

Using Large-Scale Social Media Networks as a Scalable Sensing System for Modeling Real-Time Energy Utilization Patterns

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Abstract—The hypothesis of this paper is that topics, expressed through large-scale social media networks, approximate electricity utilization events (e.g., using high power consumption devices such as a dryer) with high accuracy. Traditionally, researchers have proposed the use of smart meters to model device-specific electricity utilization patterns. However, these techniques suffer from scalability and cost challenges. To mitigate these challenges, we propose a social media network-driven model that utilizes large-scale textual and geospatial data to approximate electricity utilization patterns, without the need for physical hardware systems (e.g., such as smart meters), hereby providing a readily scalable source of data. The methodology is validated by considering the problem of electricity use disaggregation, where energy consumption rates from a nine-month period in San Diego, coupled with 1.8 million tweets from the same location and time span, are utilized to automatically determine activities that require large or small amounts of electricity to accomplish. The system determines 200 topics on which to detect electricity-related events and finds 38 of these to be valid descriptors of energy utilization. In addition, a comparison with electricity consumption patterns published by domain experts in the energy sector shows that our methodology both reproduces the topics reported by experts, while discovering additional topics. Finally, the generalizability of our model is compared with a weather-based model, provided by the U.S. Department of Energy.

Index Terms—Event detection, Granger causality, predictive models, social network services, unsupervised learning.

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I. INTRODUCTION

SOCIAL media network models have the potential to serve as dynamic, ubiquitous sensing systems that serve as an approximation of physical sensors with the added benefits of: 1) being scalable; 2) publicly available; and 3) having lower setup and maintenance cost, compared to certain physical sensors (e.g., smart meters or smart plugs). Each day, social media services such as Twitter, Facebook, and Google, process anywhere between 12 terabytes (10^{12}) [1] to 20 petabytes (10^{15}) [2] of data, making them suitable for large-scale data mining and knowledge discovery. The ability of individuals within a social media network to: 1) detect a phenomenon; 2) observe and interpret a phenomenon; and 3) report the impact of the phenomenon back to the social media network in a timely and efficient manner, highlights the potential for social media networks to be perceived as large-scale sensor networks. However, as with many large-scale sensor systems, the fundamental challenge is separating signal from noise. The conventional wisdom has been that in order to accurately understand a complex phenomenon (e.g., energy utilization patterns), complex sensors are required (e.g., smart meters) to sense, collect data, and make inferences in real time. This paper aims to challenge these conventional paradigms of social media networks and physical sensor systems by demonstrating the viability of social media networks to be used as dynamic, ubiquitous sensing systems that provide comparable level of information and knowledge, to physical sensor systems setup to achieve similar objectives.

In this paper, we propose a system that automatically generates and tests relationships between topics on social media network and electricity usage pattern. These topics are then used to predict future electricity use or test Granger causal links between the topics and the usage. This Granger causality is used to validate these links. We consider a case study where our methods are applied to energy use disaggregation using social media network data. That is, can our system discover interesting relations in social media networks that trend with electricity consumption rates? We then compare the topics that our system detects to be valid against actual topics chosen by an expert in the energy domain or against keywords mined directly from the dataset. We find that, in addition to other topics, our system replicates the topics chosen by an expert. Furthermore, a direct comparison to keyword analysis results in up to a 16.7% improvement in detected correlations

72 (as described in Section V-B). Finally, a comparison with a
73 weather-based simulation of homes in cities is considered.

74 In this paper, we provide an implementation, quantitative
75 evaluation, and analysis of this mapping. In Section II, previ-
76 ous work on social media network analysis, topic modeling,
77 and electricity use disaggregation is discussed. In Section III,
78 a formal implementation of this mapping system is provided.
79 In Section IV, a case study is presented where $y = \textit{electricity}$
80 $\textit{consumption rates}$, and \mathbf{X} is statistically derived social
81 media network data. In Section V, this method of hypothe-
82 sis generation is compared against expert-based and machine
83 learning-based hypothesis generation. In Section VI, we test
84 our model’s capability to predict future electricity usage. In
85 Section VII, we conclude.

86 II. PREVIOUS WORK

87 A. Mining Social Media Networks

88 Social media networks are emerging as the next frontier
89 for novel information discovery. Previous work has shown
90 applications toward measuring weather patterns [3], diag-
91 nosing illness [4], tracking earthquakes [5], providing user
92 recommendations [6], exploring plans of action in crises [7],
93 detecting security risks [8], and describing obesity patterns [9].
94 Part of social media network’s advantage is the relatively
95 openness and ease of collection of data, which, unlike tradi-
96 tional websites, are created by a larger population of users
97 whose demographics are more representative of the general
98 population [10].

99 One way that social media network data can be represented
100 is as a set of sensors, where each user is a noisy sensor [4], [5].
101 That is, instead of reporting numerical data like traditional
102 sensors do, social media network users report textual data
103 which must be preprocessed before statistical methods can be
104 applied. Simple keyword analysis—a mainstay of modern text
105 analysis—can be problematic when applied to big datasets. For
106 example, Google Flu Trends’ system of applying text analy-
107 sis to search queries has been shown to over estimate ground
108 truth influenza rates [11], [12]. In this paper, we employ topic
109 modeling to avoid the worst case scenario of an exhaustive
110 search of keyword-phenomena relations.

111 B. Topic Modeling

112 Topic modeling is a way to algorithmically derive topics
113 from unstructured documents of text. Modern work has been
114 focused on latent Dirichlet allocation (LDA) and its deriva-
115 tives [13]–[15]. LDA works by determining clusters of words
116 in a document to determine “topics” through a Bayesian pro-
117 cess. These topics can be represented by the words that,
118 statistically, best describe the cluster. It has been shown that
119 LDA can be used to detect topics in datasets such as Wikipedia
120 articles [16], [17], scientific literature [18], spam classifica-
121 tion [19], news analysis [20], and tweeting behavior [9], [21].
122 In this paper, we demonstrate that the set of topics gen-
123 erated by topic modeling algorithms are indeed statistically
124 valid approximations of events. We further show that by min-
125 ing these event-phenomena patterns, researchers can discover
126 events strongly related to phenomena of interest.

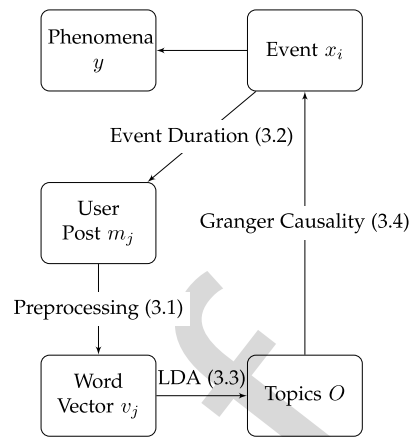


Fig. 1. High-level description of our system to transform a social media network stream into hypotheses about a real world event.

C. Knowledge Management in Energy Systems

127 Smart grids use communication to facilitate context aware-
128 ness and cooperation across much wider areas than previous
129 power grid system [22]. Among the initiatives to introduce
130 smart grids are the advance metering infrastructure [23], [24]
131 for metering in the distribution system, demand pricing, IEC
132 61 850 substation automation [25], the wide area manage-
133 ment system [25], [26] for wide-area PMU measurement, and
134 the North American synchrophasor initiative [27] that uses
135 wide-area utility communication. Smart grid operations rely
136 on periodic collection of data through sensors followed by
137 processing the data.
138

139 The technology provided by a smart grid is valuable for
140 reducing or predicting large spikes in electricity utilization.
141 For example, by coordinating households to not perform high
142 power usage activities concurrently. However, the smart grid
143 has not yet been widely implemented. This paper has focused
144 on methods to study nonsmart grid data to study either high-
145 level usage patterns, such as total energy consumption in a city,
146 low-level usage patterns to measure device level energy con-
147 sumption, or placement of systems based on simulation [28].
148 It would be difficult to generalize high-level measurements to
149 work at a finer grain because real-time electric consumption
150 sensors are typically deployed on a station or node level. Thus
151 analysis is limited to events that impact a large area, such as
152 the temperature or time of day [29]–[35]. Low-level, device-
153 based measurements have been proposed as a method to
154 disaggregate high-level power consumption patterns [36]–[38].
155 These sensor networks have the advantage of providing device-
156 level information and bypassing the need to rely on a power
157 company for data. However, these are expensive to implement
158 and require installation of hardware in the study participant’s
159 house, limiting the amount of data that can be collected.

160 To demonstrate the practicality of our system in real life
161 applications, we consider applying our system of automated
162 event detection to provide a novel system of energy usage
163 disaggregation which can take high-level, publicly available
164 power consumption records and generate valid hypotheses
165 about behaviors that affect this consumption. For a graphi-
166 cal description of our methods (see Fig. 1). First, we clean

167 textual social media network streams. Then we use LDA on
 168 the cleaned text to detect topics. These topics are then used as
 169 the basis for hypotheses about a real-world event. These topics
 170 are then tested for statistical significance. Validated hypotheses
 171 are then reported.

172 III. SOCIAL MEDIA NETWORK ELECTRICITY 173 UTILIZATION METHODOLOGY

174 In this section, we propose using large-scale social media
 175 network data as method of tracking a subset of events that
 176 are relevant to the social media network users, \mathbf{X} . That is,
 177 exposure to a particular event $x_i \in \mathbf{X}$ may induce a user to post
 178 a message m at time j , m_j on a social media network. Here, we
 179 assume m_j to be text-based. That is, it can be represented with
 180 a word vector v_j , derived from the raw message m_j . While it is
 181 easy for a user to map $x_i \rightarrow m_j$ (for example, “I need to do my
 182 laundry”), it may be hard to reverse this mapping, at least in
 183 a machine processable manner. Since our goal is to generate
 184 these x_i to test against phenomena, in this case: electricity
 185 usage, we must approach this mapping in an indirect fashion.
 186 Thus, we develop topic models from these word vectors where
 187 we assume a topic o is an approximation to event x_i for some i .
 188 Later, we provide an empirically tested and validated analysis
 189 of this assumption (see Section V). This allows us to map
 190 $m_j \rightarrow v_j \rightarrow o \rightarrow x_i$, effectively reversing the mapping of
 191 $x_i \rightarrow m_j$ in an unsupervised manner. Thus, we are able to
 192 formulate and validate statements of the form “ x_i is related to
 193 phenomenon y ” without prior knowledge about x_i .

194 A. Cleaning Raw Social Media Network Data

195 Social media network data are commonly described as
 196 extremely noisy [3], [5], [39], requiring intensive cleaning of
 197 the social media network stream as a necessary first step. We
 198 do this by converting a string of characters into a list of n -
 199 grams—pairs of up to n contiguous words (see Algorithm 1).
 200 The n -grams are determined by tokenizing the string on all
 201 nonalphabetical characters. Since capitalization can be erratic
 202 in social media networks, the n -grams are then converted to
 203 lowercase. As the objective of this step is to derive topics
 204 instead of keywords, we stem each of these words using porter
 205 stemming [40]. This maps words with similar stems but with
 206 different suffixes to the same keyword. For example, “accept,”
 207 “accepting,” and “acceptance” are all mapped to the same
 208 keyword, accept.

209 This list of n -grams is expected to follow a long-tail distribu-
 210 tion [41], resulting in the likelihood that some are too common
 211 or too rare to be valuable in the analysis. Common words such
 212 as “the,” “is,” and “and” give little or no information about
 213 the text and could overshadow other, more descriptive, words
 214 that do not occur as frequently [13], [17], [42]. Thus common
 215 words, as defined by Lewis *et al.*'s [42] *stop list*, are removed
 216 from the list of n -grams. On the other hand, if a word is too
 217 rare, it may not occur enough for any inferences about it to
 218 be generalizable. Since the distribution of n -grams has a long-
 219 tail, most words will be too rare. Thus there is the potential
 220 of these very-rare n -grams to lower our ability to generate
 221 inferences about *any* n -grams [4], [17], [41]. This problem

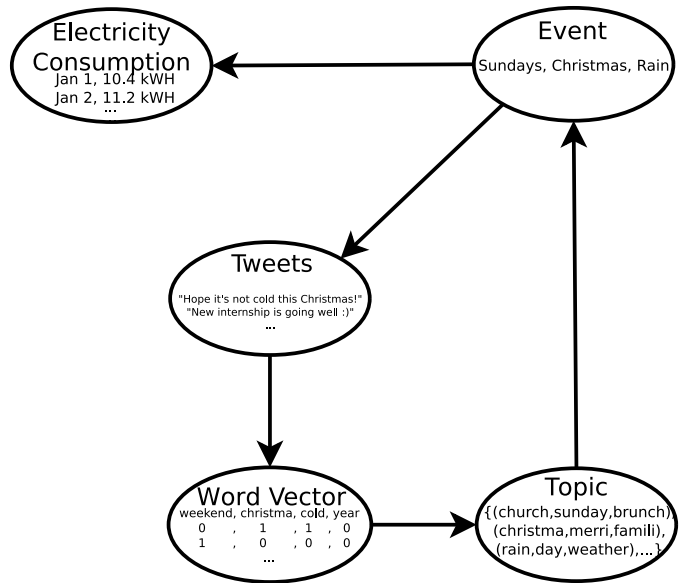


Fig. 2. Implementation of our theoretical model (see Fig. 1) for our case study.

is addressed by removing any n -grams that occur less than c 222
 223 times [4], [17], [20], [41], [42]. However, previous work tends
 224 to be somewhat vague on how to determine c , often incorpo-
 225 rating expert knowledge to determine c . Here, we determine
 226 c algorithmically.

To determine c , first begin with the distribution of n -gram 227
 228 counts. That is, f_m is the number of n -grams that occur exactly
 229 m times each in the dataset. We then iteratively test each value
 230 for $c > 0$ until we find the minimum value for c such that

$$\frac{f_c}{\sum_{m=c+1}^{\infty} f_m} < \delta_{\min} \quad (1) \quad 231$$

where δ_{\min} is a user defined stopping threshold. Thus, we 232
 233 define rare words as words that occur less than δ times
 234 and remove them—a necessary step for preprocessing for
 235 LDA [17].

Note that we specifically do not remove keywords related 236
 237 to URLs as they may provide additional information about the
 238 user’s activity. For example, tweets containing a link copied
 239 from a Web browser are likely to include “http” which may be
 240 less common on mobile users. Alternatively, links with “4sq”
 241 (reduced to “sq” when numerics are removed) are sent through
 242 four square’s—a popular location check-in service—mobile
 243 application, informing us that the user is more likely visiting
 244 a location outside of his or her house.

245 B. Pairing Real World and Social Media Network Data

246 Social media network data can be updated on a millisecond
 247 level; however, it is rare for real-world events to be reported
 248 at such a temporal resolution. Additionally, it is unlikely that
 249 a single social media network message contains significant,
 250 relevant information about the real-world event we want to
 251 study, or if it does, they are exceedingly rare. We address this
 252 discrepancy by normalizing the social media network data to
 253 the real-world data’s time scale. That is, we define a document

Algorithm 1: Preprocessing Steps for Social Media Network Data

Data: Time tagged Messages \mathbf{M}
Result: A set of aggregated and processed messages \mathbf{D}
 d_q = document of keywords at time q ;
 $count_{word}$ = frequency of “word” in all documents;
 \mathbf{W} = set of all known stemmed words;
for $m_j \in \mathbf{M}$ **do**
 Break m_j into substrings on non-alphabetical characters $\wedge[a - zA - Z]$;
 j = hour m_j was posted;
for non-empty Substring \mathbf{S} in m_j **do**
 convert \mathbf{S} to lowercase;
 stem \mathbf{S} using porter stemmer;
 add \mathbf{S} to \mathbf{W} ;
 push \mathbf{S} onto d_j ;
 $counts$ ++;
end
end
for word \mathbf{S} in \mathbf{W} **do**
if $counts < \delta_{min}$ **then**
 Remove \mathbf{S} from each d_j ;
 Remove \mathbf{S} from \mathbf{W} ;
end
end

d_j to be the aggregation of all processed social media network messages v_j (as derived from m_j) that occur in during the timespan between the q th real-world event x_q and the next event, x_{q+1} . More formally

$$d_j = \{v_j | \text{time}(x_q) \leq \text{time}(m_j) < \text{time}(x_{q+1})\} \quad (2)$$

where v_j is the n -gram representation of message m_j and $\text{time}(e)$ is the time when e occurs. For example, if one is looking at temperature data that is reported on an hourly basis, a document would be all posts that occur within that hour. Algorithm 1 outlines how these messages are processed into word vectors, and subsequently aggregated into a document. It would be unreasonable to assume that a user posts a message *exactly* when the event happens. Instead, it is likely that the user posts about an event sometime *before*, *during*, or *after* the time that the event occurs. This issue is partially addressed when the data is aggregated, because all message after an event, but before the next, will be combined, regardless of lag between event and message.

Additionally, data can be paired based on geospatial information, such as which zip code the message occurred in. This is dependent on the dataset describing the phenomena y and the social media network messages $m_j \in \mathbf{M}$ both containing comparable location data. Caution should be advised if arbitrary spatial units are defined: the “modifiable areal unit problem” can bias results from geospatial aggregation and remains an open problem [43], [44].

C. Generating Topic Models

A given set of documents defined by the aggregation described above can be used to generate topics through

Algorithm 2: LDA Algorithm in the Context of the Proposed Social Media Network Model

Data: set of Documents \mathbf{D} , topics \mathbf{O}
Result: a $|\mathbf{W}| \times |\mathbf{O}|$ matrix
for Document $d \in \mathbf{D}$ **do**
for Word $w \in d$ **do**
 $w_{topic} = \text{Random topic} \in \{0, \dots, |\mathbf{O}|\}$;
end
end
for Step in $\{1, \dots, \text{stop point}\}$ **do**
for Document $d \in \mathbf{D}$ **do**
for word $w \in d$ **do**
for topic $o \in \{0, \dots, |\mathbf{O}|\}$ **do**
 $P(o|d) = \frac{|w \in d \text{ where } w_{topic} = o|}{|\mathbf{W} \in d|}$;
 $P(w|o) = \frac{|\mathbf{W} \in D \text{ where } w_{topic} = o|}{|\mathbf{W} \in D|}$;
end
 Assign w_{topic} based on $P(w|o) \times P(o|d)$.
end
end
end

LDA. We use Gibbs sampling [17], [18] implemented by JGibbLDA [17] to perform this analysis. LDA determines the probability of a document being about a topic given that it contains a set of n -grams [13], [17], [18]. To do this, LDA first generates clusters of words based on co-occurrence in the documents. That is, the probability of a word w occurring given that a document is in topic o_w . To represent these topics in a human readable form (for example, in Tables I and II), we present the set of words that have the highest probability of occurring within the topic. In other words, the topics can be expressed as a $|\mathbf{W}| \times |\mathbf{O}|$ matrix, where \mathbf{W} is the vocabulary found in Section III-A and \mathbf{O} are the topics generated by the LDA model such that $\mathbf{o} \in \mathbf{O}$. Each entry in this matrix corresponds to the probability of that word belonging to that topic. LDA works according to Algorithm 2. Note that the stop point is selected as 2000, the default of JGibbLDA as proposed by Heinrich [45]. This algorithm uses as input each of the aggregated Documents from Algorithm 1 to generate \mathbf{O} topics.

The probabilities contained in this matrix can be reversed using Bayes’ theorem to determine the probability that a document is in topic o given that it contains a set of keywords. Since each document has a related time component, we can say that the probability of a document being in o varies over time. By considering the likelihood of all topics over all documents, we can observe the changing interests of the population of users over time. Each of these topics are the basis of a question: “Question: Is the i th event x_i (as inferred from topic o) related to real world phenomena y ?”

D. Determining Event-Phenomena Causality

In Section III-C, we outlined the method to generate topics—which we later show in Section IV-C to be statistically

Algorithm 3: Mapping Topics to Effects

Data: Documents D and Topics O from Algorithms 1 and 2

Result: Granger Causal Topics

```

for document  $d \in D$  do
  for topic  $o \in O$  do
     $TS_{o,d}$  = rate of  $o$  in  $d$ 
  end
end
for  $o \in O$  do
  Significance = Granger ( $TS_o$ , PowerUsage);
  if Significance then
    Print  $o$ ;
  end
end

```

valid approximations of events—from social media network and determined the frequency of each topic at a given time. Next, we explore the patterns of each of these events over time. That is, combining all frequencies of an event over time results in a time series to be compared to the real world phenomena. Some topics, such as *Christmas*, *hating Mondays*, or *having lunch* will display cyclical patterns while other events, such as ones about a *hurricane* or a *concert*, may be one-time, anomalous events.

The event’s time series can be compared to the document time series related to the real-world phenomena through cross-correlation (see Algorithm 3). That is, by matching events frequencies and real world phenomena by their time, can we find any relations between the two variables? This is defined by the Pearson’s rank correlation where each point is a pairing of event frequencies and real world phenomena. The system does not filter by positive or negative correlation: a strong negative relationship between an event and a real world event can be just as interesting as a positive one. While these correlations may be strong, they do not necessarily imply a causal link.

While we do consider a correlative analysis between automatically detected events and electricity consumption, there is also an interest in determining which—if any—of the behaviors have a causal relationship on the electricity rates. Detecting strong causality through an uncontrolled, observational study without an external model of the system is impossible. Hence, we focus on detecting Granger causality [46], [47], a less stringent form of causal testing. Simply put, “correlation does not imply causality” because there may be a third phenomena that influences both, or if there is a causal relation between the two phenomenas, it is impossible to tell which one causes the other without external information. Granger causality addresses the second issue by employing lagged data. This aids in establishing a causal relationship by testing not only the synchronous variables, but measuring if the lagged data aids in the explanatory power of the model. That is, can information about phenomena y at time t (y_t) be inferred by a behavior x at time $t - t'$, for some positive value of t' ? If it can, then we at least know which direction causality

Algorithm 4: Computational Complexity of This Methodology

input : Social Media Posts

output: Predictions

Social Media Posts arrive: $\mathcal{O}(1)$;

Preprocessing: $\mathcal{O}(m)$ where m = number of posts;

topics \leftarrow Generate Topics (LDA): $\mathcal{O}(Nm^2)$ (see alg 2);

CausalTopics \leftarrow Granger (topics) $\mathcal{O}(Len(\text{topics}))$;

is flowing. To control for auto-correlative effects, the standard model compares an auto-correlation model of the predicted phenomena y

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \beta_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + \beta_{(\text{lag}_{\max})} y_{(t-\text{lag}_{\max})} \quad (3)$$

where lag_{\max} is the maximum lag considered in the model, determined by maximum likelihood estimation. We then add the lagged components from an event’s trend x_i to the formula

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \beta_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + \beta_{(\text{lag}_{\max})} y_{(t-\text{lag}_{\max})} + \beta_{(2+\text{lag}_{\max})} x_{i,t-1} + \dots + \beta_{(2*\text{lag}_{\max})} x_{i,(t-\text{lag}_{\max})}. \quad (4)$$

The predictive power of these two models is compared by performing a t-test on the errors between the two models. If we find that (4) performs better than (3), then it is because knowledge about this second event informs us about the future state of the target phenomena. While this is still not a test for true causality, Granger [46] have argued that it is a step in that direction. Note that Granger causality does not control for a third phenomena, which influences both the i th x in question, x_i , and y , other than guaranteeing that it occurs at some point before y . Indeed, in our case, we assume that a behavior influences both x_i —tweeting about the risk factor—and y —later power consumption due to the behavior. This method of dual time series analysis has two benefits: it quantifies how long of a lag is meaningful, and determines which sampled topics are significant.

This Granger causal test allows us to quantify the causal relationship between a phenomenon (a change in power usage) and an event (as represented by one or more social media topics). This causality measurement is the primary method of establishing causality implemented in this methodology. Social media posts can be processed into topics ahead of time, and these topics can be detected within new posts in linear time. This also allows these causal relationships to be updated in an online fashion. If the performance of the predictive nature of these causal relationships degrades, a new sample can be drawn and recalculated (see Algorithm 4). This allows us to adapt and use new data instead of relying solely on old data.

E. Validating Event-Phenomena Relationships

At this point, we have generated relationships of the form: “Topic o is related to a real world phenomena y with correlation r_o .” However, if the coefficient of determination, r_o^2 , is small, then any trends detected may not be statistically significant. Thus, we calculate the p -value for each regression. Since the system may test hundreds or thousands of regressions,

Algorithm 5: Topics to Predictions

Data: Significant Time Series S , **PowerUsage** Data
Result: Measurement of Predictive value of Social Media Network data
 Let **PowerUsage** $_h = \mathbf{PowerUsage}$ data lagged by h hours;
 $S_{a,b} = a^{th}$ significant Time Series lagged by b hours;
 Build model $f(S_{a,b}, \mathbf{PowerUsage}_b) = \mathbf{PowerUsage}$;
 Evaluate f on data from subsequent time period;

the traditionally chosen cut off $\alpha = 0.05$ must be corrected. That is, if 100 tests are conducted on randomly generated data, it is likely that five will be reported as false positives. Bonferroni correction [48] was chosen because it does not depend on normal distribution or independence assumptions. Bonferroni correction defines the corrected cut off as $\alpha' = \alpha/n$, where n is the total number of hypotheses tested. This method of correction is more conservative than others, giving more assurance that any hypotheses that do pass the test are valid.

By implementing our system, events can be inferred from social media network data which can inform researchers about real world phenomena, as we will show in Sections IV–V. Finally, we evaluate the predictive value of this methodology as outlined in Algorithm 5 in Section VI.

IV. CASE STUDY

In this section, we demonstrate the feasibility of our system on Twitter data, in order to determine whether topics can help explain a real world energy utilization (see Fig. 1). Specifically, we consider electricity consumption from single-family households in San Diego County from March 3, 2011 to December 31, 2011 and 1.8 million tweets from the same timespan that originated from San Diego County. That is, $\mathbf{M} = \{\text{Tweets in San Diego between March 3, 2011 and December 31, 2011}\}$ and $y = \text{electricity consumption rates in kilowatts}$.

A. Description of Datasets

Electricity consumption data was provided by the San Diego County Gas and Electric Company which supplies power to residents of the San Diego County in southern California. Data was provided on a daily basis for the year 2011 and represents a typical, single-family, residence.¹ Power usage data was discarded before the initial collection of Twitter data on March 3. Since power usage has both a daily cycle and longer-term dynamics (see Fig. 3), we consider both hourly and daily aggregation of the data.

Twitter data was collected between March 3, 2011 and December 31, 2011 through the Twitter API by searching for all tweets with high-resolution geospatial data. Additionally, tweets are filtered to be located within San Diego County as

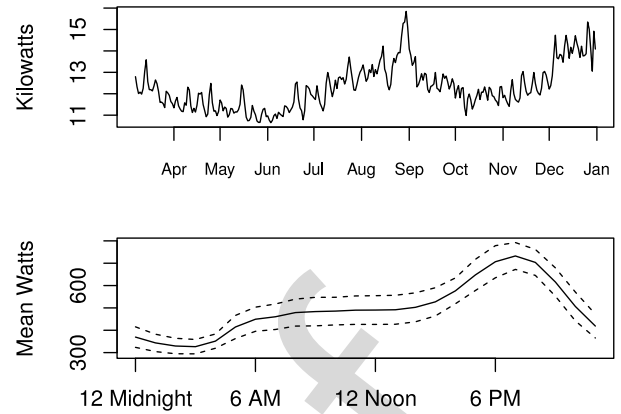


Fig. 3. Mean daily and hourly rates of power consumption for San Diego residents. Dashed lines in hourly graph indicate one standard deviation.

defined by the 2011 TIGER shape file² to match the spatial boundaries of the power data. A total of 1 813 689 tweets matched this criteria. The raw *jsons* returned by the Twitter API were then processed through The Open Twitter Parser³ and stored in a MySQL database for further processing.

B. n -Gram Selection

Next, the Twitter data was cleaned through tokenization, stemming, case-normalization and *stop word* removing, as described in Section III-A. In this case study, we only consider unigrams (n -grams where $n = 1$) for analysis. Only unigrams are considered for several reasons. A higher dimensionality would cause the number of correlations to be calculated to explode. Furthermore, most implementations of LDA only consider unigrams, as topics must be latent relationships between these unigrams. Finally, given that the dataset of length constrained social media posts is studied, it is fairly common for users to discard words, which would severely limit the usefulness of n -grams for $n > 2$. A total of 794 917 unigrams were detected. We set δ_{\min} to one percent and determine that the optimal cut c to be 102, removing any unigrams that occurred less than 102 times in the dataset (see Fig. 6), thus we define δ_{\min} and use this to calculate c , which allows our approach to scale to datasize. This automated selection of c generates comparable results to other papers [16]–[18] that use domain knowledge to choose their cut off, while still allowing for more or less frequencies depending on datasize. This also helps if new samples need to be drawn and tested.

C. Knowledge Discovery of Statistically Relevant Social Media Topics

We now aim to show that these topics are statistically related to the real world events that they describe, as our assumptions in Section III require. As a null hypothesis, we consider that individuals are free to discuss any topic at any time. That is, the probability of a topic being discussed, $P(o)$ does not depend on the time. Instead, if our original assumption is correct, then $P(o|x_i) > P(o)$ for some $o \in O$ and $x_i \in \mathbf{X}$. Hence, a

¹http://www.sdge.com/sites/default/files/documents/Coastal_Single_Family_Jan_1_2011_to_Jan_1_2012.xml

²<http://www.census.gov/geo/www/tiger/tgrshp2011/tgrshp2011.html>

³<https://github.com/ToddBodnar/Twitter-Parser>

TABLE I

WORDS THAT BEST DESCRIBE THE 20 DAILY TOPICS FROM TWITTER THAT OUR SYSTEM DETERMINED TO BE ABOUT POWER USAGE AND THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE TOPIC AND POWER USAGE. NOTE THAT THE TOPICS HAVE BEEN SORTED BY CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

r	Most likely words in the topic
-0.519	job http ly bit ca sandiego tinyurl getalljob www tweetmyjob lt manag electron soni service carlsbad gt ...
-0.480	sq http instagr la gowal ly bit job san diego tinyurl twitpic es lt beach sandiego day great foursquar www ...
-0.344	jobcirl cybercod job ca engin develop hire softwar mesa sale www senior la design manag net voic game web ...
-0.335	work gt dr check street offic fit show diego hour center facebook starbuck art airport media mesa lunch busi ...
-0.301	rt coupon summer spag june caseyanthoni es sandiego lockerz souther em poway doi gov earthquak ...
-0.282	rt lmao june tinyurl spag marathon jonez job getalljob upling samoan rock roll heat damsel untp final show ...
-0.281	weekend spag coupon memori back cri sad hangov disapoint kck justinbeib sandiego es oprah lockerz support ...
-0.247	wednesday fat thrusday muscl free bit weight ur loss hump diet wine market fan friday set eleddieg hot ...
0.201	glass sun auto sprinkler rek rt repair xd replac tcot pancak commanderlov pae coupon del word mar ...
0.211	real pretend jlh thereal point don itsatumblrth year iamlaceyabert laceyoffici handbag design manufactur ...
0.225	jlh frenchfan victoria witter clalovehewitt lol alexandria thereal don rt tweet es coupon ya bcuz camill game ...
0.225	christma cold year dat jus sir final ass wyd bro si lo nba yea smh man dnt crystal twitter laker victoria ...
0.238	yummi day sexi orgasm good morn email hotmail saturn great love beauti school video lick class cum pretti ...
0.254	christma merri famili eve xmas happi holiday santa present lt gift year stephazilla laker church navidad hous ...
0.267	de eu pra um na da se vou mas uma mai meu tem vai em ver happi dia por ele minha person didn beauti ...
0.297	http san diego love good time day don make today back la job ca people haha lol home feel ll wait great ...
0.369	http vista shop plaza valley chula center mall fashion buy bonita peopl mission pkwi store home break work ...
0.410	lt gt lol fuck shit job haha ca dr ass bitch don sandiego nigga hate girl feel love sleep drink ave damn ...
0.418	rek beauti window hurrican coupon iren xd vma video arhhhhjay lt omg storm hot wind gaga kk issu humid ...
0.448	lol christma final holiday dannyboyo partic travcb home laker deniseexclus xmas studi happi andruee ll ...

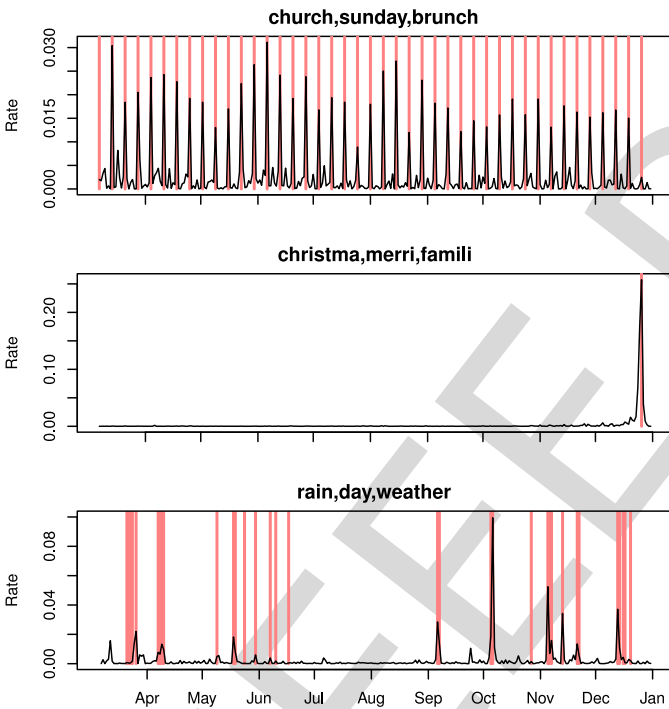


Fig. 4. Temporal patterns for three select topics in black. Chart titles indicate the three most representative words for each topic. Red lines indicate days that are Sundays, Christmas day, and days when it rained, respectively.

topic is being induced by a real world event. To verify this, we would need ground truth data for x_i , which is not necessarily possible to obtain for all possible events i . However, some topics lend themselves to easy validation.

Here, we consider three topics that appear to represent Sundays, Christmas, and rain (see Fig. 4). Sundays were chosen as the first topic for analysis because it was expected to follow clearly defined temporal patterns. Additionally, Sundays are more discrete than Christmas (i.e., are Christmas Eve and Christmas separate events?) or rain (i.e., how much

precipitation is necessary for it to be considered raining?). Christmas was chosen as a topic because it is representative of events that occur only once in our dataset, but with a well defined event time. Indeed, Christmas may be the biggest topic detected, with 25.8% of the Twitter data being about Christmas on Christmas, December 25, and 17.5% on Christmas Eve, December 24. Finally, we considered rain because it lacks the periodicity of the other two topics. Note that the rate of precipitation does not have a strong relationship to spikes in the rain topic, so we discretized weather into days without rain and days with rain, as defined by weather underground.⁴

We can thus calculate the relevant probabilities (see Table I). This means that 80 topics whose correlations are too low are not present in this table. For example, with the topic sunday: $P(o_{\text{sunday}}) = 0.00350$ (as determined by LDA) and $P(o_{\text{sunday}}|x_{\text{sunday}}) = (o_{\text{sunday}} \& x_{\text{sunday}} / x_{\text{sunday}}) = 0.0182$. For completeness, we can use Bayes theorem to determine the probability that it is Sunday given that the topic is about Sunday

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(x_{\text{sunday}}|o_{\text{sunday}}) &= \frac{P(o_{\text{sunday}}|x_{\text{sunday}})P(x_{\text{sunday}})}{P(o_{\text{sunday}})} \\
 &= \frac{0.0182 * 0.15}{0.00350} = 0.728. \quad (5)
 \end{aligned}$$

Since we know what days we sampled from, we know that $P(x_{\text{sunday}}) = (x_{\text{sunday}}/x_{\text{all}}) = 0.14$, which is close to the general occurrences of Sundays, (one out of seven days each week ≈ 0.1429). We find that $p(\text{Event}|\text{Topic})$ is significantly higher than the baseline $P(\text{Event})$, giving evidence toward these automatically generated topics, $o \in O$ having some relation to real world events $x_i \in \mathbf{X}$.

⁴http://www.wunderground.com/history/airport/KSAN/2011/1/1/CustomHistory.html?dayend=31&monthend=12&yearend=2011&req_city=NA&req_state=NA&req_statename=NA

TABLE II
WORDS THAT ARE MOST ASSOCIATED WITH THE 38 HOURLY TOPICS FROM TWITTER THAT
DESCRIBE EVENTS THAT ARE FOUND TO GRANGER CAUSE CHANGES IN POWER USAGE

r	Most likely words in the topic
-0.432	job http sandiego electron ca soni sd sonyjob tweetmyjob engin snei softwar director test alskks develop administr ...
-0.321	lol shit yo lmao work man ass good nigga dat fuck smh tat ya feel dnt de jus bitch bro sleep je wit home est sir tha yea ...
-0.145	watch movi show love time lol good great ll fun tv back night yeah make year peopl awesom episod youtube wait tweet ...
-0.120	job http ca sandiego kaiser nurs tweetmyjob healthcar permanent san diego rn kindr hospit ii amn kinderedjob account ...
-0.106	http esriuc love lol harri ddlovato rt potter time fstk googl good day kooldudestillo pride watch diego rhenderson demi girl ...
-0.086	http rt shop lol great san www diego ad sale love lmao watch june item daili don day back mile summer inventori time good ...
-0.079	http california southern earthquak gov km usg doi june depth usa diego gmt hour ca mi ll good time hand join monday ...
-0.070	http el la ma love day al ya ben de ne play ana ve wait ha lol shit da good hey ni bi man check home ik en ba wo in tweet ...
-0.057	lol haha love stephazilla good lt hahaha time watch don yeah fuck night feel back thing shit girl life wait tomorrow ...
-0.057	victoria witter alexandria teamjhl stillo http clalovehewitt lol stellix don back good yeah tweet beutyqueen gonna ...
-0.041	http del diego san mar la fair beach blvd counti day school jimmi ca camino de pic coronado vall durant time ...
-0.035	http japan www greeney san fukushima good rt time nuclear ur win day tsunami great plixi ipad watch diego bit ...
-0.029	http plaza diego san el citi bonita horton shop nation westfield hlbld cajon ave la parkway camino time de mall dr buy ...
-0.027	charger http game diego san qualcomm football stadium win play raider good team watch fan nfl time river tebow rt sunday ...
-0.021	http diego san coronado beach hotel mission bay st pic pine del torrey resort la ave time spa park foursquar blvd vista ...
-0.011	work make today rt offic ll busi free deal market don great health week stori peopl year school citi pay list design site news ...
-0.003	jhl thereal frenchfan love real jennif clalovehewitt verifi lol hewitt http lt fake account don tweet back good day camill make ...
-0.003	http day lol love diego back don time san ca good final ll class cold make break fuck work night week hate haha xoxo uni ...
0.004	np love song shit make fuck don back real peopl good music lil man girl show listen thing yeah play damn haha rt ...
0.006	job getalljob ca tinyurl sandiego http engin edit manag telecommut concierg clinic assic sleep hotel remot develop web hour ...
0.018	na ko sa hahaha haha mo ako ng ang ka lang pa naman time eh day lol ba nga good si ni oo hehe hahahaha tweet ...
0.023	sleep night bed goodnight tomorrow fuck good dream time tonight wake home asleep hour feel love drunk sweet happi ...
0.027	job http ca general ga poway asi atom sys aeronaut account sandiego tweetmyjob manufactur analysis ii iii bit financi control ...
0.029	te si de la ya tu mi el esta yo como en por lo se es para mas mero hola bien con bueno muy dia una todo ke los saludo pue ...
0.048	de http la enl en los mexico se al del lol es para funal fuck love lt work por con su son home man tv mas twitter ha una las ...
0.077	http juli happi day don cassey caseyanthoni good miss san make sagesummit time firework ll beach life peopl bit ...
0.081	game rt laker lol win http heat play watch team nba fan love final good fuck lt day season bull player ve tonight time kobe ...
0.089	http life ratio live tune proof net diego fit good back time tomorrow html work love guy night em cujo st lol miss watch ...
0.100	rt http time ya love lol day teamfollowback di famili yg make cricket ll wireless ur gt good haha followback yo cool ...
0.143	http obama dead diego bin san good war love news time presid laden rt kill day cnn osama de stop vote happi ...
0.151	http san diego lunch st ave dr pic cafe blvd grill food mexican day burger today mayor taco work foursquar offic ...
0.172	iphon appl steve job app rt live http today don rip twitter wait work feel phone die tattoo life love ipad world yeah io tweet ...
0.175	sq instagr gowal la ly bit twitpic foursquar untp mayor beach trendsmap street lockerz tinyurl www btw picplz year ...
0.184	http today morn breakfast san church diego day cafe coffe night sunday good starbuck park st hour mayor pic ...
0.195	http morn san diego day good today starbuck school earli work coffe st fit oceansid carlsbad happi blvd wake mesa ...
0.210	http san diego st park ave fan street south experi hotel tomorrow intern year ca gaslamp fun ll rememb market space ...
0.226	http san diego st washington ave chicago btwn street el game pizzeria pizza map blvd fort good cajon lefti ...
0.639	san diego http airport intern dr termin harbor back work home hour flight fit earli head line great gate miss begin ...

512 Additionally, some events will show cyclical, daily patterns
513 (see Fig. 5). If the target phenomena also shows similar pat-
514 terns, these hourly events may further help to describe the
515 phenomena.

516 D. Event-Electricity Usage Relationships Detected

517 These automatically determined topics were found to cor-
518 relate with daily power consumption rates with $-0.519 <$
519 $r_i < 0.448$ (see Table I). The topic that correlated most nega-
520 tively with power consumption included unigrams such as
521 “job,” “getalljob,” and “tweetmyjob.” This leads to the first
522 steps of a domain expert investigating that people use less
523 energy at their residence on days when they are at work than
524 days when they are not working. The topic that correlated most
525 positively with power consumption included Levins stemmed
526 unigrams such as “christma,” “holiday,” and “home,” hinting
527 that people consume more electricity around Christmas time.
528 Similarly, the topics that were determined to Granger cause
529 changes in hourly electricity consumption correlated with the
530 current electricity consumption between $-0.432 < r_i < 0.639$
531 (see Table II). As with daily rates, the topic that Granger
532 caused the most decrease in power included unigrams such
533 as tweetmyjob and “sonyjob.”

E. Validation Steps

534
535 With Bonferroni correction for multiple tests, we deter-
536 mined the corrected value for $\alpha = 0.05$ to be $\alpha' =$
537 $\alpha/100 = 0.0005$. Twenty correlations are found to be sig-
538 nificant at this rate (see Table II). While we cannot make
539 any explicit claims about the topics this citation [13] deter-
540 mined to have significant relations to power usage, it has
541 been argued [9], [13], [17], [18] that the most common words
542 in a topic are representative of the inherit meaning of the
543 topic. Here, we present the most significant words for each
544 topic, with select words bolded for easier interpretation. With
545 this interpretation in mind, it appears that the three most
546 negatively correlated topics include activity such as hav-
547 ing a job, posting on Foursquare or Instagram (i.e., things
548 done outside the residence) and job searches. The top three
549 positively correlated topics include topics about Christmas,
550 storms, and surprisingly, a topic consisting of several
551 vulgarities.

552 We found a total of 20 statistically significant correlations
553 between events (as inferred by detected topics) and power
554 consumption. Earlier, we presented the 20 topics that had
555 statistically significant correlations with power consumption
556 (see Table II). However, it is also important to consider topics
557 that are rated with a low coefficient of determination to see if

TABLE III
PROBABILITY OF A TOPIC INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT ON A POTENTIALLY RELATED EVENT

Topic	$p(\text{Topic})$	$p(\text{Topic} \text{Event})$	$p(\text{Event} \text{Topic})$
Sunday	0.00350	0.0182	0.728
Christmas	0.00243	0.256	0.351
Rain	0.0024	0.0137	0.627

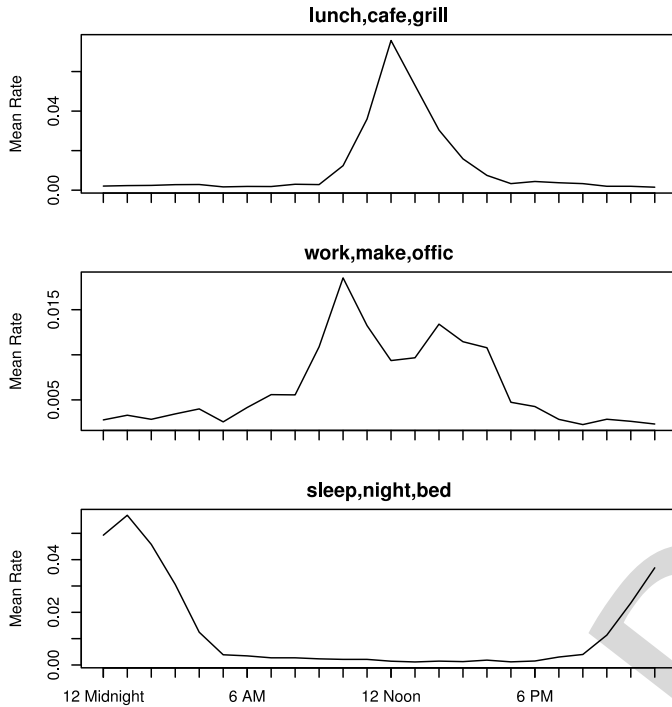


Fig. 5. Mean hourly rate of three select topics. Chart titles indicate three representative words for each topic.

558 they are actually *not* likely to related to residential electricity
 559 consumption. The least related topic’s three most representa-
 560 tive words are “asiathegreat,” “manufactur” and “deal.” It
 561 would appear that these topics are about manufacturing—
 562 perhaps in China—which does not have a direct effect on
 563 residential electricity consumption. The second least related
 564 topic’s three most representative words are “louisseandon,”
 565 “ya,” and “blo.” The third least related contains “justinbieb,”
 566 “It,” and “sagesummit.” These two topics would seem to be
 567 related to news about entertainers Louis Sean Don and Justin
 568 Bieber, which are likely related to entertainment news rather
 569 than electricity consumption.

V. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

571 One may ask “what is the value of this system over tra-
 572 ditional keyword mining or just using expert knowledge?”
 573 While our system allows knowledge discovery with limited
 574 need for expert knowledge, if it does not perform well, then
 575 it is not useful. To justify our system’s existence, we compare
 576 the results of our system to topics common in the power con-
 577 sumption literature. Additionally, we perform keyword mining
 578 to detect words, instead of topics, that are related to electricity
 579 consumption.

TABLE IV
TOPICS GENERATED THROUGH A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, RANKED BY OCCURRENCE IN “NEW & USA” PAPERS

Topic	New & in USA	New	USA
Temperature	4	6	5
Income	3	4	4
Electric Price	3	4	4
Air Conditioner	2	4	5
Heater	2	2	5
Dishwasher	1	2	4
Clothes Dryer	1	2	4
Refrigerator	1	1	2
Water Heater	1	1	3
Building Codes	1	1	1
Own Pool	1	1	1
Own Spa	1	1	1
Lighting	1	1	1
Stove	0	0	3
Freezer	0	0	3
Television	0	0	2
Clothes washer	0	0	1
Wind	0	2	1
Rain	0	1	0
Household Size	0	1	0
Total Papers	7	10	10

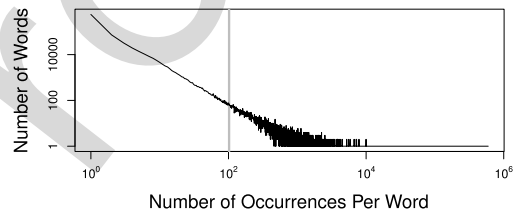


Fig. 6. Distribution of unigrams detected shows a long-tail distribution. The gray line represents the automatically determined cut, w .

A. Comparison to Domain Experts

580 To approximate that knowledge of an expert on power con-
 581 sumption modeling, we perform a literature review. We sample
 582 Google Scholar for 100 papers that appear relevant to our
 583 question. We discard 85 papers which are either inaccessible
 584 (e.g., out of print papers from the ’70s), irrelevant to our topic
 585 (e.g., a paper on building the Nigerian power grid) or do not
 586 explicitly state activities to model (e.g., a paper on synchronizing
 587 houses on a smart grid which filter out the customers
 588 activities). While we could read the papers for other ideas
 589 of important topics, we avoid to because: 1) we risk biasing
 590 the set of topics due to selective reading; 2) if a topic is not
 591 explicitly modeled or measured, we can assume that the expert
 592 does not consider it important; and 3) this literature review is
 593 not designed to collect all relevant topics, just ones that are
 594 common amongst experts.
 595

596 Additionally, we separate papers that are more than 10
 597 years old or do not focus on American populations. While
 598 these papers may contain expert knowledge, our Twitter and
 599 power datasets are based on recent, American usage, which
 600 may be different from older usage patterns or those of citi-
 601 zens of other countries. In total, we find 12 topics from recent
 602 and local papers [30], [31], [33], [34], [49]–[51] and an addi-
 603 tional eight topics from other papers [32], [35], [52]–[57] (see
 604 Table IV). Topics were explicitly presented from the papers

605 by either tables or equations. If we only consider the topics
 606 that occur more than once in the set of recent and local papers
 607 (“temperature,” “income,” “electricity price,” “air conditioner,”
 608 and “heater”), then we can informally detect two clusters
 609 of topics: 1) “climate control” and 2) “economic factors.”
 610 Both of these two topics were also discovered to be signifi-
 611 cant measures of electric consumption through our automated
 612 system.

613 Our system found 20 topics that are related to electricity
 614 consumption. Our literature review also found 20 topics that
 615 are related to electricity consumption. It would seem, however,
 616 that these two methods of knowledge discovery discovered
 617 topics that were different from each other. The literature review
 618 found topics such as temperature or dishwasher usage as inter-
 619 esting topics (see Table IV) while the topic modeling found
 620 topics such as having a hangover on the weekend or going
 621 to the mall as interesting topics (see Table I). This can be
 622 explained by the methods used to collect data. The litera-
 623 ture focuses on things that are easy to measure by traditional
 624 sensors. However, we use humans as “organic” sensors. This
 625 results in different types of data collected: it is easy to have
 626 a person report that they are going out on the weekend, but
 627 relatively hard to design a sensor to measure this. On the other
 628 hand, a sensor to measure temperature is trivial to acquire, but
 629 it is unlikely for a person to accurately report the temperature
 630 on a regular basis. By focusing on the human element, we
 631 have been able to detect important factors of electricity con-
 632 sumption that were previously overlooked due to limitations
 633 in traditional sensors and domain knowledge.

634 Often times, the elements which can easily be studied by
 635 these experts and events which are present on social media
 636 do not have many commonalities. Discovering these latent
 637 events, processed by human sensors, is one major advantage
 638 of this paper over traditional sensors. For example, humans
 639 might aid in discovering a third variable at work (such as a
 640 football game), which leads to an increase in power consump-
 641 tion, while a more guided approach will tend to be informed
 642 instead by a television. This demonstrates that not only can
 643 we reproduce previous results, but we can also generate novel
 644 hypotheses, as told by human sensors.

645 B. Comparison to Keyword Analysis

646 We also consider algorithmically generating keywords
 647 instead of topics. First the text is cleaned through stemming
 648 and *stop word* removal, equivalent to the methods imple-
 649 mented in our system (see Section III-A). Instead of using
 650 topic modeling to filter out irrelevant keywords, we are lim-
 651 ited to just selecting keywords based on their frequency in
 652 the dataset. The $n = 1, 2, \dots, 5000$ most commonly occur-
 653 ring keywords are selected. The keywords are then tested for
 654 relations through cross correlation with the electricity con-
 655 sumption data, the same way that topics were tested for
 656 relations in Sections III-D and III-E. We try different values of
 657 n because if we try too few keywords, important keywords will
 658 be lost, but if we try too many keywords, then, once Bonferroni
 659 correction is applied, there will not be enough statistical power
 660 to detect significant keywords.

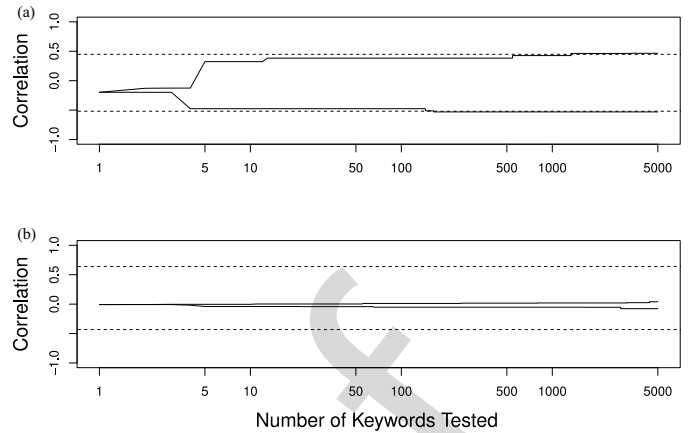


Fig. 7. Strongest positive or negative keyword given a set number of keywords tested. Dashed lines indicate the strongest positive or negative topic detected. Data was aggregated by (a) day or (b) hour.

661 Additionally, we could define words that occur very fre-
 662 quently in our dataset as de-facto stop words and remove
 663 them in addition to the predefined stop word list. However,
 664 we do not do this as the tests in this section are independent
 665 of each other (besides the Bonferroni correction), compared to
 666 the frequency-based methods of our proposed event inference
 667 system, so the gain in statistical power is limited in compar-
 668 ison of the risk of removing strongly predictive keywords.
 669 Finally, we consider the strongest positive and negative rates
 670 of correlation detected for each value of n (see Fig. 7). All
 671 minimum and maximum correlations displayed are significant
 672 at the 0.05 level, even when Bonferroni correction is applied.

673 Testing keywords instead of topics resulted in some correla-
 674 tions when dealing with daily aggregation. However, our
 675 keyword test allows for a number of tests equivalent to the size
 676 of the corpus, which is hard to directly compare against test-
 677 ing 100 topics. When we only consider the top 100 keywords,
 678 we find keywords with the strongest positive correlation to be
 679 “don” with $r = 0.384$ and the keywords with the strongest
 680 negative correlation to be sq with $r = -0.476$. Our system
 681 finds events where the strongest positive correlation is 0.448
 682 and the strongest negative correlation of -0.519 , a 16.7% and
 683 9.03% improvement, respectively. While keyword-based mod-
 684 els do provide some information for daily prediction, hourly
 685 prediction does not seem well suited for keyword analysis with
 686 correlations ranging between -0.074 and 0.004 , limiting the
 687 usefulness of previous methods for fine-grained prediction.
 688 Comparatively, our system which finds topics that match
 689 power usage with correlations between -0.432 and 0.639
 690 resulting in an increase of explained variance of up to 41%.

691 VI. PREDICTING FUTURE ELECTRICAL CONSUMPTION

692 Up to this point we have only considered individual top-
 693 ics to predict the phenomena. Here, we consider multivariable
 694 regression based on lagged predictive variables to predict
 695 hourly power usage (see Algorithm 5). As a baseline,
 696 we consider a 12-variable auto-correlation model where
 697 the maximum lag of 12 was determined through maxi-
 698 mum likelihood estimation. We then compare this model to

TABLE V
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR MODELS USING AUTO-CORRELATION, TOPICS, OR A SUBSET OF ATTRIBUTES

	Auto-Corr	Topics	Auto-Corr + Topics	Subset
Training Set	0.9515	0.9430	0.9788	0.9777
5-fold CV	0.9510	0.9116	0.9670	0.9682
80%/20%	0.9313	0.7152	0.9003	0.9632

TABLE VI
ROOT MEAN SQUARE ERRORS FOR MODELS USING AUTO-CORRELATION, TOPICS, OR A SUBSET OF ATTRIBUTES

	Auto-Corr	Topics	Auto-Corr + Topics	Subset
Training Set	39.6508	42.9102	26.3846	27.0747
5-fold CV	39.8758	53.2473	32.8872	32.2713
80%/20%	51.7108	121.166	66.3104	34.9691

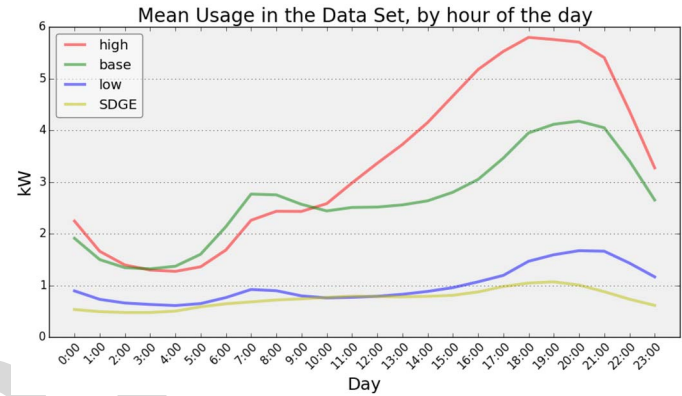
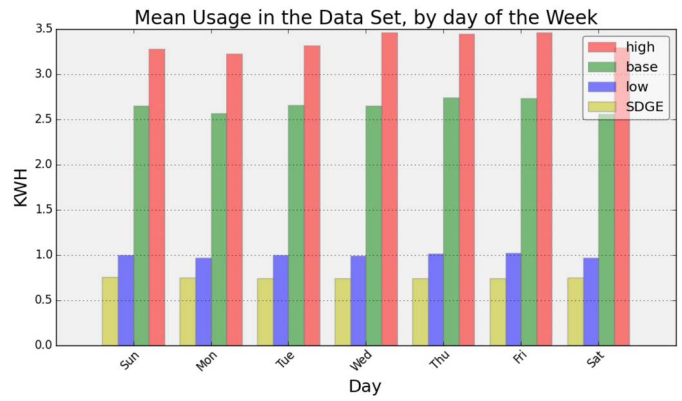


Fig. 8. Periodicity of SDGE provided energy data, compared to TMY3 simulated data.

three models: a multivariable regression on the detected topics, a multivariable regression on the 38 topics that were found to have a Granger causal relationship to electricity consumption and the auto-correlation model, and the second model with a subset of the attributes used. Which attributes are retained in the third model are selected through removing attributes with the smallest coefficients and refitting the model until AIC no longer improves.

We now determine the accuracy of each model by determining the correlation coefficient for either through traditional statistical methods, fivefold cross validation, or a 80%/20% test-train split. The 80%/20% test-train split is performed on data that is ordered by time where the fivefold cross validation is performed on randomly ordered data. We find that at least one of our models out perform the base-line in all three evaluation methods. Importantly, the 80%/20% test-train split represents the most realistic case of predicting future electricity usage, and our model provides an additional 4.28% explanation of electricity usage. These results can be seen in Tables V and VI.

A. Comparison With U.S. DOE Model

The U.S. Department of Energy provides Commercial and Residential hourly load profiles for typical meteorological year (TMY3) locations around the United States. These simulated values are derived from a combination of weather data from the National Solar Radiation Database,⁵ regional climate-specific information (cold/very cold, hot-dry/mixed-dry, hot-humid, marine, and mixed-humid), and load profile type (high, base, and low) which define physical building characteristics such as home size, layout, insulation type, heating fuel source, and occupants. These simulations take into account very detailed electricity demands, (e.g., heat output by showers and dishwasher temperature point) and provide an hourly demand of an average household in each of hundreds of sites around the United States. Incorporating all of this information, this model presents a year-agnostic estimation of the hourly electricity usage of households across the country. That is, the model does not differentiate between 1 A.M., January 1, 2011, and 1 A.M. January 1, 2012. Rather, it assumes each hour is the same. The DOE has made this model

publicly available for researchers seeking to predict energy demands across U.S. Cities.⁶

To test the efficacy of the TMY3 models in simulating the real world energy use of the San Diego area, we compared the TMY hourly use with the SDGE-provided data from Section IV. The TMY3 data is considered the base-line model, with the SDGE data representing the ground truth. Since the TMY3 data is year agnostic, variations in energy use due to severe weather events (as opposed to seasonality), and date-specific periodicity (weekends and weekdays) will not be included. These differences can be seen in Fig. 8. While the SDGE data is lower in magnitude than the TMY3 load profiles, the general trends of the data are reflected best by the *base* model, which carries an hourly correlation coefficient of 0.7544 and an RMSE of 130 when used as input for a linear regression of the SDGE data.

Next, TMY3 data is used to predict monthly SDGE electricity usage. The monthly usage data is provided by SDGE, aggregated across customers in each zip code.⁷ This data is shown in Fig. 9. Note that since the TMY3 is year agnostic, the data will repeat on an annual cycle. Once again, the magnitude of each of the load models is higher than the aggregate data provided. When analyzed against the real monthly data for San Diego homes, no single model consistently correlates better than the others, with the *high* model performing best

⁶<http://en.openei.org/datasets/dataset/commercial-and-residential-hourly-load-profiles-for-all-tmy3-locations-in-the-united-states>

⁷<https://energydata.sdge.com/>

⁵<https://mapsbeta.nrel.gov/nsrdb-viewer>

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TABLE VII
 ρ AND RMSE FOR EACH TMY MODEL

year	ρ			RMSE		
	high	base	low	high	base	low
2012	0.65	0.21	0.59	121.4	156.3	129.3
2013	0.58	0.81	0.79	63.6	45.5	47.5
2014	0.82	0.78	0.93	40.7	45.1	27.2
Aggregated	0.61	0.43	0.64	83.5	94.8	80.1

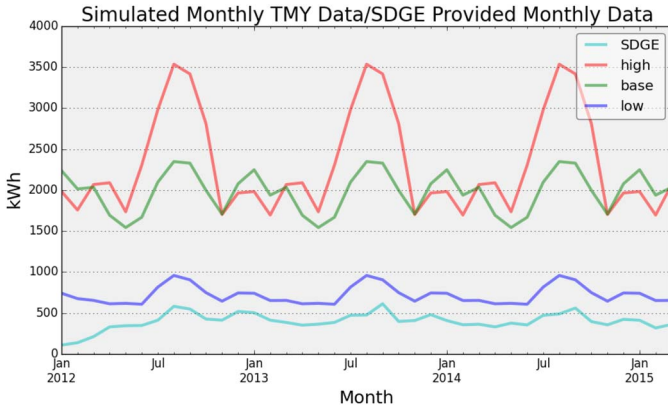


Fig. 9. TMY3 data, aggregated by month, compared with SDGE monthly data.

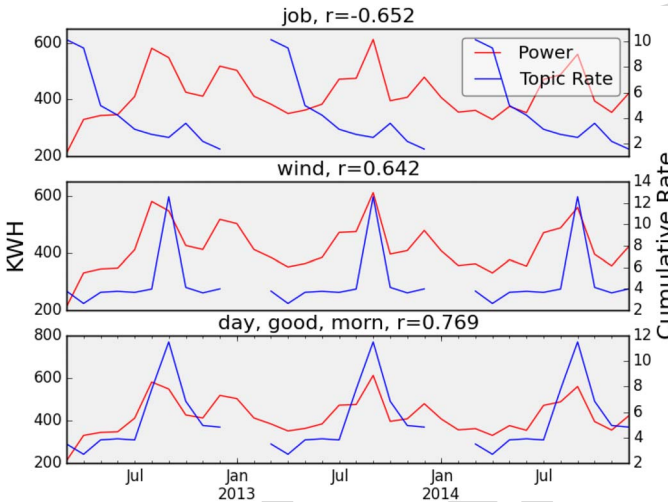


Fig. 10. Topic rates for three sample topics. Note the recurrence of the topic rate, as the topics were analyzed for 1 year only.

in 2012, *base* in 2013, and *low* in 2014. These same models possess the lowest RMSE on a yearly basis, as seen in Table VII.

Finally, we demonstrate that our proposed social media model outperforms the TMY3 model, given the same ground truth (SDGE data), by using the topic models and frequencies from Sections IV–VI. As with the TMY3 data, we assumed that each topic frequency is repeated for that same hour and date on all subsequent years. Similar to Fig. 4, these cumulative topic rates by month can be seen in Fig. 10. Next, these topics were aggregated on a monthly basis, the significance of each topic was tested, and the Bonferroni correction applied, leaving 13 topics whose $p < 0.05/100$. Finally, we

used these frequencies as input in a regression model for March–December of each year. This model yielded an RMSE of 43.6 when applied to this time period, which outperforms the linear regression performance of the best TMY3 data in Table VII, whose best models RMSE was 80.1, an 83%.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed a theoretical backing to our design (see Section III), which assumed a link between: 1) events and text; 2) text and word vectors; 3) word vectors and topics; 4) topics and events; and 5) events and real-world phenomena. We now provide evidence of these relations. Previous work [9], [39] has verified that events cause users to post on social media networks. Similarly, the conversion of text into word vectors has previously been discussed [4], [17], [20], [41], [42]. The most likely words are cohesive within each topic and have large between-topic variation (see Table I). Thus it is likely that topics can be generated from social media network text using LDA [14], [15]. We choose three topics that contain words related to Sundays, Christmas, and storms. By studying the temporal patterns of each topic, we find a relationship between the storm topic and the days with “rain” events in San Diego, the Sunday topic to be most often discussed on Sundays, and the Christmas topic to trend during December (see Fig. 4). Finally, we show a relationship between our discovered events and energy consumption through statistical analysis (see Table II). Hence, we conclude that there is evidence for our assumptions on links, at least when applied to our case study.

We presented a novel form of semi-supervised knowledge discovery that infers events from topics generated from social media network data. These events are then used to form hypotheses about real-world phenomena which are then validated. To provide support for our case, we perform a case study where Twitter data is used to predict electricity consumption rates. The results are then compared to topics generated by domain experts and keyword analysis. We find that our system detects events tangential to what the literature is currently focused on and that our system outperforms an equivalent keyword analysis by up to 16.7%. When combined with time-series modeling, we are able to predict electricity consumption with correlations of up to 0.9788 and a mean absolute error of 19.84 watts—less than the energy consumption of a single light bulb. Finally, we compared the performance of this model to the models generated by the DOE for the San Diego area, and found it to be more accurate.

Future work may consider a more robust comparison of this model against other existing models, since several such models exist. Additionally, this model might be employed for a more directed event detection, as described in the introduction. The textual analysis in this paper could be augmented by considering synonyms and related concepts through word embedding which groups similar words together automatically. Additionally, other data modalities might also be considered, such as images, videos, and social media metadata. Since there is a spatial component of this data, future work may also analyze similar data for a different part of the country, to

833 determine if the trends we have identified hold true elsewhere.
 834 Finally, it may prove fruitful to analyze a similar methodology
 835 for other utilities such as water.

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Using Large-Scale Social Media Networks as a Scalable Sensing System for Modeling Real-Time Energy Utilization Patterns

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I. INTRODUCTION

Abstract—The hypothesis of this paper is that topics, expressed through large-scale social media networks, approximate electricity utilization events (e.g., using high power consumption devices such as a dryer) with high accuracy. Traditionally, researchers have proposed the use of smart meters to model device-specific electricity utilization patterns. However, these techniques suffer from scalability and cost challenges. To mitigate these challenges, we propose a social media network-driven model that utilizes large-scale textual and geospatial data to approximate electricity utilization patterns, without the need for physical hardware systems (e.g., such as smart meters), hereby providing a readily scalable source of data. The methodology is validated by considering the problem of electricity use disaggregation, where energy consumption rates from a nine-month period in San Diego, coupled with 1.8 million tweets from the same location and time span, are utilized to automatically determine activities that require large or small amounts of electricity to accomplish. The system determines 200 topics on which to detect electricity-related events and finds 38 of these to be valid descriptors of energy utilization. In addition, a comparison with electricity consumption patterns published by domain experts in the energy sector shows that our methodology both reproduces the topics reported by experts, while discovering additional topics. Finally, the generalizability of our model is compared with a weather-based model, provided by the U.S. Department of Energy.

Index Terms—Event detection, Granger causality, predictive models, social network services, unsupervised learning.

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SOCIAL media network models have the potential to serve as dynamic, ubiquitous sensing systems that serve as an approximation of physical sensors with the added benefits of: 1) being scalable; 2) publicly available; and 3) having lower setup and maintenance cost, compared to certain physical sensors (e.g., smart meters or smart plugs). Each day, social media services such as Twitter, Facebook, and Google, process anywhere between 12 terabytes (10^{12}) [1] to 20 petabytes (10^{15}) [2] of data, making them suitable for large-scale data mining and knowledge discovery. The ability of individuals within a social media network to: 1) detect a phenomenon; 2) observe and interpret a phenomenon; and 3) report the impact of the phenomenon back to the social media network in a timely and efficient manner, highlights the potential for social media networks to be perceived as large-scale sensor networks. However, as with many large-scale sensor systems, the fundamental challenge is separating signal from noise. The conventional wisdom has been that in order to accurately understand a complex phenomenon (e.g., energy utilization patterns), complex sensors are required (e.g., smart meters) to sense, collect data, and make inferences in real time. This paper aims to challenge these conventional paradigms of social media networks and physical sensor systems by demonstrating the viability of social media networks to be used as dynamic, ubiquitous sensing systems that provide comparable level of information and knowledge, to physical sensor systems setup to achieve similar objectives.

In this paper, we propose a system that automatically generates and tests relationships between topics on social media network and electricity usage pattern. These topics are then used to predict future electricity use or test Granger causal links between the topics and the usage. This Granger causality is used to validate these links. We consider a case study where our methods are applied to energy use disaggregation using social media network data. That is, can our system discover interesting relations in social media networks that trend with electricity consumption rates? We then compare the topics that our system detects to be valid against actual topics chosen by an expert in the energy domain or against keywords mined directly from the dataset. We find that, in addition to other topics, our system replicates the topics chosen by an expert. Furthermore, a direct comparison to keyword analysis results in up to a 16.7% improvement in detected correlations

72 (as described in Section V-B). Finally, a comparison with a
73 weather-based simulation of homes in cities is considered.

74 In this paper, we provide an implementation, quantitative
75 evaluation, and analysis of this mapping. In Section II, previ-
76 ous work on social media network analysis, topic modeling,
77 and electricity use disaggregation is discussed. In Section III,
78 a formal implementation of this mapping system is provided.
79 In Section IV, a case study is presented where $y = \textit{electricity}$
80 $\textit{consumption rates}$, and \mathbf{X} is statistically derived social
81 media network data. In Section V, this method of hypothe-
82 sis generation is compared against expert-based and machine
83 learning-based hypothesis generation. In Section VI, we test
84 our model’s capability to predict future electricity usage. In
85 Section VII, we conclude.

86 II. PREVIOUS WORK

87 A. Mining Social Media Networks

88 Social media networks are emerging as the next frontier
89 for novel information discovery. Previous work has shown
90 applications toward measuring weather patterns [3], diag-
91 nosing illness [4], tracking earthquakes [5], providing user
92 recommendations [6], exploring plans of action in crises [7],
93 detecting security risks [8], and describing obesity patterns [9].
94 Part of social media network’s advantage is the relatively
95 openness and ease of collection of data, which, unlike tradi-
96 tional websites, are created by a larger population of users
97 whose demographics are more representative of the general
98 population [10].

99 One way that social media network data can be represented
100 is as a set of sensors, where each user is a noisy sensor [4], [5].
101 That is, instead of reporting numerical data like traditional
102 sensors do, social media network users report textual data
103 which must be preprocessed before statistical methods can be
104 applied. Simple keyword analysis—a mainstay of modern text
105 analysis—can be problematic when applied to big datasets. For
106 example, Google Flu Trends’ system of applying text analy-
107 sis to search queries has been shown to over estimate ground
108 truth influenza rates [11], [12]. In this paper, we employ topic
109 modeling to avoid the worst case scenario of an exhaustive
110 search of keyword-phenomena relations.

111 B. Topic Modeling

112 Topic modeling is a way to algorithmically derive topics
113 from unstructured documents of text. Modern work has been
114 focused on latent Dirichlet allocation (LDA) and its deriva-
115 tives [13]–[15]. LDA works by determining clusters of words
116 in a document to determine “topics” through a Bayesian pro-
117 cess. These topics can be represented by the words that,
118 statistically, best describe the cluster. It has been shown that
119 LDA can be used to detect topics in datasets such as Wikipedia
120 articles [16], [17], scientific literature [18], spam classifica-
121 tion [19], news analysis [20], and tweeting behavior [9], [21].
122 In this paper, we demonstrate that the set of topics gen-
123 erated by topic modeling algorithms are indeed statistically
124 valid approximations of events. We further show that by min-
125 ing these event-phenomena patterns, researchers can discover
126 events strongly related to phenomena of interest.

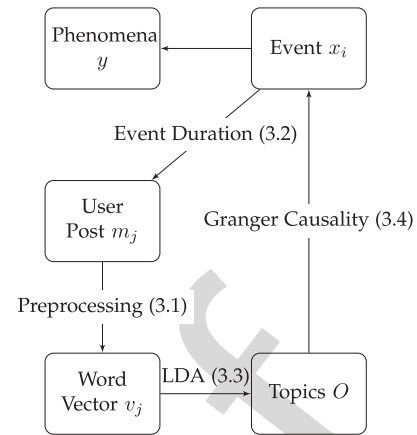


Fig. 1. High-level description of our system to transform a social media network stream into hypotheses about a real world event.

C. Knowledge Management in Energy Systems

127 Smart grids use communication to facilitate context aware-
128 ness and cooperation across much wider areas than previous
129 power grid system [22]. Among the initiatives to introduce
130 smart grids are the advance metering infrastructure [23], [24]
131 for metering in the distribution system, demand pricing, IEC
132 61 850 substation automation [25], the wide area manage-
133 ment system [25], [26] for wide-area PMU measurement, and
134 the North American synchrophasor initiative [27] that uses
135 wide-area utility communication. Smart grid operations rely
136 on periodic collection of data through sensors followed by
137 processing the data.
138

139 The technology provided by a smart grid is valuable for
140 reducing or predicting large spikes in electricity utilization.
141 For example, by coordinating households to not perform high
142 power usage activities concurrently. However, the smart grid
143 has not yet been widely implemented. This paper has focused
144 on methods to study nonsmart grid data to study either high-
145 level usage patterns, such as total energy consumption in a city,
146 low-level usage patterns to measure device level energy con-
147 sumption, or placement of systems based on simulation [28].
148 It would be difficult to generalize high-level measurements to
149 work at a finer grain because real-time electric consumption
150 sensors are typically deployed on a station or node level. Thus
151 analysis is limited to events that impact a large area, such as
152 the temperature or time of day [29]–[35]. Low-level, device-
153 based measurements have been proposed as a method to
154 disaggregate high-level power consumption patterns [36]–[38].
155 These sensor networks have the advantage of providing device-
156 level information and bypassing the need to rely on a power
157 company for data. However, these are expensive to implement
158 and require installation of hardware in the study participant’s
159 house, limiting the amount of data that can be collected.

160 To demonstrate the practicality of our system in real life
161 applications, we consider applying our system of automated
162 event detection to provide a novel system of energy usage
163 disaggregation which can take high-level, publicly available
164 power consumption records and generate valid hypotheses
165 about behaviors that affect this consumption. For a graphi-
166 cal description of our methods (see Fig. 1). First, we clean

167 textual social media network streams. Then we use LDA on
 168 the cleaned text to detect topics. These topics are then used as
 169 the basis for hypotheses about a real-world event. These topics
 170 are then tested for statistical significance. Validated hypotheses
 171 are then reported.

172 III. SOCIAL MEDIA NETWORK ELECTRICITY 173 UTILIZATION METHODOLOGY

174 In this section, we propose using large-scale social media
 175 network data as method of tracking a subset of events that
 176 are relevant to the social media network users, \mathbf{X} . That is,
 177 exposure to a particular event $x_i \in \mathbf{X}$ may induce a user to post
 178 a message m at time j , m_j on a social media network. Here, we
 179 assume m_j to be text-based. That is, it can be represented with
 180 a word vector v_j , derived from the raw message m_j . While it is
 181 easy for a user to map $x_i \rightarrow m_j$ (for example, “I need to do my
 182 laundry”), it may be hard to reverse this mapping, at least in
 183 a machine processable manner. Since our goal is to generate
 184 these x_i to test against phenomena, in this case: electricity
 185 usage, we must approach this mapping in an indirect fashion.
 186 Thus, we develop topic models from these word vectors where
 187 we assume a topic o is an approximation to event x_i for some i .
 188 Later, we provide an empirically tested and validated analysis
 189 of this assumption (see Section V). This allows us to map
 190 $m_j \rightarrow v_j \rightarrow o \rightarrow x_i$, effectively reversing the mapping of
 191 $x_i \rightarrow m_j$ in an unsupervised manner. Thus, we are able to
 192 formulate and validate statements of the form “ x_i is related to
 193 phenomenon y ” without prior knowledge about x_i .

194 A. Cleaning Raw Social Media Network Data

195 Social media network data are commonly described as
 196 extremely noisy [3], [5], [39], requiring intensive cleaning of
 197 the social media network stream as a necessary first step. We
 198 do this by converting a string of characters into a list of n -
 199 grams—pairs of up to n contiguous words (see Algorithm 1).
 200 The n -grams are determined by tokenizing the string on all
 201 nonalphabetical characters. Since capitalization can be erratic
 202 in social media networks, the n -grams are then converted to
 203 lowercase. As the objective of this step is to derive topics
 204 instead of keywords, we stem each of these words using porter
 205 stemming [40]. This maps words with similar stems but with
 206 different suffixes to the same keyword. For example, “accept,”
 207 “accepting,” and “acceptance” are all mapped to the same
 208 keyword, accept.

209 This list of n -grams is expected to follow a long-tail distribu-
 210 tion [41], resulting in the likelihood that some are too common
 211 or too rare to be valuable in the analysis. Common words such
 212 as “the,” “is,” and “and” give little or no information about
 213 the text and could overshadow other, more descriptive, words
 214 that do not occur as frequently [13], [17], [42]. Thus common
 215 words, as defined by Lewis *et al.*’s [42] *stop list*, are removed
 216 from the list of n -grams. On the other hand, if a word is too
 217 rare, it may not occur enough for any inferences about it to
 218 be generalizable. Since the distribution of n -grams has a long-
 219 tail, most words will be too rare. Thus there is the potential
 220 of these very-rare n -grams to lower our ability to generate
 221 inferences about *any* n -grams [4], [17], [41]. This problem

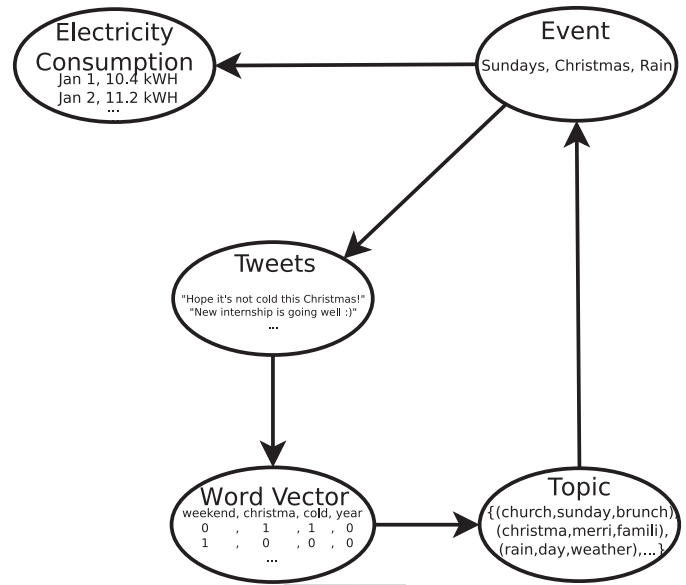


Fig. 2. Implementation of our theoretical model (see Fig. 1) for our case study.

is addressed by removing any n -grams that occur less than c 222
 223 times [4], [17], [20], [41], [42]. However, previous work tends
 224 to be somewhat vague on how to determine c , often incorpo-
 225 rating expert knowledge to determine c . Here, we determine
 226 c algorithmically.

To determine c , first begin with the distribution of n -gram 227
 228 counts. That is, f_m is the number of n -grams that occur exactly
 229 m times each in the dataset. We then iteratively test each value
 230 for $c > 0$ until we find the minimum value for c such that

$$\frac{f_c}{\sum_{m=c+1}^{\infty} f_m} < \delta_{\min} \quad (1) \quad 231$$

where δ_{\min} is a user defined stopping threshold. Thus, we 232
 233 define rare words as words that occur less than δ times
 234 and remove them—a necessary step for preprocessing for
 235 LDA [17].

Note that we specifically do not remove keywords related 236
 237 to URLs as they may provide additional information about the
 238 user’s activity. For example, tweets containing a link copied
 239 from a Web browser are likely to include “http” which may be
 240 less common on mobile users. Alternatively, links with “4sq”
 241 (reduced to “sq” when numerics are removed) are sent through
 242 four square’s—a popular location check-in service—mobile
 243 application, informing us that the user is more likely visiting
 244 a location outside of his or her house.

245 B. Pairing Real World and Social Media Network Data

246 Social media network data can be updated on a millisecond
 247 level; however, it is rare for real-world events to be reported
 248 at such a temporal resolution. Additionally, it is unlikely that
 249 a single social media network message contains significant,
 250 relevant information about the real-world event we want to
 251 study, or if it does, they are exceedingly rare. We address this
 252 discrepancy by normalizing the social media network data to
 253 the real-world data’s time scale. That is, we define a document

Algorithm 1: Preprocessing Steps for Social Media Network Data

Data: Time tagged Messages \mathbf{M}
Result: A set of aggregated and processed messages \mathbf{D}
 d_q = document of keywords at time q ;
 $count_{word}$ = frequency of “word” in all documents;
 \mathbf{W} = set of all known stemmed words;
for $m_j \in \mathbf{M}$ **do**
 Break m_j into substrings on non-alphabetical characters $\wedge[a - zA - Z]$;
 j = hour m_j was posted;
for non-empty Substring \mathbf{S} in m_j **do**
 convert \mathbf{S} to lowercase;
 stem \mathbf{S} using porter stemmer;
 add \mathbf{S} to \mathbf{W} ;
 push \mathbf{S} onto d_j ;
 $counts$ ++;
end
end
for word \mathbf{S} in \mathbf{W} **do**
if $counts < \delta_{min}$ **then**
 Remove \mathbf{S} from each d_j ;
 Remove \mathbf{S} from \mathbf{W} ;
end
end

d_j to be the aggregation of all processed social media network messages v_j (as derived from m_j) that occur in during the timespan between the q th real-world event x_q and the next event, x_{q+1} . More formally

$$d_j = \{v_j | \text{time}(x_q) \leq \text{time}(m_j) < \text{time}(x_{q+1})\} \quad (2)$$

where v_j is the n -gram representation of message m_j and $\text{time}(e)$ is the time when e occurs. For example, if one is looking at temperature data that is reported on an hourly basis, a document would be all posts that occur within that hour. Algorithm 1 outlines how these messages are processed into word vectors, and subsequently aggregated into a document. It would be unreasonable to assume that a user posts a message *exactly* when the event happens. Instead, it is likely that the user posts about an event sometime *before*, *during*, or *after* the time that the event occurs. This issue is partially addressed when the data is aggregated, because all message after an event, but before the next, will be combined, regardless of lag between event and message.

Additionally, data can be paired based on geospatial information, such as which zip code the message occurred in. This is dependent on the dataset describing the phenomena y and the social media network messages $m_j \in \mathbf{M}$ both containing comparable location data. Caution should be advised if arbitrary spatial units are defined: the “modifiable areal unit problem” can bias results from geospatial aggregation and remains an open problem [43], [44].

C. Generating Topic Models

A given set of documents defined by the aggregation described above can be used to generate topics through

Algorithm 2: LDA Algorithm in the Context of the Proposed Social Media Network Model

Data: set of Documents \mathbf{D} , topics \mathbf{O}
Result: a $|\mathbf{W}| \times |\mathbf{O}|$ matrix
for Document $d \in \mathbf{D}$ **do**
for Word $w \in d$ **do**
 | $w_{topic} = \text{Random topic} \in \{0, \dots, |\mathbf{O}|\}$;
end
end
for Step in $\{1, \dots, \text{stop point}\}$ **do**
for Document $d \in \mathbf{D}$ **do**
for word $w \in d$ **do**
for topic $o \in \{0, \dots, |\mathbf{O}|\}$ **do**
 | $P(o|d) = \frac{|w \in d \text{ where } w_{topic} = o|}{|\mathbf{W} \in d|}$;
 | $P(w|o) = \frac{|\mathbf{W} \in \mathbf{D} \text{ where } w_{topic} = o|}{|\mathbf{W} \in \mathbf{D}|}$;
end
 | Assign w_{topic} based on $P(w|o) \times P(o|d)$.
end
end
end
end

LDA. We use Gibbs sampling [17], [18] implemented by JGibbLDA [17] to perform this analysis. LDA determines the probability of a document being about a topic given that it contains a set of n -grams [13], [17], [18]. To do this, LDA first generates clusters of words based on co-occurrence in the documents. That is, the probability of a word w occurring given that a document is in topic o_w . To represent these topics in a human readable form (for example, in Tables I and II), we present the set of words that have the highest probability of occurring within the topic. In other words, the topics can be expressed as a $|\mathbf{W}| \times |\mathbf{O}|$ matrix, where \mathbf{W} is the vocabulary found in Section III-A and \mathbf{O} are the topics generated by the LDA model such that $\mathbf{o} \in \mathbf{O}$. Each entry in this matrix corresponds to the probability of that word belonging to that topic. LDA works according to Algorithm 2. Note that the stop point is selected as 2000, the default of JGibbLDA as proposed by Heinrich [45]. This algorithm uses as input each of the aggregated Documents from Algorithm 1 to generate \mathbf{O} topics.

The probabilities contained in this matrix can be reversed using Bayes’ theorem to determine the probability that a document is in topic o given that it contains a set of keywords. Since each document has a related time component, we can say that the probability of a document being in o varies over time. By considering the likelihood of all topics over all documents, we can observe the changing interests of the population of users over time. Each of these topics are the basis of a question: “Question: Is the i th event x_i (as inferred from topic o) related to real world phenomena y ?”

D. Determining Event-Phenomena Causality

In Section III-C, we outlined the method to generate topics—which we later show in Section IV-C to be statistically

Algorithm 3: Mapping Topics to Effects

Data: Documents D and Topics O from Algorithms 1 and 2

Result: Granger Causal Topics

```

for document  $d \in D$  do
  for topic  $o \in O$  do
     $TS_{o,d}$  = rate of  $o$  in  $d$ 
  end
end
for  $o \in O$  do
  Significance = Granger ( $TS_o$ , PowerUsage);
  if Significance then
    Print  $o$ ;
  end
end

```

valid approximations of events—from social media network and determined the frequency of each topic at a given time. Next, we explore the patterns of each of these events over time. That is, combining all frequencies of an event over time results in a time series to be compared to the real world phenomena. Some topics, such as *Christmas*, *hating Mondays*, or *having lunch* will display cyclical patterns while other events, such as ones about a *hurricane* or a *concert*, may be one-time, anomalous events.

The event’s time series can be compared to the document time series related to the real-world phenomena through cross-correlation (see Algorithm 3). That is, by matching events frequencies and real world phenomena by their time, can we find any relations between the two variables? This is defined by the Pearson’s rank correlation where each point is a pairing of event frequencies and real world phenomena. The system does not filter by positive or negative correlation: a strong negative relationship between an event and a real world event can be just as interesting as a positive one. While these correlations may be strong, they do not necessarily imply a causal link.

While we do consider a correlative analysis between automatically detected events and electricity consumption, there is also an interest in determining which—if any—of the behaviors have a causal relationship on the electricity rates. Detecting strong causality through an uncontrolled, observational study without an external model of the system is impossible. Hence, we focus on detecting Granger causality [46], [47], a less stringent form of causal testing. Simply put, “correlation does not imply causality” because there may be a third phenomena that influences both, or if there is a causal relation between the two phenomenas, it is impossible to tell which one causes the other without external information. Granger causality addresses the second issue by employing lagged data. This aids in establishing a causal relationship by testing not only the synchronous variables, but measuring if the lagged data aids in the explanatory power of the model. That is, can information about phenomena y at time t (y_t) be inferred by a behavior x at time $t - t'$, for some positive value of t' ? If it can, then we at least know which direction causality

Algorithm 4: Computational Complexity of This Methodology

input : Social Media Posts

output: Predictions

Social Media Posts arrive: $\mathcal{O}(1)$;

Preprocessing: $\mathcal{O}(m)$ where m = number of posts;

topics \leftarrow Generate Topics (LDA): $\mathcal{O}(Nm^2)$ (see alg 2);

CausalTopics \leftarrow Granger (topics) $\mathcal{O}(Len(\text{topics}))$;

is flowing. To control for auto-correlative effects, the standard model compares an auto-correlation model of the predicted phenomena y

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \beta_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + \beta_{(\text{lag}_{\max})} y_{(t-\text{lag}_{\max})} \quad (3)$$

where lag_{\max} is the maximum lag considered in the model, determined by maximum likelihood estimation. We then add the lagged components from an event’s trend x_i to the formula

$$y_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 y_{t-1} + \beta_2 y_{t-2} + \dots + \beta_{(\text{lag}_{\max})} y_{(t-\text{lag}_{\max})} + \beta_{(2+\text{lag}_{\max})} x_{i,t-1} + \dots + \beta_{(2*\text{lag}_{\max})} x_{i,(t-\text{lag}_{\max})}. \quad (4)$$

The predictive power of these two models is compared by performing a t-test on the errors between the two models. If we find that (4) performs better than (3), then it is because knowledge about this second event informs us about the future state of the target phenomena. While this is still not a test for true causality, Granger [46] have argued that it is a step in that direction. Note that Granger causality does not control for a third phenomena, which influences both the i th x in question, x_i , and y , other than guaranteeing that it occurs at some point before y . Indeed, in our case, we assume that a behavior influences both x_i —tweeting about the risk factor—and y —later power consumption due to the behavior. This method of dual time series analysis has two benefits: it quantifies how long of a lag is meaningful, and determines which sampled topics are significant.

This Granger causal test allows us to quantify the causal relationship between a phenomenon (a change in power usage) and an event (as represented by one or more social media topics). This causality measurement is the primary method of establishing causality implemented in this methodology. Social media posts can be processed into topics ahead of time, and these topics can be detected within new posts in linear time. This also allows these causal relationships to be updated in an online fashion. If the performance of the predictive nature of these causal relationships degrades, a new sample can be drawn and recalculated (see Algorithm 4). This allows us to adapt and use new data instead of relying solely on old data.

E. Validating Event-Phenomena Relationships

At this point, we have generated relationships of the form: “Topic o is related to a real world phenomena y with correlation r_o .” However, if the coefficient of determination, r_o^2 , is small, then any trends detected may not be statistically significant. Thus, we calculate the p -value for each regression. Since the system may test hundreds or thousands of regressions,

Algorithm 5: Topics to Predictions

Data: Significant Time Series S , **PowerUsage** Data
Result: Measurement of Predictive value of Social Media Network data
Let **PowerUsage** $_h = \mathbf{PowerUsage}$ data lagged by h hours;
 $S_{a,b} = a^{th}$ significant Time Series lagged by b hours;
Build model $f(S_{a,b}, \mathbf{PowerUsage}_b) = \mathbf{PowerUsage}$;
Evaluate f on data from subsequent time period;

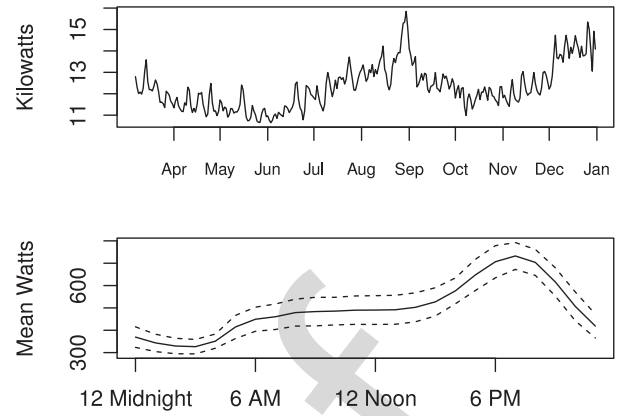


Fig. 3. Mean daily and hourly rates of power consumption for San Diego residents. Dashed lines in hourly graph indicate one standard deviation.

the traditionally chosen cut off $\alpha = 0.05$ must be corrected. That is, if 100 tests are conducted on randomly generated data, it is likely that five will be reported as false positives. Bonferroni correction [48] was chosen because it does not depend on normal distribution or independence assumptions. Bonferroni correction defines the corrected cut off as $\alpha' = \alpha/n$, where n is the total number of hypotheses tested. This method of correction is more conservative than others, giving more assurance that any hypotheses that do pass the test are valid.

By implementing our system, events can be inferred from social media network data which can inform researchers about real world phenomena, as we will show in Sections IV–V. Finally, we evaluate the predictive value of this methodology as outlined in Algorithm 5 in Section VI.

IV. CASE STUDY

In this section, we demonstrate the feasibility of our system on Twitter data, in order to determine whether topics can help explain a real world energy utilization (see Fig. 1). Specifically, we consider electricity consumption from single-family households in San Diego County from March 3, 2011 to December 31, 2011 and 1.8 million tweets from the same timespan that originated from San Diego County. That is, $\mathbf{M} = \{\text{Tweets in San Diego between March 3, 2011 and December 31, 2011}\}$ and $y = \text{electricity consumption rates in kilowatts}$.

A. Description of Datasets

Electricity consumption data was provided by the San Diego County Gas and Electric Company which supplies power to residents of the San Diego County in southern California. Data was provided on a daily basis for the year 2011 and represents a typical, single-family, residence.¹ Power usage data was discarded before the initial collection of Twitter data on March 3. Since power usage has both a daily cycle and longer-term dynamics (see Fig. 3), we consider both hourly and daily aggregation of the data.

Twitter data was collected between March 3, 2011 and December 31, 2011 through the Twitter API by searching for all tweets with high-resolution geospatial data. Additionally, tweets are filtered to be located within San Diego County as

defined by the 2011 TIGER shape file² to match the spatial boundaries of the power data. A total of 1 813 689 tweets matched this criteria. The raw *jsons* returned by the Twitter API were then processed through The Open Twitter Parser³ and stored in a MySQL database for further processing.

B. n -Gram Selection

Next, the Twitter data was cleaned through tokenization, stemming, case-normalization and *stop word* removing, as described in Section III-A. In this case study, we only consider unigrams (n -grams where $n = 1$) for analysis. Only unigrams are considered for several reasons. A higher dimensionality would cause the number of correlations to be calculated to explode. Furthermore, most implementations of LDA only consider unigrams, as topics must be latent relationships between these unigrams. Finally, given that the dataset of length constrained social media posts is studied, it is fairly common for users to discard words, which would severely limit the usefulness of n -grams for $n > 2$. A total of 794 917 unigrams were detected. We set δ_{\min} to one percent and determine that the optimal cut c to be 102, removing any unigrams that occurred less than 102 times in the dataset (see Fig. 6), thus we define δ_{\min} and use this to calculate c , which allows our approach to scale to datasize. This automated selection of c generates comparable results to other papers [16]–[18] that use domain knowledge to choose their cut off, while still allowing for more or less frequencies depending on datasize. This also helps if new samples need to be drawn and tested.

C. Knowledge Discovery of Statistically Relevant Social Media Topics

We now aim to show that these topics are statistically related to the real world events that they describe, as our assumptions in Section III require. As a null hypothesis, we consider that individuals are free to discuss any topic at any time. That is, the probability of a topic being discussed, $P(o)$ does not depend on the time. Instead, if our original assumption is correct, then $P(o||x_i) > P(o)$ for some $o \in O$ and $x_i \in \mathbf{X}$. Hence, a

¹http://www.sdge.com/sites/default/files/documents/Coastal_Single_Family_Jan_1_2011_to_Jan_1_2012.xml

²<http://www.census.gov/geo/www/tiger/tgrshp2011/tgrshp2011.html>

³<https://github.com/ToddBodnar/Twitter-Parser>

TABLE I

WORDS THAT BEST DESCRIBE THE 20 DAILY TOPICS FROM TWITTER THAT OUR SYSTEM DETERMINED TO BE ABOUT POWER USAGE AND THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE TOPIC AND POWER USAGE. NOTE THAT THE TOPICS HAVE BEEN SORTED BY CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

<i>r</i>	Most likely words in the topic
-0.519	job http ly bit ca sandiego tinyurl getalljob www tweetmyjob lt manag electron soni service carlsbad gt ...
-0.480	sq http instagr la gowal ly bit job san diego tinyurl twitpic es lt beach sandiego day great foursquar www ...
-0.344	jobcirl cybercod job ca engin develop hire softwar mesa sale www senior la design manag net voic game web ...
-0.335	work gt dr check street offic fit show diego hour center facebook starbuck art airport media mesa lunch busi ...
-0.301	rt coupon summer spag june caseyanthoni es sandiego lockerz souther em poway doi gov earthquak ...
-0.282	rt lmao june tinyurl spag marathon jonez job getalljob upling samoan rock roll heat damsel untp final show ...
-0.281	weekend spag coupon memori back cri sad hangov disapoint kck justinbeib sandiego es oprah lockerz support ...
-0.247	wednesday fat thrusday muscl free bit weight ur loss hump diet wine market fan friday set eleddieg hot ...
0.201	glass sun auto sprinkler rek rt repair xd replac tcot pancak commanderlov pae coupon del word mar ...
0.211	real pretend jlh thereal point don itsatumblrth year iamlaceychabert laceyoffici handbag design manufactur ...
0.225	jlh frenchfan victoria witter clalovehewitt lol alexandria thereal don rt tweet es coupon ya bcuz camill game ...
0.225	christma cold year dat jus sir final ass wyd bro si lo nba yea smh man dnt crystal twitter laker victoria ...
0.238	yummi day sexi orgasm good morn email hotmail saturn great love beauti school video lick class cum pretti ...
0.254	christma merri famili eve xmas happi holiday santa present lt gift year stephazilla laker church navidad hous ...
0.267	de eu pra um na da se vou mas uma mai meu tem vai em ver happi dia por ele minha person didn beauti ...
0.297	http san diego love good time day don make today back la job ca people haha lol home feel ll wait great ...
0.369	http vista shop plaza valley chula center mall fashion buy bonita peopl mission pkwi store home break work ...
0.410	lt gt lol fuck shit job haha ca dr ass bitch don sandiego nigga hate girl feel love sleep drink ave damn ...
0.418	rek beauti window hurrican coupon iren xd vma video arhhhhjay lt omg storm hot wind gaga kk issu humid ...
0.448	lol christma final holiday dannyboyo partic travcb home laker deniseexclus xmas studi happi andruee ll ...

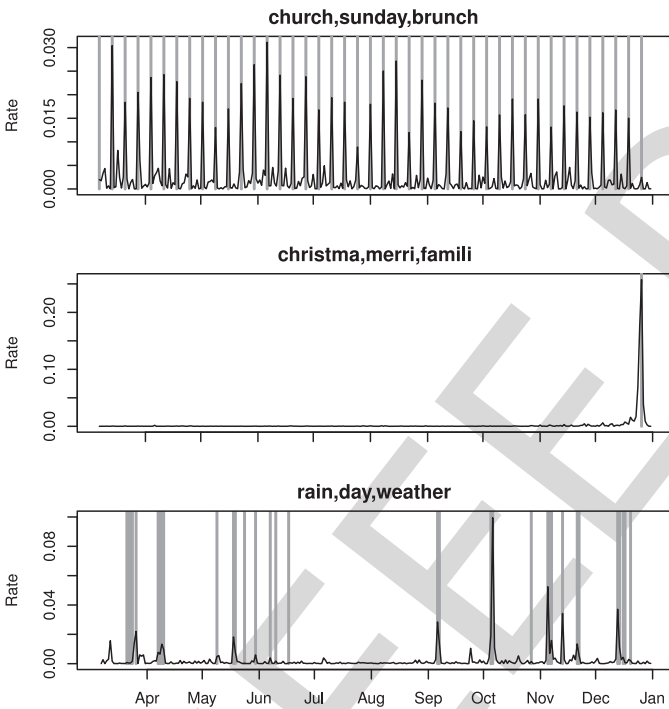


Fig. 4. Temporal patterns for three select topics in black. Chart titles indicate the three most representative words for each topic. Red lines indicate days that are Sundays, Christmas day, and days when it rained, respectively.

precipitation is necessary for it to be considered raining?).
 Christmas was chosen as a topic because it is representative
 of events that occur only once in our dataset, but with a well
 defined event time. Indeed, Christmas may be the biggest topic
 detected, with 25.8% of the Twitter data being about Christmas
 on Christmas, December 25, and 17.5% on Christmas Eve,
 December 24. Finally, we considered rain because it lacks the
 periodicity of the other two topics. Note that the rate of pre-
 cipitation does not have a strong relationship to spikes in the
 rain topic, so we discretized weather into days without rain
 and days with rain, as defined by weather underground.⁴

We can thus calculate the relevant probabilities (see Table I).
 This means that 80 topics whose correlations are too low
 are not present in this table. For example, with the topic
 sunday: $P(o_{\text{sunday}}) = 0.00350$ (as determined by LDA) and
 $P(o_{\text{sunday}}|x_{\text{sunday}}) = (o_{\text{sunday}} \& x_{\text{sunday}} / x_{\text{sunday}}) = 0.0182$. For
 completeness, we can use Bayes theorem to determine the
 probability that it is Sunday given that the topic is about
 Sunday

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(x_{\text{sunday}} | o_{\text{sunday}}) &= \frac{P(o_{\text{sunday}} | x_{\text{sunday}}) P(x_{\text{sunday}})}{P(o_{\text{sunday}})} \\
 &= \frac{0.0182 * 0.15}{0.00350} = 0.728. \tag{5}
 \end{aligned}$$

Since we know what days we sampled from, we know that
 $P(x_{\text{sunday}}) = (x_{\text{sunday}} / x_{\text{all}}) = 0.14$, which is close to the gen-
 eral occurrences of Sundays, (one out of seven days each week
 ≈ 0.1429). We find that $p(\text{Event}|\text{Topic})$ is significantly higher
 than the baseline $P(\text{Event})$, giving evidence toward these auto-
 matically generated topics, $o \in O$ having some relation to real
 world events $x_i \in \mathbf{X}$.

⁴http://www.wunderground.com/history/airport/KSAN/2011/1/1/CustomHistory.html?dayend=31&monthend=12&yearend=2011&req_city=NA&req_state=NA&req_statename=NA

topic is being induced by a real world event. To verify this,
 we would need ground truth data for x_i , which is not necessar-
 ily possible to obtain for all possible events i . However, some
 topics lend themselves to easy validation.

Here, we consider three topics that appear to represent
 Sundays, Christmas, and rain (see Fig. 4). Sundays were cho-
 sen as the first topic for analysis because it was expected
 to follow clearly defined temporal patterns. Additionally,
 Sundays are more discrete than Christmas (i.e., are Christmas
 Eve and Christmas separate events?) or rain (i.e., how much

TABLE II
WORDS THAT ARE MOST ASSOCIATED WITH THE 38 HOURLY TOPICS FROM TWITTER THAT DESCRIBE EVENTS THAT ARE FOUND TO GRANGER CAUSE CHANGES IN POWER USAGE

r	Most likely words in the topic
-0.432	job http sandiego electron ca soni sd sonyjob tweetmyjob engin snei softwar director test alskks develop administr ...
-0.321	lol shit yo lmao work man ass good nigga dat fuck smh tat ya feel dnt de jus bitch bro sleep je wit home est sir tha yea ...
-0.145	watch movi show love time lol good great ll fun tv back night yeah make year peopl awesom episod youtube wait tweet ...
-0.120	job http ca sandiego kaiser nurs tweetmyjob healthcar permanent san diego rn kindr hospit ii amn kinderedjob account ...
-0.106	http esriuc love lol harri ddlovato rt potter time fstk googl good day kooldudestillo pride watch diego rhenderson demi girl ...
-0.086	http rt shop lol great san www diego ad sale love lmao watch june item daili don day back mile summer inventori time good ...
-0.079	http california southern earthquak gov km usg doi june depth usa diego gmt hour ca mi ll good time hand join monday ...
-0.070	http el la ma love day al ya ben de ne play ana ve wait ha lol shit da good hey ni bi man check home ik en ba wo in tweet ...
-0.057	lol haha love stephazilla good lt hahaha time watch don yeah fuck night feel back thing shit girl life wait tomorrow ...
-0.057	victoria witter alexandria teamjhl stillo http clalovehewitt lol stellix don back good yeah tweet beutyqueen gonna ...
-0.041	http del diego san mar la fair beach blvd counti day school jimmi ca camino de pic coronado vall durant time ...
-0.035	http japan www greeney san fukushima good rt time nuclear ur win day tsunami great plixi ipad watch diego bit ...
-0.029	http plaza diego san el citi bonita horton shop nation westfield hlbd cajon ave la parkway camino time de mall dr buy ...
-0.027	charger http game diego san qualcomm footbal stadium win play raider good team watch fan nfl time river tebow rt sunday ...
-0.021	http diego san coronado beach hotel mission bay st pic pine del torrey resort la ave time spa park foursquar blvd vista ...
-0.011	work make today rt offic ll busi free deal market don great health week stori peopl year school citi pay list design site news ...
-0.003	jhl thereal frenchfan love real jennif clalovehewitt verifi lol hewitt http lt fake account don tweet back good day camill make ...
-0.003	http day lol love diego back don time san ca good final ll class cold make break fuck work night week hate haha xoxo uni ...
0.004	np love song shit make fuck don back real peopl good music lil man girl show listen thing yeah play damn haha rt ...
0.006	job getalljob ca tinyurl sandiego http engin edit manag telecommut concierg clinic assic sleep hotel remot develop web hour ...
0.018	na ko sa hahaha haha mo ako ng ang ka lang pa naman time eh day lol ba nga good si ni oo hehe hahahaha tweet ...
0.023	sleep night bed goodnight tomorrow fuck good dream time tonight wake home asleep hour feel love drunk sweet happi ...
0.027	job http ca general ga poway asi atom sys aeronaut account sandiego tweetmyjob manufactur analysis ii iii bit financi control ...
0.029	te si de la ya tu mi el esta yo como en por lo se es para mas mero hola bien con bueno muy dia una todo ke los saludo pue ...
0.048	de http la enl en los mexico se al del lol es para funal fuck love lt work por con su son home man tv mas twitter ha una las ...
0.077	http juli happi day don cassey caseyanthoni good miss san make sagesummit time firework ll beach life peopl bit ...
0.081	game rt laker lol win http heat play watch team nba fan love final good fuck lt day season bull player ve tonight time kobe ...
0.089	http life ratio live tune proof net diego fit good back time tomorrow html work love guy night em cujo st lol miss watch ...
0.100	rt http time ya love lol day teamfollowback di famili yg make cricket ll wireless ur gt good haha followback yo cool ...
0.143	http obama dead diego bin san good war love news time presid laden rt kill day cnn osama de stop vote happi ...
0.151	http san diego lunch st ave dr pic cafe blvd grill food mexican day burger today mayor taco work foursquar offic ...
0.172	iphon appl steve job app rt live http today don rip twitter wait work feel phone die tattoo life love ipad world yeah io tweet ...
0.175	sq instagr gowal la ly bit twitpic foursquar untp mayor beach trendsmap street lockerz tinyurl www btw picplz year ...
0.184	http today morn breakfast san church diego day cafe coffe night sunday good starbuck park st hour mayor pic ...
0.195	http morn san diego day good today starbuck school earli work coffe st fit oceansid carlsbad happi blvd wake mesa ...
0.210	http san diego st park ave fan street south experi hotel tomorrow intern year ca gaslamp fun ll rememb market space ...
0.226	http san diego st washington ave chicago btwn street el game pizzeria pizza map blvd fort good cajon lefti ...
0.639	san diego http airport intern dr termin harbor back work home hour flight fit earli head line great gate miss begin ...

512 Additionally, some events will show cyclical, daily patterns
513 (see Fig. 5). If the target phenomena also shows similar pat-
514 terns, these hourly events may further help to describe the
515 phenomena.

516 D. Event-Electricity Usage Relationships Detected

517 These automatically determined topics were found to cor-
518 relate with daily power consumption rates with $-0.519 <$
519 $r_i < 0.448$ (see Table I). The topic that correlated most neg-
520 atively with power consumption included unigrams such as
521 “job,” “getalljob,” and “tweetmyjob.” This leads to the first
522 steps of a domain expert investigating that people use less
523 energy at their residence on days when they are at work than
524 days when they are not working. The topic that correlated most
525 positively with power consumption included Levins stemmed
526 unigrams such as “christma,” “holiday,” and “home,” hinting
527 that people consume more electricity around Christmas time.
528 Similarly, the topics that were determined to Granger cause
529 changes in hourly electricity consumption correlated with the
530 current electricity consumption between $-0.432 < r_i < 0.639$
531 (see Table II). As with daily rates, the topic that Granger
532 caused the most decrease in power included unigrams such
533 as tweetmyjob and “sonyjob.”

E. Validation Steps

534 With Bonferroni correction for multiple tests, we deter-
535 mined the corrected value for $\alpha = 0.05$ to be $\alpha' =$
536 $\alpha/100 = 0.0005$. Twenty correlations are found to be sig-
537 nificant at this rate (see Table II). While we cannot make
538 any explicit claims about the topics this citation [13] deter-
539 mined to have significant relations to power usage, it has
540 been argued [9], [13], [17], [18] that the most common words
541 in a topic are representative of the inherit meaning of the
542 topic. Here, we present the most significant words for each
543 topic, with select words bolded for easier interpretation. With
544 this interpretation in mind, it appears that the three most
545 negatively correlated topics include activity such as hav-
546 ing a job, posting on Foursquare or Instagram (i.e., things
547 done outside the residence) and job searches. The top three
548 positively correlated topics include topics about Christmas,
549 storms, and surprisingly, a topic consisting of several
550 vulgarities.
551

552 We found a total of 20 statistically significant correlations
553 between events (as inferred by detected topics) and power
554 consumption. Earlier, we presented the 20 topics that had
555 statistically significant correlations with power consumption
556 (see Table II). However, it is also important to consider topics
557 that are rated with a low coefficient of determination to see if

TABLE III
PROBABILITY OF A TOPIC INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT ON A POTENTIALLY RELATED EVENT

Topic	$p(\text{Topic})$	$p(\text{Topic} \text{Event})$	$p(\text{Event} \text{Topic})$
Sunday	0.00350	0.0182	0.728
Christmas	0.00243	0.256	0.351
Rain	0.0024	0.0137	0.627

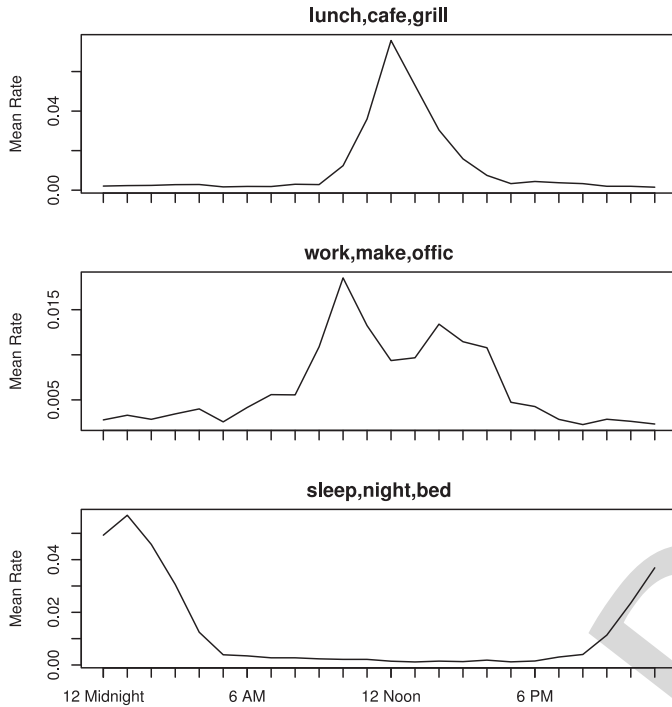


Fig. 5. Mean hourly rate of three select topics. Chart titles indicate three representative words for each topic.

558 they are actually *not* likely to related to residential electricity
 559 consumption. The least related topic's three most representa-
 560 tive words are "asiathegreat," "manufactur" and "deal." It
 561 would appear that these topics are about manufacturing-
 562 perhaps in China-which does not have a direct effect on
 563 residential electricity consumption. The second least related
 564 topic's three most representative words are "louisseandon,"
 565 "ya," and "blo." The third least related contains "justinbieb,"
 566 "It," and "sagesummit." These two topics would seem to be
 567 related to news about entertainers Louis Sean Don and Justin
 568 Bieber, which are likely related to entertainment news rather
 569 than electricity consumption.

V. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

571 One may ask "what is the value of this system over tra-
 572 ditional keyword mining or just using expert knowledge?"
 573 While our system allows knowledge discovery with limited
 574 need for expert knowledge, if it does not perform well, then
 575 it is not useful. To justify our system's existence, we compare
 576 the results of our system to topics common in the power con-
 577 sumption literature. Additionally, we perform keyword mining
 578 to detect words, instead of topics, that are related to electricity
 579 consumption.

TABLE IV
TOPICS GENERATED THROUGH A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE, RANKED BY OCCURRENCE IN "NEW & USA" PAPERS

Topic	New & in USA	New	USA
Temperature	4	6	5
Income	3	4	4
Electric Price	3	4	4
Air Conditioner	2	4	5
Heater	2	2	5
Dishwasher	1	2	4
Clothes Dryer	1	2	4
Refrigerator	1	1	2
Water Heater	1	1	3
Building Codes	1	1	1
Own Pool	1	1	1
Own Spa	1	1	1
Lighting	1	1	1
Stove	0	0	3
Freezer	0	0	3
Television	0	0	2
Clothes washer	0	0	1
Wind	0	2	1
Rain	0	1	0
Household Size	0	1	0
Total Papers	7	10	10

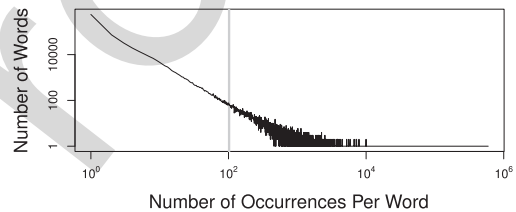


Fig. 6. Distribution of unigrams detected shows a long-tail distribution. The gray line represents the automatically determined cut, w .

A. Comparison to Domain Experts

580 To approximate that knowledge of an expert on power con-
 581 sumption modeling, we perform a literature review. We sample
 582 Google Scholar for 100 papers that appear relevant to our
 583 question. We discard 85 papers which are either inaccessible
 584 (e.g., out of print papers from the '70s), irrelevant to our topic
 585 (e.g., a paper on building the Nigerian power grid) or do not
 586 explicitly state activities to model (e.g., a paper on synchronizing
 587 houses on a smart grid which filter out the customers
 588 activities). While we could read the papers for other ideas
 589 of important topics, we avoid to because: 1) we risk biasing
 590 the set of topics due to selective reading; 2) if a topic is not
 591 explicitly modeled or measured, we can assume that the expert
 592 does not consider it important; and 3) this literature review is
 593 not designed to collect all relevant topics, just ones that are
 594 common amongst experts.
 595

596 Additionally, we separate papers that are more than 10
 597 years old or do not focus on American populations. While
 598 these papers may contain expert knowledge, our Twitter and
 599 power datasets are based on recent, American usage, which
 600 may be different from older usage patterns or those of citi-
 601 zens of other countries. In total, we find 12 topics from recent
 602 and local papers [30], [31], [33], [34], [49]–[51] and an addi-
 603 tional eight topics from other papers [32], [35], [52]–[57] (see
 604 Table IV). Topics were explicitly presented from the papers

605 by either tables or equations. If we only consider the topics
 606 that occur more than once in the set of recent and local papers
 607 (“temperature,” “income,” “electricity price,” “air conditioner,”
 608 and “heater”), then we can informally detect two clusters
 609 of topics: 1) “climate control” and 2) “economic factors.”
 610 Both of these two topics were also discovered to be signifi-
 611 cant measures of electric consumption through our automated
 612 system.

613 Our system found 20 topics that are related to electricity
 614 consumption. Our literature review also found 20 topics that
 615 are related to electricity consumption. It would seem, however,
 616 that these two methods of knowledge discovery discovered
 617 topics that were different from each other. The literature review
 618 found topics such as temperature or dishwasher usage as inter-
 619 esting topics (see Table IV) while the topic modeling found
 620 topics such as having a hangover on the weekend or going
 621 to the mall as interesting topics (see Table I). This can be
 622 explained by the methods used to collect data. The litera-
 623 ture focuses on things that are easy to measure by traditional
 624 sensors. However, we use humans as “organic” sensors. This
 625 results in different types of data collected: it is easy to have
 626 a person report that they are going out on the weekend, but
 627 relatively hard to design a sensor to measure this. On the other
 628 hand, a sensor to measure temperature is trivial to acquire, but
 629 it is unlikely for a person to accurately report the temperature
 630 on a regular basis. By focusing on the human element, we
 631 have been able to detect important factors of electricity con-
 632 sumption that were previously overlooked due to limitations
 633 in traditional sensors and domain knowledge.

634 Often times, the elements which can easily be studied by
 635 these experts and events which are present on social media
 636 do not have many commonalities. Discovering these latent
 637 events, processed by human sensors, is one major advantage
 638 of this paper over traditional sensors. For example, humans
 639 might aid in discovering a third variable at work (such as a
 640 football game), which leads to an increase in power consump-
 641 tion, while a more guided approach will tend to be informed
 642 instead by a television. This demonstrates that not only can
 643 we reproduce previous results, but we can also generate novel
 644 hypotheses, as told by human sensors.

645 B. Comparison to Keyword Analysis

646 We also consider algorithmically generating keywords
 647 instead of topics. First the text is cleaned through stemming
 648 and *stop word* removal, equivalent to the methods imple-
 649 mented in our system (see Section III-A). Instead of using
 650 topic modeling to filter out irrelevant keywords, we are lim-
 651 ited to just selecting keywords based on their frequency in
 652 the dataset. The $n = 1, 2, \dots, 5000$ most commonly occur-
 653 ring keywords are selected. The keywords are then tested for
 654 relations through cross correlation with the electricity con-
 655 sumption data, the same way that topics were tested for
 656 relations in Sections III-D and III-E. We try different values of
 657 n because if we try too few keywords, important keywords will
 658 be lost, but if we try too many keywords, then, once Bonferroni
 659 correction is applied, there will not be enough statistical power
 660 to detect significant keywords.

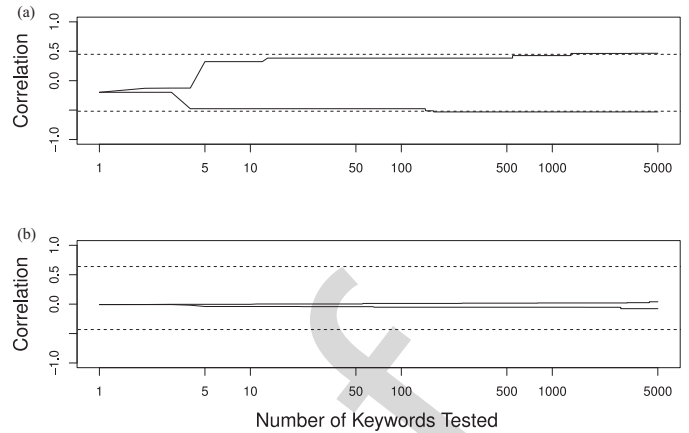


Fig. 7. Strongest positive or negative keyword given a set number of key-
 words tested. Dashed lines indicate the strongest positive or negative topic
 detected. Data was aggregated by (a) day or (b) hour.

661 Additionally, we could define words that occur very fre-
 662 quently in our dataset as de-facto stop words and remove
 663 them in addition to the predefined stop word list. However,
 664 we do not do this as the tests in this section are independent
 665 of each other (besides the Bonferroni correction), compared to
 666 the frequency-based methods of our proposed event inference
 667 system, so the gain in statistical power is limited in com-
 668 parison of the risk of removing strongly predictive keywords.
 669 Finally, we consider the strongest positive and negative rates
 670 of correlation detected for each value of n (see Fig. 7). All
 671 minimum and maximum correlations displayed are significant
 672 at the 0.05 level, even when Bonferroni correction is applied.

673 Testing keywords instead of topics resulted in some cor-
 674 relations when dealing with daily aggregation. However, our
 675 keyword test allows for a number of tests equivalent to the size
 676 of the corpus, which is hard to directly compare against test-
 677 ing 100 topics. When we only consider the top 100 keywords,
 678 we find keywords with the strongest positive correlation to be
 679 “don” with $r = 0.384$ and the keywords with the strongest
 680 negative correlation to be sq with $r = -0.476$. Our system
 681 finds events where the strongest positive correlation is 0.448
 682 and the strongest negative correlation of -0.519 , a 16.7% and
 683 9.03% improvement, respectively. While keyword-based mod-
 684 els do provide some information for daily prediction, hourly
 685 prediction does not seem well suited for keyword analysis with
 686 correlations ranging between -0.074 and 0.004 , limiting the
 687 usefulness of previous methods for fine-grained prediction.
 688 Comparatively, our system which finds topics that match
 689 power usage with correlations between -0.432 and 0.639
 690 resulting in an increase of explained variance of up to 41%.

691 VI. PREDICTING FUTURE ELECTRICAL CONSUMPTION

692 Up to this point we have only considered individual top-
 693 ics to predict the phenomena. Here, we consider multivariable
 694 regression based on lagged predictive variables to predict
 695 hourly power usage (see Algorithm 5). As a baseline,
 696 we consider a 12-variable auto-correlation model where
 697 the maximum lag of 12 was determined through maxi-
 698 mum likelihood estimation. We then compare this model to

TABLE V
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR MODELS USING AUTO-CORRELATION, TOPICS, OR A SUBSET OF ATTRIBUTES

	Auto-Corr	Topics	Auto-Corr + Topics	Subset
Training Set	0.9515	0.9430	0.9788	0.9777
5-fold CV	0.9510	0.9116	0.9670	0.9682
80%/20%	0.9313	0.7152	0.9003	0.9632

TABLE VI
ROOT MEAN SQUARE ERRORS FOR MODELS USING AUTO-CORRELATION, TOPICS, OR A SUBSET OF ATTRIBUTES

	Auto-Corr	Topics	Auto-Corr + Topics	Subset
Training Set	39.6508	42.9102	26.3846	27.0747
5-fold CV	39.8758	53.2473	32.8872	32.2713
80%/20%	51.7108	121.166	66.3104	34.9691

three models: a multivariable regression on the detected topics, a multivariable regression on the 38 topics that were found to have a Granger causal relationship to electricity consumption and the auto-correlation model, and the second model with a subset of the attributes used. Which attributes are retained in the third model are selected through removing attributes with the smallest coefficients and refitting the model until AIC no longer improves.

We now determine the accuracy of each model by determining the correlation coefficient for either through traditional statistical methods, fivefold cross validation, or a 80%/20% test-train split. The 80%/20% test-train split is performed on data that is ordered by time where the fivefold cross validation is performed on randomly ordered data. We find that at least one of our models out perform the base-line in all three evaluation methods. Importantly, the 80%/20% test-train split represents the most realistic case of predicting future electricity usage, and our model provides an additional 4.28% explanation of electricity usage. These results can be seen in Tables V and VI.

A. Comparison With U.S. DOE Model

The U.S. Department of Energy provides Commercial and Residential hourly load profiles for typical meteorological year (TMY3) locations around the United States. These simulated values are derived from a combination of weather data from the National Solar Radiation Database,⁵ regional climate-specific information (cold/very cold, hot-dry/mixed-dry, hot-humid, marine, and mixed-humid), and load profile type (high, base, and low) which define physical building characteristics such as home size, layout, insulation type, heating fuel source, and occupants. These simulations take into account very detailed electricity demands, (e.g., heat output by showers and dishwasher temperature point) and provide an hourly demand of an average household in each of hundreds of sites around the United States. Incorporating all of this information, this model presents a year-agnostic estimation of the hourly electricity usage of households across the country. That is, the model does not differentiate between 1 A.M., January 1, 2011, and 1 A.M. January 1, 2012. Rather, it assumes each hour is the same. The DOE has made this model

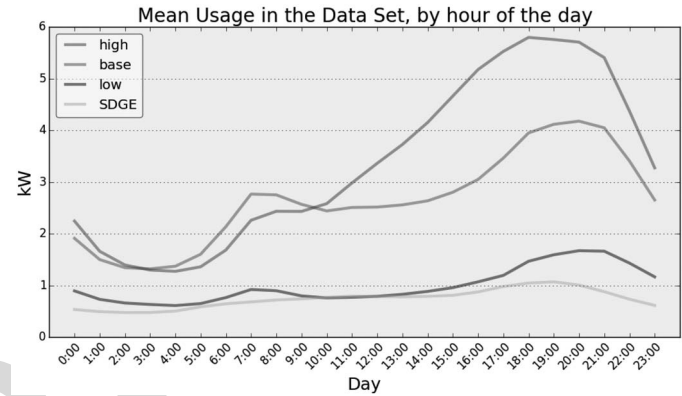
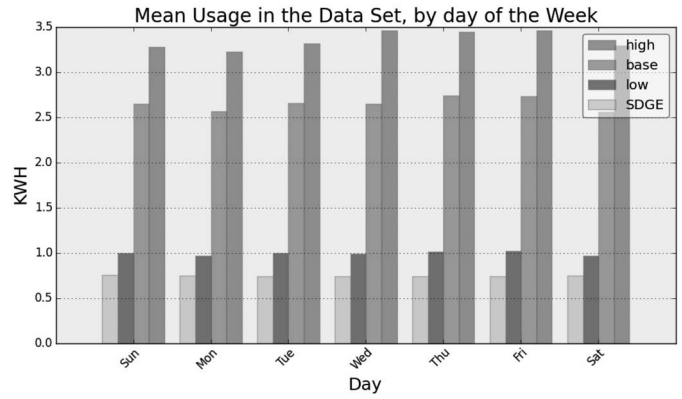


Fig. 8. Periodicity of SDGE provided energy data, compared to TMY3 simulated data.

publicly available for researchers seeking to predict energy demands across U.S. Cities.⁶

To test the efficacy of the TMY3 models in simulating the real world energy use of the San Diego area, we compared the TMY hourly use with the SDGE-provided data from Section IV. The TMY3 data is considered the base-line model, with the SDGE data representing the ground truth. Since the TMY3 data is year agnostic, variations in energy use due to severe weather events (as opposed to seasonality), and date-specific periodicity (weekends and weekdays) will not be included. These differences can be seen in Fig. 8. While the SDGE data is lower in magnitude than the TMY3 load profiles, the general trends of the data are reflected best by the *base* model, which carries an hourly correlation coefficient of 0.7544 and an RMSE of 130 when used as input for a linear regression of the SDGE data.

Next, TMY3 data is used to predict monthly SDGE electricity usage. The monthly usage data is provided by SDGE, aggregated across customers in each zip code.⁷ This data is shown in Fig. 9. Note that since the TMY3 is year agnostic, the data will repeat on an annual cycle. Once again, the magnitude of each of the load models is higher than the aggregate data provided. When analyzed against the real monthly data for San Diego homes, no single model consistently correlates better than the others, with the *high* model performing best

⁶<http://en.openei.org/datasets/dataset/commercial-and-residential-hourly-load-profiles-for-all-tmy3-locations-in-the-united-states>

⁷<https://energydata.sdge.com/>

⁵<https://mapsbeta.nrel.gov/nsrdb-viewer>

AQ3

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TABLE VII
 ρ AND RMSE FOR EACH TMY MODEL

year	ρ			RMSE		
	high	base	low	high	base	low
2012	0.65	0.21	0.59	121.4	156.3	129.3
2013	0.58	0.81	0.79	63.6	45.5	47.5
2014	0.82	0.78	0.93	40.7	45.1	27.2
Aggregated	0.61	0.43	0.64	83.5	94.8	80.1

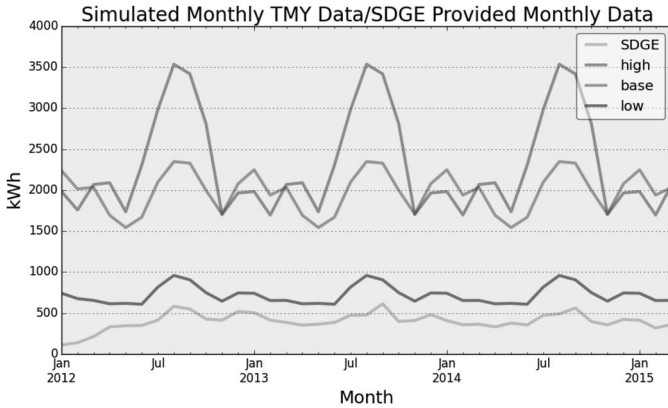


Fig. 9. TMY3 data, aggregated by month, compared with SDGE monthly data.

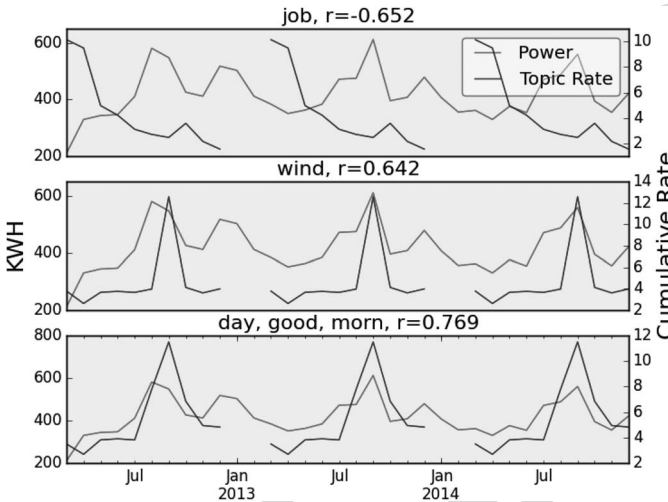


Fig. 10. Topic rates for three sample topics. Note the recurrence of the topic rate, as the topics were analyzed for 1 year only.

in 2012, *base* in 2013, and *low* in 2014. These same models possess the lowest RMSE on a yearly basis, as seen in Table VII.

Finally, we demonstrate that our proposed social media model outperforms the TMY3 model, given the same ground truth (SDGE data), by using the topic models and frequencies from Sections IV–VI. As with the TMY3 data, we assumed that each topic frequency is repeated for that same hour and date on all subsequent years. Similar to Fig. 4, these cumulative topic rates by month can be seen in Fig. 10. Next, these topics were aggregated on a monthly basis, the significance of each topic was tested, and the Bonferroni correction applied, leaving 13 topics whose $p < 0.05/100$. Finally, we

used these frequencies as input in a regression model for March–December of each year. This model yielded an RMSE of 43.6 when applied to this time period, which outperforms the linear regression performance of the best TMY3 data in Table VII, whose best models RMSE was 80.1, an 83%.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we proposed a theoretical backing to our design (see Section III), which assumed a link between: 1) events and text; 2) text and word vectors; 3) word vectors and topics; 4) topics and events; and 5) events and real-world phenomena. We now provide evidence of these relations. Previous work [9], [39] has verified that events cause users to post on social media networks. Similarly, the conversion of text into word vectors has previously been discussed [4], [17], [20], [41], [42]. The most likely words are cohesive within each topic and have large between-topic variation (see Table I). Thus it is likely that topics can be generated from social media network text using LDA [14], [15]. We choose three topics that contain words related to Sundays, Christmas, and storms. By studying the temporal patterns of each topic, we find a relationship between the storm topic and the days with “rain” events in San Diego, the Sunday topic to be most often discussed on Sundays, and the Christmas topic to trend during December (see Fig. 4). Finally, we show a relationship between our discovered events and energy consumption through statistical analysis (see Table II). Hence, we conclude that there is evidence for our assumptions on links, at least when applied to our case study.

We presented a novel form of semi-supervised knowledge discovery that infers events from topics generated from social media network data. These events are then used to form hypotheses about real-world phenomena which are then validated. To provide support for our case, we perform a case study where Twitter data is used to predict electricity consumption rates. The results are then compared to topics generated by domain experts and keyword analysis. We find that our system detects events tangential to what the literature is currently focused on and that our system outperforms an equivalent keyword analysis by up to 16.7%. When combined with time-series modeling, we are able to predict electricity consumption with correlations of up to 0.9788 and a mean absolute error of 19.84 watts—less than the energy consumption of a single light bulb. Finally, we compared the performance of this model to the models generated by the DOE for the San Diego area, and found it to be more accurate.

Future work may consider a more robust comparison of this model against other existing models, since several such models exist. Additionally, this model might be employed for a more directed event detection, as described in the introduction. The textual analysis in this paper could be augmented by considering synonyms and related concepts through word embedding which groups similar words together automatically. Additionally, other data modalities might also be considered, such as images, videos, and social media metadata. Since there is a spatial component of this data, future work may also analyze similar data for a different part of the country, to

833 determine if the trends we have identified hold true elsewhere.
 834 Finally, it may prove fruitful to analyze a similar methodology
 835 for other utilities such as water.

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