have
43 appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.44

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