# Interactions of Language and Multilingual Communities on Twitter during the 2016 Eurovision Song Contest


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***Abstract*—Whilst emerging research is providing insight into the factors that promote the propagation of information in online social networks following significant events, such as high-profile international social events. This paper evaluates the extent to which different language communities engage and interact. We present our analysis of online interactions in various languages that took place on the social networking site Twitter during the Eurovision Song Contest in May 2016.**

**By utilising language information from user profiles (*N*=1,226,959) and status updates (*N*=7,926,746) relating to the Contest to identify and categorise communities, we are able to provide insight into the pattern of their interactions, as well as constructing their network graphs to shed light on these multilingual community. The results show that the nature of the event is reflected on the engagement degree and wider interaction of communities, as well as showing the participation pattern of multilingual users. This analysis of language communities may also help in deciding which group of users to engage with, and hence increase the chance of influential action when participating on Twitter conversations.**


## I. Introduction

### A. Online Social Networks

In recent years, online social networks (OSNs) have been utilised as means to express ideas and opinions, spread information about events, or even stimulate and propagate calls for civic engagement and societal action. Social networking sites such as Twitter, Facebook, LinkedIn and YouTube have also empowered individuals to promote their viewpoints and interests – professional or otherwise – to a broad and diverse global audience. The engagement of certain demographics with social networks offers the opportunity for researchers interested in observing and interpreting society to apply established theory and methods to an emerging digital culture.

To satisfy the demand for various types of communities, interactions and engagement, there are now vast numbers of social media sites and platforms[1], along with a number of attempted categorisations. By 2018, there will be an estimated 2.5 billion active social network users (up from 1.9 billion in 2014); they are producing massive amounts of data (volume) on a real-time basis (velocity) with implicit sociological attributes such as beliefs, opinions, sentiments, behaviours, structures and influences (variety) [1]. These data exhibit the key traits of what is now referred to as big data: volume, velocity and variety [2]. In this age of big data and an increasingly interconnected digital society, there is a new challenge – the application of robust and scalable methods and tools that can be applied to digitised social behaviour generated via social networks so as to be able to efficiently analyse big social data to provide insight into real-world events and actions [1], [3].

Recent work [4]–[8] has analysed what people say on social media to identify distinctive words, phrases, and topics as functions of known attributes of people such as gender, age, location, or psychological characteristics. This can thus be collated and aggregated, inferring gender, age, location and sentiments, from social media data. Potential negative implications of these approaches include the fact that they can be easily applied to large numbers of people or groups in society without obtaining their explicit consent or even being aware it is being done. Data-driven commercial companies, governmental entities, or even one's followers or friends are able to use software to infer personality and other attributes – such as sexual orientation or political affiliations – that an individual may have decided not to share [2], [9].

There are various projects that have used Twitter corpora and related datasets to make predictions about elections [10], stock markets [11], and crimes and policing [12], [13]. Twitter played an important role during what was then known as the "Arab Spring", which has been extensively examined in the social network analysis domain [14]–[18]. While the use of Twitter data has been demonstrated to provide insight – and sociologically relevant demographics [19] – into major social and physical events such as riots [20] and terror attacks [21], often all is not what it may seem; for instance, many tweets may not a crowd make [22].

[1]This list is by no means exhaustive: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Listofsocialnetworkingwebsites

### B. Languages and Communities

Despite the widespread engagement with Twitter globally, little research has investigated the differences amongst users of various languages; there is a tendency to assume that the behaviours of English users generalise to other language users [23]. Language has featured as a facet of research on the geographies of Twitter networks [24], especially whether offline geography still matter in online social networks [25]. Linguistic-inspired studies have been done on hashtags [26], as well as the volume and proportional of tweets in English and Arabic, as part of an analysis of the Arab Spring [18]. Nevertheless, language is clearly a vital component of affiliation and discourse on the web [27], with the creation and curation of emerging multilingual networks and communities, representing well-established creative and cultural norms, including for minority languages such as Welsh [28], as well as investigations into the economics of linguistic diversity [29].

### C. Social Network Analysis

In the social network analysis (SNA) domain, centrality measures provide the ability to assess network graphs that are constructed from collected data (for example, tweets). Selection of these centrality measures is dependent on the goal of the analysis; for example, the degree of node helps to identify nodes with high number of connections within the network [30]–[32]. In a representation of a real world network, this metric may help to identify highly connected persons, such as political leaders, sports stars or celebrities, who are potential "information spreaders" [33]–[35]. Centrality measures such as degrees, betweenness, clustering coefficient, modularity and cliques have been used in many projects to measure influence or detect the emergence of new communities [13], [36].

Clustering users in communities has been an important analytic factor in social networking analysis; numerous work has focused on clustering users based on their locations. However, for the sake of anonymity, many users tend not to disclose information about their identity, such as locations [37]. It has also been reported in the literature that geotagged tweets are generally low in number [38]–[40], the exponential growth in social media over the past decade has been joined by the rise of location as a central organising theme [22] of how users engage with online information services and, more importantly, with each other [41], [42].

### D. Users and Location

It is important to understand how geotagging works in Twitter. The 'place' entity included in a Twitter status does not necessarily indicate precisely where the actual posting was made, as stated in the Twitter API documentation[2]:

> "*Tweets associated with places are not necessarily issued from that location but could also potentially be about that location.*

For the sake of anonymity many users tend not to disclose information about their identity, particularly locations; this has also been supported by the literature that geotagged tweets are generally low in number [37]. An alternative location-based option to consider is based on profile location, but this may not serve the need for location clustering for a multitude of reasons, especially with a significant proportion of Twitter users not setting their profile location [43] (discussed in more detail in Section III-A).

[2]https://dev.twitter.com/overview/api/places

### E. Overview of Paper

The techniques we introduce in this paper are based on language settings in users' profiles and those for statuses[3]. The remainder of this paper is organised as follows: Section II introduces the context of the Eurovision Song Contest case study; in Section III we present the techniques we have used to identify and analyse language communities and networks, along with the main results. Finally, Section IV concludes the paper with a wider discussion and a summary of the potential application of our approach.

## II. Context and Events Timeline

The Eurovision Song Contest (*Concours Eurovision de la chanson*) – sometimes popularly called Eurovision – is the longest-running annual international TV song competition, held, primarily, among the member countries of the European Broadcasting Union since 1956. Each participating country submits an original song to be performed on live television and radio and then casts votes for the other countries' songs to determine the most popular song in the competition. The contest has been broadcast every year for sixty years, and is one of the longest-running television programmes in the world. It is also one of the most watched non-sporting events in the world, with audience figures varying in recent years from 100 million to 600 million globally[4]. The emergence of social networking in recent years has dramatically changed the range and scope of audience interaction and engagement, particularly for different language communities.

The 2016 Eurovision Song Contest[5] took place in May in Stockholm, Sweden. There were 32 countries taking part, with two semi-finals taking place on 12 and 14 May. 26 countries qualified for the final on 16 May. This years contest was perceived by many commentators to be tense and politically motivated, especially with Ukraine eventually winning the final [44]. Varying analyses see the contest as being influenced by political conflicts, friendships or cultural bias [45]–[48], with a range of news articles explicitly discussing the possibly biased results [49]. Twitter activity was very high throughout the event on the main `#Eurovision` hashtag. The participation exceeded 7,900,000 statuses, produced by 1,226,959 users; Figure 1 shows the overall Twitter activity.

[3]The term 'status' is a generic term used to refer to any Twitter post (tweet, retweet, reply, or quote).

[4]https://www.eurovision.tv

[5]https://www.eurovision.tv/page/stockholm-2016/all-participants

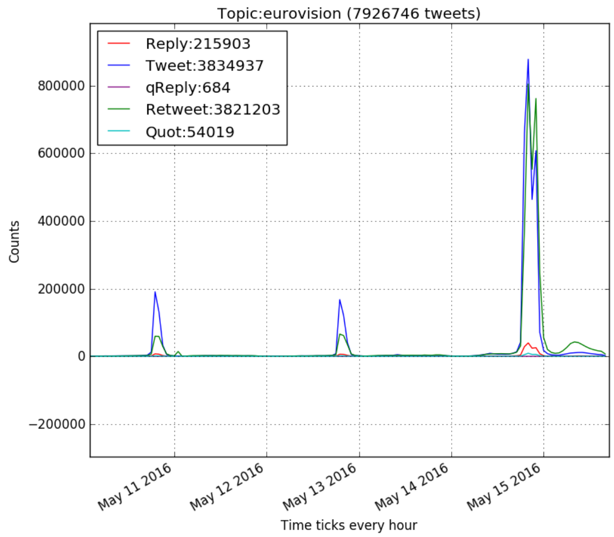


Figure 1. Overall activity for `#Eurovision`.

## III. Language Communities

Preliminary analysis shows that tweets and retweets together account for c.97% from the total activity, as shown in Figure 1. These two subsets can be representative on their own, without the need to include other interaction sets, such as replies and quoted tweets. It is important to note that tweets and retweets are used to measure actions, and reactions, respectively. However, our analysis will be focusing on original tweets only and the usage of different languages in this set.

Analysis of language communities begins with two basic techniques. The first is to classify statuses based on their languages. The status language is extracted from the '*lang*' entity inside status objects. Language used in posting defines which community the status was meant for; a tweet written in Turkish, for example, is generally meant for the Turkish-speaking community. Output from this will be referred to as 'posting communities'. The second approach is to classify users into different communities based on their profile languages, regardless of the posting language they used. Output from this technique will be referred to as 'profile communities'. As we will see in the following sections, a posting community does not necessarily indicate the profile community for a user.

### *A. Locations*

As mentioned in Section I, for the sake of anonymity many users tend not to disclose information about their identity, particularly locations; this has also been supported by the literature that geotagged tweets are generally low in number [37]. We took the step to verify this claim in our datasets; in the best cases, the ratio of geotagged tweets did not exceed 2%. An alternative location-based option to consider is based on profile location, but it still does not serve the need for location clustering for a multitude of reasons. Firstly, we found that less than 45% of users have set their profile location, which is in line with other studies [43]. Secondly, although Twitter suggests certain presets for setting profile location, users are given the option to enter any text they wish; this results in a considerable amount of noise.

### *B. Profile and Posting Communities*

In the `#Eurovision` case, there were 49 posting languages. Table I shows the top posting languages accounted for 90% of original posts (tweets), out of 3,834,937. As might be expected, the English was the most used posting language. Interestingly, the results show that the language of 142,721 (3.72%) statuses could not be identified. When investigated further, c.40% of these statuses did not contain much text other than hashtags, user mentions or URLs. Although this category shows an interesting case in which qualitative content analysis could be involved, it is beyond the scope of this study and will not be addressed here.

| **Language** | **%** |
|---|---|
| *en* | 45.90 |
| *es* | 17.24 |
| *ru* | 8.99 |
| *fr* | 6.20 |
| *und* | 3.72 |
| *nl* | 3.71 |
| *de* | 3.19 |
| *it* | 2.85 |

Table I
MOST ACTIVE PROFILE LANGUAGE COMMUNITIES, ACCOUNTING FOR 90% OF ORIGINAL TWEETS

In total, 1,226,959 users interacted with the `#Eurovision` hashtag. In terms of their profile languages, they formed 50 communities. Table II shows the profile communities from the top 90% of all users. Unlike status language, profile language relies on the user to pick a language for their Twitter profile settings. In general, the default value of this option is the initial placeholder text "*Select Language...*" or a translated version that might provide hints regarding the user language community. In our dataset, we found that all users had selected a language and no users with the default value.

| **Community** | **%** |
|---|---|
| *en* | 47.06 |
| *es* | 20.37 |
| *fr* | 8.00 |
| *ru* | 7.07 |
| *de* | 3.539 |
| *nl* | 3.31 |
| *it* | 2.25 |

Table II
PROFILE COMMUNITIES, FOR TOP 90% OF USERS

### *C. Profile-Posting Analysis*

From the previous two tables, we can see some similarities between the posting and profile communities. Taking an exceptional case as an example, we can see that although the French profile community had more presence, the Russian posting community is larger by 2.79%. A simple explanation would be that the Russian profile community was relatively more active than French due to the focus on related countries; another reason could be the participation of non-Russian profiles using the Russian language for posting. To investigate this, we investigated the contribution of profile communities to the Russian posting community. The result in Table III shows profile communities that resulted in more than 95% of activity in this posting community.

| Community | % |
|---|---|
| *ru* | 91.25 |
| *en* | 7.26 |

Table III
ACTIVE PROFILE COMMUNITIES WITHIN THE RUSSIAN POSTING COMMUNITY

As we can see in this example, posts in Russian were not merely appearing from the Russian profile community. This show one way of exploring relationships between profile and posting communities, especially if we are interested in particular communities.

Another approach is to explore the posting behaviour of one particular community. When considering certain profile communities, there is a tendency to assume that communities only post in languages that are the same as their profile language. To examine this assumption, we investigated participation of '*en*' profiles, as they form nearly 50% of users. In total, there were 1,841,205 posts from this community, 81% of which were posted in '*en*', 15.4% in other languages, and 3.62% were not identified. Table IV lists the top 95% posting languages used by this profile community.

| Language | % |
|---|---|
| *en* | 80.99 |
| *und* | 3.62 |
| *es* | 2.69 |
| *nl* | 2.39 |
| *fr* | 1.39 |
| *ru* | 1.36 |
| *de* | 0.97 |
| *it* | 0.87 |
| *el* | 0.86 |

Table IV
TOP 95% OF PARTICIPATION LANGUAGES FROM '*en*' PROFILES

### D. Language Diversity

By observing the language diversity of profile communities, we aim to measure language diversity of the topic in general, as well as investigating which community plays a key role in bridging different profile communities. Diversity in this context means how many posting languages were used from each profile community, and to what extent they used their own language, as well as other languages. The general language diversity of the topic is c.17%, while 3.72% were not identified. All of the 50 profile communities used different languages in posting. Interestingly, 16 out of those communities did not use their own language, they were low in participation though. Moreover, in terms of using different languages, we found that 32 communities scored at least 50% out of their tweets. We noticed that posting from small profile communities may affect the overall language diversity of the topic. Referring to the top profile communities discussed in Section III-B, Table V shows their diversity by percentage. The Russian profile community is again an interesting case, as it scored the least diverse profile amongst all the 50 communities although it comes fourth in number of users.

| Language | % |
|---|---|
| *de* | 34.27 |
| *nl* | 32.78 |
| *it* | 18.49 |
| *fr* | 16.65 |
| *en* | 15.39 |
| *es* | 10.13 |
| *ru* | 7.93 |

Table V
DIVERSITY OF THE TOP PROFILE COMMUNITIES

### E. Multilingual Communities

In this section, we group users based on their relationship with posting communities, regardless of their profile language. For example, a user posting in both '*en*' and '*fr*' will be classified as bilingual, and so on. Based on this grouping technique, with the '*und*' lang category eliminated, we identified 20 sets. The smallest two groups consist of one user each, who posted in 22 and 25 different languages. As we can see in Figure 2, monolingual users scored about 85% of all users, creating 47% of the total original posts. The also shows that users and their activity decrease as number of languages used increase.

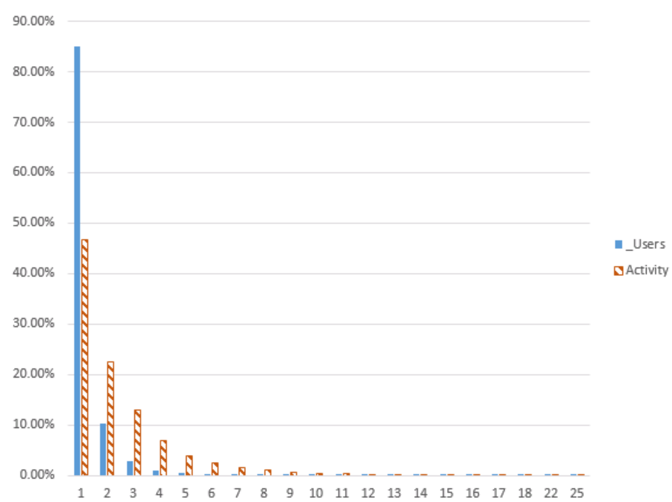


Figure 2. Multilingual communities and their associated activities.

A closer look at the behavior of these communities shows that, in general, activity per user increases as number of used languages increase, as shown in Figure 3. Although we cannot conclude that there is a correlation between high multilingualism and illegitimacy of accounts, this would be an interesting further topic to investigate.

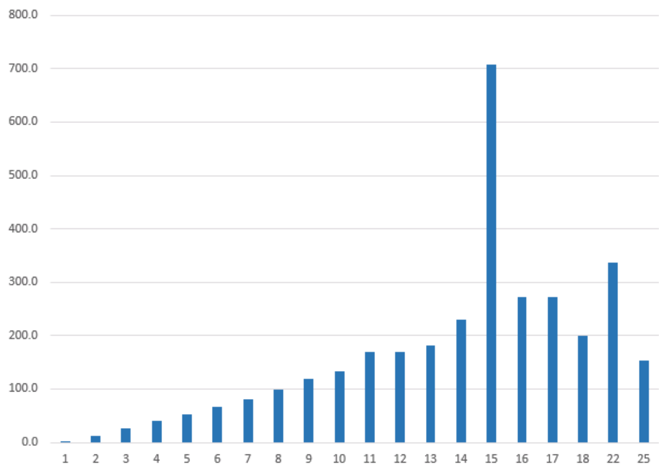


Figure 3. Average number of posts per user for multilingual communities.

## IV. Conclusions

This paper presented a study in identifying languages used, language and multilingual communities, and their engagement and interactions on the Twitter platform with respect to real world events, in this instance using the Eurovision Song Contest in May 2016. As we discussed in Section III, there is a positive relationship between size of profile and posting communities. We have also showed that a large number in participating profile community does not necessarily imply high language diversity, and that diversity may results from small profile community.

We also presented the structure of multilingual communities and their activity. Although most users may use their own profile language in posting, most of the activity came from multilingual users. In a few cases, users may use a significant number of languages, up to 25 different languages. These extreme cases may be interesting to investigate for possible spammer/false account detection or for sociolinguistics in more moderate cases.

The method we presented here can be used in identifying how communities interact with one another, which ones are most active, which languages are mostly used, and at what time. Moreover, within certain contexts, the order of applying these two classifications (posting and profile) will generate results in different perspectives. For example, taking one profile community and dividing it into different posting communities shows the number of languages this community may use, and hence degree of openness and reachability. A possible scenario for governments, politicians or campaigners would be to use this method to measure to what extent other languages are used within a profile community. It may also show how users associate themselves with one community in their profile while using other languages. Monitoring unusual activity for secondary languages, in multilingual communities, may help to uncover important messages or opinions that could not be openly expressed, for a variety of reasons, to the rest of the profile community. Applying these techniques on data pouring from the Twitter Stream API[6] would be applicable to a wide number of domains. For example, these methods can be used in social network marketing and publicity to increase the probability of influential posts. In practice, for a given `#<Brand>`, by monitoring the activity of different language community, one can decide the time to post well-tailored tweets targeting certain communities.

For future work, we plan to have a deeper look at how multilingual communities participate and their reaction networks. We believe that differentiation between endorsements (e.g. retweets) and other reactions may provide further insight into the networks and communities. Furthermore, we will apply the methods presented in this paper on other high-profile event/discussion datasets in different domains or contexts, such as for sports and humanitarian/civil rights actions.

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