Reading Between (the Party) Lines

by

Sophie Beiying Chou

Submitted to the MIT Media Lab,
School of Architecture and Planning
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

MS in Media Arts and Sciences

at the

MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

June 2016

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Abstract

TO-DO

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Acknowledgments

[FILL IT WITH GRATITUDE]

Contents

Chapter 1

Introduction

Most Americans say that they want to read news that's unbiased. A survey from Pew Research in 2012 showed that more than two-thirds (68%) of readers want to read political articles with a neutral stance, compared to just a little less than a quarter (23%) of those who want to read those stories that share their point of view [2]. But what exactly does that entail?

To begin with, whether or not we see news as biased is biased in itself. On whole, conservative readers tend to view media as more biased than both Democrats and Independents (49% to 32% and 35%, respectively)[2]. Partisans have also been shown in experiment to view the news as antagonistic to their beliefs, a phenomenon known as the "hostile media effect" [12]. To further complicate issues, attempting to measure a story's "true" subjectivity is a slippery task. Can it ever be possible to measure subjectivity in an objective matter?

Yet the perception of media bias—regardless of ground truth—has a significant impact on the public. It can affect attitudes towards the government and even change voting outcomes, as measured by the impact of introducing Fox News in the cable market (it led to a significant effect on the share of Republican votes in targeted areas) [5].

In light of the upcoming 2016 elections, this thesis explores perceptions of media bias towards presidential candidates. In particular, how does the *content* of a story (reading level and vocabulary) affect the reader versus the *context* (publication and author)? Although studies have been conducted to both examine the psychological effect of wording on believability and the impact of media brands and bias, separating and comparing these two factors remains largely unexamined [15, 4]

The first part of this thesis consists of a crowdsourcing experiment to collect reader 's perceptions of candidate bias. In this section, we use A/B testing to measure the effect of viewing the source of a story and its context. We follow up with an analysis of story reading level, language and its impact.

Chapter 2

The Power of (Perceived) Media Bias

In an election year prefaced by deep cynicism towards American institutions (a 2015 survey showed that just 19% of the population trusts the federal government), attitudes towards the news media fare no better. Almost two-thirds of Americans think that the national news media is a negative influence on the country: but how does this attitude influence Americans? [3]

Media bias—or at the very least, the *belief of* a biased media bias—has a significant impact on the practice of democracy. A 2006 study from Georgetown University shows that those with more negative attitudes towards the news tend to be more highly influenced by their partisan prior beliefs and less by contemporary issues and messages when voting [7]. This implies that distrust of media plays a large role in the polarization of American politics.

Although the general consensus of mistrust is clear, perception of media bias is a complex phenomenon to dissect, as it combines social and psychological effects with the traits of the story itself.

In this section, we outline three main potential sources of media bias—the reader, the source, and the language—and explore the impact of each.

2.1 The Role of the Reader in Perceptions of Bias

It comes as no surprise that our own political stances have a significant effect in our perceptions of bias in the media.

In even seemingly neutral stories, partisans tend to view reporting as biased against their own views. This phenomenon—deemed the "hostile media effect"—was first studied at Stanford University by Robert P. Vallone, Lee Ross, and Mark R. Lepper in 1985 [12]. Although "true" neutrality of a story is nearly impossible to quantify due to the subjective nature of the concept, Vallone et. al were able to successfully demonstrate that partisans of *both* sides (pro-Israeli and pro-Arab) viewed the same news segments as hostile towards their beliefs and favorable to the other side.

2.2 The Role of Media Brands in Perceptions of Bias

2.3 The Role of Language [Policial Persuasion]

2.3.1 Language and Politics

2.3.2 The Seductive Allure [... of Simple] Language

2.4 The 2016 Elections

2.4.1 Criticism of Media Bias

Chapter 3

Data Collection

3.1 The Electome

The Electome is a large, collaborative, and ongoing effort in the Laboratory for Social Machines that seeks to analyze the "competition of ideas" in the upcoming 2016 elections. It does so by using techniques in natural language processing, machine learning, and network analysis to make sense of "big data" collected from two main sources: traditional media (online versions of news publications) and social media (Twitter) [13].

This thesis, which emerged from the Electome, examines a narrowed portion of the first dataset centered around specific topics and candidates. The following section will describe the methods used to gather this dataset as well as shared machine learning tools for article classification.

3.2 Story Collection

News articles from 14 different news publications were systematically collected every hour from RSS feeds beginning from January 2015. The outlets tracked are:

- CNN
- Fox News
- The Wall Street Journal
- ProPublica
- Politico
- McClatchy
- The Washington Post
- Buzzfeed (News only)
- National Public Radio (NPR)
- The Huffington Post
- The Associated Press
- Reuters
- The New York Times
- The Los Angeles Times

The above outlets were chosen to form a diverse subset of the current U.S. news ecosystem, including a combination of private and public, liberal and conservative, legacy and new media publications. Also included are wire services and a mix of media delivery formats for which the outlet is known (radio, television, print, or web).

Steps to collect the news stories were as follows:

1. For each news publication:
    (a) Use regular expressions to extract all RSS feed urls for a news site.
    (b) For each RSS feed:
        i. Parse feed using open source xml reader library, Feedparser.
        ii. For each link to a story in the feed:
            A. Parse html using Beautiful Soup 3 (an open source python library)
            B. Insert headline, authors, story text, publication date and retrieval date into an SQL database.

Data depulication (by story url and headline) is then performed to ensure only one

copy of each article is in the database. This step is necessary as articles from wire services often appear across many outlets and effect aggregate text analsyis.

On average, 2,000 stories are collected per day across all outlets. However, volume follows a consistent pattern of fluctuation depending on weekday, ranging from approximately 1,000 to 3,000 stories.

[INSERT HERE GRAPH OF NEWS STORIES VOLUME BY WEEKDAY]

As of March 1st, 2016, there were 855,000 stories collected in the database and 43,000 journalists.

3.3 Election Classification[1]

All stories collected from the sources above are passed through a machine learning classifier to determine if they are primarily about the 2016 U.S. elections. This thesis examines only those articles classified as election related.

The election classifier consists of a binary Maximum Entropy (MaxEnt) text classifier using Bag-of-Word (BoW) features selected from the news articles [10]. The features are ranked according to the chi-squared test (where high scores indicate that the null hypothesis of independence should be rejected and thus the occurence of class and term are dependent) with a cutoff of 20,000. We use the open-source Python library scikit-learn for the implementation our MaxEnt classifier [11].

The classifier is trained on a balanced dataset of 1,000 manually labelled news articles and evaluated on a separate balanced test set of 300 articles. We achieved a precision of 90% and recall of 91% (F-score of 92%).

Between January 1, 2015 and March 1, 2016 there were 24,837 articles with over 90%

[1]This section features shared machine learning tools within the Electome, with acknowledgements to Prashanth Vijayaraghavan.

confidence level of being election related. The number of stories classified as such has increased over time as election day nears.

[INSERT % ELECTION/ % TOTAL STORIES CHART HERE]

3.4 Topic Classification[2]

The final step of article processing within the Electome pipeline for this experimental dataset is the application of a 22-topic classifier. The following 22 topics were curated within the Laboratory for Social Machines as central issues of discussion within the election:

- Income Inequality
- Environment/Energy
- Jobs/Employment
- Guns
- Racial Issues
- Foreign Policy/National Security
- LGBT Issues
- Ethics
- Education
- Financial Regulation
- Budget/Taxation
- Veterans
- Campaign Finance
- Surveillance/Privacy
- Drugs
- Justice
- Abortion
- Immigration
- Trade
- Health Care
- Economy
- Other

3,000 articles classified as election related by the methods detailed in section 3.3 were manually labelled to form our training dataset. Articles were labelled as belonging to one or more topics. We then used a two-step model to create the classifier, due to the challenges of having a large number of classes and relatively small number of labeled stories. First, thousands of election related articles were inputted into a domain adaptive semi-supervised (stories were not all labeled) topic classification system. Then, a denoising autoencoder (DA) was used to learn salient features in an unsupervised fashion [14]. These features were used to train a topic classifier using the labelled dataset.

[2]This section features shared machine learning tools within the Electome, with acknowledgements to Prashanth Vijayaraghavan.

The classifier was evaluated on an independent dataset of 400 manually annotated articles. We achieved a precision of 91% and a recall of 94% (weighted F-score of 92%).

3.5 Flesch-Kincaid Readability Tests

In this study, we focus primarily on the Flesch-Kincaid (F-K) tests for estimating text readability. Originally developed for the U.S. Navy in 1975 for assessing the difficulty of technical manuals, the F-K reading level corresponds roughly to U.S. grade level and the reading ease score is inversely proportional to the grade level on a scale from 0 to approximately 120 [6].

We chose the F-K tests over other comparable ones due to its popularity in educational assessment and other applications, including in legislation. For example, it is required by law in Florida that life insurance policies have a Flesch reading ease of 45 or greater (less than 12th grade in reading level) [8]. The F-K tests are also bundled in many common word processing services, including Microsoft Office Word. As a comparison, basic article analysis is also computed using the Gunning fog index (see Section 5.2.1).

The formula for Flesch reading ease is as follows:

$$206.835 - 1.015\left(\frac{\text{total words}}{\text{total sentences}}\right) - 84.6\left(\frac{\text{total syllables}}{\text{total words}}\right)$$

And for reading grade level:

$$0.39\left(\frac{\text{total words}}{\text{total sentences}}\right) + 11.8\left(\frac{\text{total syllables}}{\text{total words}}\right) - 15.59$$

The two formulas are not directly comparable due to the difference in weighting factors. For ease of metaphor, we use the grade level tests in our analysis. Syllable

length is highly weighted in this formula, so it is possible to generate a story of very high reading level that consists of a single word in a single sentence (the longest English word, *pneumonoultramicroscopicsilicovolcanoconiosi*, a type of lung disease, has a reading grade level of 197.2), which is a limitation of the method, since texts with polysyllabic words are not always necessarily more difficult to read.

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Chapter 4

Experimental Design

4.1 Data Selection

For this study, we chose to analyze stories collected between January 1, 2016 (the start of the election year) and March 1, 2016 (Super Tuesday). Since a large number of states hold primary elections and caucuses on Super Tuesday, it is seen as an early indicator of candidate electability. All stories had been filtered through both the election (see section 3.3) and topic (see section 3.4) classifiers.

Based on the results of Super Tuesday, we selected four candidates for this study by delegate count: Hillary Clinton (1,279), Bernie Sanders (1,027), Donald Trump (743), and Ted Cruz (517) [1].

News articles were then separated into single-candidate stories (i.e. articles featuring primarily one candidate in the headline) to be able to measure more clearly the perceived bias per candidate. This was done programatically using regular expressions to determine if a headline contained one candidate and one candidate only. A dictionary of related names was created to make sure that stories were correctly categorized (i.e. “Hillary”, “Clinton”, and “Hillary Clinton” were to be categorized as pertaining

to “Hillary Clinton” but not if preceded by “Bill”).

4.1.1 Publication Selection

For the purposes of this study, stories were examined from five outlets:

- CNN
- Fox News
- The New York Times
- The Wall Street Journal
- The Associated Press

The choices consist of two pairs of outlets in both print and television across the liberal-conservative divide, plus a wire service. Of the 14 outlets above, both Fox News and the Wall Street Journal have an audience that leans conservative compared to the overall population (27% mostly conservative viewers versus 17% in the overall population for Fox News and 22% mostly conservative viewers versus 17% in the overall population) measured by a 2014 Pew survey [9].

On the other hand, the New York Times and CNN both have audiences that lean mostly liberal (25% liberal versus 22% in all respondents for CNN and 25% for the New York Times). The Associated Press, which was not included in the survey, has members in outlets across the political divide and was chosen as an experimental control.

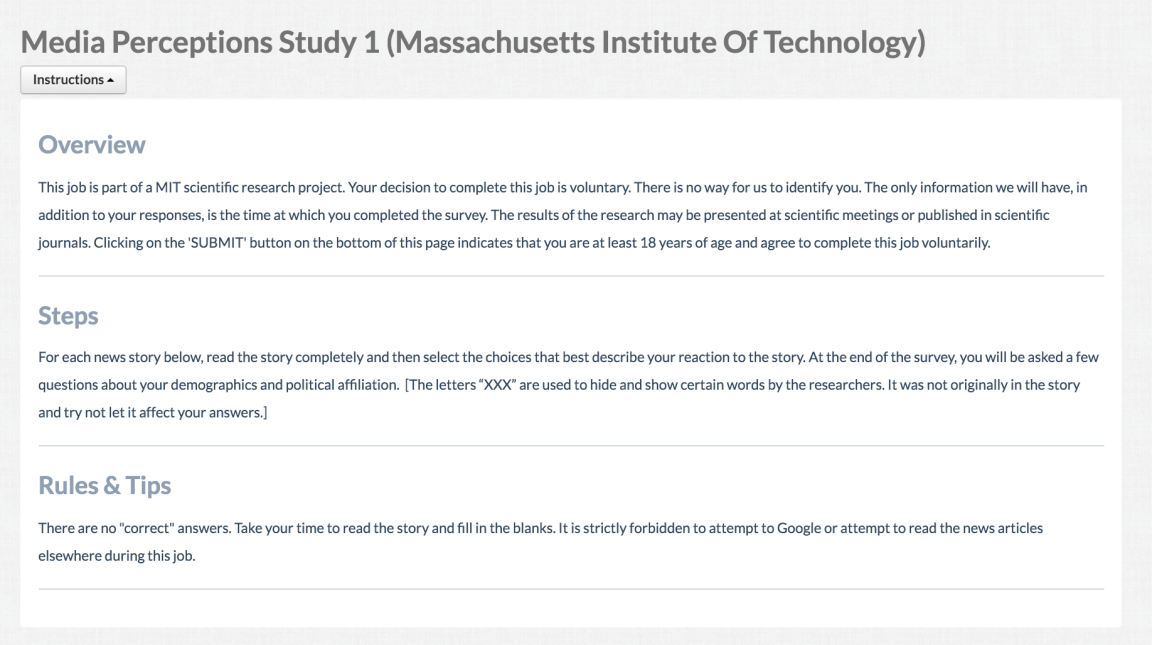
[MIGHT INCLUDE THOSE DISTRIBUTIONS HERE]

4.1.2 Topic Selection

4.1.3 Flesch Kincaid Cutoffs

4.1.4 Redaction of Stories

4.2 CrowdFlower



4.3 Demographic Survey

4.4 Political Affiliation Survey

4.5 Quality Assurance

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Chapter 5

Pre-Survey Analysis

5.1 Topic Analysis

5.2 Flesch-Kincaid Analysis

5.2.1 Comparisons to other Reading Level Tests

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Chapter 6

Study

Basic stats here: we ran over X days over data points

6.1 Reader Demographics

6.2 Media Favorability of Candidates

Each reader was asked to score the five stories according to how favorable each one was to the featured candidate (by headline).

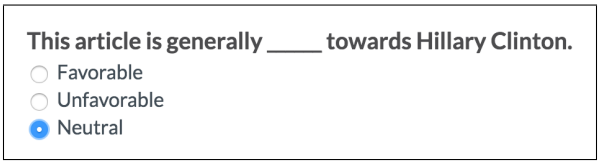

Figure 6-1: Example of favorability scoring question

Scores were collected on a three-point scale, Favorable (1), Unfavorable (-1), or Neutral (0).

Overall, media coverage of Trump was viewed as most negatively biased, with over

half of stories (51.1%) viewed as unfavorable towards the candidate.

Of the stories shown, both Sanders and Clinton were viewed as having more positive than negative coverage, at 38.9% of the 180 annotations being positive. Sanders also had the least negative coverage, with only 18.3% stories shown being viewed as negatively biased against the candidate. Republican candidate Cruz was also seen to have more negative (33.3%) than positive (28.9%) stories about him, although the majority were seen as neutral (37.8%).

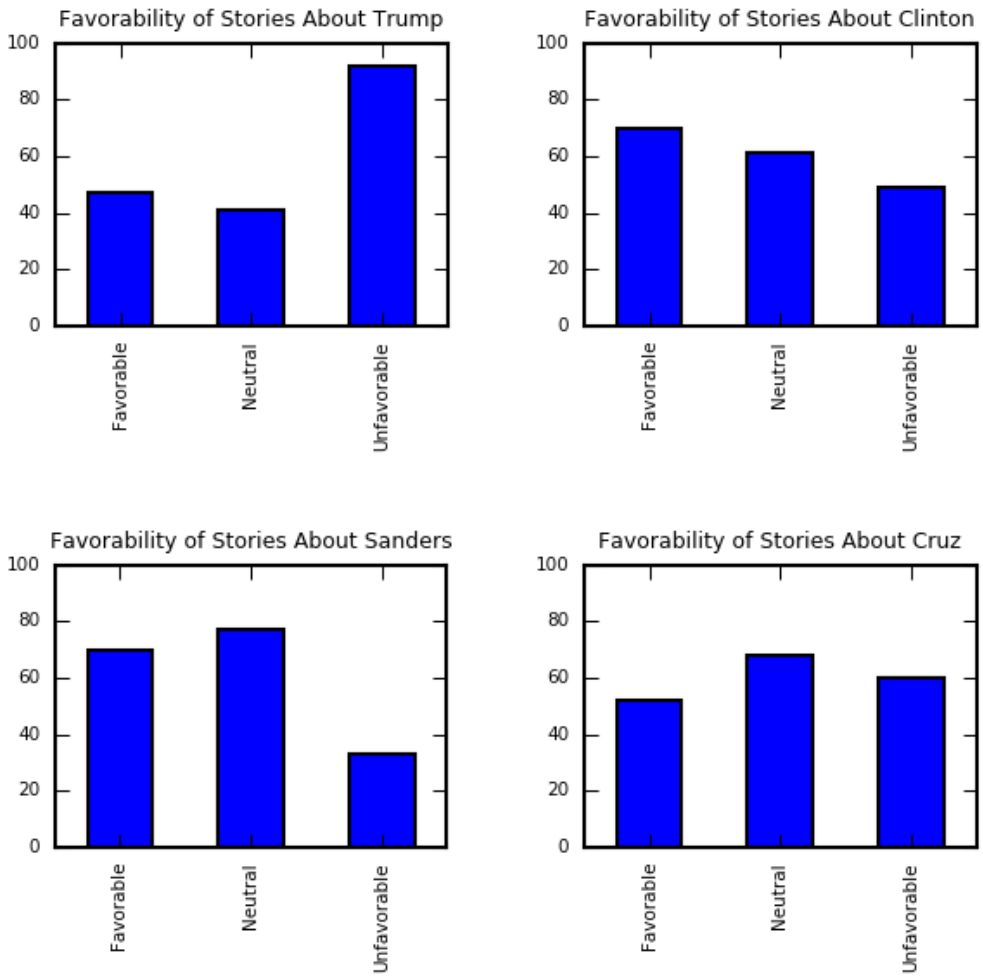

Figure 6-2: Media Favorability of Candidates

These trends persist when we filter responses by stories that were considered trustworthy or at least neutral (score > 0).

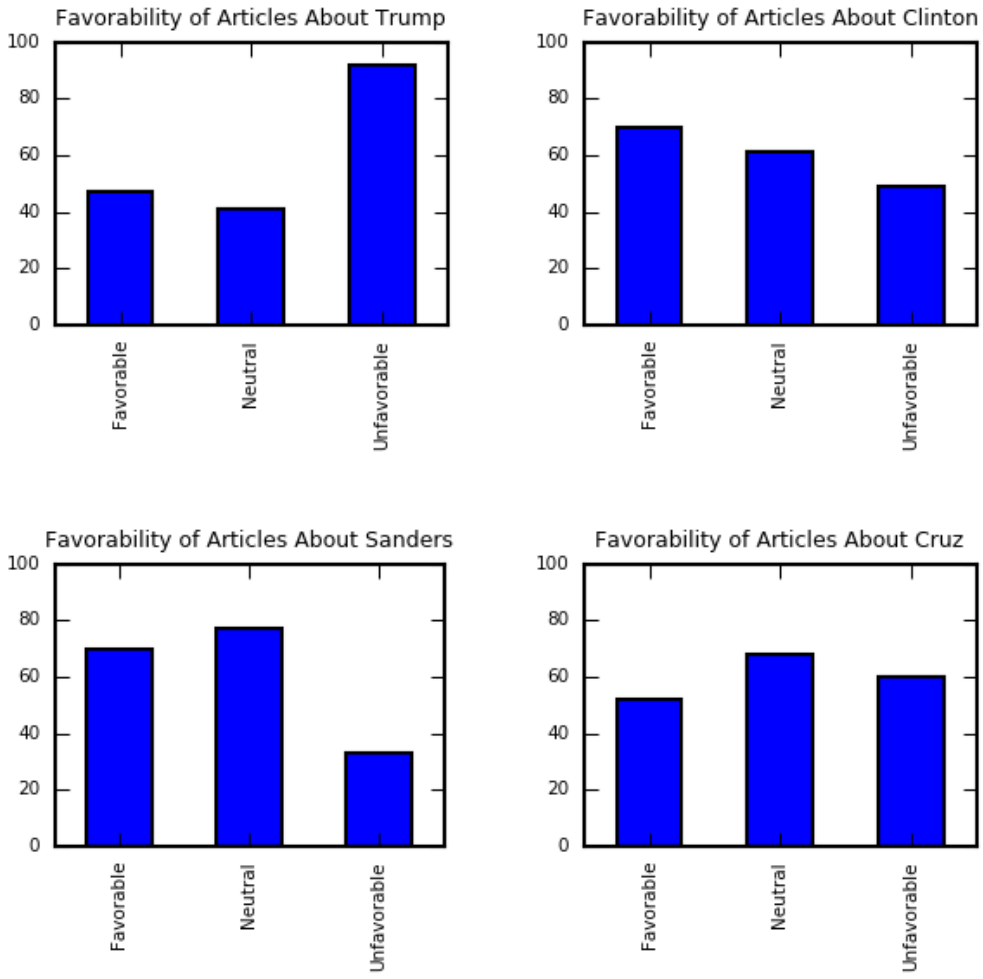

Figure 6-3: Media Favorability of Candidates, Trustworthy Articles

In the following section, we examine more patterns of media trustworthiness.

6.3 Media Trustworthiness

Each reader was also asked to score the five stories according to how trustworthy they found each to be.

Scores were collected on a five-point (Likert) scale: Strongly Agree (2), Agree (1), Neutral (0), Disagree (-1), Strongly Disagree (-2). Overall, readers seldom slected

Figure 6-4: Example of trustworthiness scoring question

"Strongly Disagree", and the option consisted of less than 2% of all choices.

In the analysis below, we collapse the results into three categories: Agree (> 0), Neutral (0), and Disagree (<0).

Despite reportings on national distrust of news, the majority of stories were marked as trustworthy for all candidates.

Sanders has strongest trustworthiness, most favorable

6.4 Overall Bias Reportings

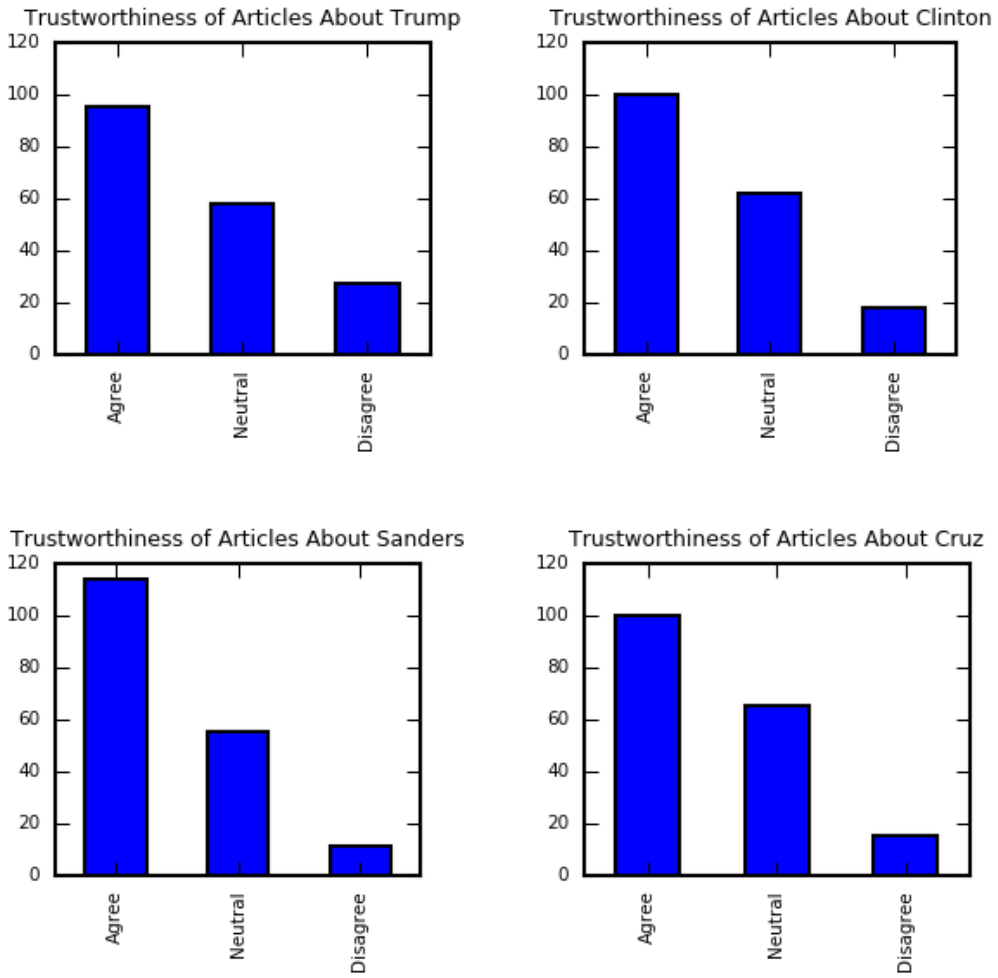

Figure 6-5: Media Trustworthiness of Candidate Coverage

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Chapter 7

Analysis

7.1 Media Brand Effect

7.2 Reading Level Effect

7.3 Other Linguistic Cues

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