

Analyzing Political Polarization on Social Media by Deleting Bot Spamming

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Abstract: Social media platforms are part of everyday life, allowing the interconnection of people around the world in large discussion groups relating to every topic, including important social or political issues. Therefore, social media have become a valuable source of information-rich data, commonly referred as Social Big Data, effectively exploitable to study the behavior of people, their opinion, their mood, interests and activities. However, these powerful communication platforms can be also used to manipulate conversation, polluting online content and altering the popularity of users, through spamming activities and misinformation spreading. Recent studies have shown the use on social media of automatic entities, defined as social bots, that appear as legitimate users by imitating human behavior aimed at influencing discussions of any kind, including political issues. In this paper we presents a new methodology, namely *TIMBRE* (Time-aware opInion Mining via Bot REmoval), aimed at discovering the polarity of social media users during election campaigns characterized by the rivalry of political factions. This methodology is temporally-aware and relies on a keyword-based classification of posts and users. Moreover, it recognizes and filters out data produced by social media bots, which aim to alter public opinion about political candidates, thus avoiding heavily biased information. The proposed methodology has been applied to a case study that analyzes the polarization of a large number of Twitter users during the 2016 US presidential election. The achieved results show the benefits brought by both removing bots and taking into account temporal aspects in the forecasting process, revealing the high accuracy and effectiveness of the proposed approach. Finally, we investigated how the presence of social bots may affect political discussion by studying the 2016 US presidential election. Specifically, we analyzed the main differences between human and artificial political support, estimating also the influence of social bots on legitimate users.

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1. Introduction

The last few years have been characterized by a marked growth in the use of social media, leading to the production of huge amounts of digital data effectively exploitable to investigate human dynamics and behaviors. Such data, commonly referred as Social Big Data, contains valuable information about people that makes it intrinsically suited to a very large set of application fields [1], such as regions-of-interest and user trajectories extraction [2], influence maximization [3], sentiment analysis and emotional profiling [4,5], topic detection and opinion mining [6,7]. However, the quality of data extracted from social media can be lowered by the presence of fake news that can hinder this type of analysis, leading to misleading results.

This paper focuses on the use of social media data, in particular those coming from Twitter, to estimate the polarization of public opinion concerning a political event characterized by the rivalry of different factions or parties. In particular, we propose a new methodology, called *TIMBRE* (Time-aware opInion Mining via Bot REmoval) that exploits a keyword-based classification to determine the political polarization of social media posts. The proposed methodology is temporally-aware, as it takes into account

40 time-related aspects in computing the importance weight of each classified post. This
41 weight represents the relevance of that post on the voting intentions of the user who
42 published it. Finally, the political orientation of a user is obtained starting from his/her
43 published posts, according to their polarization and weight.

44 Depending on the political event, social media users can be classified towards a
45 particular faction, candidate, or choice. However, in this kind of application, the results
46 could be biased and distorted by many factors, including data artificially produced by
47 social media bots. They consist of software applications used to automatically generate
48 messages on social media so as to influence public opinion, spam messages or amplify
49 propaganda. Bots can act as fake accounts (e.g., for posting messages and gaining
50 followers itself) or as followers of other social media users. It is estimated that 9-15%
51 of Twitter accounts may be social bots. Due to this, a key aspect of TIMBRE is the
52 bot removal step, aimed at avoiding the distortion effect introduced by the presence
53 of bot-generated data. In this way the methodology is able to grasp the real voting
54 intentions on social media platforms, capturing only the polarization of legitimate users
55 who belong to the voting eligible population.

56 To test the proposed methodology we applied it to a real-world case study that
57 analyzes the polarization of a large number of Twitter users during the 2016 US presi-
58 dential elections, which was characterized by the rivalry between Hillary Clinton and
59 Donald Trump. This use case is particularly interesting, since it was characterized by a
60 marked use of Twitter to foster political debate along with a significant activity by social
61 bots, which would have strongly influenced voter decisions [8–10]. In particular, we
62 focused on the analysis of the main US Swing States, characterized by a great political
63 uncertainty, finding out that both the temporal weighting of posts and bot removal are
64 crucial in order to get a correct estimate of users' voting intentions. The achieved results
65 have been compared with opinion polls collected before voting and with the actual
66 results obtained after the vote, revealing a high accuracy of TIMBRE in estimating the
67 polarization of social media users. In particular, our methodology was able to correctly
68 identify the winner in 8 out of 10 Swing States, outperforming the opinion polls, which
69 identified the winning candidate in 6 out of 10 cases.

70 As a last step, we studied how the presence of social bots may have affected political
71 discussion around the 2016 US presidential election, focusing on two main aspects. On
72 one hand we analyzed the publishing behavior of both real users and social bots, along
73 with the differences between human and artificial political support. On the other hand,
74 we exploited a competitive diffusion model to estimate the degree of influence of social
75 bots on legitimate users.

76 The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 1.1 reviews the main
77 social bot detection techniques present in literature. Section 2 discusses related work.
78 Section 3 describes the proposed methodology. Section 4 presents the case study and
79 obtained results. Finally, Section 5 concludes the paper.

80 1.1. Problem statement

81 The last few years have been characterized by a marked growth of social media
82 legitimate use and manipulation, fostering democratic conversation about socio-political
83 issues[9] and, at the same time, a large spread of misinformation. This phenomenon
84 has made social platforms one of the most used sources of information, exposing users
85 to risks caused by the lack of veracity of news. Moreover, political online discussion is
86 often strongly polarized, leading to the formation of *echo chambers* that provide selective
87 exposure to news sources biasing the opinion of users. This effect sometimes is amplified
88 by the priority policies of the main social media platforms, which tend to favor engaging
89 rather than trustworthy posts[11]. In such a scenario, getting reliable and impartial news,
90 discerning them from rumor, constructed reports and fake news, could be a hard task.
91 Social bots, also known as a *sybil account*, are among the factors that most undermine
92 the reliability of online news. They can be defined as algorithmically-driven entities

93 that automatically produce content and interact with humans on social media, trying
94 to emulate and alter their behavior. In a political scenario, bots can be used illicitly to
95 artificially increase the support for a candidate, influencing the outcome of the election.
96 Campaigns of this type are usually called *astroturf* or *Twitter bombs*. Many efforts were
97 made by the research community towards developing *social bot detection and classification*
98 *systems*, especially on Twitter, one of the most used microblogging platforms. According
99 to [12], state-of-the-art techniques can be categorized in three main classes: *graph-based*
100 *detection*, *crowdsourcing* and *machine learning*.

101 *Graph-based detection*. Methods in this category exploit a graph-based representa-
102 tion of a social network to understand the relationships between edges or links across
103 accounts, using this information for detecting bot activity. As described in [13], there
104 are three main graph based approaches aimed at detecting social bots and malicious
105 accounts: *i) trust propagation* that quantifies the strength of the relationship among users;
106 *ii) graph clustering* groups similar users according to their characteristics. *iii) graph*
107 *analysis* that relies on several metrics and properties of the social graph, like degree
108 distribution and centrality measures. SybilWalk [14] is a sybil detection method that
109 exploits a random walk-based method on an undirected social graph. It proceeds by
110 assigning a score to users in the social graph, which is then used to classify them as
111 legitimate users or sybils. Mehrotra et al. [15] proposed a supervised method for fake
112 followers detection based on several centrality metrics which exploits a Random Forest
113 classifier.

114 *Crowdsourcing*. This class of methods leverages human detection to identify social
115 bot behaviors, seeking patterns across profile information or shared content. As an ex-
116 ample, DARPA held a Twitter bot challenge competition [16] in which teams were asked
117 to identify influential bots that supported pro-vaccination discussions on Twitter. A
118 common use of human annotation in bot detection involves the generation of annotated
119 datasets, which can be then used by supervised techniques. In [17] four annotators
120 were employed for the classification of Twitter profiles as bot or human, starting from a
121 wide range of features such as the number of tweets or favorites. Similarly, in [18] ten
122 volunteers were tasked with labeling 2000 random accounts, in order to build a ground
123 truth dataset.

124 *Machine learning*. These methods are based on machine learning algorithms and
125 statistical techniques for social bot detection. Kantepe et al. [19] proposed a supervised
126 approach which relies on an extensive process of feature extraction. In particular, they
127 used Apache Spark for data collection, categorizing features in three types, i.e. user,
128 tweet and periodic features. Afterwards, a gradient boosting classifier is used to label
129 users as human or bots. Devis et al. [20] proposed Botometer (formerly BotOrNot), a
130 classification system that leverages more than one thousand features to evaluate the
131 extent to which a Twitter account exhibits similarity to the known characteristics of social
132 bots. Specifically, such features are extracted from available meta-data, shared content,
133 and interaction patterns. Ersahin et al. [21] presented a supervised method for fake
134 account detection on Twitter which leverages a naïve bayes classifier and an entropy
135 minimization discretization technique. Cai et al. [22] proposed a behavior-enhanced
136 deep learning model (BeDM) for social bot detection. In particular, they jointly exploited
137 a convolutional neural network and a long short-term memory network to capture
138 temporal patterns in user behavior.

139 2. Related work

140 With the rapid growth in their use, social media platforms have become a valuable
141 source of information, effectively exploitable in many application fields. In particular
142 social media data can be leveraged for investigating the patterns of information diffusion,
143 the interactions between users and their opinion about a specific topic[7]. Several opinion
144 mining techniques have been proposed in literature for understanding the opinion of
145 social media users regarding political events. These techniques belong to a research area

146 called computational politics, that includes a wide range of methods aimed at analyzing
147 the behavior of social media users during a political event of interest, modeling and
148 influencing their perception and opinion about facts, events and public decisions.

149 Belcastro et al. [7] proposed an opinion mining technique, namely IOM-NN, aimed
150 at discovering the political polarization of social media users during election campaigns
151 characterized by the competition of political factions. The methodology relies on an
152 iterative and incremental procedure based on feed-forward neural networks, aimed at de-
153 termining the political orientation of posts used for discovering the political polarization
154 of social media users. Marozzo and Bessi [23] proposed a methodology that exploits the
155 keywords contained in tweets for calculating the polarization of social media users and
156 news sites during political campaigns. Diamantini et al. [24] proposed a lexicon-based
157 sentiment analysis algorithm, which uses a combination of word sense disambiguation
158 and negation handling techniques for extracting user opinion from social media data.
159 Burnap et al. [25] proposed a model for using Twitter as an election forecasting tool,
160 applying it to the UK 2015 General Election. Oikonomou et al. [26] used a naïve bayes
161 classifier with text mining techniques given by TextBlob, a Python library which pro-
162 vides an API for Natural language processing (NLP), to predict the outcome of USA
163 presidential elections in three states of interest (i.e., Florida, Ohio and North Carolina).
164 Jaidka et al. [27] compared three different methods (i.e., volumetric, sentiment and social
165 media analysis) in order to predict the outcome of the elections from Twitter posts in
166 three Asian countries: Malaysia, India, and Pakistan. Olorunnimbe et al. [28] presented
167 an incremental learning method based on multiple naïve bayes independent models
168 for predicting the political orientation of users over time. Wong et al. [29] modeled the
169 political behaviour of users by analyzing their publishing activity using SentiStrength, a
170 lexicon-based sentiment analysis tool. Alashri et al. [30] leveraged CoreNLP, one of the
171 most popular tools for natural language processing, for the analysis of Facebook posts
172 related to the 2016 US presidential election. Specifically, authors examined the dynamics
173 between candidate posts and comments they received on Facebook for calculating a
174 score for each political candidate aimed at measuring his/her credibility. Finally, Singh
175 et al. [31] carried out a comparison among four machine and deep learning algorithms
176 (i.e., textblob, naïve bayes, SVM, and BERT [32]) for sentiment analysis, taking the 2020
177 US presidential election as a case study. Authors found that the use of BERT leads to the
178 best results, which shows the effectiveness of transformer-based language representation
179 models.

180 The aforementioned techniques are often heavily dependent on the representative-
181 ness of social media data. As a consequence, the bias introduced by content artificially
182 produced by social media bots can compromise the final results. There are several studies
183 that show how the presence of social bots has altered the political discussion on social
184 media platforms. As regards the 2016 US presidential election, Bessi and Ferrara [9]
185 analyzed the pervasive presence and activity of social bots involved in social media
186 conversation. They found out that about 400,000 bots were engaged in the political
187 discussion about the Presidential election, responsible for roughly 3.8 million tweets (i.e.,
188 about one-fifth of the entire conversation). For this reason, the methodology we propose
189 in this work filters out the data produced by social bots, identifying them through the
190 use of the *Botometer* [20] framework. Thus, by jointly exploiting a bot detection system
191 and a temporally-aware polarization technique, TIMBRE is able to accurately detect
192 the real voting intentions on social media platforms, capturing only the polarization of
193 legitimate users.

194 Our manuscript is one of the few research works that focuses on the study of
195 bots and their effect on the specific task of analyzing election results. We show how
196 the estimation of election results from social data can be biased by the presence of
197 bots, measuring this effect in terms of voting percentages estimates and incorrectly
198 classified states. We also show how bots have influenced social discussions by analyzing
199 information production patterns and the spread of influence within the social network.

200 3. Materials and Methods

201 As mentioned above, *TIMBRE* (Time-aware opInion Mining via Bot REmoval)
 202 exploits a keyword-based classification for determining the political polarization of
 203 social media users and the Botometer framework to distinguish legitimate users (i.e.,
 204 voters) from social bots. In addition, it analyzes how the presence of social media bots
 205 may have negatively affected online discussion during the political event under analysis,
 206 potentially altering public opinion.

207 Given a political event \mathcal{E} , a set of the factions \mathcal{F} , and a set the keywords \mathcal{K} associated
 208 to \mathcal{E} , the proposed methodology consists of four main steps:

- 209 1. *Post collection*: posts are collected by using the set of keywords \mathcal{K} related to the
 210 political event \mathcal{E} .
- 211 2. *Post classification and weighting*: for each post we determine its political orientation,
 212 *neutral* or in favor of a specific faction $f \in \mathcal{F}$, and a weight w_p^u indicating the
 213 importance of the post p in estimating the voting intentions of the user u who
 214 published it.
- 215 3. *User polarization and classification*: starting from classified posts and related weights,
 216 we determine the political partisanship of each user in our dataset, classifying it as
 217 a real user or a social bot. This information is then used to forecast the outcome of
 218 the event \mathcal{E} .
- 219 4. *Bot influence analysis*: during this step we analyze information production patterns,
 220 estimating also the degree of influence of social bots on real users.

221 For each step, a formal description is provided in the following sections.

222 3.1. Post collection

223 A political event \mathcal{E} is characterized by the rivalry of different parties or factions
 224 $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n\}$. Examples of political events and relative factions are: *i*) municipal
 225 election, in which a faction supports a mayor candidate; *ii*) parliament election, in
 226 which a faction supports a party; *iii*) presidential election, in which a faction supports a
 227 presidential candidate. Following the approach proposed in [7], posts are collected by
 228 using the keywords that people commonly use to refer to a given political event \mathcal{E} on
 229 social media. Such keywords K can be divided in two classes:

- 230 - $K_{neutral}$, which contains generic keywords that can be associated with \mathcal{E} without
 231 referring to any specific faction in \mathcal{F} .
- 232 - $K_{\mathcal{F}} = K_{f_1} \cup \dots \cup K_{f_n}$, where K_{f_i} contains the keywords used for supporting $f_i \in \mathcal{F}$.

233 The keywords in K are given as input to public APIs provided by social media
 234 platforms, which permit collecting posts containing one or more keywords. Since data
 235 collection is usually a continuous process, new keywords can be discovered and inte-
 236 grated in K during the collection procedure. As the author of [7] highlighted, obtaining
 237 a representative collection of posts depends on two main factors: *i*) the quality and the
 238 number of keywords used; *ii*) the amount of data that can be downloaded from social
 239 media. Regarding the latter factor, it is worth mentioning that it is increasingly difficult
 240 to obtain complete data from social media platforms due to the restrictions introduced
 241 for protecting the privacy of users. The collected posts are pre-processed before the
 242 analysis as follows:

- 243 • Hashtags are normalized removing non-alphanumeric character and transforming
 244 them to lowercase. This way we can avoid differences between different versions of
 245 the same hashtag, e.g. *voteTrump*, *vote_trump* or *votetrump!* becomes *votetrump*.
- 246 • Data representativeness is further improved by filtering out all the posts having
 247 a language different from the one spoken in the nation hosting the considered
 248 political event.

249 As the proposed method relies on a hashtag-based analysis without exploiting other
 250 textual information, no further preprocessing like stopwords removal or lemmatization
 251 is needed. The output of this step is a collection of posts P related to the event \mathcal{E} .

252 3.2. Post classification and weighting

253 In this phase we assign each post included in P to a specific faction in \mathcal{F} by analyzing
 254 the keywords it contains, defined as the set K_p . In particular, if a post p contains only
 255 keywords that are in favor of a specific faction f , then p is classified as in favor of f ;
 256 otherwise, p is classified as neutral. This is a very strict and conservative partisanship
 257 assignment, which leads to a small but high-confidence annotated dataset, likely less
 258 prone to misclassification than automatic machine-learning techniques.

259 Besides classifying posts in favor of a specific faction, we determine a weight w_p^u
 260 indicating the importance of the post p in estimating the voting intentions of the user u
 261 who published it. The intuition behind this is that more recent posts are more suited for
 262 deriving useful information about voting intentions of a user. In fact, users' polarization
 263 can vary over time as they can influence each other or be influenced by external events,
 264 such as political debates or scandals. The importance weight is computed as follows.
 265 Given a user $u \in U$ and the set of his/her posts P^u , we determine d_{max}^u as the day the
 266 user u published his/her last post $p \in P^u$ before the end of \mathcal{E} . Given a post p published
 267 by user u the day d , and $\delta_p = d_{max}^u - d$, we define the importance weight as:

$$268 \quad w_p^u = e^{-\lambda \delta_p}$$

269 This weight undergoes exponential decay according to a constant λ (*decay rate*): larger
 270 values of this constant make the quantity vanish much more rapidly. Algorithm 1 shows
 271 the pseudo-code of the classification procedure, whose output S consists of a set of triple
 272 containing the post p , the associated faction f_p and the importance weight w_p^u .

ALGORITHM 1: Post classification and weighting

Input :Set of posts P , set of faction keyword $K_{\mathcal{F}}$, decay rate λ
Output:Set of Classified posts S

```

1  $S \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;
2 /* Given the post  $p$ ,  $v_{\mathcal{F}}$  is a binary vector containing a 1 in position
    $f \in \mathcal{F}$ , if  $p$  contains a keyword in  $K_{\mathcal{F}}$  (i.e.,  $K_p \cap K_{\mathcal{F}} \neq \emptyset$ ) */
3 for  $p \in P$  do
4    $v_{\mathcal{F}} \leftarrow []$ ; // the vector of candidate factions to which the post  $p$  can be
   assigned.
5   for  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  do
6     if  $K_p \cap K_{\mathcal{F}} \neq \emptyset$  then
7        $v_{\mathcal{F}}[f] \leftarrow 1$ ;
8   /* The post  $p$  is assigned to the faction  $f_p \in \mathcal{F}$  if it contains only
   keywords in favor of that faction (i.e.,  $\text{sum}(v_{\mathcal{F}}) = 1$ ) */
9   if  $\text{sum}(v_{\mathcal{F}}) = 1$  then
10     $f_p \leftarrow \text{argmax}(v_{\mathcal{F}})$ ; // the faction to which the post  $p$  is assigned.
11     $u \leftarrow p.\text{user}$ ; // the user who wrote the post  $p$ .
12     $d \leftarrow p.\text{day}$ ; // the day in which  $p$  was written.
13     $P^u \leftarrow \{\bar{p} \in P \mid \bar{p}.\text{user} = u\}$ ; // the set of posts written by  $u$ .
14     $d_{max}^u \leftarrow \max_{\bar{p}.\text{day}} P^u$ ; // the day user  $u$  published his/her last post.
15     $\delta_p \leftarrow d_{max}^u - d$ ; // the distance between  $d_{max}^u$  and  $d$  measured in days.
16     $w_p^u \leftarrow e^{-\lambda \delta_p}$ ; // the importance weight assigned to  $p$ .
17     $S \leftarrow S \cup \langle p, f_p, w_p^u \rangle$ ;
18 return  $S$ 

```

273 3.3. User polarization and classification

274 Starting from the set S containing classified and weighted posts, we use a *one-vs-all*
 275 strategy for determining the political partisanship of each user in our dataset. Specifically,
 276 given the set of opposing factions $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n\}$, we compute user polarization
 277 as follows. Given a user $u \in U$, let P^u be the set containing all of his/her posts, and
 278 $P_f^u \subseteq P^u$ its subset containing only post published by u classified as in favor of f in the
 279 previous step. For each faction f we determine the support of u towards f as:

$$280 \quad s_f^u = 2 \times \frac{\sum_{p \in P_f^u} w_p^u}{\sum_{p \in P^u} w_p^u} - 1$$

281 As the above formula is normalized in the interval $[-1, 1]$, positive values of s_f^u
 282 means that user u tends to be polarized towards the faction f , and the polarization
 283 become stronger as s_f^u approaches the value of 1. Negative values, instead, suggest a
 284 polarization towards the set of all the remaining factions. Therefore, given a threshold
 285 th used for assign a faction only to users who show a strong polarization, political
 286 partisanship f^u of u is determined as follows:

- 287 - $f^u \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}(s_f^u)$, if $\max(s_f^u) \geq th$
- 288 - $f^u \leftarrow \text{neutral}$ otherwise

289 Besides determining user partisanship, we also exploited the Botometer framework
 290 for the automatic classification of social media users into real or fake accounts, related
 291 to potential electors and automatic entities respectively. Given a user u Botometer
 292 determines a real-valued score $s \in [0, 1]$ which measures the likelihood that user u is a
 293 social bot. According to prior studies ([9,20]), we selected a threshold value for l equal
 294 to 0.5, for the classification process. At the end of the entire procedure two dictionaries
 295 B and R are obtained, related to bots and real users respectively, composed by $\langle u, f^u \rangle$
 296 key-value pairs. The pseudo-code of the user polarization and classification procedure
 297 is shown in Algorithm 2.

Once the *user polarization and classification* step is completed, the outcome of the
 political event \mathcal{E} can be determined starting from the R set, containing the polarity of
 legitimate users. Let R_f be the subset of R containing all users polarized in favor of f ;
 the final consensus c_f for each faction $f \in \mathcal{F}$ is determined as follows:

$$c_f = \frac{|R_f|}{\sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}} |R_f|}$$

298 3.4. Bot influence analysis

299 During this step we analyze how the presence of social media bots may affect
 300 political discussion around the event \mathcal{E} under analysis. After having built the set P of
 301 classified posts and the sets R and B , indicating bots and real users partisanship, the
 302 proposed methodology analyzes them exploiting different algorithms and techniques,
 303 focusing on the following aspects.

- 304 • *Information production patterns.* During this step, the publishing behavior of both
 305 real users and social bots is analyzed, focusing on the differences between human
 306 and artificial political support.
- 307 • *Influence spread.* This step is aimed at estimating the degree of influence of social
 308 bots, clustered according to their partisanship, on real social users. To achieve
 309 that, TIMBRE builds a graph based on repost relationships, analyzing the spread of
 310 influence through a competitive version of the Linear Threshold diffusion model.
 311 Specifically, we adapted the *Separated-Threshold Model for Competing Technologies* [33]
 312 to our purposes, as described below.

ALGORITHM 2: User polarization and classification

Input : Set S of triples $\langle p, f_p, w_p^u \rangle$, set of users U , threshold th , set of factions $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n\}$, function $score : U \rightarrow [0, 1]$ from Botometer which computes the likelihood l for the user u

Output: Dictionary B of polarized bots, dictionary R of polarized real users

```

1  $W \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;
2 for  $\langle p, f_p, w_p^u \rangle \in S$  do
3   /* Compute the sum of the importance weights of posts grouped by the
4   corresponding faction  $f_p$  and user  $u$ . */
5    $W[f_p, u] \leftarrow W[f_p, u] + w_p^u$ ;
6  $B \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;
7  $R \leftarrow \emptyset$ ;
8 for  $u \in U$  do
9   for  $f \in \mathcal{F}$  do
10     $s_f^u \leftarrow 2 \times \frac{W[f, u]}{\sum_{f' \in \mathcal{F}} W[f', u]} - 1$ ; // polarization score of user  $u$  related to
11    function  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ 
12    /* User  $u$  is classified as in favor of the faction  $f$  corresponding to
13    the highest polarization score if that score exceeds a given
14    threshold  $th$ ; otherwise he/she is labeled as neutral. */
15    if  $\max(s_f^u) \geq th$  then
16       $f^u \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}(s_f^u)$ ;
17    else
18       $f^u \leftarrow \text{neutral}$ ;
19    /* We classify polarized users as real accounts or bots by leveraging
20    Botometer, partitioning them in the  $R$  and  $B$  sets, respectively. */
21    if  $\text{bot\_score}(u) \geq 0.5$  then
22       $B \leftarrow B \cup \langle u, f^u \rangle$ ;
23    else
24       $R \leftarrow R \cup \langle u, f^u \rangle$ ;
25 return  $B, R$ 

```

313 First of all, we built the repost graph $G = (V, E)$, a directed graph where $V \subseteq B \cup R$
314 is the set of bots and real users involved in repost relationships and E is the set of edges
315 (u, v) where v reposted u , with $u, v \in V$. For each edge $(u, v) \in E$ we assigned a unique
316 real-valued weight $w_{u,v}$ corresponding to the impact of node u on v , computed as follows.
317 Let $N_{u,v}$ be the number of times node v reposted u and N_u the number of total reposts
318 made by v ; the weight of the edge (u, v) is defined as: $w_{u,v} = \frac{N_{u,v}}{N_u}$, with $w_{u,v} \in (0, 1]$.
319 Therefore, a node u has a high influence on v if v shows a high tendency in reposting u 's
320 posts more than the others.

321 Once the network is built, given the set $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n\}$ of factions involved in
322 the political event \mathcal{E} , and the set of polarized bots $B \subseteq V$, we partitioned this set in n
323 disjoint subsets B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n , such as B_f contains only social bots polarized towards the
324 faction f . For remaining users (i.e., neutral bots and real users $\in R \subseteq V$), a threshold
325 values θ_f^u for each faction is selected, picked uniformly at random in the interval $[0, 1]$,
326 representing the resistance of user u to be influenced in favor of the faction f . At the step
327 t , for each faction $f \in \mathcal{F}$, let I_f^{t-1} be the set of nodes influenced by faction f . During this
328 step, a neutral node v becomes polarized towards f if $\sum_{u \in I_f^{t-1}} w_{u,v} \geq \theta_f^v$, which means
329 that the influence exercised on v in favor of f is higher than its resistance to that faction.
330 If for the node v more than one threshold is exceeded during the step t , then this node
331 will be polarized in favor of the faction that exercises the highest influence. This process
332 ends when all neutral nodes become influenced, returning n disjoint sets, containing
333 the users (both real and bot) polarized towards one of the factions and an additional set
334 containing unpolarized nodes.

335 4. Results and Discussion

336 In the following we discuss a case study related to the 2016 US presidential election
 337 characterized by the rivalry between Hillary Clinton and Donald Trump. Our analysis
 338 focused on 10 US Swing States: Colorado, Florida, Iowa, Michigan, Ohio, New Hamp-
 339 shire, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and Wisconsin. These states are given
 340 high strategic importance as they are characterized by a great political uncertainty. There-
 341 fore, information manipulation in those states, carried out by influencing the political
 342 orientation of social media users, can have significant effects on the election outcome.

343 As explained in Section 3.1, posts were collected using a set of neutral keywords
 344 and two sets of faction keywords, one for each candidate. An extract of these sets is
 345 shown in the following:

- 346 • $K_{Neutral} = \{\text{election2016, elections2016, uselections, uselection, earlyvote, ivoted}\}$
- 347 • $K_{Hillary} = \{\text{clintokaine16, democrats, hillary16, imwithher, nevertrump, strongertogether}\}$
- 348 • $K_{Trump} = \{\text{wakeupamerica, votetrump, maga, trump16, americafirst, neverhillary, podestaemails}\}$

351 We analyzed about 4.7 million posts posted by 1.5 million users, finding a non-
 352 negligible impact of social bots on political discussion. As shown in Table 1, states like
 353 Colorado, Iowa and Ohio, are characterized by a high rate of bot posts, from 20.6% to
 354 24.6%. Furthermore, 7% of total user accounts have been identified as social bots, which
 355 produced about 15% of the total posts related to the 2016 US presidential election coming
 356 from the analyzed swing states. This last result is in agreement with [9], which found a
 357 percentage of posts published by bots equal to 20%, albeit using a different sample of
 358 tweets and analysis methodology.

State	#Users	%Bots	#Posts	%Bot Posts
Colorado	20,029	9.57%	45,197	22.15%
Florida	368,593	2.73%	604,482	13.89%
Iowa	63,264	6.82%	162,567	20.52%
Michigan	122,141	2.40%	444,321	19.79%
New Hampshire	13,920	9.39%	30,523	20.58%
North Carolina	283,419	12.88%	1,108,556	12.77%
Ohio	88,896	6.11%	293,150	24.55%
Pennsylvania	278,255	8.89%	978,913	11.45%
Virginia	250,622	7.63%	955,821	12.65%
Wisconsin	33,446	2.30%	72,197	19.60%
Total	1,522,585	7.03%	4,695,727	14.52%

Table 1: Collected posts and users per state

359 Collected data are representative of the analyzed event as:

- 360 • All the posts under analysis have the lang field set to *en* (i.e. English).
- 361 • About 94% of the social media users in the USA are adults and almost equally
 362 divided by gender (42.7% females and 57.3% males).
- 363 • For each state, we measured the correlation between collected users and voting
 364 eligible population (VEP). We observed a strong linear correlation, with a Pearson
 365 coefficient $r = 0.86$, which improved after removing bots reaching 0.89. Both results
 366 are significant at $p < .01$, therefore collected users can be considered voters in
 367 the related swing state. Figure 1 summarizes these results by showing a linear
 368 interpolation, along with the goodness-of-fit measured through the determination
 369 coefficient (R^2).

370 In the next two subsections, we analyze the polarization of users during the 2016
 371 US presidential election campaign and how the presence of bots may have affected the
 372 political discussion on Twitter.

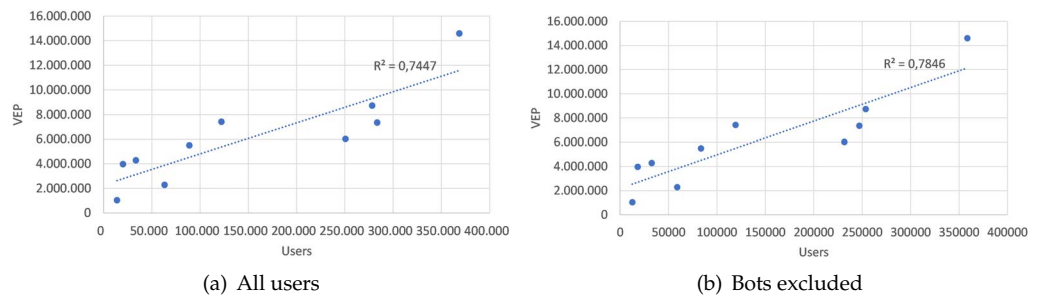


Figure 1. Linear interpolation: analyzed users vs. voting eligible population (VEP)

373 4.1. Polarization analysis

374 In this step we exploited Algorithms 1 and 2, described in Section 3.2 and 3.3, for
 375 determining the political orientation of the collected posts and the corresponding users.
 376 Furthermore, posts are assigned an importance weight and users are classified as real
 377 accounts or social bots. The decay rate λ and the threshold th have been set to 0.3 and
 378 0.7 respectively. Table 2, shows how the support detected for the different factions is
 379 distributed among real users and bots. We would like to clarify that with pro- X bots we
 380 indicate Twitter accounts classified as bots, which have mainly published tweets in favor of
 381 candidate X .

Polarization	#Users	%Bots	#Posts	%Bot Posts
Pro-Trump	94,124	26.70%	194,428	17.86%
Pro-Clinton	78,900	10.00%	128,154	8.27%

Table 2: Supporting posts and users per candidate

382 We found a greater presence of pro-Trump bots, which have a more marked impact
 383 on the online discussion, producing almost 18% of the contents classified as in favor of
 384 Trump. This suggests a greater use of social bots that published contents supporting the
 385 Trump political positioning compared to the other faction, which however shows a quite
 386 high volume of bot-generated content, in line with work [9].

387 Once posts and users were classified according to their polarity and social bot
 388 were detected using Botometer, we determined the outcome of the 2016 US election
 389 as explained in Section 3.3. The achieved results are summarized in Table 3, which
 390 shows a comparison among the real voting percentages, the average values of the latest
 391 opinion polls before the election, and the results obtained by using TIMBRE. The winning
 392 candidate is written in bold when it is correctly identified.

State	Real		Polls		TIMBRE	
	Clinton	Trump	Clinton	Trump	Clinton	Trump
Colorado	48.2	43.3	43.3	40.4	47.7	43.8
Florida	47.8	49.0	46.4	46.6	48.1	48.7
Iowa	41.7	51.1	41.3	44.3	34.1	58.7
Michigan	47.3	47.5	45.4	42.0	41.7	53.1
New Hampshire	47.0	46.6	43.3	42.7	56.8	36.9
North Carolina	46.2	49.8	46.4	46.4	44.7	51.2
Ohio	43.6	51.7	42.3	45.8	43.9	51.4
Pennsylvania	47.9	48.6	46.2	44.3	51.5	45.0
Virginia	49.8	44.4	47.3	42.3	49.9	44.3
Wisconsin	46.5	47.2	46.8	40.3	52.0	41.7
<i>Correctly classified</i>	-	-	6/10	-	8/10	-
<i>Posts</i>	-	-	-	-	277,181	-
<i>Users</i>	-	-	$\approx 10,000$	-	140,003	-
<i>Avg. accuracy</i>	-	-	0.6	-	0.8	-
<i>Avg. absolute error</i>	-	-	1.2	-	0.9	-

Table 3: Voting percentages estimates of the 2016 US presidential election.

393 Compared to the latest opinion polls, which gave a correct forecast for only 6
 394 out of 10 swing states, the proposed methodology was able to correctly identify the
 395 winning candidate in 8 out of 10 states, confirming its ability to accurately determine the
 396 polarization of social media users. TIMBRE outperformed the latest opinion polls even
 397 in terms of average absolute error, improving it from 1.2 to 0.9. We computed this metric
 398 only focusing on wrong predictions by using the following formula:

$$\text{avg. absolute error} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{F}|} \sum_{f \in \mathcal{F}} \frac{1}{|\mathcal{S}|} \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} w(s) * |\text{real}_{f,s} - \text{pred}_{f,s}|$$

399 where \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{S} are the set of considered factions and states, $\text{real}_{f,s}$ and $\text{pred}_{f,s}$ are the
 400 real and predicted voting percentages related to the faction f in the state s , and $w(s)$ is
 401 a binary function which outputs 1 if the predicted polarity is wrong, 0 otherwise (i.e.
 402 the winning candidate is correctly identified). Using this metric we both penalized the
 403 absolute error in terms of percentage points and the inversions predicted polarity, which
 404 can be a crucial issue while analyzing these states, characterized by a high degree of
 405 uncertainty. Another noteworthy advantage is related to the number of polarized users,
 406 which is much larger than that of the people interviewed. Consequently, this approach
 407 can be thought as a valid alternative to traditional opinion polls, since it is able to capture
 408 the opinion of a larger number of people more quickly and at a lower cost.

409 We further extended our experimental evaluation by analyzing the benefits brought
 410 by each of the two key steps introduced by the proposed methodology: *temporal weighting*
 411 and *bot removal*.

State	Real	Polls	Base	Bot removal	Temporal weighting	TIMBRE
Colorado	C	C	T	C	T	C
Florida	T	T	C	C	T	T
Iowa	T	T	T	T	T	T
Michigan	T	C	T	T	T	T
New Hampshire	C	C	C	C	C	C
North Carolina	T	Tie	T	T	T	T
Ohio	T	T	T	T	T	T
Pennsylvania	T	C	C	C	C	C
Virginia	C	C	C	C	C	C
Wisconsin	T	C	C	C	C	C
<i>Correctly classified</i>	-	6/10	6/10	7/10	7/10	8/10

Table 4: Results comparison in terms of winning faction and analysis of the contribution brought by each step of TIMBRE. “C” and “T” stand for Clinton and Trump respectively.

412 The achieved results, reported in Table 4, show that both the temporal weighting
 413 of posts and bot removal steps are crucial in order to get a correct estimate of users’
 414 voting intentions. In particular, the *base version* of the proposed methodology, that does
 415 not leverage neither the removal of bots nor the temporal weighing of posts, achieved
 416 the same accuracy of the latest polls, correctly identifying the winning candidate in
 417 6 out of 10 states. By adding the bot removal step to the base version, the resulting
 418 methodology was able to correctly predict the final outcome in Colorado, increasing its
 419 accuracy from 6 to 7 out of 10 states correctly classified. Similarly, by only adding the
 420 time-base weighting mechanism, we observed an increase in the forecasting ability of our
 421 methodology, which corrected its prediction for the state of Florida. Finally, TIMBRE was
 422 able to maintain the benefits coming from both of the aforementioned steps, combining
 423 them and correctly determining the winning candidate in 8 out of 10 states. Finally, it
 424 is worth noting that the results for Pennsylvania and Wisconsin that were not correctly
 425 predicted by TIMBRE were not correctly predicted even by opinion polls.

4.2. Bot influence analysis

427 In this section we analyze how the presence of social bots may have affected the
 428 political online discussion around the 2016 US presidential election. Specifically, we

4.29 firstly analyzed the publishing behavior of both real users and social bots focusing on the
 4.30 patterns of information production. Then, we studied the main differences in supporting
 4.31 the two candidates between human-driven and artificial accounts. Finally, we estimated
 4.32 the degree of influence of social bots on legitimate users using a competitive information
 4.33 diffusion model.

4.2.1. Information production patterns

4.35 In order to extract the publishing behavior of social media users involved in the
 4.36 political discussion, we used the information about their political orientation coming
 4.37 from the user polarization step, computing a publishing model for each candidate. In
 4.38 particular, such models are represented by the complementary cumulative distribution
 4.39 function (CCDF) of the number of posts posted by users supporting Clinton and Trump
 4.40 respectively. Obtained results considering all accounts and excluding Bot accounts from
 4.41 them are shown in Figure 2. Specifically, for a given number of posts x the scatter plots
 4.42 show, in a log-log scale, the frequency of users publishing a number of posts greater
 4.43 than x (i.e., $F(X) > x$).

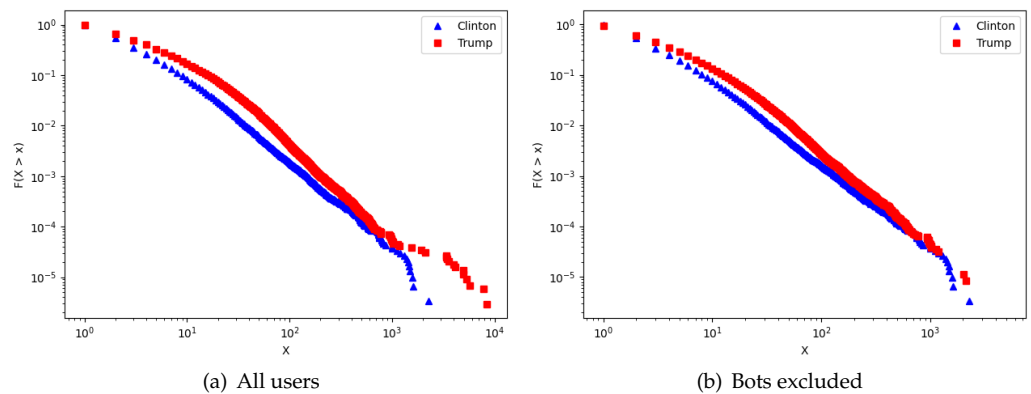


Figure 2. CCDF of published posts for real and bot users classified by supported faction

4.44 Analyzing the publishing behavior of all polarized users (both real and fake ac-
 4.45 counts), shown in Figure 2(a), we observed a greater publication tendency of pro-Trump
 4.46 accounts, which result much more prolific than pro-Clinton ones. However, the role of
 4.47 polarized bots behind this phenomenon should be investigated: for this purpose Figure
 4.48 2(b) shows the publishing behavior of legitimate users only. By excluding the bots from
 4.49 the CCDF of both candidates, we observed a narrowing of the distance between the two
 4.50 curves relating to pro-Trump and pro-Clinton users. Therefore the polarity does not
 4.51 seem to be a deciding factor affecting the volume of posts published by legitimate users.
 4.52 As a consequence, it can be deduced that the differences emerging in Figure 2(a) are
 4.53 due to an amplifying effect caused by social bots. Moreover, this agrees with the higher
 4.54 activity of pro-Trump bots with respect to pro-Clinton ones, detected in the previous
 4.55 sections. For completeness, in Table 5 we provide the description of the most prolific
 4.56 real accounts in our dataset, according to the detected polarity. In particular, for each
 4.57 candidate we selected the user labeled as real by Botometer that published the highest
 4.58 number of posts, i.e. the rightmost point of the scatter plot in Fig 2(b).

Polarity	Screen name	Bot score (Botometer)	#Posts	Example post
Pro-Trump	@TheJonFerns	0.18	3650	"Not even Hillary Clinton's campaign chief Podesta believes her. #podestamails"
Pro-Clinton	@Kaliburger	0.16	4004	"Think we should always have a woman as President. #imwithher"

Table 5: Description of the most prolific real accounts supporting each candidate.

459 Despite the high number of published posts, Botometer gave for the two accounts a
 460 BotScore score far below 0.5, which suggests that they are truly managed by prominent
 461 users or news sites, but not by automatic entities.

462 4.2.2. Influence spread

463 This last step is aimed at estimating the degree of influence of social bots on le-
 464 gitimate users, following the approach described in Section 3.4. For this purpose, we
 465 built a graph G based on repost relationships characterized by 437,854 nodes and almost
 466 1.5 million edges. From that graph have been removed self-loops, duplicated edges
 467 and isolated nodes. Afterwards we analyzed the spread of influence by adapting the
 468 *Separated-Threshold Model for Competing Technologies* (see Section 3.4) to our case study,
 469 characterized by the rivalry of two candidates. Due to this, the diffusion process starts
 470 from two distinct seed-sets containing respectively the bots polarized for the Democratic
 471 and the Republican party. When convergence is reached, we end up with a list of influ-
 472 enced nodes labeled with the related polarity. We conducted 20 simulations varying the
 473 initial assignment of the random thresholds that represent the resistance of the users
 474 in the network to be influenced by social bots. Starting from the achieved results we
 475 computed two quantities:

- 476 • The expected spread for each candidate, determined as the average number of
 477 influenced nodes across the 20 simulations by pro-Trump and pro-Clinton nodes.
- 478 • The set of influenceable nodes, obtained through the voting technique. In particular,
 479 all the nodes activated at least once during the different simulations were assigned
 480 to the faction that influenced them the greatest number of times.

481 The final results obtained after the different simulations of the diffusion process are
 482 shown in Table 6. Both the expected number of influenced nodes and the total number
 483 of influenceable nodes confirmed the greatest activity of pro-Trump bots, which had
 484 a more marked impact on social media conversation compared to pro-Clinton ones.
 485 In particular, the expected number of nodes influenced by the seed-set of pro-Trump
 486 bots was 12.4 times greater than compared to the opposite seed-set of pro-Clinton ones.
 487 Similarly, the number of influenceable nodes was 7.8 times greater.

	Expected number of influenced nodes	Total number of influenceable nodes
Pro-Trump bots	31,629 (2.4%)	99,833 (7.5%)
Pro-Clinton bots	2,547 (0.2%)	12,775 (1.0%)

Table 6: Obtained results after 20 simulations of the diffusion process.

488 Figure 3 graphically summarizes the results obtained in this step. In particular, the
 489 entire G graph is plotted (left graph), coloring the different nodes according to their
 490 polarity and characteristics. In particular, the polarized bots belonging to pro-Trump and
 491 pro-Clinton seed-sets are colored in dark red and dark blue respectively, influenceable
 492 nodes assigned to Trump are represented in light red, those assigned to Clinton in light
 493 blue and neutral nodes in gray. Finally, in order to obtain a clearer view of the influenced
 494 nodes in the network, we reduced the initial graph by 90% while keeping the top- k
 495 nodes with highest degree (right graph). In this way we maintained almost unchanged
 496 the polarity-based clustering structure emerged in the total graph, achieving a neater
 497 representation of the results of the diffusion process.

498 5. Conclusion and Final Remarks

499 This paper proposes a new methodology, namely **TIMBRE** (Time-aware opInion
 500 Mining via **Bot REMoval**), aimed at discovering the polarization of social media users
 501 during election campaigns characterized by the rivalry of political factions or parties.
 502 This methodology exploits a keyword-based classification to determine the political
 503 polarization of social media posts and users. It is temporally-aware, as it considers

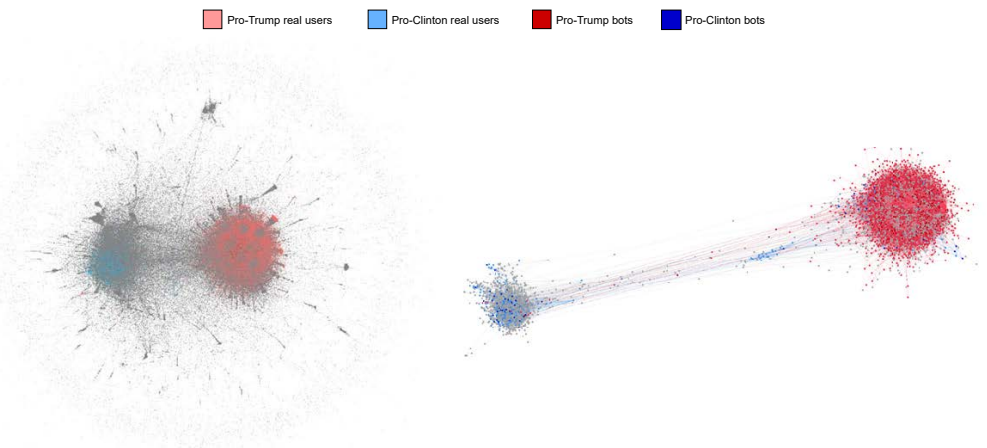


Figure 3. Visualization of the diffusion process on the repost graph. The total graph (on the left) and the sampled graph (on the right) are shown, whose nodes are colored according to their polarity.

504 time-related aspects in deciding how much a post can be helpful to determine the voting
 505 intentions of the user who published it. Moreover, it recognizes and filters out data
 506 produced by social media bots, algorithmically-driven entities that participate in online
 507 discussion with the aim of altering the public opinion about political candidates.

508 In order to assess the effectiveness of TIMBRE, it was applied to a real-world case
 509 study related to the 2016 US presidential election. By leveraging Twitter metadata, we
 510 focused only on posts coming from 10 US Swing States, in particular: Colorado, Florida,
 511 Iowa, Michigan, Ohio, New Hampshire, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Virginia, and
 512 Wisconsin. The achieved results showed the high accuracy of the proposed approach,
 513 along with the benefits brought on forecasting accuracy by its two key steps, i.e. tem-
 514 poral weighting and bot removal. Specifically, our methodology was able to correctly
 515 identify the winning candidate in 8 states out of 10, with an average absolute error of 0.9
 516 percentage points, outperforming the latest opinion polls, which identified the winner
 517 in 6 out of 10 cases, with an average error of 1.2 points.

518 As a final step, we investigated how the presence of social bots may have affected
 519 political discussion around the 2016 US presidential election. In particular, we firstly
 520 analyzed the publishing behavior of both real users and social bots focusing on the
 521 patterns of information production. Then, we studied the main differences in supporting
 522 the two main candidates between human-driven and artificial accounts. Finally, we
 523 estimated the degree of influence of social bots on legitimate users finding out that in
 524 the analyzed scenario bots had a marked impact on social media conversation, showing
 525 a significant activity and influence on legitimate users. The obtained results are based
 526 on a politically neutral research analysis that produces accurate estimates, which are
 527 in accordance with related work. In addition, it is worth noticing that, although our
 528 analysis discovered a high presence of social media bots that may have affected online
 529 political discussion, it is impossible to know who was running that bots, as they can also
 530 be exploited for provocative campaigns or as part of an information war.

531 **Author Contributions:** Conceptualization, R.C. and F.M.; methodology, R.C. and F.M.; validation,
 532 R.C.; investigation, F.M.; writing—original draft preparation, R.C., F.M., D.T. and P.T.; supervision,
 533 D.T. and P.T. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

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539 [com](https://developer.twitter.com)
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