QUOTUS: The Structure of Political Media Coverage as Revealed by Quoting Patterns

Vlad Niculae⇤†
Cornell University
vlad@cs.cornell.edu

Caroline Suen⇤
Stanford University
cysuen@stanford.edu

Justine Zhang†‡
Stanford University
justinez@stanford.edu

Cristian Danescu-Niculescu-Mizil†
Cornell University
cristian@cs.cornell.edu

Jure Leskovec
Stanford University
jure@cs.stanford.edu

ABSTRACT

Given the extremely large pool of events and stories available, media outlets need to focus on a subset of issues and aspects to convey to their audience. Outlets are often accused of exhibiting a systematic bias in this selection process, with different outlets portraying different versions of reality. However, in the absence of objective measures and empirical evidence, the direction and extent of systematicity remains widely disputed.

In this paper we propose a framework based on quoting patterns for quantifying and characterizing the degree to which media outlets exhibit systematic bias. We apply this framework to a massive dataset of news articles spanning the six years of Obama’s presidency and all of his speeches, and reveal that a systematic pattern does indeed emerge from the outlet’s quoting behavior. Moreover, we show that this pattern can be successfully exploited in an unsupervised prediction setting, to determine which new quotes an outlet will select to broadcast. By encoding bias patterns in a low-rank space we provide an analysis of the structure of political media coverage. This reveals a latent media bias space that aligns surprisingly well with political ideology and outlet type. A linguistic analysis exposes striking differences across these latent dimensions, showing how the different types of media outlets portray different realities even when reporting on the same events. For example, outlets mapped to the mainstream conservative side of the latent space focus on quotes that portray a presidential persona disproportionately characterized by negativity.

Categories and Subject Descriptors: H.2.8 [Database Management]: Database applications—Data mining

General Terms: Algorithms; Experimentation.

Keywords: Media bias; Quotes; News media; Political science.

1. INTRODUCTION

The public relies heavily on mass media outlets for accessing important information on current events. Given the intrinsic space and time constraints these outlets face, some filtering of events, stories and aspects to broadcast is unavoidable.

The majority of media outlets claim to be balanced in their coverage, selecting issues purely based on their newsworthiness. However, journalism watchdogs and political think-tanks often accuse outlets of exhibiting systematic bias in the selection process, leaning either towards serving the interests of the owners and journalists or towards appeasing the preferences of their intended audience. This phenomenon, generally called media bias, has been extensively studied in political science, economics and communication literature (for a survey see [26]). Theoretical accounts provide a taxonomy of media bias based on the level at which the selection takes place: e.g., what issues and aspects are covered (issue and facts bias), how facts are presented (framing bias) or how they are commented on (ideological stand bias). Importantly, the dimensions along which bias operates can be very diverse: although the most commonly discussed dimension aligns with political ideology (e.g., liberal vs. conservative bias) other dimensions such as mainstream bias, corporate bias, power bias, and advertising bias are also important and perceived as inadequate journalism practices.

Bias is a highly subjective phenomenon that is hard to quantify—something that is considered unfairly biased by some might be regarded as balanced by others. For example, a recent Gallup survey [22] shows not only that the majority of Americans (57%) perceive media as being biased, but also that the perception of bias varies vastly depending on their self-declared ideology: 73% of conservatives perceive the media as having a liberal bias, while only 11% of liberals perceive it as having a liberal bias (and 33% perceive it as having a conservative bias). As a consequence, the extent and direction of bias for individual media outlets remains highly disputed.1

The subjective nature of this phenomenon and the absence of large scale objectively labeled data hindered quantitative analyses [13], and consequently most existing empirical studies of media bias are small focused analyses [6, 25, 28]. A few notable computational studies circumvent these limitations by relying on proxies such as the similarity between media outlets and the members of congress [8, 11, 20] or U. S. Supreme Court Justices [13]. Still, the reliance on such proxies constrains the analysis to predetermined

1In response to numerous accusations, the 21st Century Fox CEO Rupert Murdoch has declared “I challenge anybody to show me an example of bias in Fox News Channel.” (Salon, 3/1/01).
Figure 1: Volume of quotations for each word from a fragment of the 2010 State of the Union Address split by political leaning: conservative outlets shown in red and liberal outlets shown in blue. Quotes from the marked positions are reproduced in Table 1 and shown in the QUOTUS visualization in Figure 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Quote from the 2010 State of the Union Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>And in the last year, hundreds of al Qaeda’s fighters and affiliates, including many senior leaders, have been captured or killed—far more than in 2008.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>I will work with Congress and our military to finally repeal the law that denies gay Americans the right to serve the country they love because of who they are. It’s the right thing to do.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Each time lobbyists game the system or politicians tear each other down instead of lifting this country up, we lose faith. The more that TV pundits reduce serious debates to silly arguments, big issues into sound bites, our citizens turn away.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Democracy in a nation of 300 million people can be noisy and messy and complicated. And when you try to do big things and make big changes, it stirs passions and controversy. That’s just how it is.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>But I wake up every day knowing that they are nothing compared to the setbacks that families all across this country have faced this year.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Quotes corresponding to the positions marked in Figure 1.

dimension of bias, and conditions the value of the results on the accuracy of the proxy assumptions [7, 18].

Present work: unsupervised framework. We present a framework for quantifying the systematic bias exhibited by media outlets, without relying on any annotation and without predetermining the dimensions of bias. The basic operating principle of this framework is that quoting patterns exhibited by individual outlets can reveal media bias. Quotes are especially suitable since they correspond to an outlet’s explicit choices of whether to cover or not specific parts a larger statement. In this sense, quotes have the potential to provide precise insight into the decision process behind media coverage.

Ultimately, the goal of the proposed framework is to quantify to what extent quoting decisions follow systematic patterns that go beyond the relative importance (or newsworthiness) of the quotes, and to characterize the dimensions of this bias.

Focused analysis. Before applying our unsupervised framework to the entire data, we first perform a small-scale focused analysis on a carefully constructed subset of labeled outlet leanings, in order to gain intuition about the nature of the data. We label outlets based on liberal and conservative leaning, as well as on whether they are liberal or conservative outlets and largely ignored by liberal outlets. To a certain extent, the audience of the liberal media experienced a different State of the Union Address than the audience of the conservative group. Are these variations just random fluctuations, or are they the result of a systematically biased selection process? Do different media outlets portray consistently different realities even when reporting on the same events?

To study and identify the presence of systematic bias at a large scale, we start from a massive collection of six billion news articles [16] (over 20TB of compressed data) which spans the six years of Barack Obama’s tenure in office as the President of the United States (POTUS), between 2009 and 2014. We use the 2,274 public speeches made by Obama during this period (including state of the union addresses, weekly presidential addresses and various press conferences). We match quotes from Obama’s speeches to our news articles and build an outlet-to-quote bipartite graph linking 275 media outlets to the over 267,000 quotes which they reproduce. The graph allows us to study the structure of political media coverage over a long period of time and over a diverse set of public issues, while at the same time maintaining uniformity with respect to the person who is quoted.

We invite the reader to explore more such examples using the online visualization tool we release with this paper: http://snap.stanford.edu/quotus/vis
their leaning is self-declared. An empirical investigation of various characteristics of the outlets and of their articles reveals differences that further motivate the need for an unsupervised approach that is not tied to a predetermined dimension of bias.

**Large-scale analysis.** To quantify the degree to which the outlet-to-quote bipartite graph encodes a systematic pattern that extends beyond the simple newsworthiness of a quote, we use an unsupervised prediction paradigm. The task is to predict whether a given outlet will select a new quote, based on its previous quoting pattern. We show that, indeed, the patterns encoded in the outlet-to-quote graph can be exploited efficiently via a matrix factorization approach akin to that used by recommender systems. Furthermore, this approach brings significant improvement over baselines that only encode the popularity of the quote and the propensity of the outlet to pick up quotes, showing that these can not fully explain the systematic pattern that drives content selection.

Factorizing the outlet-to-quote matrix provides new insights into the structure of the political media coverage. First, we find that our labeled liberal and conservative outlets are separated in the space defined by the first two latent dimensions. Moreover, a post-hoc analysis of the outlets mapped to the extremes of this space reveals a strong alignment between these two latent dimensions and media type (mainstream vs. independent) and political ideology. The separation between outlets along these dimensions is surprisingly clear, considering that the method is completely unsupervised.

By mapping the quotes onto the same latent space, our method also reveals how the systematic patterns of the media operate at a linguistic level. For example, outlets on the conservative side of the (latent) ideological spectrum are more likely to select Obama’s quotes that contain more negations and negative sentiment, portraying an overly negative character.

To summarize the main contributions of this paper:

- we introduce a completely unsupervised framework for analyzing the patterns behind the media’s selection of what to cover;
- we apply this framework to a large dataset of presidential speeches and media coverage thereof which we make publicly available together with an online visualization tool (Section 2);
- we reveal systematic biases that are predictive of an outlet’s quoting choices (Section 4.1);
- we show that the most important dimensions of bias align with the ideological spectrum and outlet type (Section 4.2);
- we characterize these two dimensions linguistically, exposing striking differences in the way in which different outlets portray reality (Section 4.3).

## 2. METHODOLOGY

Our analysis framework relies on a bipartite graph that encodes various outlets’ selections of quotes to cite. First, we introduce the general methodology for building such a bipartite graph from transcript and news article data. We then apply this methodology to the particular setting in which we instantiate this graph: with speeches delivered by President Obama and a massive collection of news articles.

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### 2.1 Building an outlet-to-quote graph

**Matching.** We begin with the two datasets that we wish to match: a set of source statements (in our case, presidential speech transcripts), and a set of news articles. We identify the quotes in each article, and search for a candidate speech and corresponding location within the speech from which the quote originates. We allow approximate matches and align article quotes to the speeches word by word.

In order to avoid false positives, we set a lower bound $l$ on the number of words required in each quote. For each remaining quote, we then examine the speeches that occur before the quote’s corresponding article’s timestamp to find a match. Since more recent speeches are more likely to be quoted, for performance reasons we search the latest speech first, and proceed backwards. Because matches that are too distant in time are more likely to be spurious, we also limit the set of candidates to speeches that occur at most $t$ days before the quote.

We find approximate matches using a variant of the Needleman-Wunsch dynamic programming algorithm for matching strings using substring edit distance. We use an empirically determined similarity threshold $s$ to determine whether a quote matches or not. The output of our matching process is an alignment between article quotes and source statements from the transcripts.

**Identifying quote clusters.** News outlets often quote the same part of a speech in different ways. Variations result when articles select different subparts of the same statement, or choose different paraphrases of the quote. Sometimes these variations can be semantic while most of the times they are purely syntactic (e.g., resolution of pronouns). For our purposes, we want to consider all variations of a quote as a unique quote phrase that the media outlets choose to distribute. To accomplish this, we group two different quotes into the same *quote cluster* if their matched locations within a transcript overlap on at least five words.

The resulting output is a series of quote clusters, each of which is affiliated with a specific area of the statement transcript. The majority of our analysis considers quotes at the cluster level, instead of looking at individual quote variants.

**Article deduplication.** To most clearly highlight any relationships between quote selection and editorial slant, we wish to ensure that each quote used in analysis is deliberately chosen by the news outlet that published the corresponding article. However, it is a common practice among news outlets to republish content generated by other organizations. Notably, most news outlets will frequently post articles generated by wire services. Such curated content, while endorsed by the outlet, is not necessarily reflective of the outlet’s editorial stance, and we can better differentiate outlet quoting patterns after removing them. Duplicate articles need not necessarily be perfectly identical, so we employ fuzzy string matching using length-normalized Levenshtein edit distance. Among each set of duplicate articles, we keep the one published first.

**Outlet-to-quote bipartite graph.** The output after executing our pipeline above is a set of (outlet, quote phrase) pairs. As a final step, we turn these pairs into a directed bipartite graph $G$, with outlets and quote clusters as the two disjoint node sets. An edge $u \to v$ exists in $G$ if outlet $u$ has an article that picks up a variant of quote $v$.

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6Some news outlets cite the same quote multiple times across different articles. To minimize the effect of multiple quoting, we keep only the chronologically earliest quote, and disregard the rest.

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Figure 2: Visualization of the fragment of 2010 State of the Union Address represented in Figure 1 between markers B and C. The left panel shows text highlighted according to quotation volume and slant. The right panel shows all variants of a selected quote cluster. An interactive visualization for the entire dataset is available online at http://snap.stanford.edu/quotus/vis/.

Table 2: Statistics of the news article and presidential speech dataset used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of news outlets</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of presidential speeches</td>
<td>2,274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of unique articles</td>
<td>222,240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of unique quotes</td>
<td>267,737</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of quote clusters</td>
<td>53,504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of unique (outlet, cluster) pairs</td>
<td>228,893</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2 Dataset description

We construct a database of presidential speeches by crawling the archives of public broadcast transcripts from the White House’s web site.7 In this way we obtain full transcripts of speeches delivered by White House–affiliated personnel, spanning from 2009 to 2014. For the purposes of our analyses, we focus on the paragraphs that are specifically spoken by President Obama. Our news article collection consists of articles spanning from 2009 to 2014; each entry includes the article’s title, timestamp, URL, and content. Overall the collection contains over six billion articles. To work with a more manageable amount of data, we run our quote matching pipeline on articles only if they contain the string “Obama”, and were produced by one of 275 media outlets from a list that was manually compiled; news outlets on this list were identified as likely to produce content related to politics. Overall, this reduces the collection to roughly 200GB of compressed news article data. Further statistics about the processed data are displayed in Table 2.

Visualization. Finally, we make the matched data publicly available and provide an online visualization to serve as an interface for qualitative investigations of the data.8

3. SMALL-SCALE FOCUSED ANALYSIS

To gain intuition about our data and to better understand the biases that occur in the political news landscape, we first focus our analyses on a small subset of news outlets for which there is an established or suspected bias according to political science research [2, 9, 11]. We conduct an empirical analysis to compare outlets in different label categories in terms of their coverage of the presidential speeches. Then, by interpreting this data as a bipartite graph, we perform a rewiring experiment to quantify the degree to which outlet categories relate to each other. In doing so, we motivate the need for an unsupervised approach to study the structure of political media bias at scale (Section 4).

3.1 Outlet selection

As discussed in the introduction, obtaining reliable labels of outlet political leaning is a challenge that has hindered quantitative analysis of this phenomenon. One of the most common dichotomies considered in the literature is that between liberal and conservative ideologies. We refer to political science research to construct a list of twenty-outlets which we group in four categories: declared conservative, suspected conservative, suspected liberal, and declared liberal. Our selection criteria is as follows:

- If an outlet declares itself to be liberal or conservative, or the owner explicitly declares a leaning, we refer to the outlet as declared conservative (dC) or declared liberal (dL). We refer to such outlets as declared outlets.
- If several bias-related political science studies [2, 9, 11] consistently suggest that an outlet is liberal or conservative, but...
the outlet itself does not have a declared leaning, we label it as suspected liberal (sL) or suspected conservative (sC). We refer to such outlets as suspected outlets.

The labeled outlets considered in this sections is shown in Table 3.

### 3.2 Outlet and article characteristics

We first perform an empirical analysis to explore the relation between outlet categories. We analyze both general characteristics of the outlets, as well as properties of the articles citing the president.

**Percentage of articles discussing Obama.** First, we simply measure the percentage of all articles of a given outlet that mention “Obama”. Figure 3(a) shows that the fraction of articles discussing the president is generally higher for declared outlets (both liberal and conservative; filled bars) than for suspected ones (unfilled bars). This aligns with the intuition that outlets with a clear ideological affiliation are more likely to discuss political issues.

**Reaction time.** Declared and suspected outlets also differ in how early they cover popular speech segments. Many sound bites from Obama’s more popular speeches, such as the annual state of the union address, are cited by a multitude of outlets. Here we consider quotes that were cited by at least five of the labeled outlets; for each such quote we sort the citing outlets into a relative time ranking between 0 and 1, to normalize for cluster size, where a smaller number indicates a shorter reaction time. Aggregated results by outlet category are shown in Figure 3(b). We note that suspected outlets, especially liberal ones, tend to report quotes faster than those with declared ideology.

**Article length.** We expect the observed difference in reaction time between different categories of outlets to be reflected in the type of articles they publish. The first article feature we investigate is length in words, shown in Figure 3(c). We observe that declared outlets (especially liberal ones) publish substantially longer articles; this difference is potentially related to the longer time that these outlets take to cover the respective speeches.

**Fraction of quoted content.** To better understand the article-length differences, we examine the composition of the articles in terms of quoted content. In particular, we consider the fraction of words in the article that are quoted from a presidential speech. Figure 3(d) shows that the (generally shorter) declared conservative articles have a considerably higher proportion of presidential content than most declared liberal articles, indicating a different approach to storytelling that relies more on quotes and less on exposition.

### 3.3 Outlet-to-quote graph analysis

We now explore the differences in the quoting patterns of outlets from the four labeled categories. To this end, we explore the structure of the bipartite graph \( G \) connecting media outlets to the quotes they cite (introduced in Section 2.1), focusing only the sub-graph induced by the labeled outlets.

We attempt to measure the quoting pattern similarity of outlets from category \( B \) to those from category \( A \) as the likelihood of a source from category \( B \) to cite a quote, given that the respective quote is also cited by some outlet in category \( A \). In terms of the outlet-to-quote graph \( G \), we can quantify this as the average proportion of quotes cited by outlets in \( A \) that are also cited by outlets in \( B \):

\[
M_G(B|A) = \frac{1}{|o(A)|} \sum_{(u,v) \in o(A)} \frac{1}{|i(v)|} \sum_{(a,h) \in i(v)} 1[a \in B, u \neq a],
\]
where $o(A)$ denotes the set of outbound edges in $G$ with the outlet node residing in $A$, and $(v)$ denotes the set of inbound edges in $G$ with $v$ as the destination quote node. We will call $M_G(B|A)$ the proportion-score of $B$ given $A$.

The proportion-score is not directly informative of the quoting pattern similarity since it is skewed by differences in relative sizes of the outlets in each category. To account for these effects, we empirically estimate how unexpected $M_G(B|A)$ is given the observed degree distribution. We construct random graphs by rewiring the edges of the original bipartite graph [23], such that for a large number of iterations we select edges $u_1 \rightarrow v_1$ and $u_2 \rightarrow v_2$ to remove, where $u_1 \neq u_2$ and $v_1 \neq v_2$, and replace these edges with $u_2 \rightarrow v_1$ and $u_1 \rightarrow v_2$.

We use the randomly rewired graphs to build a hypothetical scenario where quoting happens at random, apart from trivial outlet-size effects. We can then quantify the deviation from this scenario using the surprise measure, which we define as follows. Let $R$ denote the set of all rewired graphs; given the original graph $G$ the surprise $S_G(B|A)$ for categories $A$ and $B$ is:

$$S_G(B|A) = \frac{M_G(B|A) - \mathbf{E}_{r \in R} M_r(B|A)}{\sqrt{\text{var}_{r \in R} M_r(B|A)}}.$$ 

In other words, surprise measures the average difference between the proportion-score calculated in the original graph $G$, and the one expected in the randomly rewired graphs, normalized by the standard deviation. Surprise is, therefore, an asymmetric measure of similarity between the quoting patterns of outlets in two given categories, that is not biased by the size of the outlets.

The surprise values between our four considered categories are shown in Table 4. A negative surprise score $S_G(B|A)$ indicates (in units of standard deviation) how much lower the proportion of quotes reported by outlets in $A$ that are also cited by outlets in $B$ is than in a hypothetical scenario where quotes are cited at random. For example, the fact that $S_G(dC|sC)$ is negative indicates that declared conservative outlets are much less likely to cite quotes reported by suspected conservative outlets than by chance, in spite of their suspected ideological similarity. Furthermore, we observe that declared liberal outlets are actually disproportionately more likely to cite quotes that are also reported by declared conservative outlets, in spite of their declared opposing ideologies.

Interestingly, for both categories of declared outlets, we find a high degree of within-category heterogeneity in terms of quoting patterns, with $S_G(dC|dC)$ and $S_G(dL|dL)$ being negative. The reverse is true for suspected outlets: both $S_G(sC|sC)$ and $S_G(sL|sL)$ have positive values that indicate within category homogeneity (e.g., suspected liberal outlets are very likely to cite quotes that other suspected liberal outlets cite). These observations bring additional evidence suggestive of the difference in nature between declared and suspected outlets.

### Table 4: Surprise, $S_G(B|A)$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>dC</th>
<th>sC</th>
<th>dL</th>
<th>sL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M_G</td>
<td>-3.5</td>
<td>-6.1</td>
<td>-9.7</td>
<td>-3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_G</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dL</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>-3.4</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>-3.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where $o(A)$ denotes the set of outbound edges in $G$ with the outlet node residing in $A$, and $(v)$ denotes the set of inbound edges in $G$ with $v$ as the destination quote node. We will call $M_G(B|A)$ the proportion-score of $B$ given $A$.

The proportion-score is not directly informative of the quoting pattern similarity since it is skewed by differences in relative sizes of the outlets in each category. To account for these effects, we empirically estimate how unexpected $M_G(B|A)$ is given the observed degree distribution. We construct random graphs by rewiring the edges of the original bipartite graph [23], such that for a large number of iterations we select edges $u_1 \rightarrow v_1$ and $u_2 \rightarrow v_2$ to remove, where $u_1 \neq u_2$ and $v_1 \neq v_2$, and replace these edges with $u_2 \rightarrow v_1$ and $u_1 \rightarrow v_2$.

We use the randomly rewired graphs to build a hypothetical scenario where quoting happens at random, apart from trivial outlet-size effects. We can then quantify the deviation from this scenario using the surprise measure, which we define as follows. Let $R$ denote the set of all rewired graphs; given the original graph $G$ the surprise $S_G(B|A)$ for categories $A$ and $B$ is:

$$S_G(B|A) = \frac{M_G(B|A) - \mathbf{E}_{r \in R} M_r(B|A)}{\sqrt{\text{var}_{r \in R} M_r(B|A)}}.$$ 

In other words, surprise measures the average difference between the proportion-score calculated in the original graph $G$, and the one expected in the randomly rewired graphs, normalized by the standard deviation. Surprise is, therefore, an asymmetric measure of similarity between the quoting patterns of outlets in two given categories, that is not biased by the size of the outlets.

The surprise values between our four considered categories are shown in Table 4. A negative surprise score $S_G(B|A)$ indicates (in units of standard deviation) how much lower the proportion of quotes reported by outlets in $A$ that are also cited by outlets in $B$ is than in a hypothetical scenario where quotes are cited at random. For example, the fact that $S_G(dC|sC)$ is negative indicates that declared conservative outlets are much less likely to cite quotes reported by suspected conservative outlets than by chance, in spite of their suspected ideological similarity. Furthermore, we observe that declared liberal outlets are actually disproportionately more likely to cite quotes that are also reported by declared conservative outlets, in spite of their declared opposing ideologies.

Interestingly, for both categories of declared outlets, we find a high degree of within-category heterogeneity in terms of quoting patterns, with $S_G(dC|dC)$ and $S_G(dL|dL)$ being negative. The reverse is true for suspected outlets: both $S_G(sC|sC)$ and $S_G(sL|sL)$ have positive values that indicate within category homogeneity (e.g., suspected liberal outlets are very likely to cite quotes that other suspected liberal outlets cite). These observations bring additional evidence suggestive of the difference in nature between declared and suspected outlets.

### Table 5: Classification performance of matrix completion, compared to the baselines in terms of precision, recall, $F_1$ score and Matthew’s correlation coefficient. Bold scores are significantly better (based on 99% bootstrapped confidence intervals).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>$F_1$</th>
<th>MCC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quote popularity</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+ outlet propensity</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matrix completion</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Summary.** The surprise measure analysis not only confirms that there are systematic patterns in the underlying structure of the outlet-to-quote graph, but also shows that these patterns go beyond a naïve liberal-conservative divide. In fact, as also shown by our analysis of outlet and article characteristics, the declared-suspected distinction is often more salient. These results emphasize the limitation of a naïve supervised approach to classifying outlets according to ideologies: the outlets which we can confidently label as being liberal or conservative are different in nature from those that we would ideally like to classify. This motivates our unsupervised framework for revealing the structure of political media coverage, which we discuss next.

### 4. LARGE-SCALE ANALYSIS

In this section we present a fully unsupervised framework for characterizing media bias. Importantly, this framework does not depend on predefined dimensions of bias, and instead uncovers the structure of political media discourse directly from quoting patterns. In order to evaluate our model and confirm the systematicity of media coverage, we formulate the binary prediction task of whether a source will pick up a quote. We then use the low-rank embedding uncovered by our prediction method to analyze and interpret the emerging principal latent dimensions of bias and characterize them linguistically.

#### 4.1 Prediction: matrix completion

We attempt to model the latent dimensions that drive media coverage in a predictive framework that we can objectively evaluate. The task is to predict, for a given media outlet and a given quote from a presidential speech, whether the outlet will choose to report the quote or not.

Formally, we define $X = (x_{ij})$ to be the outlet-by-quote adjacency matrix such that $x_{ij} = 1$ if outlet $i$ cites quote-cluster $j$ and $x_{ij} = 0$ otherwise. In our task, we leave out a subset of the entries, and aim to recover them based on the other entries.

Inspired by recommender systems that reveal latent dimensions of user preferences and item attributes, we use a **low-rank matrix completion** approach. By applying this methodology to news outlets and quotes, we attempt to uncover the dimensions along which quotes vary and along which news outlets manifest their preference for certain types of quotes.

**Baselines.** We consider, independently, two baselines that do not take media bias into account: the popularity of a quote $\mu^q_i = E_i x_{ij}$ and the propensity of a news outlet to report quotes from presidential speeches, $\mu^r_i = E_j x_{ij}$ (where $E$ is the sample mean).

A simple hypothesis is that quotes are cited only based on their newsworthiness, such that important quotes are cited more often: $\hat{x}_{ij} \propto \mu_i^q$.
Figure 4: Projection of some of the media outlets onto the first two latent dimensions. Filled and colored markers are outlets with self-declared political slant, such as The Blaze and The Nation, while unfilled markers are more popular outlets for which slants are suspected, such as Fox News and the New York Times. Grey circles are international news outlets such as BBC and Hindu Times. Marker sizes are proportional to the propensity of quoting Obama.

A step further is to also take into account the propensity of an outlet to quote Obama at all:

\[ \hat{x}_{ij} \propto \mu^o_{ij} + \mu^s_{ij}. \]

In a world without any media bias, this baseline would be very hard to beat, since all outlets would cover the content proportionally to its importance and to their own capacity, without showing any systematic preference to any particular kind of content.

**Low-rank approximation.** More realistically, there are multiple dimensions that drive media coverage. To make use of this, we search for a low-rank approximation \( \tilde{X} \approx X \), where \( \tilde{X} \) is constructed as follows:

We start by taking into account quote frequency in the weighted matrix \( X = (x_{ij}) \) defined as:

\[ \hat{x}_{ij} = \frac{x_{ij}}{\sqrt{\sum x_{i,j}}}. \]

Then, we build a row-normalized \( \tilde{X} = (\tilde{x}_{ij}) \):

\[ \tilde{x}_{ij} = \frac{\hat{x}_{ij}}{||\hat{X}||_2}. \]

We estimate \( \tilde{X} \) as to best reconstruct the observed values \((a)\), while keeping the estimate low-rank by regularizing the \( \ell_1 \) norm of its singular values, also known as its nuclear norm \((b)\) [21]:

\[
\text{minimize}_X \frac{1}{2} ||P_0(\tilde{X}) - P_0(\hat{X})||^2_F + \lambda ||\tilde{X}||_*.
\]

where \( P_0 \) is the element-wise projection over the space of observed values of \( \tilde{X} \). To solve the minimization problem, we use a fast alternating least squares method [12].

**Results.** We leave out 500,000 entries of the outlet-by-quote matrix (out of 14.7 million) and divide them into equal development and test sets. The class distribution is heavily imbalanced, with the positive class (quoting) occurring only about 1.6% of the time. In order to evaluate our model in a binary decision framework, we use Matthew’s correlation coefficient as the principal performance metric. We tune the amount of regularization \( \lambda \) and the cutoff threshold on the development set. The selected model has rank 3. Table 5 reports the system’s predictive performance on the test set. The latent low-rank model significantly outperforms both the quote popularity baseline as well as the baseline including outlet propensity, showing that the choices made by the media when covering political discourse are not solely explained by newsworthiness and available space. The performance of our model is twice that of the baselines in terms of both \( F_1 \) and Matthew’s correlation coefficient, and three times better in terms of precision, confirming that the latent quoting pattern bias is systematic and structured. Motivated by our results, next we attempt to characterize the dimension of bias with a spectral and linguistic analysis of the latent low-rank embedding.

### 4.2 Low-rank analysis

Armed with a low-rank space which captures the predictable quoting behavior patterns of media, we attempt to interpret the latent dimensions and gain insights about these patterns. This low-rank space is given by the singular value decomposition (SVD):

\[ X = USV^T, \]

where the rows of \( U \) (respectively \( V \)) embed outlets (respectively quotes) in the latent space.

We start by looking at the mapping of the labeled outlets, as listed in Table 3, in the space spanned by the latent dimensions. Figure 4 shows that the first two latent dimensions cluster the outlets in interpretable ways. Outlets with high values along the first axis appear to be more mainstream, while outlets with lower values more independent.9 Along the second dimension, declared conservative outlets all have higher values than declared liberal outlets. International news outlets such as the BBC and Al Jazeera have lower scores. Going beyond our labeled outlets, we look in detail at the projection of news outlets along this dimension in Table 6, showing the outlets with the highest and the lowest dimension.
Table 7: Example quotes by President Obama mapped to top two dimensions of quoting pattern bias.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First dimension of bias</th>
<th>Second dimension of bias</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>High</strong></td>
<td>Those of you who are watching certain news channels, on which I’m not very popular, and you see folks waving tea bags around...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If we don’t work even harder than we did in 2008, then we’re going to have a government that tells the American people, “you’re on your own.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>By the way, if you’ve got health insurance, you’re not getting hit by a tax.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Middle</strong></td>
<td>Congress passed a temporary fix. A band-aid. But these cuts are scheduled to keep falling across other parts of the government that provide vital services for the American people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Keep in mind, nobody is asking them to raise income tax rates. All we’re asking is for them to consider closing tax loopholes and deductions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The truth is, you could figure out on the back of an envelope how to get this done. The question is one of political will.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Low</strong></td>
<td>By the end of the next year, all U.S. troops will be out of Iraq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We come together here in Copenhagen because climate change poses a grave and growing danger to our people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wow, we must come together to end this war successfully.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The principle that people of all faiths are welcome in this country, and will not be treated differently by their government, is essential to who we are.

The United States is not, and will never be, at war with Islam. In fact, our partnership with the Muslim world is critical.

At a time when our discourse has become so sharply polarized [...] it’s important for us to pause for a moment and make sure that we are talking with each other in a way that heals, not a way that wounds.

Tonight, we are turning the east room into a bona fide country music hall.

You guys get two presidents for one, which is a pretty good deal.

Now, nothing wrong with an art history degree—I love art history.

The quote embedding allows us to perform a linguistic analysis of the presidential quotes and interpret the results in the latent bias space. Even though the latent representation is learned in a completely language-agnostic way (starting only from the outlet-quote graph), we find important language-related aspects.

Sentiment. We applied Stanford’s sentiment analyzer [30] on the presidential speeches and explore the relationship between the latent dimensions and average sentiment of the paragraph surrounding the quote. We find a negative correlation between the second dimension and sentiment values: the quotes with high values along this dimension, roughly corresponding to outlets ideologically aligned as conservative, come from paragraphs with more negative sentiment (Spearman $\rho = -0.32, p < 10^{-7}$). Figure 5(a) shows how positive and negative sentiment is distributed along the first two latent dimensions. A diagonal effect is apparent, suggesting that outlets clustered in the international and independent region portray a more positive Obama, while more mainstream and conservative outlets tend to reflect more negativity from the president’s speeches.

Negation. We also study how the presence of lexical negation (the word not and the contraction n’t) in a quote relates to the probability of media outlets from different regions of the latent bias space to cite that quote. While lexical negation is in some cases related to sentiment, it also corresponds to instances where the president contradicts or refutes a point, potentially relating to controversy. Figure 5(b) shows the likelihood of quotes to contain negation in different areas of the latent space. The effect is similar: quotes with negation seem more likely in the region corresponding to mainstream conservative outlets, possibly because of highlighting the controversial aspects in the president’s discourse.
**Topic analysis.** We train a topic model using Latent Dirichlet Allocation [3] on all paragraphs from the presidential speeches. We manually label the topics and discard the ones related to the non-political “background” of the speeches, such as introducing other people and organizing question and answer sessions. We construct a topic–quote matrix $T = (t_{ij})$ such that $t_{ij} = 1$ if the paragraph surrounding quote $j$ in the original speech has topic $i$ as the dominant topic, and 0 otherwise. We scale $T$ so that the rows (topics) sum to 1, obtaining $\tilde{T}$, which we then project to the SVD latent space introduced earlier by solving for $L_T = L_T SV^T$. Since $V$ is orthonormal, the projection is given by $L_T = TVS^{-1}$. Figure 5(c) shows the arrangement of the dominant topics in the latent space. Quotes about the troops and war veterans are ranked on the top of the second dimension, corresponding to more conservative outlets, while financial and healthcare quotes occupy the other end of the axis. Healthcare is distanced from other topics on the first axis, suggesting it is a topic of greater interest to mainstream news outlets rather than the more focused, independent media.

**Lexical analysis.** We attempt to capture a finer-grained linguistic characterization of the space by looking at salient words and bigrams. We restrict our analysis to words and bigrams occurring in at least 100 and at most 1000 quotes. We construct a binary bag-of-words matrix $W$ where $(w_{ij}) = 1$ iff. word or bigram $i$ occurs in quote $j$. Same as with topics, we scale the rows of $W$ (corresponding to word frequency) to obtain $\tilde{W}$ and project onto the SVD latent space as $L_W = \tilde{W}VS^{-1}$. Among the words that are projected highest on the first axis, we find *republicans*, *cut*, *deficit* and *spending*. Among the center of the ranking we find words and phrases such as *financial crisis*, *foreign oil*, *solar*, *small business*, and *Bin Laden*. The phrase *chemical weapons* also appears near the middle, possibly as an effect of liberal outlets being critical of the decisions former Bush administration. On the negative end of the spectrum, corresponding to international outlets, we find words such as *countries*, *international*, *relationship*, *alliance* and country names such as *Iran*, *China*, *Pakistan*, and *Afghanistan*.

Overall, the mapping of linguistic properties of the quotes in the latent bias space is surprisingly consistent, and suggest that outlets in different regions of this space consistently portray different presidential personae to their audience.

### 5. FURTHER RELATED WORK

**Media bias.** Our work relates to an extensive body of literature—spanning across political science, economics and communication studies—that gives theoretical and empirical accounts of media bias and its effects. We refer the reader to a recent comprehensive survey of media bias [26], and focus here on the studies that are most relevant to our approach.

**Selection patterns.** Several small-scale studies investigate subjects that media outlets select to cover by relying on hand annotated slant labels. For instance, by tracing the media coverage of 32 hand-picked scandal stories, it was shown that outlets with a conservative slant are more likely to cover scandals involving liberal politicians, and vice-versa [27]. Another study [2] focuses on the choices that five online news outlets make with respect to which stories to display in their top news section, and reports that conservative outlets show signs of partisan filtering. In contrast, by relying on an unsupervised methodology, our work explores selection patterns in data involving orders of magnitude more selector agents and items to be selected. Closer to our approach are methods that show political polarization starting from linking patterns in blogs [1] or from the structure of the retweet graph in Twitter [5]. These approaches operate on a predefined liberal-conservative dimension, and assume available political labels. Furthermore, the structure they exploit does not directly apply to the setting of news media articles.

**Language and ideology.** Recently, natural language processing techniques were applied to identify ideologies in a variety of large scale text collections, including congressional debates [14, 24], presidential debates [19], academic papers [15], books [29], and Twitter posts [4, 33, 34]. All this work operates on a predefined dimension of conservative–liberal political ideology using known slant labels; in the news media domain slant is seldom declared or proven with certainty and thus we need to resort to an unsupervised methodology.

**Quote tracking.** Recent work has focused quoting practices [31] and on the task of efficiently tracking and matching quote snippets as they evolve, both over a set period of time [16], as well as over...
an longer, variable period of time [32]. We adapt their task in order to news article quotes with presidential speech segments and build our outlet-to-quote graph.

6. CONCLUSION

We propose an unsupervised framework for uncovering and characterizing media bias starting from quoting patterns. We apply this framework to a dataset of matched news articles and presidential speech transcripts, which we make publicly available together with an online visualization that can facilitate further exploration.

There is systematic bias in the quoting patterns of different types of news sources. We find that the bias goes beyond simple newsworthiness and space limitation effects, and we objectively quantify this by showing our model to be predictive of quoting activity, without making any a priori assumptions regarding the dimension of bias and without requiring labeling of the news domains. When comparing the unsupervised model with self-declared political slants, we find that an important dimension of bias is roughly aligned with an ideology spectrum ranging from conservative, passing through liberal, to the international media outlets.

By selectively choosing to report certain types of quotes by the same speaker, the media has the power to portray different personae of the speaker. Thus, an audience only following one type of media may witness a presidential persona that is different from the one portrayed by other types of media or from what the president tries to project. By conducting a linguistic analysis on the latent dimensions revealed by our framework, we find that differences go beyond topic selection, and that mainstream conservative outlets portray a persona that is characterized by negativism, both in terms of negative sentiment and in use of lexical negation.

Future work. Throughout our analysis, we don’t take into account potential changes in a media outlet’s behavior over time. Modeling temporal effects could reveal ideological shifts and differences in issue framing.

Furthermore, natural language techniques can be better tuned to insights from political science in order to produce tools and resources more suited for analyzing political discourse [10]. For instance, exploratory analysis shows that state-of-the-art sentiment analysis tools fail to capture subtle nuances in political commentary and we expect that fine-grained opinion mining can achieve this better [17].

Finally, news sources often take the liberty of skipping or altering certain words when quoting. While these changes are often made to improve readability, we speculate that systematic patterns in such edits could uncover different dimensions of media bias.

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7. REFERENCES


