

# Project #15: Twitter hate speech detection 2

Janne Eskola

Teemu Ikävalko

Toni Kuosmanen

Tapio Kursula

janne.eskola@student.oulu.fi Teemu.Ikavalko@student.oulu.fi toni.kuosmanen@student.oulu.fi t.kursula@gmail.com

**Abstract**—We experimented with several possible methods for detecting hate speech on the Twitter platform. Approaches utilizing sentiment analysis did not perform as well as expected but we got better results using topic and named entity analysis. We also tested a possible metric for measuring the radicalization of a Twitter user but more effort needs to be made to validate the proposed metric.

**Index Terms**—natural language processing, sentiment analysis, hate speech

## I. INTRODUCTION

The Cambridge dictionary defines hate speech as: “*public speech that expresses hate or encourages violence towards a person or group based on something such as race, religion, sex, or sexual orientation*” [1]

In practice, defining clear boundaries between hate speech and normal expression can be hard. Legal definitions of hate speech vary by country with some countries setting much stricter definitions of hate speech. [2]

It could be argued that today, the largest platforms for public speech are provided by the social media companies, such as Facebook or Twitter. Both these companies forbid hate speech on their platforms [3], [4] but the sheer volume of posted content makes it hard to enforce these rules. The services rely on users reporting hateful content when it is found on the platform. Facebook has also utilized machine learning algorithms in detecting hate speech but the results have not been optimal. [5]

Hate speech can be spread by individuals or extremist groups seeking to advance their agendas. Hate speech is usually directed at minorities with the aim of demonizing and dehumanizing the targeted group. The effects of hate speech can be severe. For example, the UN fact finding mission sent to Myanmar, after the government crackdown on the Rohingya minority, found that hate speech spread on Facebook contributed significantly to sparking tensions in the region [6].

The goal of our project is to find efficient methods for identifying hate speech in online forums. Specifically, we will target the Twitter platform. We will use the Twitter search API to retrieve and then manually label a hate speech data set. By examining this data set, we aim to find a potential set of features that could be used to identify hate speech content. We will also profile individual posters who actively spread hate speech on Twitter.

## II. PROBLEM DESCRIPTION

Our investigation consists of two parts. In the first part we will collect a tweet data set by searching for tweets with specific hashtags. This data set will be manually labeled as either hate or non-hate speech. We will then characterize the tweets in both categories using following features:

- Sentiment analysis
- LIWC features
- Emoticon usage
- Named entity usage

For the second part we will identify three active twitter accounts that frequently post hate speech content. We will analyze the posting history of these users and calculate a proposed radicalization score for each user.

## III. DATA SETS

### A. Data set 1: Labeled hate speech

The first data set was collected using five specific hashtags, given to us in the assignment, that were likely targets for hate speech. The hashtags were the following:

- #bombing
- #extremist
- #islamophobia
- #radicalist
- #terrorist

The tweets were collected using the Twitter premium search API with 30 day history. Retweets and tweets not written in English were excluded from the search. Our goal was to retrieve at least 200 tweets per hashtag but we set the upper limit at 500. The tweets were saved as JSON files. After the tweets were retrieved through the API, they were labeled manually. The labels were appended to the original JSON schema so that all information could be preserved. A summary of the labeled data set is shown in table I.

TABLE I  
DATA SET 1 SUMMARY

Hashtag	Number of tweets		
	Non-hate speech	Hate speech	Total
#bombing	195	2	197
#extremist	368	6	374
#islamophobia	158	12	170
#radicalist	13	0	13
#terrorist	334	117	451
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>1068</b>	<b>137</b>	<b>1205</b>

As can be seen from the table, some topics yielded very few tweets we would label as hate speech while some of the hashtags, especially #radicalist, were barely used at all. We found the largest proportion of hate speech with the terrorist hashtag (Fig 1). The final data set contained a total of 1205 tweets out of which 137 were labeled as hate speech.

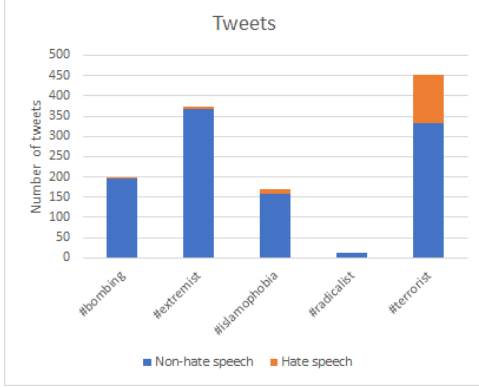


Fig. 1. Hate/non-hate tweets per each hashtag.

#### B. Data set 2: Active hate speakers

For the second data set, we looked for active twitter users who frequently posted hate speech content. The search was limited to English speaking users only. In the end, we chose three users who fit our criteria:

- User 1: An UK citizen and a blogger frequently posting hate speech targeted at Muslims.
- User 2: Active Finnish user frequently posting racist content.
- User 3: A former leader of an American white supremacist group.

After selecting the users, we used Twitters full archive API to retrieve thousand tweets from each user for the radicalization analysis.

### IV. METHODS

#### A. Sentiment analysis

For sentiment analysis we were tasked with plotting the percentage of polarity for both the annotated hate speech posts and non-hate speech posts and comparing results from two different sentiment analyzers. We chose Textblob [7] and VADER [8], [9] Python toolkits for performing the analysis. Both of these tools give sentiment score values between -1 and 1. We analyzed all tweets using both libraries and divided them in to three categories based on the sentiment scores:

- negative: [-1.000, -0.333[
- neutral: [-0.333, 0.333]
- positive ]0.333, 1.000]

URLs and user names were removed from the tweets before analysis. The resulting sentiment percentages are summarized in table II. Polarity percentages are also plotted in figures 2 and 3

TABLE II  
SENTIMENT ANALYSIS

Sentiment	Textblob		VADER	
	Hate	Non-hate	Hate	Non-hate
Positive	77%	78%	31%	44%
Neutral	12%	13%	31%	24%
Negative	11%	9%	37%	32%

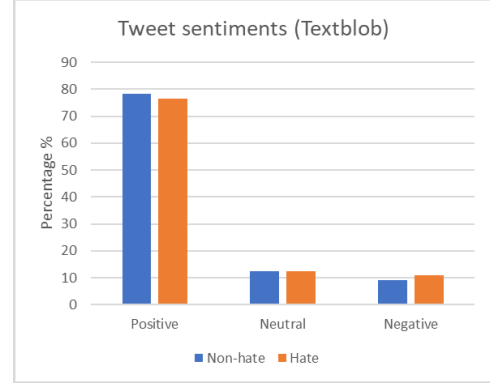


Fig. 2. Tweet sentiment percentages in hate and non-hate tweets (Textblob)

#### B. LIWC features

To identify common themes and topics in the labeled tweet data set, we used Empath, which is an open-source alternative to proprietary LIWC software [10]. The library offers tools that can extract themes and topics from a given text. The library comes with a default set of categories but new categories can be added by the users. Our analysis uses the default categories.

Before the analysis, we removed the URLs and user names from the tweets. After cleaning, we analyzed each tweet text individually using Empath and counted the frequency of extracted topics in both the hate and non-hate categories. These raw counts were then normalized by dividing them with the number of tweets in the category. The normalized scores for the twenty most common topics are presented in tables III and IV. Bar plots of the most common topics can also be found

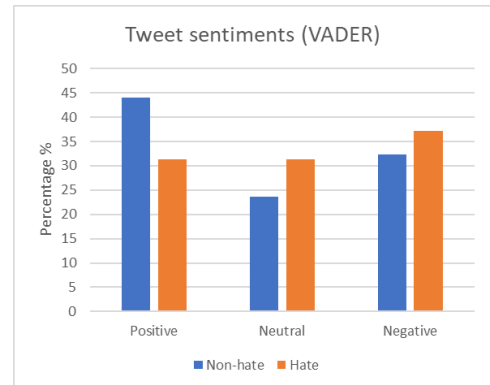


Fig. 3. Tweet sentiment percentages in hate and non-hate tweets (Vader)

in the appendix.

TABLE III  
TOP 20 MOST COMMON TOPICS IN NON-HATE TWEETS

Non-hate speech			
Topic	Score	Topic	Score
negative_emotion	0.1713	terrorism	0.0927
war	0.1573	weapon	0.089
fight	0.1311	positive_emotion	0.0871
speaking	0.1301	violence	0.0758
crime	0.1264	power	0.074
communication	0.1124	business	0.0712
government	0.1105	giving	0.0693
aggression	0.1105	hate	0.0684
kill	0.1067	law	0.0665
politics	0.0946	leader	0.0655

TABLE IV  
TOP 20 MOST COMMON TOPICS IN HATE SPEECH TWEETS

Hate speech			
Topic	Score	Topic	Score
negative_emotion	0.2847	crime	0.1168
hate	0.2701	appearance	0.1168
children	0.219	speaking	0.1095
family	0.2117	fight	0.1095
love	0.2044	government	0.1022
youth	0.1898	giving	0.0949
emotional	0.1752	disgust	0.0949
affection	0.1752	communication	0.0949
kill	0.1679	terrorism	0.0876
war	0.1168	leader	0.0876

### C. Emoticon usage

We investigated the usage of emoticons in hate and non-hate tweets by examining the types of emoticons used and their frequency. Using Emojis Python library [11], we listed all the distinct emoticons in every tweet. The hate speech tweets contained a total of 22 tweets which contained emoticons while the non-hate tweets contained 154. The percentage of tweets containing emojis was roughly the same in the two categories, 16 % and 14 % in hate and non-hate categories respectively.

The most frequent emoticons are listed in tables V and VI. Bar plots of the most common emoticons can also be found in the appendix.

The most common emoticons used in the hate speech, :joy: and :pout:, don't really stand out and are frequently used in non hate context, although both seem to be more common in our hate speech data set. Other emoticons in the hate speech tweets were occurred only once or twice.

The two most common emoticons in the non hate speech data set were :exit: and :bell:. It turns out both emoticons were frequently used by opponents of Jeremy Corbyn, who were active during the British general election that occurred

TABLE V  
TOP 20 MOST COMMON EMOTICONS IN NON-HATE SPEECH TWEETS

Non-hate speech			
Emoticon	Frequency [%]	Emoticon	Frequency [%]
:end:	5.43%	:pout:	0.47%
:bell:	5.43%	:muscle:	0.47%
:point_right:	2.81%	:heavy_minus_sign:	0.37%
:joy:	1.03%	:calling:	0.37%
:point_down:	0.66%	:warning:	0.28%
:wink:	0.56%	:sotwe:*	0.28%
:fire:	0.56%	:smirk:	0.28%
:us:	0.47%	:wave:	0.19%
:uk:	0.47%	:thumbsup:	0.19%
:rofl:	0.47%	:smile:	0.19%

\*:stuck\_out\_tongue\_winking\_eye:

TABLE VI  
TOP 20 MOST COMMON EMOTICONS IN HATE SPEECH TWEETS

Hate speech			
Emoticon	Frequency [%]	Emoticon	Frequency [%]
:joy:	5.11%	:stop_sign:	0.73%
:pout:	4.38%	:star_of_david:	0.73%
:uk:	1.46%	:sparkler:	0.73%
:thumbsup:	1.46%	:snake:	0.73%
:smirk:	1.46%	:skull_and_crossbones:	0.73%
:roll_eyes:	1.46%	:skull:	0.73%
:muscle:	1.46%	:point_up_2:	0.73%
:clap:	1.46%	:point_down:	0.73%
:blush:	1.46%	:pensive:	0.73%
:v:	0.73%	:menorah:	0.73%

in December 2019, at the same time we were collection our data sets.

### D. Named entities

We investigated the use of named entities and their frequency in tweets containing hate speech and not containing hate speech. The tweets were analyzed using spaCy natural language processing library for python. Using the default spacy model (en\_core\_web\_sm) for entity recognition, we identified the 20 most used named entities in both sets of tweets and their frequency based on the size of the tweet set (Tables VII and VIII). We also plotted graphs of these entities and their frequency. The graphs can be found in the appendix.

In tweets containing hate speech frequent named entities are closely related to UK and their current political situation. Jeremy Corbyn, his political party and his relations with Pakistan were mentioned in many of the hate speech tweets. The hate speech entity list also contains a high number of words closely associated with general hate speech, such as Nazi and Islamophobia. The same trend of named entities can be seen in the frequent entities used in tweets that did not contain hate speech. Many of the most frequent entities are

TABLE VII  
TOP 20 MOST COMMON NAMED ENTITIES IN HATE SPEECH TWEETS

Hate speech			
Entity	Freq. [%]	Entity	Freq. [%]
UK	0.2409	LabourParty	0.0511
Antisemitic	0.1168	Communist	0.0511
Socialist	0.0876	Terrorist	0.0438
2019	0.0803	Pakistan	0.0438
ChairmanCorbyn	0.073	Jews	0.0438
Nazis	0.0584	ComradeCorbyn	0.0438
Nazi	0.0584	NeverCorbyn	0.0292
JeremyCorbyn	0.0584	Labour	0.0292
Islamophobia	0.0584	ISIS	0.0292
London	0.0511	GeneralElection2019	0.0292

TABLE VIII  
TOP 20 MOST COMMON NAMED ENTITIES IN NON-HATE SPEECH TWEETS

Hate speech			
Entity	Freq. [%]	Entity	Freq. [%]
Islamophobia	0.1152	graffiti	0.0403
JeremyCorbyn	0.0627	EXTREMIST	0.0393
GeneralElection2019	0.0599	HINDU	0.0384
Communist	0.0599	NeverCorbyn	0.0365
India	0.059	Pakistan	0.029
Lies	0.0515	Labour	0.029
RSS	0.0468	US	0.0281
Twat	0.044	Muslims	0.0243
UK	0.0421	berlin	0.0234
BJP	0.0412	Muslim	0.0234

related to United Kingdom and Jeremy Corbyn. Other frequent topic that can be seen in this list is the conflict between Pakistan and India, with entities related to these countries and their major religions, Hinduism and Islam.

## V. RADICALIZATION OF ACTIVE HATE SPEAKERS

The second dataset consist of tweets from three user accounts on Twitter that are active hate-speech spreaders. Like in the first part, only English speaking users were examined. We aggregate a thousand tweets per user and give each user a radicalization score based on the characteristics of their tweets.

We extract the following features from their tweets per user:

- Average sentiment score percentile ( $AS$ )
- Volume of negative posts ( $VN$ )
- Severity of negative posts ( $SN$ )
- Duration of negative posts ( $DN$ )

We use the following formula to compute a radicalization score for each user

$$Radicalization\ score = (K/AS^3) \cdot (VN \cdot SN \cdot DN)$$

, where  $K = 1$

$AS$ : Sentiment is within the range  $[-1,1]$ , where  $-1$  is the most negative and  $1$  the most positive sentiment. This range must be normalized to  $[0,1]$  to be used as intended in the radicalization score formula.

$VN$ : The proportion of the posts that had a negative

sentiment.

$SN$ : The proportion of the posts that had a 'very negative' sentiment. If a posts standardized value is less than negative three, it was considered as 'very negative'. Standardized value is acquired for each sentiment value using the following formula;  $z = (X - \mu)/\sigma$ , where  $X$  is the value in question, and  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are the mean and the standard deviation of the dataset that the value belongs to. Standardized values have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. This means that a standardized value of 3, for example, is three standard deviations away from the mean to the positive side.

$DN$ : The duration, in number of days, between the oldest and newest tweet with a negative sentiment.

We used python's TextBlob for calculating the sentiments of each tweet and got the results shown in table IX.

## A. Results

TABLE IX  
RADICALIZATION SCORES

	User 1	User 2	User 3
AS	0.525	0.5016	0.5222
VN	0.218	0.22	0.279
SN	0.014	0.022	0.012
DN	77	503	246
RS	11	135	40

## VI. RESULTS

### A. Sentiment analysis

The sentiment percentages we obtained using Text blob were practically identical for both hate and non-hate tweets. Textblob found a vast majority of the tweets, 77 % and 78 % for hate and non-hate groups respectively, to be positive. Surprisingly, negative sentiment scores made up only about 10 % of the Textblob sentiments. These results show that Textblob sentiment scores are not a good way to distinguish between hate and non hate speech.

VADER analyzer performed slightly better in discriminating between the hate and non-hate tweet sentiments. Negative sentiments were most common in the hate speech and positive sentiments in the non-hate speech tweets (Fig 3). The sentiments were more evenly distributed so that all categories were within 20% of each other's values. Still, the difference between the hate and non-hate sentiments is not as great as we would have predicted.

### B. Empath topics

Considering the hashtags that were used to collect the tweets, it is not surprising that Empath found negative and violent topics present in both hate and non-hate categories. Still, there is a marked difference in the scores between the two categories. The topics in the non-hate speech category are more evenly distributed which is to be expected due to

the difference in sample size. Even taking this into account, the topic 'hate' is still much more pronounced in the hate speech data set. Surprisingly, themes like 'children', 'family', 'love', and 'youth' are also some of the most common topics in the hate speech category. The difference between the two categories suggest that Empath topics might be useful for identifying hate speech content.

### C. Emoticon usage

The most common emoticons found in the hate speech tweets are widely used and cannot be considered hateful without further context. Based on our data, emoticons with more specialized meanings are rarely used and seem poor candidates for indicators. Many of the hate tweets containing the emoticon :joy: were malicious and mocking. Detecting the misalignment between the nominal meaning of an emoticon and the actual tone of the message could potentially be an efficient indicator of hateful content.

### D. Named entities

The most frequently used named entities in tweets studied did not differ very much between normal tweets and hate tweets. Named entities found in the tweets used were mainly of two types. First type are named entities related to current events, mainly to Brexit that is currently ongoing in United Kingdom and Jeremy Corbyn. Some of this type of entities were in tweets that were related to the current situation between Pakistan and India.

The other type was named entities that are closely related to hate speech but not necessarily to major current events. Examples of such entities include Nazis, Islamophobia and Terrorist. This analysis shows that named entities are an effective way to find topics and events that generate hate speech content. However, differentiating between hate speech and not hate speech through this method is less effective since the data sets that this analysis produced are very similar.

The results also clearly show how strongly current events can affect the type and frequency of named entities. The December elections in United Kingdom left a clear mark in our data set. If the data was gathered now, we predict several of the named entities would not be present. The entities that attract the most hate speech are not stable but instead might shift rapidly.

### E. Radicalization scores

All of the users average sentiment percentiles were close to neutral - in fact, all of them were slightly or somewhat positive. Majority of the tweets were given a neutral sentiment, which gives the users overall a rather low radicalization score from the maximum, given the high impact that  $AS$  has to the formula. For example, if a theoretical users variables were as follows:  $AS = 0.2$ ,  $VN = 0.5$ ,  $SN = 0.25$ ,  $DN = 300$ , their radicalization score would be 4687.5, three orders of magnitude higher than the scores these users got. This neutrality is probably partly due to the sentiment analyzers sole focus on adjectives. The sentiment analyzer was unable

to analyze more complex patterns in the tweets. TextBlobs default sentiment analyzer uses the same implementation as the "patterns" library does, and it has a certain drawback: it only takes adjectives into account. This lead to most of the tweets sentiment scores to be zero.

We attempted to use another sentiment analyzer, one provided by vadersentiment, which was specifically designed to be used on social media, such as facebook or twitter. The analyzer, however, proved to be problematic. The variances of sentiments were too big when computing the  $SN$  to be in range of the sentiment, which is on the range  $[-1, 1]$ . The specification of the  $SN$  is the proportion of the values which have a standardized value smaller than -3, i.e, proportion of the values which are more than 3 standard deviations away from the mean to the negative side. The variances of the sentiments were so large, that a value so far from the mean would be out of range of the sentiment value for all of the users. This resulted in  $SN$  being zero, which in turn resulted for the radicalization score being zero for all of the users. Although the vadersentiment gave better results in the sense that it had less tweets with a neutral sentiment value, due to this property of the  $SN$ , it's usage had to be discontinued.

## VII. CONCLUSIONS

We experimented with several different methods in order to find features for identifying hate speech. The approaches employing sentiment analysis did not work as well as we predicted in distinguishing between normal speech and hate speech. Other methods of sentiment analysis might prove more effective.

The Empath topics showed a clear distinction between the hate and non-hate data sets. Feature vector constructed from the topics most common to hate speech could be employed for training a model to recognize hate speech. Named entities could also be used though training the model might be harder since trending entities are so time dependent. Emoticon usage, if evaluated purely as the types of emoticons used, did not seem particularly effective in distinguishing hate speech. Combining emoticon analysis with other methods might provide better results.

It is hard to gauge how well the calculated radicalization scores reflects the actual radicalization of the subjects. Further more our analysis might have suffered from the poor performance of the Textblob sentiment analysis. More effort should be spent in the future in order to validate the metric. Alternative tools for sentiment analysis should also be considered.

### SOURCE CODE

Full source code of our project, including the data sets, can be found at:

<https://github.com/tokuosma/NLP2019>

Interactive calculation of the results can be performed in the Jupyter notebook also included in the repository.

## REFERENCES

- [1] (2020) Cambridge dictionary. [Online]. Available: <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/us/dictionary/english/hate-speech>
- [2] (2020) Hate speech. Wikipedia. [Online]. Available: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hate\\_speech](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hate_speech)
- [3] (2020) Hateful conduct policy. Twitter. [Online]. Available: <https://help.twitter.com/en/rules-and-policies/hateful-conduct-policy>
- [4] (2020) Facebook community standards. Facebook. [Online]. Available: [https://www.facebook.com/communitystandards/hate\\_speech](https://www.facebook.com/communitystandards/hate_speech)
- [5] B. Perrigo. (2019, nov) Facebook says it's removing more hate speech than ever before. but there's a catch. [Online]. Available: <https://time.com/5739688/facebook-hate-speech-languages/>
- [6] (2018) U.n. investigators cite facebook role in myanmar crisis. Reuters. [Online]. Available: <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-myanmar-rohingya-facebook/u-n-investigators-cite-facebook-role-in-myanmar-crisis-idUSKCN1GO2PN>
- [7] Textblob library. [Online]. Available: <https://textblob.readthedocs.io/en/dev/>
- [8] C. J. Hutto and E. Gilbert, "Vader: A parsimonious rule-based model for sentiment analysis of social media text," in *Eighth international AAAI conference on weblogs and social media*, 2014.
- [9] Vader library. [Online]. Available: <https://github.com/cjhutto/vaderSentiment>
- [10] E. Fast, B. Chen, and M. S. Bernstein, "Empath: Understanding topic signals in large-scale text," in *Proceedings of the 2016 CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems*. ACM, 2016, pp. 4647–4657.
- [11] A. Vicenzi. Emojis. [Online]. Available: <https://github.com/alexandrevicenzi/emojis>

## APPENDIX

- Figure 4 : Empath categories in the hate speech and non-hate speech tweets
- Figure 5 : Emoticon usage in the hate speech and non-hate speech tweets
- Figure 6 : Named entities in hate speech tweets
- Figure 7 : Named entities in non-hate speech tweets

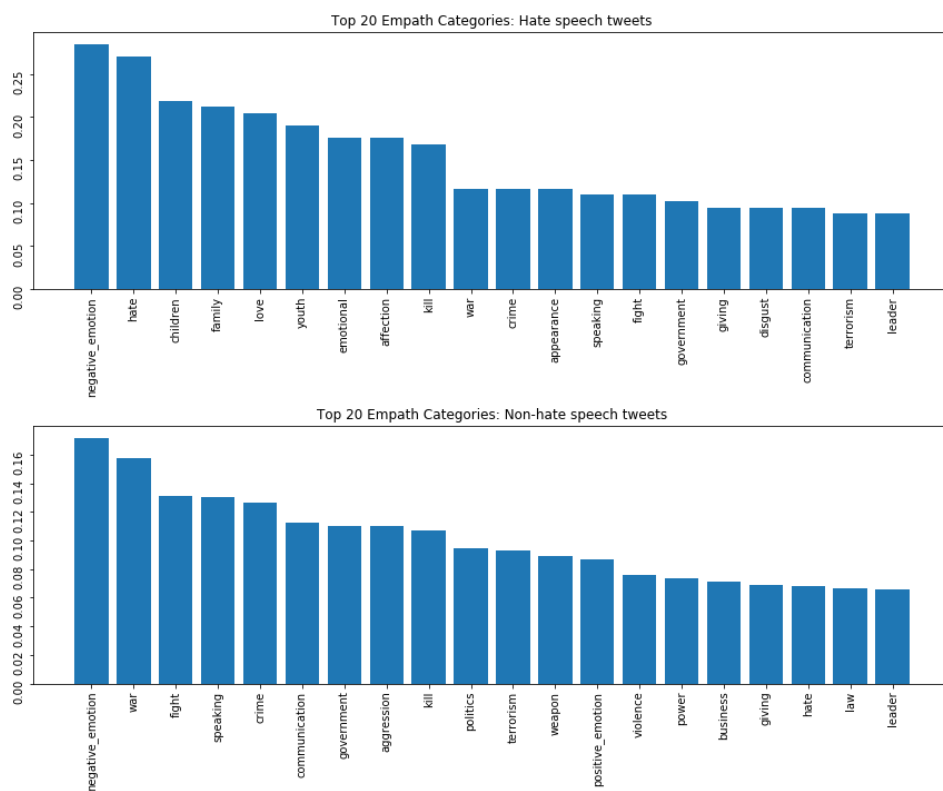


Fig. 4. Empath categories in the hate speech and non-hate speech tweets.

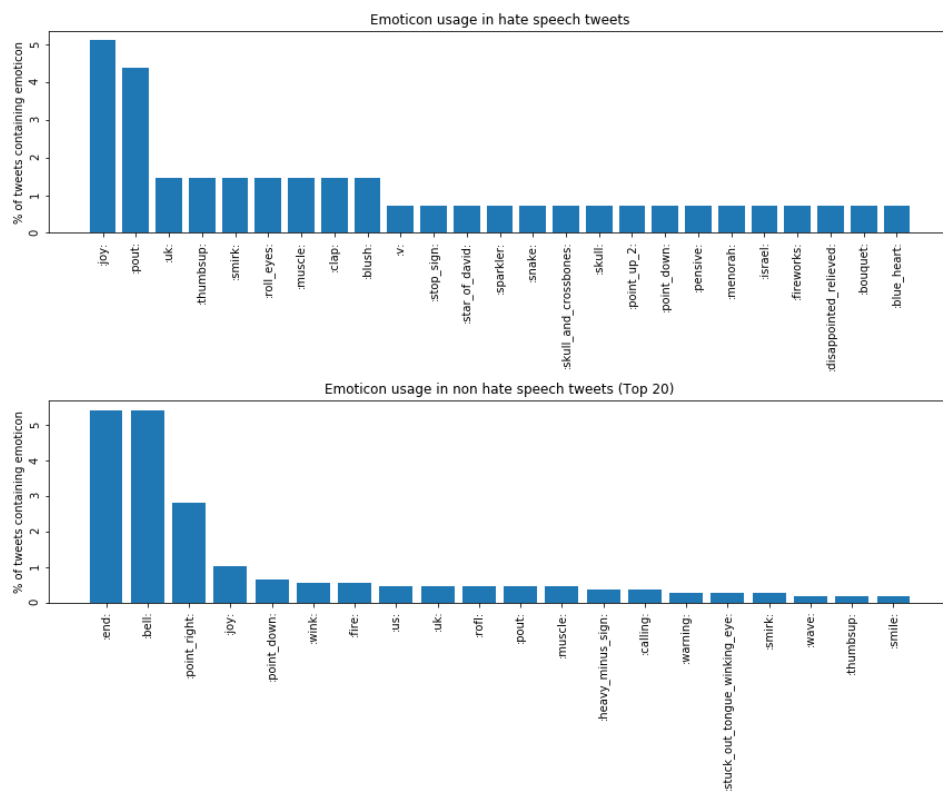


Fig. 5. Emoticon usage in the hate speech and non-hate speech tweets.

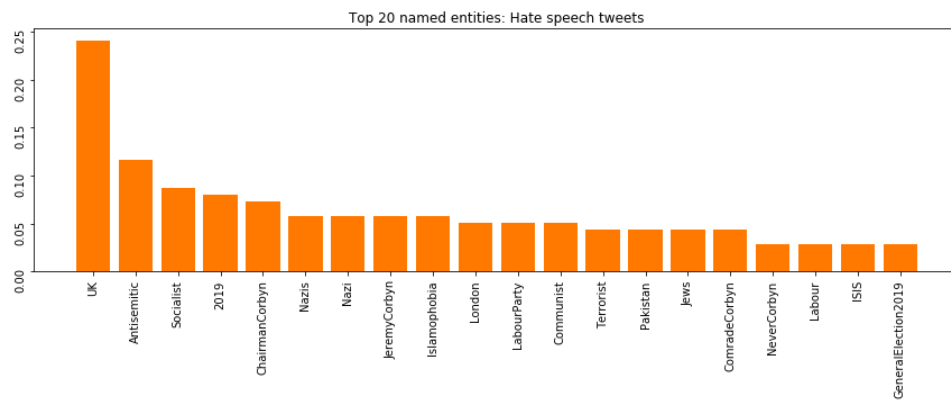


Fig. 6. Named entities in hate speech tweets

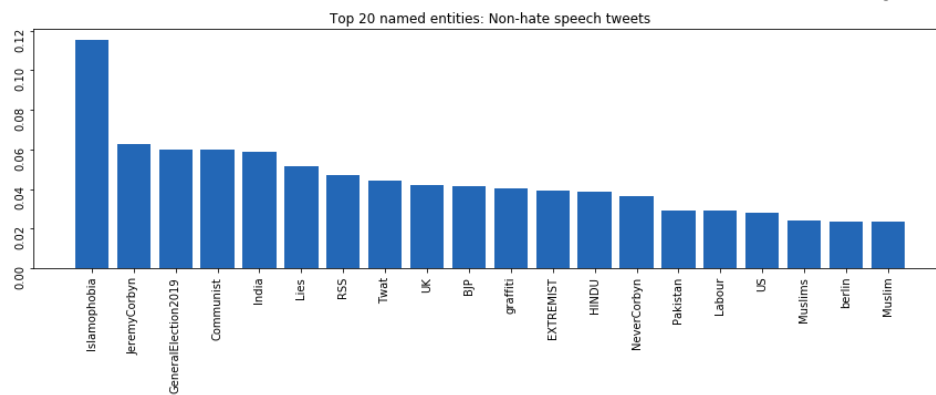


Fig. 7. Named entities in non-hate speech tweets