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Wind energy: Influencing the dynamics of the public opinion formation through the retweet network

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ABSTRACT

Wind power is one of the primary renewable sources that are getting increasing support as a means of addressing climate changes. The debate on its use takes place on social media as a fast and unfiltered forum to express one's opinions. In this paper, we analyse the discussion concerning wind power coming up on Twitter. We measure the influence of opinions (and of the twitterers expressing them) by building a retweet network. A strong concentration of retweets is observed through the use of both the retweet distribution and the Hirschman–Herfindahl Index (HHI): the discussion appears to be driven by a handful of twitterers who are heavily retweeted. We provide a classification of such top influencers by their role in society. A single climate activist is, by far, the top influencer. International and governmental agencies come second, and energy consultants come third. Companies play quite a minor role, on a par with generalist individual twitterers, while scientists are the least-retweeted category. Those top influencers are also constantly present from month to month, while the overwhelming majority of twitterers change from month to month. Leading energy-related events appear to have a short-lived influence on the discussion (two weeks after their taking place).

1. Introduction

The need to reduce greenhouse gas emissions and address global environmental problems is continually growing. International efforts are required to combat climate change, e.g., by adopting policy instruments designed to move towards sustainable, low-carbon, and affordable energy systems. Those may include a new portfolio of electricity generation technologies and a shift in the national energy mix towards renewable energies (Hoffert et al., 2002; De Jesus et al., 2018; Dhakouani et al., 2019; Aleixandre-Tudó et al., 2019). The development and implementation of a wind energy infrastructure is an essential contributor to that energy transition, as shown by Muñoz and Márquez (2018), Stephens et al. (2009), Zhao et al. (2016), Jethani (2016), both in its onshore and offshore implementations as described in Weinzettel et al. (2009), Sun et al. (2012). Countries with high per-capita emissions are taking steps in that direction. Examples are the USA (where 29 states require minimum levels of wind generation through renewable portfolio standards (Lamy et al., 2020)), Switzerland (where citizens approved a national energy strategy in May 2017, and wind energy plays a fundamental role (Vuichard et al., 2019)), and Denmark (where parliament has agreed to promote the establishment of a longer-term

goal of satisfying 50% of Denmark's electricity needs through wind power by 2020 (Borch et al., 2020)). At the end of the year 2013, the amount of wind energy capacity in the world was around 318 GW. By the end of 2019, the total was around 650 GW. That represents a compound annual growth rate of 12.6% (Sayigh and Milborrow, 2020), which is helped by steadily falling generation costs and an increase in the size of wind turbines (Sayigh and Milborrow, 2020) as well as a low average construction time (Savigh and Milborrow, 2020). Recently, the Recovery and Resilience Plan (Piano Nazionale di Ripresa e Resilienza, PNRR) presented by Italy envisages investments and a consistent reform package; it is divided into Missions and Functional Components to achieve the economic and social objectives defined in the Government's strategy. The component devoted to renewable energies aims to increase the share of energy produced from renewable sources and to develop an industrial sector in this area. In particular, a significant contribution will come from offshore wind farms.

To date, however, the deployment of wind energy has been hindered by acceptance-related issues. For example, resistance from people living near such projects may hinder their development (Horbaty et al., 2012; Vuichard et al., 2019). Despite the growing interest in building

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offshore wind farms (which, however, spur signs of conflict in the local communities (Lamy et al., 2020; van der Loos et al., 2020)), onshore wind farms are still the most popular type of wind farm in the world. In landlocked countries or countries with a less developed wind energy sector, the social acceptance of onshore plants continues to be the key challenge facing the governments and industry (Frantál, 2015). Summing up, all renewable energy options have their own set of negative impacts, and wind power is no exception.

For that reason, the analysis of the social perception of wind power is a crucial element in any energy policy debate. Knowing what the stakeholders (which include citizens, scientists, and media) think about wind power and how their opinions form may help governments change policies to make them more socially acceptable or increase acceptance of new power plants.

The literature on the social perception of wind power so far can be subdivided into three major areas according to the focus of their analysis: (a) measurement of perception and identification of driving factors for acceptance; (b) analysis of the impact of wind power plants; (c) policy steering related to social opinions.

In the first group, we find all the papers that aim at measuring the level of acceptance among citizens. Most of them also investigate the socio-demographic and economic factors behind public opinion. The main differences among the papers lie in the population probed on the matter and the particular issues under investigation. In most cases, the sample of interest is made of local residents who live nearby a power plant as in the papers by Firestone and Kempton (2007), Firestone et al. (2012, 2009), Frantál (2015), Swofford and Slattery (2010), Gross (2007), Firestone et al. (2018b), Lamy et al. (2017, 2020), Dimitropoulos and Kontoleon (2009). However, some analyses extend over an entire nation, e.g. Denmark as in Ladenburg (2008), Ladenburg and Dubgaard (2009), and Sovacool and Lakshmi Ratan (2012), the USA in Hoen et al. (2019), Ireland in Sovacool and Lakshmi Ratan (2012), New Zealand in Graham et al. (2009), Ontario in Jami and Walsh (2017), Austria in Sposato and Hampl (2018), Scotland in Warren and McFadyen (2010), Sweden in Ek (2005), Ek and Persson (2014), and Switzerland in Walter (2014), Vuichard et al. (2019), Spiess et al. (2015). In Ladenburg (2010), Landry et al. (2012), Teisl et al. (2018), and Warren and McFadyen (2010), tourists are also considered since the plant may be located in tourist areas. Just a few papers expand their horizon to include also other stakeholders (e.g. landowners, politicians, nature preservation societies, investors) as in Borch (2018), Jami and Walsh (2017) and Sovacool and Lakshmi Ratan (2012). Opinion measurements are often accomplished by administering questionnaires, with some notable exceptions. Borch (2018) conduct a discourse analysis on talks delivered at institutional meetings (e.g., public hearings). Again Borch et al. (2020) perform a textual analysis over a corpus of Facebook pages belonging to Danish wind protest groups. Dehler-Holland et al. (2022) explore the wind power's legitimacy using topic models and sentiment analysis over newspaper coverage of wind power in Germany. Finally, Bjärstig et al. (2022) conduct a frame analysis to explore which national and regional media frames have developed in response to the rapid expansion of largescale wind farms in Sweden. As to the target of analysis, though most papers consider a dichotomic approach (acceptance vs rejection), the focus is sometimes shifted to the power plant building process itself, as in Firestone et al. (2012), or just the positive side of the story, i.e., the benefits deriving to citizens as in Aitken (2010). The NIMBY effect is studied in Swofford and Slattery (2010), van der Horst (2007), Wolsink (2000), Bell et al. (2005, 2013), Papazu (2017), Jones and Richard Eiser (2010), Zografos and Martínez-Alier (2009), Rand and Hoen (2017), and the related issue of fairness and procedural justice in siting plants is investigated in Firestone et al. (2018a), Walker and Baxter (2017). Some papers focus on the visual impact of wind plants, as in Johansson and Laike (2007), Ladenburg (2009), Hevia-Koch and Ladenburg (2019), and Bishop and Miller (2007), also distinguishing between on-land and offshore plants, as in Ladenburg (2008, 2010).

The second group of papers, which deal with the actual impact of wind plants on residents and tourists, is much slimmer. Several papers conduct visual simulations to assess the impact *before* the plant is built, as in Bishop and Miller (2007) and Jallouli and Moreau (2009). Instead, few papers have assessed the actual impact of plants *after* they have been built. The assessment was accomplished through questionnaires in Hübner et al. (2019) and Katsaprakakis (2012), and through actual noise measurements in Pohl et al. (2018).

The third stream of literature concerns the relationship between public attitude and policymakers. The issues of interest concern, at the same time, how the public perception of wind power is taken into account when setting a policy and how citizens can deliver their opinions to policymakers (or the leaders in charge of the siting and building process). Wolsink (2000) has shown that institutional constraints may be more important than public acceptance in shaping the actual energy policy, which could lead to substantial neglect of public opinions. However, the survey conducted by Langer et al. (2017) has highlighted that citizens wish to be involved in informative and deliberative participation processes, which is a means to have their opinions reach process leaders. According to Wolsink (2007), the best way to facilitate the development of appropriate wind farms is to build institutional capital through collaborative approaches to planning. However, these suggestions have rarely been followed in practice (Slee, 2015; Rydin et al., 2015; Nadaï, 2007; Zárate-Toledo et al., 2019; Walker and Baxter, 2017; Kim et al., 2018) but the price to pay can be very high: attempting to exclude people from the decision-making process may be more likely to promote opposition than overcome it (Bell et al., 2005). The need to interact with people to widen the acceptance of wind power plants is also recognized by Dwyer and Bidwell (2019), who analyse engagement techniques to build a chain of trust in process leaders, the process itself and the outcome of wind power projects.

Though the literature on the social perception of wind power is quite ample, minimal attention has been paid so far to the dynamics of the public opinion formation on the theme, i.e. on how the social actors interact and how each individual may come to form his/her opinion about wind power.

Models have been proposed to understand how people influence each other so that they coalesce around a common opinion as a result of their interaction, e.g. through agent-based models as in Mastroeni et al. (2019c), Guttal and Couzin (2010), Motsch and Tadmor (2014), Tania et al. (2012), Vicsek and Zafeiris (2012), Mastroeni et al. (2019b), Pareschi et al. (2017), Wang et al. (2011), Kolarijani et al. (2020), Proskurnikov et al. (2016), Bandini et al. (2009), Mastroeni et al. (2020, 2019a). However, those are mainly theoretical models and have never been applied to a specific context where wind power is debated.

In order to fill that research gap, in this paper, we wish to analyse how people debating wind power projects influence each other. If the energy policy (specifically that concerning wind power) has to take into account the public attitude, which is what the papers by Langer et al. (2017) and Dwyer and Bidwell (2019) implicitly recognize, it is crucial to know how the public opinion may be influenced.

In order to contribute to such a task, we start by considering a widely used social medium to express one's opinions, which is Twitter. Its wide diffusion (there are 330 million monthly active users and 145 million daily active users on Twitter, whereas 500 million tweets are sent out per day² and its limitation to short pieces of text, which place a very small burden on our time to contribute, make it a primary means of interactions. For that reason, we have considered it to start an analysis of social interactions in forming public opinion about wind power. Since Twitter allows a retweet function, where a twitterer can share a tweet with others, we have considered retweets as a proxy for the influence a twitterer can exert over other twitterers: the more a twitterer is retweeted, the more he/she can be considered as influential

² https://www.oberlo.com/blog/twitter-statistics

and his/her opinions can influence others. The power of retweets as a means of influence is well established in the literature, as shown, e.g., by Cha et al. (2010), Grover et al. (2019), Panagiotopoulos et al. (2016), Zhang et al. (2015), and Ye and Wu (2010). For that reason, we have employed retweets to build a social network of twitterers (the retweet network) to measure the extent of influence. The importance of social ties in influencing the uptake of technologies has been investigated, e.g., in Bale et al. (2013), McMichael and Shipworth (2013), and Ramirez et al. (2014). Here, we take a step further by considering the most recent place of expression of social interactions, e.g. through social media. Though social media (namely Facebook) have been exploited to study the formation of opinions about wind farms in Borch et al. (2020), the analysis was focussed on the opinion content, i.e. by carrying out a textual analysis; the social network behind the individual Facebook users was not investigated. Similarly, other papers have employed Twitter to investigate the opinions about energy issues, e.g., the perception of clean energy sources in Abdar et al. (2020), the group interactions of consumer behaviour within the UK energy sector (Mogaji et al., 2020), the sentiment on energy issues in Li et al. (2019), Jain and Jain (2019), and Ikoro et al. (2018). In this paper, we do not consider the actual content of those opinions but how they move around and influence citizens; we are interested in the relationships between people.

Our major contributions are:

- the overwhelming majority (from 90 to 96%) of twitterers is made of lone influencers, i.e. influencing just another twitterer and being retweeted just once;
- high influencers, influencing more than 12 other twitterers, represent a fraction lower than what a power law would assume;
- the average twitterer influence just a bit more than one other twitterer;
- the top influencer (the most retweeted twitterer) often exerts a much stronger influence than his/her runner-up;
- climate activists are the overall top-class influencers, gaining almost double the retweets of the runner-up (journalists and scientific journalists);
- among them there seems to be no consensus on climate change and renewables;
- leading international or governmental organizations (including the institutional White House account) rank fifth;
- though there is a large turnover from month to month, the top influencers are quite a steady group, staying for most months during the observation period;
- · energy-related world events have a narrow resonance over time.

2. Data and methods

We employ social media data from Twitter to investigate the influence exerted over that social network on wind power topics. We have exploited two Twitter API(s) (Gentry, 2015; Kearney et al., 2022) by searching for all the tweets containing either of the following word combinations:

- wind AND power;
- wind AND energy.

Then, we collected all the posts submitted in different time ranges:

- from 2019-11-30 to 2020-03-23 by means of twitteR R package (Gentry, 2015);
- from 2020-04-26 to 2021-03-08 by means of twitteR R package (Gentry, 2015);
- from 2021-03-09 to 2022-08-30 by means of rtweet R package (Kearney et al., 2022).

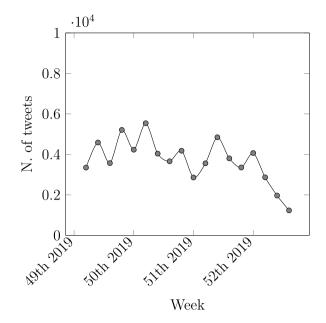


Fig. 1. Average daily number of tweets by week.

The second of these intervals was right after to the declaration of the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, which took place on 11 March 2020. Let us consider indeed Fig. 1. We can spot therein that the average number of tweets reaches its absolute minimum in the 12th week of 2020 (from March 16, 2020, to March 22, 2020), i.e. after the pandemic declaration. This can be explained by considering that the pandemic declaration increased public awareness and increased searches for information on COVID-19, as shown by Jun et al. (2021), probably cutting space to all the other topics of discussion on social networks. This is why we decided to stop collecting tweets for about a month. In the last interval, instead, we decided to change the package for rtweet because it is the only package actively maintained at present. Moreover, the rtweet package provides a few extra features and new conveniences in addition to providing the same basic functionality as the twitteR package. For example, the function search fullarchive provided by Kearney et al. (2022), allows searching for tweets posted within the last 30 days or since the first one was posted in 2006. Other peculiar functionalities of rtweet package allow working with Twitter lists (lists that allow to customize and organize the tweets in the timeline). Users can choose to join lists created by others on Twitter or to create lists of other accounts by group, topic or interest. The functions that in rtweet package provide a tool to work with Twitter lists are lists_members, lists_memberships, lists_statuses, lists_subscribers, lists_subscriptions, lists_users. Another important functionality that characterizes the package rtweet is tweet_threading, which returns all the replies from a user to their own tweets (i.e. statuses that are part of a thread).

All tweets are in English but with no geolocation information (latitude and longitude), though the user's browser or device could send this information. Twitter will not show any location information unless the user has opted in and has allowed his/her device or browser to transmit the coordinates to it.³ As a matter of fact, only a small portion of tweets are geotagged, less than 1% of its users (Hale et al., 2012). However, since it is important to know where a tweet came from in many Twitter studies to investigate regional user behaviour, many approaches have been proposed for the geolocation task. The approaches used are based on text and linguistic attributes of the

³ See Twitter FAQs: https://help.twitter.com/en/safety-and-security/tweet-location-settings.

tweets (Mishra, 2020; Huang and Carley, 2017; Suwaileh et al., 2020; Paule et al., 2019) or combinations of users data like, e.g., user profile location and text of the tweet (Mahajan and Mansotra, 2021; Chong and Lim, 2019; Gonzalez Paule et al., 2017; Lim et al., 2019; Chong and Lim, 2018). However, this allows for just an estimation of users' actual location, relying on the ground truth obtained by expressly geotagged tweets, which were not available in the dataset we have obtained from Twitter.

We focus particularly on retweets, i.e., posts reposting somebody else's tweet. Reposting is a stronger sign of support for somebody else's opinion than just following him/her: reposting implies an uncritical sharing of his/her opinions. In addition, it shows precise support since it concerns a single message. Being retweeted is then a sign of influence. The relevance of retweeting as a metric of influence, on which other influence measures can be built, has been recognized by Riquelme and González-Cantergiani (2016), who consider the following elementary forms of Twitter relationships: follow-up relationships, retweets, mentions, replies, favourites or likes. However, in our opinion, retweets represent the most expressive representation of support by twitterers for the opinion of another twitterer. Following a twitterer represents an interest in the tweets posted by that twitterer, but not necessarily support of his/her opinions. Mentions and replies may often convey a critical or contrary opinion. Likes are surely supportive of the opinion expressed in the tweet, but with a lower level of engagement, because they do not actively spread that opinion. Before the introduction of retweets, Bakshy et al. (2011) had employed reposts as a measure of influence. For those reasons, we deem that the count of retweets is the most relevant basic metric that should be adopted to measure influence. Riquelme et al. have provided an exhaustive survey of influence measures in Twitter, proposing a classification into the following four categories (Riquelme and González-Cantergiani, 2016): General; Based on metrics or Page Rank, Topical-sensitive; and Predictive.

The class of general measures of influence collects centrality measures defined for the general class of social networks (closeness and betweenness) and the H-index, borrowed from the field of citation analysis in scientific communities. Closeness employs the average distance on Twitter's graph and has been proposed as a measure of influence for social networks in general in Hajian and White (2011). The betweenness measures the capability of a node in a social network to be an intermediary in the relationship between two other nodes, being a passage point on the paths connecting the two nodes (Hajian and White, 2011). Both have been employed in Twitter, e.g., for the directed graph resulting from the twitterer-follower relationship in financial networks by Yang et al. (2015). The H-index can be redefined for Twitter as the maximum value h such that h tweets by the same twitterer have been replied to, retweeted or liked (according to the relationship of choice) at least h times. The H-index has been employed by Razis and Anagnostopoulos (2014) and Romero et al. (2011).

The second category defined by Riquelme and Gonzalez is based on basic metrics and adaptations of the PageRank algorithm. This category comprises 18 metrics. The Retweet impact considers both the number of retweets of the original post and the number of re-twitterers (Pal and Counts, 2011). Similarly, the Mention Impact combines four metrics related to mentions (number of mentions to other users by the author of the original tweet, number of users mentioned by the author, number of mentions to the author by other users, number of users mentioning the author). The number of metrics that are adaptations of PageRank is quite large, including UserRank (Majer and Šimko, 2012) and Influence Rank (Hajian and White, 2011).

Riquelme and Gonzalez also define a set of topical-sensitive measures, which tries to identify twitterers who are influential on a specific topic. Their use implies an analysis of the tweet's contents. They are often used after a preliminary screening of tweets has been carried out, keeping just those tweets concerning the topic of interest.

Finally, the last group of influence measures classified by Riquelme and Gonzalez is the predictive one, which includes just seven measures. The aim of these measures is to predict the most influential twitterers in the future. Their complexity and computational burden are typically higher than the measures of other classes. Examples are the Time Network Influence Model, which uses a probabilistic generative model (Zhaoyun et al., 2013), and the ReachBuzzRank, which employs a Hidden Markov Model (Simmie et al., 2014).

Influence measures have also been proposed for special classes of social networks. Notably, Kempe et al. (2003, 2015) have considered the problem of selecting the most influential nodes for viral marketing strategies. They have introduced the notion of *active node*, where activation is akin to being influenced and is dedicated by the activation status of the neighbour nodes. Leskovec et al. (2006) have instead considered a recommendation network, where influence is recognized if a purchase has taken place.

Though Twitter offers the ability to comment on a post before retweeting it,⁴ we have decided to retrieve just the uncommented ones. Retweeting a tweet with no added comments is a sign of full support of the twitterer's opinion, hence an uncritical spread of his/her influence. Hence, we use the number of retweets to measure the twitterer's influence.

Here, we use retweets to measure the influence of somebody's opinion on Twitter on other twitterers. We build a retweet network, designated in Kumar et al. (2014) as a major tool to analyse the influence of twitterers. The use of Twitter influence networks like the one we analyse here is widely supported in the literature; see, e.g. Riquelme and González-Cantergiani (2016), Tinati et al. (2012), Bisconti et al. (2019), Bode and Dalrymple (2016), Simmie et al. (2014). Zhang et al. (2015) underline the tight relationship between retweeting behaviour and social influence. The use of microblogging networks, particularly Twitter, has been recognized by Stieglitz and Dang-Xuan (2012) as an ideal mechanism to spread and reinforce one's political opinions. Anger and Kittl (2011) have examined the number of retweets and the number of followers as indicators of influence on Twitter. In particular, they have concluded that retweets with no comments express compliance (public agreement, with any disagreeing thoughts and opinions being kept to oneself) or internalization (the process of publicly and privately accepting a belief or behaviour), while retweets with comments may be employed to express disagreement. Riquelme and González-Cantergiani (2016) have conducted an exhaustive survey of the measures of influence on Twitter. In particular, the number of retweets ranks first by the number of papers where it is used. In our retweet network, each node represents a twitterer. We draw an edge from node A to node B if A has been retweeted by B. The weight of the edge is the number of retweets. In the end, we obtain a weighted directed network. The out-degree of a node measures the associated twitterer's influence.

In Fig. 2, we show an example of the resulting retweet network for one observation week. In order to avoid excessive garbling, we have arranged it by degree so that the most central nodes are located in the inner core of the graph. We have also removed the edges with weight 1 (i.e., twitterers who are retweeted just once) from the picture. We see that there are very few central nodes and many peripheral ones, i.e. a tiny core of very much retweeted twitterers (influencers) and a much larger number of influenced twitterers.

We must, however, recognize the possibility of including tweets that, despite containing the words *wind* or *power* or *energy*, are not relevant to our actual theme, i.e., the use of wind to get electrical power.

We need to eliminate as many non-relevant tweets as possible. In order to arrive at a set of relevant tweets, we employ a semi-automatic procedure based on hashtags and the co-occurrence principle (Türker and Sulak, 2018; Wang et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2013; Ben-Lhachemi and Nfaoui, 2018). The procedure for the selection of relevant tweets goes through the following steps:

⁴ See https://www.digitalinformationworld.com/2020/09/twitterrebranded-retweets-with-comment-with-quote-tweets-for-all-users.html? m=1.

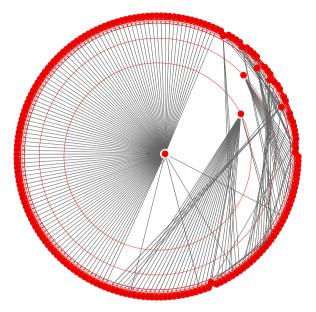


Fig. 2. Retweet network arranged by degree centrality (week ending on January 13, 2020).

- (a) Select the *k* most frequent hashtags in the dataset of interest;
- (b) Identify the hashtags that are surely relevant for our topic and form a group with them (say, Group X);
- (c) Form a group with all the other hashtags (say Group Y);
- (d) Examine all tweets containing Group Y hashtags but not Group X ones, and move their hashtags to Group X if those tweets are relevant;
- (e) Assign to Group X all the hashtags co-occurring with Group X hashtags (this is not done iteratively, but just once for each Group X hashtag).

At this point, we have the Group X of relevant hashtags. We can consider a tweet as relevant if it contains any hashtag included in Group X. The number of relevant tweets by month is depicted in Fig. 3, for a total number of 3,875,308 tweets. The total number of tweets collected through twitteR is 1,573,360 whereas the total number of posts collected through rtweet is 2,301,948. Among the latter, 56,236 are quoted tweets (i.e. retweets with an added comment) whereas all the others are simple uncritical posts. The package twitteR, instead, does not allow distinguishing between quoted tweets and simple retweets.

Lastly, we used the R package igraph to build and analyse the retweet networks. In Table 1 we listed the features of the retweet networks month by month.

3. Results

In this section, we discuss the results obtained through the application the social network methodology introduced in previous sections. We consider the following issues, that are related to the research questions described in the Introduction:

- the influence of individual twitterers on the community, by reach and intensity;
- · the concentration of influence;
- the composition of influencers, by reach and nature;
- the impact of energy-related events of retweeting activity.

3.1. Influence over the community

The first issue we wish to address is understanding how widespread the influence of any single twitterer is upon the community. As recalled

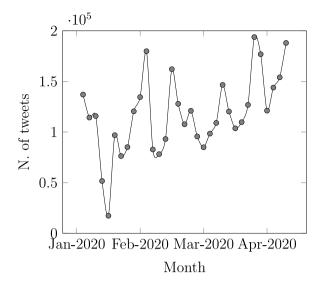


Fig. 3. Number of relevant tweets by month.

Table 1 Number of nodes and edges for each of the networks built month by month.

month.		
2019-11	1285	1155
2019-12	77236	91955
2020-01	59663	69716
2020-02	59690	71280
2020-03	26561	29509
2020-05	53133	60934
2020-04	10675	11319
2020-06	38653	43197
2020-07	46264	49718
2020-08	67646	74937
2020-09	77100	86080
2020-10	101797	117613
2020-11	38365	41389
2020-12	35661	40043
2021-01	44248	47993
2021-02	85182	100921
2021-03	58836	68932
2021-04	51101	56949
2021-05	60276	69006
2021-06	43905	48196
2021-07	39957	44497
2021-08	52489	57284
2021-09	52040	60739
2021-10	72659	87606
2021-11	58882	67614
2021-12	49801	56576
2022-01	50544	59575
2022-02	61844	71567
2022-03	88333	111238
2022-04	88336	109381
2022-05	58507	68106
2022-06	74977	91247
2022-07	79756	94487
2022-08	96387	120577

in Section 2, we have adopted the most established way of measuring influence on Twitter, i.e., through retweeting behaviour. It is natural to adopt metrics based on retweets. Riquelme and González-Cantergiani (2016) mentions three metrics associated with retweeting. The third metric is the number of users who have retweeted the author's tweets, which can be assumed to measure the breadth of influence of each twitterer. In our retweet network, that influence is then described by the outdegree of that twitterer. We consider first the twitterers who exert a minimal influence, i.e. those who influence just one other twitterer. In Fig. 4, we report the percentage of twitterers being retweeted just by another twitterer over the 34 months of our investigation. We see

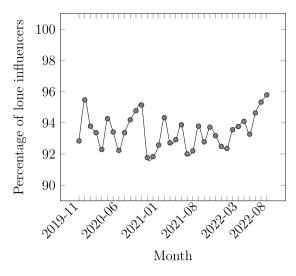


Fig. 4. Percentage of lone influencers by month.

that this percentage is very high (though fluctuating): it is always above 90% with a peak of nearly 96%. The bulk of twitterers influence just another twitterer (*lone influencers*).

Instead, the remaining twitterers exert a wider influence. We now take a look at the overall distribution. In Fig. 5, we report the average cumulative complementary frequency distribution of twitterers (accfd). Precisely, indicating by f_{ij} the relative frequency of the nodes of outdegree *j* in month *i*, the accfd is

$$e_j := \frac{1}{34} \sum_{i=1}^{34} \sum_{k \ge j} f_{ik}.$$
 (1)

We see that the experimental data follow a roughly linear decreasing trend (on a logarithmic scale) for the lowest range of outdegrees but then points markedly downwards for higher values of the outdegree. We can identify two classes of influencers associated with the two trends, depending on the power of the influencers. We name those two classes as medium influencers (influencing roughly up to 12–13 other twitterers) and high influencers. Together with the experimental curve, we show three fitting models that have provided the best fit over 90 models. All three models fit the real data well (exhibiting a correlation coefficient of 0.999), but the Weibull one deviates a bit on the high influencers (large outdegree values). Though the log-logistic and the Hill model srank pretty equal, the former employs three parameters, while the Hill model employs four. Since we prefer more parsimonious models, the log-logistic model appears as the best, being capable of describing the presence of both classes of influencers:

$$\hat{e}_{j}^{(\text{log-logistic})} = \gamma + \frac{1 - \gamma}{1 + e^{-\alpha - \beta \ln j}},$$
(2)

with $\alpha = -1.989$, $\beta = -0.9812$, and $\gamma = -6.872 \cdot 10^{-3}$.

What is the net result of the presence of lone influencers, medium influencers, and high influencers? The average outdegree in Fig. 6 tells us that the average twitterer influences between 1 and 1.3 other twitterers on average.

3.2. Influence intensity

In Fig. 5, we have seen how many twitterers a single twitterer may influence. We could call that a measure of *horizontal* influence. We are also interested in measuring the *vertical* influence, i.e., how many times a twitterer is retweeted by a single follower. Again, this is listed by Riquelme and González-Cantergiani (2016) as one of the metrics associated with retweeting, namely the number of retweets accomplished by the author. Here we choose to measure that quantity

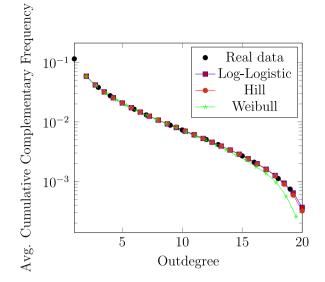


Fig. 5. Complementary cumulative distribution of nodes outdegree.

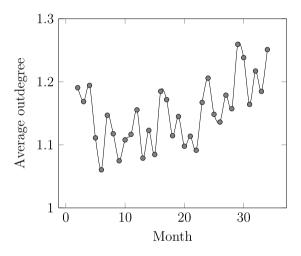


Fig. 6. Average number of influenced twitterers per influencer.

per retwitterer. In our retweet network, that quantity is represented by the weight of edges: a larger weight means a heavier influence. In Fig. 7, we see that most twitterers (91.7% for the entire temporal range) exert minimal influence on others (i.e., the weight of their edges is just 1), though there is a small minority of twitterers who are retweeted more frequently.

However, that small minority of heavy influencers is not enough to tilt the average influence significantly upwards. In Fig. 8, we see that the average influencer is retweeted slightly more than once.

3.3. Concentration and top influencers

Both in Figs. 5 and 7, we have seen that there is a small minority of heavy influencers. We now wish to derive a single index to measure how much the capability of influencing other twitterers is concentrated in the hands of a few influencers. For this purpose, we employ an index that, though born in the domain of industrial economics, has recently been applied to measure concentration phenomena in social networks, namely the Hirschman–Herfindahl Index (HHI) employed, e.g., in Colladon and Naldi (2019), Naldi (2019).

The HHI for the generic month *i* is defined as

$$HHI_{i} := \sum_{k=1}^{n_{i}} \left(\frac{q_{k,i}}{Q_{i}}\right)^{2} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} r_{k,i}^{2}$$
(3)

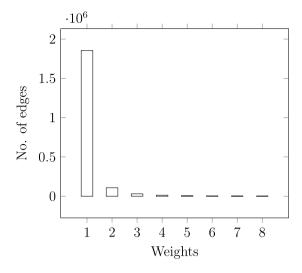


Fig. 7. Distribution of edges by their weight.

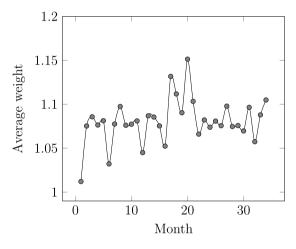


Fig. 8. Average edge weight in the retweet network.

where n_i is the number of retweeted twitterers in month *i*, q_{ki} is the number of time the influencer k is retweeted, $k = 1, 2, ..., n_i, Q_i$ is the total volume of the retweets, and $r_{k,i}$ is the share of retweets of the influencer k. For convenience, the frequencies q_{ki} and the relative frequencies r_{ki} are sorted in decreasing order. The HHI takes values in the $[1/n_i, 1]$ range, with values close to 1 representing scenarios close to a monologue (i.e., just one twitterer being retweeted), and values close to the lower bound representing a more pluralistic discussion. As can be seen in Fig. 9, the degree of concentration fluctuates wildly, but in several months it exhibits a strong concentration (values close to 1 represent a quasi-monopoly). The additive nature of the HHI makes it easy to isolate individual contributions to the index; if we plot the contribution of the top influencer (i.e., r_{1i}^2), we see, in that same picture, that it is actually responsible for the near totality of the HHI value in the presence of strong concentration (and for a substantial proportion of it when the concentration is lower). The concentration peaks are then due to the success of the top influencer alone.

In Table 2, we can see the nicknames of the top 10 influencers over the 34 months and observe how the top influencer got many more retweets than its runner up in the months of larger concentration.

Excluding the first and the last month, where the data collected is only partial because it does not cover the entire month, the peaks in Fig. 9 are achieved in months 6, 11 and 33. If we compare them with the top influencers listed in Table 2, we have a major key to read the

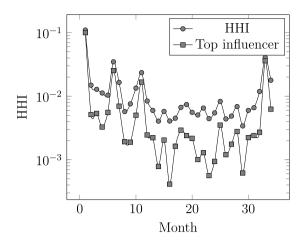


Fig. 9. Herfindahl-Hirschman Index (HHI).

behaviour depicted in Fig. 9. The months 2020-04, 2020-09 and 2022-07 are the months in which the gap between the first and the second is greater (in percentage terms) and most of the other positions in the top 10 are comparable to each other.

3.4. Who is behind top influencers

Among the few very much retweeted twitterers, the Top 10 are reported in Table 2 month by month. But who are they? Are they activists? Or do they work for a company? Or are they scientists? Knowing who is behind their screen names may help us uncover their intentions in writing posts and understand people's preferences. Hereafter we disclose their roles in society, starting with those appearing more often in the Top 10. To accomplish this task, we checked the Twitter bio of each most retweeted user; the Twitter bio of user x can be defined as a summary of x's Twitter profile.⁵ Furthermore, in the bio, there may be links to the official websites of the companies or institutions represented on Twitter by the account. By examining the Twitter bio, we can establish whether an account belongs to a company representative or a private person. In particular, we used the information contained in the bio to go back to personal or institutional websites, LinkedIn profiles and even the Wikipedia pages of each user. As we can see in the following list, influencers able to stay in the Top 10 for more than 3 months have non-anonymous accounts and their information are easily retrieved on the web.

- In the Top 10 for 27 months:
 - @MikeHudema is the Twitter account of Mike Hudema, a climate campaigner with Greenpeace Canada, living on Coast Salish Territories (Vancouver).
- In the Top 10 for 15 months:
 - @arikring is the Twitter account of Arik Ring. He is an energy consultant and works on solar and renewable energies in general.
- In the Top 10 for 13 months:
 - @AlexEpstein is the Twitter account of Alexander Epstein, an American author and commentator who advocates for fossil fuels.

⁵ See the suggestions by Twitter on https://help.twitter.com/it/managingyour-account/how-to-customize-your-profile.

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Table 2

Top 10 influencers (retweets).

Top 10 influen	cers (retv	veets).											
2019-11		2019-12	2	2020-01		2020-02		2020-03	3	2020-04		2020-05	
names	retweets	names	retweets r	names	retweets	names	retweets	names	retweets	names	retweets	s names	retweets
CNN	370	MikeHudema	7004	MikeHudema	5545	MikeHudema	4389	MikeHudema	2381	thejessicadore	1859	GovMikeHuckabee	5478
cnni		atrupar		CNN		ShellenbergerMD				EcoSenseNow	695	jwlarrabee	4950
ScienceNews		thugsRbadMK		changemation		TrevorSidogi	3006	1		lamphierveg	382	MikeHudema	2297
arikring		mmgh_		nni			2706			MikeHudema	372	davidluhnow	1294
ajplus		-		EcoSenseNow			1593	prageru		CoryBMorgan	250	lamphieryeg	996
		mmpadellan		atimeralder			1076	KeiraSavage00		renew_economy	222	MaximeBernier	971
business		CNN		arikring		dcexaminer	978	coco14391		TheBabylonBee	218	LadyVelvet_HFQ	765
MikeHudema		matthaig1		ashtrapatibhvn		tveitdal	918	arikring		DrSimEvans	203	arikring	656
dbirch214		IdaAuken		nzjacobson		RealMarkLatham		Judith_Char		NovaTruly	187	beneltham	643
				RENA		arikring	656	Barbarajdurkin		ShellenbergerMI		Concealcarrygrl	634
ma_moenin	20	uniting	1001 1		//0	unining	000	Durburujuurkin	072	onenenbergerint	, 1/0	conceateuriygii	001
2020-06		2020-0	7	2020	-08	2020-	-09	202	20-10	2020	0-11	2020-1	2
names	retweets	names	retweet	ts names	retwe	ets names	retw	veets names	retw	eets names	retw	reets names	retweets
MikeHudema	2077	MikeHudema	2325	LunionSuite	5714	wonderofscien	nce 120	27 pbhushan1	6092	7 SenSanders	212) MikeHudema	1218
		tiwarymanoj	2323	Shellenberge		BrianRoemme							784
		tribelaw	1594	davidfrawley		MikeHudema	292				738	CaslerNoel	767
0										0			
		Jhanzaib_S	1416	DanCrenshav		atrupar	237			01	•	BJP4India	668 642
		UNFCCC	1037	MikeHudema		ddale8	214 214 nmo	0 2			691	arikring	
Iberdrola_En		funder	839	wef	1223	melanatedmor				6	621	AssaadRazzouk	
ewarren		arikring	799	Julez_Norton		MJoelFranklin			1804		522	mzjacobson	540
•		esglaude	561	SpaceCityWX		wef	144		1524			prageru	528
elonmusk		DanielTurnerP		IRENA	948	DrGauravGarg	, ,				428	wef	480
Reuters	458	SGirardau	467	mkraju	881	DOTA2	130	2 KirenRijiju	ı 1262	2 Greenpeace	418	laurenboebert	450
2021-02	1	2021	-02	202	1-03	2021-	04	202	1-05	202	1-06	2021-0	7
names	retweet			ets names		eets names		eets names		veets names		veets names	retweets
dcwoodruff	2332	EngineringVie		rssurjewala	3148				368				1557
MikeHudema		kajalverma01		MikeHudem			1203		262				1349
MikeLoychik	1064	AlexEpstein	1619	GretaThunb	0			55				-	1153
kitextech	986	BjorkBrodern	1602	SecGranholi		arikring	1096		141	-		0	927
SenateDems	805	DrEricDing	1453	KateSullivar		GOPChairwor				0		-	
arikring	743	NPR	1430	kylegriffin1	859	MikeHudema	964	PPathole	128		796	-	710
AssaadRazzou		RexChapman	1342	PolitiFact	805	mvmeet	914	Documentin			746		612
drvolts	737	LisPower1	1319	amitmalviya		AlexEpstein	871	GavinNewso			663		594
wef	653	TexasTribune		Shellenberg		helloiammaria		arikring	101		500		577
mzjacobson	546	ArtiSha10991	6451082	nytimes	755	Quicktake	835	MollyJongFa	ast 912	ScottAdams	Says 487	fgcabezadevaca	a 529
2021-	08	202	1_00	2021	-10	2021-1	1	2021	-12	2022	-01	2022-02)
names		eets names		ts names		ts names		s names		eets names		ets names	retweets
JackPosobiec	2193	5		fake_biden	2887	PeterSweden7	4332	johnredwood	2108	5		mcannonbrookes	
AdamBienkov				AlexEpstein	2766	JohnBasham	3315	ThePlumLineC		0	0	bambibaekyoong	
zarahsultana	1826		1229	briantylercol	hen 2165	PeterDClack	1857	DanielAndrew		WhiteHouse	1196	Stonekettle	1701
MikeHudema	1553	0 =	-	POTUS	1646	MikeHudema	1189	BetoORourke	771	MikeHudem		engineers_feed	1539
Iberdrola_En	1181	-		YoukuOfficia		fabre_jaime	950	MikeHudema		themetrover		BetoORourke	1310
ReedTimmerA		-		WhiteHouse	1344	Iberdrola_En	904	SteveatTH	683	AlexEpstein		DrSimEvans	1116
MeghUpdates		mattwridle		AusIndiMedi		EcoSenseNow	828	BjornLomborg	5	JavierBlas	692	0 1	1002
AlexEpstein	686	GBNEWS	838	gautam_adar		Rainmaker197		pleh_mann	612	Iberdrola_Er		MikeHudema	986
PaulEDawson		CMOGuj	812	mattwridley	1098	SecDebHaaland		powerofthesea		EcoSenseNo		ErikSolheim	860
shen_shiwei	623	JunkScien	ce 741	MikeHudema	a 996	AlexEpstein	527	Iberdrola_En	534	arikring	503	darrengrimes_	806
00000	00		0000 0	4		00.05		0000.07				0000.00	
2022			2022-04			22-05		2022-06		2022-07		2022-08	
names	ret	weets names		retweets 1	names	retweets	names	retwee	ets name	es re	tweets 1	names re	etweets
elonmusk	29	78 Occup	Democrat	ts 5524 I	MikeHudeı	na 3664	POTUS	5017	Peter	Sweden7 19	9557 I	BeckettUnite 1	0534
RichardJMur			pertweets		stats_feed	2548	antoniog						160
uk_domain_na		0	nahindra		- AlexEpstei		thewire_						658
BrianGitt	14				BillGates	1146	pbhusha		Brian				878
ntsafos	13	0	bergerMD		minna_alar		briantyle						859
RWPUSA	11		0		antoniogut		ashoswa						814
joncoopertwe			ePettim13		briantylerc		SquizzST			•		•	040
AlexEpstein	10				JunkScienc		RepMTG						891
reallovepunk	98				BrianGitt	957	KTRTRS					*	654
johnredwood	95	5			shelbyweb		BetoORc		hkak	-		olyonMaugham 1	
John cuwoou	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,			11/7 2		- 014	500000		indk	-ya 11		si, omnudgham 1	

• In the Top 10 for 8 months:

- @Iberdrola_En is the account of Iberdrola, a world-leading company in renewable energy, with a history of over 170 years. On its Twitter bio, the company declares: *today, we are an international company focused on sustainability*.

• In the Top 10 for 6 months:

- @ShellenbergerMD is the account of Michael D. Shellenberger, an American author whose Wikipedia page states: (his) writing has focused on the intersection of climate change, the environment, nuclear power, and politics, and more recently

Table 3

Who are the Top influencers?

Class	Members	Total no. of retweets		
Climate activists	@MikeHudema, @EcoSenseNow, @PeterSweden7	106,858		
Journalism	@CNN, @AlexEpstein, @ShellenbergerMD, @briantylercohen	56,779		
Energy and financial consultants	@arikring, @BrianGitt, @PaulEDawson	44,045		
Politicians	@johnredwood, @BetoORourke, @POTUS	26,164		
Leading international or governmental agencies, associations, organizations	@wef, @WhiteHouse	13,758		
Companies	@Iberdrola_En	13,602		
Academic experts, scientists	@mzjacobson	12,765		
Generalist individual twitterers	@lamphieryeg, @prageru	9,212		

on how he believes progressivism is linked to homelessness, drug addiction, and mental illness.

- In the Top 10 for 5 months:
 - @wef stands for the World Economic Forum, the international organization for public-private cooperation.
 - @BrianGitt is the Twitter account of Brian Gitt. The description given by his web-page introduces him as a financial specialists for investors in the energy sector.
 - @PaulEDawson is the Twitter account of Paul Dawson. He is a writer on climate solutions based in Glasgow. His newsletter and book club, Climate Solutions, provides subscribers information on climate.
- In the Top 10 for 4 months:
 - @mzjacobson is the Twitter account of Prof. Mark Z. Jacobson (Stanford University), an expert in Civil and Environmental Engineering.
 - @EcoSenseNow is the Twitter account of Patrick Moore, former activist, and past president of Greenpeace Canada.
 - @johnredwood is the Twitter account of Sir John Alan Redwood, a British politician member of the Conservative Party.
- In the Top 10 for 3 months:
 - @BetoORourke is the Twitter account of Beto O'Rourke; he is the Democratic nominee for the 2022 Texas gubernatorial election.
 - @briantylercohen is the Twitter account of Brian Tyler Cohen, an American actor, blogger, podcaster and journalist.
 - @CNN is the celebrated multinational cable news channel.
 - @lamphieryeg, @prageru seem to be generalist users
 - @PeterSweden7 is the Twitter account of Peter Sweden, an activist that we could define at least controversial for his conspiratorial positions.
 - @POTUS is the President Biden's account.
 - @WhiteHouse is the Twitter account of White House.

In Table 3 we classified these screen names according to their role, showing the total number of retweets gained by each class. The class of climate activists is the top one and is represented by three twitterers, with an astounding number of retweets. Anyway they do not all seem to be on the same stance on climate change and renewables. The polarization around a small number of different opinions concerning these topics has been recently highlighted in the literature (Iacomini and Vellucci, 2021). Journalists are distant runners-up, with organizations as well as energy and financial consultants being an even more distant set of influencers. Generalist individual twitterers are the least retweeted class.

3.5. Influence turnover

So far, we have assessed the presence of heavy influencers, as measured either by the number of twitterers they influence or by how many retweets they receive. In Table 2, we have seen that some of the top influencers are constantly present. A natural question to answer is then: Is there a core of steady influencers, or do influencers change over time? In order to answer that question, we define some quantities. We denote the set of twitterers at month t by \mathcal{V}_t . For the ensemble of n observation months, we introduce the proportion SIR of steady influencers, i.e. the proportion of influencers who are retweeted every month:

$$\operatorname{SIR} = \frac{\left|\bigcap_{t=1}^{n} \mathcal{V}_{t}\right|}{\left|\bigcup_{t=1}^{n} \mathcal{V}_{t}\right|}.$$
(4)

This ratio ranges between 0 and 1, with values closer to 1 meaning that a strong majority of twitterers are constantly influencing others. Of course, we do not expect it to be very large. Actually, in our case, we have SIR = 0.0001111146, meaning that constant influencers account for 0.01% of the overall set of twitterers.

On the other hand, we can measure how the set of influencers change month by month, as defined by the turnover rate (i.e., the proportion of influencers at month *t* being retweeted again in the next month t + 1)

$$\text{TR} = 1 - \frac{|\mathcal{V}_{t} \cap \mathcal{V}_{t+1}|}{|\mathcal{V}_{t+1}|}$$
(5)

The monthly behaviour of the turnover is depicted in Fig. 11. We see that the turnover fluctuates wildly; it is always larger than 0.7 (meaning that over 70% of influencers are new) but, removed the first month which is only partial, it can reach values as high as 90% (month 6), which means that just 10% of influencers keep on influencing in the coming month.

3.6. Events

The discussion on Twitter may be fuelled by what goes on in the real world, e.g. some events of particular interest for energy topics. For the sake of simplicity, we decided to focus only on the first 14 weeks of our sample. Here we have considered two major events, namely the World Economic Forum (which is, by the way, one of the most popular contributors to the topic) and COP25 (the 2019 United Nations Climate Change Conference). Those events were held respectively in January 2020 (week 8) and December 2019 (weeks 1 and 2). In order to examine their influence on Twitter, we tracked the number of tweets containing the strings *WEF* or *World Economic Forum* or *COP25* during the weeks following those events. An increase in the number of such tweets would show that those events quite drove the discussion on Twitter. In Fig. 10, we see that both events contributed significantly to the discussion on Twitter. However, while the interest

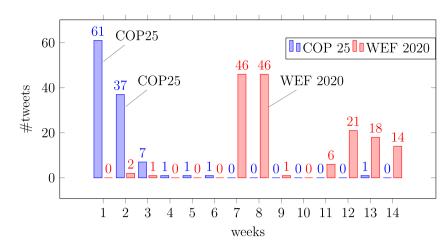


Fig. 10. Interest in major energy-related events.

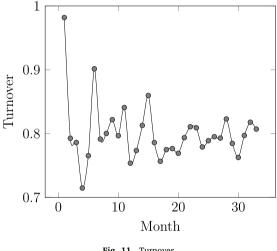


Fig. 11. Turnover.

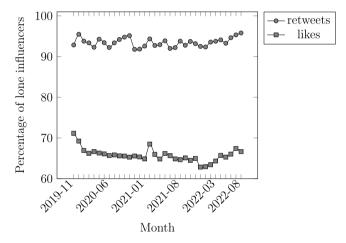


Fig. 12. Likes vs retweets: lone influencers by month.

on COP25 lasted for a couple of weeks, the interest for WEF sprung up again in weeks 1 through 14 after a similar two-week initial period. Many tweets in weeks 7-8 were retweets of a single tweet posted by @vankapro, spreading the news that Denmark had obtained almost half of its electrical power from the wind. Tweets concerning WEF published from week 12 to 14 do not concern events related to the last annual meeting in Davos but seem to mention some points discussed in it (, e.g. environment and renewable energies). This suggests a more lasting impact of WEF on public debate about wind energy.

3.7. Likes vs retweets

On Twitter, when someone sees an interesting tweet, they can show they like it by tapping the heart icon. As more people like a tweet, more people will see that sign of appreciation. As we can read on Twitter manual6: "Liking a Tweet tells the world and the person who wrote it that you enjoyed, agreed with, or admired it". Likes are then a further sign of influence: the more likes a tweet receives, the more supported the opinion contained in the tweet is.

In this section, we perform some statistical analyses of Twitter users based on the number of likes received, which adds to the influence analysis carried out through retweets. In Table 4, we can see the nicknames of the top 10 influencers over the 34 months based on the likes they have gained. As in Table 2, we observe that some of the top influencers are constantly present.

Despite the presence of much "liked" twitterers, if we look at the number of likes received by each user, we notice that lone influencers (i.e. those who received just one like or no likes at all) still form the bulk of twitterers. In Fig. 12, we can see that the percentage of twitterers who received a maximum of one like over the 34 months of our investigation is quite high. The average number of likes depicted in Fig. 13 tells us that a twitterer receives between 3 and 16 likes on average.

In Fig. 14, we see that most twitterers gain minimal likes from others (i.e., their posts receive just a few likes at most), while a small minority of twitterers receive a large number of likes. In other words, the distribution of likes exhibits concentration as we observed for retweets.

In order to assess the degree of concentration, we can estimate the HHI index (3) over the observation months for likes instead of retweets. Now, n_i is the number of twitterers who gained at least one

⁶ https://help.twitter.com/en/resources/twitter-guide/topics/how-to-getstarted-with-twitter/how-to-like-a-tweet-on-twitter-twitter-help

Table 4

Top 10 influencers	s (likes)).											
month 1	1:1-00	month 2	1:1-00	month 3		month 4	1:1	month 5	1:1	month 6	1:1	month 7	1:1
names	likes	names	likes	names	likes	names	likes	names		names	likes		likes
ScienceNews	183	ericswalwell	24701	CNN	16395	0				thejessicadore	837		
Brink_Thinker	180	matthaig1	18441	MikeHudema	9887	SenSanders	11778	5		TheBabylonBee	209	5	13362
mzjacobson	73	MikeHudema	14618	rashtrapatibhv		AmandaOwen8	8623	Florent_ATo		CoryBMorgan	978	,	8074
NCConservation	62	Iberdrola_En	10348	changemation	9227	MikeHudema	6630	eastantrimmp		lamphieryeg	911	beneltham	4920
sang1983	54	RexHuppke	10044	cnni Za al-Damasta in	7795	TrevorSidogi	4626	prageru		MikeHudema	507	MikeHudema	3940
quea_ali	45	atrupar	8505	ZackBornstein	4768	PaulEDawson	3157	Judith_Char		ShellenbergerMD			2762
business	40	mmpadellan	8478	EcoSenseNow	2919	dcexaminer	2697	KeiraSavage00		renew_economy	439		2345
hardenuppete	39	CNN	8244	MigunaMiguna		RealMarkLatham		PaulEDawson		NovaTruly	360		2293
NWSBayArea	38	earlxsweat	7591	thehill	2099	subschneider	1915	HoodHealer	958	Goldwind_Global			2220
AstroCryptoGuru	ı 29	thugsRbadMK	6634	mzjacobson	2019	tveitdal	1608	TheEconomist	918	EdwardJDavey	316	SHREKRAP	2083
month 8		month 9		month 10		month 11		month 12		month 3		month 1	
names li	ikes na	ames	likes r	names	likes	names	likes	names	likes	names	lik	es names	likes
NICKMERCS 9	9429 ti	warymanoj	7308 d	lavidfrawleyved	14735	wonderofscience	49739	thenoelmiller	2749	8 SenSanders	19	493 CaslerNoel	16739
elonmusk 7	7217 tr	ibelaw	6075 S	hellenbergerMD	12606	BrianRoemmele	13289	gtconway3d	2585	0 ZackBornstein	42	38 AskAnshul	8702
Iberdrola_En 5	5540 M	ikeHudema	4755 L	unionSuite	9900	ddale8	12858	pbhushan1	2063	8 MikeHudema	33	01 laurenboebert	4761
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like in month *i*, q_{ki} is the number of likes gained by the influencer *k*, $k = 1, 2, \dots, n_i, Q_i$ is the total volume of the likes, and $r_{k,i}$ is the share of likes of the influencer k. For convenience, the frequencies q_{ki} and the relative frequencies $\boldsymbol{r}_{k,i}$ are sorted in decreasing order. The HHI takes values in the $[1/n_i, 1]$ range, with values close to 1 representing scenarios with just one twitterer being liked, and values close to the lower bound a discussion where more people are admired for what they

write. As can be seen in Fig. 15, the degree of concentration of likes is similar to that of retweets.

4. Conclusions and policy implications

Our analysis of the influence of the different stakeholders in a social medium like Twitter allows us to see who is leading the discussion on wind energy. By far and large, the most followed class

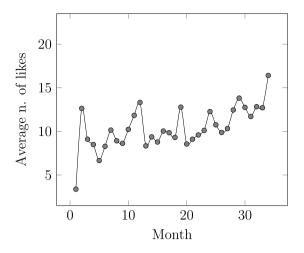


Fig. 13. Average number of likes per month.

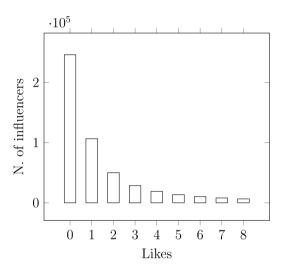


Fig. 14. Distribution of influencers by their achieved number of likes over the entire time span.

of opinion leaders is the climate activists, whose tweets have been retweeted nearly two times as much as the whole class of their runnerups (journalists and scientific journalists). Companies exert a much lower influence, nearly on a par with generalist individual twitterers. Despite the major weight that the appraisal of economic benefits plays in the acceptance of wind turbines, as proven in Frantál (2015), the climate-driven opinions pushed forward by activists seem to prevail on Twitter. The rise of green influencers (greenfluencers) in promoting activism on sustainability issues through their posts on social media had already been recognized by Knupfer et al. (2022). However, the comparison between categories of influencers on Twitter on renewable energy issues recently carried out by Walter and Hanke (2020) had shown a different picture. News outlets and political organizations led the ranking by the number of their followers (respectively with 59% and 21%), while environmental organizations exhibited a share of just 4%. We note that the number of followers may reflect the general level of influence rather than that related to energy issues only. We claim that our approach more precisely reflects the level of influence on the specific topic at hand. Our findings reverse the rankings reported by Walter and Hanke (2020), though they are in line with the general feeling that activists exert a significant influence.

Aside from the sheer evidence of facts, this may be due to either of two direct factors (or both of them): either the other stakeholders are not making their voices heard enough (i.e., they are not steadily present on Twitter, voicing their opinion) or they do not capture the attention and the consensus of the people of Twitter.

Though institutions can have a crucial influence on local attitudes towards wind energy projects, as shown in several papers by Toke (2002, 2005), Langer et al. (2017), this does not show through on Twitter. The presence of institutions on Twitter must increase if they want to develop more effective communications with citizens. This is especially true when financial incentives can be granted by governments, local policy-makers or government agencies since those incentives are often a driver for purchasing many green products. This has been shown in Higueras-Castillo et al. (2020) for the adoption of electric and hybrid vehicles, but it also applies to investments in wind farm projects. Different combinations of variables can help bring forward investments in wind generation. One-off policies, e.g., a transitory initial subsidy, seem to have a more substantial effect than a fixed premium per MWh produced (Abadie and Chamorro, 2014). The economic factor is also remarkable for its absence: the lack of economic benefits is also one of the most frequent reasons for rejecting wind energy projects (Frantál, 2015; Slattery et al., 2012; Katsaprakakis, 2012; Clausen and Rudolph, 2019). Among those who disagreed on the development of a wind project, a large part of them admitted that they would have supported the project if they or their household had received some direct financial benefit from it (e.g. individual financial compensation and cheaper electricity).

If we look at the entire time span, we can observe that the discussion on wind energy shows an increasing trend in users' activities. We refer in particular to statistics like, e.g., the number of relevant tweets and the average number of influenced twitterers per influencer (via both retweets and likes). The average number of retweets and likes have recorded a marked increment during the 2021–present global energy crisis; this can be explained by assuming that the crisis pushes users to discuss energy-related topics more often than in more stable periods.

Anyway, all the influencers do not seem to share the same stance on climate change and renewables. The polarization around a small number of different opinions concerning these topics has been recently highlighted in the literature. This polarization seems to concern mainly the two most influential categories of influencers (according to the number of retweets gained from them): climate activists and journalists. To be convinced of this, it is enough to observe the personal web pages or Wikipedia pages of influencers who fall into these two categories. This polarization may have helped push up the number of retweets earned by the two categories.

We must recognize some limitations in our current work, which we hope to remove in our further research.

Though Tweet is an extremely popular means to voice one's opinions, due to its ease of use, diffusion, and shortness of texts (as documented by its figures, briefly recalled in the Introduction), it is by no means the only place where people discuss energy issues. We plan to examine a wide variety of social media in the future, including specialized forums.

A further limitation is due to our choice to collect only tweets in English. Twitterers indeed prefer to post tweets in the dominant language of their country, as reported in the analysis conducted by Mocanu et al. (2013). However, English is the most used language, and even nonnative English speakers may prefer to post tweets in English to reach a broader audience.

In order to continue our investigation into the opinions about wind energy, we envisage broadening our scope beyond Twitter and examining both the opinions voiced on discussion forums (which may exhibit a different degree of regulation than Twitter) and the communication strategies of institutional stakeholders, which may find their way through different media. Also, we plan to identify the mechanisms of consensus push and propagation on social media, which may help us understand how forceful the communications strategies of different stakeholders are.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

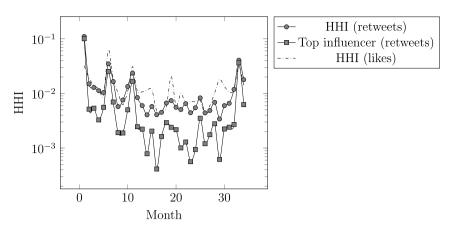


Fig. 15. Likes vs retweets: Herfindahl-Hirschman Index (HHI).

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