

#WashTheHate: Understanding the Prevalence of Anti-Asian Prejudice on Twitter During the COVID-19 Pandemic

Brittany Wheeler

School of Social & Behavioral Sciences
Arizona State University
Glendale, Arizona
bmwheel5@asu.edu

Seong Jung

School of Mathematical & Natural Sciences
Arizona State University
Glendale, Arizona
shjung3@asu.edu

Maria Camila N. Barioni

Department of Computer Science
Federal University of Uberlândia
Uberlândia, Brazil
camila.barioni@ufu.br

Monika Purohit

Department of Computer Science
Loyola University Chicago
Chicago, Illinois
mpurohit@luc.edu

Deborah L. Hall

School of Social & Behavioral Sciences
Arizona State University
Glendale, Arizona
d.hall@asu.edu

Yasin N. Silva

Department of Computer Science
Loyola University Chicago
Chicago, Illinois
ysilval@luc.edu

Abstract—Prejudice and hate directed toward Asian individuals has increased in prevalence and salience during the COVID-19 pandemic, with notable rises in physical violence. Concurrently, as many governments enacted stay-at-home mandates, the spread of anti-Asian content increased in online spaces, including social media. In the present study, we investigated temporal and geographical patterns in social media content relevant to anti-Asian prejudice during the COVID-19 pandemic. Using the Twitter Data Collection API, we queried over 13 million tweets posted between January 30, 2020, and April 30, 2021, for both negative (e.g., #kungflu) and positive (e.g., #stopAAPIhate) hashtags and keywords related to anti-Asian prejudice. In a series of descriptive analyses, we found differences in the frequency of negative and positive keywords based on geographic location. Using burst detection, we also identified distinct increases in negative and positive content in relation to key political tweets and events. These largely exploratory analyses shed light on the role of social media in the expression and proliferation of prejudice as well as positive responses online.

Index Terms—COVID-19, racism, social media, AAPI, Twitter

I. INTRODUCTION

On January 4, 2020, the World Health Organization (WHO) reported that it was monitoring an outbreak of a new virus in the Wuhan, Hubei Province of China [1]. At this time, knowledge of and concern about the virus from the public was limited. Less than one month later, however, on January 30, the WHO declared the spread of the virus, termed COVID-19, a public health emergency, bringing global attention to this widespread health concern [1], [2]. The name ‘coronavirus’ was developed according to WHO’s “Best Practices for the Naming of New Human Infectious Diseases,” which recommends avoiding any cultural, social, regional, or ethnic associations when naming a disease [3]. Despite these recommendations, given the origins of the virus, COVID-19 was

frequently referred to in the media as the “Chinese virus,” the “Wuhan virus,” and the “Asian virus” [4]–[7]. While some have argued that this terminology is not inherently racist given the virus’ origin, anti-Asian prejudice did notably increase in prevalence and salience during this time [8], [9]. For example, police reports in the U.S. involving anti-Asian hate and physical violence against Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders (AAPI) increased 145% in 2020 compared to previous years [10] and Stop AAPI Hate—a non-profit organization dedicated to reducing anti-Asian prejudice—reported 2,583 incidents of anti-Asian prejudice between March 18, 2020 and August 5, 2020 [11].

Increases in anti-Asian prejudice have also been observed in online spaces, including social media. The Anti-Defamation League, for instance, reported an 85% increase in anti-Asian discrimination online [12]. To illustrate, during the first months of the pandemic, 72,000 posts on Instagram contained the hashtag #WuhanVirus, while another 10,000 contained the hashtag #KungFlu [13]. Notably, social media posts (i.e., tweets) generated by President Trump and other political leaders used the phrase “Chinese Virus” [8]. The role of these tweets in promoting the continued use of the term is perhaps reflected by the finding that 18% of tweets using anti-Asian hashtags referred to Trump in some capacity [8], [14]. In fact, recent research by Kim and Kesari [15] identified marked increases in anti-Asian terminology after President Trump first started using similar language. Interestingly, counter-hate (i.e., positive language intended to combat hateful messages) that drew connections between anti-Asian terminology and xenophobia and prejudice also increased during this time [15].

The goal of the present study was to investigate temporal and geographical patterns in social media content relevant to anti-Asian prejudice and positive (i.e., counter-hate) messages

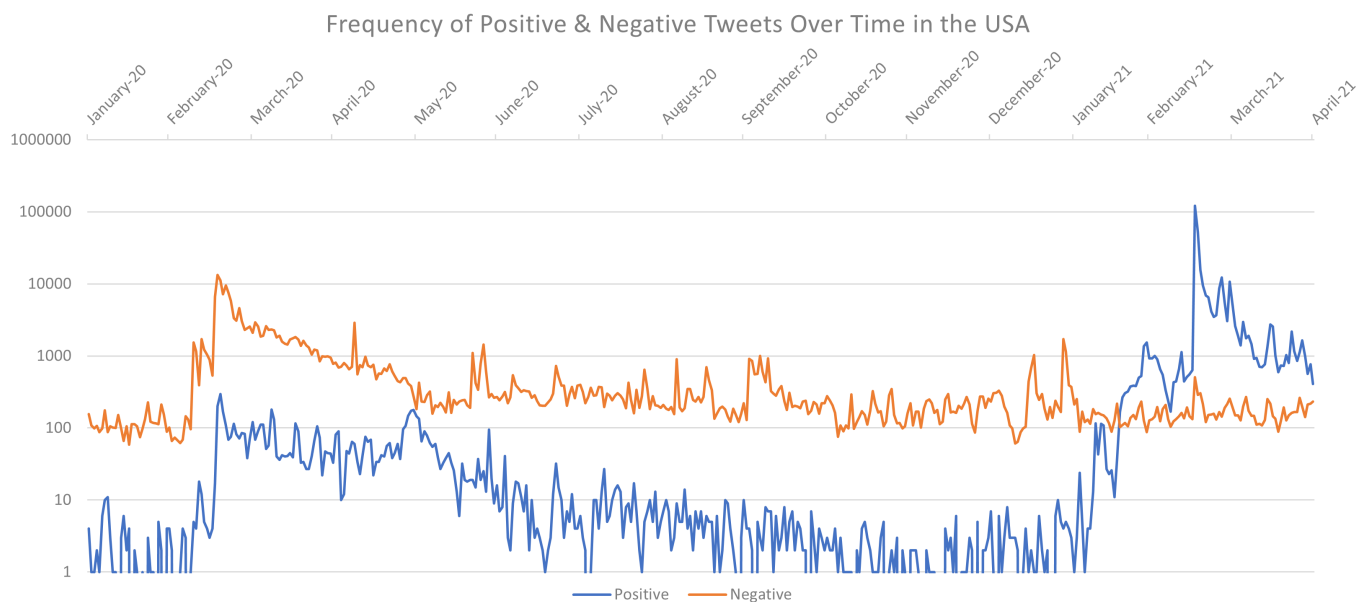


Fig. 1. Logarithmic scale of the number of negative and positive tweets between January 2020 and April 2021.

during the COVID-19 pandemic. Crucially, whereas other research has explored anti-Asian prejudice in online spaces during COVID-19 [8], [14]–[20], the present study makes a vital contribution by (1) covering a significantly longer time frame than those previously studied (i.e., 15 months); (2) considering both negative (i.e., anti-Asian) and positive hashtags during this period; (3) employing temporal analyses involving burst detection; and (4) integrating findings from data obtained using keyword searches as well as the 1% general sample stream on Twitter.

II. DATA

All data were collected according to Twitter data collection guidelines and using the proper API access provided to researchers [21], [22]. In the following sections, we refer to anti-Asian content as “negative” and counter-hate content as “positive.”

Archive Dataset. Using the Twitter Data Collection API¹, we queried tweets containing negative and positive hashtags and keywords related to anti-Asian prejudice from January 30, 2020 to April 30, 2021. This time frame was selected to correspond with the date on which the World Health Organization indicated the spread of COVID-19 was a global health issue and the start of AAPI Heritage Month the following year (when positive AAPI messages might increase independent of COVID-19). We used 12 specific negative hashtags/keywords as indicators of anti-Asian prejudice (#batsoup, #chinavirus, #gobacktochina, #chinesevirus, #chineseplague, #gook, #chinaliedpeopledied, #kungflu, #wufu, #chingchong, #makechinapay,

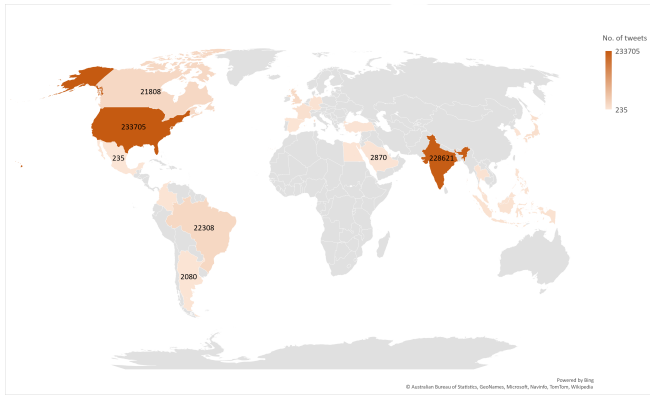
#ccpvirus) and 5 specific positive hashtags/keywords (#hateisavirus, #Iamnotavirus, #racismisavirus, #washthehate, #stopasianhate), which were chosen based on the relevant literature [19], news publications [23]–[25], and social media posts discussing anti-Asian attitudes during the beginning of the pandemic. The total sample consisted of 13,008,053 tweets from 3,298,940 distinct users.

1% Dataset. The 1% sample stream dataset was generated from Twitter’s sample stream endpoint², which provides access to a roughly 1% random sample of publicly available tweets in real-time. This dataset was compiled from the tweets gathered over the course of 24 hours (August 1-2, 2021) to estimate the amount of activity that 1% of the Twitter platform could generate in one day. 4,093,933 tweets were collected in this sample from 2,956,806 distinct users.

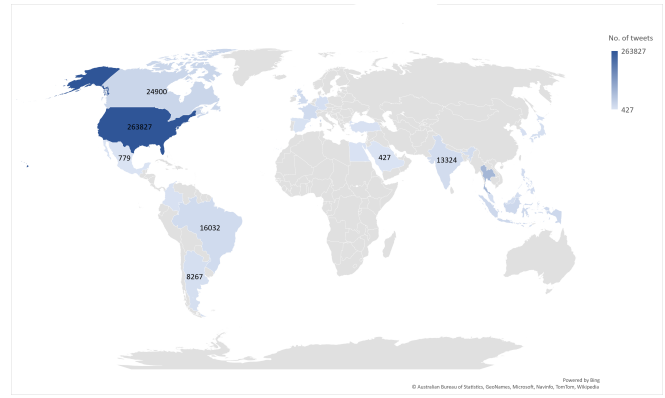
Geographic Location Labeling. During the collection of both datasets, a filter was applied to collect a list of users that had publicly available geolocation data through their location setting. To perform descriptive analyses based on geographic location, we devised a geolocation labeling strategy similar to Jiang and colleagues [26]. This strategy was necessary because less than 0.5% of the tweets in our dataset had available geo_place information. For our analysis, we considered the state granularity for the tweets originating in the U.S. and the country granularity for the tweets originating in other countries, based on self-reported user profile locations. Using a fuzzy text matching algorithm [27], pre-processed user-reported locations were matched against a set of predetermined locations inside and outside of the U.S. The similarity between

¹<https://developer.twitter.com/en/docs/twitter-api>

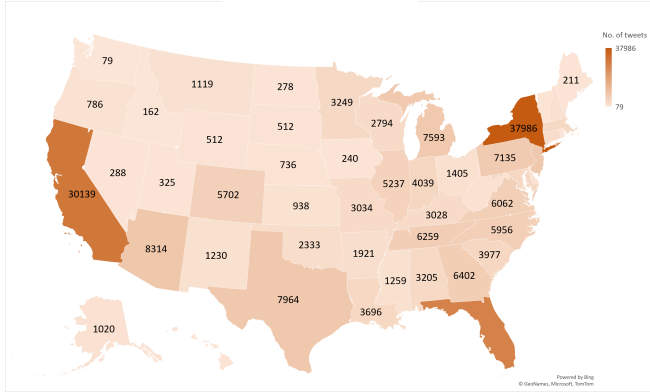
²<https://developer.twitter.com/en/docs/twitter-api/tweets/volume-streams>



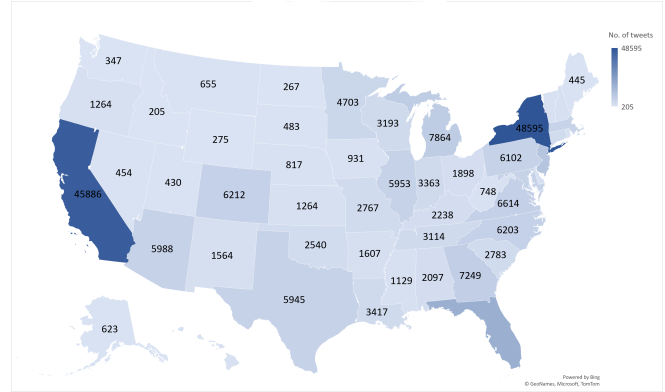
(a) Count of Negative Tweets Produced per Country



(b) Count of Positive Tweets Produced per Country



(c) Count of Negative Tweets Produced in the U.S.



(d) Count of Positive Tweets Produced in the U.S.

Fig. 2. Cumulative frequency of negative and positive tweets by geographic location.

user-reported locations and predetermined locations was computed using the edit distance metric. The score threshold to consider a matching pair of locations, which was set to 80%, was defined based on a validation analysis conducted by an external human annotator who manually verified a random sample of labeled locations considering country names and U.S. state names. Considering the precision validation measure ($TP/(TP + FP)$), the geolocation labeling strategy achieved a predictive positive value of 99.8% for the U.S. locations and varied from 89.8% to 100% for the other countries that, together with the U.S., account for 90% of the collected data. The set of predetermined locations inside the U.S. consisted of state names and state abbreviations. The set of predetermined locations outside the U.S. was built using the top 20 countries with the most Twitter users as of July 2020³ and their five most populous cities⁴. To avoid ambiguity, only the country abbreviations that didn't overlap with a U.S. state abbreviation were included. Additionally, we used an ambiguous locations list—built throughout the testing process—to adjust the geolocation labeling by removing ambiguous matches. (An example of an ambiguous match is the token 'valencia,' which can refer to a city in Spain and a town in California.)

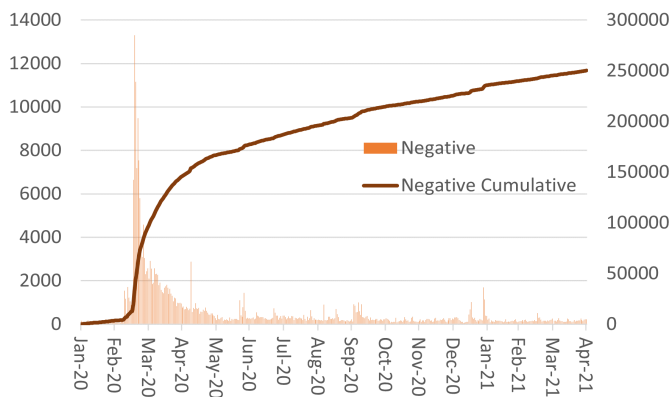
³<https://www.statista.com/statistics/242606/number-of-active-twitter-users-in-selected-countries/>

⁴<https://worldpopulationreview.com/world-cities>

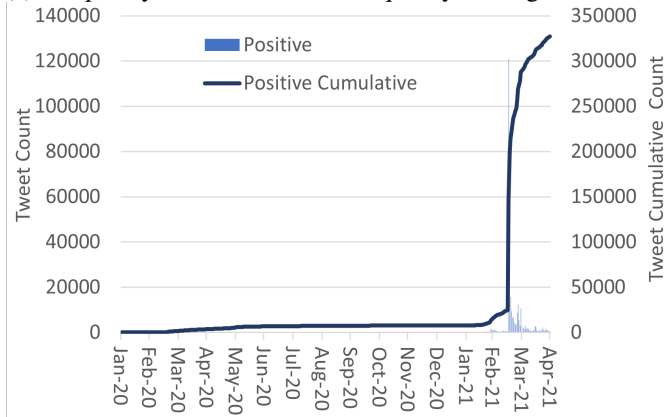
III. RESULTS

A series of exploratory descriptive analyses were performed to shed light on the frequency of negative (anti-Asian) and positive (counter-hate) hashtag and keyword use throughout the pandemic and how their use might vary over time and by geographic location.

Descriptive Analyses. As shown in Fig. 1, the use of negative hashtags and keywords to reference the COVID-19 pandemic before March 2020 was low. However, within that month, there was a marked increase in the use of negative keywords, with the frequency of negative keywords reaching its peak. Although considerably less frequent throughout most portions of the timeline, the use of positive keywords, in contrast, culminated in major spikes in late February 2021. As shown in Fig. 2, globally, 4,521,457 distinct tweets contained at least one of the 12 negative keywords, with most of this content generated in the U.S. and India (USA = 233,705 tweets; IND = 228,621 tweets). 6,660,469 distinct tweets contained at least one of the 5 positive keywords, with most of the positive content also generated in the U.S., followed by Thailand (USA = 263,827 tweets; TH = 82,696 tweets). In the U.S., New York, California, and Florida were the largest producers of negative content (NY = 37,986 tweets; CA = 30,139 tweets; FL = 27,076). Notably,



(a) Frequency and Cumulative Frequency of Negative Tweets

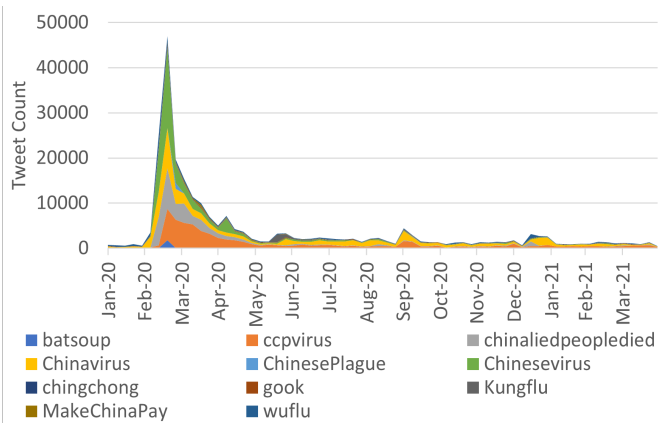


(b) Frequency and Cumulative Frequency of Positive Tweets

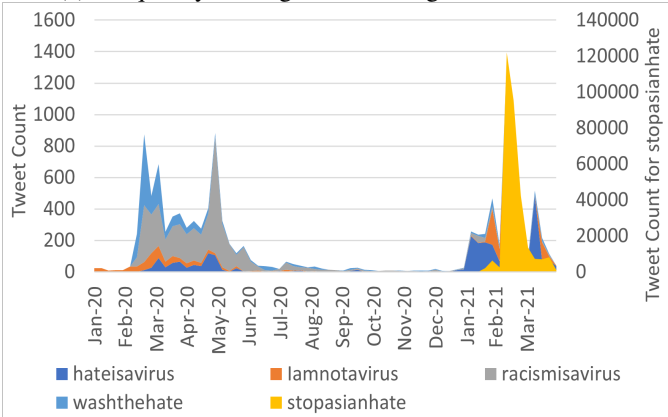
Fig. 3. Frequency and cumulative frequency of negative and positive tweets over time in the U.S.

however, California and New York also produced the most content containing positive keywords (CA = 45,886; NY = 48,595). Fig. 3 depicts usage trends of negative and positive keywords specifically in the U.S. over time. These trends are similar to those found globally, with sharp spikes of negative activity following President Trump’s first use of the term “Chinese Virus” in March 2020. Additionally, this figure also illustrates that although there were more tweets containing positive keywords utilized in the U.S., these tweets were mainly generated between February 2021 and April 2021. That is, they coincided with a prominent event that occurred in the U.S.—the Atlanta-area spa shootings that resulted in the deaths of multiple individuals of Asian descent [28]. There was minimal use of these keywords during the early months of the pandemic. Out of the negative tweets produced in the U.S., the most frequently used negative hashtag was “ccpvirus,” followed by “chinavirus” and “chinesevirus” (see Fig. 4). The most frequently used positive hashtags in the U.S. were “stopasianhate” and “hateisavirus.”

Analysis Using the 1% Dataset. The goal of this task was to normalize the frequencies of tweets based on the amount of overall Twitter activity in each state of the U.S. To this



(a) Frequency of Negative Hashtag Use on Twitter

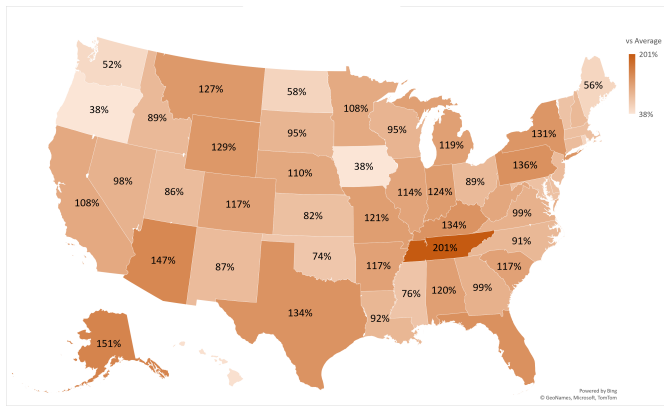


(b) Frequency of Positive Hashtag Use on Twitter

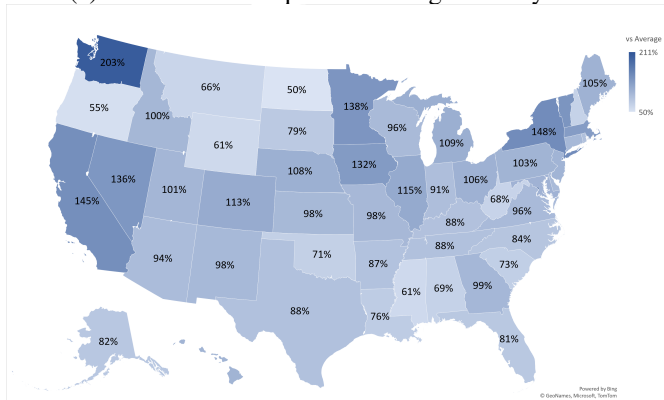
Fig. 4. Frequency of negative and positive hashtags used in the U.S.

end, an initial ratio was computed by dividing the counts of positive and negative tweets with valid geolocation in the archive dataset by the count of tweets in the 1% dataset across all states (i.e., 4.277 for positive keywords and 3.786 for negative keywords). A new ratio was calculated for each state dividing the initial ratio by the average ratio. The final ratios for negative and positive keywords are reported in Fig. 5. As depicted, Tennessee had the highest ratio of negative keywords (i.e., 201% higher than the average), followed by Alaska, which was 151% higher than the average. Washington DC, on the other hand, had the highest ratio of positive keywords (i.e., 211% higher than the average), followed by Washington state (i.e., 203% higher than the average) and New York (i.e., 148% higher than the average).

Burst Analysis. We used Kleinberg’s burst analysis algorithm [29] to identify bursts of heightened negative and positive keyword use across time. This approach identifies bursts of activity in a series of events by modeling the transitions between two states—baseline and bursty. Bursty states are associated with periods of time when an event (e.g., negative or positive tweets) is unusually frequent. The approach uses two main parameters, s and γ , which affect different



(a) Normalized Frequencies - Negative Keywords



(b) Normalized Frequencies - Positive Keywords

Fig. 5. Normalized comparison of the frequencies of negative and positive keywords. The raw frequencies of the sample stream were first divided by the total number of tweets in the archive search produced in each state. Then, these ratios were averaged across all states.

aspects of the way the algorithm detects bursts.

- s : This parameter controls the threshold of event frequencies, or intensiveness, for each state. Higher values of this parameter will require stronger increases of activity to detect a burst.
- γ : Gamma controls the difficulty of changing states. Higher values of this parameter will require more effort to switch states.

Multiple s and γ parameters for determining the sensitivity of the bursts were assessed in an iterative fashion. For example, as the s parameter cannot be less than or equal to 1, steadily decreasing values of γ were tested ranging from the default of 1 to 0. During many of these combinations of s and γ values, either the analysis resulted in a binary burst (i.e., all of the data represents a burst of activity or none of the activity is considered a burst) or the bursts were inconsequential. From this testing, values of 1.1 for the s parameter and 0.0 for γ were selected, as these values provided optimal visual output.

We performed separate burst analyses (with the same parameters) for the datasets with negative and positive keywords. Specifically, we used the burst detection algorithm

to identify bursts in discrete bundles of events, where each bundle was defined as the set of negative or positive tweets received in a single day. For this analysis, we considered the tweets in the U.S. based on the geolocation labeling strategy previously described. To facilitate the processing of large frequency values using the Python Burst Detection library⁵, we applied a logarithmic transformation before feeding the data to the algorithm. The output of this burst analysis step was a set of date ranges for the identified bursts.

Negative Keyword Use. The dates identified in the burst analysis were labeled with events on a timeline corresponding to the use of anti-Asian terminology (e.g., “Chinese virus,” “China virus”) on President Trump’s Twitter account, key political events, and COVID-19 milestones. In total, 8 bursts of activity were identified (labeled A through H in Fig. 6). Events were taken from dates up to 2 days before and after the beginning and end of the date ranges identified by the burst analysis. Events for Bursts A through F correspond primarily with tweets posted by (and originating from) Trump’s Twitter account [30]. Events for Bursts G and H were taken from news media coverage of significant events [31], [32] that occurred at the time, as well as from the CDC’s COVID-19 pandemic timeline [33].

Positive Keyword Use. Evaluating the positive keyword use, 3 bursts of activity were identified, ranging from March 17, 2020 to June 16, 2020; June 19, 2020 to June 30, 2020; and February 2, 2021 to April 4, 2021 (Fig. 7). These bursts in positive keyword use immediately followed increases in physical violence and hate in-person toward Asian Americans. For example, from March to June 2020, the Federal Bureau of Investigation reported increases in crimes directed toward Asian Americans (<https://crime-data-explorer.fr.cloud.gov/pages/explorer/crime/hate-crime>). Further, the burst of positive activity following February 2, 2021 culminates in a marked increase in physical violence against Asian individuals. For example, within this time frame, the highly-publicized Atlanta-area spa shootings occurred, in which Asian women were targeted, leading to the deaths of 8 individuals [28]. There were also several reports of individuals of Asian descent being verbally and physically assaulted in public, resulting in serious injury or death [34], [35]. The burst in positive keyword use, in the form of prosocial, counter-hate messages, could be interpreted as a protective response to raise awareness as protests, rallies, and non-profit organizations were developed to fight this hostility [36]–[38].

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

The present study investigated temporal and geographic trends in anti-Asian prejudice and counter-hate messages on Twitter in the 15 months after the World Health Organization declared COVID-19 a public health emergency. Consistent with other recent research, our findings indicate that the

⁵https://pypi.org/project/burst_detection

Timeline of Negative Hashtags and Phrases Used on Twitter

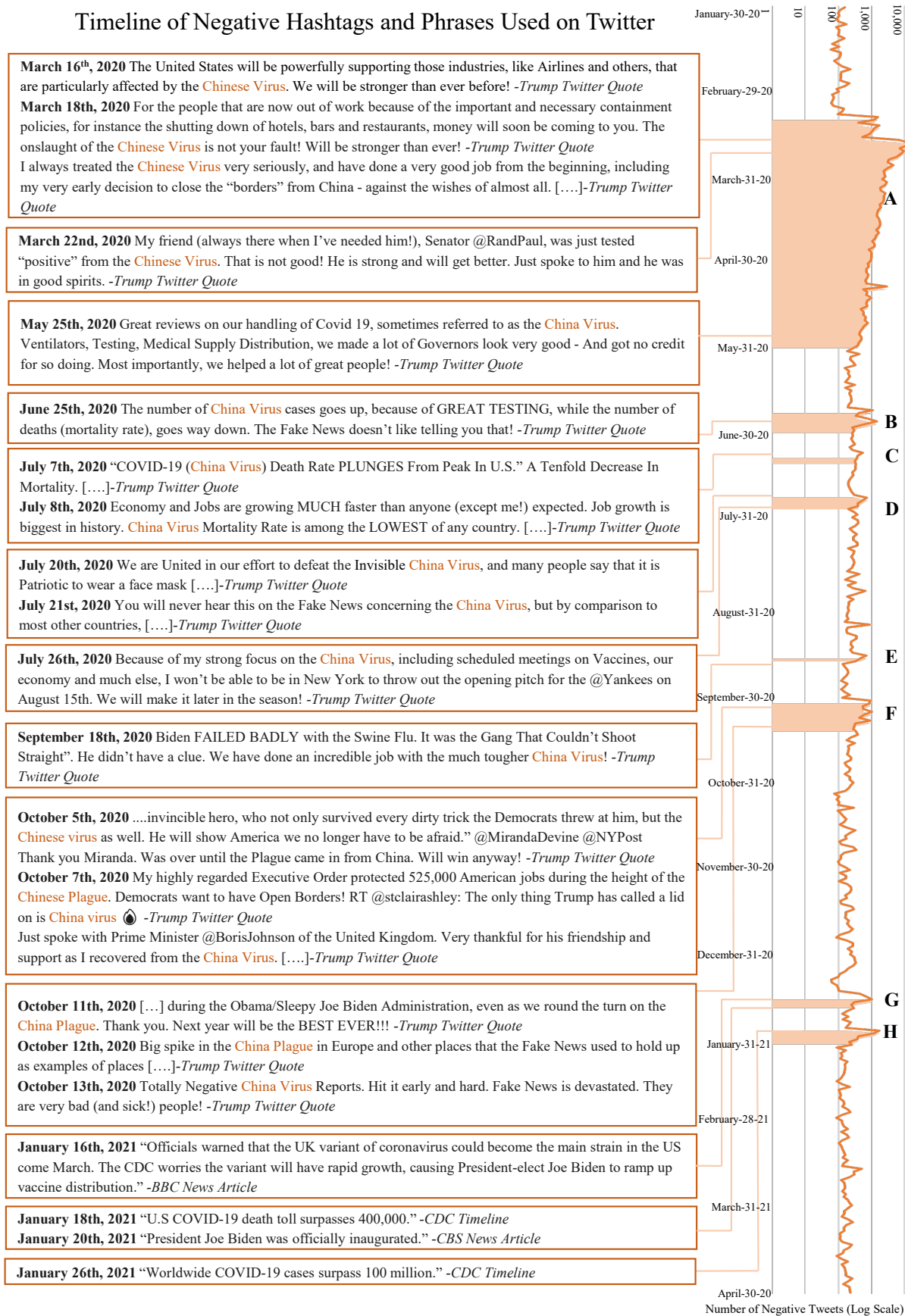


Fig. 6. Timeline of negative hashtags and phrases with a subset of representative tweets occurring within bursts of heightened anti-Asian activity.

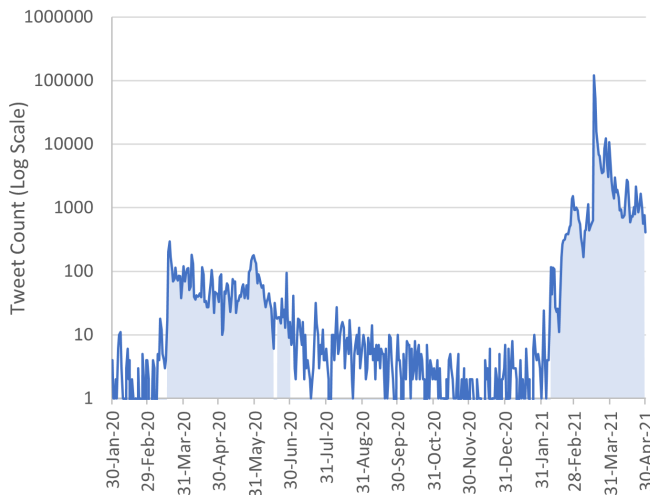


Fig. 7. Bursts of heightened positive activity.

increased prevalence of anti-Asian prejudice during early stages of the pandemic was a global phenomenon [39]. Our findings also, however, revealed geographic differences in the frequency of negative (anti-Asian) and positive (counter-hate) content generated by Twitter users within the U.S. For instance, New York, California, and Florida were the largest producers of negative keywords, overall, in our archived dataset (based on our query of over 13 million tweets). However, a complementary analysis performed on a random sample of approximately 1% of publicly available tweets from a single date yielded additional insights. When considering the 1% of tweets on a given day, the states with the highest ratio of negative keywords to all Twitter content generated by users in the state were Tennessee and Alaska. In contrast, whereas California and New York were the largest producers of positive keywords in our archived dataset, Washington DC had the highest ratio of positive keywords in the 1% dataset, followed by Washington state and New York. The greater positive Twitter content generated by users in New York, in particular, is interesting in light of the relatively higher rate of crime targeting AAPI individuals in this state. That is, data from Stop AAPI Hate [40] indicates that out of 9,081 reported incidents of anti-Asian hate (i.e., physical violence, online harassment, civil rights violations) in the U.S. from March 2020 to June 2021, roughly 15% occurred in New York. The dynamic ways in which prejudice manifests itself in face-to-face interactions and online spaces—and the role of social media in conveying messages of support and solidarity in response to acts of racial animosity—warrant further empirical attention.

Using burst analysis, we identified several significant surges (i.e., bursts) in the frequency of both anti-Asian and counter-hate keywords on Twitter. Examination of these bursts in relation to relevant content generated by President Trump on Twitter, political events, and key milestones in the COVID-19 timeline helps contextualize these temporal findings and

underscores the extent to which social media can both reflect and influence anti-Asian sentiment. Crucially, our results are largely consistent with previous research indicating that President Trump’s use of politically incorrect terminology when discussing political events has led to increases in White nationalist ideals and racism [41], broadly, and the finding that bursts of negative activity occurred after President Trump started using anti-Asian rhetoric in his tweets, speeches, and interviews during the pandemic [8]. Furthermore, the complexity of the prejudice fueled by and evident throughout the pandemic is perhaps illustrated by the political connotation of some of the anti-Asian keywords. For example, “ccpvirus”—in reference to the Chinese Communist Party—likely stemmed from news reports that this political party withheld information about COVID-19 during the early months of the pandemic [42].

Finally, our findings also suggest that positive online activity may act as a protective response, bringing heightened awareness to anti-Asian prejudice through “hashtag activism.” It remains unclear, however, whether surges in the use of positive keywords (e.g., #hateisavirus, #stopasianhate) led to a measurable reduction in verbal and physical attacks against AAPI individuals; notably, similar campaigns aimed at reducing violence have lost momentum over time [43]. Nonetheless, our hope is that our efforts to expand on recent research in this area will contribute to a deeper understanding of how prejudice and hatred, as well as empathy and counter-hate, proliferates online during global crises.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the National Science Foundation under awards #2036127 and #2227488. Additionally, the authors would like to thank Johnny Hudson (Arizona State University) for his contributions to an early version of the Twitter timeline.

REFERENCES

- [1] World Health Organization, “Timeline: WHO’s COVID-19 response,” <https://www.who.int/emergencies/diseases/novel-coronavirus-2019/interactive-timeline>, 2021.
- [2] Google Trends, “Coronavirus search trends,” https://trends.google.com/trends/story/US_cu_4Rjdh3ABAABMHM_en, 2021.
- [3] World Health Organization, “World health organization best practices for the naming of new human infectious diseases,” https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/163636/WHO_HSE_FOS_15.1_eng.pdf, 2015.
- [4] S. Darling-Hammond, E. K. Michaels, A. M. Allen, D. H. Chae, M. D. Thomas, T. T. Nguyen, M. M. Mujahid, and R. C. Johnson, “After “the China virus” went viral: Racially charged coronavirus coverage and trends in bias against Asian Americans,” *Health Education and Behavior*, vol. 47, ed. 6, pp. 870-879, 10.1177/1090198120957949, 2020.
- [5] A. R. Gover, S. B. Harper, and L. Langton, “Anti-Asian hate crime during the COVID-19 pandemic: Exploring the reproduction of inequality,” *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, pp. 1-21, 10.1007/s12103-020-09545-1, 2020.
- [6] T. Levenson, “Stop trying to make “wuhan virus” happen,” <https://www.theatlantic.com/ideas/archive/2020/03/stop-trying-make-wuhan-virus-happen/607786/>, 2020.
- [7] World Health Organization, “A guide to preventing and addressing social stigma,” <https://www.who.int/docs/default-source/coronaviruse/covid19-stigma-guide.pdf>, 2020.

- [8] Y. Hswen, X. Xu, A. Hing, J. B. Hawkins, J. S. Brownstein, and G. C. Gee, "Association of #COVID19 versus #Chinesevirus with anti-Asian sentiments on Twitter: March 9–23, 2020," *American Journal of Public Health*, vol. 111, ed. 5, pp. 956-964, 2021.
- [9] N. G. Ruiz, K. Edwards, and M. H. Lopez, "One-third of Asian Americans fear threats, physical attacks and most say violence against them is rising," Pew Research Center, <https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2021/04/21/one-third-of-asian-americans-fear-threats-physical-attacks-and-most-say-violence-against-them-is-rising/>, 2021.
- [10] B. Levin, and A. Grisham, "Fact sheet: Anti-Asian prejudice March 2021," Center for the Study of Hate and Extremism, <https://www.csusb.edu/sites/default/files/FACT\%20SHEET-\%20Anti-Asian\%20Hate\%202020\%20rev\%203.21.21.pdf>, 2021.
- [11] Stop AAPI Hate, "Stop AAPI hate national report 3.19.20 - 8.5.20," https://www.asianpacificpolicyandplanningcouncil.org/wp-content/uploads/STOP_AAPI_Hate_National_Report_3.19-8.5.2020.pdf 2020.
- [12] Anti-Defamation League, "ADL report: Anti-Asian hostility spikes on Twitter after president Trump's COVID diagnosis," <https://www.adl.org/news/press-releases/adl-report-anti-asian-hostility-spikes-on-twitter-after-president-trumps-covid> 2020.
- [13] E. McGuire, "Anti-Asian hate continues to spread online amid COVID-19 pandemic," <https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2020/04/anti-asian-hate-continues-spread-online-covid-19-pandemic-200405063015286.html>, 2020.
- [14] A. D. Dubey, "The resurgence of cyber racism during the COVID-19 pandemic and its after effects: Analysis of sentiments and emotions in Tweets," *JMR Public Health and Surveillance*, vol. 6, ed. 4, 10.2196/19833, 2020.
- [15] J. Y. Kim, and A. Kesar, "Misinformation and hate speech: The case of anti-Asian hate speech during the COVID-19 pandemic," *Journal of Online Trust and Safety*, vol. 1, ed. 1, 10.54501/jots.v1i1.13, 2021.
- [16] M. Costello, L. Cheng, F. Luo, Ho. Hu, S. Liao, N. Vishwamitra, M. Li, and E. Okpala, "COVID-19: A pandemic of anti-Asian cyberhate," *Journal of Hate Studies*, vol. 17 ed. 1, pp. 108–118, 10.33972/jhs.198, 2020.
- [17] H. Tessler, M. Choi, and G. Kao, "The anxiety of being Asian American: Hate crimes and negative biases during the COVID-19 pandemic," *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, vol. 45, ed. 4, pp. 636-646, 10.1007/s12103-020-09541-5, 2020.
- [18] R. Ng, "Anti-Asian sentiments during the COVID-19 pandemic across 20 countries: Analysis of a 12-billion-word news media database," *Journal of Medical Internet Research*, vol. 8, ed. 23, 10.2196/28305, 2021.
- [19] B. He, C. Ziems, S. Soni, N. Ramakrishnan, D. Yang, and S. Kumar, "Racism is a virus: Anti-Asian hate and counterspeech in social media during the COVID-19 crisis", Proceedings of the 2021 IEEE/ACM International Conference on Advances in Social Networks Analysis and Mining, 10.1145/3487351.3488324, 2021.
- [20] T. T. Nguyen, S. Criss, P. Dwivedi, D. Huang, J. Keralis, E. Hsu, L. Phan, L. H. Nguyen, I. Yardi, M. M. Glymour, A. M. Allen, D. H. Chae, G. C. Gee, and Q. C. Nguyen, "Exploring U.S. shifts in anti-Asian sentiment with the emergence of Covid-19", *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, vol. 17, ed. 19, 10.3390/ijerph17197032, 2020.
- [21] C. Rivers, B. Lewis, and S. Marmagas. "A framework for ethical use of Twitter for public health research", vol. 11, 2013.
- [22] Twitter. "Developer terms: Developer policy" <https://developer.twitter.com/en/developer-terms/policy>, 2022.
- [23] A. Chiu, "Trump has no qualms about calling coronavirus the 'Chinese Virus,' that's a dangerous attitude, experts say", *Washington Post*, <https://www.washingtonpost.com/nation/2020/03/20/coronavirus-trump-chinese-virus/>, 2020.
- [24] E. Shim, "Asian Americans take campaign against 'Kung Flu' slur to the streets", *UPI*, https://www.upi.com/Top_News/US/2020/06/27/Asian-Americans-take-campaign-against-Kung-Flu-slur-to-the-streets/8321593296741/, 2020.
- [25] M. D. Cava, and K. Lam, "Coronavirus is spreading and so is anti-Chinese sentiment and xenophobia", *USA Today*, <https://www.usatoday.com/story/news/nation/2020/01/31/coronavirus-chinese-xenophobia-racism-misinformation/2860391001/>, 2020.
- [26] J. Jiang, E. Chen, S. Yan, K. Lerman, and E. Ferrara, "Political polarization drives online conversations about Covid-19 in the United States", *Human Behavior and Emerging Technologies*, vol. 2, ed. 3, pp. 200–211, 10.1002/hbe2, 2020.
- [27] A. Cohen. "Fuzzy string matching in Python" <https://pypi.org/project/fuzzywuzzy/>, 2022.
- [28] R. Fausset, N. Bogel-Burroughs, and M. Fazio. "8 dead in Atlanta spa shootings, with fears of anti-Asian bias", *New York Times*, <https://www.nytimes.com/live/2021/03/17/us/shooting-atlanta-acworth>, 2021.
- [29] J. Kleinberg, "Bursty and hierarchical structure in streams," *Data Mining and Knowledge Discovery*, vol. 7, ed. 4, pp. 373-397, 2003, 10.1023/A:1024940629314.
- [30] Trump Twitter Archive. "Trump twitter archive V2" <https://www.trumptwitterarchive.com>, 2021.
- [31] BBC US Canada. "Covid: UK variant could drive 'rapid growth' in US cases, CDC warns", <https://www.bbc.com/news/world-us-canada-55684878>, 2021.
- [32] S. Becket, G. Segers, K. Watson, M. Quinn, and C. Linton, "President Biden takes office, moving quickly to implement agenda", <https://www.cbsnews.com/live-updates/biden-inaugurated-46th-president-united-states/>, 2021.
- [33] Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. "CDC museum Covid-19 timeline" <https://www.cdc.gov/museum/timeline/covid19.html>, 2021.
- [34] K. Tran, "2 elderly Asian women punched in the head in separate attacks on NYC subway", *Yahoo News*, https://news.yahoo.com/2-elderly-asian-women-punched-235848778.html?soc_src=social-sh&soc_trk=ma, 2021.
- [35] W. G. Kantor, "Filipino American man recounts brutal attack with box cutter on N.Y.C. subway: 'nobody helped'.", *People, Meredith Corporation*, <https://people.com/crime/filipino-american-man-recounts-brutal-attack-with-box-cutter-on-n-y-c-subway-nobody-helped/>, 2021.
- [36] A. V. Lozano, "People across U.S. protest anti-Asian hate following deadly spa shootings", *NBC News*, <https://www.nbcnews.com/news/us-news/people-across-u-s-protest-anti-asian-hate-following-deadly-n1261677>, 2021.
- [37] A. Roginand A. Nawaz, "We have been through this before. Why anti-Asian hate crimes are rising amid coronavirus", *PBS News Hour*, <https://www.pbs.org/newshour/nation/we-have-been-through-this-before-why-anti-asian-hate-crimes-are-rising-amid-coronavirus>, 2020.
- [38] Stop AAPI Hate, "About" <https://stopaapihate.org/about/>, 2022.
- [39] X. Tan, R. Lee, and L. Ruppner, "Profiling racial prejudice during COVID-19: Who exhibits anti-Asian sentiment in Australia and the United States?", *Australian Journal of Social Issues*, vol. 6, ed. 5, 10.1002/ajis4.176, 2021.
- [40] A. J. Y. Horse, R. Jeung, R. Lim, B. Tang, M. Im, L. Higashiyama, ... and M. Chen, "Stop AAPI Hate National Report", <https://stopaapihate.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/08/Stop-AAPI-Hate-Report-National-v2-210830.pdf>, 2020.
- [41] J. G. Shafer, "Donald Trump's 'political incorrectness': Neoliberalism as frontstage racism on social Media", *Social Media Society*, 10.1177/2056305117733226, 2017.
- [42] C. Buckley and S. L. Myers, "As new coronavirus spread, China's old habits delayed fight" *New York Times*, <https://www.nytimes.com/2020/02/01/world/asia/china-coronavirus.html>, 2020.
- [43] S. Lindgren, "Movement mobilization in the age of hashtag activism: Examining the challenge of noise, hate, and disengagement in the #MeToo campaign", *Policy & Internet*, vol. 11, ed. 4, pp. 418-438, 10.1002/poi3.212, 2019.