# A Comparative Analysis of Machine Learning Techniques for Disaster-Related Tweet Classification

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Abstract-Disaster-related tweets on Twitter during emergencies contain various information about injured or dead people, missing or found people, infrastructure and utility damage that can help government agencies and humanitarian organizations to priorities their help and rescue operations. Because of the huge volume of these tweets, it is essential to construct a model that can classify these tweets into different classes to better organize rescue and relief operations and save lives. In this paper, we have compared various conventional machine learning and deep learning algorithms for classifying disaster-related tweets into six different classes. The models are tested with four different disaster events such as hurricane, earthquake, flood, and wildfire to see the efficiency of the models. The range of F1-score varies from 0.61 to 0.88 for deep neural network-based models whereas it varies from 0.16 to 0.80 for the conventional machine learning classifiers. From this result, it is evident that the deep neural network models are performing significantly well in classifying disaster-related tweets even for imbalanced datasets.

Index Terms—Machine learning, Deep learning, Disaster, Twitter, Tweets

## I. INTRODUCTION

Responding to the affected people on time is very important for rescue and relief organizations during natural or man-made disasters. However, this job is very difficult for professional humanitarian communities and government agencies owing to several factors, such as the victim's inaccurate location information, handling an enormous amount of rescue related calls and prioritizing rescue activities based on victim's needs [1]–[5]. The lack of useful information in these emergencies delays the response process [6]. It is found that a huge amount of user-generated data are posted through social media platforms such as Twitter and Facebook during an emergency. People often post their status, report damage to the life and infrastructure, inform about the injured and also ask for assistance through these platforms [2], [3], [6]–[8]. These usergenerated pieces of information produced by social networking sites are immensely powerful, rapid and accessible, which can be used to coordinate rescue operation and empower people to become more aware of the situation in case of disaster

[9]. A lot of news reports have confirmed that social media plays a crucial role in efforts to assist in disaster relief, finding help and potentially saving lives. For example, a woman was rescued in case of Hurricane Harvey when she tweeted for assistance while the emergency contact number 911 was not in reach<sup>1</sup>. In an American Red Cross survey<sup>2</sup>, twenty-eight percent people responded that if emergency contact number (911) was not reachable, they posted their tweets on Twitter for assistance in the event of a disaster.

However, along with the vital information of injured or dead people, missing or found people and damage infrastructures and vehicles, these posts also contain several consolation messages and acknowledgement to different organizations helping them. Because of the huge volume of these posts, it is difficult for humanitarian organizations to manually go through each of the tweets and prioritize rescue and relief activities. This creates an immediate need to develop an intelligent system that can classify tweets into different categories of humanitarian aid. The automatic classification of tweets is very challenging because tweets are restricted to only 280 character space and often includes non-standard abbreviations and spelling mistakes. Because of this, understanding them without adequate context is very hard for the machine learning classifiers [1], [10]. Recently, Several works [3], [6], [9], [11]-[15] have been proposed to classify disaster-related social media texts. Deep neural network-based model [6], [9], [11], [12] are gaining popularity for the task over conventional machine learning techniques [3], [13]–[16]. Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) based models are most popular among the deep learning models while Support Vector Machine, Random Forest, Logistic Regression, Naive Bayes, Decision Tree, and K-NN were most widely used tools in conventional machine learning-based models.

In this work, we have done a comparative analysis of the conventional machine and deep learning-based classifiers for

 $<sup>^1</sup>http://time.com/4921961/hurricane-harvey-twitter-facebook-social-media/ <math display="inline">^2http://www.ehstoday.com/fire\_emergencyresponse/communications/red-cross-social-media-help-disaster-0232$ 

classifying various disaster-related tweets. We have used seven different conventional machine learning classifiers and five different deep learning models to compare their performances while classifying the tweets into six different classes. We have also considered the cases of data imbalance as they are the norms of the data collected through Twitter. The distribution of data, in general, is imbalanced across the different classes, so it is very important to see the performance of both conventional and deep learning models in the case of a class imbalance. We have used different combinations of 1-gram, 2-gram, and 3-gram TF-IDF features for conventional machine learning while GloVe [17] and Crisis [18] word vector embedding for deep neural networks. The models are trained and tested with four different disaster events datasets: Hurricane, Earthquake, Flood, and Wildfire. The contribution of this paper can be summarized as follows:

- Implementing seven different conventional machine learning and five different deep learning models and training and testing them with four different disasterrelated datasets.
- Investigating the role of the TF-IDF feature and two different word embedding vectors in the classification task.
- Comparing the performance of conventional machine learning and deep learning in case of imbalanced data distribution.

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows: Section II describes the detailed methodology, Section III lists the experimental results. The discussion of findings and conclusion of the work is listed in Section IV.

## II. METHODOLOGY

This section discusses the methodology employed for classifying disaster-related tweets in detail. We have used seven different machine learning classifiers and five different deep neural networks based models for our system development. In case of machine learning the following classifies are used: (i) Support Vector Machine (SVM), (ii) Random Forest (RF), (iii) Logistic Regression (LR), (iv) K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN), (v) Naive Bayes (NB), (vi) Gradient Boosting (GB), (vii) Decision Tree (DT). We have used following models for deep learning-based classifiers: (i) Convolution Neural Network (CNN), (ii) Long-Short-Term-Memory (LSTM), (iii) Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU), (iv) Bi-directional Gated Recurrent Unit (Bi-GRU), (v) Gated Recurrent Unit-Convolution Neural Network (GRU-CNN).

# A. Data description and pre-processing

The dataset published by [19] is used in this study that includes tweets related to seven different disasters: (i) Maria Hurricane, (ii) Harvey Hurricane, (iii) Irma Hurricane, (iv) Iran-Iraq earthquake, (v) Mexico earthquake, (vi) Sri Lanka flood, and (vii) California wildfire. The tweets belonging to each of the disasters are labelled with eight different class information: (i) Infrastructure and Utility Damage (IUD), (ii) Vehicle Damage (VD), (iii) Rescue, Volunteering, or Donation

Class	Hurricane	Earthquake	Flood	Wildfire
Affected Individuals (AI)	329	55	14	75
Infrastructure and Utility	906	114	35	154
Damage (IUD)				
Injured or Dead People	159	204	18	105
(IDP)				
Missing or Found People	15	11	6	8
(MFP)				
Rescue Volunteering or	2628	361	124	184
Donation Effort (RVDE)				
Vehicle Damage (VD)	50	2	0	2
Total	4087	747	197	528

Effort (RVDE), (iv) Injured or Dead People (IDP), (v) Affected Individuals (AI), (vi) Missing or Found People (MFP), (vii) Other Relevant Information (ORI), (viii) Not Relevant or Can't Judge (NRCJ). The class information with label ORI and NRCJ are removed from the dataset because it does not convey the specific information related to the disaster. As the dataset is collected in such a manner that, if the tweet has more than one image URLs, then those images were saved with the same tweet text, so the published dataset contains several duplicate tweet text. Duplicate tweet text is then removed from the dataset. Finally, we merged eventspecific datasets into one, which means all hurricane datasets (Hurricane Maria, Hurricane Harvey, and Hurricane Irma) are merged into one. Similarly, Mexico and Iran-Iraq earthquake datasets are merged into one. Finally, we come up with four different groups of datasets. The detail description of the dataset after grouping them is listed in Table I. All the punctuation marks such as @, &, #, !, % are removed from the tweets and then the tweets are converted into the lower case. In all cases, 75 percent of the total data sample was used for training and the remaining 25 percent data sample was used to test model performance.

## B. Conventional machine learning algorithms

In the case of conventional machine learning algorithms Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF) vector is used as the input to the classifiers. All the possible combinations of 1-gram, 2-gram, and 3-gram TF-IDF features were extracted to experiment with all classifiers.

## C. Deep Neural Networks

In the case of the deep neural network, two different pretrained word vectors GloVe [17] and Crisis [18] are used. In the case of GloVe, 100-dimensional word vector embedding whereas in case of Crisis embedding 300-dimensional word vector embedding is used. The advantage of using a pre-trained word vector is that it reduces the computational overhead of the model. The categorical cross-entropy and Adam is used as the loss function and optimizer respectively for each of the neural network models. For all the hidden layer, we have used ReLU activation function whereas, at the output layer, we have used the softmax activation function in each of the neural networks. The categorical cross-entropy loss, softmax and ReLU activation functions can be defined by Equation 1, Equation 2, Equation 3 respectively.

Categorical cross entropy = 
$$-\sum_{i=1}^{N} p_i log(\hat{p}_i)$$
 (1)

Softmax function = 
$$\frac{e^{x_j}}{\sum_{k=1}^{C} e^{x_k}}$$
 (2)

$$ReLU = max(0, x_i)$$
 (3)

where, N is the number of training samples in a batch,  $\hat{p}_i$  represents the predicted class probability for the  $i^{th}$  training sample and  $p_i$  represents the classes in the form of one-hot vector. The role of softmax is to calculate the probabilities of each target class across all possible classes. In the Equation 2, C represents the number of classes and  $x_j$  represents a real value calculated at the layer. The ReLU function defined in Equation 3 means for a negative value of  $x_j$  it return zero whereas for a positive value of  $x_j$  it return  $x_j$  itself. The detailed model configuration and hyper-parameter settings can be seen from Table II.

#### III. RESULT

The models are implemented at Google Collaboratory<sup>3</sup> with 12 GB NVIDIA Tesla K80 GPU. The conventional machine learning and deep learning models are implemented using scikit-learn<sup>4</sup> and keras<sup>5</sup> python libraries with Tensorflow as back-end respectively.

The performance of the models is measured in terms of Precision (P), Recall (R) and  $F_1$ -score ( $F_1$ ). For the conventional machine learning algorithms, different combinations of 1-gram, 2-gram, and 3-gram TF-IDF features were used. The extensive experiments were performed with each of the disaster-related datasets: (i) Hurricane, (ii) Earthquake, (iii) Flood, and (iv) Wildfire. The results of each of the classifiers with a different combination of the N-gram TF-IDF feature with the mentioned disasters are listed in Table III. Among seven different classifiers: SVM, RF, LR, KNN, NB, GB, and DT, Gradient Boosting (GB) classifier performed best in the case of all the disaster-related events whereas SVM performed worst. The Gradient Boosting classifier achieved an  $F_1$ -score of 0.79, 0.80, 0.70, and 0.67 for Hurricane, Earthquake, Flood, and wildfire events respectively.

Next, the experiments were performed with deep neural networks where two different word embedding vectors GloVe and Crisis are used. In the case of Earthquake, Crisis embedding performed best, in case of wildfire GloVe embedding performed best. In the case of the hurricane, both GloVe and Crisis gave comparable results whereas in case of flood both the embedding techniques gave a mixed performance as can be seen from Table IV. The comparison of all the conventional machine learning and deep learning classifiers

### Classifiers comparison (Hurricane)

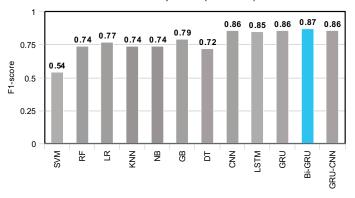


Fig. 1. Classifiers comparison in case of Hurricane dataset

# Classifiers comparison (Earthquake)

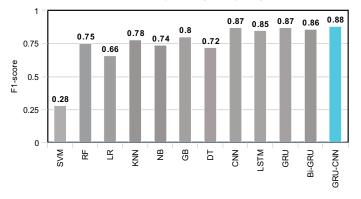


Fig. 2. Classifiers comparison in case of Earthquake dataset

for Hurricane, Earthquake, Flood, and Wildfire are plotted in Fig. 1, Fig. 2, Fig. 3, and Fig. 4 respectively. As can be seen from the figures, throughout all the disaster events deep neural network-based models outperformed the conventional machine learning techniques. In the case of Hurricane, Bi-directional Gated Recurrent Unit (Bi-GRU) performed best. In the case of Earthquake, the combination of the Gated Recurrent Unit and Convolution Neural Network (GRU-CNN) performed best. In the case of Flood, Long-Short-Term-Memory (LSTM) and Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) both equally performed best, whereas, in the case of Wildfire, Gated Recurrent Unit with Convolution Neural Network (GRU-CNN) performed best.

The data distribution between the different classes is imbalance in nature as can be seen from Table I. This research also compares the effectiveness of conventional machine learning with deep learning networks to see how classifiers perform across each class. For each of the disaster events Hurricane, Earthquake, Flood, and Wildfire, the result of best performing conventional machine and deep learning are shown in Table V, Table VI, Table VII, and Table VIII respectively. In the case of the hurricane (see Table I), the minority classes AI, IDP, MFP, and VD have 329, 159, 15, and 50 samples respectively. As can be seen from Table V, even in the case of fewer data samples, the deep learning-based model has learned

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>https://colab.research.google.com

<sup>4</sup>https://scikit-learn.org

<sup>5</sup>https://keras.io

 ${\it TABLE~II}$  The detailed model configuration and hyper-parameter settings for each neural network architecture

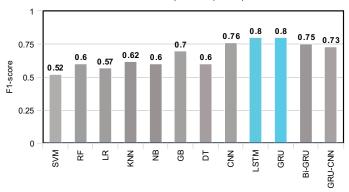
Models	#Layers	#Units	#Filters	Filter size	Pooling window	#Dense layer	#Neuron (Dense)	Activation	Learning rate	Optimizer	Loss	Batch size	Epochs
CNN	2	-	128	2,3,4	5 (Max Pooling)	2	128,6	ReLU, Softmax	0.001	Adam	Categorical crossentropy	4	200
LSTM	2	128	-	-	-	2	32,6	ReLU, Softmax	0.001	Adam	Categorical crossentropy	4	200
GRU	2	128	-	-	-	2	64,6	ReLU, Softmax	0.001	Adam	Categorical crossentropy	4	200
Bi-GRU	2	128	-	-	-	2	64,6	ReLU, Softmax	0.001	Adam	Categorical crossentropy	4	200
Bi-GRU-CNN	1,1	128	128	3	Global Avg. Pooling	2	64,6	ReLU, Softmax	0.001	Adam	Categorical crossentropy	4	200

 ${\bf TABLE~III}\\ {\bf Results~for~various~machine~learning~classifier~for~different~disaster}$ 

Model	N-Gram	Hurric	Hurricane			quake		Flood			California wildfire		
Model	N-Grain	P	R	$F_1$	P	R	$F_1$	P	R	$F_1$	P	R	$F_1$
	1	0.45	0.67	0.54	0.21	0.45	0.28	0.44	0.66	0.52	0.11	0.33	0.16
	2	0.45	0.67	0.54	0.21	0.45	0.28	0.44	0.66	0.52	0.11	0.33	0.16
CYTM	3	0.45	0.67	0.54	0.21	0.45	0.28	0.44	0.66	0.52	0.11	0.33	0.16
SVM	1,2	0.45	0.67	0.54	0.21	0.45	0.28	0.44	0.66	0.52	0.11	0.33	0.16
	2,3	0.45	0.67	0.54	0.21	0.45	0.28	0.44	0.66	0.52	0.11	0.33	0.16
	1,2,3	0.45	0.67	0.54	0.21	0.45	0.28	0.44	0.66	0.52	0.11	0.33	0.16
	1	0.74	0.77	0.74	0.74	0.77	0.75	0.56	0.64	0.59	0.46	0.47	0.45
	2	0.63	0.68	0.64	0.61	0.62	0.54	0.60	0.68	0.57	0.46	0.45	0.41
Random Forest	3	0.57	0.64	0.58	0.71	0.55	0.44	0.60	0.68	0.57	0.55	0.42	0.38
Kandom Forest	1,2	0.73	0.76	0.73	0.66	0.70	0.67	0.50	0.66	0.56	0.55	0.55	0.52
	2,3	0.62	0.68	0.64	0.50	0.58	0.49	0.61	0.70	0.60	0.52	0.46	0.43
	1,2,3	0.68	0.72	0.68	0.74	0.68	0.61	0.60	0.68	0.57	0.53	0.53	0.51
	1	0.82	0.81	0.77	0.74	0.72	0.66	0.60	0.68	0.57	0.61	0.65	0.60
	2	0.66	0.70	0.61	0.51	0.62	0.53	0.44	0.66	0.52	0.53	0.53	0.48
Logistic Regression	3	0.55	0.67	0.54	0.51	0.53	0.42	0.44	0.66	0.52	0.37	0.35	0.25
Logistic Regression	1,2	0.73	0.78	0.72	0.72	0.67	0.58	0.44	0.66	0.52	0.60	0.62	0.57
	2,3	0.62	0.69	0.58	0.52	0.60	0.51	0.44	0.66	0.52	0.48	0.45	0.39
	1,2,3	0.73	0.76	0.70	0.52	0.66	0.56	0.44	0.66	0.52	0.59	0.58	0.53
	1	0.75	0.74	0.74	0.79	0.78	0.78	0.64	0.62	0.62	0.65	0.61	0.62
	2	0.73	0.72	0.72	0.69	0.66	0.67	0.59	0.64	0.62	0.61	0.55	0.57
KNN	3	0.65	0.65	0.65	0.64	0.61	0.61	0.53	0.52	0.51	0.46	0.41	0.42
IXIVIV	1,2	0.74	0.74	0.73	0.78	0.75	0.75	0.62	0.62	0.61	0.61	0.57	0.59
	2,3	0.70	0.69	0.69	0.68	0.65	0.65	0.57	0.60	0.59	0.52	0.48	0.50
	1,2,3	0.73	0.72	0.72	0.71	0.67	0.68	0.56	0.62	0.58	0.63	0.60	0.61
	1	0.68	0.68	0.68	0.70	0.70	0.70	0.61	0.60	0.60	0.60	0.61	0.60
	2	0.71	0.71	0.71	0.72	0.68	0.70	0.62	0.56	0.59	0.61	0.49	0.53
Naive Bayes	3	0.70	0.56	0.61	0.72	0.55	0.62	0.61	0.40	0.47	0.58	0.42	0.46
Naive Dayes	1,2	0.72	0.76	0.73	0.75	0.76	0.74	0.58	0.60	0.58	0.63	0.64	0.63
	2,3	0.71	0.71	0.71	0.71	0.69	0.69	0.63	0.56	0.59	0.58	0.48	0.51
	1,2,3	0.73	0.76	0.74	0.76	0.76	0.74	0.59	0.60	0.59	0.66	0.66	0.65
	1	0.78	0.80	0.79	0.81	0.81	0.80	0.70	0.72	0.70	0.64	0.59	0.61
	2	0.68	0.68	0.65	0.63	0.60	0.56	0.44	0.54	0.48	0.55	0.48	0.47
Gradient Boosting	3	0.62	0.68	0.59	0.52	0.53	0.46	0.43	0.64	0.52	0.44	0.43	0.37
Gradient Doosting	1,2	0.80	0.79	0.79	0.80	0.79	0.78	0.62	0.62	0.59	0.66	0.67	0.67
	2,3	0.67	0.70	0.66	0.61	0.60	0.55	0.43	0.62	0.51	0.58	0.56	0.54
	1,2,3	0.80	0.78	0.79	0.80	0.78	0.78	0.62	0.64	0.57	0.66	0.59	0.62
	1	0.73	0.70	0.71	0.70	0.68	0.69	0.61	0.58	0.58	0.49	0.48	0.46
	2	0.66	0.61	0.62	0.64	0.55	0.57	0.50	0.32	0.35	0.45	0.41	0.41
Decision Tree	3	0.57	0.58	0.57	0.50	0.51	0.46	0.60	0.68	0.60	0.41	0.39	0.31
Decision file	1,2	0.72	0.70	0.71	0.75	0.67	0.69	0.56	0.60	0.56	0.55	0.52	0.52
	2,3	0.64	0.58	0.60	0.66	0.50	0.54	0.45	0.32	0.35	0.45	0.42	0.41
	1,2,3	0.72	0.72	0.72	0.74	0.71	0.72	0.55	0.54	0.53	0.54	0.44	0.45

Model	Embedding	Hurricane			Earthquake			Flood			California wildfire		
Wiodei	Linocuanig	P	R	$F_1$	P	R	$F_1$	P	R	$F_1$	P	R	$F_1$
CNN	Crisis	0.84	0.85	0.84	0.87	0.87	0.87	0.63	0.74	0.68	0.70	0.65	0.66
CIVIN	Glove	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.77	0.83	0.80	0.74	0.78	0.76	0.76	0.78	0.77
LSTM	Crisis	0.85	0.85	0.84	0.89	0.83	0.85	0.68	0.78	0.72	0.60	0.66	0.61
LSTM	Glove	0.85	0.85	0.85	0.83	0.82	0.83	0.77	0.84	0.80	0.74	0.75	0.74
GRU	Crisis	0.84	0.86	0.84	0.88	0.87	0.87	0.83	0.80	0.80	0.74	0.76	0.74
GRU	Glove	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.87	0.83	0.85	0.61	0.72	0.66	0.79	0.80	0.79
Bi-directional	Crisis	0.86	0.88	0.87	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.76	0.78	0.75	0.71	0.75	0.72
GRU	Glove	0.87	0.87	0.87	0.83	0.83	0.83	0.69	0.74	0.70	0.78	0.78	0.78
GRU-CNN	Crisis	0.86	0.87	0.86	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.65	0.76	0.70	0.78	0.78	0.78
GRU-CININ	Glove	0.86	0.87	0.86	0.82	0.83	0.82	0.70	0.76	0.73	0.82	0.80	0.81

#### Classifiers comparison (Flood)



BEST PERFORMING DEEP AND CONVENTIONAL MACHINE LEARNING
MODELS FOR HURRICANE
Hurricane: Deep Learning vs Conventional Machine Learning

TABLE V

Hurricane: Deep Learning vs Conventional Machine Learning									
Class	Bi-GR	RU.		Gradio	ent Boos	sting	# data		
Ciass	P	R	$F_1$	P	R	$F_1$	sample		
AI	0.52	0.41	0.46	0.35	0.15	0.22	71		
IUD	0.81	0.84	0.82	0.77	0.65	0.70	213		
IDP	0.97	0.67	0.79	0.91	0.71	0.80	45		
MFP	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	2		
RVDE	0.91	0.95	0.93	0.83	0.93	0.88	683		
VD	1.00	0.50	0.67	0.45	0.62	0.53	8		
Weighted Avg.	0.87	0.87	0.87	0.78	0.80	0.79	1022		

Fig. 3. Classifiers comparison in case of Flood dataset

# Classifiers comparison (Wildfire)

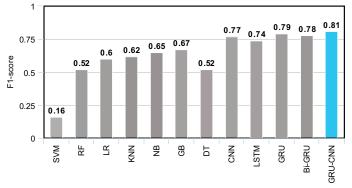


Fig. 4. Classifiers comparison in case of wildfire dataset

better than conventional machine learning models. A similar observation can be seen in Table VI, Table VII, and Table VIII for earthquake, flood, and wildfire events respectively. These findings are evidence that the deep neural network learned better than conventional machine learning classifiers in the situation of imbalanced data distribution.

TABLE VI
BEST PERFORMING DEEP AND CONVENTIONAL MACHINE LEARNING
MODELS FOR EARTHQUAKE

Earthquake: Deep Learning vs Conventional Machine Learning									
Class	GRU-	CNN		Gradio	ent Boos	sting	# data		
Ciass	P	R	$F_1$	P	R	$F_1$	sample		
AI	0.56	0.45	0.50	0.50	0.18	0.27	11		
IUD	0.81	0.81	0.81	0.85	0.59	0.70	37		
IDP	0.91	0.91	0.91	0.92	0.85	0.88	53		
MFP	0.50	1.00	0.67	0.00	0.00	0.00	1		
RVDE	0.93	0.94	0.94	0.78	0.98	0.86	85		
VD	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0		
Weighted Avg.	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.81	0.81	0.80	187		

TABLE VII
BEST PERFORMING DEEP AND CONVENTIONAL MACHINE LEARNING
MODELS FOR FLOOD

Flood: Deep Learning vs Conventional Machine Learning									
Class	GRU			Gradie	ent Boos	sting	# data		
Class	P	R	$F_1$	P	R	$F_1$	sample		
AI	0.50	1.00	0.67	0.00	0.00	0.00	2		
IUD	0.56	0.62	0.59	0.38	0.38	0.38	8		
IDP	1.00	0.60	0.75	1.00	0.60	0.75	5		
MFP	1.00	0.50	0.67	1.00	1.00	1.00	2		
RVDE	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.76	0.85	0.80	33		
Weighted Avg.	0.83	0.80	0.80	0.70	0.72	0.70	50		

TABLE VIII
BEST PERFORMING DEEP AND CONVENTIONAL MACHINE LEARNING
MODELS FOR WILDFIRE

Wildfire: Deep Learning vs Conventional Machine Learning									
Class	GRU-	CNN		Gradie	ent Boos	sting	# data		
Class	P	R	$F_1$	P	R	$F_1$	sample		
AI	0.46	0.65	0.54	0.23	0.18	0.20	17		
IUD	0.81	0.89	0.85	0.69	0.75	0.72	44		
IDP	0.95	0.77	0.85	0.91	0.81	0.86	26		
MFP	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1		
RVDE	0.92	0.84	0.88	0.68	0.74	0.71	43		
VD	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1		
Weighted Avg.	0.82	0.80	0.81	0.66	0.67	0.67	132		

#### IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This work classifies the disaster-related tweets into six different classes that can help in humanitarian tasks. Several conventional machines and deep learning techniques are compared in the paper. In the case of conventional machine learning different combinations of N-gram TF-IDF feature vector whereas in case of deep learning two different GloVe and Crisis word embedding vectors are used. In the case of conventional machine learning, Gradient Boosting (GB) classifier outperformed all other classifiers in all the disaster events as can be seen from Table III. In the case of GB, the 1-gram TF-IDF feature is played a major role in classifying tweets. Gradient Boosting classifier performed significantly well when 1-gram, 1,2-gram, and 1,2,3-gram TF-IDF features are used in the comparison of 2-gram, 3-gram, and 2,3-gram TF-IDF features as can be seen from Table III. That means in classifying tweets 1-gram features are one of the important features in the case of conventional machine learning classifiers.

The use of different embedding played a major role in the classification task, Crisis embedding performed best in case of earthquake and GloVe embedding performed best in case of wildfire. So this study suggests future researchers to choose appropriate word embedding vectors to achieve better performance. The implemented deep neural network-based models outperformed all the conventional machine learning classifiers even in the case of data imbalance. The models were tested on four different categories of the datasets where event-specific datasets are merged into one. All the merged event-specific datasets belong to different geographical regions. Considering that the deep learning models have performed well in the case of datasets belonging to different geographical regions, this research also shows that different geographic event datasets can be used for a similar type of event where very limited labelled data of the current event are available.

The limitation of this work is that we have used only English language tweets for the classification task whereas during disaster several tweets are posted by the users in their regional languages. So a multi-lingual system can be made for future work. One other limitation is that for all the deep neural network-based model we performed the experiments with fixed batch size, learning rate, and optimizer. In the

future, these hyper-parameters can be tuned further to get better performance from the deep neural models.

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