Mapping climate discourse to climate opinion: An approach for augmenting surveys with social media to enhance understandings of climate opinion in the United States

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Abstract

Surveys are commonly used to quantify public opinions of climate change and to inform sustainability policies. However, conducting large-scale population-based surveys is often a difficult task due to time and resource constraints. This paper outlines a machine learning framework—grounded in statistical learning theory and natural language processing—to augment climate change opinion surveys with social media data. The proposed framework maps social media discourse to climate opinion surveys, allowing for discerning the regionally distinct topics and themes that contribute to climate opinions. The analysis reveals significant regional variation in the emergent social media topics associated with climate opinions. Furthermore, significant correlation is identified between social media discourse and climate attitude. However, the dependencies between topic discussion and climate opinion are not always intuitive and often require augmenting the analysis with a topic’s most frequent n-grams and most representative tweets to effectively interpret the relationship. Finally, the paper concludes with a discussion of how these results can be used in the policy framing process to quickly and effectively understand constituents’ opinions on critical issues.

Introduction

Enacting sustainable climate policy requires understanding public opinions on climate change. This is complicated by geographic variations in climate change belief in the United States, where county-level belief in climate change ranges from 43-80% of the population [1]. These variations have been attributed to endogenous factors such as regional heterogeneity in racial and ethnic composition [1], media consumption [2], and the beliefs of an immediate social
circle [3]—as well as exogenous factors such as the frequency of exposure to natural disasters [4, 5] and geographic proximity to the coast [6]. Understanding causes of variation in climate change opinions requires a holistic analysis of the topics, themes, and events associated with climate change beliefs. In this paper, we focus on modeling the dominant topics, themes, and events present in social media discourse which correspond with regional, survey-based measures of climate change belief to augment surveys and provide additional depth to the opinions on climate change gathered by surveys.

Previous survey-based research provides a baseline understanding of climate change attitudes at a regional level [1, 7], however, it falls short of capturing the complexities of individual climate change belief. In response to survey questions, individuals must reconcile and ultimately map their beliefs regarding sustainability and climate change to a suitable survey response [8]. This process emphasizes an individual’s response to the question rather than the complexities which contribute to it [9–11]. Consequently, surveys provide a barometer for public opinion, but lack the detail necessary to explain individual motivation and activity [12].

Recent research has utilized social media activity to form deeper insights into individual motivations and perceptions in an effort to further understand the beliefs surrounding climate change [7, 13–15]. Social media is a platform for opinion sharing, and provides unique access to the complexities of an individual’s opinion [16]. On microblogging sites such as Twitter—with explicit content-length limits—all discussion is inherently distilled by the user, producing messages which are dense with relevant content [7]. The simplification of content combined with low barriers to entry has led to the use of social media as a tool for understanding the specifics of climate change belief [4, 7, 13, 14, 16–19]. However, social media analysis has been criticized for an overemphasis on content rather than understanding the constituent factors which contribute to an individual’s online content [13, 15].

In this paper, we propose a framework, grounded in statistical learning theory and natural language processing, to harness both survey and social media data in order to relate regional opinions on climate change to the dominant set of topics, themes, and events which may underlie them. We show that the social media-detected topics, themes, and events which color climate change opinions demonstrate regional heterogeneity in the continental United States. Using Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA), we distill the social media discourse into a set of topics constituting the landscape of climate change discussion. These regional portfolios are then mapped onto survey-based responses on climate change issues to explore the relationship between opinion and discourse. To our knowledge, this is the first rigorous integration of social media discourse with survey data in the context of climate change.

Data and methods

This analysis seeks to answer the question: “How can social media activity be integrated with survey responses to improve the characterization of climate change opinion?” In other words, the goal of this study is to map Twitter activity onto survey responses to uncover the complex dependencies between discourse and opinion. To do this, we augment climate opinion survey data by developing a predictive model which utilizes a summarized portfolio of social media data as input to predict climate opinion. We then assess the partial dependencies between the input and output data to deduce the effect of individual topics on climate opinions. In this section, we describe both the social media and climate survey data used for this analysis, outline the structure of the predictive modeling framework, and describe the statistical validation performed on the data.
Data
Two key sources of data were used in this study: climate change opinion survey data and social media activity, aggregated by US county. Climate opinion survey data were sourced from the Yale Climate Opinion Dataset [1] while social media data (i.e. tweets) were sourced from Twitter.

Climate opinion dataset. Survey research is a time-intensive and expensive method for gathering information on public opinion. To combat this challenge, in 2015 Howe et al. [1] developed a model to predict survey responses on a variety of climate related issues. The topics covered in the survey range from risk perceptions to policy preferences. The model provides information at the state, congressional district, metropolitan, and county levels, using a small set of demographic and geographic variables [1]. Based on validation on several independently conducted surveys, the model is reported to be accurate to within seven percentage points: slightly less accurate than the typical three percentage points expected of a traditionally-conducted survey [1]. While lower in accuracy, it provides the advantage of access to highly granular and spatially expansive data. For this analysis, the predicted survey responses are used as the response variable, as the granularity of the data allows for mapping the high resolution geo-located social media data to climate opinions. With this data source, climate opinion information can be mapped at the county rather than state level and ultimately provides more data for training and validation of the proposed predictive model.

Twitter data. To capture the topics, themes, and events associated with regional climate opinions, we extract data from Twitter user accounts. Twitter offers two well-documented Application Program Interfaces (APIs) through which data can be accessed. The Standard API allows virtually unrestricted access to tweets produced in the last seven days, with a limit on the number of requests per hour. The Premium API allows users to access the full Twitter archive, but has much more restrictive rate limits. This API is designed for users and organizations who are interested in a paid subscription.

In the interest of data accessibility, this analysis relies on the Standard API. By using tweets collected over a week long period, we ensure that all of the information required to conduct the study can be collected without a premium API subscription. One shortcoming of the Standard API is that it is not guaranteed to return every tweet in a given period of time. However, by taking advantage of different parameters in Twitter’s search function (namely specifying the ID of the most recent tweet to retrieve), the majority of tweets within a specific window can be retrieved. In two validation tests conducted over two separate three hour windows, we found that the Standard API returned at least 98% of the tweets retrieved by the Premium API.

We utilize two data subsets in training the proposed predictive model: a large corpus to train the topic model (later referred to as the topic corpus) and a smaller, geo-located corpus to derive regional topic features (referred to as the regional corpus). Because of Twitter’s privacy policy, not all tweets can be geo-located, which leads to the reduction in size from the topic to regional corpus. However, as tweets are generally short, it is important to maximize the sample size used to develop the topic model, hence the two distinct corpora.

The topic corpus consists of every tweet that matches the keywords “carbon” (excluding “carbon monoxide”), “climate”, or “global warming” (and excludes “RT”, Twitter’s representation of a retweet) in the region of interest (US, in this case) over a seven day period. In this study, the date range is April 18th through April 25th, 2019—notably encompassing Earth Day and the Extinction Rebellion in London. The following is an example query to illustrate how data was collected, modified to enhance readability:
where query is the specific keywords being targeted, excluding specifies words to exclude from the results, count identifies the number of tweets to return in the query (100 is the maximum), tweet_mode describes whether or not data beyond the tweet itself should be returned, and max_id specifies the most recent tweet ID to be used in the query (allowing us to exclude tweets that have already been collected, as tweet IDs are issued chronologically.

After data acquisition, the final topic corpus includes roughly 350,000 tweets. The regional corpus consists of geo-located tweets that match the aforementioned criteria. The most precise form of geo-tagging is a tweet that includes the latitude and longitude where the tweet originated, but less than 1% of tweets include this information. Another form of geo-tagging is a tweet that is associated with a specific location or a tweet that originates from a user associated with a specific location (e.g. Chicago, Illinois). For these tweets to be returned by the query, the entire region as specified by Twitter must be encompassed by the search radius. To perform geo-tagging, the search criteria is updated to include geographic coordinates and a search radius as follows:

geo-code = latitude, longitude, radius

where latitude and longitude specify the geographic center of a county and radius is the radius from the center in which to look for tweets. For the tweet to be returned by the query, it must be geo-tagged. The final regional corpus includes 190,000 tweets.

**Topic modeling**

**Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA).** To extract the key topics in the corpora of Twitter data, we utilize an unsupervised clustering technique called Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA). Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) has been used extensively to detect topics on Twitter [20]. LDA is a probabilistic topic model, a class of Bayesian latent variable models. At a high level, it represents documents as a mixture of topics which are in turn represented by a set of words [21]. Given a corpus of documents, an LDA model learns the topic representation of each document and the words associated with each topic. Once a model is trained, given a document, the model will produce a topic likelihood distribution which identifies the relevant topic(s) in a document. For our analysis, we use a popular Natural Language Processing (NLP) Python package, Gensim [22] with the Machine Learning for Language Toolkit (MALLET) implementation [23].
We note there are a significant number of different methods for extracting topics from large text corpora, each with their own advantages and shortcomings. In the case of LDA, the algorithm assumes that each document contains multiple topics. However, in the case of tweets, which are likely to contain a limited number of topics due to character restrictions, this may not be a reasonable assumption. Previous research has proposed a modified LDA algorithm, namely Twitter-LDA, which assumes that each tweet contains exactly one topic [20]. In a comparison between LDA and Twitter-LDA on unfiltered Twitter data, where the number of topics was set at 110, the Twitter-LDA outperformed standard LDA [20]. However, the rationale for using standard LDA in this study is two-fold: (1) the goal of the LDA analysis is to derive topic distributions for distinct geographic regions; as this is an aggregate measure, by assuming that each tweet contained exactly one topic, we would limit the components of the topic distribution, potentially reducing the accuracy of the overall distribution, and (2) because the data is filtered to only pertain to climate change, the topics identified are likely to have more overlap than in a general tweet corpus and thus it was not reasonable to assume that each tweet would only contain a single topic. Here we utilize LDA as a topic model, but we emphasize that the approach presented in this study is not dependent on that specific method. In summary, the choice of the algorithm should be guided by the research question and available data.

**Data preprocessing.** Latent Dirichlet Allocation (LDA) requires preprocessing each of the incoming documents. We begin this process by removing punctuation, URLs, and mentions (i.e. users referencing other users) from tweets. Though this information can be important for certain applications with Twitter data, it offers little value in the development of a topic model. After removing these features, we convert the remaining text to lowercase. Next, we remove any stopwords from the document. Stopwords (e.g., “the”, “and”, “are”, etc.) are the most common words in the English language and have little bearing on the overall meaning of a document [24]. Additionally, we remove stopwords specific to Twitter discussion. Examples include ‘&amp;’ (the Twitter rendering of the ampersand sign) and ‘RT’ (Twitter code indicating that a tweet is a retweet, or copy, of another user’s tweet). We also remove the words “climate” and “carbon” as well as the phrase “global warming” as those were the keywords contained in the query used to construct the dataset and would otherwise be over-represented in every topic. Finally, we reduce each word to its lemma, or root. This ensures that the algorithm does not incorrectly identify different tenses or forms of a word as separate words. To perform these tasks, we use the the NLTK package in Python [25].

Following this preliminary preprocessing, we take further steps are to increase the efficiency at which the model is developed. Notably, we remove words that occur very frequently and those that occur infrequently from the set of words (i.e., dictionary) which is used to construct the topic model. Reducing the size of the dictionary, significantly improves the run-time of the algorithm, allowing for rapid testing and iteration. To reduce the size of the dictionary, we first only consider words greater than two characters. We then eliminate words that appeared in greater than 50% of tweets (e.g., “the”) as they would provide little information about the relevant topic. Next, we drop words that appeared in fewer than 100 (less than 0.03% of the dataset) of the tweets.

Finally, we leverage a randomized subset of the tweets used in preliminary model training for identification of the optimal number of topics. The size of the subset depends on the phase of model development and is specified in the following section.

**Final topic model.** Topic modeling requires user input for determining the optimal number of topics. In a well-performing model, the topics are distinct and intuitive. There are a variety of metrics that can assess different aspects of model quality but there are no formalized methods to make a holistic assessment. One popular metric is coherence, which rewards
similarity within a topic and contrast between topics [26]. There are several ways to compute coherence and one of the most widely used metrics is $C_v$ [26]. This metric combines several measurements, specifically, indirect cosine measure, boolean sliding window, and normalized pointwise mutual information, and has been shown to accurately indicate the degree to which a topic can be easily interpreted [26].

To determine the ideal number of topics, we iteratively construct models over a large range of topics with a step of two and computed coherence with the $C_v$ metric. Based on these results, we select the range of topic numbers where coherence was highest and repeat the process with a smaller range and step size of 1.

Many topic models constructed with Twitter data have over one hundred topics in the final model [20]. However, as the tweets used in this analysis already have a priori filtering related to climate change, we use lower ranges of topics as the training corpus is unlikely to contain as many topics as an unfiltered tweet stream. In the first round of model development, we test models with 10, 12, 14, . . . , 50 topics. Based on these results (depicted in S2 Fig in S1 File), we then test models with 14, 15, 16, . . . , 22 topics.

Based on the coherence score analysis, we identify seventeen as the appropriate number of topics in the model. This set largely encompasses the breadth of Twitter discussion on climate change while minimizing overlap between topics. The final topic model makes use of the entire 350,000 tweet corpus to ensure that the training data accurately represents the extent and variety of discourse on Twitter. A concise summary of the final topics is presented in Table 1.

It should be noted that the topic names and descriptions (Table 1) are subjective and represent our best effort at concisely describing the complexity of each topic category. A key challenge in LDA analysis is discerning the distinct characteristics of each topic set. The state-of-the-art involves referring to the top n-grams and most representative tweets for each category (see S3 Table and S4 Fig in S1 File)—an inherently subjective task. While this analysis is based on quantitative representations of these topics, it is critical to acknowledge the subjectivity inherent in unsupervised topic models and its implications for the study’s inferences.

| Topic                | Description                                                                 |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Climate Impacts      | Adverse impacts, such as sea level rise, drought, forest fires, etc.         |
| Earth Day            | Celebration, activities, and tips related to Earth Day                      |
| Politicians          | Political platforms of democratic candidates and the US President           |
| Sustainability Promotion | Advice on reducing carbon footprint and greenhouse gas emissions       |
| Activism             | Climate activists (e.g. Greta Thunberg) and events (e.g. Extinction Rebellion) |
| Green New Deal       | Commentaries on Congress’s Green New Deal proposal                          |
| Them, Not Us         | How others are affected by and should respond to climate change            |
| Clean Energy         | Progress towards renewable energy targets and technologies                 |
| Environmental Justice| Concerns over environmental degradation, especially the impact of pipelines |
| Youth & Education    | Role of parents and teachers in educating young people about climate change |
| Climate Denial       | Arguments supporting the denial of climate change                           |
| Grassroots Action    | Social media based efforts to solicit signatures for various petitions      |
| Carbon Tax           | Discussion of relationship between taxes and climate change                |
| Weather Reports      | Daily weather updates issued via Twitter                                    |
| Global Warming       | Arguments supporting global warming as a natural phenomenon                |
| Trust in Science     | Discussion of the importance of science in decision making                 |
| Plants, Trees        | Relationship between plant life and climate change                          |

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0245319.t001
Predictive model

We employ statistical learning methods to develop a predictive model relating Twitter discourse to climate opinion survey responses. The model takes the previously discussed twitter topic distributions as inputs to predict climate change opinions, as discussed in more detail below.

Response variable—first principal component, CCO. The Yale Climate Opinion Dataset [1] contains a variety of responses on various issues related to climate change, ranging from trust in scientists to opinions on renewable energy policies. Rather than developing separate models for each response, we leverage dimensionality reduction techniques and consolidate all of the survey responses into a single variable using Principal Component Analysis (S3 Fig in S1 File).

The first principal component accounts for 89% of the variance in the data, indicating that the survey responses are highly correlated. This is not surprising since the survey questions speak to people’s beliefs related to climate change: those that believe climate change is a pressing issue are also likely to believe that policy addressing these issues is important. Because of the extremely high correlation between variables, it is reasonable to consolidate them into a single index which we coin as “Consolidate Climate Opinion (CCO)”.

We posit that CCO represents the general degree of concern for the environment and climate change related issues. Fig 1a displays tweet frequency across the nation based on climate-relevant Twitter activity collected over this period. Fig 1b shows geographic variation in climate attitudes. Based on the data used from the Yale Climate Opinion Survey (S2 Table in S1 File), regions with higher CCO values have residents who are more worried about climate change and its impacts as well as more likely to support pro-environmental regulations and policies.

Predictors—topic distributions. To develop topic distributions for each county, we process tweets from the regional corpus using the topic model developed from the full corpus. For each county in the U.S., we filter the dataset for tweets associated with that county. We then preprocess each tweet in the filtered subset is then preprocessed in the manner described earlier. The output of an LDA topic model is a set of numbers which represent the probability that a given word from each tweet belongs in each topic. We then sum this set of numbers is then summed across all of the words to derive a so called “topic distribution” for the tweet.

To create the final county distribution, we sum topic distributions for all tweets in a county. We normalize each county distribution by dividing by its sum such that the sum of the final county distribution is one, allowing for comparison between counties. The analysis excludes counties with four or fewer tweets as the distributions generated from such a small number of tweets are not accurate representations of the county’s beliefs.

![Fig 1. Distribution of Consolidated Climate Opinion (CCO) and Twitter users in the United States.](https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0245319.g001)
**Model development & assessment.** We use a random forest model [27] to map CCO on topic distributions. Random forest is a tree-based, non-parametric model. To make predictions, the random forest algorithm builds $b$ decision trees and averages the estimates of all of the trees to create a final estimate of the response variable (CCO) as a function of the topic distribution observed in the county of interest. This is mathematically expressed as:

$$\hat{f}(x) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} T_b(x)$$

where $T_b$ is an individual regression tree and $x$ represents the input data. The random forest algorithm is effective in modeling data that exhibits complex, nonlinear relationships due to its flexibility and lack of assumptions about the underlying structure of the data [27].

The focus of this analysis is characterize the regional differences in the relationships between tweet topic distribution and survey response. A significant amount of prior literature has demonstrated that beliefs in climate change vary significantly throughout the country [1, 28] and a natural extension of previous results is to develop models for each region of the continental US. If beliefs in climate change vary by region, it follows that the relationship between social media topic portfolios and CCO would also vary regionally. Furthermore, the development of regional models can help extract nuanced relationships that may otherwise be masked in a larger, national model. Specifically, we develop a model for the Northeast, Midwest, Southeast, Southwest, Pacific, and Rocky Mountain regions.

A key component of building each of the final six regional models is variable selection, as including too many variables in a model can lead to overfitting or inaccurate inferences on the relationships between predictors and response [29]. Here, we employed the Variable Selection Using Random Forests (VSURF) algorithm [30]. This is a data-driven algorithm that ranks the importance of every candidate variable in making a prediction. VSURF defines importance as the mean reduction in mean square error observed by including a variable in the model. A variable which leads to a greater reduction in error is ranked as more important. To determine the ranking, VSURF repeatedly builds models and averages the variable importance from each iteration. Beginning with the most important variables, models are built by step-wise addition of variables in order of decreasing importance. Once the improvement in model accuracy becomes negligible, the process ends and the most important variables are returned. We developed final models for all regions using the key variables identified by the VSURF algorithm.

In addition to reducing overfitting, variable selection also improves model interpretability [29]. Though random forest models are non-parametric, there are a wide variety of tools available to characterize the relationship between predictors and response. To characterize the relationship between predictors and response for each model, we use partial dependence plots. These plots show the effect a predictor variable on the response while the effects of the other variables in the model are accounted for [31]. Mathematically, the relationship of the predictor on the response is given as:

$$\hat{f}_j(x_j) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \hat{f}_j(x_j, x_{-j,i})$$

where $\hat{f}_j$ represents the trained model, $n$ is the number of observations in the training set, and $x_{-j,i}$ is all variables other than $x_j$ in the training set. In order to evaluate the generalization performance of each regional model, we conduct randomized partitioning of the data into training and test sets such that 80% of the data is used for training, and 20% for testing. The regional models are then built using the training set and validated by making predictions.
using the test set. Model performance is evaluated using normalized root mean square error. Model performance results are presented in the Table 2 below.

These results show that the models perform better on in-sample data as compared to the out-of-sample data, which is to be expected as the models were trained on the in-sample data. In this study, we are primarily interested in in-sample performance as we are seeking to explain the available data rather than generalize to new use cases. However, including the out-of-sample performance is important as it demonstrates that the models don’t overfit the data and possess reasonable predictive power. Additionally, each model was compared to the null (mean-only) model as a benchmark for the performance of statistical regression models. The null model does not rely on leveraging a statistical model (based on supervised learning) to estimate the response variable as a function of the independent variables; instead it assumes that the best predictions can be achieved by simply calculating the historical average value of the response variable. Table 2 shows that in sample, the models outperform the null model by an average of 59.5% and outperform the null model by an average of 27.4%, indicating that they are successfully identifying relationships in the data.

### Results

#### Regional topic portfolios

In order to investigate how the attributes associated with climate change opinions differ across regions of the US, we develop statistical models for each region of the US relating Twitter topics to Consolidated Climate Opinion (CCO). As previously described, we identify the subset of Twitter topics which best predict CCO and construct models for each region using only that subset. The topics included in the model and the regional breakdown are depicted in Fig 2, which illustrates the regional differences in topic portfolios used to predict CCO. In addition to reaffirming previous research that opinions on climate change vary regionally, this analysis highlights that the topics which are important to predicting CCO in one region are not necessarily important in predicting CCO in a different region.

Many of the topic portfolios reflect regionally distinct trends contributing to climate opinions. One such topic is Climate Impacts in the Pacific as compared to the Southeast. These regions have recently experienced a disproportionate number of natural disasters [32, 33] which has been previously shown to influence climate change beliefs of a region [4, 5]. Similarly, Environmental Justice emerges as an important topic in the Rockies, Southeast, Southwest, and Northeast. We hypothesize that the importance of this topic in these regions is driven by the concerns surrounding the Keystone and Atlantic pipelines raised by activists and

| Region    | In Sample | Out of Sample |
|-----------|-----------|---------------|
|           | NRMSE     | R²            | Impr. Over Null (%) | NRMSE | Correlation | Impr. Over Null (%) |
| Midwest   | 39.7      | 0.96          | 60.2               | 73.1  | 0.73        | 26.4               |
| Southwest | 42.6      | 0.96          | 57.1               | 72.1  | 0.77        | 26.5               |
| Southeast | 40.4      | 0.96          | 59.5               | 78.7  | 0.62        | 20.8               |
| Northeast | 35.0      | 0.96          | 64.9               | 61.1  | 0.80        | 38.2               |
| Pacific   | 39.9      | 0.96          | 59.9               | 70.4  | 0.77        | 27.6               |
| Rockies   | 44.2      | 0.95          | 55.5               | 73.1  | 0.73        | 24.8               |

Models with lower NRMSE and higher correlation have more predictive power. Additionally, we show the percent improvement over the mean-only, or null model. A higher percent improvement indicates increased predictive power.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0245319.t002

### Table 2. Model performance based on Normalized Root Mean Square Error (NRMSE) and $R^2$ for each regional model.
locals who fear the projects will negatively impact the environmental quality of their communities.

Another result is the importance of the trustworthiness of climate science across all regions, either as Climate Denial, Global Warming, or Trust in Science. Though the framing and language of these topics is distinct, they all include tweets that question or promote trust in the scientific community.

Additionally, there are topics which are focused on a specific event or policy. Event-related topics include Activism which primarily discusses London’s Extinction Rally and Swedish activist Greta Thunberg, and Earth Day which largely focuses on activities and events that occurred on April 22nd, 2019 celebrating environmental protection. Policy-related topics include Green New Deal which largely focuses on the eponymous House bill, and Carbon Tax, a discussion centered on Canada’s recently proposed carbon tax legislation. Because these categories deal with ephemeral subjects, we do not believe they are as relevant to discussions of long term trends in the climate debate. We do include them in this study, however, to demonstrate the rapidity and flexibility of social media mining for developing a regional analysis of climate change opinions. Finally, the Weather Reports category, which is composed nearly exclusively of daily weather updates delivered via Twitter, can be used as a loose proxy for an area’s adoption of technology but is not particularly informative in framing climate policy.

Because relevant issues and topics are dynamic and change over time, an important consideration with this work is which topics in this model speak to long-term concerns, and which are in response to specific events. As a means of sensitivity analysis, a separate Twitter corpus was collected from the 15th to the 21st of March, 2019, which precedes the corpus used in this analysis by almost exactly one month (S1 File). By comparing both time periods, we demonstrate that the only topics that differ between the two corpora are those which are specific to an individual event or policy—such as Green New Deal, Carbon Tax, and Earth Day.
Motivating the importance of context

A key insight gained from the mapping of Twitter topics to CCO is how the topic portfolios associate with CCO. To understand the degree of contribution of each ‘key’ topic to CCO, we employ partial dependence plots [31], which isolate the effects of individual topics on climate opinions. Fig 3 shows the partial dependence plots for the top four of the seventeen topics included in the final model and their impact on climate opinions. Plots for the remaining top-ics considered in the model can be found in S1 Fig in S1 File.

The partial dependence plots reveal two key insights: (1) simply identifying the topics discussed in different regions is not sufficient to understand the reasons for which communities hold specific opinions on climate change, and (2) the relationship between topic portfolios and CCO varies between regions. Discussion of topics like Environmental Justice (3b) and Grass-roots Action (3c) is generally positively correlated with CCO. However, the plot based on Climate Impacts (3a) shows that the amount of discussion of the topic has little correlation with CCO below a certain threshold. Once this threshold is exceeded, a strong negative correlation emerges. Furthermore, the Global Warming plot (3d) reveals that the correlation between discussion of a particular topic and CCO can vary regionally. Based on these plots, it is evident that techniques such as partial dependence plots offer additional insights on the relationship between a particular region’s CCO and the topics discussed there.

Fig 3. Partial dependence plots of topics and CCO. Each plot shows how CCO changes with an increase in a given Twitter topic while controlling for other variables. Shaded regions around line indicate a 97.5% confidence interval.

https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0245319.g003
Discussion

While partial dependence plots provide key insight on the relationship between topic categories and climate opinion, they fall short of describing the contents of each topic. Though the partial dependence plot of Environmental Justice demonstrates that CCO increases with discussion of this topic increases, effectively interpreting these results requires that we understand exactly what the topic entails. To do this, we analyze the most frequent n-grams—sets of n words which occur in sequence—and most representative tweet for each category. Here, we identify the relative frequency of the top 30 keywords (i.e., one grams), bigrams, and trigrams for each topic, the results of which are presented in S4 Fig in S1 File. These n-grams are accompanied by the most representative tweets from each of the topics used in each region’s final model, presented in S3 Table in S1 File. By augmenting our understanding of each topic with such information, we can more effectively interpret the partial dependence plots to understand the nuanced relationship between climate talk and climate opinion throughout the US.

Based on the topics used in the regional models (shown in Fig 2), science is pervasive in the national Twitter discussion. However, Twitter users in some regions promote climate science while other regions have a strong framing of climate denial. For example, in the Southeast, the most representative tweet in the Global Warming category is:

The fake news media keeps telling lies about global warming but look now it’s snowing in Minnesota. NO GLOBAL WARMING NO GLOBAL WARMING

This sharply contrasts with the Pacific, where the most representative tweet for the category is:

There are ‘scientists’ who are confident that the earth is less than 10,000 years old. And there are ‘scientists’ who are confident that man doesn’t contribute to global warming or that global warming isn’t happening

The tweet originating from the Southeast illustrates an emotionally charged message, denying the existence of global warming while the tweet originating from the Pacific addresses the idea that scientific claims should be evaluated holistically. These two tweets paint very different pictures of the Global Warming discussion in two different regions of the country and illustrate that even though tweets may be topically similar, it is important to contextualize them to understand the state of climate discussion in the respective region.

The context in which the term “Global Warming” is used in these tweets also helps to explain some of the results from the partial dependence plots. Previous research has found that communities which frame the issue as “global warming” rather than “climate change” show less progressive stances on sustainability and generally spend time debating semantics rather than policy levers [18]. Consequently, we would expect an increase in the Global Warming category to correspond with a decrease in CCO. This trend is observed in the Northeast and Southeast, but the Pacific demonstrates an increase in CCO corresponding with an increase in the Global Warming category. To explain the reversal of this trend, it is necessary to interpret the most representative tweets. In the Northeast and Southeast, the tweets which best represent this category are largely inflammatory. They frequently question the validity of global warming when faced with cooler local temperatures and focus on presenting observations which they believe disproves the phenomenon. In the Pacific, however, the representative tweets are less confrontational and focus on peer to peer education. Tweets from this region of the country which fall into the Global Warming topic attempt to resolve the disconnect between individual
experience and scientific observation with the ultimate goal of fostering the development of a more progressive climate attitude.

Both *Environmental Justice* and *Grassroots Action* have an intuitive relationship with *CCO* in that greater discussion of these topics in a region is associated with higher overall *CCO* (Fig 3b and 3c). We hypothesize the positive relationship stems from correlation between individuals who actively monitor the local environment, protest threats to its integrity and individuals likely to respond positively to national surveys of climate opinions. This positive relationship between attributes of individual belief and twitter topic prevalence also occurs in individuals who feel personally responsible for driving change in their local community, which is the unifying theme of the *Grassroots Action* discussion. This topic largely focuses on people who promote collective action by soliciting signatures for electronic petitions focused on climate action, and accordingly has a positive relationship with *CCO*.

We find other counter-intuitive dependencies between topic and *CCO*. Increases in the *Climate Impacts* category are associated with lower overall *CCO*. We initially hypothesized the opposite to be true as communities who are aware of and discuss the adverse impacts of climate change are expected to take a progressive stance on the issue because they are directly experiencing its consequences. However, deeper analysis of the most common bigrams (pair of words which occur together) and most representative tweets from the *Climate Impacts* category reveal that much of the discussion revolves around whether or not the currently observed impacts—sea level rise, drought, hurricanes, etc.—are a result of anthropogenic climate change or of a natural cycle. In this context, the inverse relationship between *Climate Impacts* and *CCO* is more intuitive. Higher levels of debate surrounding this topic indicate increased levels of uncertainty in the impacts of climate change, which is generally associated with communities that hold a less progressive climate opinions. Regardless of the topic in question, a notable observation is that gaining insight into these regional results requires interpreting partial dependence plots, the topics that are present, and representative tweets.

**Conclusion**

In this study, we present a framework to augment survey data with social media data and apply it to the topic of climate change. Specifically, we use natural language processing to create county-level topic portfolios based on social media data. This is then used to develop regional predictive models which explore the relationship between Twitter topic discussion and change survey responses. This mapping between survey data and social media discourse allows researchers to harness social media data to contextualize survey responses and better understand why people hold the opinions they do.

The key finding from this study is that while the relationship between climate talk and climate opinion can be intuitive, it often requires a deeper understanding of the context that underlies the debate. There are many potential applications of these results and we believe one of the most promising uses of the insights generated by augmenting surveys with social media discourse is in the policy framing process. For example, should sustainability-motivated policies such as carbon taxes be introduced at a national level, decision makers in the Pacific can leverage the regional attribute portfolio by presenting the tax as a program that would incentivize the development of clean energy. Policy makers in the Northeast, on the other hand, might choose to present the proposal as a method promoting environmental justice by ensuring that individuals and organizations are held accountable for the long-term impacts of fossil-based energy use. Framing policies in a way that aligns the pressing issues with the beliefs, attitudes and values of the constituents can accelerate the speed at which climate policies are
enacted and can ultimately improve the nation’s ability to adapt to and mitigate the impacts of climate change.

In this analysis, we demonstrate that regions with similar climate opinions can have distinct portfolios of social media topics, themes, and events. We augment climate change survey data with Twitter activity to elucidate the connection between survey responses and specific climate change topics. While this analysis pertains specifically to the climate change debate, we use a generalizable framework which can be extended to a variety of other application areas. In future work, we aim to demonstrate the ability of this framework to perform longitudinal assessments of climate opinion. Given a sufficiently large training sample conducive to identifying long-term trends in Twitter discussion, longitudinal trends could be monitored to understand changes in climate opinion. Another future avenue for this work is integrating survey design with social media analysis. Survey questions which elicit responses in line with the types of analysis performed on social media (e.g. asking individuals to describe themes and topics when using LDA) could strengthen the future integration of social media and survey analyses. By using methods based on large, publicly available datasets, we can begin to understand the relationship between social media discourse and public opinion to produce significantly more insight than is provided by surveys alone.

Supporting information
S1 File.

(ZIP)

Acknowledgments
The authors would like to acknowledge the Purdue Climate Change Research Center (PCCRC), Purdue University’s Center for the Environment (C4E), and the University of Stavanger’s Department of Safety, Economics, and Planning.

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