Predicting Movie Popularity and Ratings with Visual Features

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Abstract—In Movie Recommender Systems, when a new user registers to the system and she has not yet provided any information about her, the system may not be able to generate personalized recommendations for that user. In such a Cold Start situation, many real-world recommender systems suggest popular movies to the new user. Such movies are very likely to be interesting to the new users. A very common approach for measuring the movie popularity is based on counting the number of ratings (as user votes) provided by a community of the existing users. However, in certain cases, we cannot properly measure the popularity of the movies with this common approach.

This paper proposes a novel method for predicting the popularity of movies. The method is based on hybrid visually-driven features, representative of the movie content, which can be used to effectively predict not only the movie popularity but also the average rating of the movie. Our extensive experiments on a large dataset of more than 13'000 movies trailers show that the proposed hybrid approach achieves promising results by exploiting visual Attractiveness features of movies in comparison to the other baseline features.

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the main challenges in Movie Recommender Systems research is the so-called Cold Start Problem [5]. This problem happens when a new user registers to the system and requests recommendations before providing any rating (New User problem), or when a new item is added to the catalogue of the system and has not received any rating from the users (New Item problem) [15]. One of the typical solutions for the new user problem is to present the popular items to them, allowing the system to obtain some initial information about the user that can be used then to generate more personalized recommendations [13]. Popular movies are very likely to be interesting to the majority of users and hence to serve them in the initial stage of their interaction with a recommender system.

The movie popularity can be computed in different ways. The most common method in recommender systems community, is to use the number of ratings (or the number of user votes) provided by users for movies and consider it as an indicator of the popularity of movies. While this could be a powerful indicator of the popularity, it may fail to function when the movies are new. Indeed, this indicator requires the system to access a large network of users who have already provided considerable number of ratings to the movies.

In addition to the research area of recommender systems, the task of popularity prediction, has been also studied in the other research areas and in the various contexts [6], including social media analysis [1], online news applications [22], and multimedia retrieval [17]. Each of these related works have attempted to predict the popularity based on the various forms of available data. However, they mostly rely on the social media data in resolving the task [24].

Our work substantially differs from the related work. First of all, none of these methods are able to predict the popularity of a movie that has not been even screened. However, our method is capable of predicting the popularity of the movies even before they are publicly shown. Moreover, in contrast to these methods, we do not rely on any social media activity of users, or we do not even investigate high-level features such as star actors in a movie. Instead, we investigate the low-level features based on internal (visual) characteristics of the movies without relying on external data from social networks. Moreover, in contrast to our approach, they have conducted experiments on small datasets (e.g., 312 movies in [14]), which may not necessarily result in conclusive outcomes.

In particular, this paper proposes a novel technique for analyzing the visual aspects of movies and building predictive models capable of estimating the popularity of the movies. Our technique is based on a recently proposed feature extraction and engineering mechanism that have been shown as a promising descriptive power of images [4]. Our technique demonstrate that extracting the visual features and providing them as an input to the state-of-the-art machine learning algorithm (i.e., Gradient Boosting) can result in considerable quality of popularity prediction task.
Accordingly, we have formulated the following research questions:

- **RQ1**: To what extent are visual appeal features capable of predicting movie popularity?
- **RQ2**: To what extent are they able to predict the average rating of a movie?

We have extracted visual features from a large dataset of more than 13'000 movie trailers ¹, according to the methodology proposed in [3], [26], [27]. These movie trailers have shown to be visually similar to their corresponding full-length movies [3]. We have conducted a comprehensive set of experiments (including the exploratory study and predictive analysis) with several visual features adopting the state-of-the-art machine learning algorithms. The results have shown the substantial power of visual features in predicting the popularity of movies, as well as their average ratings, provided by users.

### II. RELATED WORK

Various works have been conducted in the context of studying the effect of popularity of digital content for different applications. [2], [7], [9], [10], [14], [19], [20], [23], [25]. Szabo in [21] proposed predictive models, e.g., based on linear regression to predict the popularity of a video based on the number of previous views in YouTube. Pinto in [17] proposed a Multivariate Linear model that extends the [21] model by sampling the number of views at regular time slots. They showed that their model outperforms [21] model.

Beside the noted works, others attempted to study the financial success of movies in terms of relation of popularity and the box-office revenue. Authors in [14] investigated the relation of logged activities of Wikipedia users on a movie page with the box-office success. They showed that by analyzing #views, #users, and #edits as well as Collaborative rigor [12], it is possible to make an estimation of the box-office revenue. Sharda in [19] used neural networks in order to predict the box-office. They divided the movies to several categories (ranging from flop to blockbuster) and converted box-office prediction problem to a classification problem. They used features such as genre and showed that such features can be used to effectively predict the box-office.

Very limited works (e.g., [7], [25]) have also exploited visual features together with social networks activities to predict the number of views of an online video from YouTube and Facebook. They used models such as Support Vector Regression and showed that these type of models can predict the video popularity.

In contrast to these works, our proposed approach differs in the following aspects: (i) First, the majority of prior works attempt to predict the popularity (in terms of #views) of a user-generated content in video sharing web applications such as YouTube. Hence their proposed methods highly rely on availability of data from the social activities of users as well as social connections of the movie publisher (e.g., friend list or follower network). In contrast, in this work, we do not make such an assumption and instead analyze only the existing video content, automatically. (ii) Second, most of the prior works require a movie to be published publicly. However, although our method is also applicable in that scenario, we mainly focus on cinema industry (e.g., Hollywood scale). The cinema movies (may also be called feature films) are produced with multi-million dollar budgets and a failure could cause huge financial damages, compared to low-cost user-generated videos for social networks. Accordingly, in our considered scenario, the popularity prediction has to be made before a movie is screened, allowing the movie production companies to get an estimation on the target factors such as popularity, user rating and box-office. This will allow them to take proactive decisions, i.e., launching advertisement campaigns. (iii) Finally, almost all of these works have evaluated their methods on very small datasets of few hundred movies (e.g., 312 movies [14]), while we have used a large dataset of more than 13’000 movie trailers.

### III. METHODOLOGY

We have used a large dataset, containing 13053 movie trailers [3] that had their titles available in the Movielens dataset [8]. Prior work has reported large values of similarity, based on visual features, extracted from movie trailers and their corresponding full-length movies [3]. For each movie, we also collected the meta-data such as #ratings, average rating, genre, and the year of production from IMDB. Every movie can have one or multiple genre label(s) out of 30 possible genres (e.g., drama, comedy, romance, etc.). The following list represents the entire methodology (see Figure 1):

1. **Splitting Movies**: every movie is split into shots, i.e., sequences of consecutive frames captured without interruption of the movie camera;
2. **Identifying Key-Frames**: within every shot a frame is selected as representative of the shot (called Key-frame);
3. **Extracting Features**: every key-frame is analyzed and the visual features are extracted;
4. **Aggregating Features**: the features are then aggregated over the whole movie to build an individual feature vector descriptive of the movie;
5. **Training and Predicting**: the visual feature vectors are exploited in order to train the prediction algorithms.

**Splitting Movies & Identifying Key-frame.** We have exploited a technique based on Color Histogram Distance, which splits the movies into shots, i.e., sequences of consecutive frames captured without interruption of the movie camera (see Figure 1). In fact, the transition between shots of a movie is typically very large. By comparing the color histogram of each frame, the histogram intersection is measured in order to compare the activities. Let denote $h_t$ and $h_{t+1}$ as histograms of successive frames, then intersection is calculated based on the following:

$$s(h_t, h_{t+1}) = \sum_b \min(h_t(b), h_{t+1}(b))$$

¹The dataset will soon be published publicly, as a supplementary material of this paper.
where \( b \) is the index of the histogram bin. By comparing \( s \) with a threshold, we can indeed split the movies into the building blocks of shots. Within each, a frame is selected as a representative frame (key-frame).

**Visual Feature Extraction.** We have extracted a set of visual features capable of effectively capturing the attractiveness of every (key) frame of the movies. San Pedro and Siersdorfer [18] used a similar set features to predict popularity of Flicker images. In detail, the features are the following:

- **f1: Sharpness** measures the clarity and level of details within the elements of a frame. This feature is related to the brightness contrast of edges in a frame. The algorithm utilizes the image Laplacian, divided by the average luminance (\( \mu_{xy} \)) around pixel (x,y):

  \[
  \text{frame\_sharpness} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x,y} \frac{L(x,y)}{\mu_{xy}}, \quad \text{with} \quad L(x,y)
  \]

- **f2: Sharpness Variation** is calculated via the standard deviation of all pixel sharpness values.

- **f3: Contrast** measures the relative difference in brightness or color of local features in a frame. The root mean square contrast (RMS-contrast) is often used to compare frames [18]:

  \[
  \text{frame\_contrast} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x,y} (L_{xy} - T)
  \]

  where \( L_{xy} \) is the intensity of a pixel, \( T \) represents the arithmetic mean of the pixel intensity and \( N \) is the number of pixels.

- **f4: RGB Contrast** is almost identical to the basic contrast feature, explained before. However, it is extended to the three-dimensional RGB color space.

- **f5: Saturation** measures the colorfulness of the frame relative to the brightness. In the HSV color space the saturation estimation can be calculated via the RGB approximation of

  \[
  \text{frame\_saturation} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x,y} S_{xy}, \quad \text{with}
  \]

  \[
  S_{xy} = \max(R_{xy}, G_{xy}, B_{xy}) - \min(R_{xy}, G_{xy}, B_{xy})
  \]

  where \( N \) is the amount of pixels in a frame and \( R_{xy}, G_{xy} \) and \( B_{xy} \) are the coordinates of the color of the pixel in sRGB space.

- **f6: Saturation Variation** measures the variation in saturation via the sample standard deviation of all pixel saturation in a frame.

- **f7: Brightness** measures the average brightness of a frame; It uses a standard luminance algorithm

  \[
  \text{frame\_brightness} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{x,y} Y_{xy}, \quad \text{with}
  \]

  \[
  Y_{xy} = (0.299 \cdot R_{xy} + 0.587 \cdot G_{xy} + 0.114 \cdot B_{xy})
  \]

  where \( Y_{xy} \) denotes the luminance value and \( N \) is the amount of pixels in a frame. \( R_{xy}, G_{xy} \) and \( B_{xy} \) are the three RGB color space channels of pixel(x,y).

- **f8: Colorfulness** measures the individual color distance of the pixels in a frame. Therefore, the frame needs to be transferred in to sRGB color space using \( rg = R - G \) and \( yb = 1/2 (R + G) - B \) and subsequently, colorfulness can be measured as

  \[
  \text{frame\_colorfulness} = \sigma_{rgyb} + 0.3 \cdot \mu_{rgyb}, \quad \text{with}
  \]

  \[
  \sigma_{rgyb} = \sqrt{\sigma_{rg}^2 + \sigma_{yb}^2}, \quad \mu_{rgyb} = \sqrt{\mu_{rg}^2 + \mu_{yb}^2}
  \]

  where \( R, G \) and \( B \) are the color channels of the pixels and \( \sigma \) is the standard deviation, respectively \( \mu \) the arithmetic mean.

- **f9: Entropy** of a frame is often used to determine how much information needs to be encoded by a compression algorithm. As an example, a frame with illustrating the moon craters has a very high edge contrast, which leads to a high entropy. This means that the frame cannot be compressed very well which suggests that it can be used to measure the frame’s texture. We used Shannon Entropy as follows: we converted the frame to grey scale, where each pixel has only an intensity value. Then, we count the occurrences of each distinct value. Finally, we apply the following formula:

  \[
  \text{frame\_entropy} = - \sum_{x \in [0,255]} p(x) \cdot \log_2(x)
  \]

  where \( p_x \) is the probability of finding the gray-scale value \( x \) among all the pixels in the frame.

- **f10: Naturalness** measures the difference (or similarity) between a frame and the human visual perception of the real world, with respect to colorfulness and dynamic range. Although subjective, it is an important visual quality metric when it comes to design [18]. We transfer the frame color space, if not already, to HSL. Then we use only pixels within the thresholds \( 20 \leq L \leq 80 \) and \( S \geq 0.1 \). In the next step, pixels are grouped in to one of the three sets ‘Skin’, ‘Grass’ or ‘Sky’, based on their H coordinate (hue). In order to calculate the naturalness of
each set, the average saturation value of the group ($\mu_S$) is used:

$$N_{\text{Skin}} = e^{-0.5(\mu_{\text{Skin}} - 0.76)^2}, \text{ if } 25 \leq \text{hue} \leq 70 \quad (8)$$

$$N_{\text{Grass}} = e^{-0.5(\mu_{\text{Grass}} - 0.81)^2}, \text{ if } 95 \leq \text{hue} \leq 135 \quad (9)$$

$$N_{\text{Sky}} = e^{-0.5(\mu_{\text{Sky}} - 0.48)^2}, \text{ if } 185 \leq \text{hue} \leq 260 \quad (10)$$

In the final step, the naturalness index can be calculated using

$$\text{frame\_naturalness} = \sum_{i} \omega_i N_i, \quad i \in \{\text{`Skin', `Grass', `Sky'}\}$$

where $\omega_i$ represents the fraction of pixels of the specific group in the whole frame. Naturalness ranges from 0 (an unnatural frame) to 1 (a natural frame).

**Feature Aggregation.** To form the feature vector description of a movie, we have aggregated the visual features extracted from its key-frames. We have performed various aggregation functions. First of all, in order to model the ordinal nature of the subsequent key-frames of a movie, we have fitted 5th degree polynomial to each of the visual features and used the coefficients as aggregated features. We have also computed minimum, maximum, mean, standard deviation, median, 1st & 3rd quartiles, as well as, as 1st & 3rd quartiles of each visual feature, across all the key-frames of a movie. The last aggregated movie feature is the number of key-frames, within every movie. This process has resulted in a vector of the length of 121 aggregated features per movie. These are features that are all extracted automatically and hence we refer to them as automatic. There are features that need manual labeling (e.g., by experts). We considered genre and year of production, since we may know them before the movies are screened.

In the data extracted from IMDB, genre comes in the form of comma-separated list of string for every movie. Each movie has up to three genres, with majority of them (1263) having three genres. For converting them to features, we used vectorization. i.e. we have 28 features for all the genres and when a movie belong to a genre, the corresponding feature is 1 otherwise it is 0. Finally, we merged both types of automatic and manual features and formed hybridized visual features. We refer to this extended vector as hybrid visual features.

**Learning Algorithms & Evaluation Protocol.** As learning method, we used the state-of-the-art machine learning algorithm Gradient Boosting (Microsoft LightGBM [11]) and set the number of trees to 300. We have also repeated the experiments with further machine learning algorithms but obtained similar results. The extension of our results together with the extracted dataset and the implementation details will be provided as a supplementary material, in the form of a technical report. These additional algorithms were Random Forest (with 300 trees), Logistic Regression and Regression Tree\(^2\). Furthermore, we implemented additional basic baselines, i.e.,

\(^2\)we adopted an implementation of these algorithms in Scikit-learn package [16].

Prediction based on (i) distribution of the train set, (ii) mean of the train set, and (iii) randomness.

As evaluation protocol we employed k-fold cross validation by randomly splitting the dataset into 7 non-overlapping subsets where in every iteration, $\frac{6}{7}$ of instances are used as training the models and the rest $\frac{1}{7}$ for testing. We have measured different evaluation metrics, i.e., Accuracy, F1-score, RMSE, and MAE. We have also measured Precision and Recall metrics. But due to the space limitation and conformity of results with F1-score, we have not reported them in this paper.

Moreover, we have categorized the number of ratings, provided by IMDB users, into 3 classes: Popular (#ratings above 200’000, total of 1050 movies), Mid-popular (#ratings 25’000 - 200’000, 1220 movies), Unpopular (#ratings below 25’000, 10900 movies) movies. This is a more challenging classification task compared to considering only 2 classes (popular vs unpopular).

**IV. Results**

A. Experiment A: Exploratory Analysis

We initially performed exploratory analysis in order to grasp a better understanding of the data. The observed results are presented in this section (experiment A).

**Principle Component Analysis (PCA).** In the first experiment, we were interested in visualizing the data by reducing the large feature dimensions and making a 2D plot of the data. We have used a well-known dimensionality reduction method called Principle Component Analysis (PCA). Figure 2 represents the results. As it can be seen, the data can be reduced and represented by 2 main principle components (x-axis and y-axis in the figure). Accordingly, we could visually identify two clusters of the movies, plotted with yellow and black colors. We conjecture that these clusters may represent the older (perhaps less popular) movies and the newer (perhaps more popular) movies. Some manual checks gave indication of our conjecture. However, further in-depth analysis is necessary

\(^3\)as suggested here: https://www.imdb.com/chart/top
for confirming our early observation. This is indeed planned as a future work.

**Popularity vs Average Rating.** In this paper, we targeted two important variable originated from different characteristics of the movies, i.e., popularity and average ratings. Hence, we were interested in exploring the potential correlations between these two variables. Figure 3 illustrates the correlations between popularity and average ratings in IMDB. As it can be seen, there is a positive correlation between these two target variables. Accordingly, as the popularity of a movie is boosted and the movie receives higher number of ratings, the average ratings provided by the users increases. This is an expected phenomenon as the users typically rate what they like. However, it is also observed that there are considerable number of movies with high average rating that have not received large number of ratings.

**Correlation of Visual Features with Average Rating.** We have also computed the correlation between the visual features and the average ratings of movies. We were more interested in the magnitude (regardless of the sign) and hence we focused on the absolute values. The results are plotted in Figure 4. As it can be expected, there are features with higher correlations and features with lower correlations. The results show that the most correlated and hence the most important feature is $f_{10}$ (Naturalness) where its mean, maximum, 3rd percentile, and median are among top features. The next correlated features are $f_9$ (Entropy of the frame) and $f_4$ (RGB Contrast), maximum of both being also among top features.

We believe that the top visual features can be better predictive of the average rating values of the movies. Furthermore, a feature engineering can be very beneficial in selecting the best features for the task of average rating prediction. Although the adopted predictive model (Gradient Boosting) implements a feature selection mechanism, however, again, a more in-depth analysis can result in improvement of our understanding of the data.

### B. Experiment B: Predictive Analysis

In the second experiment, we built a predictive model based on the state-of-the-art machine learning algorithm, i.e., Gradient Boosting, in order to address the formulated research questions (i.e., RQ1 and RQ2).

**RQ1: Predicting Movie Popularity.** Table I presents the results of using different features for predicting different classes of the number of IMDB ratings. As shown, in terms of F1 metric, the best results were achieved by using hybrid visual features. Accordingly, training the classifier on the hybrid visual features obtained F1 score of 0.460. In terms of accuracy metric, visual and hybrid visual features achieved very similar results, i.e., the accuracy of 0.568 and 0.569, respectively.

**RQ2: Predicting the Movie’s Average Rating.** Table II presents the results obtained by training the classification algorithm on different types of features in order to predict IMDB average rating. As the results show, hybrid visual features overtake all the other features by obtaining the lowest RMSE and MAE values 0.938 and 0.716, respectively. The genre features can also achieve a very good results, i.e. RMSE and MAE values 0.958 and 0.733, which is interesting. For this specific task, the visual features alone do not perform as good as hybrid visual features.

Overall, the results of these experiments confirm that using a state-of-the-art classification model, trained on hybrid visual features, can be used to predict the popularity and ratings of the movies even before the movies are publicly screened. This is a promising outcome and it presents the fantastic potential of the visual features in the movie industry.
hybrid

TABLE II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Feature Extraction</th>
<th>RMSE</th>
<th>MAE</th>
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</thead>
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<td>0.716</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>0.846</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Random</td>
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<td>2.760</td>
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</table>

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper we addressed two research questions and investigated the utility of visual features to predict the popularity (RQ1), and average ratings (RQ2). We have evaluated our proposed method by conducting a set of extensive experiments on a large dataset of more than 13,000 movie trailers. The results of our experiments have successfully answered the research questions and our hybrid visual features are capable of predicting the popularity, and average rating of the movies better than other baseline methods.

While the presented results are preliminary, but still, as a proof of concept they are promising and hence we are working on an extension of this work. First, we plan to investigate different kinds of methods for feature aggregation and fusion. Moreover, we will employ deep learning methods to extract image embeddings (e.g., ResNet) as they have proven to be very reliable in preforming the image classification. Finally, we will attempt to exploit these features for a different task, i.e., content-based recommendation, adopting a framework that has shown to be well-compatible with visual features.

REFERENCES


