Twitter to Manage Emotions in Political Marketing

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Abstract

Emotions have a social component that can be defined in terms of the experience of participation. This paper examines how Spanish citizens use Twitter to express their emotions by tweeting their opinions regarding pertinent political decisions. Content analysis was applied to the Twitter accounts of four political parties representing the Spanish electorate. Results show that when Spanish citizens tweeted their opinions about established Spanish political parties, negative emotions (indignation and shame) were more prevalent than positive emotions (hope, joy, and excitement). Furthermore, newer, less experienced political parties managed emotions more effectively than the established political parties did.

Keywords: Emotions, twitter, political parties.

1. INTRODUCTION

The sociology of emotions shows that emotions have a social component that can be defined in terms of the experience of participation (Peters, 2012). This experience refers to the moment when an audience is exposed to a news story. Attempts to involve the audience in news stories, events, or incidents are becoming increasingly explicit thanks to the use of social media. The audience gets involved by offering opinions on news stories, participating in events, and collaborating to resolve issues. All of these forms of participation relate to an experience undergone by the user. The social media are what make this participation possible. Accordingly, a more social and less physiological view of emotions implies that emotions are prevalent in the social media.

In this paper, the social component of emotions is studied by analyzing the participation of individuals in social movements through social networks. Jasper (2011) studied the role of emotions in social movements throughout history. Although authors including Tan et al. (2013) have analyzed the role of
Twitter in some social movements such as Occupy Wall Street, relatively few studies have addressed this topic. The current paper has two aims: (1) to identify and analyze how Spanish citizens use Twitter to express their emotions by tweeting their opinions regarding pertinent political decisions; and (2) to analyze how the Twitter accounts of political parties manage the emotions identified and expressed by citizens. Qualitative content analysis was used to analyze the Twitter accounts of four political parties in Spain: the incumbent party (@PP), the opposition (@PSOE), and two newly created political parties (@CIUDADANOS and @AHORAPODEMOS). The content of tweets made between October 16 and 25, 2015 and the hashtags included in these tweets were analyzed. On the @PP and @PSOE accounts, citizens more commonly expressed negative emotions such as indignation and shame than positive emotions such as hope. Conversely, positive emotions were more prevalent on the @CIUDADANOS and @AHORAPODEMOS accounts. The newer parties with no experience in government managed emotions more effectively than the established parties did. The account @PP, which represents the party with an absolute majority in the Spanish parliament, did not manage its emotions. In contrast, other political parties managed emotions by involving citizens in the design of their manifestos and by converting negative emotions generated by the ruling political party into positive emotions.

The paper has the following structure. Section 2 presents a review of the literature on emotions expressed in social movements and the use of Twitter to express emotions. Section 3 explains the research method. Section 4 sets forth the results of the study. Finally, section 5 offers the main conclusions and recommendations while highlighting the limitations of the study.

2. THE USE OF TWITTER TO EXPRESS EMOTIONS IN SOCIAL MOVEMENTS

According to Jasper (2011), researching emotions in the social sciences is challenging because of three main issues: (1) the emotion–reason dichotomy, (2) the different interpretations of a single emotion that may refer to different emotions, and (3) the confusion between different types of feelings. Jasper (2011) resolved these problems by categorizing feelings as a function of their duration and the way they are felt. Jasper (2011) defined reflex emotions as reflexes to the physical and social word, whereas moods were defined separately from emotions. Accordingly, an emotion involves
thinking about an object while simultaneously assessing the importance of that object. Thus, emotions always involve assessment (Nussbaum, 2001). Emotions are often the fastest way for our minds to process information (Leventhal & Tomarken, 1986).

Jasper (2011) identified two types of emotions that are relatively stable over time: (1) emotions of fondness such as love, pleasure, respect, trust, and admiration (along with their negative counterparts); and (2) moral emotions, which involve approval or disapproval based on moral principles. This second group includes the satisfaction or dissatisfaction we feel when we do something right or wrong or when we feel something such as compassion in response to misfortune, indignation in response to injustice, and other moral emotions such as shame, pride, or guilt.

Emotions appear in social movements (Gamson et al., 1982; Lofland, 1982), but it is important to know the objectives that motivate individuals to participate in social movements, whereby they express these emotions. These objectives include (1) reputation or concern for due honor, pride, and recognition of one’s basic humanity (Honneth, 1995) and political marketing (Tresch et al., 2015); (2) the sense of belonging to a group, which stimulates emotions of love (Berezein, 2001), pride (Scheff, 1994), and emotional excitement (Collins, 2004); and (3) the desire to build a different world in the hope that it is possible to overcome persistent feelings of fear, anger, and vulnerability.

Emotions do not appear in isolation but rather in combination, interacting with one another. When a positive emotion and another negative emotion act together, they create tension that leads to action. Although this subject is a relatively unexplored area, pride and shame are the most widely studied emotions in the gay rights movement, and pity and joy are the most widely studied emotions in the animal rights movement. Other combinations of emotions that have also been studied in the context of other social movements are hope for the future and fear, anxiety, and other forms of suffering in the present.

The leaders of any social movement seek to awaken emotions in those who may join the movement and others who are already part of the movement. The first task is therefore to nudge spectators toward becoming participants. In politics, when voters feel threatened, their reflex emotions lead them to seek additional information and process this information thoroughly. Their anxiety also helps them to recruit others for new forms of action, including protests. Thus, activists try to recruit others by
creating or capitalizing on moral crises, information, or events that suggest that the world is not how they thought it was. Their inner turmoil occasionally leads to political action as a way of making amends (Jasper, 1997). Moral crises can also radicalize participants of a social movement or strengthen their commitment (Gould, 2009). In addition, during moral crises, movements send out emotional messages as either threats or reassurance, depending on what each movement wants to achieve of its participants at that moment. Therefore, the management of emotions offers a way of not only dragging people out of their routines, but also persuading them to participate in movements and even ensuring their participation in collective action. To keep activists committed to a movement, their participation must yield some satisfaction. To ensure that this is the case, recruiters deploy emotional mechanisms such as collective identity, interaction rituals, and other group dynamics.

Collective identities such as nationalism involve love of the group (Berezin, 2001) and hatred of foreigners (Maann, 2004; Scheff, 1994; Severac, 2003). When events take place, groups become stronger when they respond by sharing reflex emotions (both positive and negative) and affective loyalty to maintain the enthusiasm of their members. Therefore, collective identity (e.g., nationalism) is not only an ideological objective of social movements, but also a means of emotional achievement (Yang, 2000). Rituals of interaction contribute to maintaining the emotional energy of social movements (Collins, 2004; Summers-Effler, 2006). Some mechanisms that elicit joy in the crowd are group travel (e.g., by coach or bus) and music. Music is an especially important element of social movements (McNeill, 1995; Roscigno & Danaher, 2004). Music and lyrics can convert people from being indifferent bystanders to being active participants in the movement. Such a conversion is conveyed through these people’s demeanor and expressions, which illustrate emotions expressing converts’ willingness to go from being bystanders to activists. Music also strengthens group identity and demonizes opponents (Traini, 2008). Yet scholars have scarcely analyzed internal group dynamics, which are important for sustaining any movement. The leaders of the group attempt to minimize affective loyalty to anyone outside the group and maximize group members’ loyalty or loyalty to the leader (Goodwin, 1997). Scheff (1994) alluded to the role of leaders as “symbols of feelings,” yet the internal structure of groups and their dynamics have never been studied.
Although emotions are linked to means and ends, their distinction can become blurred. Any action feeds a constant stream of emotions, and the more positive these emotions are, the more emotional energy and excitement they create, and the greater the chances that the participants continue in the movement. The satisfaction from an action—ranging from joy to dignity—becomes a motivation that is just as important as the aims of the movement. The capacity to express anger, for instance, is a means of challenging injustices in most protest movements. Moods are a fundamental part of this interpretation of means and ends. Every victory, no matter how small, builds confidence, attracts attention, and generates emotional energy, all of which are positive in terms of future action (Jasper, 2006). Collins (2004) observed that emotional energy resulting purely from interaction gives people a sense of confidence regarding subsequent interactions, especially when this sense of confidence creates memorable symbols.

The sociological component of emotions refers to a person’s involvement—whether positive or negative; profound or superficial—in some cause, which may be related to an event or a person. When someone is concerned about something, it shows in his or her physical well-being and mood. Emotion is an experience in itself; it is not a collection of thoughts about experience. Emotion is not the language used to explain experience, but rather a person’s immediate contact and participation with his or her own personal world (Barbalet, 2002). When people read an account of some event, they react rationally. Not only do people understand the report, but they also decide whether they agree with it. As we read about the news, we process the information rationally. Conversely, however, for an individual to feel an emotion, that individual must have a relationship with another person, not with the text. For a news story to elicit an emotion in the reader, the reader must feel that he or she shares a bond with the protagonists of the story. Emotions are an integral part of all humans, but, crucially, they arise through relationships with others (Sheller, 2004). Thus, anger makes no sense if it is not targeting someone or something, and shame only shows when we acknowledge the social expectations of our behavior. Nevertheless, not all news reports capture the attention of all readers to the same degree; not all events and incidents achieve the same level of participation. Twitter is the medium that most effectively creates a bond between the individual and the event or incident.
According to Phuvipadawat and Murata (2011), a tweet has two key elements: emotion and fact. Emotions are expressed via the use of symbols (e.g., the symbol “!”) and the use of adjectives or phrases related to feelings (“crazy,” “amazing,” “great,” “terrible,” “wonderful,” “shocking,” “oh my god,” etc.). Connor (2007) noted that the growing use of emoticons in digital communication reflects a desire to personalize the impersonal. Their use is a way of recreating “authentic” emotional interactions when two people are physically separated. Facts are provided using text, links, or information sources for the original message. Twitter users use words and key verbs related to facts, occurrences, and events. These words help others to identify the story. Users often tag their message with the hashtag symbol (“#”) followed by some keyword as a way of grouping all messages linked by that word. Links redirect readers to external sources that provide information about the keyword. Because tweets are limited to 140 characters, users shorten the link using special services. Finally, users also add maps, photos, and videos. In short, Twitter is an open social network where users have 140 characters to share information, experiences, and emotions in response to the question: What’s happening?

3. METHOD

The current paper has two aims: (1) to identify and analyze how Spanish citizens use Twitter to express their emotions by tweeting their opinions regarding pertinent political decisions; and (2) to analyze how four Spanish political parties manage the emotions expressed by citizens via their Twitter accounts. To achieve these aims while working within the framework established in section 2, we used qualitative content analysis.

The population and time frame of the study covered all political parties in Spain with an operative Twitter account between October 16 and 25, 2015. Content analysis was applied to the Twitter accounts of two Spanish political parties with parliamentary representation in 2015 (@PP and @PSOE), as well as the accounts of the political parties that are considered the third and fourth political powers in Spain (@CIUDADANOS and @AHORAPODEMOS). This study consisted of an emotional content analysis of the tweets and hashtags mentioned on the accounts of political parties, so it was important to examine these four accounts. For it to yield valuable findings, this type of analysis must be performed at the right time. Therefore, the study was carefully planned to take place
before the electoral campaign for the general elections held on December 20, 2015. It was thus possible to avoid bias in the messages’ meaning and emotional content, aside from the fact that studying the election campaign fell outside the scope of this study.

The selection and definition of the unit of analysis was determined by the choice of communication elements that formed the focus of the content analysis. According to Krippendorff (1990), there are three units of analysis: sampling units, recording/coding units, and context units. As the sampling unit, we chose the accounts of the political parties; as the recording/coding unit, we chose the keywords referring to emotions expressed in tweets; as the context unit, we chose the tweet as a unit of analysis to define the recording/coding unit.

The next phase consisted of constructing the content categories for analysis. Given that the categories had to be mutually exclusive, exhaustive, and reliable, we chose emotions as content categories. First, one emotion was allowed to belong to one category only. Second, all emotions were forced to belong to a category. Third, the classification had to be reliable. To check the classification’s reliability, we used the Holsti index, which is the most widely used index in the literature (Kolbe & Burnett, 1991). For this index, values of 90% or more are considered acceptable. Two independent experts performed the analysis of the emotional content of the tweets under study. The experts agreed in 92.3% of cases as per the aforementioned index. The final phase consisted of establishing the system to quantify the units of analysis. We chose nominal variables for the analysis. The nominal variable was the type of variable that best suited our analysis method. We thus obtained the frequency of occurrence.

4. RESULTS

Using the method described in section 3, we obtained the results appearing in Table 1.

[Insert Table 1]

Table 1 shows the hashtags that contained a word referring to a particular emotion. Aside from identifying these hashtags, we identified others that included some emotion but that used a keyword referring to a specific person—@PP(11), @PSOE(17), @CIUDADANOS(0) and @AHORAPODEMOS(14)—or to a specific aim of citizens—@PP(25), @PSOE(15), @CIUDADANOS(11), @AHORAPODEMOS(23). Notably, the participation of Spanish citizens was

1 The number of hashtags for each Twitter account appears in parentheses.
greater for @PP and @PSOE (i.e., the accounts of the established parties) than for the two accounts belonging to recently created, inexperienced parties.

On the @PP account, Twitter users revealed their pride through expressions such as, “We’re proud of a president like you” (tweeted by Nicolas Sarkozy on @PP) or “Spain is our priority partner. You’ve had a difficult journey but today you’re an example for the whole European Union” (tweeted by Angela Merkel on @PP), as well as indignation through expressions such as, “The greatest enemy of an oppressive government is a hidden people.”

On the @PSOE account, Twitter users also revealed their pride through expressions such as, “Proud to be sharing the cause with such dedicated colleagues” (tweeted by a follower of the PSOE), “Proud to be sharing the same cause and building a team together,” or “Proud to belong to the same cause as such a dedicated group of people this morning.” In contrast, Twitter users also expressed emotions such as irony, “Don’t the PSOE sound good when they’re in opposition, weren’t they a disgrace when they were in power,” anger, “I won’t accept your attack on my freedom. Scrap your secular project,” shame “It’s embarrassing,” and positive emotions such as optimism, “We came to win, and we won.”

According to the analysis by @negativo_stats on the negative tweets during October 25, 2015, negative emotions were reflected by the following popular keywords: “corruption,” “pathetic,” “jeering,” “discrediting,” “fear,” “accused,” “unemployment,” “violence,” “crooks,” “shame,” “cheats,” and “inequality.”

Both positive and negative emotions appeared on the account of one of the two newly created political parties, @CIUDADANOS. The negative emotions included indignation, expressed through words like “angry” and “shameful”; pessimism, expressed through tweets like, “No matter who wins, things will stay the same or get worse, all together”; and anger, expressed through tweets like, “Little tolerance of criticism.” The positive emotions included optimism, expressed through tweets like “keep believing,” “No taking sides, no fear, and no revenge. It’s time for a new plan together,” “From now until December 20, even more people will start to share the dream” and happiness, expressed through tweets like, “Winning to make changes and improve the country with reforms not cuts. That’s how to make people happy.”
Finally, on @AHORAPODEMOS, there was a large amount of pride when a notable military, intellectual, or legal figure became a member of the party. Some tweets confirmed this statement: “Proud to have a prestigious military figure with us,” “I’m proud of the professionalism of our country’s soldiers,” and “I’m proud to have the support of @javierperezroyo, @santiagoalbarico” (these accounts belonged to two people who, by joining the party, made other party members proud). Likewise, pride was expressed through tweets like, “proud to be working with Professor Javier Pérez Royo, expert constitutionalist, for the elections that will define the decade” and “we’re proud of our sportsmen and sportswomen #MotoGPValencia.”

Pride and honor were also expressed with respect to those who had contributed to bettering the country: “For me, it’s an honor to be a descendent of people who took such huge risks to build a better country.” Finally, pride was motivated by the desire to change the future for the better, as illustrated by the hashtag #repartiendoFuturo (or “#sharingoutFuture” in English). The following tweets demonstrate this motivation: “A thriving country we can feel proud of,” “Our ballots are packed with future and excitement,” “the change is already underway. We deserve a country we can be proud of,” and “an honor to have people who work day in, day out to eradicate sexist violence.”

Analyzing the content of the hashtag #repartiendoFuturo reveals that excitement outweighed some difficulties such as lack of funding. Excitement is built on dreams such as eradicating sexist violence, ensuring transparency, building a sense of union, improving cleanliness, guaranteeing the independence of financial powers, and displaying compassion for the least fortunate. In short, excitement as an emotion is motivated by the hope of change. Some tweets that echoed this emotion were, “Oh my god, I just love seeing so many young people acting with such dedication to the cause. I’m truly excited #L6Niglesias24,” “You’ll see people in airports with a lot of excitement in their luggage, coming back to #VolverParaVotar (or #ComingBackToVote in English),” and “you can feel the excitement in the street.” There were few negative emotions. One tweet expressed betrayal: “the traditional parties have betrayed all their followers. We’ve got the chance to broaden the horizon and

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2 L6N refers to a popular current affairs TV show, and Iglesias is the surname of Pablo Iglesias, leader of Podemos in the 2015 general elections.
embrace the future” #ErrejonHTZ. Sadness was expressed: “It’s really sad to see people using the Council of Ministers to get back at their opponents.”

Political parties converted citizens’ negative emotions in response to decisions by those in power into positive emotions. For instance, they condemned sexist violence #CuestionDeEstado (or #MatterOfTheState) and scorned those who failed to express their emotions in response to situations of social inequality #LaPobrezaEs (or #PovertyIs). In short, two emotions were present on all accounts: indignation and hope. Other emotions were more prevalent on some accounts and less prevalent on others.

Emotions are not expressed in isolation, but rather in conjunction with other emotions. Table 1 shows that for @PSOE, the same number of hashtags appears for indignation as for pride. Table 1 also shows the interaction between hope for the future and fear on three of the four accounts.

In terms of emotion management, all accounts used the same resources: videos and images to strengthen the emotions expressed in the tweets. The images show situations that cause these emotions, whereas with videos, the emotions are physically expressed—words accompanied by facial expressions and hand gestures that express the emotion more strongly. The tweets did not include emoticons, except in the case of @CIUDADANOS. Hence, according to Connor (2007), the Twitter users were not trying to personalize the impersonal. Nevertheless, videos can be used to strengthen the emotions expressed in the tweet or to broadcast content with a message that is difficult to express in 140 characters.

5. CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND LIMITATIONS

The results of the study show that the emotions expressed via Twitter by Spanish citizens giving their opinions on pertinent political decisions were predominantly negative when directed at the incumbent political party. In contrast, the emotions expressed on the accounts of the opposition were both positive and negative. On the accounts of the two newly created political parties, which offer a refreshing change from the traditional bipartite system, Twitter users expressed mainly positive emotions.

Among the negative emotions, indignation in the form of anger and irony was the most widely expressed by citizens, who thus demonstrated their disaffection with the ruling party. Shame was also
a commonly expressed emotion by Twitter users who felt angry or disappointed and therefore demanded that the politicians feel ashamed. These emotions are associated with the situations, people, and political decisions – as the names of the hashtags in Table 1 show – that citizens feel have affected them negatively.

As a positive emotion, hope in the form of joy and optimism toward the governing party was expressed by citizens because the ruling party based their campaign on the party’s political achievements. Hope, however, was the predominant emotion on the accounts of the new parties. This emotion was therefore expressed differently on different accounts. In short, in the case of @CIUDADANOS and @AHORAPODEMOS, the aims that motivated citizens to participate via Twitter were the desire to belong to a group and the prospect of building a different future.

The second aim of this study was to assess the parties’ management of emotions via Twitter. The opposition managed its emotions by making the citizens participate in future political proposals. For instance, in the run up to the recent general elections, @PSOE requested user participation for new proposals and ideas for the election manifesto, as illustrated by the hashtag #IdeasPsoe. The governing party did not manage emotions but rather employed Twitter to transmit rational thought based on figures and videos with speeches. The parties that had never been in power in Spain used Twitter for its immediacy and its scope. In short, these newly formed parties took the citizens’ negative emotions in response to the governing party’s decisions and transformed these negative emotions into positive emotions. In doing so, these parties aimed to gain approval and favor from citizens in order to win votes.

The main practical implication of this study is that the ruling party should learn to manage the negative emotions expressed by Twitter users toward the party. Properly managing these negative emotions would allow the party to empathize (i.e., feel how another person feels) with these Twitter users. Thus, the incumbent party could convert these users’ negative attitudes into positive attitudes about the party. The implications for the online reputation of the political parties under study are also noteworthy. First, the current ruling party in Spain should improve its reputation in controversial areas (e.g., corruption) that Spanish citizens tweet about on Twitter, while reinforcing its reputation in the party’s key areas such as the economy. Second, the opposition should refrain from mentioning issues
that are controversial for the ruling party if these issues are also controversial for the opposition. Instead, the opposition should focus on the party’s key areas such as those related to social issues. Finally, the other parties that have not yet governed in Spain are in a strong position to create a positive online reputation.

The limitations of this study are twofold. First, it is difficult to analyze the vast amount of information generated over such a short period due to the speed with which Twitter users are able to express emotions in response to a decision, event, or news story. Second, there was a lack of control over the external variables affecting citizens who expressed their emotions via Twitter. This made it difficult to be sure of the cause of the emotions expressed in relation to a political decision.

Finally, future research should focus on analyzing the brand equity of the four major Spanish political parties. This brand equity is built on positive and negative emotions that are transmitted via written messages by the Spanish twitter users who most frequently mention the name of the party and the hashtags associated with the party.
REFERENCES


Table 1. Emotions expressed on each Twitter account (translation from Spanish to English in parentheses)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Account</th>
<th>Indignation</th>
<th>Shame</th>
<th>Anger</th>
<th>Fear</th>
<th>Irony</th>
<th>Pride</th>
<th>Hope</th>
<th>Confidence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>#pp</td>
<td>#corrupción (#corruption), #mafia #mafia, #VíctimasCorrupción (#VictimsCorruption) #asco (#disgrace) #PPSOE NuncaMas (#PPSOENeverAgain), #DesPP alleviate (#PPSquandering), #Rato #vergüenza (#shame)</td>
<td>#MandaCarallo, #QueSeVallan (#GetLost)</td>
<td>#ironia (#irony)</td>
<td>#LlegaElCambio (#ChangeHasCome), #NosVemosEl20D (#SeeYouDecember20), #LaHoraAzuIPP506 (#BlueMomentPP506), #AunQuedaMuchoPorHacer (#StillLotsToDo),</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#PSOE</td>
<td>#opemajustica (#Fairer), #indignacion (#indignation), #meiendElGuante (#Stealing), #Transparencia (#Transparency), #LNPagosNegro (#IllegallPayments), #YoVotarePSOE (#WillVotePSOE), #Caradura(#Cheek), #hipocrita (#hypocrite), #FracasoEscolar (#SchoolDropout), #PedroPresidente (#PedroPresident) #vergüenzaNacional (#NationalEmbarrassment), #CaminoARapto (#RoadtoFreedom)</td>
<td>#LibertadReligiosa (#ReligiousFreedom) #TengoMiedo (#IamFrightened) #IroniaOn (#IronyOn)</td>
<td>#España (#Spain), #Transsexualidad (#Transsexuality), #Campana (#Campaign), #Decepción (#Disappointment), #PabloGraciasPor (#ThanksPablo), #Podemos, #YoVotarePodemos (#WillVotePodemos), #Educación (#Education), #Europa (#Europe)</td>
<td>#LlegaElCambio (#ChangeHasCome), #Governemos (#LetsGovern), #Gobernandoconhechos (#Governingbydoing)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#CIUDADANOS</td>
<td>#corrupción (#corruption), #TraficoDeInfluencias (#InfluencePeddling), #Confianza0 (#ZeroConfidence), #NoLesVotes (#DoNotVoteForThem)</td>
<td>#MejorHundidos (#BetterOffRuined) #QueHorrific #LosVotas (#GoAndVoteLater)</td>
<td>#LaMarea327</td>
<td>#suerteatodos (#goodluckeveryone), #primariascs (#primariescs), #LaFusionVenceAlMiedo (#HopeOvercomesFear), #PajarosNaranja (#OrangeBird), #ConMasGanasQueMiedo (#MoreDesireThanFear), #MiApoyoCs (#ISupportCs), #YoSoyNaranjito (#IAmOrange), #AlbertPresidente (#AlbertPresident),</td>
<td>#SomosElNuevoCentro</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 Pedro Sánchez was the leader of the PSOE at the time.
4 Pablo Iglesias was the leader of Podemos at the time.
5 La Marea refers to the name of Podemos in Galicia, northeast Spain.
6 Orange was the color of the Ciudadanos campaign.
7 Albert Rivera was the leader of Ciudadanos at the time.
| @AHORAPODEMOS | #ComisionCorrupción (#CorruptionCommission) | #ConLoMejor (#WithTheBest) | #GanarElFuturo (#EarnTheFuture), #ElOriginalNoLaCopia (#TheOriginalNotACopy), #remontada (#comback), #RepartiendoFuturo (#SharingOutFuture), #PodemosConseguirlo (#WeCanDoIt), #EsElMomento (#NowIsTheTime), #NuevaTransición (#NewTransition), #UnPaísParaSugente (#ACountryForItsPeople), #rutaDelCambio (#pathToChange) |