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# Investigating the COVID-19 vaccine discussions on Twitter through a multilayer network-based approach

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## Abstract

Modeling discussions on social networks is a challenging task, especially if we consider sensitive topics, such as politics or healthcare. However, the knowledge hidden in these debates helps to investigate trends and opinions and to identify the cohesion of users when they deal with a specific topic. To this end, we propose a general multilayer network approach to investigate discussions on a social network. In order to prove the validity of our model, we apply it on a Twitter dataset containing tweets concerning opinions on COVID-19 vaccines. We extract a set of relevant hashtags (i.e., gold-standard hashtags) for each line of thought (i.e., pro-vaxxer, neutral, and anti-vaxxer). Then, thanks to our multilayer network model, we figure out that the anti-vaxxers tend to have ego networks denser (+14.39%) and more cohesive (+64.2%) than the ones of pro-vaxxer, which leads to a higher number of interactions among anti-vaxxers than pro-vaxxers (+393.89%). Finally, we report a comparison between our approach and one based on single networks analysis. We prove the effectiveness of our model to extract influencers having ego networks with more nodes (+40.46%), edges (+39.36%), and interactions with their neighbors (+28.56%) with respect to the other approach. As a result, these influential users are much more important to analyze and can provide more valuable information.

**Keywords:** Twitter, Multilayer network, Social Network Analysis, Hashtag

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## 1. Introduction

In recent years, with the growth of social networks, we have witnessed the birth of virtual public squares, where each person can express their thoughts to a considerable number of people. Due to the visibility given by the large  
5 number of users who populate these platforms, social networks have become a new communication channel. On social media, prominent personalities and newspapers can post news and updates from all over the world Cauteruccio et al. (2020); Willnat & Weaver (2018); Corradini et al. (2021).

Unfortunately, the improper use of social platforms can fuel the dissemination of inaccurate, sometimes fake news Campan et al. (2017). The heterogeneity  
10 of people surfing the socials (such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram Blanco & Lourenço (2022); Burel et al. (2021)), comprehend users without a sufficient level of awareness to distinguish news from reliable sources from misleading and distorted news Cerruto et al. (2022). The latter aims at generating dis-  
15 sent and continuous interactions between users, making these contents bounce from one profile to another, thus feeding a dense network of disinformation. An important example that provides an idea of the impact of disinformation on social media is related to the COVID-19 pandemic. In particular, debates and controversies have been continuously initiated on the main social networks,  
20 and mostly focused on the gravity of the pandemic and the usefulness of the prevention measures adopted Hung et al. (2020). Furthermore, the arrival of vaccines has provided new elements for discussion between people who support their importance and those who doubt both their effectiveness and safety. This debate became so heated that the users involved were divided into two cate-  
25 gories, namely pro-vaxxer and anti-vaxxer Furini (2021). In this scenario, the dissemination of incorrect and/or false news is seriously likely to distort the perception of the population on a critical topic, representing a serious threat to world health, and indirectly contributing to the worsening of conditions. There-

fore, it is essential to evaluate how the exchange of content on social networks  
30 impacts the conception of such situations, which is among the main goals of the  
social network analysis research field.

The peculiarity of social networks is the possibility to empower users to  
interact on multiple fronts. For instance, on social networks like Twitter, users  
may interact through likes, replies, retweets, and mentions, having as a common  
35 ground the tweets themselves and the corresponding topics. The information  
evaluated by considering the projection on different levels of interactions can  
open different new outcomes in the field of social network analysis, allowing us to  
consider such highly frequent “cross-relationships” too. For this reason, we define  
a generic multilayer network-based approach for user-topic analysis on social  
40 media. We exploit the flexibility of a multilayer network to map the common  
user interactions in a social network (e.g., like to a post, retweet, friendship, etc.)  
to a layer, along with a link connecting the same user over the different layers.  
Then, thanks to the extraction of gold-standard hashtags from posts, we create  
a topic layer, which allows us to project the multilayer network into a new one  
45 focused on a set of subjects. To demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed  
model, we apply it on a Twitter dataset called AvaxTweets dataset Muric et al.  
(2021), which contains tweets regarding pro-vax and anti-vax opinions. First, we  
report a thorough study of the single layers composing our multilayer network  
model, and make a comparison between a multilayer approach and a single  
50 network one, which proved the effectiveness of the former. Then, we project  
the multilayer network according to the pro-vax, neutral, and anti-vax gold-  
standard hashtags in order to study the characteristics of the most influential  
users for each line of thought. The main contributions of this paper are:

- The definition and formalization of a generic multilayer network model for  
55 representing social networks. The proposed solution empowers the topic  
analysis in social media and can be adapted to several domains, as discus-  
sion analysis, topic analysis, and information dissemination of users. We  
set up the first set of layers describing the type of users’ interactions and

a further layer relating users through the projection over a topic extracted  
60 from their posts.

- A comprehensive case study on peoples’ perception of COVID-19 vaccines through the analysis of a dataset of tweets, made possible through the application of our proposed approach. Results allowed us to deeply study the ego networks of three identified groups of users, namely pro-vaxxers,  
65 neutrals and anti-vaxxers.
- A comparison of the multilayer network approach highlights its superiority with respect to a single networks approach. In fact, the application of a multilayer network allowed us to extract influencers with more neighbors and interactions with their neighbors, which could bring more valuable  
70 information.

The outline of this paper is as follows: in Section 2, we present the Related Literature. In Section 3, we illustrate our multilayer network-based approach, define its specialization to the Twitter scenario, and introduce the concept of ego network suitable to our case. In Section 4, we report the employed dataset  
75 and extract the most relevant hashtags according to pro-vax, anti-vax, and neutral perspectives. In Section 5, we first analyze the single layers composing our multilayer network, and then highlight the differences in terms of knowledge extraction between the multilayer network and single networks approaches. In Section 6, we apply our multilayer network-based approach to study the most  
80 influential users for each topic category. In Section 7, we summarize the obtained results and discuss the advantages and limitations of our approach. Finally, in Section 8, we draw our conclusion and describe some possible future works.

## 2. Related Literature

In this section, we survey some major works related to our approach. In  
85 particular, we will first present works focusing on the impact of COVID-19 global pandemic through social network analysis. We will then present the related

literature employing multilayer networks for performing analysis on different domains.

### *2.1. Social Network Analysis on the COVID-19 pandemic*

90 Social networks play an important role in people’s lives, and their usage has increased since the COVID-19 pandemic. In fact, the goal of social networks has evolved, since people do not consider them as simple means of communication, but as real informational platforms used by transmissions of local and global entities Mourad et al. (2020). Recently, several studies have evaluated the im-  
95 pact of the pandemic on social network Kovacs et al. (2021), and e-commerce platforms Galhotra & Dewan (2020). For instance, Luo (2021) defines a new approach relying on Deep Recurrent Neural Network (DRNN) to predict on-line shopping behavior and improve e-business performance starting from the data collected during the COVID-19 pandemic. Another recent study has shown  
100 that pandemic fear slightly affects the effectiveness and credibility of e-commerce platforms Tran (2021). In fact, despite the economic growth of large companies, such as Amazon and eBay Pisal (2021), several new e-commerce platforms have been published, especially of small companies with the aim of increasing their economy Bhatti et al. (2020).

105 Even if the impact of COVID-19 on the economy represents one of the most discussed issues by citizens around the world, other critical problems have been widely debated on social network platforms, such as school closures Hung et al. (2020), climate Ward et al. (2020), and vaccines Latkin et al. (2021).

In Sharma et al. (2021), the authors present an anonymized dataset of tweets  
110 on vaccine disinformation, collected during the lockdown period in 2020 by means of the Twitter streaming APIs. In particular, the study shows a preliminary analysis of the tweet contents over time and provides descriptive statistics of some general characteristics of the corresponding accounts.

A recent study Vargas et al. (2021) explored how COVID-19 has affected  
115 people from a psychophysical point of view. The analysis of the tweet led the authors to affirm that vaccination played a fundamental role in reducing people’s

negativity by promoting their psychological well-being.

The authors of Feng & Zhou (2022) propose a geo-tagged Twitter dataset that can be exploited to perform fine-grained investigations of the public reaction to the COVID-19 pandemic. The analysis of this dataset allowed the  
120 authors to perform work (and study) engagement measurements between lockdown and re-open periods. To this end, they compared the volume of tweets posted on workdays and weekends and during specific hours of the day.

In Burel et al. (2021), the authors verify the relationship between the spread  
125 of misinformation and the work that the fact-checking organizations are carrying out to stop the proliferation of false claims about the COVID-19 pandemic. The work performed an analysis on 16,521 URLs divided, more or less evenly, between URLs containing misinformation and URLs aiming to do fact-checking. By following the spread of these URLs on Twitter posts, the authors were able to  
130 analyze their impact and how they were spread across the social. This analysis showed that, although fact-checking organizations have proved more effective than previous work by the same authors Burel et al. (2020), they are still unable to overcome the impact of the misinformation spread.

## *2.2. Studies employing multilayer networks*

135 The application of multilayer networks has been proved to be a valuable tool to represent users and their interactions in several domains.

In Türker & Sulak (2018), the authors carried out a study to evaluate the meaningfulness of hashtags within tweets and if the co-occurrence of multiple hashtags is actually linked by a semantic correlation. In fact, it can often happen  
140 that, instead of inserting hashtags that reflect the topic discussed in the tweet, the author decides to insert other hashtags completely unrelated to the actual topic. All this is an attempt to increase the visibility of the tweet, which will then be listed under different topics. The study is based on a multilayer network approach characterized by two types of interaction, i.e., the co-occurrence  
145 of hashtags and the semantic relationship between them. The results proved that the co-occurrence of hashtags is mainly present when there is also a se-

mantic correlation. However, even a poor presence of semantically unrelated co-occurrences is sufficient for reducing node separation and network diameter in the co-occurrence network layer.

150 In Singh et al. (2020), the authors performed a sentiment classification task by transforming tweets into a heterogeneous multilayer network composed of three layers, i.e., the hashtag layers, the keyword layer, and the mention layer. The authors then generated random walk sequences from the multilayer network to evaluate a node’s prominence in the network. They did so by extending the  
155 random walk employed in the PageRank algorithm. Afterwards, both tweets and sequences are embedded and trained in a neural model to output a tweet’s final sentiment score. Experimental evaluation performed on a dataset of 42,422 tweets demonstrated that the proposed method outperforms its competitors in identifying the either positive, negative or neutral sentiment of Tweets.

160 In Pierri et al. (2020), the authors tackle the problem of fake news identification by modeling a multilayer network that puts into correlation an article with its related discussion on Twitter. In fact, for each article, they constructed a multilayer network composed of four different layers, i.e. retweet, reply, quote, and mention. The authors then employed several global network properties for  
165 encoding each network layer in a tuple of features. Such features are then concatenated in a single feature vector and employed for training a Logistic Regression model. Experimental results show high accuracy scores proving that a multilayer network-based approach allows simple, un-tuned models, to still achieve accurate classification results.

170 In Oro et al. (2017) the authors introduce SocialAU, based on a multilayer network, to detect topic authoritative social media users by employing the greedy PARAFAC algorithm Kolda & Bader (2006). SocialAU, combines topological and context analysis to obtain influential users, exploiting a multilayer network composed of three layers, mapping users, items (i.e., instances of the  
175 topic), and keywords of a tweet. An extensive evaluation, performed on both Twitter and Yelp, proved the ability of SocialAU to identify influential users on several topics of interest.



The authors in Nguyen et al. (2021) investigated the impact of malicious Twitter accounts in a scenario where they could potentially disrupt the fairness of an election. In particular, the authors modeled the political discussion as a multilayer network for spotting the most influential users on social media as well as their communities with the application of several centrality measures. The evaluation was performed through a case study on a political discussion forum in Taiwan, proving the effectiveness of the proposed approach in the identification of influential users, suggesting that their behavior might be associated with malicious activities.

All the manuscripts included in the literature highlight the effectiveness of representing a specific problem as a multilayer network, allowing for a better exploration of the network structure, and fully enabling the analysis of users' interactions in multiple aspects. With respect to the representations presented in the literature, in this work we formalized the interactions on social media by expanding the multilayer representation with projections across set of layers, characterized by nodes of different nature. This enforces the concept of bimodality and further empowers the analysis of interaction on social media, as we will discuss later.

### 3. Model

In this section, we define our multilayer network-based model for user-topic analysis on a social medium. Being our model extremely generic, it can be specialized to investigate how the users interact with each other on any topic and on any social media.

#### 3.1. Definition of the multilayer network model

We define a multilayer network  $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{E}, \mathbf{L} \rangle$  Boccaletti et al. (2014). Here,  $\mathbf{V} = \{V_1, \dots, V_k\}$  is a set of  $k$  sets of nodes. Each set  $V_i \in \mathbf{V}$  is defined on a type of nodes different from all the other sets  $V_j$ ,  $\forall V_j \in \mathbf{V}$ , with  $i \neq j$ .

We define a set  $R = \{r_1, \dots, r_h\}$  of relationships. A relationship defines a kind of interaction between nodes. We can now define  $\mathbf{L} = \{L_1, \dots, L_m\}$  as

the set of layers of our multilayer network. In other words, given a set of nodes  $V_x \in \mathbf{V}$  and a set of relationships  $R_y \subseteq R$ ,  $L_j \in \mathbf{L}$  is a set of layers  $L_{j_i}$ , each one related to the sets  $V_x$  and  $R_y$ . A layer  $L_{j_i} = \langle V'_x, E_x \rangle$  can be identified as a network.  $V'_x \subseteq V_x$  is the set of nodes. There is an edge  $e = \langle n_1, n_2, w_{12} \rangle \in E_x$  between two nodes  $n_1, n_2 \in V'_x$  if the corresponding nodes interact through a relationship  $r \in R_y$ . The edge has also a weight  $w_{12}$ , which represents the number of interactions between  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  through the corresponding relationship. For each layer in  $L_j$  there is one and only one relationship  $r \in R_y$ , so that

210  $|L_j| = |R_y|$ .

Finally,  $\mathbf{E} = \{E_{single}, E_{multi}\}$  is the set of sets of edges we can find in our multilayer network. In particular, we have a set  $E_{single}$  containing edges linking pairs of same type nodes, i.e., a subset of  $V_x \times V_x \cdot |L_j|$  for each  $V_x \in \mathbf{V}$  and  $L_j \in \mathbf{L}$ . So, the set  $E_{single}$  contains all edges that link nodes in each layer and the same nodes between different layers of the same type of nodes. For instance, consider a set of nodes  $V_1 = \{a, b, c\}$  and 3 layers  $L_1 = \{L_{1_1}, L_{1_2}, L_{1_3}\}$ . All the possible edges we could find in this case are  $\{a, b, c\} \times \{a, b, c\} = \{aa, ab, ac, ba, bb, bc, ca, cb, cc\}$  times 3, the number of layers. The edges between the same nodes, e.g.  $aa$ , link the same node between different layers if they exist.

220 On the other hand,  $E_{multi}$  is a set of edges between nodes of different types, i.e., a subset of  $V_x \times V_y \cdot |L_j|$  for each  $V_x, V_y \in \mathbf{V}$ , with  $V_x \neq V_y$  and  $L_j$  the set of layers defined for  $V_x$ . In this case, given two sets of nodes  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ ,  $E_{multi}$  contains all edges that link nodes of  $V_1$  and  $V_2$ , i.e., all edges that start from the layers of  $L_1$  and end in the ones of  $L_2$ . Note that each edge in a layer and each edge starting from the same layer represent a relationship of  $R$  in the multilayer network. Figure 1 shows an example of the structure of our proposed model.

230 Consider for example to have  $m$  sets of nodes  $\mathbf{V} = \{V_1, \dots, V_m\}$ . For each set of nodes  $V_x$ , we have a set of layers  $L_x$ . In the figure, we can see the first set  $L_1$ , for the nodes  $V_1$ , and the last one  $L_m$ , for the nodes  $V_m$ . In each layer, all the nodes are linked through the corresponding relationship in that layer. In addition, we have some nodes that belong to more than one layer. So, we have an edge linking the same node in different layers, for all of those nodes. In the

figure, for the first two layers  $L_{1_1}$  and  $L_{1_2}$ , these edges are  $aa, cc, dd$ . All the edges in black are the set  $E_{single}$ . On the other hand, all the edges in red are the set  $E_{multi}$ .

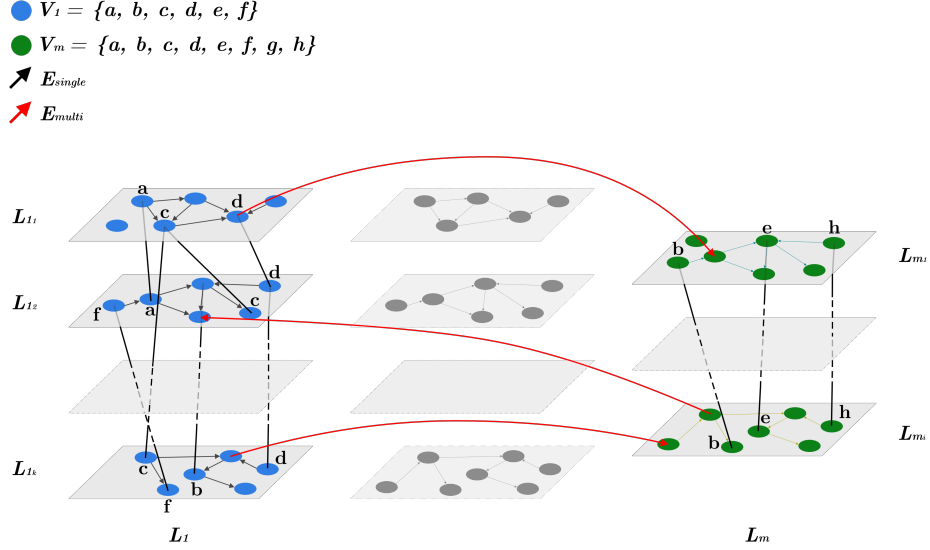


Figure 1: Schematic representation of our multilayer network model

240

### 3.2. Knowledge extraction from the multilayer network model

As it happens with multimodal networks, working directly on  $\mathcal{M}$  is not straightforward. Indeed, we need to define and use metrics suitable to both the multilayer and bimodal natures of the model. We can work with both the single  
245 layers of the network (which represents a portion of the overall scenario) and with projections of the multilayer network.

Given two sets of nodes  $V_1, V_2 \in \mathbf{V}$ , we define the projection of  $V_1$  on  $V_2$  as a multilayer network  $\mathcal{M}_{V_2}^{V_1} = \langle V_1, E', L' \rangle$ . This network is defined only on the nodes of  $V_1$ .

250 For each layer  $L_{1_j} \in L_1$ , where  $L_1$  is the set of layers defined for  $V_1$ , there is a layer  $L'_j \in L'$ . Given the relationship  $r \in R$  of the layer  $L_{1_j}$ , which defines both the edges of  $L_{1_j}$  in  $E_{single}$  and the edges starting from it in  $E_{multi}$ , two nodes  $a$  and  $b$  of  $L'_j$  are linked by an edge  $e \in E'$ , if both are linked through

the same  $r$  to the same node of  $V_2$  in  $\mathcal{M}$ , i.e.,  $a$  and  $b$  are linked by an edge of  $E_{multi}$  defined by the relationship  $r$  to the same node  $x$  of  $V_2$ . Figure 2 shows an example of a projection of  $\mathcal{M}$ .

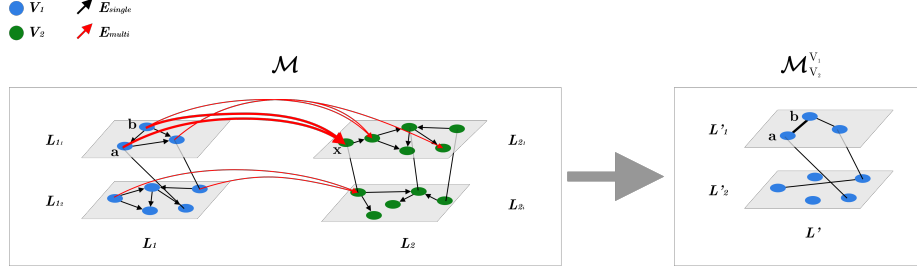


Figure 2: Example of a projection of  $\mathcal{M}$

### 3.3. Definition of an ego network in $\mathcal{M}$

As we will see in the next sections, an important network structure used in our experiments is “ego network”. In the case of a single layer network, this structure is built and used to study the characteristics of a single actor (or node) Jones & Volpe (2011). Given a network  $L = \langle V, E \rangle$ , we can define an ego network of the node  $n \in V$  as  $\mathcal{E}_n = \langle V_n, E_n \rangle$ .  $V_n \subseteq V$  is the set of nodes, which contains  $n$  and all the nodes directly linked through an edge to  $n$  in  $L$ .  $E_n \subseteq E$  is the set of edges of the ego network. It contains all edges linking the nodes of  $V_n$  to  $n$ , plus the edges between them.

To the best of our knowledge, in the literature, there is no formal definition of an ego network suitable to our scenario. For this reason, we propose a possible definition in the following.

Given a set of layers  $L_j$ , defined for a set of nodes  $V_i$ , we define the multilayer ego network of the node  $n \in V_i$  as  $\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{M}_n} = \langle V_n, E_n \rangle$ . In particular,  $V_n \subseteq V$  is the set of nodes that contains  $n$  and all nodes that are connected to  $n$  in at least a layer of  $L_j$ . Two nodes  $v_x, v_y \in V_n$  are linked by an edge  $e \in E_n$  if there exists an edge between  $v_x$  and  $v_y$  in at least a layer of  $L_j$ .

### 3.4. Multilayer network model specialization for Twitter

275 In this section, we adapt our general multilayer model to Twitter. Potentially,  
the model supports multiple types of nodes,  $k = |\mathbf{V}|$ , so  $k \in [2, +\infty)$ . In our  
scenario, we are dealing with user-topic analysis on a social medium, so, we can  
assume two different types of nodes in our model,  $\mathbf{V} = \{V_u, V_t\}, k = 2$ . The  
first,  $V_u$  is the set of user nodes, where each node represents a user in the social  
280 network. The latter,  $V_t$  is the set of topic nodes, where each node represents  
a discussed topic. The number of nodes in  $V_u$  depends on how many users are  
considered in the analysis, while the number of topics depends on the discussion  
modeled. In our case, we are dealing with the discussion on vaccines, with three  
different opinions about them, pro-vax, anti-vax, and neutral. We have a user  
285 node for each user who made at least one of the possible interactions on Twitter,  
and have a topic node for each hashtag used by pro-vaxxers, anti-vaxxers, and  
neutral users.

Accordingly, to the possible interactions on Twitter,  $R$  contains the following  
relationships:

- 290 • “Like” (i.e.,  $r_l$ ): when a user likes the tweet of another user;
- “Reply to” (i.e.,  $r_r$ ): when a user replies to the tweet of another user;
- “Retweet” (i.e.,  $r_{rt}$ ): when a user retweets the tweet of another user<sup>1</sup>;
- “Mention” (i.e.,  $r_m$ ): when a user mentions another one in a tweet;
- “Found together” (i.e.,  $r_f$ ): when a topic is found together with another  
295 topic in the same tweet.

So,  $\mathbf{L} = \{L_u, L_t\}$ , where  $L_u$  is the set of layers associated to  $V_u$ , while  $L_t$  is  
the set of layers associated to  $V_t$ . Formally speaking,  $L_u$  and  $L_t$  are defined as:

- $L_u = \{L_l, L_r, L_{rt}, L_m\}$ ;

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<sup>1</sup>Retweeted tweets may also contain quotes.

- $L_t = \{L_f\}$

300 Where  $L_x = \langle V_y, E_x \rangle$  is the layer associated to the relationship  $x$  and the type of nodes  $y$ .

The set  $E_{single}$  contains all edges linking the nodes of the same type, i.e., all edges between nodes of  $V_u$  and all edges between the nodes of  $V_t$ . Plus, it contains all edges linking the same nodes in multiple layers, as we have seen in  
305 Section 3.1. In this specialization, this is true only for the nodes of  $V_u$ , as  $L_t$  has only one layer. On the other hand,  $E_{multi}$  contains the edges linking nodes of  $V_u$  to nodes of  $V_t$ .

Figure 3 shows a graphical simplification of our specialization of  $\mathcal{M}$  to Twitter. First of all, blue nodes are user nodes. The figure shows a subset of them,  
310 and how they could be linked on each layer and between layers. The same for green nodes, i.e., topic nodes. All black edges belong to  $E_{single}$  set, i.e., all edges between blue nodes, all edges between green nodes, and edges between the same nodes in different layers of  $L_u$ . The red edges belong to  $E_{multi}$  set, which are the edges between nodes of  $V_u$  and nodes of  $V_t$ .

## 315 4. Overview of the dataset

In this section, we provide an overview of the datasets adopted in this study and analyze the hashtags employed by users. In the first part, we describe the structure of the dataset, also highlighting occurrences and correlations between the most frequent hashtags in the set of considered tweets. In the second part,  
320 we analyze the contents of the tweets associated with the relevant hashtags, i.e., gold-standard hashtags (Di Giovanni et al., 2021), to indicate whether they represent a positive or negative perspective on the COVID-19 vaccine debate.

### 4.1. Dataset description

The spreading of the COVID-19 pandemic and different lockdowns imposed  
325 by the public governments have led to a strong usage of social media. Among the different social networks, Twitter proved to be a tool to rapidly communicate

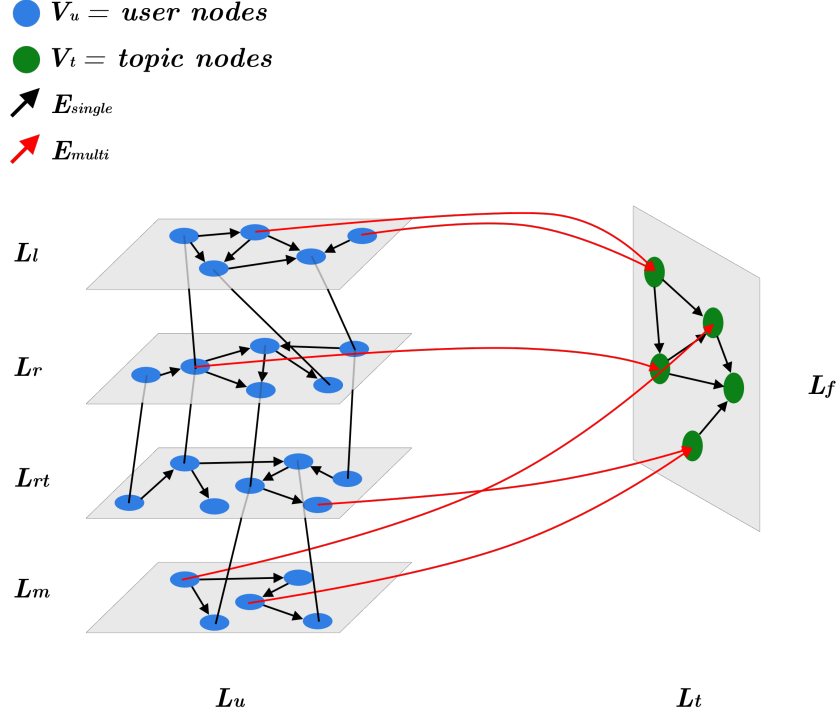


Figure 3: Example of our specialization of  $\mathcal{M}$

with citizens during public health crises aiming to inform, boost morale, and even raise awareness by encouraging active participation. As a matter of fact, during the crucial phases of the pandemic, government leaders, and virologists have continuously shared information about the treatments and law acts to fight the spread of COVID-19. In fact, 88.9% of global leaders have verified and active Twitter accounts, with more than 85 million users that have followed their “In-

For our analysis, we focused on the AvaxTweets dataset Muric et al. (2021), representing the largest dataset of tweets collected between October 2020 and April 2021 on the topics of COVID-19 vaccines. The period considered within the dataset is of timely relevance as it was the most crucial period for COVID-19 vaccine discussions. In addition, it is large enough to fully demonstrate the potential of our approach. The dataset contains two collections of tweets extracted

340 from the historical account-level data collection of Twitter and the streaming  
keyword-centered data collection. In this study, we consider the streaming data  
collection created by using the snowballing sampling technique in DeVerna et al.  
(2021). This strategy initially required the definition of a small set of keywords  
related to strong vaccination hesitation (such as *vacciniskill* and *vaccinodam-*  
345 *age*), which was subsequently enriched with other similar keywords extracted  
from the first set of tweets.

Table 1 shows statistics about the AvaxTweets dataset at the time of writ-  
ing this article (early December 2021). The authors only released tweet IDs in  
order to comply with Twitter’s Terms of Service and this required rehydrating  
350 the tweets for retrieving their contents using the Twitter API. As we can see,  
the resulting streaming data collection contains over 1.8 million tweets from  
over 700K unique accounts. However, after the operation of re-hydration of the  
dataset according to the strategy defined in Muric et al. (2021), the number of  
tweets was reduced to 1,095,621, of which 1,078,613 were tweets of unverified  
355 accounts, while 17,008 of verified accounts. This reduction in the number of  
tweets may be due to the fact that Twitter has blocked and/or removed many  
accounts that probably did not respect the platform’s policies or that had been  
identified as fake. A tweet could also be no longer available if the author deletes  
it, or changes its privacy settings. For this reason, we choose to use only the  
360 tweets shared by verified accounts (i.e., 8,736 accounts), aiming at performing  
an accurate analysis without considering bots or fake accounts. Although the  
operation of rehydrating the dataset allowed us to obtain information concern-  
ing retweets, mentions, and replies to tweets, it has been necessary to design a  
web crawler for extracting the likes of each tweet. In fact, the official Twitter  
365 APIs limit the number of likes that can be extracted for each tweet to 100,  
which could affect both the amount of data and the proposed experimentation.

The extended dataset has been adopted in our case study to evaluate the  
effectiveness of the proposed multilayer network model. Nevertheless, in the  
following sections, we further analyze the tweets and the corresponding hashtags  
370 in order to perform a preliminary analysis of their contents.



	Streaming Collection	
	Before Hydrating	After Hydrating
<b>Number of tweets</b>	1,832,333	1,095,621
<b>Number of accounts</b>	719,652	451,584
<b>Verified accounts</b>	9,032	8,736
<b>Average tweets per account</b>	2.5	1.75
<b>Accounts with location</b>	5,661	1,632
<b>Most recent tweet</b>	2021-04-21	2021-04-21

Table 1: Statistics about the AvaxTweets dataset

#### 4.2. Preliminary analysis of hashtags

Starting from the tweets of the verified accounts, i.e., 17,008 tweets, we have performed cleaning operations of the contents by removing all special characters and/or emojis, yielding the standardization of the tweet syntax. This operation  
375 allowed us to remove any encoding errors of the characters in the tweets recovered after the re-hydration process and standardize the syntax of the hashtags, which often are syntactically different due to the use of uppercase and/or lowercase letters, such as in the case of “Covid19” and “covid19” or “vaccine” and “VACCINE”. It is important to notice that, although hashtags have been stan-  
380 dardized in their syntax, their extraction from tweets required the adoption of a specific regular expression to identify and collect them. After standardizing the content of tweets, it was possible to identify the most common hashtags used in the tweets and analyze their frequency in the dataset.

Table 2 reports the occurrences and the frequencies of the top 30 hashtags  
385 employed from verified accounts of the dataset. The occurrence values represent the total number of times a hashtag appears, while the frequency is the number of occurrences of each hashtag with respect to the tweets shared by verified accounts. It is important to notice that only 2,245 of 17,008 tweets of the verified accounts contain at least one hashtag, whereas 14,763 tweets do not contain any  
390 hashtag. As shown in Table 2, we have defined three different frequency values that represent the frequency of each hashtag with respect to: (i) the number of all the hashtags used in the tweets (i.e.,  $N_X$ ); (ii) the number of tweets that

contain at least one hashtag (i.e.,  $N_Y$ ), and (iii) the number of all tweets in the streaming data collection shared by verified accounts (i.e.,  $N_Z$ ). Let  $N$  be the number of occurrences of each hashtag in the streaming data collection, the frequencies are defined as follows:

$$F_1 = \frac{N \cdot 100}{N_X} \quad F_2 = \frac{N \cdot 100}{N_Y} \quad F_3 = \frac{N \cdot 100}{N_Z} \quad (1)$$

Hashtag	N	F <sub>1</sub> (%)	F <sub>2</sub> (%)	F <sub>3</sub> (%)	Hashtag	N	F <sub>1</sub> (%)	F <sub>2</sub> (%)	F <sub>3</sub> (%)
#covid19	572	40.25	25.48	3.36	#vaccination	32	2.25	1.43	0.19
#mybodymychoice	133	9.36	5.92	0.78	#vaccinefraud	30	2.11	1.34	0.18
#vaccine	117	8.23	5.21	0.69	#cdc	29	2.04	1.29	0.17
#vaccines	89	6.26	3.96	0.52	#uae	28	1.97	1.25	0.16
#covidvaccine	87	6.12	3.88	0.51	#breaking	27	1.90	1.20	0.16
#vaxxed	83	5.84	3.70	0.49	#informedconsent	26	1.83	1.16	0.15
#parentalrights	72	5.07	3.21	0.42	#doctorsspeakup	25	1.76	1.11	0.15
#coronavirus	71	5.00	3.16	0.42	#vaccineswork	24	1.69	1.07	0.14
#family	57	4.01	2.54	0.34	#mybodyismyown	24	1.69	1.07	0.14
#parenting	57	4.01	2.54	0.34	#thisisourshot	23	1.62	1.02	0.14
#covid	49	3.45	2.18	0.29	#unvaccinated	22	1.55	0.98	0.13
#vaccinated	48	3.38	2.14	0.28	#pfizer	21	1.48	0.94	0.12
#antivaccine	38	2.67	1.69	0.22	#getvaccinated	21	1.48	0.94	0.12
#longCOVID	34	2.39	1.51	0.20	#astrazeneca	18	1.27	0.80	0.11
#israel	32	2.25	1.43	0.19	#novaccine	14	0.99	0.62	0.08

Table 2: Top 30 hashtags in streaming data collection

As we expected, there are a large number of tweets that contain general hashtags that refer to Covid or family ties, such as “#covid19”, “#parenting”, “#family”, and so forth. However, even if several hashtags show pro-vax sentiments, such as “#vaccination”, “#thisisourshot”, and “#getvaccinated”, there are several hashtags that show strong anti-vaccine sentiments, such as “#vaccinefraud”, “#antivaccine”, and “#novaccine”. The latter represents about 6.5% of the top 30 hashtags used in the tweets of the verified accounts, showing that there are many people who spread anti-vaccine sentiments. To further analyze how these sentiments have affected collective thought, we show the correlation

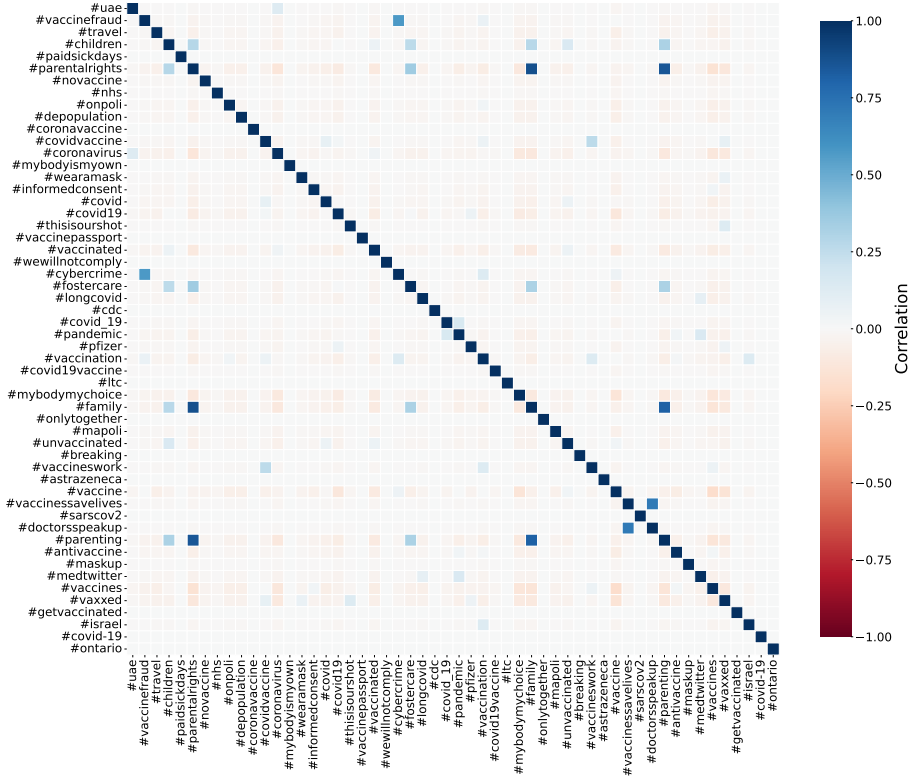


Figure 4: Correlation matrix of all the hashtags that appear in at least 10 different tweets of the streaming data collection

analysis between hashtags of the tweets in the streaming data collection (Figure 4). In particular, to identify the correlation between the hashtags collected from the tweets, it was necessary to turn the text into a numeric form, by transforming the hashtags used in the text into a vector form. To do this, we define a

410 binary vector for each tweet whose dimensions are equal to the number of hashtags involved in the evaluation. Each vector contains several elements, whose value is equal to 1 if the hashtag is contained in the text of the tweet, and 0 otherwise. For example, let us consider the hashtags “#vaccinated”, “#family”, “#maskup”, and “#day”. So the tweet:

415 *“Protect those that can not protect themselves #MaskUp #Vaccinated”*

will be represented as  $[1, 0, 1, 0]$  in its vector form.

In our analysis, we consider 54 hashtags representing the hashtags that appear in at least 10 different tweets of the streaming data collection. Thus, for each of them, we have defined a binary vector of size 54 to obtain the rows of a new binary matrix. In this way, we can calculate their correlation by using the Pearson coefficient that returns a value in the range between  $-1.0$  and  $1.0$  for each hashtag pair. The Pearson measure is one of the most used coefficients, since it measures the degree of the association involving linear related variables and permits to remove the prejudices of users Kalamatianos et al. (2015), Jeyasudha et al. (2021).

As we expected, there are several strong correlations between hashtags in the same domain, such as “#family” with “#parentalrights”, and “#parenting”, or “#vaccineswork” with “#covidvaccines”. However, the analysis reveals some other strong interesting correlations, such as the ones between “#vaccinefraud” and “#cybercrime”, and “#unvaccinated” and “#children”.

This could mean that the tweets contained in the streaming data collection discussing vaccines and identifying them as fraud have a strong link to cybercrime. This is probably due to the fact that many people who have joined the vaccination campaign and have used applications to track infections (such as NHS COVID-19 Wymant et al. (2021), Immuni Bosco & Cvajner (2021), etc.), have often shared their personal data with institutions and/or governments. In this scenario, many people have opened several debates on personal data privacy since they were not sure of the effectiveness of these applications. Similarly, when tweets discuss unvaccinated people, they often highlight the problem of vaccinating children. In fact, during the period in which the dataset has been created, there was an intensive debate on the problem of vaccinating children, since several people have discussed the ethics of the researchers when testing vaccines on children. An example of a tweet is reported in the following:

*“The reason we don’t do studies to compare groups of #vaccinated vs. #unvaccinated #children is a very simple reason of ethics. When vaccines*

*are available to prevent against diseases, it's unethical for researchers to assign kids to a study's "control group" without vaccines."*

In fact, several people have opened debates on the ethics of the researchers when comparing the effects of the symptoms of COVID-19 in vaccinated and  
450 unvaccinated children. On the other hand, many parents have complained about the lack of effective testing to prove the vaccine's effectiveness on their children.

These types of debates have also been intrinsically mapped in correlation analyses, where we can see that correlations are sometimes more or less strong in relation to the number of tweets that have dealt with certain types of discussions.

#### 455 4.3. Preliminary analysis of the tweet contents

The creation of an effective vaccine against COVID-19 has been one of the biggest challenges of recent years. In fact, the vaccination campaign against COVID-19 has been considered a social and economic challenge. Governments had to establish a distribution plan of vaccine doses in a short time aiming at  
460 restarting the economy of each country.

Our analysis starts by considering the hashtags used within all considered tweets. Starting from these, we have defined different sets of hashtags, also known as gold-standard hashtags Di Giovanni et al. (2021), to identify the presence of positive or negative opinions in the tweets concerning the vaccine debate.  
465 Although the use of gold-standard hashtags was defined with the aim of identifying only two types of tweets, such as for or against the vaccine Abu-Raddad et al. (2021), it was necessary to identify the third category of gold-standard hashtags, i.e., neutral. The latter represents all hashtags that do not show a clear opinion regarding vaccines and/or that do not concern the vaccine debate.

470 For example, the hashtags “#quarantine”, “#covid19”, and “#longhauler” are neutral gold-standard hashtags, since the first two do not express a clear opinion regarding the debate, while the others have no reference to vaccines.

It is important to notice that, the identification of tweets containing positive or negative opinions on the vaccines is not the main contribution of this study. In

475 fact, this type of analysis aims to study the main characteristics of the dataset  
and investigate the peculiarities of the most influential users for each line of  
thought through a multilayer network.

To make our analysis, we extracted all the hashtags contained in the tweets  
of the verified accounts, i.e., 1,421 different hashtags, and we manually iden-  
480 tified the three sets of gold-standard hashtags. In order to obtain a proper  
interpretation of the hashtags, we employed a cross-checking strategy for their  
classification. In particular, we divided the 1,421 hashtags into two sets, each  
of them assigned to a pair of authors, while the fifth author was in charge of  
solving any disagreement. In fact, each author of a pair proceeded by providing  
485 an individual classification of the hashtags assigned to him and, whether the  
pair disagreed, the nature of the hashtag was assigned by the fifth author. In  
order to obtain an objective classification of the hashtags, each one of these has  
been evaluated by each author of the paper. Based on the evaluation results,  
we have identified the three classes of gold-standard hashtags using the con-  
490 cept of majority voting. For the sake of clarity, Table 3 only shows the top 20  
gold-standard hashtags for the pro-vax, neutral, and anti-vax categories.

Starting from the sets of gold-standard hashtags, we iteratively analyze the  
content of the tweets, keeping track of the occurrences of each hashtag. Specifi-  
cally, for each of them, we computed the number of occurrences considering: (i)  
495 the entire set of tweets (i.e.,  $N$ ); (ii) the set of original tweets, i.e., the tweets  
that are not retweets (i.e.,  $N_o$ ), and (iii) the set of retweets (i.e.,  $N_{RT}$ ). More-  
over, we report the frequencies of each hashtag related to tweets that are or are  
not retweets ( $N_o$  and  $N_{RT}$ , respectively).

From Table 3, we can see that most of the gold-standard hashtags are con-  
500 tained in original tweets meaning that people with a specific opinion tend to  
directly share it by writing original tweets. Nevertheless, for several anti-vax  
gold-standard hashtags, the frequency of hashtags contained in retweets is higher  
than the frequency of the original tweets. This could mean that people tend to  
express anti-vax opinions by re-posting the content of other people or answering  
505 previous tweets.

	Gold-standard hashtags	N	N <sub>o</sub>	N <sub>RT</sub>	F <sub>o</sub> (%)	F <sub>RT</sub> (%)	Gold-standard hashtags	N	N <sub>o</sub>	N <sub>RT</sub>	F <sub>o</sub> (%)	F <sub>RT</sub> (%)
pro-vax	#vaxxed	83	72	11	0.87	0.13	#protectchicago	9	5	4	0.56	0.44
	#vaccinated	44	37	7	0.84	0.16	#vaccinepassports	9	4	5	0.44	0.56
	#doctorspickup	25	13	12	0.52	0.48	#covidvaccines	6	4	2	0.67	0.33
	#vaccineswork	24	22	2	0.92	0.08	#vaccinationrules	6	6	0	1.0	0.0
	#thisisourshot	23	17	6	0.74	0.26	#covaxin	6	3	3	0.5	0.5
	#getvaccinated	21	18	3	0.86	0.14	#factcheck	5	3	2	0.6	0.4
	#wearamask	18	15	3	0.83	0.17	#vaccin	4	1	3	0.25	0.75
	#maskup	15	7	8	0.47	0.53	#vaccineequity	4	4	0	1.0	0.0
	#vaccinessavelives	15	13	2	0.87	0.13	#washyourhands	4	4	0	1.0	0.0
	#vaccinepassport	13	13	0	1.0	0.0	#ableg	3	3	0	1.0	0.0
anti-vax	#mybodymychoice	133	97	36	0.73	0.27	#arrestbillgates	6	4	2	0.67	0.33
	#antivaccine	38	32	6	0.84	0.16	#antivaxxers	6	4	2	0.67	0.33
	#vaccinefraud	30	22	8	0.73	0.27	#vaccinefailure	6	5	1	0.83	0.17
	#mybodyismyown	24	19	5	0.79	0.21	#novaccineforme	5	3	2	0.6	0.4
	#unvaccinated	22	20	2	0.91	0.09	#antivax	4	1	3	0.25	0.75
	#novaccine	14	10	4	0.71	0.29	#exposebillgates	4	4	0	1.0	0.0
	#cdnpoli	9	8	1	0.89	0.11	#billgatesvaccine	3	3	0	1.0	0.0
	#learntherisk	9	9	0	1.0	0.0	#researchanddestroy	3	1	2	0.33	0.67
	#medicalfreedom	8	6	2	0.75	0.25	#plandemic	3	1	2	0.33	0.67
	#billgates	8	8	0	1.0	0.0	#scamdemic	2	1	1	0.5	0.5
neutral	#covid19	561	378	183	0.67	0.33	#astrazeneca	18	4	14	0.22	0.78
	#vaccine	116	82	34	0.71	0.29	#sarscov2	13	10	3	0.77	0.23
	#vaccines	88	79	9	0.9	0.1	#covid.19	13	9	4	0.69	0.31
	#covidvaccine	86	66	20	0.77	0.23	#children	13	13	0	1.0	0.0
	#coronavirus	71	61	10	0.86	0.14	#covid19vaccine	12	11	1	0.92	0.08
	#covid	49	39	10	0.8	0.2	#onpoli	11	10	1	0.91	0.09
	#longcovid	33	13	20	0.39	0.61	#coronavaccine	10	7	3	0.7	0.3
	#vaccination	32	28	4	0.88	0.12	#healthcare	9	9	0	1.0	0.0
	#pfizer	21	17	4	0.81	0.19	#health	7	6	1	0.86	0.14
	#pandemic	18	16	2	0.89	0.11	#essentialworkers	7	0	7	0.0	1.0

Table 3: Statistics of the tweets related to the top 20 gold-standard hashtags

After the definition of gold-standard hashtags, we iteratively evaluated each tweet by counting the number of occurrences of the different categories of hashtags (i.e., pro-vax, anti-vax, and neutral). In particular, a tweet with a higher number of pro-vax gold-standard hashtags was considered as a tweet with a pro-vax opinion. Similarly, a tweet with a higher number of anti-vax gold-standard hashtags was considered as a tweet with an anti-vax opinion. However, concerning the tweets with a higher number of gold-standard neutral hashtags, i.e., tweets with neutral opinions, it was also necessary to analyze the number of pro-vax and anti-vax hashtags to understand the nature of the tweets. In fact, a neutral tweet can also be considered pro-vax or anti-vax according to the respective gold-standard hashtags occurrences. The results of the gold-standard hashtag analysis can be summarized as follows: 1,102 tweets with pro-vax opinions, 293 with anti-vax opinions, and 850 neutral tweets.

This preliminary analysis provides a general overview of the opinions discussed by users in the tweets and allows us to evaluate the existence of posts containing both pro-vax and anti-vax opinions. As we have discussed above, there is a fairly even distribution between pro-vax and anti-vax tweets, which makes the dataset suitable for our study. Moreover, it is important to notice that this type of analysis is limited to the evaluation of a single user, without considering the impact of the shared opinions on the other users on the social network. In fact, this type of analysis does not take into account the user interactions on a topic, and so it does not consider how the content is perceived by other users and followers. For these reasons, in the following sections, we exploit the knowledge extracted so far and investigate the interactions between users thanks to our multilayer network-based approach.

## 5. Analysis of user interactions

In this section, we investigate the properties of our multilayer network model tailored to the Twitter scenario. To this end, in Section 5.1 we report the analysis of the single networks related to user relationships of  $R$ , i.e., “Retweet” ( $r_{rt}$ ), “Reply To” ( $r_r$ ), “Like” ( $r_l$ ) and “Mention” ( $r_m$ ). Then, in Section 5.2, we employ our model and compare it with an approach leveraging only the single networks composing our multilayer network  $\mathcal{M}$ . In order to perform this investigation, we do not consider the layer of topic  $L_t$ , but only the layers  $L_u$ , since now we point out the general characteristic of our approach regardless of the set of topics.

### 5.1. Analysis of single networks

As reported in Section 3.4, our model defines networks related to a set of relationships  $R$ . As for users, the considered interactions in Twitter are  $r_{rt}$ ,  $r_r$ ,  $r_l$  and  $r_m$ . To investigate these four networks, we started by reporting their descriptive statistics, such as the number of nodes and edges, density, clustering coefficient, number of connected components, and size of the maximum connected component in Table 4.



Network	Nodes	Edges	Density	Clustering Coeff.	# Conn. Comp.	Max. Conn. Comp.
$L_{rt}$	8,736	3,429	9.2e-5	4.8e-3	5,690	2,128
$L_r$	8,736	354	0.9e-5	0.6e-3	8,388	70
$L_l$	8,736	762	2.0e-5	87e-3	7,884	501
$L_m$	8,736	4,885	53e-5	67e-3	3,521	3,047

Table 4: Single networks descriptive analysis

From the analysis of Table 4, we can observe that the number of nodes is the same for all networks, while the number of edges differs a lot. In particular,  $L_r$  is the least connected one, as we can see from both the number of edges and density. On the other hand, the  $L_m$  layer is the most connected one, with a density much higher than all the other layers. The “Mention” relationship ( $r_m$ ) connects many users together and creates larger connected components w.r.t. other forms of interactions. This peculiarity helps users to spark many discussions (i.e., tweets) with their followers. The  $L_{rt}$  network has similar statistics to those of  $L_m$ , but with fewer edges, smaller clustering coefficients, and smaller size of the maximum component. The behavior seems similar, even if it connects fewer users. Furthermore, it is worth noting the high clustering coefficient and low density of the  $L_l$  network. It shows that the few connected users tend to join together in closed triads. Roughly speaking, the user that likes each other posts highlight a certain level of trust in each other and mutual approval of their posts. However, it is evident that the “Like” relationship ( $r_l$ ) is one of the least present ones since it seems that the verified users tend to use other communication ways to express their ideas and opinions. Finally, we can observe that the  $L_r$  network has the lowest number of edges, density, clustering coefficient, and max connected component. Indeed, it has fewer users connected and the maximum connected component is small w.r.t. the number of nodes.

As we have previously observed, these descriptive statistics highlight the different communication ways between users on Twitter. “Retweet” ( $r_{rt}$ ) and “Mention” ( $r_m$ ) relationships are more widespread than “Reply To” ( $r_r$ ) and

“Like” ( $r_l$ ), and so they are more employed by the verified users when they post a tweet. On the other hand,  $r_r$  and  $r_l$  have a low impact on verified user interactions, which points out that these users tend to like posts and reply to them very rarely.

575 Then, we focused our attention on the ability of the users to drive discussion for each of the considered relationships. To this end, in Figure 5, we report the distributions of the degree centrality of the users for each network.

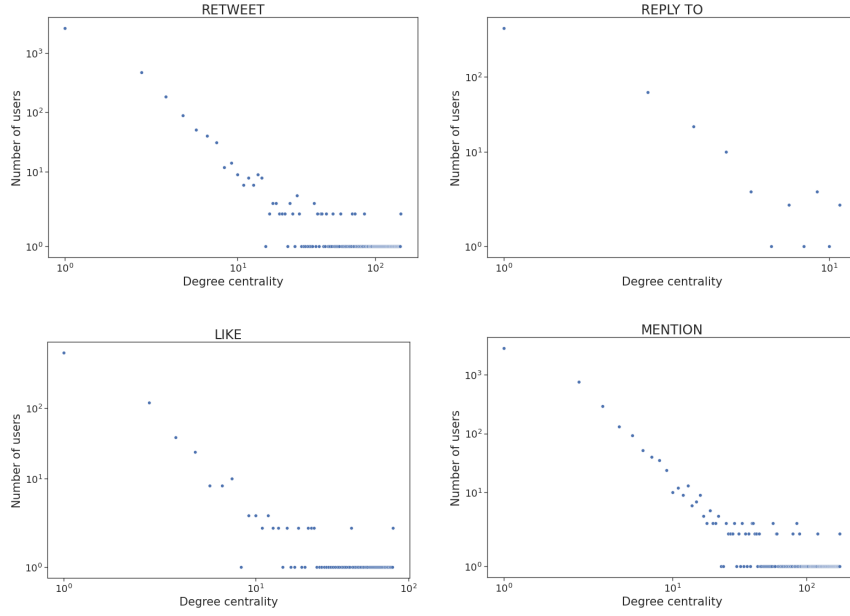


Figure 5: Degree centrality distributions for “Retweet” ( $L_{rt}$ ), “Reply To” ( $L_r$ ), “Like” ( $L_l$ ) and “Mention” ( $L_m$ ) networks

From Figure 5, we can observe that these distributions follow a power law Alstott et al. (2014). Generally speaking, this type of distribution is described through the formula:  $p(x) = c \cdot x^{-\alpha}$ , where  $c$  is a constant and  $\alpha$  defines the steepness of the curve (the higher  $\alpha$ , the steeper the power law). Power laws are heavy-tailed distributions, hence they usually contain few very large values compared to the lowest ones of the distributions. Power laws are endemic in some settings, such as social networks, web graphs, computer networks, collab-

585 oration networks, and so on. Twitter is no different since we can observe power law distributions characterizing user engagements on this social network, as reported in Figure 5. We can observe that the majority of users have a low degree centrality value, while very few of them have a high degree centrality. In our scenario, this phenomenon implies that very few verified users are very active  
590 on Twitter (in terms of retweets, replies, likes, and mentions), while many of them are less way present.

In order to quantitatively evaluate the power law distributions of  $L_{rt}$ ,  $L_r$ ,  $L_l$  and  $L_m$ , we compute the  $\alpha$  and  $\delta$  parameters Alstott et al. (2014) and report them in Table 5.  $\delta$  is the lowest Kolmogorov-Smirnov distance between  
595 the original distribution and the best model that fits it. The lower  $\delta$ , the more accurate the power law fit is Alstott et al. (2014).

Network	$\alpha$	$\delta$
$L_{rt}$	1.655	0.109
$L_r$	1.348	0.102
$L_l$	1.633	0.123
$L_m$	1.549	0.060

Table 5: Power law distribution parameters of the degree centrality distributions

From Table 5, we can observe that all the distributions are power laws, since  $\alpha > 1$  and  $\delta$  is low. These degree centrality distributions point out that the networks are scale-free networks Barabási & Bonabeau (2003). Considering  
600 the steepness of the power law distributions and the Pareto principle, which states that 80% of outcomes are due to 20% of causes (80-20 or 90-10), we decided to consider the first 800 (approximately 10%) users with the highest degree centrality as the most influential ones, and consequently derive the most important characteristics of the networks.

605 Following this reasoning, we select the Top-800 users according to the degree centrality of the considered relationships. The next step is to verify if these sets of users are overlapping or not. Possible overlap between two or more sets means that the same user is influential in different relationships, which highlights a

higher ability to drive discussion. We compute the intersections of the top users  
of each network with and without considering the “Like” relationship due to  
the fact that it was not present in the AvaxTweets dataset but was added by us  
afterward. The computation of these two intersections is useful to observe the  
impact of the “Like” perspective. The results are reported in Table 6.

Top-800 users	Number of users	Percentage of users
$Retweet \cap Reply\ To \cap Mention$	143	17.87%
$Retweet \cap Reply\ To \cap Mention \cap Like$	67	8.37%

Table 6: Intersection of Top-800 users according to the degree centrality of the  $L_{rt}$ ,  $L_r$ ,  $L_l$  and  $L_m$  networks

From Table 6, we can observe that the sizes of the intersections are not high.  
Indeed, starting from the four sets of Top-800 users, we obtain an intersection  
of 143 users for  $Retweet \cap Reply\ To \cap Mention$  (i.e., 17.87% of the initial set),  
and 67 for  $Retweet \cap Reply\ To \cap Mention \cap Like$  (i.e., 8.37% of the initial set).  
This highlights that few users are influential in all these communication ways,  
which could also mean that each verified user chooses one way over another to  
convey his/her tweets.

Once we have the most influential users from all the perspectives, we study  
their behavior and their neighborhood on Twitter. To this end, we compute  
the ego networks of the  $Retweet \cap Reply\ To \cap Mention$  users and extract the  
corresponding density and clustering coefficients. In Figure 6, we report the  
obtained results.

From Figure 6, we obtain interesting insights. For instance, it is worth noting  
that ego networks of “Like” and “Reply To” tend to have a low clustering  
coefficient, even if in some cases the density is high. The high density and low  
clustering coefficient mean that the interactions between users are only one way  
since they reply or like a tweet but do not involve further users. This behavior  
does not foster a discussion since there are no more than two people involved in  
these interactions (e.g. users reply to a tweet but do not receive an answer from  
a third user to close the triad). However, this could highlight that verified users

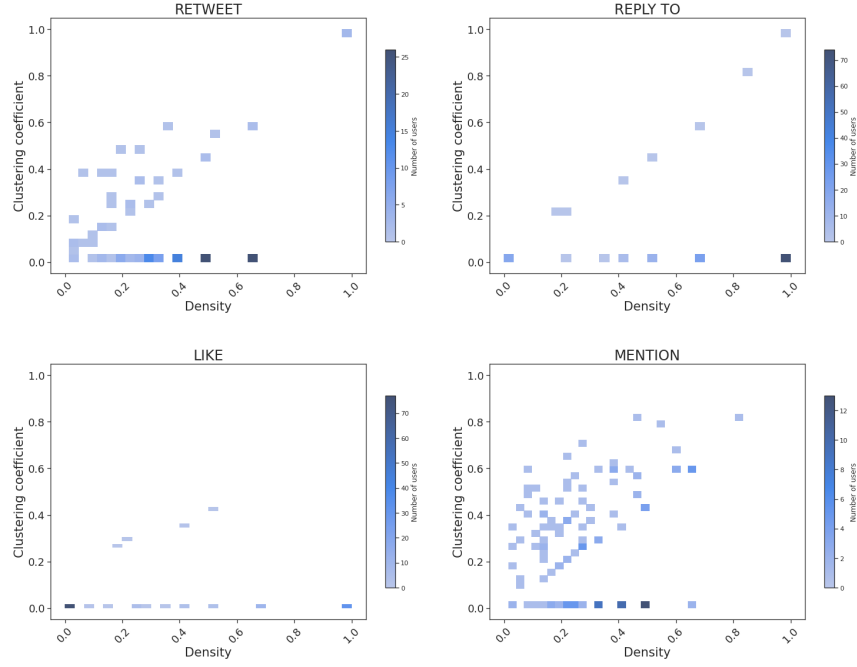


Figure 6: Density and clustering coefficient of the ego networks of the  $Retweet \cap Reply To \cap Mention$  users for each considered relationship

do not want to get involved in already opened discussions, agreeing with the  
expressed opinion or not, and so they prefer to convey their ideas in other ways.  
On the other hand, “Retweet” and “Mention” have a different distribution of  
density and clustering coefficient values of the ego networks compared to “Like”  
and “Reply To”. In the “Retweet” and “Mention” cases, we can observe that  
many ego networks are dense and have a medium-high clustering coefficient.  
This leads us to think that these two relationships are able to connect users  
well on Twitter since there are many connections in an ego network and these  
connections tend to form many triads. The capability to close triads fosters  
the discussions since we can observe mentions and retweets to a user and the  
corresponding answers back.

Surely, in this context, the analysis of users’ behaviors could be useful to find  
and analyze different information diffusion patterns, in order to classify them.

However, this would require extra base knowledge, like the temporal evolution of the discussion, which leads to a possible future expansion of our approach.

## 5.2. Analysis of our multilayer network model

650 In this section, we leverage our multilayer network approach to extract further and different knowledge w.r.t. the single networks analysis. Recall that, the multilayer network  $\mathcal{M}$  is composed of five layers, four for the relationships considered in the previous sections, and one for the topics. This architecture allows us to consider all the perspectives at once and it allows us to project  
655 both users and topics on each other. This is useful to highlight the interactions between users starting from a topic and/or investigate the co-occurrences of the topics starting from the users and their relationships. Since not considering the topics so far, the number of nodes and edges of the multilayer network for each layer are the same as presented in Table 4.

660 As a first analysis, we compute the degree centrality of the multilayer network users. For each user, the degree centrality considers the contributions of each layer, and so it consists of the mean of the degree centrality across the  $L_{rt}$ ,  $L_r$ ,  $L_l$ , and  $L_m$  networks Boccaletti et al. (2014). The results are reported in Figure 7.

665 From Figure 7, we can observe that the distribution of the degree centrality follows a power law distribution, which is also confirmed from the  $\alpha = 2.518$  and  $\delta = 0.038$  parameters. This power law is far steeper than the previous ones, since  $\alpha > 2$ . Similar to the previous case, we can study the most influential users to observe the important characteristics of the overall network.

670 Hence, we first collect the top users of the multilayer network according to the degree centrality, and then verify if there is an overlapping with the most influential users extracted in the single networks analysis. Following the same reasoning of Table 6, we compute the intersections with and without the “Like” relationship since it was added to the dataset afterward. In order to make a fair  
675 comparison in terms of the dimension of the sets of users, we extract the same number of top users from the multilayer network as the  $Retweet \cap Reply To \cap$

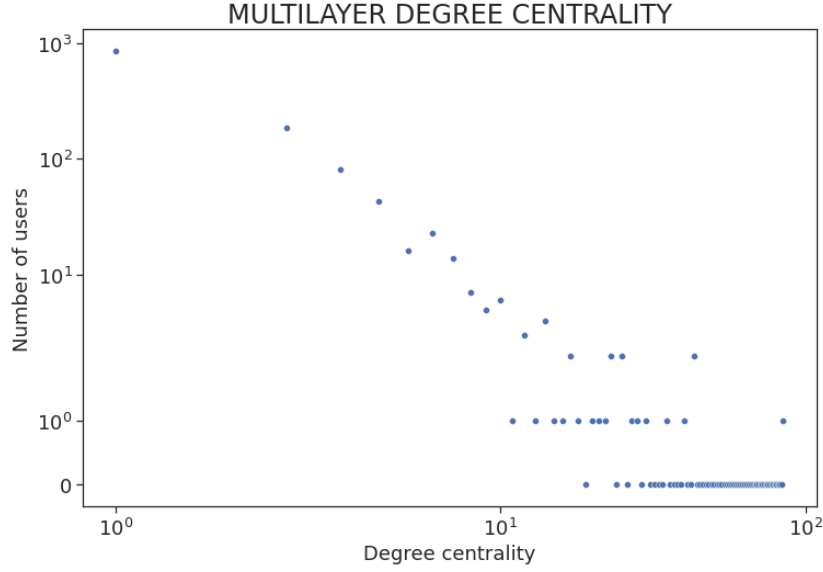


Figure 7: Multilayer network degree centrality

*Mention* and *Retweet*  $\cap$  *Reply To*  $\cap$  *Mention*  $\cap$  *Like* intersections reported in Table 6. For this reason, when comparing with the *Retweet*  $\cap$  *Reply To*  $\cap$  *Mention* case, we extract the first 143 top users according to the multilayer network degree centrality (i.e., *MultilayerTop* – 143), while when comparing with the *Retweet*  $\cap$  *Reply To*  $\cap$  *Mention*  $\cap$  *Like* case, we consider the first 67 top users according to the multilayer network degree centrality (i.e., *MultilayerTop* – 67).

The results are reported in Table 7.

Top users intersection	Number of users	Percentage of users
<i>Retweet</i> $\cap$ <i>Reply To</i> $\cap$ <i>Mention</i> $\cap$ <i>MultilayerTop</i> – 143	24	16.78%
<i>Retweet</i> $\cap$ <i>Reply To</i> $\cap$ <i>Mention</i> $\cap$ <i>Like</i> $\cap$ <i>MultilayerTop</i> – 67	55	82.09%

Table 7: Top users intersection between the single networks and multilayer network approaches

From the analysis of Table 7, we can observe that the two approaches do not consider the same set of users as the most influential ones. Indeed, in the

first case ( $Retweet \cap Reply\ To \cap Mention \cap MultilayerTop - 143$ ), we have an overlap of 24 users (i.e., 16.78% of the initial users), while in the latter case ( $Retweet \cap Reply\ To \cap Mention \cap Like \cap MultilayerTop - 67$ ), we can observe that 55 users are overlapping (i.e., 82.09%). The reason could be related to the fact that the multilayer network approach considers the contribution of each layer to the resulting degree centrality of a node, which is different from the procedure of the single layer analysis.

Starting from this consideration, we investigated the possible differences between the most influential users extracted from the two approaches. To this end, we first compute the ego networks of these users for each layer  $L$ . Recall from Section 3.3 that an ego network for a single layer  $L$  and a node  $n$  in that layer is defined as  $\mathcal{E}_n = \langle V_n, E_n \rangle$ .  $V_n \subseteq V$  is the set of nodes, containing  $n$  and all the nodes directly linked through an edge to  $n$  in  $L$ , while  $E_n \subseteq E$  is the set of the edges linking those nodes to  $n$  and between them. Then, for each of these users, we computed the multilayer ego networks  $\mathcal{E}_{\mathcal{M}_n}$ . Recall from Section 3.3 that, given a set of layers  $L_j$ , defined for a set of nodes  $V_i$  and a node  $n \in V_i$ ,  $\mathcal{E} = \langle V_n, E_n \rangle$ .  $V_n \subseteq V$  is the set of nodes containing  $n$  and all the nodes that are connected to  $n$  in at least a layer of  $L_j$ . Two nodes  $v_x, v_y \in V_n$  are linked by an edge  $e \in E_n$  if there exists an edge between  $v_x$  and  $v_y$  in at least a layer of  $L_j$ . The obtained results are reported in Figure 8.

	Multilayer network			Single networks		
	Nodes	Edges	Weights	Nodes	Edges	Weights
<b>Mean</b>	22.32	27.44	70.08	15.89	19.69	54.51
<b>Std</b>	23.86	34.73	136.95	22.19	32.19	125.99
<b>Min</b>	5	4	4	3	2	2
<b>25%</b>	10	9	10.5	6	5	6
<b>50%</b>	15	17	21	9	9	12
<b>75%</b>	23	28.5	39.5	15.5	18.5	24.5
<b>Max</b>	178	245	824	178	245	824

Table 8: Ego networks statistics for the top users extracted from Multilayer and single Layers Networks



From the analysis of Table 8, we can note several differences between the two approaches. Indeed, in the multilayer network, the users have larger ego networks w.r.t. number of nodes and edges. This means that these last users interact a lot on Twitter and engage in many more discussions compared to the ones extracted from the single networks analysis. Furthermore, we can observe an important difference between the multilayer and single networks perspectives in the Weights column, which reports the statistics of the edges' weights in the ego networks. Indeed, according to the former approach, the top users not only have a well-connected neighborhood, but they tend to interact much more with their neighbors than with the top users, according to the latter approach. Again, this feature highlights the peculiarity of the most influential users in the multilayer network to start and foster many discussions that do not end with a single tweet but continue for some time.

Finally, we want to investigate if both the approaches considered so far can highlight the topic discussions between the users having different perspectives. Following this reason, we compute the hashtags occurrences from the tweets corresponding to the most influential users, according to the three gold-standard hashtags categories introduced in Section 4, i.e., pro-vax, neutral, and anti-vax. The results are reported in Figure 8.

From the analysis of Figure 8, we can observe that the users tend to use neutral hashtags in their tweets. Since they have many followers watching their tweets, they probably have to think carefully about what they are publishing. We can also note that these tweets report many hashtags coming from the pro-vax and anti-vax set, with a slight preference for the former one. Even if the sets of influential users are not the same, we cannot see a meaningful difference.

However, in order to describe the discussion on these three topics, we need to take advantage of our model and project the topic layer to the user ones. In this way, we can analyze the level of interaction for each topic, study the corresponding most influential users and observe the differences between them.

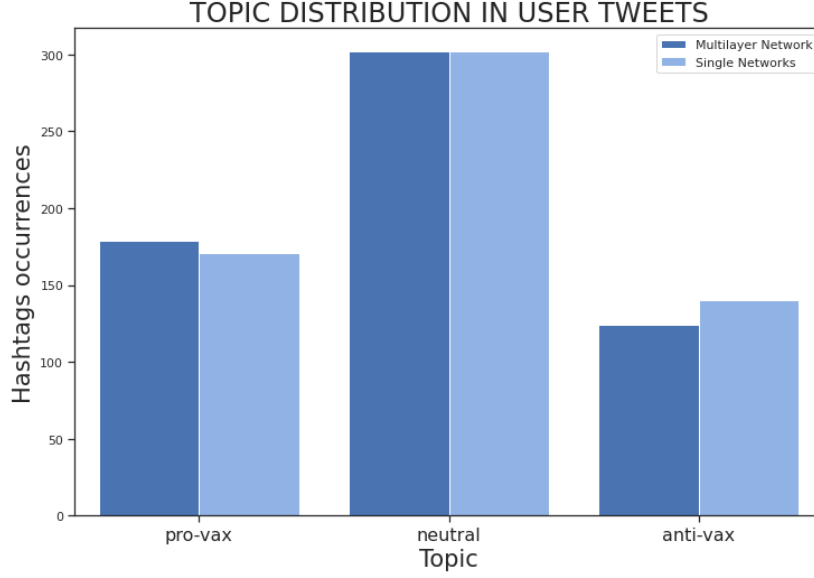


Figure 8: Gold-standard hashtags occurrences extracted from the tweets of the most influential users according to the single networks and multilayer network approaches

## 6. Analysis of topic-user projection

One of the strengths of our multilayer network approach is the possibility to project the topic layer  $L_t$  on the user layers  $L_u$ , which creates a new multilayer network  $\mathcal{M}_{V_u}^{V_t}$  focused on a specific topic or set of topics. In the specialization of our multilayer network to the Twitter dataset,  $L_t$  contains all the hashtags found in tweets. As pointed out in the analysis of tweet contents in Section 4.3 and in Di Giovanni et al. (2021), a discussion (such as pro-vax or anti-vax opinions) could be represented by a set of gold-standard hashtags. In our case, we want to study three different sets of gold-standard hashtag categories: *(i)* pro-vax, *(ii)* neutral, and *(iii)* anti-vax. The first group contains all the hashtags from tweets that somehow express a positive opinion about vaccines. The second group is made up of hashtags from tweets that talk about vaccines but do not show any positive or negative opinions. Finally, the third group contains all the hashtags from tweets that express a negative opinion about vaccines. Each group (anti-vax, neutral and pro-vax) is represented by those hashtags extracted as specified

750 in Section 4.

In our case, all the hashtags are modeled in the  $L_t$  layer. Thanks to this layer, it is possible to project our multilayer network in order to understand the polarization of users. Indeed, the projection let us build a new multilayer network where users are linked together if they used at least one common hashtag. 755 Formally, two users of  $L_u$  are linked together in the projection if they are linked to at least a hashtag node of  $L_t$  through an edge of  $E_{multi}$ . Once we obtained the projection  $\mathcal{M}_{V_u}^{V_t}$ , we split this in three different multilayer networks, one for each gold-standard hashtag category, i.e., pro-vax, neutral, and anti-vax. This step will help us to better understand the different dynamics in those three 760 categories of users. As a first analysis, we computed the number of nodes and edges present in each layer after the projection. We removed the isolated nodes and reported the results in Figure 9.

From Figure 9, we can observe that the neutral projection has more nodes and edges w.r.t. the pro-vax and anti-vax projections. Probably it is an expected 765 result since the neutral set of topics contains hashtags that do not create controversies and do not offend anyone’s opinions. Moreover, we can see that the anti-vax projection has fewer nodes and edges than the pro-vax one. It seems that the anti-vax topics do not connect many users and tend to establish fewer edges (which means fewer interactions) between users. Finally, it is interesting 770 noting that the number of nodes and edges of neutral and pro-vax projections are close only in the “Reply To” network.

After that, we investigate the most influential users in terms of degree centrality for each projection. Previously, we observed that the considered networks are scale-free networks. As a matter of fact, the multilayer networks of the pro- 775 vax, neutral, and anti-vax projections are scale-free too, which means that the degree centrality distributions of the users are power laws. Following the previous reasoning, we can study the most influential users in order to extract the fundamental characteristics of the multilayer network.

The behavior of the most influential users could be studied thanks to their 780 ego networks. As in the previous sections, the ego network of a user is defined

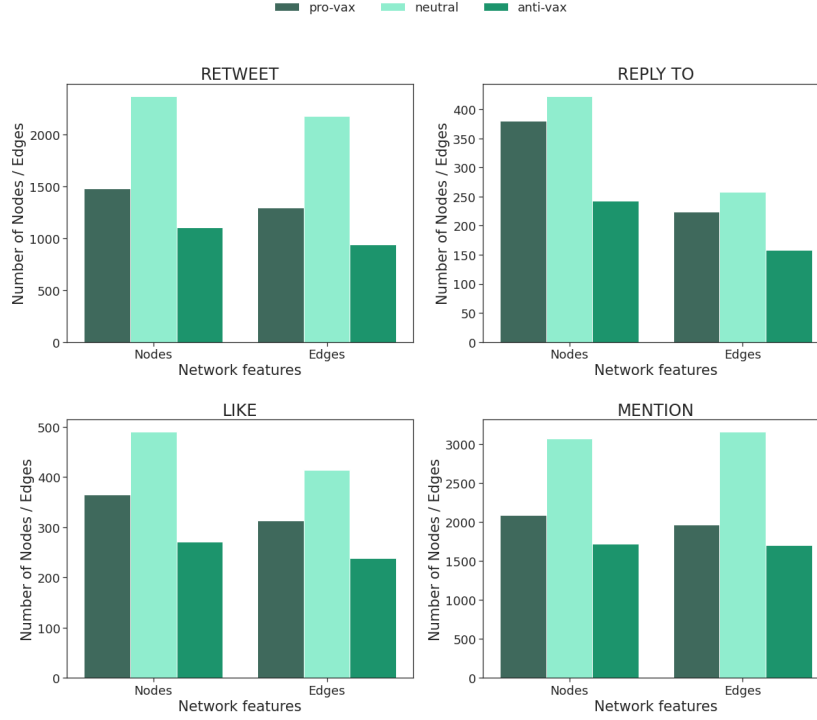


Figure 9: Number of nodes and edges of the  $L_{rt}$ ,  $L_r$ ,  $L_l$  and  $L_m$  layers of  $\mathcal{M}$  after the pro-vax, neutral, and anti-vax projections

thanks to the composition of his/her ego networks in each layer. As a first step, we reported the average number of nodes, edges, and interactions in Figure 10, which confirms the previous conclusion about the three projections. In order to prove the effectiveness of the holistic perspective of the multilayer network, we computed the average number of nodes, edges, and interactions of the ego networks of the most influential users according to the single networks approach.

From Figure 10, we can see that the neutral projection has more nodes and edges w.r.t. the other topics. Moreover, there are no significant differences between pro-vax and anti-vax, which means that the most communicative users of both parties tend to attract few users. However, there is an interesting peculiarity of the anti-vax projections. Indeed, the weights of the ego network edges are much higher than in the other cases. This means that, even if the most influen-

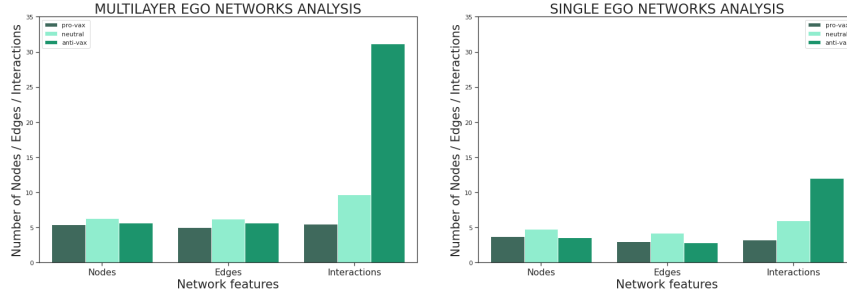


Figure 10: Average number of nodes, edges, and interactions of the ego network of the most influential users for pro-vax, neutral and anti-vax projections for both multilayer network and single networks approaches

tial anti-vax users tend to attract fewer users, they make a lot of interactions (in terms of retweets, replies, mentions, and likes) with the same follower/following.

795 This could represent behavior in which the anti-vax users tend to nurture each other opinions without involving too many users. It is worth noting that the ego networks of the most influential users according to the single networks approach are slightly smaller in terms of nodes and edges compared to the ones extracted from the multilayer network approach. The most evident difference regards the

800 mean number of interactions. Indeed, in all the projections, the top users according to the multilayer network approach have more interactions compared to the single networks case (especially in the anti-vax projection), which means that they communicate more with their neighborhood.

In order to deepen our analysis and confirm the previous hypothesis, we

805 computed the average density and clustering coefficient of the ego networks of the most influential users in Figure 11. As in the previous case, we compute the same statistics for the ego networks of the top users according to the single networks approach.

Figure 11 contains interesting insights that are in line with the conclusions

810 derived from Figure 10. In the multilayer case, even if the ego networks of anti-vax users have slightly fewer nodes and edges (which we point out is a negligible difference), the anti-vax ego networks are denser and have a higher clustering

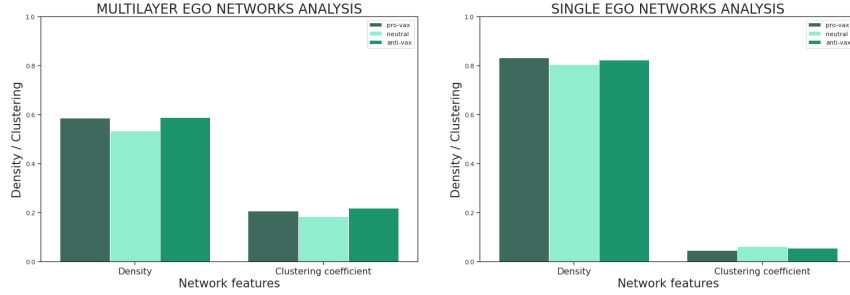


Figure 11: Average density and clustering coefficient of the ego networks of the most influential users for pro-vax, neutral, and anti-vax projections for both multilayer network and single networks approaches

coefficient. This highlights the fact that if a user joins an ego network of another one, he/she tends to be well-connected therein. The higher clustering coefficient  
815 of the anti-vax projection w.r.t. pro-vax and neutral projections means that the users present in an ego network tend to trust each other since they retweet, reply, mention, and/or like reciprocally, nurturing each other opinions (and also supporting it). Moreover, the pro-vax projection has the lowest clustering coefficient value, which means a low level of trust among users in the ego networks.  
820 Also in this case, the comparison between the multilayer network and single networks perspectives is interesting. Indeed, the ego networks of the latter approach are denser than the ones of the former. As reported in Figure 10, the ego networks of the single networks approach have fewer nodes leading to a higher density even if there are less edges. However, we can see a high difference in the  
825 clustering coefficient results. Indeed, in the multilayer case, the ego networks tend to have more triads than in the case of the single networks, which means that in the former perspective the users are much closer to their neighborhood. This result is consistent with the high number of interactions of the top users according to the multilayer network.

830 Finally, we verified if the most influential users of a topic could be influential in another one. Roughly speaking, we wanted to observe if the most communicative pro-vax users are still communicative in the anti-vax case. This describes

possible contamination of topics, which surely convey discussions and (probably, but not so often) could lead to a change of mind in one direction or another.

835 For this reason, we computed the intersections of the Top-100, Top-200, Top-500, and Top-800 users of the pro-vax, neutral, and anti-vax projections, and reported the results in Figure 12.

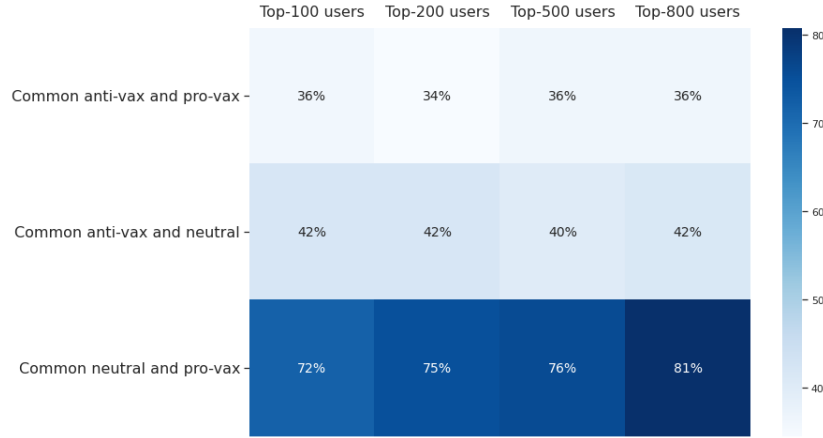


Figure 12: Percentage of common users among the most influential ones extracted from pro-vax, neutral, and anti-vax projections

From the analysis of Figure 12, we can derive interesting insights. Indeed, we can see that in all the cases, there are few users that are influential in both pro-vax and anti-vax projections (35%). This leads us to conclude that the contamination between the two extreme parties is low. Moreover, we can observe a low (but still higher than the previous case) intersection between the neutral and anti-vax projections (41%), which is not the case between neutral and pro-vax projections (75%). This means that, while the pro-vax influential users tend to express themselves through both pro-vax and neutral hashtags, the anti-vaxxer ones mainly leverage the typical hashtags of their field. Obviously, this behavior does not help to foster discussions, nor causes common users to change their minds.

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## 7. Discussion

850 In the previous sections, we highlighted the differences between the representation of Twitter through a multilayer network and single networks. We figured out that the multilayer network approach is able to extract top users with more nodes (+40.46%), edges (+38.36%), and interactions with their neighbors (+28.56%) than the ones retrieved from the single network approach. The  
855 multilayer top users according to the degree centrality carry a lot more information than the single networks ones and allow us to unveil their communication patterns when dealing with specific topics.

Thanks to our multilayer network approach, we identified that the anti-vaxxers tend to have ego networks denser (+14.39%) and more cohesive (+64.2%)  
860 than the ones of pro-vaxxer, which leads to a higher number of interactions among anti-vaxxers than among pro-vaxxers (+393.89%). These findings point out the different users' behavior in the three lines of thought. For instance, we figured out that the top anti-vaxxers tend to attract fewer users but they make a lot of interactions (in terms of retweets, replies, mentions, and likes) with their  
865 followers, which highlights the nurturing of each other opinions. Moreover, we identified a high clustering coefficient of the anti-vax projection w.r.t. pro-vax and neutral projections. This means that anti-vaxxers tend to show mutual trust and support for their opinions. On the other hand, the pro-vax projection has the lowest clustering coefficient value, which means a low level of trust among  
870 the corresponding users. In order to summarize our findings, we report in Table 9 the most important differences in the ego networks of pro-vax, anti-vax, and neutral influential users.

Besides the results we obtained from the Twitter dataset, our multilayer network approach has other interesting advantages. For instance, our approach  
875 is not tied to any social network. Indeed, we can think to adapt this approach to any setting in which there are posts made by users and possible interactions between them (such as reposting, liking, tagging, etc.). We can represent any relationship in any social network and derive the corresponding topics from



	Pro-vax	Neutral	Anti-vax
# Nodes	Medium	High	Low
# Edges	Medium	High	Low
# Interactions	Low	Medium	High
Density	Medium	Low	High
Clustering Coeff.	Low	Medium	High
Findings	Low level of trust and interactions	Big ego networks but low trust among users	Small ego networks but high trust and high number of interactions
	High overlap with the neutral topic	High overlap with the pro-vax topic	Low overlap with the other topics
	Mostly support pro-vax and neutral topics	Mostly support neutral and pro-vax topics	Strongly support their topic

Table 9: Summary of our findings thanks to the multilayer network approach

the texts of the posts through a content analysis on hashtags or specific key-  
880 words defined by the domain experts. Moreover, we can also think to extend  
our approach by including the user metadata as node attributes and investigate  
possible patterns according to the users' interactions. These two observations  
will be the subject of our next future efforts.

It is also worth pointing out that our multilayer approach is not strictly  
885 related to a language or a context. This is evident from the generic content  
analysis we performed as the preliminary step of the overall approach. Starting  
from a set of posts (not necessarily tweets, it depends on the considered plat-  
form) in any language, we can extract the most important hashtags or keywords  
according to their frequencies which will identify the topics discussed on that  
890 social network. Then, we can create the multilayer network of users and topics  
and investigate it as we did in this paper. It will be our interest to study how  
people deal with the same topics in different languages since there will probably  
be some cultural differences.

However, we identify some limitations to our approach. First of all, we ex-  
895 tracted the information about the tweet likes thanks to the free Twitter API,

which limits the number of requests to get data. We are restricted to adding further information to the original dataset, and hence to model new concepts.

A further limitation regards the fact that we have considered only the verified users. On the one hand, this helped us to remove Twitter bots, which  
900 hide the interesting patterns present in the multilayer network, due to their overwhelming number of tweets, and their focus on a specific topic and/or action (e.g. like, retweet). On the other hand, we can observe that some networks (such as “Reply to” and “Like” networks) have low density and a low level of interactions, probably due to the missing engagements with unverified accounts.  
905 Following our reasoning, we are only describing the interactions between verified users over specific topics. However, it is straightforward to investigate the interactions of all Twitter users (including bots and malicious users) by considering all the tweets present in the dataset and then performing the same analysis we did in our case.

910 Another limitation regards the way we investigated the discussion on Twitter. We have assumed that a discussion is made up of several tweets on the same topics, but we did not consider the conversation perspective. Indeed, a conversation defines new relationships between tweets, which could highlight new ways to observe the evolution of the discussion. However, our multilayer  
915 approach is generic enough to model a conversation in a social network considering the chains of posts of the discussion, and then study the characteristics of the involved users.

Finally, another limitation regards the user-topic projection of our multilayer network. Indeed, we found that this particular projection requires a high number  
920 of tweets to describe the topic interactions present in the users’ tweets. The reasoning behind this phenomenon could regard the low frequency of the users writing tweets on the same set of topics.

## 8. Conclusion

In this paper, we have presented a multilayer network-based approach to  
925 investigate discussions on a social network and prove that, in the anti-vax com-  
munity there is a strong interaction and trust among the various users we an-  
alyzed. Our approach is general and not tailored to a specific scenario, which  
gives the freedom to study any debate carried out on any social medium. In  
order to prove the validity of our approach, we have tested it on the Twitter  
930 scenario. We have mapped the most important user interactions of Twitter to  
the layers of the multilayer network and created the corresponding relationships  
(i.e., “Retweet”, “Reply To”, “Mention”, and “Like”). Moreover, we have added  
a further layer representing the topic detected on the user tweets, which has then  
been used to project the multilayer network and obtain a new one focused on  
935 specific subjects. To investigate the COVID-19 vaccine discussions on Twitter,  
we have employed the AvaxTweets dataset. Then, we have shown the differences  
between multilayer and single networks approaches, which proved the strengths  
of the former. Finally, we have analyzed the pro-vax, neutral, and anti-vax dis-  
cussions based on the extracted gold-standard hashtags, and shown the high  
940 level of interaction and trust among users employing anti-vax topics.

However, this paper should not be considered as an ending point. Indeed, we  
plan to apply our multilayer network approach to other Twitter debates, such as  
political campaigns, climate changes, and so forth. We want to study the most  
influential verified users and observe their polarization over time. Moreover, we  
945 would like to analyze the projection of the layer  $L_u$  of users on the layer  $L_t$  of  
the topics. This will require many more tweets, but will highlight the subject  
co-occurrences according to the type of user interactions, and so the logical con-  
nections between hashtags from different lines of thought. In addition, we could  
think of the analysis of information dissemination patterns of users through our  
950 multilayer network, thanks to the presence of multiple types of relationships.  
For instance, this could be done by including a temporal factor in our model  
to represent the evolutions of discussion. Finally, we plan to identify the user

communities on our multilayer network model thanks to suitable algorithms. Starting from specific topics, it would be interesting to analyze the community  
 955 structures, their behavior over time, and the evolution of opinions inside the communities.

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