

# Truth Assessment of Objective Facts Extracted from Tweets: A Case Study on World Cup 2014 Game Facts

Bas Janssen<sup>1</sup>, Mena Habib<sup>2</sup> and Maurice van Keulen<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Faculty of EEMCS, University of Twente, PO Box 217, 7500AE, Enschede, The Netherlands

<sup>2</sup>Department of Data Science & Knowledge Engineering, Maastricht University, P.O. Box 616, Maastricht, The Netherlands

Keywords: Twitter, Fact Extraction, Truth Assessment.

Abstract: By understanding the tremendous opportunities to work with social media data and the acknowledgment of the negative effects social media messages can have, a way of assessing truth in claims on social media would not only be interesting but also very valuable. By making use of this ability, applications using social media data could be supported, or a selection tool in research regarding the spread of false rumors or 'fake news' could be build. In this paper, we show that we can determine truth by using a statistical classifier supported by an architecture of three preprocessing phases. We base our research on a dataset of Twitter messages about the FIFA World Cup 2014. We determine the truth of a tweet by using 7 popular fact types (involving events in the matches in the tournament such as scoring a goal) and we show that we can achieve an F1-score of 0.988 for the first class; the Tweets which contain no false facts and an F1-score of 0.818 on the second class; the Tweets which contain one or more false facts.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Internet users continue to spend more time on social media websites than any other type of website (Inc., 2012). Although social media is not always reliable, people do rely a lot on social media. According to Reuters (Reuters Institute for the Study of Journalism, 2013), social media appears to be one of the most important ways people find news online. This means that social media influences the sources of the news and therefore the content and interpretation. Because of these vast number of users and the diversity of topics people discuss, social media has become a widespread, diverge platform containing a lot of factual information which makes it a very valuable platform for a lot of people, for example leading to social media mining.

Because of the popularity of (research based on) social media, the question which automatically comes to mind is: how reliable is social media and should we trust the information in social media messages? If we could assess the reliability or truth of social media messages, this could result in a very interesting preprocessing step to take for researchers who work with social media datasets. A possible use would be to use this tool as a false rumor detector in times of crisis or presidential elections or use it as a fraud detector.

In this paper, we present an architecture of several phases (components) leading to a mechanism which can automatically assess truth in Tweets. We will concentrate our efforts on popular football related facts and we will be using a dataset of Tweets about the FIFA World Cup 2014.

Prior to truth assessment of a fact, important step in this process is the step of knowing what is meant in a Twitter message. A lot of facts are not presented in a straightforward way; a Tweet's content is often brief, contains mistakes, lacks context and is uncurated<sup>1</sup>. By introducing a fact classifier and the fact extractor, we automate this process by identifying the types of facts in the Tweet by using a fact classifier (achieving a average F1-score over all the fact types of 0.96) and extracting the facts using a fact extractor (achieving a average F1-score over all the fact types of 0.85). The reliability classifier, by making use of the components presented above, has achieved an F1-score of 0.988 for class A; the Tweets which contained no false facts and an F1-score of 0.818 on class B; the Tweets which contained one or more false facts.

The paper is organized as follows: after the introduction, we present related work in section 2. Section 3 describes the approach we have taken in the

<sup>1</sup><https://gate.ac.uk/wiki/twitie.html>

research. Section 4, 5 and 6 describe the architectural components of the system. We end this paper with a discussion and future research section in section 7 and conclusion in section 8. Due to space limitations, we will dedicate most of the paper on the approach and reliability classifier chapter and often refer to the underlining work: 'Determining truth in tweets using feature based supervised statistical classifiers'(Janssen, 2016), referred to as 'thesis'.

## 2 RELATED WORK

Research has shown that the credibility (believability) of social media messages is low (Bram Koster, 2014). Although there has been done a lot of research in credibility of social media(Castillo et al., 2011; Kang, 2010), research relating to the reliability (quality of being reliable) of social media is lacking. Although there is little research on the reliability, the limited research available does show that a lot of people spread false facts through social media and show a couple of examples where Twitter has lead to false spreadings of misinformation. Unsurprisingly, social media is not always reliable, given the open uncontrolled nature of social media.

A very interesting research project close to the work done in this paper is the European funded PHEME project<sup>2</sup>. The PHEME project is named after the goddess of fame and rumours. The PHEME project is a 36 months research project establishing the veracity of claims made on the Internet. Two prominent case studies in the PHEME project cover information about healthcare and information used by journalists. Many papers published within this research project have a relation to our work. In "Visualising the Propagation of News on the Web"(Vakulenko et al., 2016), Vakulenko et al. describe the propagation of news on the web. This is very interesting for our research because the possible relation between the way a rumour propagates over the internet and the truth of rumour. A related paper in the PHEME project is "Analysing how people orient to and spread rumours in social media by looking at conversational threads"(Zubiaga et al., 2016). A number of papers published in the PHEME project focus on detecting and processing events and fact/rumour recognition and processing. Those include "Processing and Normalizing Hashtags"(Declerck and Lendvai, 2015) and "GATE-Time: Extraction of Temporal Expressions and Events"(Derczynski et al., 2016) in which the authors add a Temporal Expression plug-

<sup>2</sup><https://www.pHEME.eu/>

in for Gate<sup>3</sup>, a popular information extraction toolkit. Another interesting research is The 'ClaimFinder' framework(Cano et al., 2016). In this paper, Lim et al present a system using existing open information extraction techniques to find claims in a Tweets, resulting in subject-predicate pairs. Using these claims, Tweets are grouped according to their agreement on events, based on the similarity of their claims. In this way, ClaimFinder is able to group opinions on social media; an important preprocessing task as we will show in this paper. The credibility assessment task is beyond the scope of this work.

To sum up, existing research efforts on this problem focused either on rumors detection (Hamidian and Diab, 2016; Zhao et al., 2015) or on information credibility (Castillo et al., 2011; Gupta et al., 2014). In both efforts, researchers used shallow features (like meta data of the post, or its sentiment, or existence of some words or punctuations) to assess the truth of a social media post. None of the existing approaches digs deeper to extract the facts themselves contained in the social media post and assess their truthfulness afterwards.

## 3 APPROACH

In this section, we explain our research approach by describing our implementation plan. We begin with explaining the relation of the research with the dataset and ground truth which is used to construct the foundations.

### 3.1 Dataset

FIFA World Cup is one of the biggest sport events in the world, and consequently, many people tweet about it. After the FIFA World Cup 2014, Twitter Inc. reported (Twitter, 2015) that Twitter users have sent about 670 million Tweets about the world cup, making it the biggest sport event on Twitter ever. By the end of the finals of the World Cup, knowing Germany won the FIFA World Cup 2014, Twitter reported that users sent a peak volume of 618 thousand Tweets per minute. Many of those Tweets cover the World Cup in a detailed and comprehensive way. They cover goals, substitutes and yellow and red cards; important events in a match worthy to be mentioned in a summary about the game. Next to true important and true but unimportant facts, there are also a lot of Tweets containing false, untrue information regarding the World Cup. These Tweets may contain misguided information, lies or small errors. Many are copied from false

<sup>3</sup><https://gate.ac.uk/>

sources, contain reversed facts or are not accurately adopted from true sources.

We collected a database containing 64 million Tweets about the FIFA World Cup 2014. This database was filled by collecting all Tweets which contained one or more of the following hashtags: #worldcup, #worldcup2014, #fifaworldcup, #brazil2014, #brasil2014 and #fifaworldcup2014. Note that those 64 million Tweets are original Tweets, retweets and replies combined.

### 3.2 Ground Truth

The FIFA World Cup is FIFA’s biggest event and it is documented thoroughly. Using the Open football project<sup>4</sup>, we received a prepared list of players, end score and score development for every match in the World Cup. Other needed statistics like substitutions, yellow and red cards and country codes, were extracted manually from the FIFA website<sup>5</sup>. In our research, we focused on the group stages of the tournament. Altogether, this resulted in 48 group games, players scoring 136 goals, coaches substituting 279 times, referees giving 124 yellow card and 9 red card bookings. Altogether, 32 countries played against each other each team making use of 23 players.

### 3.3 Facts

The fact classes (fact types) we chose to assess in this paper must satisfy the following characteristics: they are verifiable, they are objective, there must be enough Tweets containing that type of fact in our dataset and there must be a decent amount of training data classified 'true' and a decent amount classified 'false'. The list of fact classes can be found in table 1.

### 3.4 Architectural Model

To classify a tweet, we designed an architecture made up of 5 phases (see figure 1). Each phase, except for the filter phase, is supported by a database, which saves and communicates critical information to each part of the system.

Some tweets may harm the performance of the system. For example tweets which predict future events or are related to fantasy sport<sup>6</sup>. In the **filter** phase, we filter those Tweets out. The input of the filter is the text of the tweet. The output of the filter is the classification if the tweet is going to be

Table 1: List of the used fact classes.

Fact class	Fact explanation
Red card count (CRC)	The fact stating the count of red cards in the whole tournament in combination with the receiver.
Score final time (FT)	The fact stating the final time score of a match.
Score half time (HT)	The fact stating the half time score of a match.
Score other time (OT)	The fact stating the score at a random time of a match.
Score minute (MS)	The fact stating in which minute a goal was scored in a match.
Red card minute (MRC)	The fact stating in which minute a red card was received by a player on the field.
Yellow card minute (MYC)	The fact stating in which minute a yellow card was received by a player on the field.

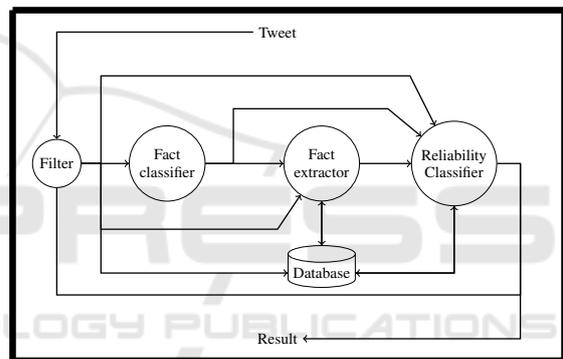


Figure 1: Overview of the system architecture.

used or filtered out. More information about the filter can be found in the thesis 'Determining truth in tweets using feature based supervised statistical classifiers' (Janssen, 2016).

If the tweet has passed the filter, the tweet is fed to the **fact classifier**. The fact classifier consists of several parts; each fact class introduced in section 3.3 has its own trained fact classifier which determines if the tweet contains that particular fact or not. Each part of the system is made up a feature based supervised learning classifier. The input of the classifier is the text of the tweet. The output of the classifier is a list of (zero or more) non-duplicate fact classes.

If any fact has been determined by the fact classifier, the tweet is fed to the **fact extractor**. The fact extractor tries to extract one or more instances of each fact type found, by making use of a numerous amount of techniques, e.g. rule based classifiers and natural language processing techniques. The input of the fact extractor is the text and the meta-information of the

<sup>4</sup>Open football - <http://openfootball.github.io/>

<sup>5</sup>[www.fifa.com](http://www.fifa.com)

<sup>6</sup>[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fantasy\\_sport](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fantasy_sport)

tweet, the ground truth and the output of the fact classifier. The output of the classifier is a list of (zero or more) facts.

When the facts are extracted, all of the results of previous steps are fed to the **reliability classifier**. In this part of the system, the tweet is classified to contain any ‘false facts’ or to contain only ‘true facts’. The classifier is based on a feature based supervised learning classifier which is further explained in section 6. The input of the reliability classifier is the text and meta-information of the tweet, the output fact classes of the fact classifier and the extracted facts from the fact extractor. The reliability classifier is also able to communicate with the database to save and load attributes and facts from other Tweets. The output of the reliability classifier is false if one of the extracted facts is false or true if all extracted facts are true.

## 4 FACT CLASSIFIER

The central purpose of this part of the system is to determine which kinds of facts (fact classes) are present in a given tweet, which result we will use to achieve three goals. The first goal is the creation of attributes (features) which other parts of the system depend on. The output of this classifier is directly used by the fact extraction and the reliability classifier. For example, the fact extractor makes use of the output of this classifier to know which fact classes it has to extract from the tweet. The second goal is to be able to evaluate the final system more precisely. For example, we are able to draw conclusions regarding certain *fact classes* or *fact comparison types* or *fact scopes*, instead of all fact classes combined. The third goal is automation. Our goal is to design a completely automatic system which can, given a tweet as input, determine automatically if the facts within the Tweets are correct or not, resulting in a system which can operate and be trained automatically.

We have chosen to use a feature based classifier, which in our opinion will fit the needs of this problem perfectly. We have decided to implement the classifier by making use of supervised learning. To do so, we have designed features, consisting of regular expressions leading into boolean features. An important remark is that a match of an expression is as important as the absence of match.

To train and evaluate the fact classifier, we have manually labelled a total of 1883 unique Tweets. For each fact class, we have randomly taken a few hundred of Tweets (if possible) and manually labelled the fact classes which were presented in the Tweets. This resulted in 2341 fact classes being present in

1883 Tweets. For each fact class, a separate classifier is trained and evaluated. By making use of the Weka suite, we have experimented with several classifier algorithms and achieved the best performance with the J48 classifier (Java-based implementation of the C4.5 algorithm). By making use of 10-fold cross-validation, we have accomplished the results presented in table 2.

Table 2: List of performance results of the fact classifier.

Fact class	Confusion matrix		Precision	Recall	F-measure
CRC	264	3	0.996	0.989	0.992
	1	1614			
FT	457	36	0.991	0.927	0.960
	4	1385			
HT	356	0	0.992	1	0.995
	3	1523			
OT	511	20	0.936	0.962	0.949
	35	1316			
MS	356	33	0.978	0.915	0.945
	8	1485			
MRC	66	2	0.985	0.971	0.978
	1	1813			
MYC	202	1	0.985	0.995	0.990
	3	1676			

## 5 FACT EXTRACTOR

The central purpose of this part of the system is to determine the location of a fact and extract it. The goal of this part of the system is automation. By making use of the output of this part of the system, we are able to build a training set which can be used to train the classifier models of the reliability classifier, by extracting the facts in tweets automatically and determine their factual truth by making use of the ground truth.

Due to space limitations we will only touch the bare outskirts of the implementation of the fact extractor. More information about the implementation can be found in the thesis (Janssen, 2016). The extraction of facts works in three stages. The fact extractor receives a list of fact classes from the fact classifier. For each fact class found in the tweet, the fact extractor internally calls an extraction mechanism dedicated for that specific fact class (fact class extractor). At the end, all the facts are combined in a list and passed on to the reliability classifier and saved in the database.

Each fact, and therefore each fact class, has a fixed number of information attributes. For example, a ‘final score’ fact always has a Match component and a Score component. The Match component in a ‘final score’ fact is a unique link to a specific happening

(namely the fact that a match has been played) and the score is an attribute about the happening (namely the fact that the match ended in 3-2 for example). Because of this fixed combination of information components in each fact class, we are able to perform several operations: we are able to identify happenings (for example a match), we are able to compare facts (for example a score) and we are able to verify facts (with the ground truth).

We use a combination of extraction strategies, such as algorithms which react differently on the presence and positions of certain information components in a tweet and where to use fact specific extraction functions, such as natural processing techniques to parse, split and POS-tag sentences which all serve as preprocessing tasks to make it possible for the fact specific strategies to extract facts. We are able to extract the facts efficiently, the results can be viewed in table 3.

To evaluate the fact extractor, we have manually annotated 578 facts in 412 Tweets. In total, the fact extractor extracted 461 facts of which 442 are correct. More performance details can be found in table 3.

## 6 RELIABILITY CLASSIFIER

The main purpose of this component is to determine truth in Tweets. There are different ways of implementing the reliability classifier. One possible option would be to let the classifier determine if a tweet contains any untruths. In such implementation, the classifier aims to classify the tweet as false if one of the facts is false and classify the tweet as true if all the facts are true. This option is chosen in our implementation of the reliability classifier, presented in this paper. Note that we only classify original Tweets in the reliability classifier. We use replies and retweets to build features, but we do not determine the truth of those Tweets.

### 6.1 Implementation

The reliability classifier has five sources to establish the features on: the tweet (the text of the tweet), the corresponding meta-information, the fact classes extracted by the fact classifier in section 4, the facts extracted by the fact extractor in section 5 and the database, which stores the information of every step in the process and enables the reliability classifier to combine the data.

The three data types we use for the features are Integer, boolean and category. The only type that

needs explanation is category which values are integers but they do not possess relationship which each other such that 4 'is bigger than' 3; they only reference to a category which can be the same or not the same. Note that not every feature is available for each Tweet; for example 'country sent' is not always available because Twitter users are not obligated to declare their location in their Tweets or user profile.

The hypothesis of the strategy is the following. There is a relation between the popularity of a fact and the truth of a fact. True facts are claimed more often than false facts. True facts have a bigger reach, measured by the amount of users following the user posting the tweet and the follower count of users retweeting the original tweet. Twitter users with a bigger reach are inclined to pay more attention to their messages and make less mistakes. Our reasoning behind that thought is that those Tweets are more important because those popular Twitter accounts are often from professionals, official institutions such as the FIFA or UEFA, or from famous sites which report news. If people make mistakes or spread disinformation, people will react to those facts. The chance of people reacting to facts is a lot higher when the number of followers is higher. Therefore, it is very important to transition the attributes from one tweet to other Tweets by using the knowledge that they contain the same fact. This part of the hypothesis, the reply to Tweets, can serve as a counter-balance to the first part of the hypothesis which claims that true facts are popular. If a false facts gains popularity, for example because a popular Twitter user claimed the fact, the replies to that claim will counter the popularity. An important part of this hypothesis is to check what popularity means, some facts for example will automatically be more popular than other types of facts and therefore need another popularity 'score' to be true or false. This is the same with the number of replies.

One of the pillars of the strategy is finding the reach of a tweet and the facts in a tweet. We explain the following related features:

- Feature 42, 'Count Tweets least popular facts'. This feature counts the number of times the facts in the Tweet appear in other Tweets. The feature returns the number of times the least popular fact appears in other Tweets.
- Feature 55 'Audience least popular fact'. This feature counts the number of times Twitter users could see this fact by calculating the reach of a fact. If a Tweet contains a fact, its reach is calculated by the number of followers of the author of the tweet plus the number of followers of all the Twitter users which have retweeted the original tweet.

Table 3: List of results from the fact extractor.

Fact class	# tweets	# tweets	# retrieved	# correct	Precision	Recall	F-measure
CRC	30	30	22	22	1	0.72	0.84
FT	134	142	122	118	0.97	0.83	0.89
HT	98	102	89	86	0.97	0.84	0.90
OT	102	104	71	66	0.93	0.63	0.75
MS	96	121	98	94	0.96	0.78	0.86
MRC	26	26	25	25	1	0.96	0.98
MYC	51	53	34	31	0.91	0.58	0.71
Total	412	578	461	442	0.96	0.76	0.85

- Feature 56, ‘Count Tweets least popular fact category x’, is a collection of features with the same name. The last number, denoted in the feature name identifier with an x, is referring to the fact class. Every fact class we have implemented in the system has a corresponding feature which only target the facts which belong to that class. Every feature, like feature 42, counts the number of Tweets that contain the fact, and return the number of times the least popular fact in that fact class appears in the dataset.

Another pillar of the strategy is finding a reaction and finding the number of reactions on a tweet or fact, which we target in the following features:

- Feature 47 ‘Has reply regarding facts’ and feature 48 ‘Count replies regarding facts’. With these two features, we try to find a way to link comments on a Tweet to a fact, by checking if a fact contains a fact comparison entity which is the same as the facts in the Tweet. For example if the original Tweet contains a Score final time, the fact comparison entity is a score entity.
- Feature 49, ‘Has reply facts tweet dataset’ and feature 50 ‘Count replies facts tweet dataset’. With these two features, we build upon the idea of feature 47 and 48, but increase the search scope to the whole dataset. We implement this feature by using each reply to each tweet containing a fact which is part of the original tweet.
- Feature 60 ‘Highest individual count replies facts one fact group tweet dataset’. This feature is implemented in the same way as feature 59 is, but only returns the number of replies on one fact in the tweet, namely the fact which has the most replies.

A full list of features, including their calculations can be found in the thesis ‘Determining truth in tweets using feature based supervised statistical classifiers’ (Janssen, 2016).

## 6.2 Evaluation

Because of the evaluation of the other components of the system, we already have a test set which we can use for evaluating the reliability classifier. Although we have a test set, this set is not big enough to perform a proper evaluation on the reliability classifier. Most of the features which are part of the strategy we have set out for the reliability classifier are based on facts in a lot of tweets in the dataset. To evaluate these features, we would need to extract a lot more facts by hand, which is not feasible. To test the reliability classifier, we make use of the results we have achieved with the fact classifier and fact extractor, and therefore build a test set automatically. By making use of the dataset in table 1, we have created a dataset containing 17194 Tweets which contain 21367 facts. We have also collected every retweet and reply on these original Tweets. By making use of the ground truth, we can now determine the truth of each fact and classify which Tweets contain untruths and which Tweets contain only true facts.

Similar to the previous evaluations, we have tried out several classifiers to maximize the performance of the features. Again the J48 classifier performed the best on our dataset. By using a combination of wrapper based Correlation Feature Selection and the J48 classifier, we have received an F1-score of 0.988 for class A; the Tweets which contain no false facts and an F1-score of 0.818 on class B; the Tweets which contain one or more false facts. The best subset of

Table 4: Performance results of the reliability classifier.

Class	Precision	Recall	F-measure
A: Tweets with 0 false facts	0.983	0.993	0.988
B: tweet with >1 false facts	0.923	0.818	0.867

Table 5: Reliability classifier’s confusion matrix.

Class	Classified A	Classified B
A: Tweets with 0 false facts	15590	102
B: tweet with >1 false facts	274	1228

features which combine to the best performance can be found in table 6.

Table 6: Set of features which resulted in the best performance by the reliability classifier.

Feature identifier	Feature name
42	Count Tweets least popular fact
44	Count minutes
45	Count scores
50	Count replies facts tweet dataset
55	Audience least popular fact
56-8	Count Tweets least popular fact category 8
57-8	Audience least popular fact category 8

The power of our feature design is the way of connecting Tweets by making use of the facts and combining the information acquired from other Tweets in the dataset and apply it as attributes for every tweet. This strategy has worked well. This is shown in the best performing features in table 6(no order implied). One of the regrettable observations we can make is that the features we have hoped for, feature 59 and 60, are not part of the resulting feature set. Nevertheless, these features do score high on feature selection methods (see information gain and chi-squared statistic below) with a 4th and 5th place on both measures. One of the possible reasons of the absence of the features in the final set is that the implementation of the features is not refined enough. One of the surprising and interesting features in the set is the ‘count minutes’ and ‘count scores’. Both features do not score high individually but are performing very well in combination with other features. A possible reason for that is that scores and minutes are really good indicators for which fact classes are present in a tweet and by making use of that, the classifier can make a link between the count of the facts and the reach of the facts, just like we tried to with feature 56 and 57. We think that a decision tree model, the concluding model we use as reliability classifier, is very applicable in this situation. An interesting discussion is how we should interpret the two F1-scores of the two result classes. There are several valid options, but the most important condition is that the choice has to be applicable for the goal of the application. For example, if one would use the classifier to search for false facts in a dataset, the F1-score of class B is more interesting. On the contrary, for an application which would filter out false facts in order to obtain true facts, the F1-score would be leading. Every application can in this way assign its own weight to the F1-scores which would fit the use case of the application. There are several ways to rank the performance of each feature. Popular ways to rank features are filter methods; the information gain and the chi-squared

statistic<sup>7</sup>. Both methods determine the performance of a single feature in respect to the class. The resulting list, the features sorted on the score of both methods, is used to plot the graph in figure 2 which shows the F1 score of the classification using n number of features starting from the best feature. As is shown in the graph, the information gain selection method and the chi-squared method are unable to detect the best combination of features. As shown in table 6, 7 features resulted in the best F1-score and this performance is only reached after +-20 features in the graph. The rationale is quite obvious because although each individual feature does not have to result in a good performance, a combination of features could. The graph is only used to give the reader an indication about the performance development of the classifier throughout the addition of features, and is not used in the evaluation of the performance of the classifier.

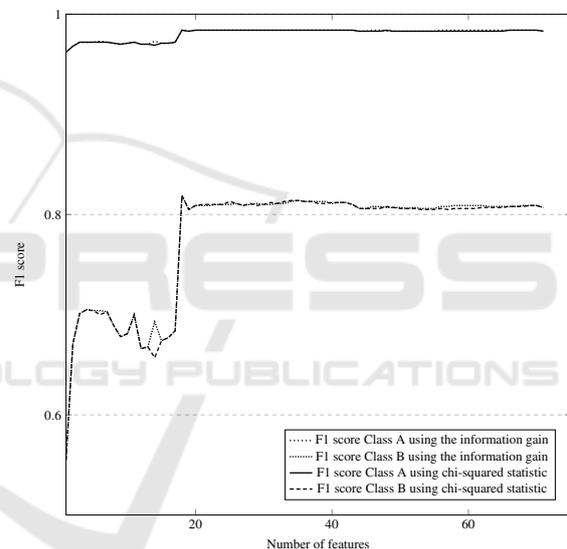


Figure 2: The performance of the classifier using a the information gain filter feature selection method. On the x-axis, the number of features available for the classifier is shown, where the features are sorted and added to the feature set based on the feature score of the feature selection method.

## 7 DISCUSSION & FUTURE RESEARCH

### 7.1 System Module Performance

The performance of the reliability classifier is based on the other system’s modules like the fact classifier and fact extractor. Improving the precision and recall

<sup>7</sup><http://weka.sourceforge.net/doc.dev/weka/attributeSelection/ASEvaluation.html>

of those systems will improve the reliability classifier. Various suggested improvements are listed in the corresponding module sections and discussion chapter in the thesis.

## 7.2 Performance on Other Datasets

In this paper, we have shown that we achieved a good performance on the dataset and fact classes we have introduced in this paper. A very interesting, and maybe the most important question after this conclusion is how these features and performance would relate to other datasets and other types of facts. Our hypothesis states that our features work well on datasets similar to the dataset. Our features aim for datasets in which facts are repeated and originate from different (independent) sources. In this way, the false facts are countered by a lot of independent other ‘correct’ sources. Because there are many sources our facts can originate from, and the facts can be verified by many sources, the false facts can be countered by replies. Criticizing falsities can be universal, but we think there is a lot of difference when people react to fact and when they do not. For example, in this dataset we have seen that reactions on false scores are a lot more common than reactions on incorrect minutes. A reason for that could be that people see these errors to be too insignificant to react on, or that they are unaware of the falsity because they do not know the exact truth. Another important observation is that people are more likely to react to authoritative and popular Twitter users. A lot of unknown users could spread false facts without getting a reaction from their small group of followers. In contrast to the popular and authoritative users which, in the eyes of their follower base, should be right. If they are incorrect, they have a lot of users which potentially could react to an error.

## 7.3 Performance in a Real-time Situation

A very interesting scenario is how this prototype, if minimally altered, would perform in a live situation. In the thesis (Janssen, 2016), we describe this scenario and (most interestingly) alter the reliability classifier in such a way it will reevaluate its verdict over time. More details can be found in the thesis.

## 8 CONCLUSION

Research on veracity in social media extremely important. By making use of this research, systems

can be designed which can serve as a tool to filter out misinformation in times of crisis, or serve as filter applications for systems who make use of social media messages as a source of information. Research relating to this is still very scarce, but recent research done such as ClaimFinder (Cano et al., 2016) and the PHEME project show the increasing interest in this field. Due to the realization of impact of fake news, society has currently pressured social media websites to address this problem and multiple have responded, for example Facebook has reported it will use AI and user reports to counter the problem. (Tech Crunch, 2016) Although we did not actively look into the detection of fake news, our recommendation on an approach would be to keep our architecture (and some features) and add features related to the work of Vakulenko et al. (Vakulenko et al., 2016).

In this paper, we have shown a system consisting of four parts which are trained specifically on a dataset containing Tweets about the World Cup. The first component of the system is a filter which prevents tweets from entering the rest of the system by making use of a rule based classifier. From the original 64 million tweets, 3 million tweets are filtered. The second component is the fact classifier, which is able to recognize which types of facts the tweet contains. This component is implemented by building a feature based classifier using a J48 classifier. The third component is the fact extractor, which is able to extract the facts in the tweet. The main components are the entity locators and extractors and the fact class specific extractors which all use different strategies and tools to extract their respective facts. The fourth and final component of the system is the reliability classifier; a feature based classifier which can determine if a tweet contains a false fact. The classifier is implemented by using features which determine the popularity and reach of the facts in a Tweet as well as the number of replies on a Tweet. The fact classifier scores an F1-score of 0.96, the fact extractor an F1-score of 0.85 and the reliability classifier an F1-score on class A, Tweets with zero false facts, of 0.988 and an F1-score on class B, Tweets with 1 or more false facts, of 0.867. As shown in various parts of the thesis, there is much room for improvement, especially an improved entity extraction can give the recall of several systems a big performance increase.

## REFERENCES

- Bram Koster, M. (2014). Journalisten: social media niet betrouwbaar, wel belangrijk #sming14.  
Cano, A. E., Preotiuc-Pietro, D., Radovanović, D., Weller,

- K., and Dadzie, A.-S. (2016). # microposts2016: 6th workshop on making sense of microposts: Big things come in small packages.
- Castillo, C., Mendoza, M., and Poblete, B. (2011). Information credibility on twitter.
- Declerck, T. and Lendvai, P. (2015). Processing and normalizing hashtags. *Proc. of RANLP 2015*.
- Derczynski, L., Strötgen, J., Maynard, D., Greenwood, M. A., and Jung, M. (2016). Gate-time: Extraction of temporal expressions and events.
- Gupta, A., Kumaraguru, P., Castillo, C., and Meier, P. (2014). Tweetcred: Real-time credibility assessment of content on twitter.
- Hamidian, S. and Diab, M. T. (2016). Rumor identification and belief investigation on twitter.
- Inc., N. H. (2012). State of the media - the social media report 2012.
- Janssen, B. (2016). Determining truth in tweets using feature based supervised statistical classifiers. Master's thesis, University of Twente.
- Kang, M. (2010). Measuring social media credibility: A study on a measure of blog credibility. *Institute for Public Relations*, pages 59–68.
- Reuters Institute for the Study of Journalism (2013). Reuters institute digital news report 2013.
- Tech Crunch (2016). Facebook chose to fight fake news with ai, not just user reports.
- Twitter (2015). Insights into the WorldCup conversation on Twitter.
- Vakulenko, S., Göbel, M., Scharl, A., and Nixon, L. (2016). Visualising the propagation of news on the web.
- Zhao, Z., Resnick, P., and Mei, Q. (2015). Enquiring minds: Early detection of rumors in social media from enquiry posts.
- Zubiaga, A., Liakata, M., Procter, R., Hoi, G. W. S., and Tolmie, P. (2016). Analysing how people orient to and spread rumours in social media by looking at conversational threads. *PloS one*, 11(3):e0150989.