Modeling and Predicting Popularity Dynamics via Reinforced Poisson Processes

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Abstract
An ability to predict the popularity dynamics of individual items within a complex evolving system has important implications in an array of areas. Here we propose a generative probabilistic framework using a reinforced Poisson process to explicitly model the process through which individual items gain their popularity. This model distinguishes itself from existing models via its capability of modeling the arrival process of popularity and its remarkable power at predicting the popularity of individual items. It possesses the flexibility of applying Bayesian treatment to further improve the predictive power using a conjugate prior. Extensive experiments on a longitudinal citation dataset demonstrate that this model consistently outperforms existing popularity prediction methods.

Introduction
Information explosion, from knowledge database to online media, places attention economy in the center of this era. In the heart of attention economy lies a competing process through which a few items become popular while most are forgotten over time (Wu and Huberman 2007). For example, videos on YouTube or stories on Digg gain their popularity by striving for views or votes (Szabo and Huberman 2010); papers increase their visibility by competing for citations from new papers (Wang, Song, and Barabási 2013); tweets or Hashtags in Twitter become more popular as being retweeted (Hong, Dan, and Davison 2011) and so do webpages as being attached by incoming hyperlinks (Ratkiewicz et al. 2010). An ability to predict the popularity of individual items within a dynamically evolving system not only probes our understanding of complex systems, but also has important implications in a wide range of domains, from marketing and traffic control to policy making and risk management. Despite recent advances of empirical methods, we lack a general modeling framework to predict the popularity of individual items within a complex evolving system.

Current models fall into two main paradigms, each with known strengths and limitations. One focuses on reproducing certain statistical quantities over an aggregation of items (Barabási 2005; Kempe, Kleinberg, and Tardos 2003; Backstrom et al. 2006; Dezso et al. 2006; Crane and Sornette 2008; Ratkiewicz et al. 2010). These models have been successful in understanding the underlying mechanisms of popularity dynamics. Yet, as they do not provide a way to extract item-specific parameters, these models lack predictive power for the popularity dynamics of individual items. The other line of enquiry, in contrast, treats the popularity dynamics as time series, making predictions by either exploiting temporal correlations (Szabo and Huberman 2010; Yang and Leskovec 2010; Lerman and Hogg 2010; Yan et al. 2011; Yu et al. 2012; Bao et al. 2013b) or fitting to these time series certain classes of functions (Bass 1969; Mahajan, Muller, and Bass 1990; Vu et al. 2011; Matsubara et al. 2012; Lerman and Hogg 2012; Gomez-Rodriguez, Leskovec, and Schölkopf 2013; Yang and Zha 2013). Despite their initial success in certain domains, these models are deterministic, modeling the popularity dynamics in a mean-field, if heuristic, fashion by focusing on the average amount of attention received within a fixed time window, ignoring the underlying arrival process of attentions. Indeed, to best of our knowledge, we lack a probabilistic framework currently to model and predict the popularity dynamics of individual items. The reason behind this is partly illustrated in Figure 1, suggesting that the dynamical processes governing individual items appear too noisy to be amenable to quantification.

In this paper, we model the stochastic popularity dynamics using reinforced Poisson processes, capturing simultaneously three key ingredients: fitness of an item, characterizing its inherent competitiveness against other items; a general temporal relaxation function, corresponding to the aging in the ability to attract new attention; and a reinforcement mechanism, documenting the well-known “rich-get-richer” phenomenon. The benefit of the proposed model is three-fold: (1) It models the arrival process of individual attentions directly in contrast to relying on aggregated popularity time series; (2) As a generative probabilistic model, it can be easily incorporated into the Bayesian framework to account for external factors, hence leading to improved predictive power; (3) The flexibility in its choice of specific relaxation functions makes it a general framework that can be adapted to model the popularity dynamics in different domains.

Taking citation system as an exemplary case, we demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed framework using a dataset peculiar in its longitudinality, spanning over 100 years and containing all the papers ever published by Amer-
Reinforced Poisson Process

The popularity dynamics of individual item \( d \) during time period \([0, T]\) is characterized by a set of time moments \( \{t^d_i\} (1 \leq i \leq n_d) \) when each attention is received, where \( n_d \) represents the total number of attentions. Without loss of generality, we have \( 0 = t^d_0 \leq t^d_1 \leq \cdots \leq t^d_i \leq \cdots \leq t^d_{n_d} \leq T \). To model the arrival process of \( \{t^d_i\} \), we consider two major phenomena confirmed independently in previous studies of population dynamics: (1) the reinforcement capturing the “rich-get-richer” mechanism, i.e., previous attention triggers more subsequent attentions (Crane and Sornette 2008); (2) the aging effect characterizing time-dependent attractiveness of individual items (Wang, Song, and Barabási 2013). Taken these two factors together, for an individual item \( d \), we model its popularity dynamics as a reinforced Poisson process (RPP) (Pemantle 2007) characterized by the rate function \( x_d(t) \) as

\[
x_d(t) = \lambda_d f_d(t; \theta_d) i_d(t),
\]

where \( \lambda_d \) is the intrinsic attractiveness, \( f_d(t; \theta_d) \) is the relaxation function that characterizes the temporal inhomogeneity due to the aging effect modulated by parameters \( \theta_d \), and \( i_d(t) \) is the total number of attentions received up to time \( t \).

From a Bayesian viewpoint, the total number of attentions \( i_d(t) \) is the sum of the number of real attentions and the effective number of attentions which plays the role of prior belief. Here, we assume that all items are created equal and hence the effective number of attentions for all items has the same value, denoted by \( m \). Therefore during the time interval between the \((i-1)\)th and \(i\)th attentions, we have

\[
i_d(t) = m + i - 1,
\]

where \( 1 \leq i \leq n_d \). Accordingly, during the time interval between the \(n_d\)th attention and \( T \), the total number of attention is \( m + n_d \).

The length of time interval between two consecutive attentions follows an inhomogeneous Poisson process. Therefore, given that the \((i-1)\)th attention arrives at \( t^d_{i-1} \), the probability that the \(i\)th attention arrives at \( t^d_i \) follows

\[
p_1(t^d_i | t^d_{i-1}) = \lambda_d f_d(t^d_i; \theta_d)(m + i - 1)
\]

\[
\times e^{-\int_{t^d_{i-1}}^{t^d_i} \lambda_d f_d(t; \theta_d)(m + i - 1) dt},
\]

and the probability that no attention arrives between \( t^d_{i-1} \) and \( T \) is

\[
p_0(T | t^d_{n_d}) = e^{-\int_{t^d_{n_d}}^{T} \lambda_d f_d(t; \theta_d)(m + n_d) dt}.
\]

Incorporating Eqs. (3) and (4) with the fact that attentions during different time intervals are statistically independent, the likelihood of observing the popularity dynamics \( \{t^d_i\} \) during time interval \([0, T]\) follows

\[
L(\lambda_d, \theta_d) = p_0(T | t^d_{n_d}) \prod_{i=1}^{n_d} p_1(t^d_i | t^d_{i-1})
\]

\[
= \lambda_d^{n_d} (m + i - 1) f_d(t^d_i; \theta_d) \times e^{-\lambda_d((m + n_d)T - \sum_{i=1}^{n_d} F_d(t^d_i; \theta_d))},
\]

where \( F_d(t; \theta_d) \equiv \int_0^t f_d(t; \theta_d) dt \) and we have reorganized the terms on the exponent for simplicity. For clarity, we illustrate the proposed RPP model in the graphical representation (Figure 2).

By maximizing the likelihood function in Eq. (5), we obtain the most likely fitness parameter \( \lambda^*_d \) for item \( d \) in closed form:

\[
\lambda^*_d = \frac{n_d}{(m + n_d)F_d(T; \theta^*_d) - \sum_{i=1}^{n_d} F_d(t^d_i; \theta^*_d)}.
\]

The solution for \( \theta^*_d \) depends on the specific form of relaxation function \( f_d(t; \theta_d) \). We save the discussions about the estimation of \( \theta^*_d \) for later.

Next we show that, with the obtained \( \lambda^*_d \) and \( \theta^*_d \), the model can be used to predict the expected number \( c^d(t) \) of attention gathered by item \( d \) up to any given time \( t \). Indeed, according to Eq. (1), for \( t \geq T \), this prediction task is equivalent to the following differential equation

\[
\frac{dc^d(t)}{dt} = \lambda_d f_d(t; \theta_d)(m + c^d(t))
\]

with the boundary condition \( c^d(T) = n_d \). Solving this differential equation, we get the prediction function

\[
c^d(t) = (m + n_d)e^{\lambda^*_d(F_d(t; \theta^*_d) - F_d(T; \theta^*_d))} - m.
\]
Reinforced Poisson Process with prior

Maximum likelihood parameter estimation suffers from the overfitting problem for small sample size. For example, Eq. (6) gives \( \lambda_d^* = 0 \) when \( n_d = 0 \), and results in a null forecasting of future popularity, i.e., \( e^{d_t}(t) = 0 \) at any future time \( t \). Moreover, the exponential dependency of \( e^{d_t}(t) \) on \( \lambda_d^* \) in Eq. (8) leads to a large uncertainty in the prediction of \( e^{d_t}(t) \). In this section, to overcome the drawback of the parameter estimation in Eq. (6), we adopt the Bayesian treatment for popularity prediction by introducing a conjugate prior for the fitness parameter \( \lambda_d \). Therefore, the conjugate prior for \( \lambda_d \) follows the gamma distribution

\[
p(\lambda_d|\alpha, \beta) = \frac{\beta^\alpha}{\Gamma(\alpha)} \lambda_d^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta \lambda_d}, \tag{9}
\]

Note that this conjugate prior is the prior distribution of fitness parameters for all \( N \) items rather than for certain individual item. Hereafter, for convenience, we use \( \vec{t}_d \equiv \{ t^d_i \} \) to denote all the arrival time of attention gathered by item \( d \). After introducing the conjugate prior, the graphical representation of model is depicted in Figure 3.

Using Bayes’ theorem and combining Eqs. (5) and (9), we obtain the posterior distribution of \( \lambda_d \)

\[
p(\lambda_d|\vec{t}_d, \theta_d, \alpha, \beta) = \frac{p(\vec{t}_d|\lambda_d, \theta_d)p(\lambda_d|\alpha, \beta)}{\int p(\vec{t}_d|\lambda_d, \theta_d)p(\lambda_d|\alpha, \beta) d\lambda_d}
\]

\[
= \frac{(\alpha + n_d) \lambda_d^{\alpha+n_d} e^{-(\alpha + n_d) \lambda_d}}{\Gamma(\alpha + n_d)} e^{-\beta \lambda_d}, \tag{10}
\]

where \( X \equiv (m + n_d) F_d(T; \theta_d) - \sum_{i=1}^{n_d} F_d(t^d_i; \theta_d). \)

With the obtained posterior distribution of \( \lambda_d \), the expected number of attention \( e^{d_t}(t) \), as shown in Eq. (8), can be predicted using its mean over the posterior distribution as

\[
e^{d_t}(t) = \int e^{d_t}(t)p(\lambda_d|\vec{t}_d, \theta_d, \alpha, \beta) d\lambda_d
\]

\[
= (m + n_d) \left( \frac{\beta + X}{\beta + X - Y} \right)^{\alpha+n_d} - m, \tag{11}
\]

where \( Y \equiv F_d(t; \theta_d) - F_d(T; \theta_d) \). When \( \beta \to \infty \), the prediction function reduces to a naive method, i.e., predicting that the popularity keeps constant in future. Eq. (11) is the Bayesian prediction function, predicting \( e^{d_t}(t) \) using the posterior distribution of \( \lambda_d \) instead of using a single value of \( \lambda_d^* \) obtained by maximum likelihood estimation. Neither \( X \), corresponding to empirical observations, nor \( Y \), reflecting the rate difference in reinforced Poisson process, is in the exponent, indicating the robustness of this prediction function.

We now discuss how to determine the parameters \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) of prior distribution. Basically, the values of prior parameters could be tuned by checking the accuracy of prediction function with respect to prior parameters on so-called validation set. This means that we need to know the future popularity of some items to determine prior parameters. It is impractical in many scenarios where it is unrealistic to leverage future information for prediction.

One alternative solution is the fully Bayesian approach which introduces hyperprior for prior parameters. Although fully Bayesian approach is theoretically elegant, the inference of prior parameters is intractable in most cases. Approximation methods or Monte Carlo methods have to be adopted. As a result, the benefit of fully Bayesian approach is discounted by approximation gap in approximation methods or high computational cost of Monte Carlo methods.

In this paper, we determine the value of prior parameters by adopting maximum likelihood estimation with latent variable. Specifically, we choose the \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) values that maximize the following logarithmic likelihood function

\[
\mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta) = \sum_{d=1}^{N} \ln p(\vec{t}_d|\lambda_d)p(\lambda_d|\alpha, \beta) d\lambda_d. \tag{12}
\]

Here, \( \theta_d \) is not explicitly written to keep the notation uncluttered. In sum, \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are obtained according to

\[
\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta)}{\partial \beta} = \frac{N \alpha}{\beta} - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_d, \tag{13}
\]

\[
\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\alpha, \beta)}{\partial \alpha} = N (\ln \beta - \phi_0(\alpha)) + \sum_{d=1}^{N} \ln \frac{\lambda_d}{\alpha + n_d}
\]

\[
+ \sum_{d=1}^{N} \phi_0(\alpha + n_d), \tag{14}
\]

where \( \phi_0 \) is the digamma function and the latent variable is

\[
\lambda_d = \frac{\alpha + n_d}{\beta + (m + n_d) F_d(T; \theta_d) - \sum_{i=1}^{n_d} F_d(t^d_i; \theta_d)}. \tag{15}
\]

Comparing Eq. (15) and Eq. (6), we can see that the fitness parameter \( \lambda_d \) is adjusted by prior parameters \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \).

Note that the parameters \( \theta_d \) for all items are also determined by maximizing the likelihood function in Eq. (12). The calculation depends on the specific form of relaxation function \( f_d(t; \theta_d) \), which is given in experiments on real dataset.

**Experiments**

In this section, we demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed RPP model, with and without prior.
Experiment setup

Dataset. We conduct experiments on an excellent longitudinal dataset, containing all papers and citations published by American Physical Society between 1893 and 2009. We choose this dataset for two main reasons: (1) It covers an extended period of time, spanning 117 years, ideal for modeling and predicting temporal dynamics; (2) Treating papers as items, their popularity is well-defined, characterized by citations. Statistics about this dataset are shown in Table 1.

Relaxation function. When formalizing the model for popularity dynamics, we introduced a general relaxation function \( f_d(t; \theta_d) \) and skipped the discussion of parameter \( \theta_d \). Here, when applying this model to a specific case, i.e., to citation system, we need to determine the specific form of the relaxation function as well as \( \theta_d \). Previous studies (Radicchi, Fortunato, and Castellano 2008; Wang, Song, and Barabási 2013) on citation dynamics suggest that the aging of papers is captured by a log-normal relaxation function

\[
f_d(t; \mu_d, \sigma_d) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_d}} \exp\left(- \frac{(\ln t - \mu_d)^2}{2\sigma_d^2}\right), \quad (16)
\]
a common relaxation function, which is also observed in other domains such as messages in microblogging networks (Bao et al. 2013a).

For item \( d \) with log-normal relaxation function, \( \theta_d \) is replaced by parameters \( \mu_d \) and \( \sigma_d \), which can be calculated by maximizing the logarithmic likelihood \( L \) in Eq. (12) and Eq. (5) for the proposed RPP model with and without prior, respectively. In this paper, we maximize logarithmic likelihood using optimization methods which leverage gradients

\[
\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mu_d} = \frac{1}{\sigma_d} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n_d} \left[ r_i^d - \lambda_d \phi(\tau_i^d) \right] \right. \\
+ \lambda_d(n_d + m)\phi(r^d), \quad (17)
\]

\[
\frac{\partial L}{\partial \sigma_d} = \frac{1}{\sigma_d} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n_d} \left[ \tau_i^d + \lambda_d \phi(\tau_i^d) \right] \right. \\
+ \lambda_d(n_d + m)\phi(r^d) - n_d, \quad (18)
\]

where \( \phi \) is the probability density function of standard normal distribution, \( \tau_i^d \equiv (\ln t_i^d - \mu_d)/\sigma_d \) and \( \tau_i^d \equiv (\ln T - \mu_d)/\sigma_d \). Therefore, we can use Eqs. (17) and (18) together with Eqs. (13) and (14) to maximize the logarithmic likelihood in Eq. (12) for the RPP model with prior, together with Eq. (6) to maximize the likelihood in Eq. (5) for the RPP model without prior.

Baseline models and evaluation metrics. We compare the RPP model with three widely-used models for popularity prediction: the classic autoregression (AR) method (Box, Jenkins, and Reinsel 2008), the linear regression method of logarithmic popularity (SH) (Szabo and Huberman 2010), and the WSB model (Wang, Song, and Barabási 2013), which is equivalent to the proposed RPP model without prior when the log-normal relaxation function is adopted. We adopt two standard measurements as evaluation metrics: Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) measures the average deviation between predicted and empirical popularity over an aggregation of items. Denoting with \( c_i^d(t) \) the predicted number of citations for a paper \( d \) up to time \( t \) and with \( r_i^d(t) \) its real number of citations, we obtain the MAPE over \( N \) papers

\[
MAPE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{d=1}^{N} \left| \frac{c_i^d(t) - r_i^d(t)}{r_i^d(t)} \right|.
\]

Accuracy measures the fraction of papers correctly predicted for a given error tolerance \( \epsilon \). Hence the accuracy of popularity prediction on \( N \) papers is

\[
\frac{1}{N} \sum_{d=1}^{N} \left| \left\{ d : \left| \frac{c_i^d(t) - r_i^d(t)}{r_i^d(t)} \right| \leq \epsilon \right\} \right|.
\]

We set the threshold \( \epsilon = 0.1 \) in this paper.

Experiment Results

In this section, we report two sets of experiments: (1) We compare the predictive power of RPP model with other competing methods, finding that RPP consistently outperforms other models; (2) We perform detailed analysis to understand the factors that could affect the performance of RPP model, including the length of training period, the effective number of attention, and the prior parameters.

Popularity prediction. We evaluate the prediction results on three collections of papers: (a) papers published in Physical Review (PR) from 1960 to 1969; (b) papers published in Physical Review Letters (PRL) from 1970 to 1979; (c) papers published in Physical Review B (PRB) from 1980 to 1989. These samples vary in timeframes and scopes, spanning three decades and covering three types of journals. Using papers with more than 10 citations during the first five years after publication, we compare the RPP model with and without prior against the AR and SH models. The number of papers in the three collections is 3242, 2017 and 3732, respectively. The training period is 10 years and we predict the citation counts for each paper from the 1st to 20th year after the training period. For collection (c), we predict the citation counts up to the 10th year after training period due to the cutoff year (2009). We set the parameter \( m = 30 \) for now, corresponding to the typical number of references for

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Journal</th>
<th>#Papers</th>
<th>#Citations</th>
<th>Period</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRS1</td>
<td>1,469</td>
<td>668</td>
<td>1893-1912</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PR</td>
<td>47,941</td>
<td>590,665</td>
<td>1913-1969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRA</td>
<td>53,655</td>
<td>418,196</td>
<td>1970-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRB</td>
<td>137,999</td>
<td>1,191,515</td>
<td>1970-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRC</td>
<td>29,935</td>
<td>202,312</td>
<td>1970-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRE</td>
<td>35,944</td>
<td>154,133</td>
<td>1993-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRL</td>
<td>95,516</td>
<td>1,507,974</td>
<td>1958-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMP</td>
<td>2,926</td>
<td>115,697</td>
<td>1929-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRSTAB</td>
<td>1,257</td>
<td>2,457</td>
<td>1998-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRSTPER</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2005-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>463,348</td>
<td>4,710,547</td>
<td>1893-2009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4: The performance comparison in popularity prediction.


We find the RPP model, proposed in this paper, achieves higher accuracy than the AR and SH models (Figure 4). Yet in absence of prior it only exhibits modest performance in terms of MAPE, indicating that the RPP model without prior performs well on most papers but has rather large errors on a handful of papers. This is caused by its exponential dependence on the fitness parameter that sometimes yields overfitting problem when maximum likelihood parameter estimation is adopted. This problem is nicely avoided by incorporating conjugate prior for the fitness parameter, documented by the fact that the RPP model with prior consistently outperforms the other three methods on all collections.

The superiority of the RPP model with prior, compared to the AR and SH models, increases with the number of years after the training period. This improvement is rooted in the methodological advantage: the RPP model is a generative probabilistic model that explicitly models the arrival process of attentions, while the two baseline models only capture the correlation between early popularity and future popularity, linearly or logarithmically. In addition, the reinforced Poisson process could model the “rich-get-richer” phenomenon in popularity dynamics and thus could characterize the logarithmic correlation between early popularity and future popularity. Therefore, when compared with the AR method, the superiority is more obvious than being compared with the SH method. This is because the AR method works linearly while the SH method works in a logarithmic manner.

The RPP models with and without prior are trained only on the popularity dynamics during training period while the training of the AR and SH models depend on the knowledge of future popularity dynamics. When training these two models, we employ the leave-one-out technique which uses
all papers except the target paper for prediction. Yet, in most cases, it is unrealistic to know future popularity dynamics when training the model, limiting their applications in real scenarios.

Finally, being a generative model, the RPP model is able to reproduce the citation distribution. Indeed, as shown in Figure 4 (g-i), the distribution of citations predicted by the RPP model with prior matches very well with that of real citations on all studied collections, indicating that the RPP model can also be used to model the global properties of citation system.

**Analysis of relevant factors.** The superior predictive power in the RPP model with prior raises an interesting question: what are the possible factors that affect its predictive power? In this section, we study a number of factors which could affect the performance of the RPP model with prior. Hereafter, we use (MAPE) to denote the average MAPEs for predictions from the 1st to 10th year after training period. The training period is 10 years except when we discuss the effect of varying training period length. The parameter \( m \) is set to 30 except when we discuss the effect of changing \( m \).

First, we study the prediction accuracy of the RPP model with prior by varying training period. Experiments are conducted on the collection of papers published in Physical Review from 1960 to 1969. As shown in Figure 5, (MAPE) decreases as the training period increases. Hence increasing the training period improves the prediction accuracy. However, the rate at which (MAPE) diminishes slows down quickly, indicating the marginal gain of increasing training period. We also find that the mean of prior distribution stays almost constant as the length of training period increases from 5 years to 15 years, indicating the expected fitness parameter learned by the RPP model is robust against varying training period. At the same time, a longer training period could reduce the role of prior in prediction, partly explaining the role of prior in overcoming the overfitting problem, as demonstrated by the increasing variance in the prior distributions with the length of training period.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( m )</th>
<th>Mean ((\alpha/\beta))</th>
<th>Variance ((\alpha/\beta)^2)</th>
<th>MAPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.467</td>
<td>0.193</td>
<td>0.0762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1.005</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td>0.0776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>0.783</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>0.0781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.647</td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.0784</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>0.554</td>
<td>0.074</td>
<td>0.0785</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Prediction accuracy over four decades.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>( \alpha )</th>
<th>( \beta )</th>
<th>( \alpha/\beta )</th>
<th>(MAPE)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1950s</td>
<td>4.237</td>
<td>4.061</td>
<td>1.043</td>
<td>0.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1960s</td>
<td>4.759</td>
<td>4.440</td>
<td>1.072</td>
<td>0.084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970s</td>
<td>6.130</td>
<td>4.924</td>
<td>1.245</td>
<td>0.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980s</td>
<td>10.706</td>
<td>5.379</td>
<td>1.990</td>
<td>0.120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Second, we investigate the effect of parameter \( m \), i.e., the effective number of attention by conducting experiments on the paper collection (a). Intuitively, \( m \) balances the strength in the reinforcement mechanism. Indeed, as shown in Table 2, the mean and variance of the prior distribution decay with \( m \), demonstrating these parameters are mainly determined by papers with fewer citations. We also find that decreasing \( m \) reduces (MAPE), indicating that the disparity in citations is captured appropriately by the reinforcement mechanism in our model, as a larger \( m \) implies a weaker role of the reinforcement mechanism. Taken together, Table 2 confirms that the reinforcement mechanism is crucial to modeling popularity dynamics in citation system.

Finally, we use papers published in Reviews of Modern Physics (RMP) to illustrate the change of prior parameter \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) over four decades and their influence on the prediction accuracy of the RPP model with prior. As shown in Table 3, the mean of prior distribution (i.e., \( \alpha/\beta \)) increases with the increasing magnitude of both \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) over the four decades. This indicates that the expected citations for papers in this prestigious journal steadily increases in the second half of the 20th century. Meanwhile, the (MAPE) of the RPP model also increases. Hence it becomes more difficult to predict the citations of these papers, as a result of the increasingly skewed distribution of citations.

**Conclusions**

Taken together, we presented a general framework to model and predict popularity dynamics based on a reinforced Poisson process. This model incorporates three key ingredients of popularity dynamics: the fitness parameter characterizing intrinsic attractiveness, the temporal relaxation function explaining the aging effect in attracting new attentions, and the reinforcement mechanism corresponding to the “rich-get-richer” effect in popularity dynamics. Being a generative probabilistic framework, it explicitly models the stochastic process of gaining popularity for each item, in contrast to existing deterministic approaches. We developed optimization methods to train the proposed RPP model with and without priors. The RPP model with prior allows us to apply the Bayesian treatment, resulting in more robust and accurate predictions for popularity dynamics. We empirically validate our model on an excellent longitudinal dataset on citations, spanning over one hundred years, demonstrating its clear advantages over competing methods.

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