1	Identifying the Spread of COVID-19 Misinformation on Twitter: Network
2	Properties and Community Detection
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1 ABSTRACT

The spread of misinformation through social media during COVID-19 has created pandemic of information which is often called as "infodemic". The goal of this study is to understand how information is deviating and misinformation is spreading through social media during the COVID-19 pandemic, whereas defining the misinformation is crucial. Dynamics of information is captured by quantifying the network effects on such communication behavior and characterizing how information is exchanged among people who are socially connected online. Twitter data was collected using COVID-19 related keywords (corona, ncov and covid) and analyzed by complex networks (e.g., community detection algorithm), natural language processing techniques, and statistical modeling. A subgraph of Twitter users who follow each other is created to identify and track misinformation propagation. Findings of this study show that users with higher neighbor, more connection and closeness to other users in the network are likely to deviate from original information and users with higher degree and connection with influential users spread information quickly. Besides, users with similar sentiments tend to cluster in the same communities, whereas relatively negative communities are responsible for spread of misinformation. The proposed methodology for identifying misinformation will be useful to public health, transportation, and emergency management agencies for tailoring effective information dissemination policies for users, based on their social network characteristics, activities, and interactions. The proposed techniques, if combined, may also serve as an efficient misinformation detection tool for government agencies, enabling them to respond more quickly and confidently to provide correct information to their citizens.

42 Keywords: COVID-19, social media, Communication network, Information deviation,
43 Misinformation, AEP35

1 INTRODUCTION

COVID-19 has been rapidly spreading over the world since December 2019, and there is 3 an increasing amount of discussion about this in both online and traditional media. These 4 conversations about COVID-19 are disseminating through social media, specifically Twitter, i.e., 5 the themes of discussion, where the discussion is coming from, misinformation about the virus 6 7 shared, and how much of it is connected to Twitter users. Existing literature suggests that there is a meaningful spatiotemporal relationship between information flow through social media and new 8 cases of COVID-19. Besides, discussions about misinformation while connected to poor quality 9 information, their existence is found less influential than other disaster-specific subjects [1]. One 10 survey data (conducted on 21,000 individuals across the United States between Aug. 7 and 26, 11 2020) showed that 26% survey respondents were likely to believe a false claim about COVID-19. 12 This experiment also stated those who believe COVID-19-related misinformation are also less 13 14 likely to seek the COVID-19 vaccine as well as wearing mask [2].

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Online social media platforms, and specifically microblogging sites such as Twitter, has 16 recently overtaken traditional news broadcasting platforms [3, 4]. Social media is becoming a more 17 prevalent platform for information sharing [5, 6], especially in COVID-19 situation. It is 18 commonly noticed that news stories are first disseminated on Twitter, and then telecasted by the 19 electronic and print media. The validity of information (tweet) is a key issue in Twitter due to its 20 21 distributed structure and lack of fairness, as well as the compulsion of releasing a newsworthy topic early on Twitter. Due to this, information overload and spread of misinformation, rumor, 22 hoax is also increasing. Rumor is defined as any information spreading in the Twitter world that 23 24 contradicts information from a reliable source [7].

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26 Misinformation is also defined as an honest mistake, or the intentions are not to blatantly mislead people. For an example, advising other people to eat garlic or gargle with salt water as 27 protection against COVID-19 [8]. Besides, different emergency management and health care 28 29 organizations (FEMA, CDC, WHO) listed several myths spreading through social media. Such as, one myth is taking a hot bath both raises body temperature and prevents coronavirus infection. 30 But the fact is scientific evidence suggests that hot baths can minimally affect body temperature; 31 Temperatures needed to deactivate coronavirus are typically >56°C, which exceed safe bath 32 33 temperatures.

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The main goal of this study is to understand the misinformation propagation in social media through user's network. The objectives are to identify how information is deviating from the original content through social media, how misinformation dissemination is related to information deviation and what are the social network metrics which influence the users to change their perception in a timely manner (quickly or slowly). To achieve these objectives, following research questions are developed to answer through this study-

- What is the best way to identify the information deviation (change in sentiment, topic) in social media?
- 43 Are there significant temporal changes existing in deviated information?

- Do we observe misinformation from the information deviation?
- Does followers' network (1st degree, 2nd degree neighbor) of social media users influence the spread of misinformation?
- 3 4

2

5 This study uses twitter data during COVID-19 pandemic to understand the characteristics of misinformation propagation through different users. The spread of misinformation may also 6 7 depend on the social network criterions (retweet, follower etc.) [3, 9] which is also captured by implementing machine learning approach (community detection). This approach also identifies the 8 users who are responsible for the misinformation dissemination. The proposed methodology to 9 identify misinformation may help policy makers, emergency management and health care 10 organizations to develop effective information dissemination strategies to recover from similar 11 public health hazards. 12

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14 LITERATURE REVIEW

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16 Researchers have been studying the dissemination of incorrect information, or so-called fake news, for several years. Researchers define fake news as "completely manufactured and 17 typically biased content portrayed as factual." Understanding why people share disinformation and 18 how it spreads leads to recommended remedies, a goal that grows in importance as people spend 19 more time on social media platforms [10]. Findings suggest that false information propagates faster 20 than the authentic information [11]. Besides, the person who spread misinformation is most likely 21 distracted rather than biased and the people who perform more analytical thinking are more likely 22 to perceive truth [12]. Some false information disseminates from politicians which might assist 23 them to get more support from mass people [13]. 24

25

Civil rights groups have been warned of online surveillance of social media chatter by city 26 officers and police departments since 2016. Online chats are analyzed by services like Media 27 Sonar, Social Sentinel, and Geofeedia, which alert police and local leaders to what hundreds of 28 thousands of people are saying. According to law enforcement experts, an AI based tool called 29 Zencity can assist them in combating misinformation. It might be used for mass spying, according 30 to civil liberties organizations. Cities such as Phoenix, New Orleans, and Pittsburgh claim to use 31 the service to counteract misinformation and assess public opinion on issues such as social 32 distancing enforcement and traffic rules [14]. 33

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Bursztyn et al. explored the effects of news coverage of the novel coronavirus by the two 35 most widely viewed cable news shows (Hannity and Tucker Carlson Tonight, both on Fox News) 36 on viewers' behavior and downstream health outcomes. Authors found that greater exposure to 37 Hannity relative to Carlson is associated with a greater number of county-level cases and deaths 38 [15]. Zaman et al. developed a systematic study of the problem of finding the source of a rumor in 39 a network. Authors found surprising threshold phenomenon: on trees which grow faster than a 40 line, the estimator always has nontrivial detection probability. On trees that grow like a line, the 41 detection probability will go to zero as the network grows [16]. 42

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Kouzy et al. analyzed and rated individual tweets for authenticity against verified and peer-1 2 reviewed sources (CDC, WHO) to track misinformation. To compare keywords and hashtags, as well as to identify individual tweets and account attributes, descriptive statistics were used. 3 4 Informal individual/group accounts had a higher rate of misinformation. More disinformation was spread by tweets from unauthorized Twitter accounts. The lowest percentage of unverifiable 5 6 information was found in tweets from healthcare/public health accounts [17]. By learning to predict accuracy ratings in two credibility-focused Twitter datasets, a research provides a strategy 7 8 for automating fake news detection on Twitter. Models trained against crowdsourced workers surpassed models based on journalist ratings and models trained on a combined dataset of both 9 crowdsourcing workers and journalists, according to the study [18]. 10

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Another study presented an analysis of the impact of automated accounts, or bots, on 12 opinions in a social network. The opinions were modeled using a variant of the famous DeGroot 13 model, which connects opinions with network structure. Authors found a strong correlation 14 between opinions, based on the network model and tweets of Twitter users discussing the 2016 15 U.S. presidential election between Hillary Clinton and Donald Trump. The Clinton bots produced 16 almost twice as large a change as the Trump bots, despite being fewer in number [19]. Zaman et 17 al. mentioned that online social networks are often subject to influence campaigns by malicious 18 actors using automated accounts known as bots. Analysis of the behavior of bots in social networks 19 20 identified that they exhibit heterophily, meaning they interact with humans more than other bots. This property is used to develop a detection algorithm based on the Ising model from statistical 21 physics. The bots are identified by solving a minimum cut problem. The Ising model algorithm 22 can identify bots with higher accuracy while utilizing much less data than other state of the art 23 methods. Findings showed that a limited number of bots can cause significant shifts in the 24 population opinions [20]. 25

26

27 METHODOLOGY

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29 People are connected through online social media and interact with each other in many ways. These virtual connections create a complex network of users within social media platforms. 30 This phenomenon is depicted in Figure 1 where the connected people exchange information among 31 32 themselves and tend to create different groups with similar intention. Over the time, different types of information (positive/negative) begin to spread among the users and information turnover or 33 deviation start to take place. Some of the users tend to influence by others perspective and some 34 35 of them add new thoughts on existing information as well as some other remain inactive. These activities result in different groups of people who are bonded by trust and similarity in their 36 sentiments. Along with time, theses connections become more stronger as the clustered people 37 have similar types of opinion, eventually creates communities. These communities often represent 38 39 the people who believe and spread misinformation (hoax community) as well as the people who disseminate information based on facts (authentic community). Besides, there is another group of 40 people who do not express their thoughts and remain quiet (inactive community). 41 42

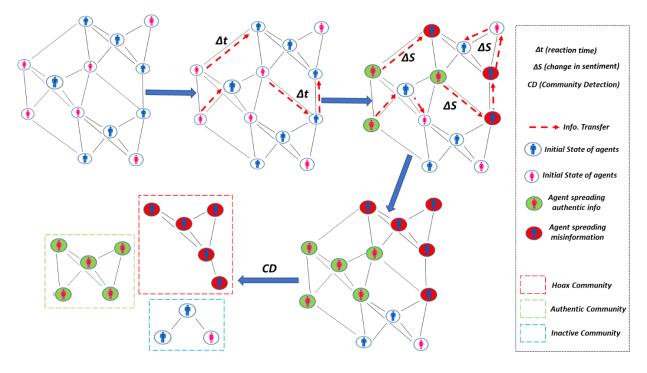


Figure 1. Conceptual framework for identifying misinformation on social media

DATA DESCRIPTION

In this study, social media data (Twitter) was collected by using streaming API which 7 fetched real time tweets from Twitter. The data was collected for one hour, on 5th May 2020 (as it 8 was during the 1st phase of lockdown and the number of cases and deaths due to COVID-19 were 9 also high), using different keywords related to the COVID-19 pandemic (covid, ncov, corona). To 10 understand how the spread of misinformation propagates through online social media platforms, a 11 sample dataset of Twitter consists of 5,376 tweets (number of users: 4,834; number of retweets 12 with quote: 1,371: number of original tweets: 424, number of retweets and replies: 3,581) are 13 analyzed. To capture the information deviation (change in sentiment and topic), retweets with 14 quote (reshared tweet with additional comments) are extracted from the sample dataset. Because 15 16 retweets with quote have additional comments from Twitter users along with the original tweet (the tweets being retweeted with quotes), which results in different sentiments and topics (as 17 compared to the original tweet). An example of original tweet and retweet with quote is given 18 below from the sample dataset used in this study-19

- 20 Original Tweet: We've learned so much during this #Coronavirus crisis; the power of community,
- 21 which really makes a difference in our life.
- 22 Retweet with quote: *Well said... But no animal age is globally sustainable...Have you read Dr.*
- 23 Sailesh Rao's whitepaper? (We've learned so much during this #Coronavirus crisis; the power of
- 24 *community, who really makes a difference in our life.)*
- After filtering the retweets with quote, the individual sentiment values of these as well as corresponding original tweets are computed using sentiment analyzer [21, 22] library in python.
- 27 Then the change in sentiment of these retweets with quotes and original tweets have identified.
- 28 The left side of the following Figure 2 is illustrating these steps sequentially.

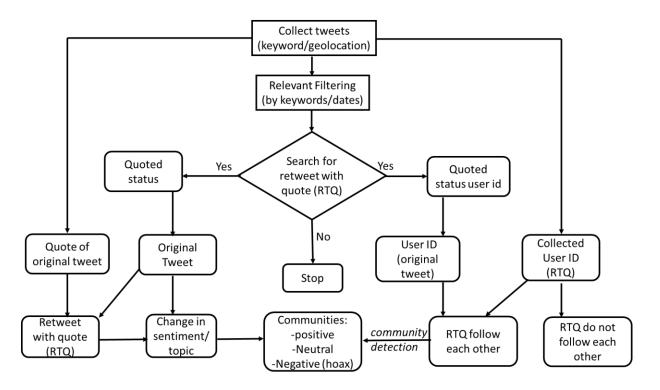


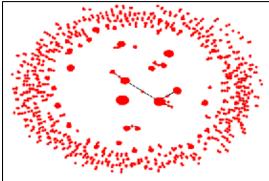
Figure 2. Flowchart of data analysis for identifying misinformation (hoax) on Twitter

Then, the Twitter users who reacted (by retweeting with quotes) to a same original tweet are identified which clustered in different tweet contagion. Community detection algorithm (based on modularity) is applied on these specific tweets contagion to identify different communities where Twitter users follow each other. Finally, observing the discussion topics of these small 8 9 communities and comparing with the original tweet content may lead to identify the misinformation. 10

11

12 **RESULTS**

At first the subset of retweets with quote from the sample dataset is extracted. From the 13 14 sample dataset of 5,376 tweets, 1,371 retweets with quote are found from 1,270 users. Then, a 15 followers' subgraph is created which consists of 1,694 users, where they are following each other 16 or not is checked.



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Figure 3. Network of Twitter users-followers who retweeted with quotes

Figure 3 is showing how these twitter users (who retweeted with quotes) are connected with the other users (who tweeted the original tweet) in a followers' network diagram. The people who generated the original tweets are found with more follower than the other users in the network which defines their influential characteristics. The graph properties of follower's subgraph who retweeted with quotes are listed as below:

6

7 Table 1 Graph Properties of user-follower network

Number of Nodes	1694 (1270 RTQ, 424 user of original tweet)
Number of Links	1293
Density	0.00045
Average in degree	0.7633
Average out degree	0.7633

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9 Statistical Analysis

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11 Then, to capture the network effects on information deviation (change in sentiment, Δ 12 sentiment) and contagion (how quickly information is changing, Δ time), different network metrics 13 (i.e., degree, centrality) are calculated for all the users (N=1,694) as listed below (Table 2). In 14 following Table 2, descriptive statistics of the undirected unweighted follower's graph (retweeted 15 with quotes) is summarized.

16

17 Table 2 Descriptive Statistics

Network Metrics	Ν	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Δ Sentiment	1694	-0.3182	0.8845	0.2093	0.3751
Δ time	1694	0	110.1437	1.6578	8.1343
degree	1694	1	144.0000	1.5300	5.1260
Indegree centrality	1694	0	0.0851	0.0005	0.0031
Outdegree centrality	1694	0	0.0018	0.0005	0.0003
Average neighbor degree	1694	1	144.0000	27.7644	44.8842
Degree centrality	1694	0.0006	0.0851	0.0009	0.0030
Closeness centrality	1694	0	0.0851	0.0105	0.0154
Betweenness centrality	1694	0	0.0136	0.0000	0.0005
Eigenvector centrality	1694	0	0.7072	0.0054	0.0237
Harmonicon centrality	1694	0	144.0000	19.1339	28.3631
Load centrality	1694	0	0.0136	0.0000	0.0005

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To identify the network metrics which influence information deviation, Tobit regression is applied as the change in sentiment values have a range from -2 to 2. From the analysis (Table 3) it is found that the users with higher closeness centrality are less likely to deviate from original information. Besides, users with higher average neighbor degree and harmonic centrality (more connection and closer to other nodes) are more likely to deviate from original information.

2 Number of obs. = 1694 LR $chi^2(3)$ = 25.33 $Prob > chi^2$ 0.0000 = Pseudo R² Log likelihood = -729.46641= 0.0171 Variables Coefficient Standard Error P > |t|[95% Conf. Interval] t

11.3735

0.0009

0.0052

22.0434

0.0110

-3.81

1.5

4.06

-0.86

20.44

0

0.134

0

0.388

0

-65.6299

-0.0004

0.0109

-62.2543

0.2031

-21.0146

0.0032

0.0311

24.2161

0.2463

Table 3 Tobit regression for information deviation (Δ Sentiment) 1

-43.3223

0.0014

0.0210

-19.0191

0.2247

3

Closeness centrality

Harmonic centrality

Load centrality

Constant

Average neighbor degree

4 To model the information contagion, Tobit regression is used again as some of the retweets 5 with quote (56) were generated after more than 15 days of the original tweet, which are not 6 considered for the analysis. Results (Table 4) showed that the users with higher degree and 7 eigenvector centrality (connection with influential nodes) are more likely to spread information 8 quickly. Besides, users with higher average neighbor degree and indegree centrality are less likely to spread information quickly. 9

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11 Table 4 Tobit regression for information contagion (Δ Time)

Number of obs.=1694LR $chi^2(3)$ =145.14Prob > chi^2 =0.0000Log likelihood=-4129.8156Pseudo R ² =0.0173								
Variables	Coefficient	Standard Error	t	P> t	[95% Conf. Interval]			
Degree	1.7248	0.1617	10.67	0	1.4076	2.0419		
Average neighbor degree	-0.0159	0.0021	-7.69	0	-0.0199	-0.0118		
Indegree centrality	-2938.299	269.8211	-10.89	0	-3467.5180	-2409.0800		
Eigenvector centrality	6.2513	4.2529	1.47	0.142	-2.0903	14.5929		
Constant	0.0115	0.1402	0.08	0.934	-0.2634	0.2864		

¹³

14 **Community Detection**

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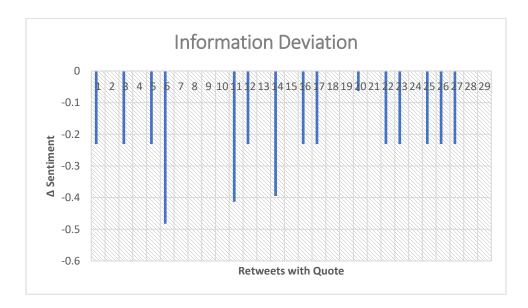
From the developed follower's subgraph, individual tweets' information deviation is 16 tracked by gathering retweets with quote for specific original tweets. One negative tweet was 17 tracked from a user where the tweet (*the experts in epidemiology repeated a vaccine* #*coronavirus* 18 may not be ready within 6 months) discussed about the uncertainty of the vaccine availability. 19 From the sample dataset, 29 retweets with quote are identified for this one tweet and the sentiment 20 value of the original tweet is computed as -0.296 (negative). The user has 616,700 followers and 21

1 follows only 892 people in Twitter. The information deviation (change in sentiment) for this tweet

2 by retweets with quote is shown below in Figure 4. The original negative tweet was retweeted

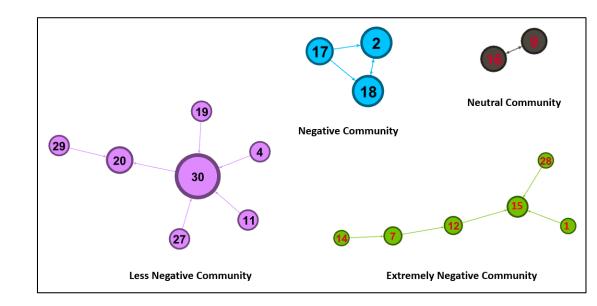
3 more negatively by most of the users as well as without changing the sentiment by some other

- 4 users.
- 5





8 **Figure 4.** Information deviation (change in sentiment) of retweets with quote of an original tweet 9



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Figure 5. Communities of Twitter users who retweeted a particular negative tweet with quotes

From these 29 users who retweeted with quote, a followers' network is extracted where the users follow each other or not is checked. Then, different communities are generated from this follower's network by applying community detection algorithm based on modularity [23] (showed in different colors in Figure 5). Four discrete communities (Figure 5) are found from this single contagion where the users follow each other within each community. The sentiment values of these

retweets with quote specified that most of the users of each community possesses either only 1 negative or positive sentiments. Hence, the communities are labelled as extremely negative, 2 3 negative, less negative, and neutral community. Then, the discussion topics from each community is observed and irrelevant discussion (in compared with the original tweet) patterns have found 4 from extremely negative and negative communities. For an example, users from extremely 5 negative communities were saying that the experts are not making enough effort to develop 6 vaccine, without any conclusive reference or statistics. This indicates that the extremely negative 7 and negative communities may possess the potential misinformation. These communities could be 8 labelled as hoax community as well. 9

10 Another positive tweets' information deviation is also analyzed in similar way to confirm 11 the phenomena described above. This original tweet ("*I will respectfully challenge the* 12 *Government - I want our country to succeed. However, I will not 'watch my tone'*) was 13 emphasizing on a debate between government official and healthcare worker about the pandemic 14 situation of a specific country affected by COVID-19 severely. The user had 187,300 followers 15 and followed only 7,130 people in Twitter. The sentiment of the original tweet is calculated as 16 0.7579 (highly positive) and 104 retweets with quote from followers are identified.

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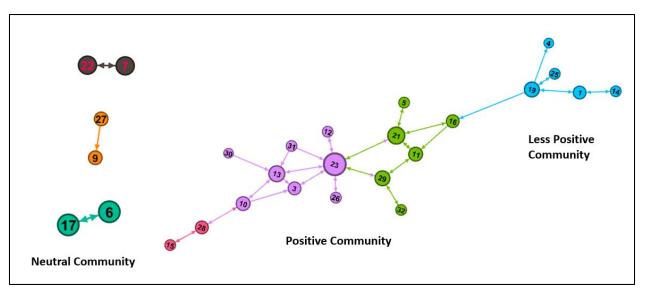




Figure 6. Communities of Twitter users who retweeted a particular positive tweet with quotes

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After applying community detection algorithm on the followers' network from 104 users who retweeted the original tweet with quotes, seven communities (Figure 6) are identified based on modularity values (depicted in different colors). Two connected communities (positive and less positive) and three discrete (neutral) communities are clustered based on their followers. The users from the less positive communities were discussing irrelevant topics (cases of COVID-19 of other countries were much more than their country) without any evidence. Hence, this less positive community could be labeled as hoax community.

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DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The spread of misinformation is becoming a major problem for mass people and different 3 agencies as both are being affected by its consequences. Small amount of misinformation can make 4 a significant impact on society as there is no universal understanding of misinformation yet. Along 5 with COVID-19 pandemic, this misinformation problem is creating an *Infodemic* which is much 6 7 more contagious than coronavirus and affecting the society severely. This study has developed a 8 new framework to quantify misinformation in social media by tracking the information deviation. This information deviation is captured by calculating the differences in sentiment values of tweets 9 and retweets with quote from Twitter users. Identifying tweet contagion from the follower's 10 subgraph of users lead the study to detect different communities. These communities are detected 11 based on their modularity values which assisted to differentiate the hoax communities from neutral 12 and reliable communities. Key findings of this study are listed as following-13

- Users with higher closeness centrality are less likely to deviate from original information.
 Users with higher average neighbor degree and harmonic centrality (more connected and
- 16 closer to other nodes) are more likely to deviate from original information.
- Users with higher degree and eigenvector centrality (connected with influential nodes) are
 more likely to spread information quickly.
- Users with higher average neighbor degree and indegree centrality are less likely to spread
 information quickly.
 - Users having similar sentiments in their opinion tend to cluster in same community, where relatively negative communities are responsible for spreading misinformation.
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The findings and proposed methodology of this study may help policy makers, public 24 health, transportation managers, and emergency organizations to better understand the propagation 25 of misinformation through social media as well as to develop effective strategy to deal with this. 26 27 Future studies may perform advanced machine learning techniques to learn the suspicious 28 information spreading behavior and predict misinformation ahead of time which will help policy makers and agencies to develop effective strategy to track, identify and predict misinformation. 29 An artificial intelligent (AI) based tool might be developed following the proposed framework to 30 combat with misinformation in social media. The limitation of the study is that the data used for 31 the analyses is relatively small as well as the streaming API used for the data collection could not 32 fetch all the tweets generated at that time. 33

34

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37 IIS-2027360. However, the authors are solely responsible for the findings presented in this study.

38 The analysis and results section are based on the limited Twitter dataset and authors' opinion and

- 39 cannot be expanded to other datasets without detailed implementation of proposed methods. Other
- 40 agencies and entities should explore these findings based on their application/objectives before
- 41 using these findings for any decision-making purpose. Any opinions, findings and conclusions or

1 recommendations expressed in this material are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect

- 2 the views of the National Science Foundation.
- 3

4 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

5 The authors confirm the contributions to the paper as follows: study conception and design: A. M.

- 6 Sadri; data collection: M. A. Ahmed, A. M. Sadri; analysis and interpretation of results: M. A.
- 7 Ahmed, A. M. Sadri; draft manuscript preparation: M. A. Ahmed, A. M. Sadri. All authors
- 8 reviewed the results and approved the final version of the manuscript.
- 9

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