

Twitter and the European Hyperagora: What can the Twittersphere Tell us about Political Deliberation and Opinions in Europe?

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Introduction

Twitter is an online social network that allows users to broadcast short posts known as Tweets. Since its launch in 2006, the platform has increasingly been used for everyday communication as well as for political debates, crisis communication, marketing, and cultural participation (Weller et al. 2013). The public-debt crisis in Europe is widely discussed across Europe and presents an interesting point in time to investigate whether European issues are discussed in a common European public sphere. This project looks at data from the communication platform Twitter. It specifically looks at the reaction in the Twittersphere to the negotiation between the Troika and Greece leading up to the signing of the three memorandums.

Research Question

The following questions were investigated:

What can twitter tell us about pan-European reactions to the European governance of the public-debt crisis in Greece?

- What can variation across time and space in the volume of Tweets regarding the euro crisis tell us about popular engagement with the issues?
- What can the content of Tweets related to the crisis tell us about the spread of public opinion on the handling of the crisis in Greece between and within countries?

The answer to these questions could potentially add to the literature on the emergence of a European public sphere.

Literature Review

On Twitter Research

The body of twitter research has grown steadily in recent years (for a comprehensive analysis and typology of twitter research up to 2013, see Zimmer and Proferes 2014). Some of the findings relevant to our research design are discussed below.

Twitter is a source of meaningful information about engagement with and opinions about political topics. Twitter is also used as a platform for political deliberation. In a recent study on Tweets mentioning parties or politicians before the 2009 German federal election, Tumasjan et al. found that "Twitter is not just used to spread political opinions, but also to discuss these opinions with other users" (Tumasjan et al. 2010, 183). Furthermore, specific patterns of twitter usage have been identified that correspond with high-profile political events. Hughes and Palen found that, compared to general Twitter usage, more broadcast-based information sharing activities take place (Hughes and Palen 2009, 259) during events. Moreover, Tumasjan et al. found that it was possible to extract meaningful information about political opinions from both the volumes and the content of these Tweets: "the mere number of Tweets reflects voter preferences and came close to traditional election polls" (Tumasjan et al. 2010, 183).

Twitter gives information on the location of Tweets and users, which must be carefully interpreted. Devin Gaffney points out methodological problems with using the given location of twitter users - "in many cases user-entered profile locations differ from the physical locations users are actually Tweeting from" (Graham, Hale, and Gaffney, Devin 2014, 1) which must be considered when interpreting results.

Though the field of Sentiment Analysis (SA) is perhaps most developed in the business world (Zimmer and Proferes 2014, 250), an increasing body of literature has developed, focused on retrieving information about

political opinions from the Twittersphere. Though Tumasjan's results have come under scrutiny (see Jungherr, Jürgens, and Schoen 2012), the authors found that "the sentiment of Twitter messages closely corresponded to political programs, candidate profiles, and evidence from the media coverage of the campaign trail" (Tumasjan et al. 2010, 183).

Grimmer provides an overview of recent developments in SA in political science, noting how "automated content methods can make possible the previously impossible in political science: the systematic analysis of large-scale text collections without massive funding support" (Grimmer and Stewart 2013, 2). He advises caution, however, about the utility of SA in predictive models: "The goal of building text models is therefore different than model building to make causal inferences. [...] Emphasis in evaluations should be placed on helping researchers to assign documents into predetermined categories, discover new and useful categorization schemes for texts, or in measuring theoretically relevant quantities from large collections of text." (Grimmer and Stewart 2013, 4).

Due to the enormous amount of text available, Pak and Paroubek identify that "microblogging web-sites are rich sources of data for opinion mining and sentiment analysis" (Pak and Paroubek 2010, 1320). The multilingual nature of Tweets across Europe presents some difficulties, but is the subject of a growing body of research: "Noisy social media, such as Twitter, are especially interesting for sentiment analysis (SA) [...] given the amount of data and their popularity in different countries, where users simultaneously publish opinions about the same topic in different languages" (Vilares, Alonso, and Gómez-Rodríguez 2015, 2). Balahur and Turchi are confident about the ability of Statistical Machine Translation (SMT) to provide a basis for consistently applied SA across languages (Balahur and Turchi 2012, 58). Other approaches include using emoticons to train models that assign sentiment to a multilingual text corpus (Narr, Hulphenhaus, and Albayrak 2012).

Finally, some studies discuss ethical aspects of twitter research. For example, concerns about creating a permanent archive of Tweets have been voiced. These concerns included whether "such archive was aligned with users' privacy expectations" (Zimmer and Proferes 2014, 258; Zimmer 2010).

On Awareness and Public Opinion across Europe on the Governance of the Public-Debt Crisis in Greece

Academic research on the emergence of a European public sphere is not a recent phenomenon (Risse 2003, 1). Hitherto, however, research has been characterized as rather normative, as the "research community has been [...] interested in producing policy recommendations for public sphere-building" (Trenz 2015, 234). Recent studies, on the other hand, seem to put emphasis on an empirical grounding of the debate (Trenz 2015; Drewski, Gerhards, and others 2015). This development is being mirrored in research on the public debate across Europe on the euro crisis. It has been suggested that "there is an emerging demos in the European polity and it has been strengthened during the euro crisis" (Risse 2014, 1213). When testing this hypothesis empirically, though, by looking at newspaper editorials in Spain and Germany, Drewski found that there were significant differences along national instead of ideological lines in the discussion of the Euro crisis (Drewski, Gerhards, and others 2015, 5).

Max Hänska and Stefan Bauchowitz in a recent LSE blog entry track twitter activity during the negotiations leading up to the third Greek bailout agreement. (Haenska and Bauchowitz 2015) According to their findings, Tweets synchronised around key mini-events throughout the negotiations, with peaks and troughs mirrored across national twitter-spheres. These results suggest that popular engagement with the issue converges across Europe (see figure 1).

They further looked at instances of Tweets containing #ThisIsACoup, representing a particular opinion on the agreement. They then showed that the spread of #ThisIsACoup was not reflected in the studied countries equally. This indicated a divergence of public opinion along national lines (see figure 2).

However, figure 3 shows how tweets across Europe were connected.

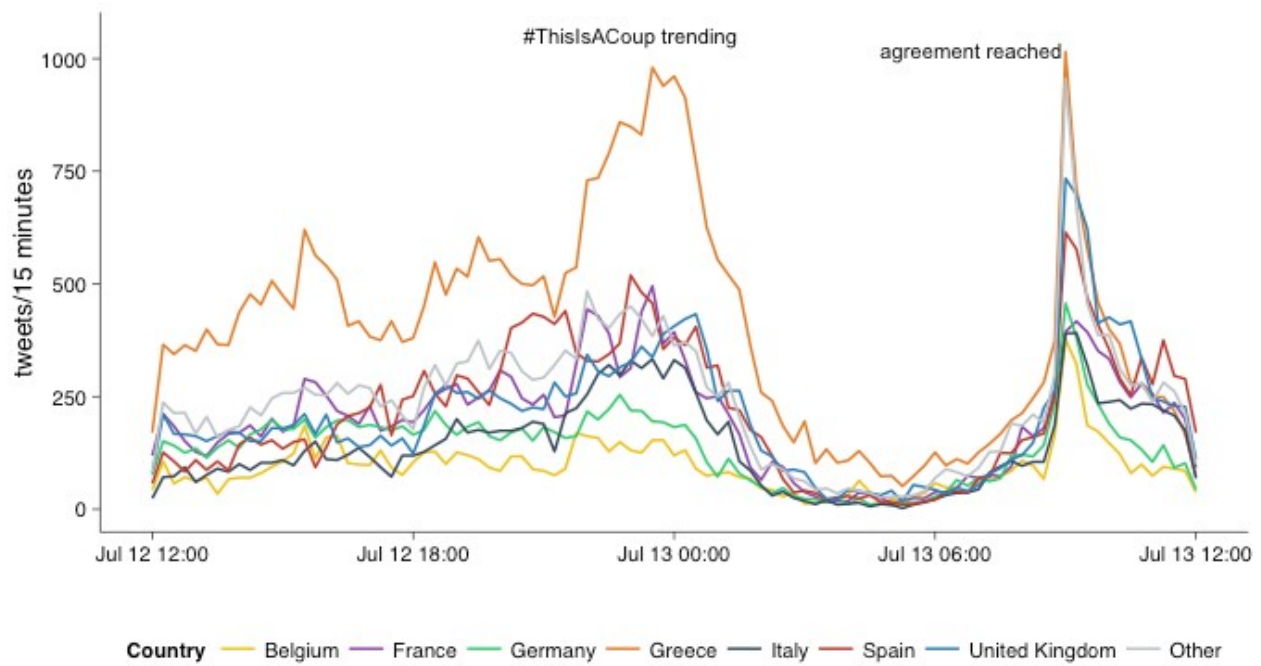


Figure 1: Tweet volumes by country on 12-13 July 2015 in European countries (source Haenska and Bauchowitz 2015)

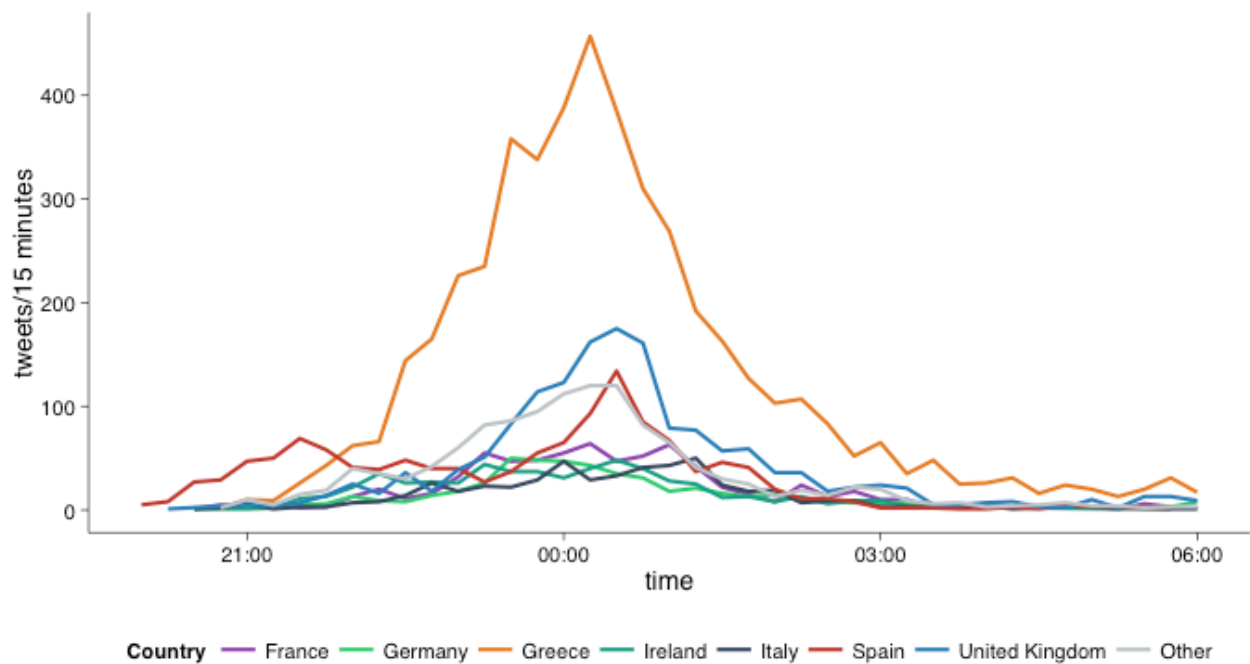


Figure 2: Number of Tweets containing the #thisisacoup hashtag on 12-13 July 2015 (source Haenska and Bauchowitz 2015)



Figure 3: A network map of European tweets (source Haenska and Bauchowitz 2015)

Data Sources

For our investigation in the European public discourse on the Euro crisis, two datasets were required. The first was the corpus of Tweets relating to the Greek debt crisis and the measures taken to manage the crisis by European institutions. The second was information about the users whose Tweets form the body of that corpus.

Zimmer and Proferes identify the Library of Congress' decision to place every Tweet since Twitter's inception in 2006 into an archive as validating "the research importance of twitter" (Zimmer and Proferes 2014, 251). Despite this announcement occurring in 2010, five years later, the archive is still not open to researchers (Scola 2015). Since late 2014, the whole corpus of twitter data has been searchable online (Metz 2015). Programmatic access to this archive is, however, more restricted. Twitter's public search API "is not complete index of all Tweets, but instead an index of recent Tweets. At the moment that index includes between 6-9 days of Tweets." ("The Search API" 2015). Twitter sells access to historical Tweets through an API provided by its "enterprise API platform" GNIP (Tornes 2015). This paper adapts a publicly available program written in Java which scrapes results from Twitter's online search page (Henrique 2015).

Data Gathering

Due to the large amount of data we process, we ran the data gathering and cleaning in the background on a server using the prefix setsid.

Tweets

We used a modified version of GetOldTweets (Henrique 2015), a Java program that scrapes data from twitter search. The file `getting_tweets/input.txt` contains a list of search terms related to the Greek crisis in three periods, each comprising some weeks before and after the negotiation and signing of the memoranda. The search terms were collected using an adapted form of snowball sampling (Biernacki and Waldorf 1981), searching an initial list and recursively adding related terms found in the results. By running

```
sudo setsid ./compile_run.sh ../getting_tweets/input.txt
```

from the GetOldTweets folder, we ran through each search term and each period, searched twitter, and saved the results as a txt file in the data folder. After an initial assessment of the results, we refined our search terms and ran GetOldTweets again with `/getting_tweets/input2.txt`. A third file (`getting_tweets/input3.txt`) aims to return a time-inpedependent list of tweets in order to control for the growth of Twitter over time.

We end up with a long list of files in the `data/GOToutput` folder, which in the data cleaning process will be merged into one corpus file.

Users

We found the unique users in our corpus of tweets and used the TwitterR package (Gentry 2015) to gather richer data about each user. TwitterR uses the twitter API and gives the opportunity to collect all information twitter has about the user. Where a users's last tweet was geocoded, we took the latitude and longitude. We end up with the file `data/user_info.csv`

Many users do not geotag their tweets, instead stating their location, and we used APIs from MapQuest and Google to geocode user-reported location, giving us the file `places.csv`.

Merging & Cleaning

The txt files containing the tweets for each query and period are merged into a corpus file. This corpus file was merged with the user_info file, which in turn was merged with the places file. We end up with a large file containing tweets for our queries in each period with elaborate user information.

Some of the queries we defined returned irrelevant data, due to their ambiguity. We identified these by selecting random tweets from the search queries, reading the tweets, and checking for relevance to the topic. For example, the query “bailout”, although certainly relevant for our topic, was insufficiently precise and returned a lot of data about the banking bailouts, especially in the 2010 period. The following list summarizes the queries which we excluded.

- athens
- bailout
- 2-pac
- 3-pac

Translation

In a next step we identified the language of every tweet (Hornik et al. 2015) and translated those tweets written in European languages other than English into English (Lucas and Tingley 2014). Danish and Romanian were excluded from the list because these languages were not adequately identified by the program.

Final Dataset

A dataframe ‘merged_corpus’ containing all of the above information was pulled together. We filtered all tweets from Europe.

Methodology

Volumes of topic-relevant Tweets were mapped across space and time, to analyse the distribution of topic-awareness and its relation to political developments in responses to the crisis. The distribution of hashtags that clearly represent an opinion on the response to the crisis (e.g. ‘#ThisIsaCoup’, ‘#ThisIsNotaCoup’ *inter alia*) were similarly mapped in order to approximate the distribution of opinion within and between countries over time. The paper attempts a sentiment analysis of Tweets expressing opinions about the agreed bailout deals using machine translation to translate all texts into English before performing sentiment analysis. Analysis was then carried out using unigrams to indicate polarity through comparison with a lexicon. Following Grimmer, we assumed “documents are a *bag of words*, where order does not inform our analyses” as “In practice, for common tasks like measuring sentiment, topic modeling, or search, *n-grams* (combinations of words rather than individual words) do little to enhance performance” (Grimmer and Stewart 2013, 6).

To carry out the sentiment analysis process, we use the R package `tm.plugin.sentiment` (Annau 2014) to compare the words in our translated corpus of tweets with the General Enquirer lexicon (Theussl, Hofmarcher, and Hornik 2015). Each tweet is given a positive score and a negative score according to the number of positive and negative words found in the tweet. We calculate an overall sentiment score by subtracting the negative score from the positive score. Low scores therefore indicate negative sentiment; high scores indicate positive sentiment.

Based on the results of sentiment analysis carried out and analysis of volumes of tweets and users using opinion-signifying keywords, the paper gives an indication of the scale of dialogue, consensus and disagreement across and within countries in the European Twittersphere.

Analysis

Descriptive Statistics

The word cloud gives us an overall picture of the words used in the collected tweets connected to the European public-debt crisis.¹



Figure 4: Word Cloud of a random sample of 200 tweets in our corpus

The following tables describe variation over space and time of the entire population of tweets.

Variation Across Space

Figure 5 shows the distribution of all tweets over countries filtering those with a significant amount of tweets. This group seems to be a mix of high twitter user numbers and affectedness/involvement/relation to the events in Greece. Most probably reflecting high user numbers in the US, the US seems to be the origin of most tweets regarding the European sovereign-debt crisis. However, when controlling for period, the US resembles an atypical case. While for most other countries, tweet number on the topic increase over the years, they decrease substantially in the US.

Variation Across Time

Figure 6 shows that twitter coverage of the Greek bailouts has increased heavily over time. When looking at the development of different queries over time, an increase was found for all queries except for for “imf+greece”, which decreased in 2012 and increased in 2015 again. Since the shown results are not normalized, it is difficult to say how much of the growth of the population of tweets can be attributed to an increase in twitter usage or to an increase of interest in the topic. Further, some of our queries only became topical in the later periods or even the last periods.

¹to a certain degree in this case a word cloud is redundant, because it mainly returns our query turns. However, it also indicates the prevalence of specific terms, and further, which other terms are mentioned regularly in those tweets.

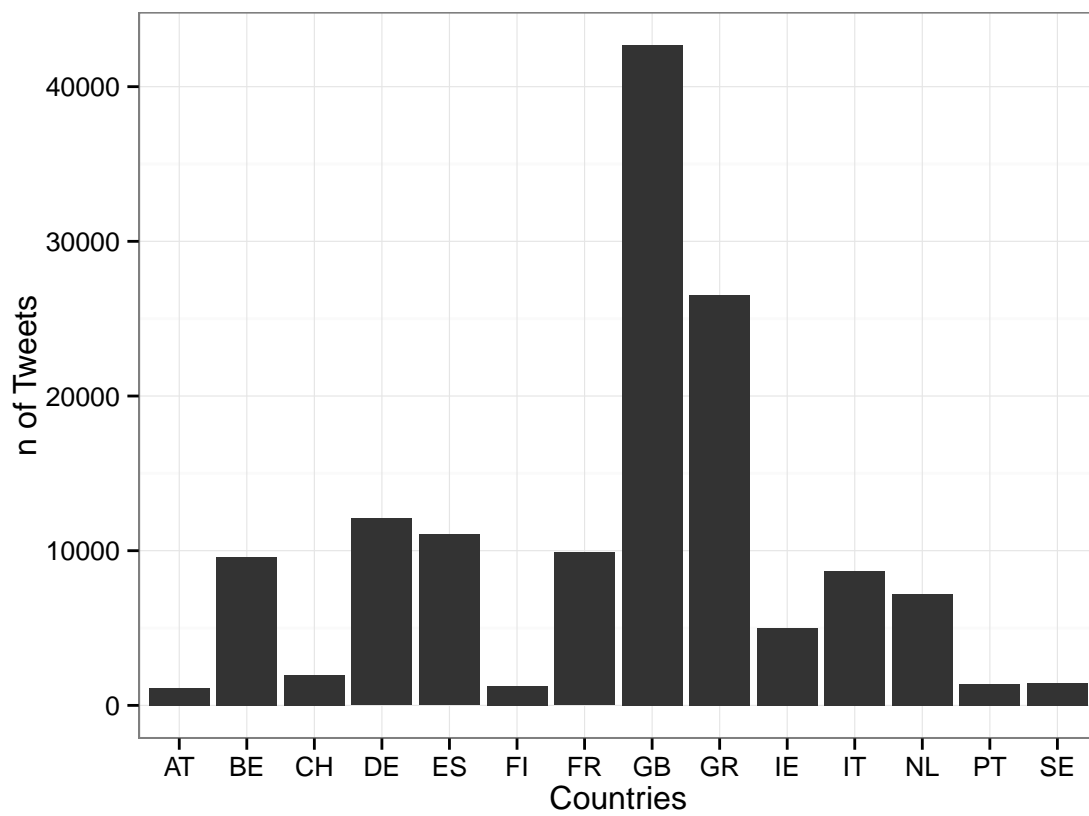


Figure 5: Geographical Distribution of Tweets

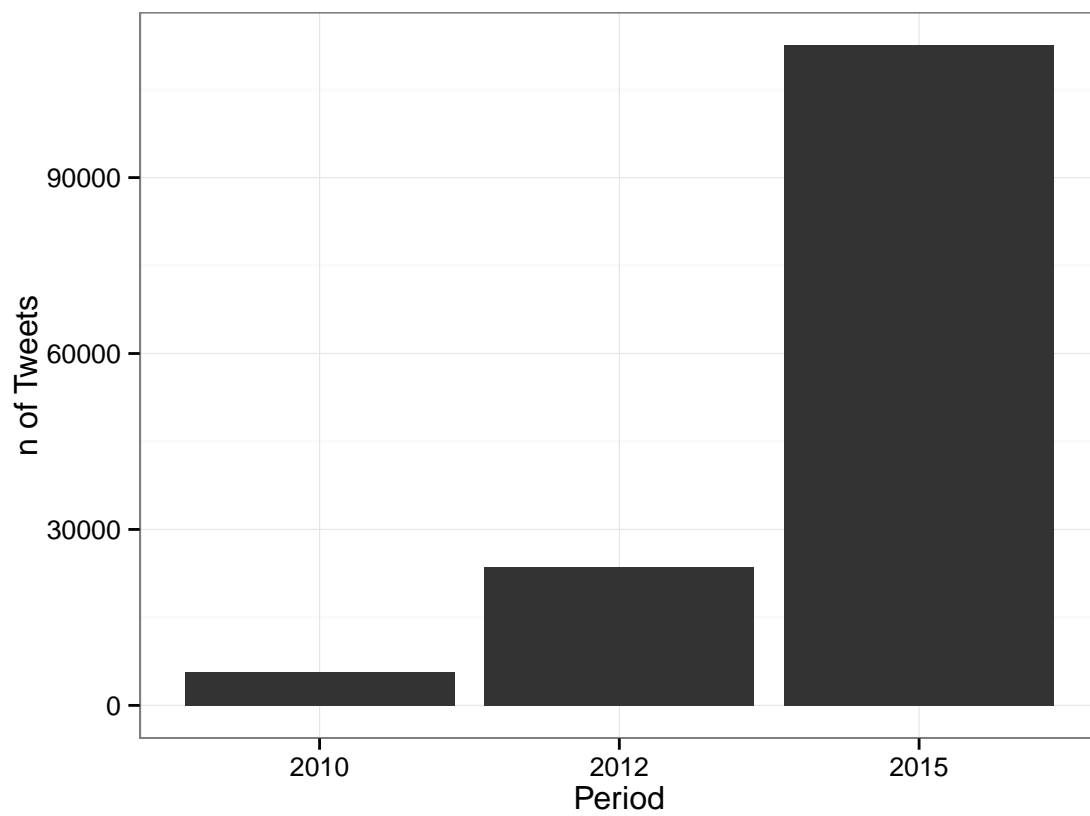


Figure 6: Tweets matching our queries by year

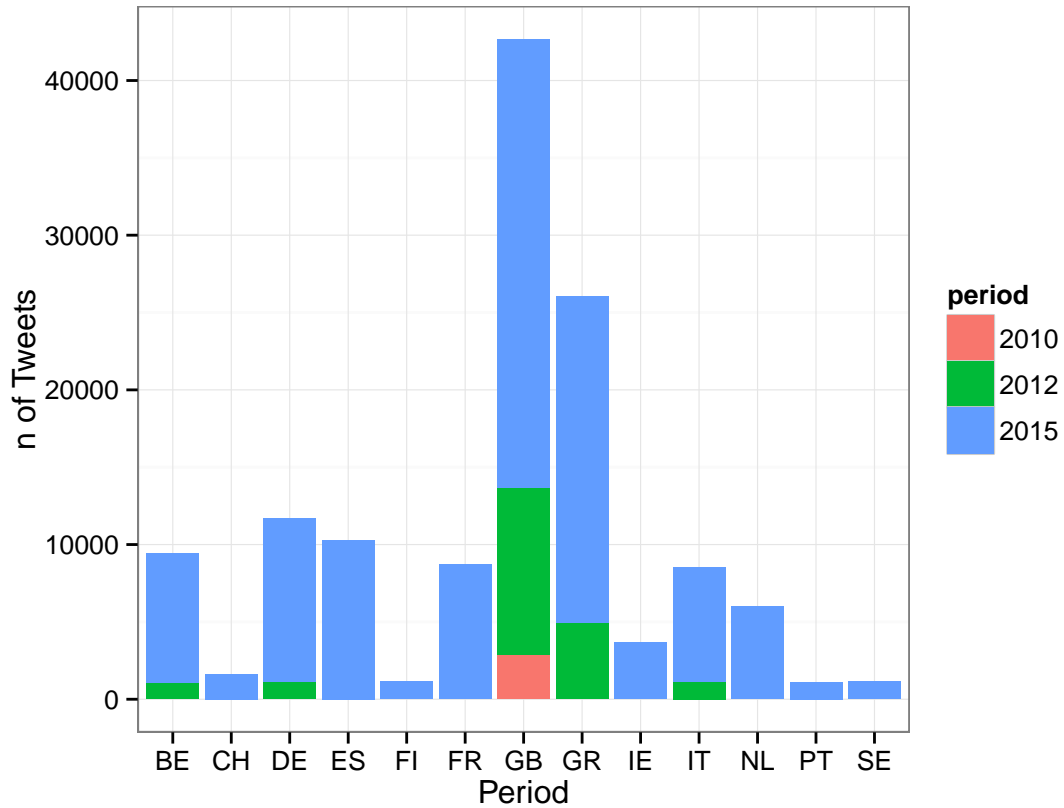


Figure 7: Spatio-Temporal distribution of total tweets in corpus

Variation Across Space and Time

Figure 7 Shows us that tweets in earlier periods are concentrated in very few countries. Only in 2015 do we see a wider distribution across all European countries.

Queries

Table 1 summarizes the collected data by queries. It shows absolute numbers and relative distributions of specific query returns.

Table 1: Data distribution by query

query	n	percent
#aGreekment	3045	2.15
athens+berlin	478	0.34
austerity+greece	2833	2.00
economic+adjustment	55	0.04
euclisis	117	0.08
eurocrisis	2582	1.82
eurogroup	1421	1.00
eurogroup+agreement	312	0.22
eurosummit	8969	6.33
euro+summit	10211	7.20
germany+greece	3861	2.72

query	n	percent
greece+crisis	3591	2.53
greece+reforms	4297	3.03
grexit	5515	3.89
imf+greece	2451	1.73
memorandum+greece	493	0.35
merkel+greece	5443	3.84
mou+greece	451	0.32
#nai	4055	2.86
#nai+greece	144	0.10
notmyeuropa	255	0.18
#oxi	1756	1.24
rescue packages	41	0.03
schäuble+greece	2465	1.74
syryza	2873	2.03
tax+evasion+greece	298	0.21
#thisisacoup	6802	4.80
#thisisnotacoup	303	0.21
tsipras	6522	4.60
varoufakis	13642	9.62
bailout+eurozone	4482	3.16
bailout+greece	6342	4.47
bailout+greek	1747	1.23
efsm+greece	390	0.28
efsm+greek	74	0.05
ems+greece	14	0.01
esm+greek	340	0.24
greece+debt	4905	3.46
greek+crisis	20573	14.51
greek+debt	4676	3.30
greek+reforms	2774	1.96
memorandum+greek	170	0.12
six-pack+greece	2	0.00
six-pack+greek	3	0.00

The results that our queries returned differ substantially in size. While some queries (e.g. greek+crisis) return over 16000 tweets, others (e.g. economic+adjustment, rescue+packages) return only around 30 tweets in the specified time periods. We therefore think it is for analytical reasons useful to differentiate between high-return and low-return queries. The following charts report the developments over time for the high return rates as this group creates more intelligible results.

In the 2010 period, “greek+crisis” and “bailout+greece” are the most frequently used query. “Bailout” usage in tweets peaks around April 23rd when Greek prime minister Papandreu formally requested an international bailout for Greece. In the following day, “greek+crisis” is used at its highest level, with nearly 125 occurrences on April 28th. However, the use of “greek+crisis” in tweets dropped dramatically for a short period of around 6 days, before it peaked again, however somewhat less pronounced. The drop in usage of “greek+crisis” was accompanied by an increase in usage of “greek+bailout”, which peaked around May 2nd before it subsided. On May 2nd, the agreement on the First bailout package was reached (Goncalves 2015). During this short phase, “greek+bailout” was the most prominently used word combination (from our sample). Only after “greek+crisis” became most frequently used words.

In the 2012 period, there was a discourse on the greek crisis weeks before the agreement. “greek+crisis” was used from the beginning of February until February 21st when the agreement between the Greek government and the Troika was reached (Economist 2015) constantly in between around 40 to 75 tweets. The usage of “greek+crisis”

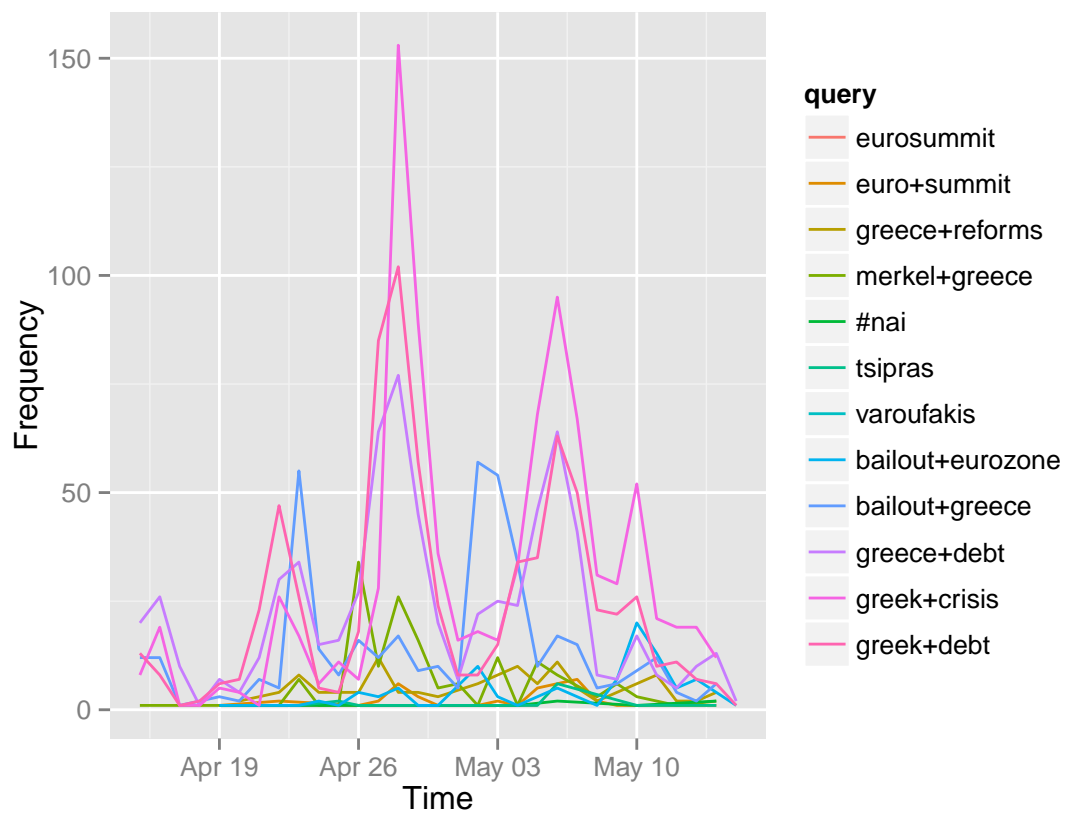


Figure 8: Most common search queries, 2010

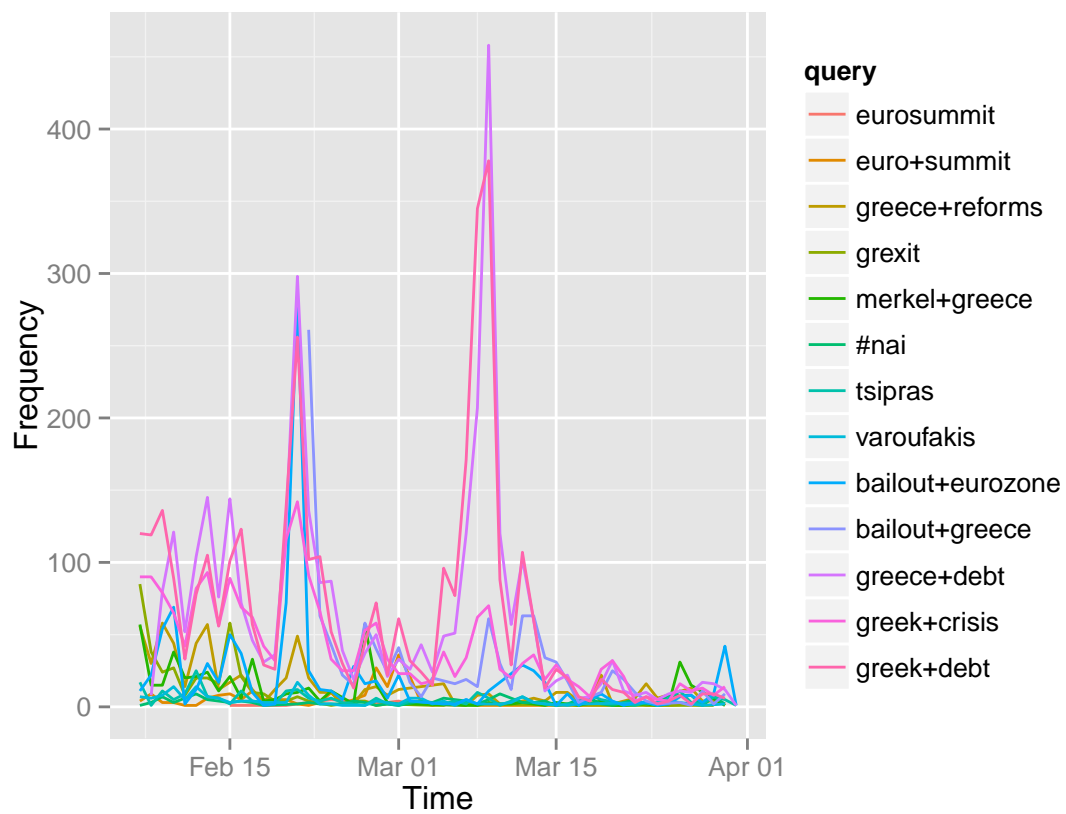


Figure 9: Most common search queries, 2012

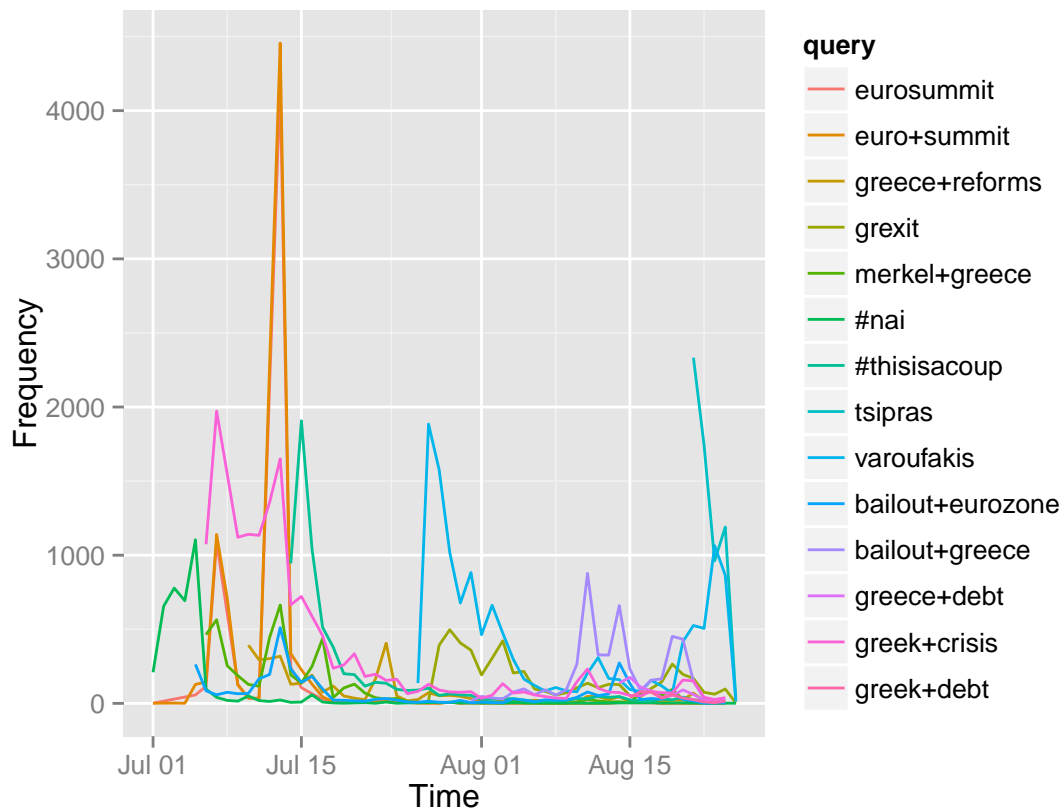


Figure 10: Most common search queries, 2015

peaked at the date when the agreement was reached (in contrast to 2010 when it dropped around this phase). However, just like in 2010, “bailout+greece” became the most frequently used phrase in all tweets (of our sample) at the time when agreement was reached. After that, twitter users tweeted less about “bailout+greece” and “greek+crisis”. However, it took nearly a month for those words being used only ten times a day. Notably, “grexit” which had not been used in 2010 was used frequently in the negotiation phase.

In the 2015 period, “greek crisis” was still amongst the most commonly used words in the corpus of tweets we collected. While at its highest peaks in 2010 and 2012 it was used around 120 times daily, we found around 1500 occurrences of “greek+crisis” in one day in the 2015 period. Equally popular were “#ThisIsACoup” and “Varoufakis”, and “Tsipras”. The most frequently used word in the 2015 period was “eurosummit” which was used a lot in the time running up to the summit and during the summit. During the summit, “greek+crisis” also peaked. In the aftermath of the announcement that an agreement had been reached, there is much less tweets. The Hashtag “This is a Coup” emerged on July 14th, peaked in July 15th - equally prominent as “greek+crisis”. “Varoufakis” becomes frequently used in tweets in late July, which may have been caused by the release of an interview with revelations about a previously secret “plan B”. (Kitsantonis 2015) “bailout+greece” peaked around the 14th of August, when the Greek parliament approved the third bailout package. Towards the end of the period, “varoufakis” and “tsipras” become frequently used. “varoufakis” has a second peak when he resigns (on August 20th).

Inferential Statistics: Sentiment Analysis

We summarised sentiment over time and across countries. Figures 11-13 show total sentiment scores (across all queries) and sentiment variance for all of the European countries in our dataset in each of the three time periods. We can visually identify variation in the overall score and in the variance between countries and across the three time periods.

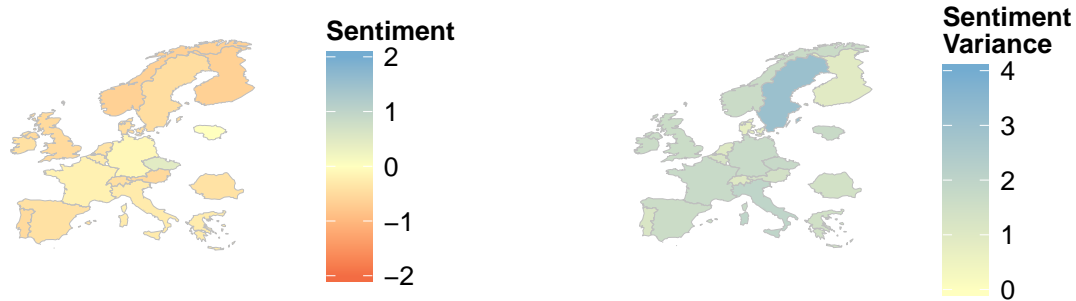


Figure 11: Sentiment scores and variance across all search queries (2010)

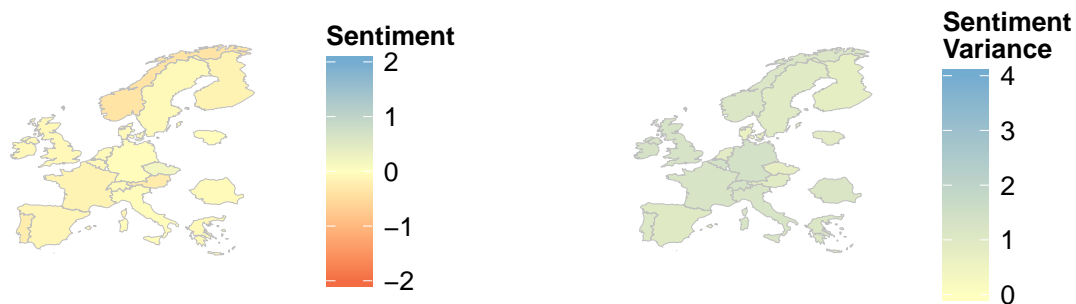


Figure 12: Sentiment scores and variance across all search queries (2012)

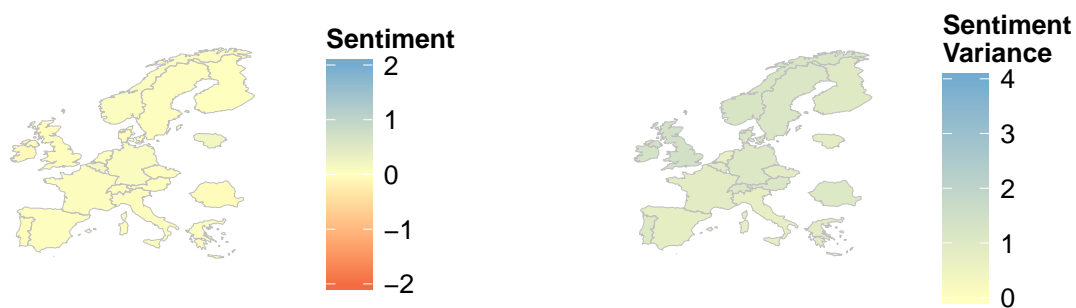


Figure 13: Sentiment scores and variance across all search queries (2015)

To test whether the spatio-temporal distribution of sentiment in tweets is significant, we regress sentiment score on country and time dummies.

An F-test on the joint significance of country and time finds that we can reject at the 1% significance level ($p = 0$) the null hypothesis that time-period and country have no effect on sentiment.

We focus our analysis in this paper on the whole corpus, though we also release our dataset aggregated at the country level in [interactive form](#), where users can investigate specific queries during any of the periods.

To focus our analysis, we zoom in to a single time period (2015), and to two countries where we expect sentiment to diverge: Greece and Germany. Figure 14 plots daily sentiment averages, surrounded by a band the width of

the square root of the variance. A first observation is that the paths of the lines are remarkably similar. Following on from this, we can see how sentiment in both countries reacts to actual political events. On the 13th of July, Greece and its creditors struck a deal to agree on terms for bailout funds in exchange for stringent cuts and reforms. (Haenska and Bauchowitz 2015) identify the emergence of the “#thisisacoup” hashtag on the 13th. We can observe a clear drop in sentiment over the next two days in both countries. On the 14th of August the Greek parliament approved the package of reforms that formed part of the bailout deal. This time we see a spike in sentiment, once again in both countries, but more pronounced in Germany. Indeed, where each countries lines diverge, it is most often Greece which displays less positive sentiment.

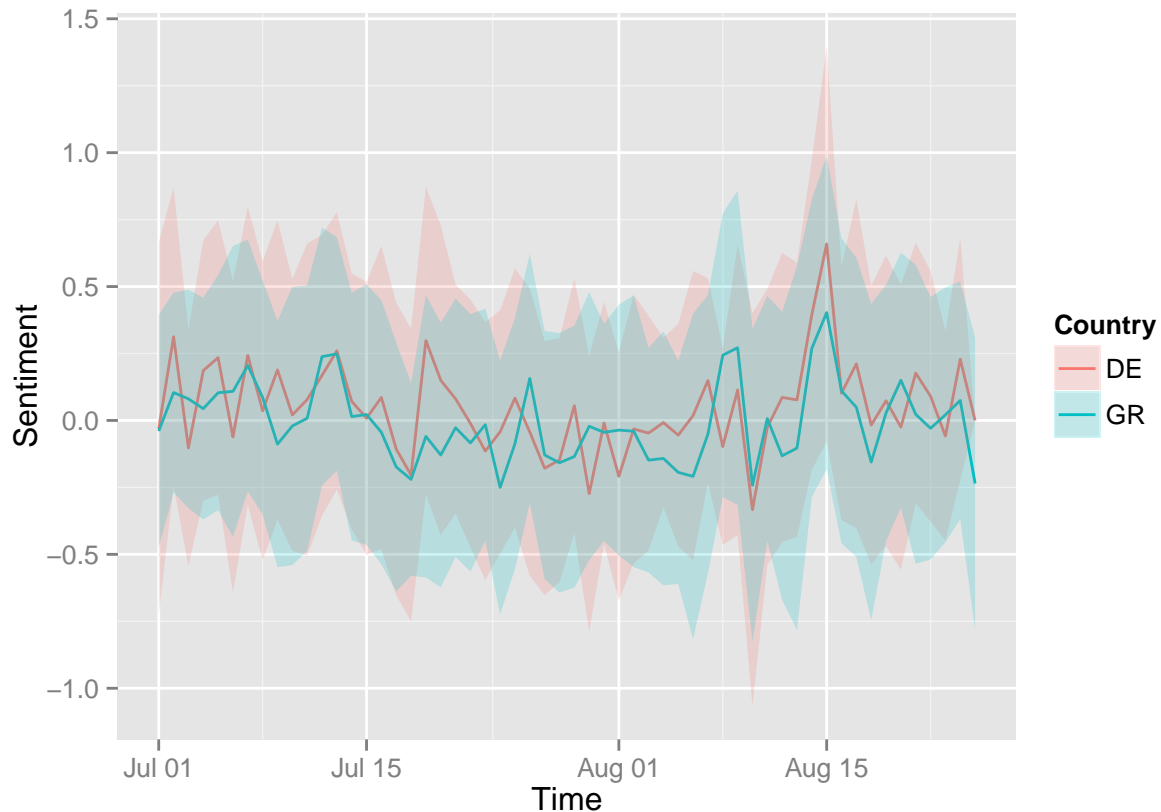


Figure 14: Sentiment scores (line) and variance (band) for all queries in 2015

We once again regress sentiment on country and time, this time limiting out results to 2015 period and the two countries here. In this case, the time variable is a dummy for each day. This is intended as a control to capture the effects of political events, but it is omitted from the table as its interpretation is not relevant. The highly significant negative coefficient for Greece confirms our impression from the graph that sentiment in our corpus over this period was lower in Greece.

Conclusion

With respect to the first part of our research question, we receive a clear indication that discussion over Twitter of the public debt crisis in Greece has increased over the three time-periods we looked at. This could be in part driven by our selection of queries, which, because the issues and personalities associated with the most recent period are more easily recalled, may be biased towards the most recent period. However, the magnitude of the difference in numbers in each period suggests that this can not be more than part of the explanation. Indeed, a quick look at the number of tweets for what would seem to be a time-agnostic query in figure 15, “greek+crisis”, still suggests an exponential increase in tweet numbers.

Table 2: The country effect on twitter sentiment (controlling for day) in Greece and Germany in 2015

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	
Tweet sentiment score	
Greece	−0.038*** (0.012)
Constant (Germany)	−0.010 (0.064)
Observations	31,893
R ²	0.020
Adjusted R ²	0.019
Residual Std. Error	0.983 (df = 31836)
F Statistic	11.808*** (df = 56; 31836)
<i>Note:</i> *p<0.1; **p<0.05; ***p<0.01	

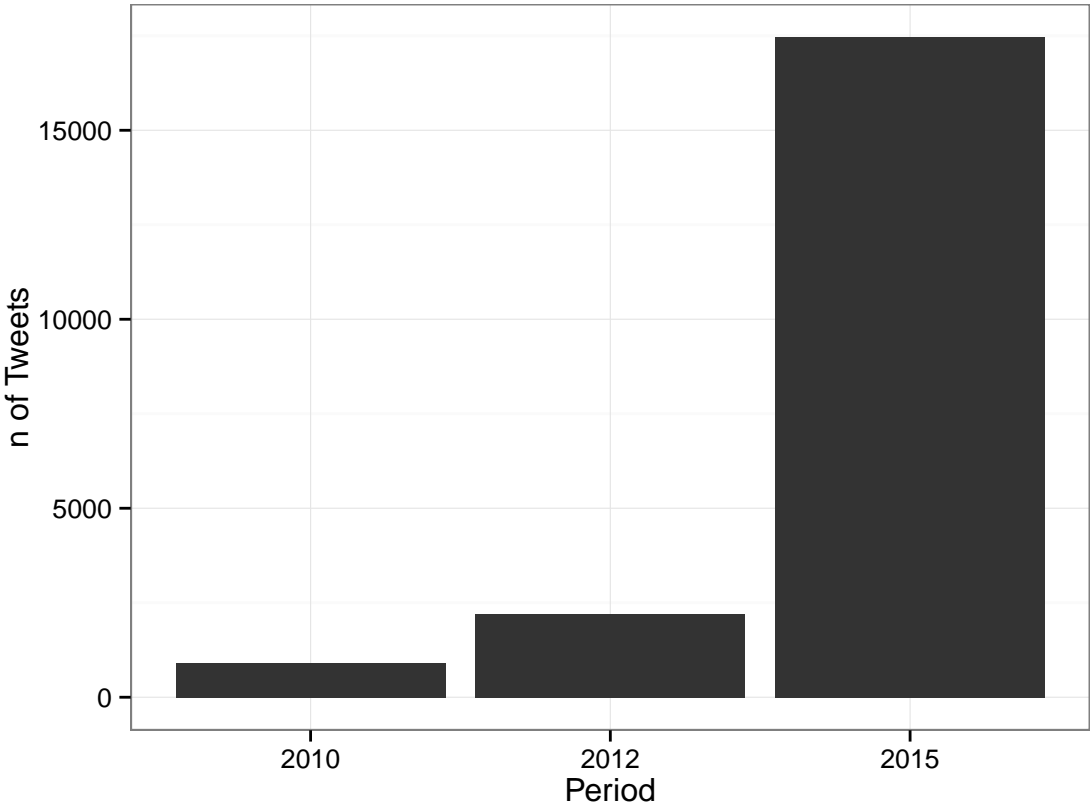


Figure 15: Tweets matching the query "greek+crisis" by year

Assuming that discussion of the Greek crisis in the twittersphere has increased dramatically, we cannot suggest that Europeans are talking about European issues more. What we can say is that Europeans are talking about European issues more on Twitter. That in itself is significant. When Europeans communicate via the Twittersphere, all of Europe can read that communication, and all of Europe can reply. The same machine-translation technology that allows us to analyse a multilingual corpus of tweets is also provided to twitter users when browsing Twitter. Twitter therefore clearly has the potential to enable a European public sphere. That more Europeans use are using Twitter to talk about political issues, and that, as (Haenska and Bauchowitz 2015) showed, tweets and replies are interconnected across countries can be seen as positive signs for the emergence of a European public sphere.

We also showed how the content of tweets can be machine-processed at scale (the number of tweets in our European database was 119821 and the corpus contained 9916744 characters). The results need further validation, and substantive interpretation is difficult, but we are able to detect significant variation in sentiment that makes intuitive sense. We were able, building on the work of (Haenska and Bauchowitz 2015) to show how sentiment, as well as volume, of tweets reacted to political events. We saw predictable differences in sentiment between countries. The possibilities of large-scale sentiment analysis of tweets are demonstrated. The methods developed in this paper could have significant and varied applications.

Limitations

Some limitations to our project should be noted.

Regarding our research design, one possible limitation is our case selection. We chose a case with a) high relevance to all European states which also, by definition, b) divides along national lines. By comparing Greece and Germany we did indeed find that twitter users in both countries react to the same real world events, but we also find, that there is a statistically significant difference in sentiment in between the countries. To which extent these results are only characteristic for our case or for the emergence of a common European public sphere, cannot be answered here. Drewski in his recent contribution notes that there is "some evidence that Europeans have reacted to the crisis not by banding together, but by rallying around national values and interests. For example, the German center-left was not ready to side with the Spanish center-left to fight the neoliberal response to the crisis. Instead, they preferred to stick to their German compatriots from the center-right in supporting austerity politics." He further assesses that "this is no good news for the idealists' vision of a European demos engendered by the Euro crisis. A post-national European democracy, giving voice to transnational political coalitions, is still far from becoming reality." (Drewski, Gerhards, and others 2015)

Regarding data processing, the limitations should be mentioned. Location plays a crucial role in our research design. For most of the location data we relied on the location provided by the user themselves. As mentioned earlier, Devin Gaffney already pointed out methodological problems with using the given location of twitter users - "in many cases user-entered profile locations differ from the physical locations users are actually Tweeting from" (Graham, Hale, and Gaffney, Devin 2014, 1). Additionally, we did not translate all tweets (namely, we did not translate Danish and Romanian tweets). This was because the error rate when identifying tweets written in those languages was very high. Hence, the results for those countries should be read carefully, as they mirror sentiment in those tweets written in English.

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