

## **Modelling Twitter Conversations in #Favela towards the Conceptualization of the eVoices of Unheard**

Nigel Williams

### **Abstract**

#### **Purpose**

The purpose of this study to shed light on the importance of social media hosted content related to socially-motivated discussions. Moving from the field of communication for development, the research leverages social media as a powerful tool for collecting and analyse peer-to-peer communication towards the conceptualization of eVoices of Unheard. The deep understanding of these conversation can generate recommendations for organizations and governments designing and providing interventions fostering local socio-economic development.

#### **Design/methodology/approach**

The study presents a large-scale analysis of social media interactions on the topic “#favela” to generate insights into a social network structure, narrative contents and meaning generated.

#### **Findings**

Structurally, the analysed networks are comparable with those presented in current academic literature; automatic text analysis confirmed the promise of the inner value of communication for development opening the floor to conceptualization of the “eVoices of unheard”, which is the collective and conscious use of social media to mediate community discussions about tangible and intangible issues related to socio-economic development.

#### **Originality/value**

Framed within the rise of interactive communication for development this research show that social media an support the notion of voice proposed by Couldry (2010) moving from process (i.e. the recording of the voice) towards value (i.e. the possibility of giving an account of one’s life and its conditions to have an impact on human life and resources) thereby understanding intangible issues related with socio-economic development.

## Modelling Twitter Conversations in #Favela towards the Conceptualization of the eVoices of Unheard

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### 1. Introduction

Although research on social media has been very popular in social sciences, such as marketing (e.g. Godey et al., 2016) and politics (Eddington, 2018), it is argued here that an understanding of user-generated content aggregation can also transform and enhance research about socio-economic development, informing policies and interventions (Blazquez & Domenech, 2018). In fact, social media users are part of a digital network and they participate in different conversations based on interest, clustering around the so-called 'Communities of Interest' (e.g. Papadopoulos, Kompatsiaris, Vakali, & Spyridonos, 2012). Previous studies pointed out how this form of digital communication can provide insights into socially-motivated discussions (Inversini, Sage, Williams, & Buhalis, 2015) as a catalyst for social change for the advocacy of social issues (Isa & Himelboim, 2018) and support for marginalized communities (Dagron & Tufte, 2006). Whoever participates in these conversations shares issues relevant to/for the community (at large) and engages with each other on this basis (Siapera, Boudourides, Lenis, & Suiter, 2018) rather than on a commercial basis, as in marketing (e.g. Chu & Kim, 2011).

In emerging markets, social media platforms are seen as tools used to promote democratic and inclusive discussions (Nemer, 2016) because they provide an interactive means for stimulating conversations, information search and, ultimately, residents' engagement in rural and urban communities, as well as in informal settlements, such as ones like Brazilian favelas. Social media support local forms of expression (Gallaughar & Ransbotham, 2010) thus widening the possibility of people, who are generally 'unheard' (i.e. whose opinions are not relevant for decision makers), having a forum for discussion and ultimately giving voice (Siapera et al., 2018) to marginalized people to eventually influence decisions that affect their lives (Tacchi, 2012).

This paper builds on related research of social network structures (i.e. Williams et al., 2015) and social media narratives (i.e. Kozinets et al., 2010), as well as on the call for multi-disciplinary research in the field of social media analysis and unstructured data (Chang, 2018). It extends the theoretical boundaries of extant research by providing insights into the network structure and content shared as well as meanings discussed by given users in a developing context, overcoming traditional approaches that look in the relational structure (Himelboim, Smith, & Shneiderman, 2013) or in the content or, often, the hashtags (e.g. Eddington, 2018). Methodologically, this is in line with the claim of Lipizzi and colleagues (2016) who called for a more holistic view of social media analysis, essentially combining structural analysis with a lexical one to shed light on structure as well as on content/meaning. Theoretically, this work aims at contributing to the discussion of voice as a process (i.e. the network analysis, its actors etc.) and voice as a value (i.e. topics discussed within digitally hosted communities - Couldry, 2010). Authors claim that this understanding could trigger actions towards valuing the opinions of the marginalized to support the organization of human life and resources.

In order to do so, this research undertakes a large-scale analysis based on one year's public conversations on twitter.com mentioning the hashtag #favela. While existing research has suggested that social media may be less critical than traditional media (Laurell & Sandström, 2018), this research indicates that social media can host a number of relevant discussions. This

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3 work proposes the conceptualization of the ‘e-Voices of the Unheard’, a new construct that  
4 extends current understanding of user-generated content aggregation towards a more holistic  
5 view of social media as a mediator of socially-motivated discussion in urban places.  
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## 9 **2. Literature Review**

### 10 2.1. The Concept of Voice

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13 Lister (2004) defines ‘voice’ as the right to participate in decision making across social,  
14 economic, cultural and political spheres and as a crucial human and citizenship right and a  
15 critical component in our understanding of what constitutes poverty. Tacchi (2008) reinforces  
16 this definition by adding that ‘voice poverty’ can be understood as the denial of the right of  
17 people to influence decisions that affect their lives and the right to participate in that decision  
18 making. The notion of voice helps in overcoming the reductionist interpretation of development  
19 (i.e. achieving material progress) to look more into subjectively felt (Siapera et al., 2018) and  
20 relational wellbeing (Tacchi, 2012). Therefore, the notion of ‘voice’ can be understood as a  
21 multidimensional construct linked with a variety of dimensions of development (Couldry,  
22 2010). One relevant example of the application of the ‘voice’ concept to a developing context  
23 is the World Bank Publication ‘Voices of the Poor’ (Narayan-Parker, 2000) which gathered poor  
24 and marginalized people’s views on poverty. Common characteristics of voicelessness relate to  
25 the concepts of powerlessness, dependency and humiliation framed within an own  
26 psychological dimension of poverty. These characteristics are related with the concept of  
27 marginalization that is defined broadly here as involving exclusion from participation in normal  
28 spheres of social life, leading to a state of economic, cultural or political deprivation (Wong,  
29 Li, & Song, 2007).  
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35 Voice is about the agency to represent oneself and the right to express an opinion (Tacchi 2012).  
36 As in Couldry (2010), the concept of voice can be understood both as a process and as a value;  
37 process refers to the possibility of giving an account of one’s life and its conditions whilst value  
38 refers to the act of valuing and choosing to value those frameworks for organizing human life  
39 and resources that themselves value voice. Therefore, value should be considered as an end  
40 rather than a means of voice Tacchi (2008). So far, there has been interest in the basic act of  
41 voice, not the wider reasons for valuing voice (Tacchi 2012). It is therefore imperative that the  
42 act of valuing and choosing to value those frameworks for organizing human life and resources  
43 themselves value voice as ‘open social arrangements’ (Smith & Elder, 2010).  
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47 The concept of voice is deeply rooted in the body of knowledge of communication for  
48 development (Waisbord, 2008) which sees communication as participatory processes for social  
49 change and dialogue as key to socially-inclusive processes (Fraser & Villet, 1994).  
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51 For communication in general and in communication for development, the advent of digital  
52 media has shifted the communication paradigm towards participatory and interactive  
53 communication models (Hoffman & Novak, 1996; Selwyn, 2004). There is growing evidence  
54 (Dagron & Tufte, 2006) that marginalized groups are utilising a range of digital platforms to  
55 challenge dominant perspectives on their political and cultural identity. Loader and Mercea,  
56 (2011) highlight that digital communication at a minimum plays a disruptive role, “challenging  
57 traditional interests and modes of communicative power”. Digital media particularly allow  
58 marginalised groups to reach out across international boundaries to agencies (government and  
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3 non-government) in order to publicise their predicament and garner support for action that  
4 addresses the conditions that cause their marginalization (Castells, 2013).  
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6 Participatory and interactive communication promote horizontal models of development rather  
7 than vertical, one-way, top-down or trickledown models more suited to modernization and  
8 economic growth approaches to development (Servaes, 2007; Waisbord, 2008). Although  
9 modernization and diffusion models of development and of development communication are  
10 generally considered to be outdated (Waisbord 2008), they still appear to guide policy and  
11 practice (Mansell, 2011). One other important issue related to communication models in  
12 development is the key aspect of listening (Honneth, 1996). To follow Couldry (2010), it is  
13 crucial to listen to voice(s) in order to move from process to value; in fact, development  
14 communication and, particularly, the concept of voice requires recognition.  
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18 Digital social networks and hosted conversations (i.e. social media - O'Reilly, 2007) offer for  
19 the first time the unprecedented opportunity to listen and analyse interactive conversations in  
20 different domains, including politics (Kruikemeier, 2014), travel and tourism (Hays, Page, &  
21 Buhalis, 2013), product environments, including goods and services (Tsagkias et al., 2011) and  
22 organization in general (Mangold & Faulds, 2009). Anecdotal evidence is present in the  
23 literature about research discussing social media content and structure (Lipizzi, Iandoli, &  
24 Marquez, 2016) in a social context (Akaev, Korotayev, Issaev, & Zinkina, 2017). However,  
25 scant research has considered social media as a tool to listen to those marginalized and act  
26 accordingly (Siapera et al., 2018; Blazquez & Domenech, 2018), leveraging the power of social  
27 media to create real value for marginalized communities (Couldry, 2010).  
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## 31 2.2 The Rise of Social Media

  
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33 Social media sites host and distribute text, images and video content created by users (Parent,  
34 Plangger, & Bal, 2011). This information may not only be factual but can also include opinions  
35 and rumours (Dellarocas, 2003) shared with a variety of different publics. By overcoming space  
36 and time constraints (Holt, 2016), social media sites enable small, geographically-distributed  
37 groups of users to create and maintain discussions on niche and controversial topics (Kaplan &  
38 Haenlein, 2010), generating digital *crowd-cultures* (Holt, 2016). Academics and practitioners  
39 alike see social media as a new collaborative tool (Godey et al., 2016). Existing researches on  
40 social media have used methodologies that include surveys and interviews (e.g. Phua, Jin, &  
41 Kim, 2017) for investigating concepts related to users' perceptions, motivation and propensity  
42 towards a given subject (e.g. Leung, Law, van Hoof, & Buhalis, 2013). More recent research  
43 has started to examine social media postings directly (e.g. Lahuerta-Otero & Cordero-Gutiérrez,  
44 2016) in order to understand the topic or the network context of social media conversations (Lu  
45 & Stepchenkova, 2015).  
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50 In the latter domain and building on communication theories, Kozinets and colleagues (2010)  
51 provided a framework to describe social media conversation (using the lens of e-Word-of-  
52 Mouth - Hennig-Thurau, Gwinner, Walsh, & Gremler, 2004) being influenced by four  
53 important factors. These are (i) social media conversations being generally embedded in  
54 'character narratives' or enduring personal stories; (ii) communications taking place and being  
55 embedded in a given forum and/or digital location; (iii) the actual communication being  
56 affected by norms regulating the given communication space and (iv) the message being  
57 affected by the product or service under discussion (Kozinets et al., 2010). From a network  
58 perspective (Ahn, Han, Kwak, Moon, & Jeong, 2007), social media contribute to creating  
59 communities of interest (Brown & Duguid, 2001). Moving from this perspective, Williams and  
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3 colleagues (2015) described social media hosted conversations and the communities created by  
4 the participants in terms of size (volume of the conversations), span (pattern of topic  
5 engagement) and scope (geographic range of engaged stakeholders). Most of the academic  
6 research in this field has failed to merge the network, content and meaning dimensions (Lipizzi  
7 et al., 2016); there is therefore a call to bridge this gap methodologically.  
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### 10 2.3 Social Media in Emerging Markets

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12 Social media platforms can be seen as tools for promoting democratic and inclusive discussions  
13 in emerging market contexts (Nemer, 2015). Previous research in developing contexts  
14 examined the impact of social media in politics and riots (e.g. Pang & Ng, 2016). It has been  
15 reported that social media had an influence on Egypt's revolution because the former Egyptian  
16 President, Mubarak, shut down the Internet in the whole nation for 5 days in 2011 and that  
17 YouTube played a crucial role in Iranian Elections in 2009 (Ali, 2011). A more instrumental  
18 use of social media, especially twitter.com, was reported within the Little India Riot in  
19 Singapore, in which the social network played a critical role in updating the population about  
20 the evolution of the riot (Pang & Ng, 2016). Monroy-Hernández and Spiro (2013) gave an  
21 account of Brazilian protests in 2013 by collecting 1.5 Mio tweets in 20 days and analysing the  
22 content and structure of the created networks. Results showed the high activity of the top 1%  
23 of users re-posting protest-relevant content in networks with cyclic behaviour. However, there  
24 is an open discussion about the role of social media during political unrest. Commentators have  
25 viewed the role of social media in these episodes in different ways. On one side, Khondker  
26 (2011) praised the role of social media in light of the absence of an open media and a civil  
27 society whereas, on the other side, Fuchs (2012 - p. 383) argues that "social media has become  
28 a new fetishism of technology that distracts from the contradictions of capitalism underlying  
29 contemporary societal changes and conflicts"  
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35 Social media can be classified as non-traditional sources of social and economic data that needs  
36 the internet for working (Blazquez & Domenech, 2018). Even if there is increasing penetration  
37 of the Internet in almost every social and economic activity, there is, however, a call for a  
38 nuanced view on social media and web2.0 in a developing country context (e.g. McLennan,  
39 2015). The emancipatory promises of social media are also questioned critically as those who  
40 face social and digital marginalization have yet to experience them (Nemer, 2016). A country's  
41 economic circumstances, which result in differences in disposable income, can result in  
42 differing usage levels of social media (Ali, 2011). This has been mitigated somewhat by the  
43 development of new business models, such as pre-paid internet usage and state/non-profit  
44 organizations' intervention to improve internet access (Aksoy et al., 2013) via, for example,  
45 community-based multimedia telecentres, Community Technology Centres (CTCs) and LAN  
46 Houses (Rega, Vannini, Fino, & Cantoni, 2013).  
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51 Nonetheless, social media provide the unprecedented possibility to listen to marginalized  
52 people's socially motivated discussions (Inversini et al., 2015), thus understanding tangible and  
53 intangible issues related with their life, their community and, ultimately, local socio-economic  
54 development (Pimmer, Linxen, & Gröhbiel, 2012). As a virtual public space, social media can  
55 function in multiple roles outside of the sharing of commercial information about brands or  
56 eWOM, which can be influenced by country context (Rauchfleisch & Kovic, 2016). Social  
57 media can build a collective identity in users who share and comment on a given content  
58 (Dobusch & Schoeneborn, 2015). They can be seen as a catalyst to support local forms of  
59 expression, thereby widening the possibility of marginalized people having a forum and voice  
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3 for discussion (Nemer, 2015). This will help in overcoming the reductionist interpretation of  
4 development (i.e. achieving material progress) to look more into subjectively felt and relational  
5 wellbeing (Tacchi, 2012).  
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## 7 2.4 The Context of the Study

9 Brazilian favelas have witnessed a dramatic expansion of digital technology usage (Nemer,  
10 2013). Pew Research Institute reported a growing adoption rate for the internet in Brazil, from  
11 49% in 2013 to 70% in 2017 (pewresearch.org, 2018); however, Nemer (2016), who conducted  
12 an ethnographic enquiry in Brazilian informal settlements, confirmed that, as Neri (2012)  
13 suggested, only a small portion of favela residents are effectively connected to the internet.  
14 Nevertheless, there are active Community Technology Centres (CTCs) and LAN Houses where  
15 residents use connections to surf the web and, especially, utilise social media (Nemer, 2016).  
16 Favela residents are conscious and active social media users (Nemer, 2015) and their use of  
17 technology goes beyond the functional and utilitarian frame of modern development paradigms.  
18 In Nemer's research (2016), social media were seen as sources of inspiration, training and well-  
19 being promotion, as well as a tool to overcome social deprivation. Within the social media  
20 landscape, Twitter seems to be one of the major social networks used in the country; following  
21 Statista (2019), Brazil ranks as 7<sup>th</sup> country worldwide for twitter users (8.15 million). Twitter  
22 is popular in the country both for its open structure, which allows direct communication and  
23 contact with popular figures (Fastenberg, 2010), and for its ease of use as a communication tool  
24 during political unrest and riots (Monroy-Hernández & Spiro, 2013).  
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30 However, as Kleine (2010) maintains, empowerment is achieved when people are able to  
31 choose their desired outcome; social media can therefore represent an initial step in the  
32 community empowerment process. This research uses the #favela to identify conversations  
33 about Brazilian informal settlements in general without looking specifically at any of them.  
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## 36 **3. Research Design**

37 Framed within the rise of interactive communication for development (Selwyn, 2004), the  
38 overarching aim of this research is to understand if social media and, in particular, twitter.com  
39 can support the notion of voice proposed by Couldry (2010). This involves moving from  
40 process (i.e. the recording of the voice) towards value (i.e. the possibility of giving an account  
41 of one's life and its conditions to have an impact on human life and resources), thereby  
42 understanding intangible issues related with socio-economic development (Pimmer et al.,  
43 2012). This will be achieved following Lipizzi and colleagues' (2016) notion of integrating  
44 structure, content and meaning in social networking analysis by deeply engaging with a network  
45 (Williams et al., 2015) and communication (Kozinets et al., 2010) perspectives. The research  
46 proposed the direct investigation of social media postings (Lu & Stepchenkova, 2014) to  
47 examine the use of social media (Nemer, 2016) in a developing country context. Data obtained  
48 from non-traditional socio-economic sources are generally large, heterogeneous and  
49 unstructured or semi-structured (Blazquez & Domenech, 2018); despite their potential for  
50 treating socio-economic data, the application of analysis and mining techniques in the socio-  
51 economic development field, is still at an early stage.  
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56 In order to tackle this issue, this research moves from the work of Blazquez & Domenech  
57 (2018), who highlighted the need of using non-traditional, unstructured (big) data to inform  
58 socio-economic research. The study presents large-scale analysis of social media interactions  
59 for the topic “#favela” (Nemer, 2016) on twitter.com. Conversations presenting the hashtag  
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3 “#favela” were archived utilising the online service Netlytics.com. Twitter.com is popular in  
4 Brazil (Brazil is the 7<sup>th</sup> country by Twitter.com user base – Statista, 2019) and even if does not  
5 have the largest base of social media users, it has particular strengths for this research area.  
6 These are (i) Twitter.com updates do not require significant online bandwidth, making it  
7 accessible to individuals with limited or intermittent access to the internet, such as  
8 underprivileged groups; (ii) the default option for Twitter.com posts is ‘public’, which enables  
9 any user to interact with content supporting multiple modes of communication that incorporate  
10 individual and group information interactions. These two features enable the creation of various  
11 discussion groups of variable size and the ‘real-time’ nature of Twitter.com supports the  
12 creation of discussions about events, such as protests, as they unfold (Kwak, Lee, Park & Moon,  
13 2010). Finally, (iii) Twitter.com provides access to historical data and metadata that enable  
14 analysis of online discussions generated at a particular point in time later.  
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### 19 3.1 Research Methodology

#### 20 3.1.1 Social Network Analysis

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22 Social media like twitter.com, create virtual social communities (Shu & Chuang, 2011) by  
23 enabling information-sharing and interpersonal relationship ties of varying strength between  
24 users (Etzioni, 1998). More active users having frequent contacts with others are considered  
25 strong ties, whereas weak ties tend to have unidirectional, less frequent contact with other  
26 members (Gilbert & Karahalios, 2009). Strong ties tend to dominate information exchange  
27 within network subgroups or clusters whilst weak ties connect sub-groups or clusters,  
28 facilitating information distribution (Haythornthwaite, 2001). In the social media environment,  
29 norms and expectations for communications are heavily influenced by users with stronger ties,  
30 i.e. influencers in social media marketing (Lindsay et al., 2015), which can shape the structure  
31 and content of the network (DeSanctis & Poole, 1994) and can support the process of diffusion  
32 of dominant meanings. The structure and content/meaning of twitter.com discussions can be  
33 examined from interaction or network perspectives, known as Social Network Analysis (SNA)  
34 (Hansen, Shneiderman, & Smith, 2010). SNA has been used in various fields, such as  
35 management (Sedereviciute & Valentini, 2011), sociology (Mützel, 2009) and international  
36 development (Friend & Rapport, 1991) to examine relationships between entities. For business  
37 and management research, SNA applications fall into two domains. The first stream attempts  
38 to explain the influence of social networks on real world outcomes, such as Social Capital  
39 Theory (Antoniadis & Charmantzi, 2016). The second domain uses SNA as a means to identify  
40 and visualise patterns of interactions among users to identify the influence on information flow  
41 and, hence, communication (Culotta & Cutler, 2016). SNA has also been used to examine the  
42 influence of relational ties on the diffusion of e-WoM (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004) on social  
43 media (Lee, Lee, Kim & Lee, 2013) and the roles particular actors perform in sharing review  
44 data (Hinz, Schulze, & Takac, 2014). It is expected that the network formed by the actor in this  
45 context will feature both personalities and organizations as nodes on the network (Williams et  
46 al., 2015).  
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#### 54 3.1.2 Automated Text Analysis

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56 Whilst network approaches can provide insight on interactions between entities, they do not  
57 provide deep analysis of the content of interactions (Inversini et al., 2015). Content in  
58 twitter.com can take the form of unstructured text data and can provide additional understanding  
59 of social media discussions (Carley & Palmquist, 1992). Furthermore, as in Lipizzi and  
60 colleagues (2016), the study of meaning within communities of interest can give additional

insights, enhancing content and structure studies. Common social media discussion topics and narratives, such as politics (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, & Cook, 2001), news (Tsagkias et al., 2011), entertainment (Atefeh & Khreich, 2015) and products and services (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2003), are likely to appear in the analysis. However, Twitter.com data can be unstructured and difficult to understand using text approaches that merely attempt to count the frequency of keywords. This issue can be addressed by utilising additional approaches adopted from network analysis (Diesner & Carley, 2010) to understand not only keyword frequency but also to examine semantic interconnectivity among concepts (Carley & Palmquist, 1992). Narrative study in the form of network analysis can be performed on text data to identify patterns of word and language usage that can then be classified. In this form of analysis, words and their forms are considered “nodes” and lexical distance between them or co-occurrences can be modelled as links (van Meter & de Saint Léger, 2008). These networks can then be clustered into “lexical worlds” (Lebart, Salem & Berry, 1998) that can be examined to identify emergent topics of discussions in unstructured text.

### 3.2 Research Questions

Theoretically, this paper moves from the work of Couldry (2010) and Tacchi (2012). The in-depth analysis of social media conversations (i.e. structures of conversations, hedges of communities of interest and specific theme discussions) will support a more specific view of topics discussed (i.e. what communities care about) and their relative size and opinion leaders (i.e. how big are communities of interest and who are the opinion leaders). This will give a more nuanced view of the needs and wants of the communities and will help in ranking the importance of them. In accordance with Tacchi (2012), this will overcome a reductionist approach to development, enhancing the value of voice (Couldry, 2010). Since network structures can influence information flow (Gomez Rodriguez, Leskovec & Schölkopf, 2013), the differences in online network structures may generate an understanding of information sharing and communication strategies (Hanna, Rohm & Crittenden, 2011). The first question is therefore:

RQ1: *What is the variation of network structure by language type?*

Similarly, research has examined the type of entities considered to be key influencers (Lindsay, Kaykas-Wolff & Mathwick, 2015) and whose content is more likely to be observed by network participants (Kim, Pai, Bickart & Brunel, 2014). However, research has not examined them by language type or any temporal variations. In this paper, these users will be identified by the network metric of betweenness centrality, which indicates potential brokers or individuals, who act as an informational bridge between clusters in the network (Scott, Cooper, & Baggio, 2008). For this research, the top 10 users in each network in Research Questions 1 and 2 were identified by betweenness centrality. The profile of each of these users was reviewed and a classification framework adapted from Wu, Hofman, Mason & Watts (2011) was applied to categorise users. Therefore, the second research question is:

RQ2: *What are the types of key influencer by language type and season?*

Additionally, moving from a communication and narrative perspective (Kosinets et al., 2010) and from the construct of ‘voice’ elaborated by Tacchi (2012), the research looks into the semantic similarity (e.g. Eddington, 2018) of the two networks in terms of topic discussed. Research demonstrated that socially motivated conversation may appear generally if stimulated



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3 by organizations (Inversini et al., 2015) or if social movements find in social media a possibility  
4 of expression (Isa & Himelboim, 2018).  
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6 Therefore, the last research question is:  
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8 RQ3: *What are the differences in terms of topics of conversations between insiders (i.e. people*  
9 *living in the favela) and outsiders (i.e. people visiting the favela)?*  
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### 11 3.3 Data Collection and Filtering 12

13 Tweets with the hashtag '#favela' were collected for a period of one year using Netlytics.com.  
14 In current research, it is quite common to find single hashtag analysis (e.g. Stewart, Arif, Nied,  
15 Spiro, & Starbird, 2017) to explore the use of social media in a given context for a given purpose  
16 (Carroll, 2018). Authors acknowledge that this could be a simplistic approach but, considering  
17 the scale and complexity of the conversation, it was sufficient to investigate the aim and  
18 research questions at stake. Based on the peculiarities of Twitter.com outlined above (i.e. low  
19 bandwidth needed, public nature of the content, metadata associated to the content), the present  
20 research used: (i) time zone metadata and (ii) language as proxy to filter the data collected for  
21 the hashtag #favela. Time zone metadata was used to capture conversations containing the  
22 hashtag #favela that originated from Brazil in order to avoid discussions about the term  
23 happening in other countries with other meanings. The remaining tweets were separated by  
24 language into two different groups: Portuguese language (people living in the favela) and  
25 English language (people visiting the favela). Although this choice can trigger criticism (due to  
26 the fact that favela dwellers can also use the English language to communicate on Twitter), it  
27 seemed the most natural way to segment two different type of actors in the communication  
28 process, as twitter metadata were poor in creating users' profiles.  
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34 In order to prepare the sample for the two analyses (i.e. Social Network Analysis and text  
35 analysis), two different filtering operations have been made (See Figure 1 for details).  
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- 37 1. To identify the information network of users, interactions in the form of retweets, replies  
38 and mentions were identified (Stieglitz & Dang-Xuan, 2012), an approach used in  
39 previous works (Yardi & Boyd, 2010). This filtering technique allowed filtering only  
40 interactions among network participants. These were then modelled as a directed graph  
41 using Social Network Analysis (SNA - Gephi) and statistics were calculated to identify  
42 the overall structural characteristics and key users by network metrics. The text of  
43 Twitter profiles for these key users were then reviewed to identify their characteristics.  
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- 46 2. Automatic text analysis has been designed to generate a broad understating of the  
47 richness of the topic discussed rather than looking at the main (i.e. popular) discussions.  
48 To this end, duplicate tweet content (i.e. retweets are a piece of content semantically  
49 similar to original tweets) was removed to avoid bias related to popular conversations  
50 (i.e. music songs, twitter.com popular hashtags). This is consistent with previous work  
51 (e.g. Ratinaud & Marchand, 2015) and essential in order to shed light on the diverse  
52 range of topics discussed and on the breadth of subjects debated within the medium.  
53 Automatic text analysis was conducted using Iramuteq (<http://www.iramuteq.org/>) with  
54 the semantic similarity analysis technique (belonging to social representation theory –  
55 Levidow & Upham, 2017). This was developed by Flament (1981) in order to  
56 investigate the proximity and relations among elements of a given cluster. It does so by  
57 calculating a contingency coefficient between the elements of the cluster, which is  
58  
59  
60

called a similarity index (Flament, 1981). The semantic similarity analysis has, as output, a connected and cyclical graph (the maximum tree of the system), in which all elements are linked together and there is only one way to move from one element to another (Clemence, Doise & Lorenzi-Cioldi, 2014). Additional operations carried out on the corpus to facilitate text mining regarded the cancellation of text strings referring to URLs, videos and images, as well as user names, to gain pure data.

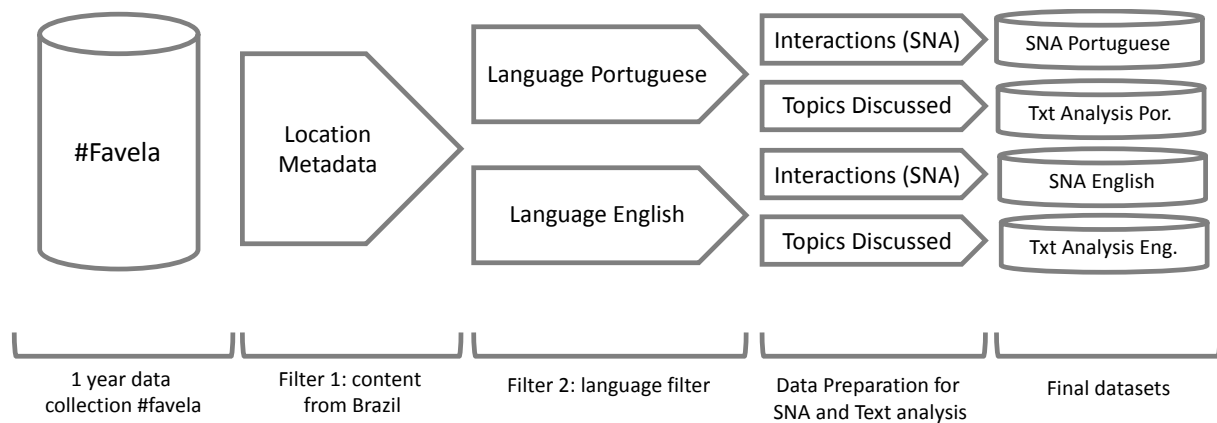


Figure 1: Dataset refinement process and filter applied to the Twitter.com corpus.

Figure 1 proposes the different steps to reach the final samples analysed in the research. The final sample for Social Network Analysis contained a total of 1,344,165 tweets (1,037,766 Portuguese plus 131,835 English). The final sample for text analysis contained a total of 1,722,015 tweets (1,529,931 Portuguese plus 192,084 English).

## 4. Results

### 4.1 Network Structure (RQ1)

Tables 1 and 2 present an overview of the twitter.com networks by language; networks were analysed on a three by three month basis (i.e. seasons) due to the huge number of edges and due to popular events taking place in Brazil (i.e. Carnival). The Portuguese networks are significantly larger than the English networks with significantly higher network diameter and path lengths, which suggests information may propagate more slowly through Portuguese language networks (Ahn, Han, Kwak, Moon & Jeong, 2007). The high modularity suggests the existence of sub-communities that may have distinct interests (Zaglia, 2013). Figure 1 presents, as an example, the illustration of the English language network sub-communities and the connections among them.

While the English language networks exhibit relatively little variation over time, the Portuguese language networks exhibit high seasonal variation. The network scale varies from a low of 102,632 users to a high of 166,355 for the periods starting June and September respectively. Furthermore, the March-May period exhibited a significant fall in network diameter and average path length. This finding may reflect a relative lull in online activity after the carnival period of peak tourism and domestic cultural activities (December-February).

<i>English Language Networks</i>	<i>December to February</i>	<i>March to May</i>	<i>June to August</i>	<i>September to November</i>
Vertices	16762	14773	14875	13734
Total Edges	17252	30912	26892	24115
Network Diameter	23	27	29	23
Average Path Length	8.075654	9.075129	9.111104	9.265306
Modularity	0.880111	0.89495	0.517104	0.518022
Centralization	0.0804	.070	.018	.06

Table 1: English Language Network's Description

<i>Portuguese Language Networks</i>	<i>Dec to Feb</i>	<i>March to May</i>	<i>June to August</i>	<i>September to November</i>
Vertices	114300	114950	102632	166355
Total Edges	151208	121244	106203	183985
Network Diameter	68	32	48	52
Modularity	0.941	0.923	0.928	0.895
Average Path Length	21.603	9.638	15.112	14.361
Centralization	.062	.006	.009	.010

Table 2: Portuguese Language Network's Description

The English and Portuguese language networks have significant differences in total edges, network diameter and path length. Since the diameters and average path lengths of the Twitter networks are relatively high, it suggests they may not be small world networks, further suggesting that these networks have scale-free properties similar to other real-world networks (Bild, Liu, Dick, Mao & Wallach, 2015). Large twitter networks with low centralization and a high average path length have been classified previously as fragmented (brand) clusters (Himmelboim et al., 2013). As indicated by the high modularity, they are a collection of diverse interests that communicate within distinct topic groups but not across them. These properties are also maintained across seasons, which suggests the relatively small number of individuals with high centrality scores can attract interest in these networks. These individuals can be named 'influencers' (Kim et al., 2014) within the networks; it is therefore possible for them to reach users in both the English and Portuguese language networks.

#### 4.2 Types of Influencer (RQ2)

A small number of individuals holding power positions within a network may be able to shape the conversation within it (Lindsay et al., 2015) by posting or re-posting a series of contents they find relevant. Prominent individual accounts for the English network are US music celebrities, ordinary individuals and English language media; the Portuguese network includes Brazilian celebrities, Brazilian NGOs, Brazilian online media and ordinary individuals. This is not surprising as most social media and twitter.com research had similar findings showing these individuals discussing political issues (Stieglitz & Dang-Xuan, 2012), entertainment topics (Souza et al., 2016) and sharing opinions about products and services (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2003). The structural characteristics of these networks, however, limit the extent of influence of a single individual account. The low centralization and high average path length suggest that multiple connections are required to reach the entire network. The networks (English and Portuguese) may be sustained by the interactions among them. Further, the high modularity indicates that distinct subgroups exist that may not interact with each other. These findings

1  
2  
3 indicate that the Portuguese and English Favela networks may be hosts to a variety of  
4 discussions which will be discussed in the next section.  
5

#### 6 4.3 Text Analysis (RQ3) 7

8 Text units were reduced into their original form before being separated into active forms and  
9 auxiliary forms (Ratinaud, 2013). Data were grouped visually according to the vicinity in which  
10 the words occur most frequently by utilising semantic similarity analysis (Clemence et al.,  
11 2014). Similar approaches were already used in the literature; for example, Eddington (2018)  
12 applied a similar technique to study the network around US elections. Graphs (i.e. Figure 2 and  
13 Figure 3) present the clusters of lemmas in accordance with Semantic Similarity analysis (REF)  
14 and quotes from the twitter dataset have been cherry picked in an explorative way to give more  
15 substance to the explanation of results.  
16  
17

##### 18 4.3.1 Semantic Similarity Analysis of the Portuguese Data Set 19

20 The Portuguese data set, when taken in its entirety, is dense (1,529,931 original tweets).  
21 Attempts were made to reduce the complexity for the entire data set into major evident clusters  
22 (Figure 2). These were identified as a funk, music and culture cluster (funk, música, cultura)  
23 shared by the community (comunidade). A series of tweets with cultural and community value  
24 (especially related to the carnival) can be found.  
25  
26

27 *“carnaval vai descer a favela toda”* [The entire favela will go to the Carnival]  
28

29  
30 And

31  
32 *“o lado bom de morar na favela e que sempre tem pessoa louca retardada, sempre tem*  
33 *alegria em meio de tanta coisa ruim e sempre tem samba”* [The good side of living in  
34 the favela is that there is always a crazy person, always in the middle of all the bad  
35 things and always samba]  
36  
37  
38

39  
40 Once more, a cluster around associations and representations is made with the notion of a house  
41 and home (casa) and the cluster of the pauper (pobre), in combination with his homestead  
42 (barraco), which is under threat of being destroyed (destruir); this was also related with the  
43 Olympic Games (i.e. RIO 2016, taking place near the favela).  
44

45 *“Favela começou a demolição apesar dos protestos dos moradores”* [Demolishing the  
46 favela began despite protests by residents]  
47  
48

49  
50 Additionally, a pobre (poor person) cluster emerges as a povo (people, citizen) cluster form,  
51 with associations of being humble (humilde), helpful (socorro – help) and the favela as a refuge  
52 for those amongst them who are discriminated against (discriminar). Especially, the notion of  
53 humble people and a humbling experience of going to a favela can be found frequently:  
54

55 *“Caminhar por uma favela é uma experiência de humildade é um ambiente muito*  
56 *complexo e em constante mudança”* [Walking through a favela is an experience of  
57 humbleness; it is a very complex environment and in constant change]  
58  
59  
60

And

1  
2  
3           *“Não quero dizer que lá não existe tristeza não quero dizer que lá não existe pobreza*  
4           *porque favela sem miséria nao é favela”* [I don't want to say that sadness doesn't exist;  
5           I don't want to say poverty doesn't exist because a favela without misery is not a favela]  
6  
7

8  
9 A very distinct cluster of money (dinheiro) also emerges, ascribing different connotations to it.  
10 On the one hand, it enables fleeing from misery but it is also associated with alcohol (álcool)  
11 abuse and immoral gain.  
12

13           *“os ricos fazem campanha contras as drogas mais pro outro lado promovem e ganham*  
14           *muito dinheiro com o alcool que é vendido na favela”* [The rich campaign against drugs  
15           but, on the other hand, they promote and gain a lot of money from the alcohol sold in  
16           the favela].  
17  
18  
19

20  
21 Moreover, solidarity, beauty and respect, as well as refuge from discrimination from others,  
22 creates humble (humilde) people (povo) in the favela. Out of this community, the upbringing  
23 of children has a complexity of its own related to these conditions. Thus, a criança (child) is  
24 associated with joy (alegría), purity (pureza) and sorriso (smile) but also with hardship  
25 (dificuldade) and the fear of someone's life being cut short in a gunfight (tiroteio).  
26  
27

28 The criança cluster (child cluster) contains and represents values such as comunidade  
29 (community) and esperança (hope), as well as positive and negative connoted words, such as  
30 sorriso (smile) and sofrimento (suffering) respectively. A smaller cultura-cluster comprises  
31 aspects of education (educação) and intelligence (inteligência), as well as compromise  
32 (compromise).  
33

34 As one can see, tweets related to these clusters indicate the complexity and interrelatedness of  
35 these concepts, connecting childhood, joy and despair:  
36

37           *“olho o sorriso da criança que na favela não tem mais esperança de viver*  
38           *tranquilamente”* [I see the smile of a child who does not have any hope of living  
39           peacefully in a favela]  
40  
41  
42

43           *“sorriso estampado no rosto dando um rôle na favela”* [A smile embossed on the face  
44           is giving a role to the favela]  
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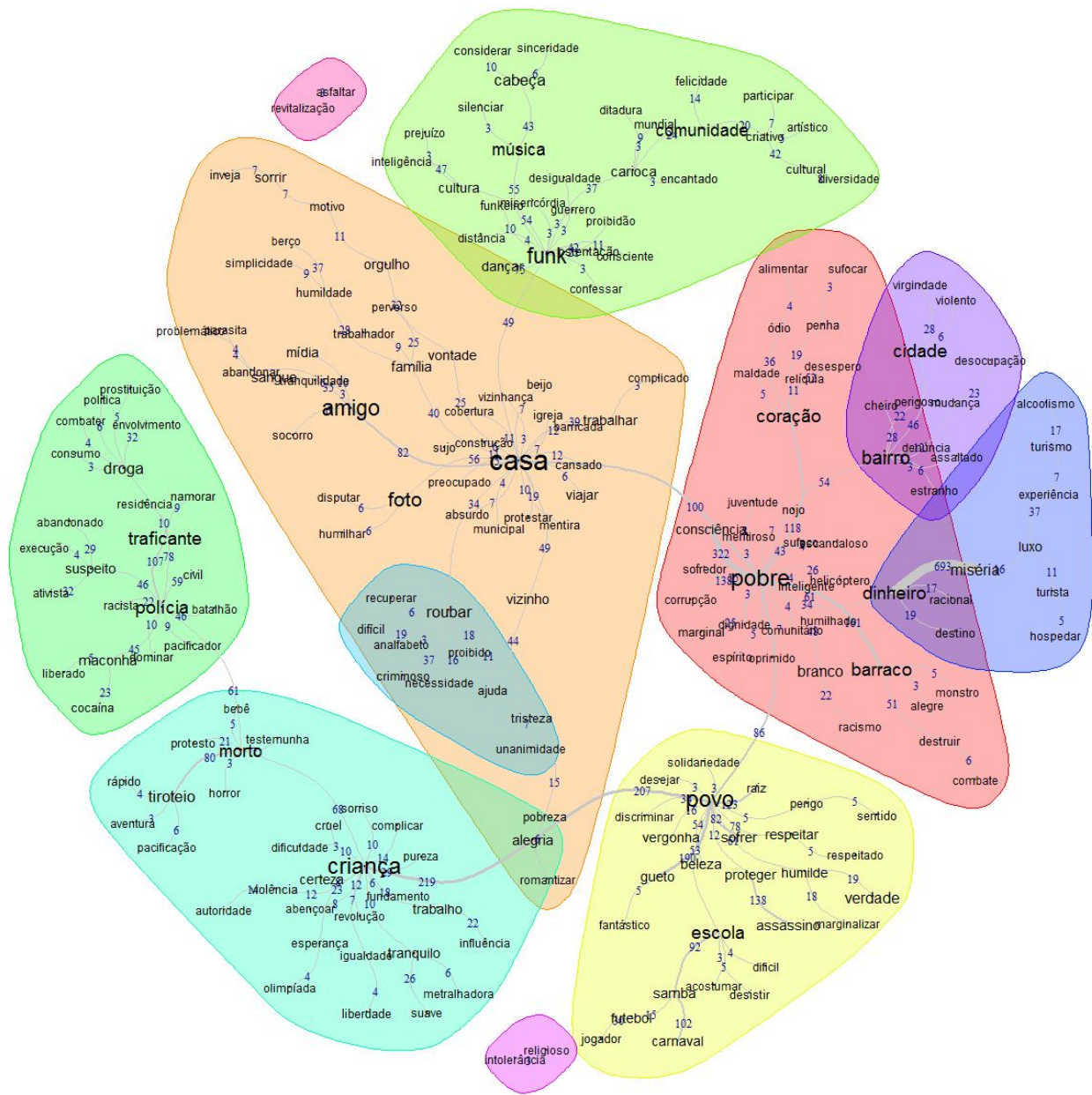


Figure 2: Portuguese Cluster for All Seasons: Similarity Analysis

Gunfights are related to the police/trafficker (policia/traficante) and comprise drugs (droga), prostitution (prostituição) and execution (execução) in the cluster. Lastly, in this presentation of data, tourism (turismo, turista) emerges as a cluster by itself; however, as is evident, the association with a notion of misery (miséria), which appears throughout the different seasons, did not change.

1  
2  
3 A branch concerning (sex) tourism and relating to tourism and alcoholism can be found within  
4 this cluster.  
5

6 *“terra do alcoolismo favela domínio de um turismo sexual”* [land of alcoholism: favela  
7  
8 – a dominion of sex tourism]  
9

10  
11 From analysis of the Portuguese data, it can be said that the favela seems to be the living  
12 environment for most of the people contributing to this data set, which is reflected in the  
13 multitude, diversity and complexity of this data set. As in real life, all aspects of life are  
14 represented and interrelated.  
15

#### 16 17 4.3.2 Semantic Similarity Analysis of the English Data Set 18

19 Looking at the depiction of all data in the English dataset (192,084 original tweets), it can be  
20 said a clear tourism and travel cluster is found, comprising items related to Rocinha (Figure 3).  
21 Brazil has hosted several mega events and media outlets reported in English. In relation to  
22 resisting re-housing plans to make room for Olympic buildings, a cluster around  
23 #vilautódromo (the favela demolished to accommodate new Olympic buildings) has emerged.  
24 Additionally, other clusters include only a discourse about Rocinha, a group to remove stigmata  
25 from the favela, as well as a cluster around the term ‘paint’, representing an initiative to paint  
26 favela walls.  
27  
28

29 *“Painting revitalizing #brazil slums #travel #tot #riodejaneiro #expatlife”*  
30

31 *“Community local Facebook page coordinator launches #crowdfunding campaign to*  
32 *paint walls in #complexodoalemão”.*  
33  
34

35  
36 In relation to this, an additional cluster was formed around funk and music related to tourism:

37 *“favela funk party every Sunday night, we take you there #bealocaltours #bealocal*  
38 *funkparty #bailefunk”*  
39  
40

41  
42 A police violence cluster was formed, as well as a cluster containing notions around drug  
43 trafficking. This cluster can mostly be explained as being the result of news websites’ reporting  
44 rather than tourists posting their perceptions:  
45

46 *“News: this morning residents and police reported a shooting in #morrodafallet, a*  
47 *Santa Teresa community with a #upp”*  
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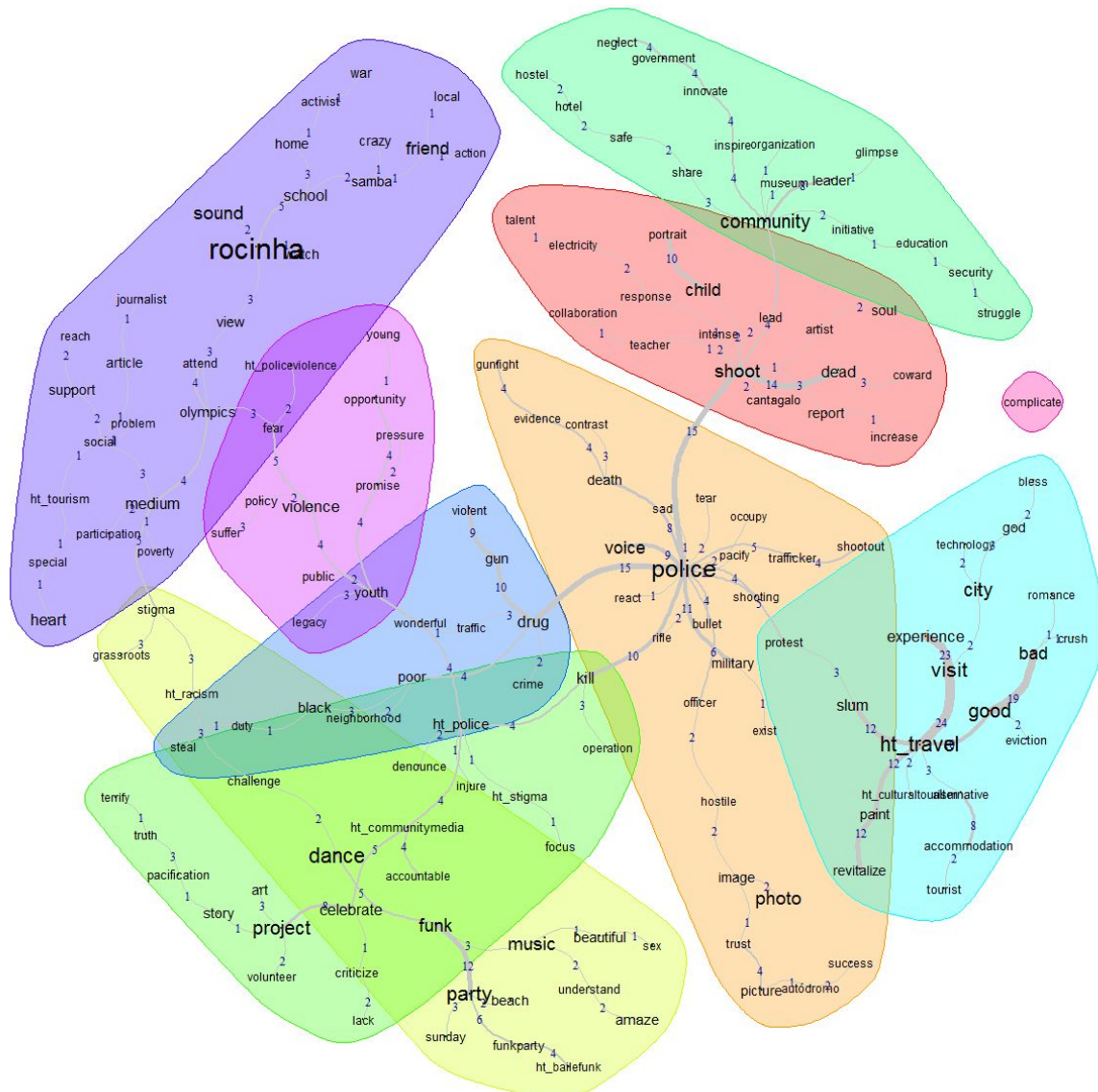


Figure 3: English Cluster for All Seasons - Similarity Analysis

Central to the clusters is that items relating to the police are concentrated, such as the military, pacification, shooting, shoot-outs and death. This leads to clusters similar to the Portuguese clusters of childhood and community, with topics within the child cluster revolving around shootings. The community cluster indicates different projects stabilising this community through education, security and own initiatives. Furthermore, the exploratory analysis of the discussions and discourses generated within the two networks reveals digital dialogue about politics (Bastos, Raimundo, & Travitzki, 2013), entertainment (Atefeh & Khreich, 2015), products and services (Chevalier & Mayzlin, 2003) and, eventually, socially-motivated discussions (Inversini et al., 2015). This enabled the researchers to discuss the similarity of the two networks in terms of topics debated.

Finally, for the English cluster, it can be said that despite travel and leisure time clusters representing a major share of the tweets, discussions on civic engagement, injustice and other issues relating to the everyday life worlds of favela residents can also be identified. Therefore, both differences and similarities with the Portuguese data set can be found.



## 5. Discussion and Conclusions

This research was designed to harness the power of social media in a given developing context to understand intangible issues related with socio-economic development (Pimmer et al., 2012) in a given community. This was done primarily to support the promise of interactive communication for development (Selwyn, 2004) towards generating a better understanding of the voice and the possible value for the community (Couldry, 2010). Social media analysis is very popular in several disciplines but particularly in marketing (e.g. Godey et al., 2016) and politics (Eddington, 2018) above all. However, they could help in supporting local socio-economic development by flagging up issues that are not directly visible and/or explicated. Social media can definitively support a more nuanced view of the needs and wants of local communities by coupling text analysis with network analysis. In accordance with Tacchi (2012), this will overcome a reductionist approach to development, enhancing the value (Couldry, 2010) of voice.

The research was built around twitter.com conversations in an emerging market and methodologically tackled the syntactic analysing (i.e. structure) of the network (Williams et al., 2015) and the semantic (i.e. content) of the narratives (Kozinets et al., 2010) by focusing on internal and external network perspectives (Lipizzi et al., 2016). Twelve months' twitter.com conversations under the hashtag #favela were collected. Language (i.e. English and Portuguese language) and geolocalization (tweets from Brazil) were used as proxy to create two samples; within those samples, two network-based analyses were performed. The first concerned the metadata of information connections aimed at understanding the network structure and the role of key influencers (social network analysis), whilst the second enquiry (semantic similarity analysis) aimed at discovering the main topics discussed within the networks.

From a structure perspective, the analysed networks present the same characteristics of networks already presented in the literature (Gomez Rodriguez et al., 2013; Himelboim, Smith, Rainie, Shneiderman, & Espina, 2017). However, additional insights can be driven by moving from the 3S framework presented by Williams and colleagues (2015); meanwhile, the network scope (geographic range of engaged stakeholders) was controlled by researchers (i.e. the analysed English and Portuguese tweets for the #Favela are from Brazil). The study highlights that:

- In terms of size (volume of tweets), the Portuguese network is larger than the English network and has a higher degree of variation, especially during a hallmark event, such as the carnival in the summer season. Additionally, when looking at the main users and influencers in the networks, it is possible to see that celebrities, sports personalities and ordinary individuals act as hubs (i.e. are highly visible to network members). This is also in line with previous research (Zhang, Moe & Schweidel, 2016). However, it is difficult to find active public figures and/or politicians and institutions and/or organizations within the network. It is quite common for the latter to emerge as hubs, such as during hallmark events (such as carnivals), attracting a significant amount of attention in the given event (Williams et al., 2017); this has not been noted in the analysed network;
- In terms of span (pattern of topic engagement), popular social media topics, such as entertainment (e.g. music, politics and community discourses), are present in the networks. However, socially-motivated discussions emerge in both languages (Inversini

et al., 2015), confirming Nemer's (2016) claim related to the responsible use of digital technologies, especially social media, as well as supporting the notion of voices elaborated by Tacchi (2012).

Following (Kozinets et al., 2010) characteristic of social media discussion, the analysed corpus clearly presents and gives meaning to personal stories of favela dwellers in a given digital location. Additionally, results from the semantic similarity analysis and from the network analysis also confirmed that the communication and topic discussed are deeply affected by norms regulating the given communication space (retweet and mention - Kozinets et al., 2010). What is slightly different from Kozinets and colleagues' (2010) discussion is the fact that analysed messages are not only affected by product and/or service but actually reflect social issues and highlights the presence of socially-motivated discussions (Inversini et al., 2015).

This means that besides traditional topics discussed on social media, the analysed corpus shows that social media can be used to understand social conversations. In fact, the analysed conversations appear to have similar psychological boundaries and motivations with respect to the ones highlighted by Narayan et al. (1999). This was possible thanks to a semantic discussions analysis that overcame the ones based on hashtags (e.g. Eddington, 2018), which is able to discover nuances and meaning clusters' in the text.

Therefore, social media analysis promotes horizontal and participative models of development (Servaes, 2007) and can support the promise of an interactive communication for development (Selwyn 2004). Particularly, these can simplify the process for collecting the voice of the marginalized, offering an interactive listening deck to make a proper transition towards the transformation of voice into an impact in the community (Couldry, 2010). Therefore, by coupling structural analysis (e.g. social network analysis) with semantic analysis, it is possible to examine the depth and breadth of digital and interconnected narratives posted on social media to generate a better understanding of the voice of given communities. Following Couldry (2010), this social media analysis could support voice as a process by studying communities of interest, as well as opinion leaders and/or influencers, in addition to voice as value unfolding frameworks and issues around human life in a marginalized context.

This digitized conceptualization of the voice gives room to the concept of 'e-Voices of the Unheard' to be theorized. Social media host non-traditional forms of data (Blazquez & Domenech, 2018) and can serve as an amplifier for marginalized communities by providing an online space for discussion and engagement. This enables developing community dwellers to attract attention and sustain conversations among publics and counter publics (Jackson & Foucault Welles, 2015) about crucial issues of socio-economic development.

Lastly, this study has some limitations that need to be acknowledged. Firstly, although penetration and adoption of digital technologies is growing in developing and rural areas, not all individuals have access to these media; therefore, e-Voices of the Unheard should be treated as a representation of the needs and wants of the communities. However, it is acknowledged that no strategy could capture all voices within a community. Secondly, although there could ethical concerns about social media discussion harvesting (Williams, Burnap, & Sloan, 2017; Williams et al., 2017), the authors believe that twitter.com provides content published to the internet 'at large' and with no complex privacy settings to bypass (Bruns, Burgess, Crawford, & Shaw, 2012). Therefore, the authors believe that publicly accessible and anonymized information does not bridge any ethical issues (Zimmer & Proferes, 2014).

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