Fact-checking on Twitter: 
An examination of campaign 2014*

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Executive summary

I combine machine learning methods with a complete set of historical Twitter data to examine how fact-checking interventions play out on social media. Overall, tweets (or retweets) containing misleading or factually wrong statements outnumber tweets with corrective information. However, as I show in two case studies, the amount of misinformation decreases over time as corrections make up a larger share of tweets relating to a particular claim. Despite controversies surrounding factual interpretations, especially as they relate to political debates, I find that sentiment toward journalistic fact-checking on Twitter is more likely to be positive than negative or neutral.

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1 Introduction

Figure 1: Lies vs. facts, October 2014: Eventually, truth wins out?

Discussions about events in the news can happen anywhere. Increasingly, they occur on social media, where those who report the news and those who consume it meet. In 2014, the Pew Research Center found that 46% of online news consumers who use a social network have “discussed a news issue or event” there.① Where discourse about current events takes place, political disputes—often heated disputes involving factual claims—inevitably occur. It is not surprising, then, that social media has become a focal point for those who seek to set the record straight. As journalistic fact-checking has become more prominent, it has become an increasingly frequent topic in online discourse. However, little is known about how these social-media interventions play out among news audiences.

This report examines the spread and impact of fact-checking practices on social media, using comprehensive data from Twitter analyzed using a machine learning approach. The findings cover three main areas: descriptive information about the prevalence of tweets related to fact-checking; evidence on how Twitter users feel about fact-checking activities in general; and an analysis of how the flow of tweets about a claim changed in two case studies when fact-checkers intervened.

The general approach of this report is to apply machine learning algorithms to a massive database of every tweet ever posted, which allows for an aggregate, macro-level picture of information dynamics. It is important to note that this approach does not allow for a specific examination of each tweet in question, nor does it overcome the fundamental obstacle to social research of this kind—the
inability to observe a counterfactual world in which a particular fact-check was not published. Still, the trends documented here, especially when supplemented with the case studies I consider, point toward similar conclusions.

First, I find that tweets correcting falsehoods or pointing to a correction are completely swamped by tweets making or repeating the claim. However, whether by virtue of the corrections or not, the volume of tweets about the initial claim tends to level off quickly. This is likely related to the fact that most of the tweet volume (both corrections and false claims) consists of retweets of a relatively small core of tweets. These tweets originate primarily from journalistic fact-checking organizations, but other self-appointed guardians of truth often emerge: politicians (when the target is an opponent), governmental organizations, and mainstream media outlets.

Second, overall sentiment on Twitter toward fact-checking is relatively positive. Focusing on tweets that involve fact-checking, I find significantly more positive tweets about fact-checking—praising the efforts of fact-checking organizations, imploring media organizations to check their facts, etc.—than negative ones. Digging more into the sentiment embedded in tweets, I also see that the targets of fact-checking are seen in an overwhelmingly negative light. This could be at least partially an artifact of fact checkers’ bias toward correcting falsehoods rather than affirming a limitless number of correct statements.

Below, I detail the methodology of this section and outline both the strengths and limitations of the approach. I then present a series of graphs illustrating the basic findings. Finally, I look at two case studies: the spread of false claims that Ebola is airborne, and a CBO report that was interpreted (misleadingly) as evidence that the implementation of Obamacare will lead to the loss of more than 2 million jobs.

2 Methodology

I use Crimson Hexagon’s ForSight platform\(^2\) to conduct the analysis. ForSight relies on a proprietary algorithm, BrightView, that uses supervised machine learning to classify large quantities of posts on social media—in this case, tweets—into user-defined categories. For the purpose of this analysis, those categories represent either sentiment (“positive”/“negative”) or topics (claims vs. corrections).

The method proceeds in two steps. First, a sample of tweets meeting a certain set of search criteria is hand-coded (“trained”) using the given classification scheme. Second, the algorithm uses the so-called training corpus to generate a complete classification of the entire set of tweets. Assuming a well-defined set of categories and proper training, the result is an accurate picture of the number and proportion of tweets in each category within a given period of time. When possible, this is done by two independent coders who then also manually categorize a subset of the automatically classified tweets in order to validate the results.

To make this concrete, suppose we want to know the proportions of tweets
asserting that the color of a dress is white and gold vs. blue and black. We would first take a sample of tweets about the dress and hand-code them as “white and gold” or “blue and black,” then feed this training set into the algorithm, which would use the linguistic characteristics of the coded tweets to classify all tweets about the dress on Twitter. We could then take a sample of the automatically classified tweets and determine whether the results match how human coders would (blindly) classify them in order to validate the procedure.

The advantage of this approach is clear: It allows us to make generalizations about a vast quantity of individual tweets over time so that trends and patterns are clearly visible. The disadvantage is that it is susceptible to commonly acknowledged problems of causal inference. First, as suggested above, most claims are never fact-checked because they are banal or obviously true. This means that in choosing the sample of tweets to analyze, we are “selecting on the dependent variable”: restricting the search to cases that are more likely to take a particular value (in this case, to be false). If, for example, fact-checking truly has an impact on the volume of claims on social media but the magnitude is relatively modest, then by selecting in this way we could understate the true effect. A second issue is that we cannot observe counterfactuals—that is, we cannot re-run history to see what happens when fact-checkers fail to intervene in a given instance and then compare the result. As a result, our primary comparisons are over time and between cases.

3 How prevalent is fact-checking on Twitter?

![Figure 2: Volume of tweets about fact checking, January-November 2014.](image)

What does Fact Check Twitter look like? To find out, I used a list of Twitter accounts connected to journalistic fact-checking organizations, including both official handles (such as @PolitiFactOhio) and those of affiliated staff members. I then set the algorithms loose on tweets that originated, replied to, or
in some other way mentioned any of the accounts on that list. The result is a
dynamic, real-time view of the fact-checking universe on Twitter. (Of course,
there are discussions on Twitter surrounding factual claims that occur sepa-
rately from the actions of this particular group, and they will fall outside the
universe of tweets as defined in this way. To confirm the robustness of the re-
results, I also repeat the analysis using fact-check-related keywords rather than
specific accounts.) An important feature of this universe is that it is relatively
centralized: I collected a sample of thousands of tweets—almost 100,000 over
the course of 2014—originating from or interacting with a group of only 26 ac-
counts. This means that the vast bulk of the tweets I analyze are posted in
response to the pronouncements of the fact checkers.

This structure is reminiscent of the “Broadcast Network” audience profile in
Pew’s typology of Twitter topic networks, which is described as follows:

Twitter commentary around breaking news stories and the output
of well-known media outlets and pundits has a distinctive hub and
spoke structure in which many people repeat what prominent news
and media organizations tweet. The members of the Broadcast Net-
work audience are often connected only to the hub news source,
without connecting to one another. In some cases there are smaller
subgroups of densely connected people—think of them as subject
groupies—who do discuss the news with one another.

Figure 2 shows the overall prevalence of fact-check-related tweets, from Jan-
uary 2014 until the first week of November when the midterm campaign ended.
In general, the number of tweets citing the fact-checkers remains under 500,
but large spikes are observed coinciding with the State of the Union address
at the end of January and candidate debates in governor and Senate races in
October. The number of fact-check-related tweets on any given day over the
course of the 2014 campaign did not typically rise much higher than 2,000, even
at peak times. Toward November, however, the volume increased, with almost
7,000 tweets from and interacting with fact-checking organizations in the last
weeks of October. From January until the election, there were more than 95,000
tweets meeting my account-based criteria for inclusion in the sample.

It is important to note that fact-checking could have more influence on the
broader discourse than the raw numbers suggest, especially if many of the users
interacting with the organizations on social media are themselves influential.

4 Sentiment toward fact-checking

How do people on Twitter feel about fact-checking? I applied the categorization
approach outlined above to the same set of tweets in order to better understand
people’s reactions toward fact-checking interventions.4 ...

Figure 3 breaks down the tweets into three groups: those that express posi-
tive sentiment toward fact-checking, those that are neutral, and those that are
negative. As the graph shows, positive tweets were more common than both
negative and neutral tweets at all times last year—even toward the end of the 2014 midterm campaign, when fact-checking activity (and potential disputes over factual claims) reached its peak. Moreover, neutral tweets just barely outnumbered negative ones: 15% were positive, and roughly 9% each were negative or neutral. Another 45% of these tweets simply posted links to assessments of factual claims without any particular sentiment attached.

![Figure 3: Sentiment of tweets about fact checking, January-November 2014.](image)

Tweets about fact-checking don’t only concern the enterprise itself, however. Many contain implicit or explicit sentiment about the targets of the fact checkers—the politicians and other public figures whose utterances are so often subjected to scrutiny. In the sample, there were so few tweets expressing positive sentiment toward the targets of fact checking that I was unable to train the algorithms for that category. This is likely a function of fact checkers’ tendency to intervene when high-profile misleading claims are made (as opposed to claims that end up being verified as accurate). In the sample, a full 22% of tweets over the course of the campaign expressed disapproval toward the target of a fact check, more than the 15% containing positive sentiment toward the enterprise in general. (While an overlap between the two categories is likely, I constructed the training sample so that tweets containing implied sentiment toward both fact checking and the target were coded for the latter. This means that the estimate of positive sentiment toward fact checking is actually a lower bound.)

To verify the validity of the results in this section, I repeated the analysis using a different definition of the Twitter population. Rather than use tweets
by and interacting with a group of accounts related to journalistic fact-checking organizations, I built a query using terms commonly associated with fact checking, such as “Pinocchio,” “fact check,” etc. This approach replicates the broad outlines of the sentiment analysis, increasing confidence in my findings. See the Appendix, which shows a version of Figure 3 in which positive tweets outnumber neutral and negative ones, this time by an even larger margin.

5 Case 1: Ebola transmission

To select cases for further study, I searched the universe of tweets from the previous section for clusters about specific topics that experienced surges in volume at critical points during 2014. From those possibilities, I narrowed down to two well-known issues that spilled over into the political discourse: a specific claim about the transmission of Ebola virus, and assertions about job losses resulting from the implementation of Obamacare. These cases do not represent the range of all possible ways in which fact-checking plays out on Twitter—they are two among many—but they give a sense of how corrections can and do interact with specific misleading claims.

Over the summer of 2014 and into early fall, hysteria over the Ebola virus hit a fever pitch in the United States. Severe outbreaks of the virus had broken out in West Africa, and a handful of infections were documented among medical personnel returning from the continent. Among the many rumors inspired by these events, one particularly potent one maintained that Ebola is transmitted by air, or that a mutation giving it that ability would soon occur. This belief circulated throughout social media, but a big boost came from a mainstream source: Washington Post columnist George Will, who stated on an episode of Fox News Sunday that the disease could spread via a cough or sneeze.

Tweets containing some version of the rumor were common throughout October:

#Ebola Outbreak: The Latest #US Government Lies. The Risk of
#Airborne Contagion? http://t.co/eMCZrpxg2E #Ebola #Mensongessu...

Oh so Ebola is airborne now?? Welp
apparently ebola is airborne now......................

'Airborne' Ebola Virus - Public Health Agency of Canada!: http://t.co/bmuI4WA6DS
via @YouTube RED ALERT!

Pushback from the scientific community and fact-checking organizations was immediate. After the broadcast, PunditFact rated the claim “False.” The next day, the site followed up with “A few words to those who think George Will was right about Ebola going airborne through a sneeze,” which restated its evaluation of the claim and made a distinction between “particles that remain suspended in the air after an infected person coughs or sneezes” and transmission requiring direct contact with bodily fluids. As the top half of Figure
4 shows, tweets making the claim were fairly prevalent both before and after Will’s statement, with more than 10,000 posts a day mentioning or accepting the claim at its peak in October.

![Graph showing volume and proportion of tweets claiming Ebola airborne transmission and tweets correcting the claim, September-November 2014. The red line indicates when the first fact check occurred.]

Figure 4: Volume (top) and proportion (bottom) of tweets claiming Ebola airborne transmission and tweets correcting the claim, September-November 2014. The red line indicates when the first fact check occurred.

The graph also illustrates that the claim generally swamped the correction. From September through November, only 27% of all tweets relating to the transmission of Ebola contained some information debunking misleading assertions about airborne contagion. Tweets making the claim outnumbered tweets with
corrective information by more then 2.7 to 1. Despite the higher volume of the claim at all times during most of this period, mentions of Ebola transmission tapered off toward the middle of November. By the end of this period there were roughly as many tweets countering the claim as tweets making it. This suggests a pattern: A correction reaches parity with the originating claim only after the volume of discussion about the claim diminishes considerably.

Did the corrections cause the decline in the volume of misleading claims about Ebola transmission on Twitter? These findings alone cannot prove such a statement for several reasons. The first is the general one that we cannot compare what we find on Twitter with a counterfactual world in which the same claims are made but no corrections are issued. For example, would we have seen more tweets repeating misleading statements about Ebola had PunditFact not intervened? Second, the timing of the tweets does not show a clear pattern in which a claim is followed immediately by a correction, and then a decline in misleading tweets. But as the bottom half of Figure 4 shows, proportionally more tweets about Ebola contagion began to incorporate information about the correction as time went on. This growth in the proportion of accurate information could have been due to the interventions of fact checkers, or the dissipation of the misleading claims, or some combination of both. Third, the overall drop-off in tweet volume about Ebola transmission doesn’t necessarily imply that beliefs about the virus being airborne were successfully “eradicated.” The trends illustrate over-time changes in the aggregate composition of tweets, not changes in the tweet behavior (or beliefs) of individual users. Still, changes in volume and the share of tweets uncritically repeating the misleading claim suggest that the public discourse itself, at least on social media, changed measurably.

A final point concerns the issue of Ebola transmission itself. While clear cut from a scientific standpoint, it is worth noting that the definition of “airborne” is potentially confusing. Scientists distinguish between viruses that travel significant distances via air droplets or small particles of dust—the threshold for airborne microorganisms—and those that require close, direct contact (often with bodily fluids). Consider the following quotation from a Harvard researcher:

If you were on a plane, and someone sneezed, you wouldn’t be at risk of getting infected unless you were sneezed on directly within close quarters, and that cough or sneeze transferred droplets into mucosal membranes.

It isn’t difficult to imagine such a statement inflaming panic about Ebola transmission: it is far from an equivocal refutation, and the words “sneeze” and “droplets” could easily be taken out of context to imply the opposite of the intended conclusion. Even more difficult, not all scientists have stayed on message: a month before Will’s statement, the director of the Center for Infectious Disease Research and Policy at the University of Minnesota raised the possibility of mutations in an op-ed in The New York Times titled “What We’re Afraid to Say about Ebola.” Other attempts at nuanced treatments of the issue were susceptible to being mischaracterized, such as a Reuters story tweeted by the official @ReutersOpinion account (and subsequently retweeted):
Ebola’s not airborne, but it is “droplet-borne.” Read this to get a better understanding of how the disease spreads: [http://reut.rs/1vnS7Gf](http://reut.rs/1vnS7Gf)

6Case 2: 2.3 million jobs

Claims that President Obama’s health care reform would destroy jobs date back to before the law was enacted, but on Feb. 4, 2014, they seemed to win the backing of an influential source: the Congressional Budget Office, which predicted “a decline in the number of full-time-equivalent workers of about 2.0 million in 2017, rising to about 2.5 million in 2024.” The projected decline was in the number of hours worked, rather than the number of jobs being created, but the news was immediately taken by some to imply that employers would have to cut positions as a result of Obamacare.

The report itself clarified the distinction: “The estimated reduction stems almost entirely from a net decline in the amount of labor that workers choose to supply, rather than from a net drop in businesses’ demand for labor.” However, many commentators conflated the two, leading to numerous claims about Obamacare leading to a loss of jobs. For example, Gretchen Carlson of Fox News claimed, “The CBO now says the president’s health care law will cut the number of full-time jobs in the United States by 2.3 million by 2021.” She later clarified that this would result from individual workers’ decisions not to work, but the initial claim—which PunditFact deemed “Mostly False”—was picked up on social media:

Obamacare to cut work hours by equivalent of two million jobs: CBO
Obamacare kills...jobs! ** Obamacare will push 2 million workers out of labor market: CBO.
Explosive CBO Report: How #Obamacare Will Drive People Out of the Workforce #p2

The top half of Figure 5 shows the pattern of claims and corrections as it played out on Twitter in the first months of 2014. As with Ebola transmission, tweets repeating or referring to the claim swamp tweets containing corrective information—in this case, 93% about health care and jobs endorsed the false claim versus 7% that corrected it in the first three months of 2014 (more than 13 times as many). And as with Ebola, the corrective tweets appear at around the same time as the misleading comments about the CBO’s projections. The pattern continues as the initial spikes corresponding to the release of the report subside. As the bottom half of the figure illustrates, the share of corrective tweets increases as this happens.

One way in which the jobs claim played out differently on Twitter than the airborne Ebola rumor is that corrective tweets did not steadily overtake tweets repeating the claim (in proportional terms). Instead, progress was halting and the end state appears to be less stable: The bottom half of Figure 5 shows how the share of corrective tweets alternates between nearly 0% and almost 80%.
Figure 5: Volume (top) and proportions (bottom) of tweets about the CBO job loss claim, January-March 2014.

Why did this issue play out differently? While numerous factors could be at play, including timing (the Ebola issue flared up closer to the end of the midterm campaign), one possibility is that the issue itself was inherently more complex. Even the rating, “Mostly False,” was less equivocal than the verdict on Ebola transmission. Another possibility is that the topic proved more difficult for the algorithm to isolate, resulting in noisier estimates.\textsuperscript{11}

Regardless of the reason, mentions of the claim on Twitter—whether to repeat it or to debunk it—tapered off by April to virtually zero from a peak of
more than 52,000 per day at the beginning of February. A notable addendum, however, is that the claim was temporarily revived—along with the correction—in October during a Senate debate between then-Minority Leader Mitch McConnell and his opponent Alison Lundergan Grimes, but with only a fraction of the tweet volume.

7 Conclusion

On social media, where instantaneous feedback combines with limited social context, politics can get taken to extremes. Opinions are amplified, memes spread like wildfire, and rumors propagate. While these tendencies can cause false or misleading statements to be repeated frequently, they also mean that clarifications and corrections have an opportunity to spread and influence the discourse as well.

Fact-checking organizations must now compete against falsehoods on social media. As this report has shown through an analysis of a large set of tweets, fact checking is an active topic of debate on Twitter, especially when political activity intensifies during election season. The fact-checks that are published sometimes induce controversy; coming down on one side in a political dispute can inflame partisan tensions. Nonetheless, sentiment toward fact-checking is significantly more positive than negative among people who express an opinion about it on Twitter.

When it comes to specific factual claims, I find a suggestive pattern in which spikes of Twitter activity repeating misleading information occur at approximately the same time as a relative surge in fact checking, likely in direct response to the claims. While the latter doesn’t overtake the former in numerical terms in the two case studies I consider—tweets repeating misinformation greatly outnumber corrective tweets overall—the corrections eventually become more common in proportional terms. In short, all social media frenzies eventually fizzle. As this process occurs, the relative share of corrective tweets seems to increase.

The role of fact checkers in this process is clear: they provide much of the source material with which Twitter users confront mistaken beliefs. I cannot determine whether the mistaken beliefs they target are changed or simply go dormant, but the messages they promote appear to help make debate on the platform more accurate.
Appendix: Sentiment analysis using keyword-based sample definition

Figure 6: Sentiment of tweets about fact checking, January-November 2014. The sample of tweets used to make this graph was constructed using keywords rather than interactions with specific accounts.
Notes

4. Cohen’s $\kappa$ for two human coders constructing the training corpus: 0.626.
5. October 19, 2014
7. http://www.politifact.com/punditfact/article/2014/oct/20/few-words-those-who-think-george-will-was-right-ab/
11. There is some evidence for this possibility. Cohen’s $\kappa$ computed between a human coder and automated classifications on the same tweets (blindly) were lower for the CBO jobs claim (0.78) than for the Ebola claim (0.901). Both are well above common thresholds for validity, however.