

Language-based Valence and Arousal Expressions between the United States and China: a Cross-Cultural Examination

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Abstract

Although affective expressions of individuals have been extensively studied using social media, research has primarily focused on the Western context. There are substantial differences among cultures that contribute to their affective expressions. This paper examines the differences between Twitter (X) in the United States and Sina Weibo posts in China on two primary dimensions of affect - valence and arousal. We study the difference in the functional relationship between arousal and valence (so-called V-shaped) among individuals in the US and China and explore the associated content differences. Furthermore, we correlate word usage and topics in both platforms to interpret their differences. We observe that for Twitter users, the variation in emotional intensity is less distinct between negative and positive emotions compared to Weibo users, and there is a sharper escalation in arousal corresponding with heightened emotions. From language features, we discover that affective expressions are associated with personal life and feelings on Twitter, while on Weibo such discussions are about socio-political topics in the society. These results suggest a West-East difference in the V-shaped relationship between valence and arousal of affective expressions on social media influenced by content differences. Our findings have implications for applications and theories related to cultural differences in affective expressions.

1 Introduction

Subjective expression of affect (how we feel) plays a crucial role in understanding learning outcomes in individuals (Hourihan et al., 2017), their perceptions (Gorn et al., 2001), well-being (Xu et al., 2015), and mental and physical health (Cohen and Pressman, 2006). Multiple theoretical and empirical works have therefore studied the underlying dimensions of affect and their relationship. While

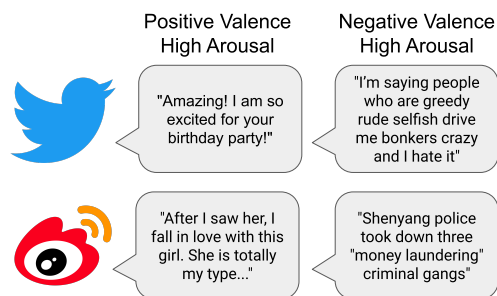


Figure 1: Example posts from Twitter and Weibo dataset. Users from the two platforms express affect differently, closely related to cultural background.

there are several models of affective structure, Russell’s 2-dimensional circumplex model is one of the popular models (Russell, 1980), where orthogonal valence and arousal are considered its most fundamental dimensions (Yik et al., 1999). Valence is the measure of pleasure (or displeasure) and arousal of activation or sense of energy.

Understanding the relationship between valence and arousal is interesting from empirical, psychometric, and theoretical perspectives. While previous studies suggest several models to describe the valence arousal relationship (Ortony et al., 1990; Lang, 1994), where valence and arousal are correspondingly the horizontal and vertical axis in the circumplex, representing the polarity and intensity of affective states, a “V-shaped” relationship of arousal as a function of valence is one of the most widely tested and accepted (Kuppens et al., 2013; Cacioppo and Gardner, 1999). Arousal is shown to be directly related to the intensity of positive or negative valence with a positivity offset and a negativity bias, with varying levels of cross-cultural support (Kuppens et al., 2017a).

While affective structure and relationship are considered universal, most previous works studying the valence arousal relationship are based exclusively on Western samples and do not consider

cross-cultural heterogeneity (Tsai et al., 2006). Culture can have a big impact on one’s emotional life. Different cultures value emotions (ideal affect) and have different emotional display standards (Matsumoto, 1990). For example, Americans appreciate enthusiasm (high arousal) to express high positive valence, while Asians more often choose quiet (low arousal) (Tsai et al., 2006). Past research also suggests that culture has an important influence in predicting affect perceptions, which can reflect differences in cultural expectations (Guntuku et al., 2015b; Zhu et al., 2018; Guntuku et al., 2015a). Furthermore, the few studies that revealed significant evidence of the affective differences across Western and Eastern cultures were based on small samples recruited in lab-based environments (Kuppens et al., 2017b). Asking participants to recall recent events and report their emotions can contain measurement bias and other concerns relating to self-report (Tarrant et al., 1993; Winograd and Neisser, 2006). To counter this, there is a call for more research going beyond self-reports to behaviors (Baumeister et al., 2007). The strength of our approach is to examine the generalizability of past cross-cultural findings using actual behaviors of language expressions.

This paper has two contributions. First, we compare the functional relationship between valence and arousal in public affective expression using large-scale social media data, going beyond self-report surveys. Second, we use language samples collected from the United States (in the West) and China (in the East) to elucidate the differences and similarities in the relationship between valence and arousal across cultures by mining ecological expressions from individual timelines on Twitter (X) and Sina Weibo and use thematic content analysis to understand the language markers contributing to such differences and similarities.

Social media data are known to capture individuals’ feelings in a naturalistic and ecological setting and have been shown to reliably estimate well-being (Jaidka et al., 2020), sentiment (Preoŕiuc-Pietro et al., 2016), psychological traits such as personality (Schwartz et al., 2013), and health (Merchant et al., 2019). The variations in content and user behavior on Weibo and Twitter have been explored in various scenarios (Ma, 2013; Lin et al., 2016b). Despite the difficulties of working with a non-random, non-representative sample of social media users, posts can reveal a variety of psychological qualities and consequences, including

users’ demographics (Sap et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2016), personality (Li et al., 2014; Quercia et al., 2011), location (Salehi et al., 2017; Zhong et al., 2015), stress levels (Guntuku et al., 2019b; Lin et al., 2016a), and mental health (Guntuku et al., 2019d; Tian et al., 2018) on both platforms. Examples of posts from the two platforms are shown in Figure 1.

2 Methods

2.1 Data Collection

Our data consist of public messages posted on Weibo and Twitter. To collect Twitter data, we used the survey platform Qualtrics, which included demographic questions such as gender and age. Participants shared their Twitter handles after completing the survey. Users were compensated for participating, and we received informed consent to access their Twitter posts. There were 3,113 users in the Twitter dataset, with around 3.6 million posts until 2016.

Weibo, unlike Twitter, does not offer an API tool for obtaining random samples over time. So, starting with a random set of individuals from a public dataset (Guntuku et al., 2019a), Weibo posts were gathered using a breadth-first search method on users. We obtained over 29 million posts from 2014 from 859,054 people on Weibo. Gender and age were collected from self-reported demographic information on their Weibo profile. Subsetting to users with more than 500 words and with a reasonable age (<100 years) and gender, the dataset consisted of 668,257 Weibo posts from 8,731 users. 500 words were found to be the minimum threshold to obtain reliable psychological estimates from individuals’ language (Eichstaedt et al., 2021; Jaidka et al., 2018).

Based on the gender and age distribution of Weibo and Twitter users, we built propensity-score-based matched samples, resulting in 2,191 users each on both platforms with at least 500 words. These matched users had 2.4 million posts on Twitter and 177,042 posts on Weibo. In our matched dataset 67.1% self-reported as being female and 32.9% as male, and the mean age was 26.9 (s.d. 8.8). On Twitter, there were on average 15.6 (s.d. 2.8) words per user and Weibo had 57.3 (s.d. 15.4) words per user.

168	2.2 Language Preprocessing		
169	To eliminate the confounds of bilingualism (Fish-		
170	man, 1980), we retain only English posts on		
171	Twitter and Mandarin posts on Weibo by using		
172	langid (Lui and Baldwin, 2012). Re-tweets are		
173	also removed from both datasets ('RT @USER-		
174	NAME:' on Twitter and '@USERNAME//' on		
175	Weibo). Weibo posts were split into tokens us-		
176	ing THULAC (Li and Sun, 2009) while Twitter		
177	posts were segmented using happierfuntokenizing		
178	(DLATK/happierfuntokenizing, 2017) due to their		
179	ability to handle emoticons and other social media		
180	slang. To eliminate uncommonly used words (out-		
181	liers), we filtered words with different frequency		
182	thresholds for each platform. Words used by fewer		
183	than 0.1% of the total posts on Twitter and 0.5%		
184	on Weibo were removed from the analysis. Most		
185	words are seldom used in language, as they follow a		
186	Zipfian distribution. By removing these words, we		
187	ensure that the language insights from our research		
188	can be generalized to out-of-sample cases.		
189	2.3 Feature Extraction		
190	We extract two open-vocabulary features from Twit-		
191	ter and Weibo: n-grams and topics. We extract		
192	contiguous sequences of one or two words (1-2		
193	grams, Kern et al., 2014; Andrew Schwartz et al.,		
194	2013) with pointwise mutual information (PMI = 3;		
195	Church and Hanks, 1990). This resulted in unique		
196	unigrams and bigrams set of 10,477 for Weibo and		
197	12,798 for Twitter. We extracted the normalized		
198	distribution of the n-grams for each post in the		
199	Weibo and Twitter datasets. We then used 2000		
200	topics generated using Latent Dirichlet Allocation		
201	(LDA, Blei et al., 2003) as the second feature to		
202	represent users' language in our Twitter and Weibo		
203	datasets. We utilized topics generated on much		
204	larger datasets to favor high diversity and coverage.		
205	2,000 English topics generated a corpus of approxi-		
206	mately 18 million Facebook updates with alpha set		
207	to 0.30 to favor fewer topics per document. 2,000		
208	Mandarin topics were generated on the entire set of		
209	29 million Weibo posts with similar parameters set		
210	in Mallet (Andrew Schwartz et al., 2013). Inher-		
211	ently, each topic is realized as a set of words with		
212	probabilities. Every post is thus scored in terms		
213	of its probability of containing each of the 2000		
214	topics, $p(topic, post)$, which is derived from their		
215	probability of containing a word, $p(word post)$,		
216	and the probability of the words being in given		
217	topics, $p(topic word)$.		
	2.4 Valence-Arousal Measurement		218
	The circumplex and vector models of emotion have		219
	been broadly used for representing affective states		220
	(Russell, 1980; Bradley et al., 1992). In these two-		221
	dimensional models, valence is the x-axis, express-		222
	ing pleasantness and unpleasantness, attractiveness		223
	and aversiveness, joy, and sorrow (Frijda, 1986).		224
	Arousal is the y-axis, describing the degree of wake-		225
	fulness, boredom, excitement, and calm. These		226
	models allow any affective state, emotion, word, or		227
	expression to be represented as a point in the space,		228
	regardless of the difference in language, country,		229
	or culture. We measure valence and arousal using		230
	a validated data-driven lexicon generated based on		231
	the circumplex model in both English and Man-		232
	darin. We used NRC Valence, Arousal, and Dom-		233
	inance (NRC-VAD) Lexicon (Mohammad, 2018)		234
	for Twitter data and its translated version for Weibo		235
	data. NRC-VAD consists of valence and arousal		236
	weights for more than 20,000 words in English and		237
	shows a "boomerang" relationship between two di-		238
	mensions: extremely positive or negative valence		239
	is usually paired with high arousal, while calm-		240
	ness matches low arousal. We subtract 0.5 from all		241
	scores to make them zero-centered.		242
	Multilinguality is another reason to choose NRC-		243
	VAD as our valence-arousal measurement lexicon.		244
	There are over 100 languages available for NRC-		245
	VAD by translating English terms using Google		246
	Translate (August 2022), and the authors claim that		247
	most affective norms are stable across languages.		248
	Since an original-translated term pair has the same		249
	scores, this lexicon avoids the annotator agreement		250
	and scale-matching issue, which are common prob-		251
	lems using two different lexica over two languages.		252
	2.5 Valence-Arousal Relationship Models		253
	Kuppens et al., 2013 showed six possible func-		254
	tional relationships between valence and arousal.		255
	These models are independence (Model 1), Linear		256
	Relation (Model 2), Symmetric V-Shaped Rela-		257
	tion (Model 3), and Asymmetric V-Shaped Rela-		258
	tions, including asymmetric interception (Model		259
	4), asymmetric slope (Model 5), and asymmetric		260
	interception and slope (Model 6). The models'		261
	functional representations are shown below:		262

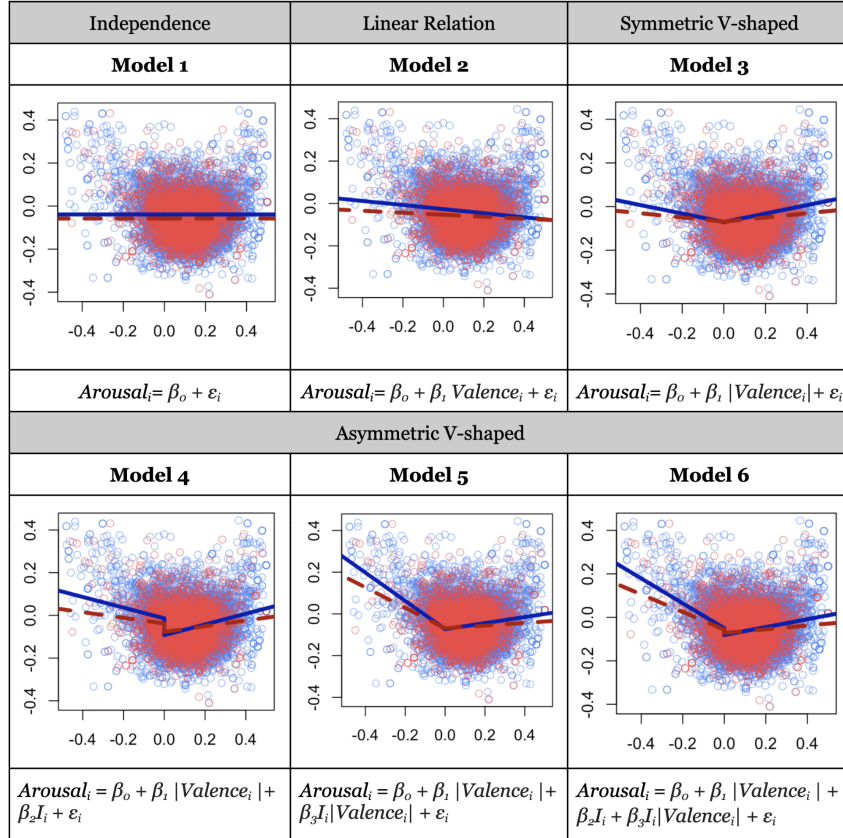


Figure 2: Scatter plots of valence (x-axis) and arousal (y-axis) of Twitter (blue) and Weibo (red) posts. The lines of best fit for each model’s function are appended to each plot (Twitter: solid line, Weibo: dashed line). Each model is tested with a within-person intercept and slope.

$$A_i = \begin{cases} \beta_0 + \epsilon_i & \text{(Model 1)} \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 V_i + \epsilon_i & \text{(Model 2)} \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 |V_i| + \epsilon_i & \text{(Model 3)} \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 |V_i| + \beta_2 I_i + \epsilon_i & \text{(Model 4)} \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 |V_i| + \beta_3 |V_i| + \epsilon_i & \text{(Model 5)} \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 |V_i| + \beta_2 I_i + \beta_3 |V_i| + \epsilon_i & \text{(Model 6)} \end{cases}$$

Where A_i and V_i are short for $Arousal_i$ and $Valence_i$, arousal and valence scores for the post i , I_i denotes a dummy variable that indicates whether $Valence_i$ is positive ($I_i = 1$) or negative ($I_i = 0$). Each model is tested with a within-person intercept and slope.

We use Akaike Information Criterion (AIC; [Bozdogan, 1987](#)) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC; [Schwarz, 1978](#)) for model selection. AIC is defined as:

$$AIC = 2 \cdot k - 2 \cdot \ln(\hat{L}) \quad (1)$$

BIC has the following format:

$$BIC = -2 \cdot \ln(\hat{L}) + k \cdot \ln(N) \quad (2)$$

where \hat{L} is the maximized value of the likelihood function of the model, k is the number of parameters, and N is the number of observations. One advantage of using BIC is that it can be used to approximate posterior probability for each model:

$$Pr(model_m | data) = \frac{\exp(-0.5 BIC_m)}{\sum \exp(-0.5 BIC_m)} \quad (3)$$

While applying the six models, we use mixed effects models to fit the datasets. We assume there is a fixed relationship between valence and arousal across all posts, while the average level of arousal may vary from user to user. The regression models can correctly represent the relationship between the two variables by setting within-person differences as the random effect.

2.6 Differential Language Analysis

We use ordinary least squares (OLS) regression to identify significant associations between the two feature sets, namely n-grams and topics, and valence and arousal. We use feature sets (n-grams or topics) as input, and valence and arousal as outputs

Dataset	Model	AIC	BIC	PostP
Twitter	Model 1	-3.752×10^6	-3.752×10^6	0
	Model 2	-3.790×10^6	-3.790×10^6	0
	Model 3	-3.833×10^6	-3.833×10^6	0
	Model 4	-4.001×10^6	-4.001×10^6	0
	Model 5	-4.048×10^6	-4.048×10^6	0
	Model 6	-4.060×10^6	-4.060×10^6	1
Weibo	Model 1	-4.155×10^5	-4.155×10^5	0
	Model 2	-4.162×10^5	-4.161×10^5	0
	Model 3	-4.172×10^5	-4.171×10^5	0
	Model 4	-4.219×10^5	-4.219×10^5	0
	Model 5	-4.247×10^5	-4.246×10^5	0
	Model 6	-4.251×10^5	-4.250×10^5	1

Table 1: Results of fitting 6 different models on Twitter and Weibo dataset. AIC is Akaike Information Criterion, BIC is Bayesian Information Criterion (the lower the better fit), PostP is posterior probability.

and built one OLS model per feature set. We calculated correlation coefficients of each feature dimension and utilized Benjamini-Hochberg p-correction (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995) to correct for multiple comparisons and used $p < .05$ for indicating meaningful correlations.

3 Results

Warning: The following section contains swear words.

3.1 Valence-Arousal Relation Models

Among the different models we tested across Twitter and Weibo data, Model 6 with within-person intercept and slope best fit with the lowest AIC and BIC (Table 1). Within-person models were also significantly different from the models without within-person effects. The presence of an asymmetric V-shape in the data, including a negativity bias and negativity offset, was confirmed in the models on both Twitter and Weibo data. Compared with Weibo, Twitter shows a larger intercept gap (Twitter: $\beta_2 = -0.031$; Weibo: $\beta_2 = -0.016$). The intensity of emotion gets significantly stronger with higher positivity/negativity. This conclusion is consistent with both Twitter and Weibo, with the smallest BIC values in Model 6, characterized by a V shape (Twitter: $\beta_1 = 0.573$, Weibo: $\beta_1 = 0.404$) and negativity bias (Twitter: $\beta_3 = -0.392$, Weibo: $\beta_3 = -0.318$). The Twitter model has a steeper slope on both positive and negative valence compared to Weibo (Twitter: $\beta_1 = 0.573$, $\beta_3 = -0.392$; Weibo: $\beta_1 = 0.404$, $\beta_3 = -0.318$).

3.2 Differential Language Analysis

To uncover the content differences in emotional expression across cultures, we utilized differential language analysis to obtain the most correlated n-grams and topics in each platform. Figure 3 shows the top significantly correlated words and phrases with valence and arousal in both platforms. On the dimension of valence, Twitter users tended to use words conveying superlatives ('great', 'awesome', 'amazing') and festive celebrations ('birthday', 'Christmas', 'new', 'win') in expressing positive valence, while profanity ('shit', 'fuck'), negation ('hate', 'bad', 'wrong') and discomfort ('wait', 'tired', 'stop') were indicative of negative valence. Conversely, Weibo users commonly employed terms related to personal affect ('like', 'love', 'happiness') and emojis ('oh', 'heart') when expressing positive valence, whereas words indicative of negation ('no') and sorrow ('sad', 'cry') are prevalent in expressing negative valence. On the dimension of arousal, Twitter users expressed profanity ('shit', 'fuck') and interpersonal expressions ('awesome', 'amazing') for high arousal while using terms indicating low activities ('sleep', 'bed') and time-oriented description ('today', 'week', 'day', 'time') for low arousal. In contrast, Weibo users predominantly utilized positive emojis ('steal-laugh', 'applaud') to convey high arousal, while employing affirmation ('yes'), negation ('no'), and sharing aspects of daily life ('home', 'sleep') to express low arousal.

Comparing the two DLA results for topics, Twitter users had relaxing weekend ('weekend', 'awesome', 'amazing', 'great', 'retreat'), celebration of events ('birthday', 'wishes', 'happy', 'present', 'wished'), luck and achievement ('win', 'won', 'contest', 'prize', 'lottery') for positive valence high arousal. Conversely, Weibo users discussed affectionate bonding ('love', 'hopeless', 'willing', 'protective', 'friendly', where hopeless means love in deep) to express their feelings, particularly in the context of festivals and celebrations ('new year', 'red envelope') and interests in celebrities and TV shows ('celebrities', 'singer'). For positive valence low arousal, Twitter users usually talked about relaxing routines ('day', 'today', 'good', 'chilled') and sleep ('night', 'sleep', 'tonight', 'rest', 'hoping'). Besides, Weibo users shared family reunion ('home', 'return', 'mother', 'family', 'new year') and savory cuisines ('dish', 'meat', 'delicious', 'soup', 'dish'). When ex-

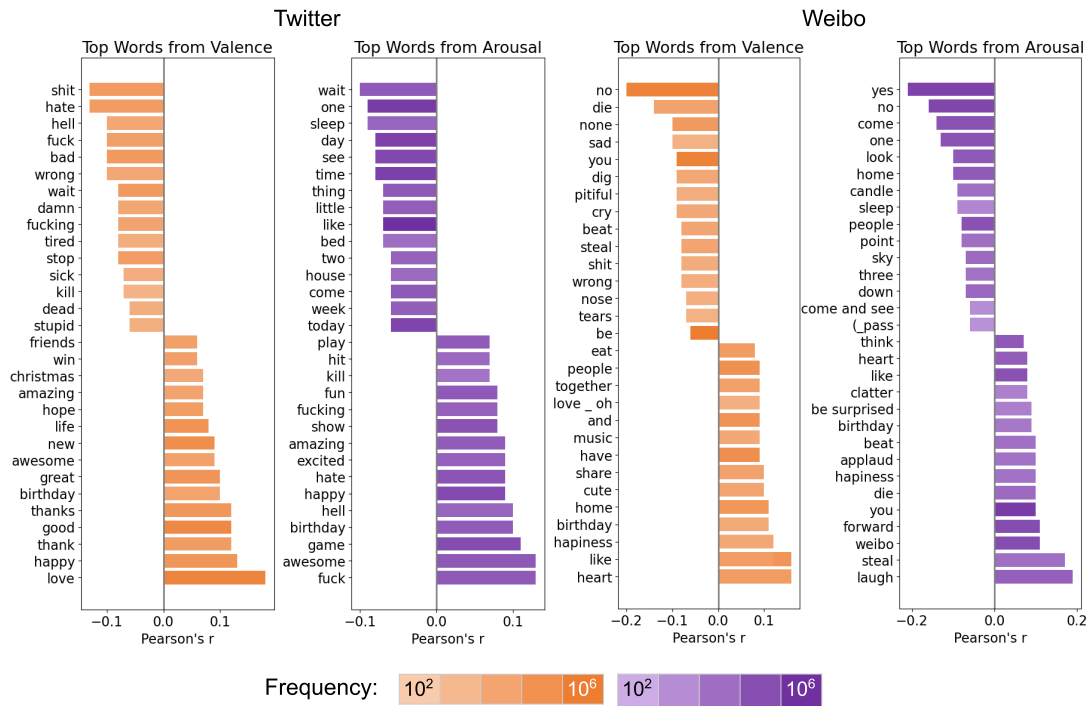


Figure 3: Words and phrases associated with valence and arousal on Twitter and Weibo (translated) from the top 15 phrases for effect strength (Pearson r), colored by frequency. Statistically significant ($p < .05$, two-tailed t-test, Benjamini-Hochberg corrected).

380 pressing strong negative feelings, Twitter users
 381 mainly used profanities ('fucking', 'fuck', 'shit',
 382 'pissed', 'bullshit') to convey intense emotions,
 383 while Weibo users discussed law enforcement and
 384 criminal investigation ('police', 'crime', 'suspect',
 385 'caught', 'case'). Additionally, Weibo discussions
 386 on negative high arousal included the use of emojis
 387 ('sweat') and negative emotions ('shocking',
 388 'hurt', 'give up'). Concerning negative valence
 389 low arousal, Twitter users usually showed personal
 390 negative feelings like tiredness ('tired', 'sleepy',
 391 'sleep', 'sooo', 'ugh'), engaged in discussions about
 392 daily activities ('hair', 'cut', 'short', 'haircut', 'cut-
 393 ting') and mentioned words related to time ('hour',
 394 'minute'). Similarly, Weibo users also mentioned
 395 sleep ('sleep', 'awake', 'bed').

396 4 Discussion

397 This paper examined the functional relationship be-
 398 tween valence and arousal based on large-scale so-
 399 cial media texts across the United States and China.
 400 Our findings suggest that public affective expres-
 401 sions replicate the asymmetrical affective V-shaped
 402 relationship but with a negativity bias (negative
 403 feelings increase more strongly than positive feel-
 404 ings with increasing arousal) and negativity offset

(feelings of arousal are higher at low negative va-
 405 lence levels than positive valence). In addition, the
 406 arousal and valence slope was steeper for Twitter
 407 users than for Weibo users.

408 One of the major findings in our study is that the
 409 American participants had stronger negativity bias
 410 and overall had higher arousal with higher posi-
 411 tive and negative valence compared to Chinese par-
 412 ticipants. This is consistent with past findings on
 413 West-East distinction in emotional arousal: in West-
 414 ern or individualist culture, high-arousal emotions
 415 are valued and promoted more than low-arousal
 416 emotions, while in Eastern or collectivist culture,
 417 low-arousal emotions are valued more than high-
 418 arousal emotions (Lim, 2016). Even in traditional
 419 Asian medicine, there is an assumption that exces-
 420 sive emotional expression can be harmful and cause
 421 diseases, whether it is positive or negative emotions
 422 (Lim et al., 2008). Our findings confirmed that Chi-
 423 nese users on Weibo express lower arousal levels
 424 for both negative and positive emotions.

425 Content analyses of the findings suggested that
 426 Chinese participants displayed less high arousal
 427 positive affect emotional behavior than their Amer-
 428 ican counterparts. This is consistent with past find-
 429 ings that there seems to be a general preference
 430 in the West for high-arousal positive states like
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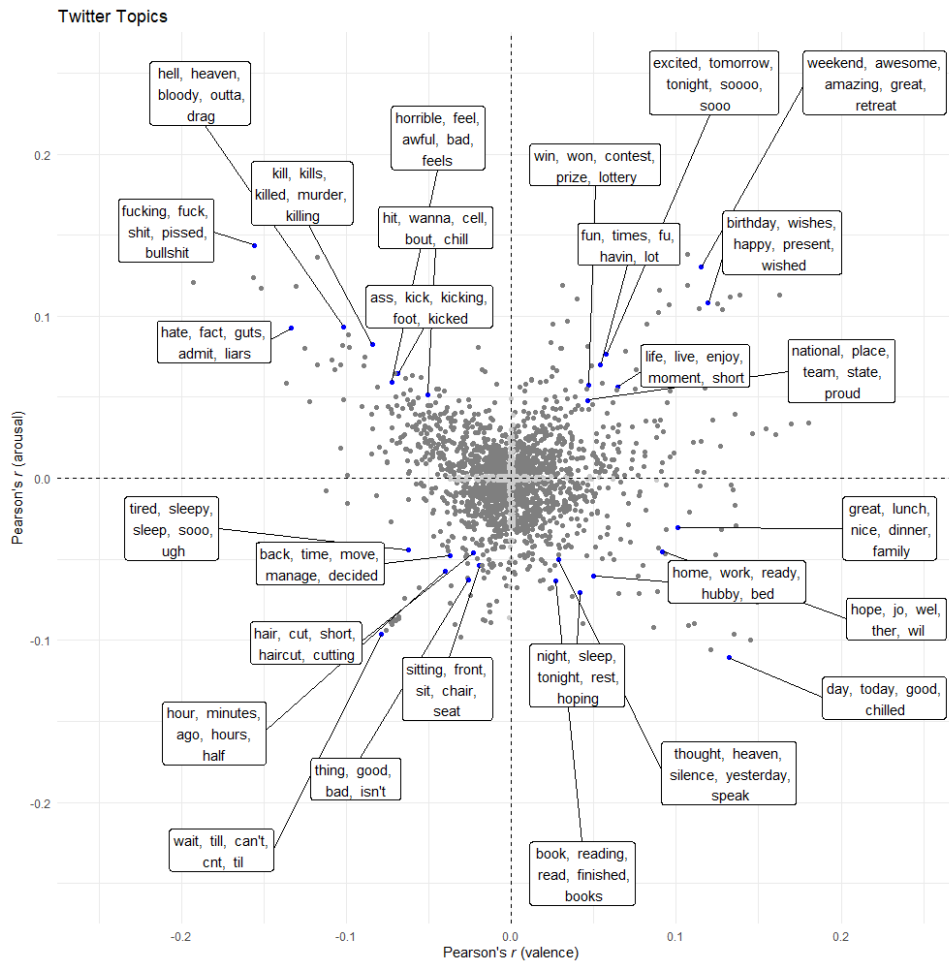


Figure 4: Topics associated with valence and arousal on Twitter, sorted by effect size (Pearson r). Each point is a topic, and statistically significant topics ($p < .05$, two-tailed t-test, Benjamini-Hochberg corrected) are shown in dark gray. The X-axis is the Pearson r with valence and the Y-axis with arousal. The top 5 words in each topic are shown.

excitement or enthusiasm (Sommers, 1984). At the same time, people in the East generally prefer low-arousal positive affective states like calm or peacefulness (Tsai, 2007). Moreover, we saw Twitter users using more explicit excitement-focused terms such as awesomeness, while Weibo users tended to express positive emotions more implicitly, e.g., emojis. This is consistent with findings that the communication style of East Asian language communities tends to be more indirect than that of their Western counterparts (Fong, 1998; Gudykunst et al., 1988; Neuliep, 2012).

Similarly, past literature suggests that high-arousal emotions serve as an effective means of influencing others in the West (Tsai, 2007), while low-arousal emotions serve as an effective means of adjusting and conforming to others in the East (Markus and Kitayama, 1991). We found that low arousal emotions in Weibo were used to influence

others through sharing wisdom and conclusions about life and love. On the high arousal-high positive affect sphere, Twitter users celebrated more personal events, while Weibo users talked more excitedly about celebrities and current events. Therefore, it is likely that while the ideal affect preference translates into affective expressions about personal experiences in the East, discussion of media culture is exempt from such norms: for instance, while it may be frowned upon to act too excited about personal events, the same restrictions are not in place when expressing excitement about celebrities and cultural events. As such, our findings provide a novel insight into our understanding of norm differences in affective expression in East vs West.

Similarly, looking at the difference in negativity bias for Twitter and Weibo, while Twitter users use profanity primarily, Weibo users tend to use words with much lower intensity, confirming the as-

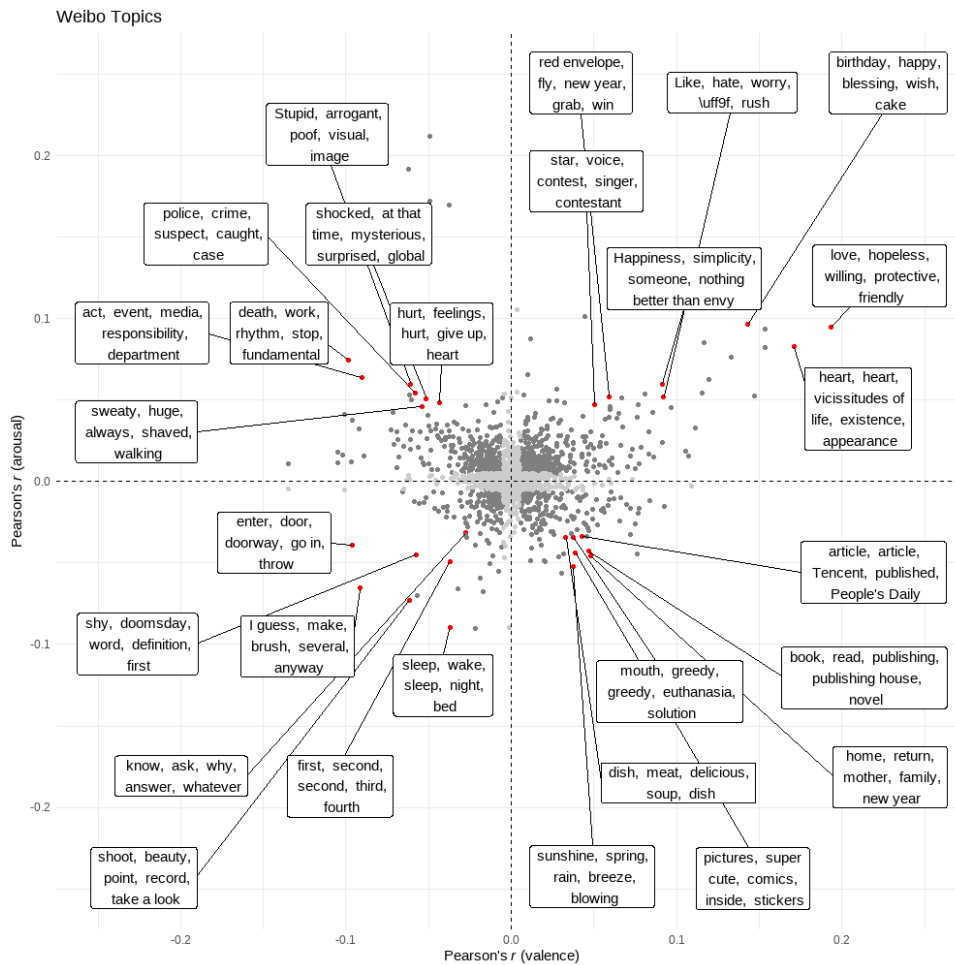


Figure 5: Topics associated with valence and arousal on Weibo, sorted by effect size (Pearson r). Each point is a topic and statistically significant topics ($p < .05$, two-tailed t-test, Benjamini-Hochberg corrected) are shown in dark gray. The X-axis is the Pearson r with valence and the Y-axis with arousal. English translations of the top 5 words in each topic are shown.

470 assumption that Chinese users try to avoid expressing
471 extreme emotions.

472 One surprising finding in our study was that we
473 did not find a positivity offset. We instead found
474 a negativity offset for both American and Chinese
475 participants. The theoretical explanation for the
476 positivity offset (and negativity bias) comes from
477 the Evaluative Space Model (ESM; Cacioppo et al.,
478 1999; Norris et al., 2010), which proposed that
479 positive and negative affect have different arousal
480 functions and predicts greater positive than neg-
481 ative affect at low levels of affective input. The
482 adaptive reason for the offset was hypothesized to
483 encourage approaching novel stimuli in low-threat
484 conditions. However, our finding suggests this may
485 not translate to public affective behavior, particu-
486 larly on social media. It suggests that people on
487 both Twitter and Weibo are more likely to approach
488 neutral stimuli in negative terms while simultane-

489 ously having stronger negative reactions to higher
490 arousal events. Therefore, our studies elucidate
491 how certain theories of affect may not explain af-
492 fective behavior universally, partly because of the
493 contexts not considered in said theories.

494 This study highlights the importance of study-
495 ing public emotional behavior and how it is dis-
496 tinguished from self-reported findings. Our find-
497 ings could confirm some theoretical assumptions in
498 traditional self-report research by adding new em-
499 pirical evidence when applied to public emotional
500 behavior. Future research looking at individual
501 self-reports and public behavior can help us under-
502 stand what these differences can represent at the
503 individual level.

504 5 Limitations

505 Even though Twitter and Weibo are comparable
506 in usage (Li et al., 2020; Guntuku et al., 2019c)

and have not been shown to have significant differences in predicting individual states (Gao et al., 2012), data from other platforms such as WeChat and RenRen in China and Facebook in the US have not been included in this study due to access constraints. Emojis are a significant contributor to affective expressions (Li et al., 2019); however, we did not include them in this study due to differences in encodings while collecting the data making it infeasible for us to parse them accurately. Further, social media users are non-representative of the general population, and the participants in this study are non-random and convenient samples.

6 Ethics

This study, focusing on the cultural differences in affective expressions between Twitter users in the United States and Sina Weibo users in China, raises several ethical considerations:

1. Data Privacy and Anonymity: The research analyzes social media posts from Twitter and Sina Weibo. It is important to ensure that individual users' privacy is respected. All data extracted from these platforms is anonymized by removing personally identifiable information.

2. Cultural Sensitivity and Bias: Given the cross-cultural nature of the study, it is critical to approach the analysis with cultural sensitivity. Researchers must be aware of and mitigate any biases arising from their cultural backgrounds or perspectives. This includes being mindful of how cultural contexts influence affective expressions and the interpretation thereof.

3. Representation and Generalization: Care should be taken to avoid over-generalizing the findings. The study's results are based on specific social media platforms and may not represent the broader United States and China populations.

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Appendix

All the figures and tables from Weibo are translated into English with Google Translate. In the Appendix, we show the figures with original Chinese text. Figure 6 shows the top 15 phrases for effect strength with valence and arousal. Figure 7 shows the top topics associated with valence and arousal.

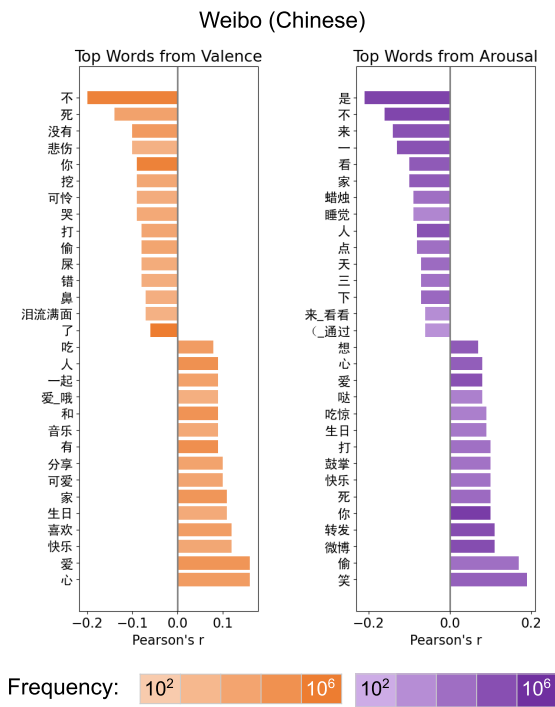


Figure 6: Words and phrases associated with valence and arousal on Weibo (Chinese) from the top 15 phrases for effect strength (Pearson r), colored by frequency. Statistically significant ($p < .05$, two-tailed t-test, Benjamini-Hochberg corrected).

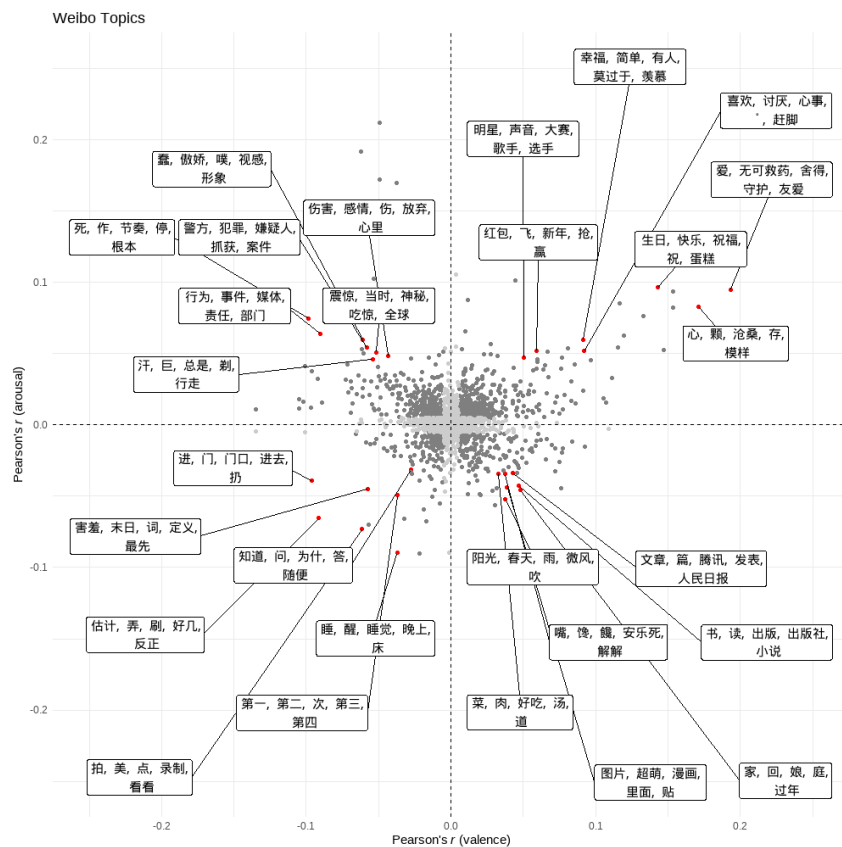


Figure 7: Topics associated with valence and arousal on Weibo (Chinese), sorted by effect size (Pearson r). Each point is a topic and statistically significant topics ($p < .05$, two-tailed t-test, Benjamini-Hochberg corrected) are shown in dark gray. The X-axis is the Pearson r with valence and the Y-axis with arousal. English translations of the top 5 words in each topic are shown.