

Impact of hate speech in digital media on pre-election public opinion

Alfian Nurochman, Ridho Al-Hamdi, Suswanta

*Department of Government Affairs and Administration, Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta
Brawijawa Road, Bantul, Special Region of Yogyakarta, Indonesia*

Email: a.nurochman.psc23@mail.umy.ac.id and Phone Number: +62 274 387656

How to Cite This Article: Nurochman, A. et al. (2024). Impact of hate speech in digital media on pre-election public opinion. *Jurnal Studi Komunikasi*, 8(3). doi: 10.25139/jsk.v8i3.8247

Received: 09-05-2024, Revision: 23-06-2024, Acceptance: 09-09-2024, Published: 28-11-2024

Abstract This research investigates the influence of social media on public opinion in Indonesia, with a focus on the 2024 general election. As of January 2023, Indonesia has 167 million active social media users or 60.4% of the total population. This study highlights how platforms such as Twitter can spread hate speech, causing social tension, psychological distress, and even physical violence, especially against minority groups. This rapid spread of misinformation and hate speech threatens the democratic process, impacting voter behaviour and trust in institutions. Using a qualitative case study approach, this research explores user experiences, identifying forms of hate speech such as defamation and incitement. The findings emphasise the need for stricter law enforcement, public education on tolerance, and ethical political campaigns. While social media enhances political engagement, it requires robust measures to prevent abuse and ensure election integrity and social cohesion.

Keywords: democracy; hate speech; social media

INTRODUCTION

Social media plays a vital role in shaping public opinion in the digital age, especially in terms of information dissemination, communication, and expressing personal views. According to the We Are Social Report, Indonesia had 167 million active social media users by January 2023, accounting for 60.4% of the population. Indonesians spend an average of three hours and eighteen minutes per day on social media, ranking eighth in the world in terms of duration of use. In addition, in DataIndonesia.id (2023, July 23), there were 212.9 million internet users in Indonesia, an increase of 3.85% from the previous year. Notably, 98.3% of these internet users access the web via mobile devices, with the average Indonesian spending seven hours and forty-two minutes online each day.

Indonesia has great potential for the emergence of issues regarding hate speech, which is a frequent phenomenon, especially in the run-up to general elections (Pamungkas et al., 2022). However, the phenomenon of hate speech on social media has become a very troubling issue among the public, especially in political years (Sirulhaq et al., 2023). Hate speech refers to aggressive communication that has the potential to denigrate and harm groups or individuals based on specific characteristics, such as ethnicity, religion, gender, or sexual orientation (Dwi Floranti, 2022). In the electoral process, social media platforms play a role in determining election outcomes, with various political, commercial, and state actors vying to utilise social media (Sitti, 2022). Ahead of the 2024 general election in Indonesia, social media plays a role in shaping public opinion. Hate speech is one of the most frequently heard issues on various social media platforms (Wulandari, 2023).

^{*)} Corresponding Author

In addition, the spread of hate speech or harassment speech also has unpleasant consequences. Conflicts and divisions in society can be triggered by widespread hate speech. In a broader context, this can have an impact on the public perception of an issue or a group of people. For example, according to an article on VOA Indonesia (2021, Juni 23) website, research by the Center for Strategic and International Studies (CSIS) found that hate speech against Shia, Ahmadiyah, and Chinese groups on social media not only increased social tensions, but also triggered physical violence against members of these groups. In addition, a study from Binus Communication (2022, June 23) highlighted how hate speech on social media affects users' mental health. Many people, including public figures and general users, experience psychological distress and even trauma due to the hateful comments they receive. This phenomenon is exacerbated by the existence of anonymous accounts that are often used to spread hate speech without direct consequences. In this situation, it is clear that social media is influencing public opinion, but the influence is not always positive.

The dynamics of social media platforms have significantly impacted the democratic process and political communication. Issues such as disinformation, fake news, and hate speech on YouTube, Twitter, and Facebook have polluted public discourse and affected election outcomes (van Dijck, 2020). The rapid spread of information on social media complicates efforts to control and curb hate speech. Irresponsible users exploit these platforms to harass others by creating and disseminating harmful content or by manipulating the technical infrastructure of these sites for their purposes (Matamoros-Fernández, 2017). The rise of false information or hoaxes on social media is a big challenge for the government in managing the flow of information ahead of the 2024 elections.

Technology is seen as part of the solution, as it digitises various practices. However, online hate speech on social media has become a social problem, similar to in-person hate crimes, that undermines social cohesion (Williams et al., 2020). Social media plays a vital role in shaping public opinion, especially regarding hate speech. Social media allows individuals to share information and voice opinions, thereby influencing public perception. While social media has a positive impact on social, political, and economic interactions, it can also be misused to spread hate speech, which can unsettle communities and quickly influence public opinion.

The presidential and vice-presidential elections, as well as the legislative elections, have become an essential concern for all Indonesians. Candidates are competing to deliver their programs if elected. The rapid dissemination of information is done through social media with the hope that all Indonesians can capture the promised programs. Campaigns carried out through social media target more millennials. Based on the list of permanent voters (DPT) determined by the KPU, the number of voters in the 2024 elections is dominated by millennials and Gen Z. In the context of national elections, the role of the younger generation is essential. In the context of national elections, the role of the younger generation is very significant, considering that they make up the majority of the Permanent Voter List (DPT). Of the total 204,807,222 registered voters, around 56 percent are young voters. In more detail, voters from the millennial generation were recorded at 66,822,389 people or around 33.6 percent of the total voters. Meanwhile, voters from Generation Z reached 46,800,161 people, or 22.85 percent.

The millennial generation, which includes individuals born between 1980 and 1994, is the largest group of voters, with 66.82 million people. Generation X, which includes individuals born between 1965 and 1979, also has a sizable number of voters, at around 57.49 million people. Meanwhile, Gen Z, which includes individuals born between 1995 and the early 2000s, has 46.8 million voters.

The Baby Boomer group, which includes individuals born between 1945 and 1964, has 28.13 million voters, while the Pre-Boomer group, which includes individuals born before 1945, has 3.57 million voters. This data shows that more than half of the voters in the 2024 General Election come from the millennial and Gen Z generations, which amount to more than 113 million voters. This group of young voters is expected to play an essential role in determining the outcome of the upcoming election, given their dominance in the permanent voter list (DPT). This makes them more receptive to information, both true and false. Millennials tend to be more expressive in voicing their opinions on social media. Therefore, social media has a vital role in shaping public opinion in the context of information dissemination ahead of the 2024 elections.

This research refers to the phenomenon that in every democratic party, both presidential and vice presidential elections and legislative elections, the issue of hate speech always appears

in various media, especially on social media, by deeply understanding the subject's experience in a natural situation, using narrative and language to describe the phenomenon holistically (Younas et al., 2023). This research uses the case study method to explore how hate speech on social media influence's public opinion ahead of the general election. Through this approach, the researcher was able to identify topics that triggered debates on social media. By analysing these narratives, they can understand how users express their opinions and how debates develop (Paulus et al., 2016). An essential aspect of this analysis is the language style used in online conversations. Language style can reveal the attitudes, emotions, and intentions behind the messages conveyed. For example, the use of emotional or satirical language can provide insight into how users feel about an issue (Canhoto & Padmanabhan, 2015). In addition, researchers can also see how social media users respond to particular opinions. The response can be in the form of support, rejection, or neutral, as well as how the response is conveyed, for example, through comments, likes, or shares (Ahad, 2023).

This research refers to various studies that examine hate speech on social media, especially Twitter, and its political implications. Previous research (Lyrawati, 2019) revealed that hate speech detection achieved an accuracy rate of 61.667%. Another study identified several types of hate speech, including insults, incitement, political provocation, defamation, blasphemy, and the spread of fake news (hoaxes), categorised into political, social, economic, and religious issues (Ningrum et al., 2018). Understanding how hate speech affects public opinion on political issues provides valuable insights for stakeholders to develop strategies and policies. In addition, the findings of this research can help the media industry, civil society organisations, and the government to create more effective measures to combat hate speech.

METHODOLOGY

This study is qualitative research designed to deeply understand the subject's experience in a natural situation, using narrative and language to describe the phenomenon holistically (Younas et al., 2023). This research uses the case study method to explore how hate speech on social media influenced public opinion ahead of the general election (Papakitsou, 2020). This approach allows researchers to observe the specific context and dynamics that occur in a natural environment. In this study, data collection techniques were carried out by observation and documentation supported by secondary data. The secondary data sources come from various scientific literature relevant to the main topics discussed, such as regulations and laws, using a legal sociology approach (Lucas et al., 2022). The data analysis process is carried out through several stages, such as data reduction, data verification, and finally, conclusion drawing (Debasish et al., 2022).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Understanding Hate Speech

The social media platform Twitter defines *hate speech* as 'content that attacks people based on race, ethnicity, national origin, religion, gender, sexual orientation, disability, or real or perceived disease' (Mossie & Wang, 2020). Hate speech has several types, including defamation, incitement, humiliation, blasphemy, and spreading hoaxes (Gunawan, 2022). Various motives and reasons can trigger hate speech; there are two causes of hate speech, namely intentional and unintentional hate speech. Intentional hate speech is an act of communication that is produced consciously and has a specific intention to create hate speech content. However, information content can also turn into hate speech unintentionally or unconsciously (Muannas & Mansyur, 2020)

In general, *hate speech* is defined as any prohibited speech, behaviour, writing, or performance that has the potential to trigger acts of violence and prejudice on the part of the speaker or the person being attacked. Hate speech is usually directed at people who are different from the person spreading it, be it different in terms of race, religion, ethnicity, or other factors. Hence, hate speech falls under the category of discriminatory behaviour. By passing Law Number 40 of 2008 on the Elimination of Racial and Ethnic Discrimination, the government prevents and resolves problems related to discrimination (Anabella, 2021). When members of the targeted group experience retaliation for having the same characteristics as the perpetrator, hate speech can be classified as a criminal offence (Burnap & Williams, 2015).

Online hate speech causes psychological harm, lowers self-esteem, and instils terror in its victims, all of which adversely affect their well-being. When compared to offline hate speech, the length of exposure caused by the availability of internet content is associated with higher harm to victims and increased empowerment of perpetrators (Mossie & Wang, 2020). The adverse effects of social media use can lead to hate speech, especially against women. This can take the form of online harassment, prejudice, intolerance, discrimination, and even real-world persecution (Pamungkas et al., 2020).

Hate speech is ill-defined and subject to many interpretations, especially when it comes to regional or national free speech rights. The relationship between hate speech and notions of equality, free speech, and group rights is complex (Alkiviadou, 2019). Social media mediates much of today's online creativity and socialising. Social media can be used for pro- and antisocial purposes. According to Matamoros-Fernández (2017), one of the social media sites with the most hate speech and harassment is Twitter, including harassment based on race and gender. Deindividuation, a psychological phenomenon in which a person loses individual self-awareness and may act differently or more expressively when in scenarios where their identity is uncertain or ignored, makes social media users in society more likely to communicate their emotional content. This is demonstrated by behaviours such as being anonymous, not being self-conscious in social situations, and showing less inhibitions or discomfort when talking to others in person (Burnap & Williams, 2015).

Research conducted by Widyatnyana et al. (2023), on hate speech on Twitter, with the hashtag #Sebelum2024JokowiLengser, reveals the complex reality of hate speech in this context. The findings of this study include various forms of speech, both in the form of phrases and sentences, which involve types of hate speech such as insults, defamation, unpleasant actions, spreading lies, and inciting. In addition, this research also succeeded in identifying various pragmatic meanings contained in hate speech, ranging from satire, characterisation, rhetorical questions, suggestions, comparisons, commands, and showing off to invitations to complain (See Figure 1).

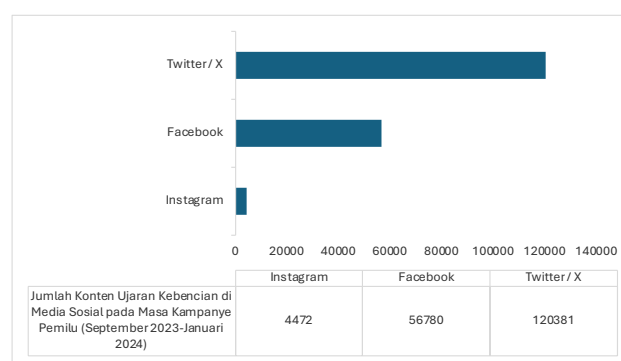


Figure 1. Number of Hate Speech Content on Social Media during the Election Campaign Period (September 2023-January 2024)
 Sources : Aliansi Jurnalis Independen (AJI) Indonesia (2024)

The results of this study highlight the urgency of understanding the phenomenon of hate speech on social media, especially in the midst of significant political momentum, such as the 2024 General Election. In addition, reports from the Election Supervisory Agency (Bawaslu) add a heavy dimension by showing an increase in alleged hate speech content during the 2024 Election campaign period. Of the 126 alleged cyber offences reported, 124 were related to hate speech content, creating new challenges for maintaining democratic integrity in the digital age (Radio Republik Indonesia, 2023). This shows the need for vigilance against the rise of hate speech in social media spaces related to political issues, government programs, and religion.

Several studies have shown how hate speech on social media, including Twitter, can influence public opinion and create tension during election times. For example, research conducted by Fuchs & Schäfer (2021), showed that Twitter was used to spread hate speech and verbal abuse against female politicians in Japan. Another study by Barnidge et al. (2019), revealed that exposure to hate speech on social media can make individuals avoid political discussions, creating an unhealthy climate of opinion. Research by Grinberg et al. (2019) showed

that fake news spread on Twitter during the 2016 US election was mainly consumed by a small group of highly polarised users. Therefore, it is clear that social media, such as Twitter, plays a vital role in the spread of hate speech and defamation during election campaigns, which can influence public opinion and create tension in society.

In addition, defamation and insults are frequent types of hate speech, where the dissemination of inaccurate information or the use of other people's images and names can be used to harm a particular candidate or party. The spread of fake news or hoaxes also enlivens social media as a form of hate speech, spreading false information that can harm a candidate's credibility. Finally, inciting or provoking tactics, whether through slogans, images, or names, are used to incite the public and create distrust of candidates or parties. It should be noted that this hate speech can come from various parties, including political campaigns, stakeholders, or people who support different candidates or parties. Therefore, social media users are encouraged to value accurate information, be critical of suspicious content, and not be provoked by hate speech that can undermine the integrity of the democratic process. Public awareness and vigilance in filtering information are needed to maintain healthy political discussions and support the formation of public opinion based on correct facts.

Ahead of the 2024 General Elections in Indonesia, there are concerns about the spread of hate speech on social media platforms, including Twitter. According to a report by the Election Supervisory Agency (Bawaslu), hate speech accounted for 98% of election-related cyber content violations, with 32 cases found on Twitter Kompas ID (2023, Juny 23).

The rise of hate speech on social media is quite worrying because it can lead to unpleasant attitudes and feelings in society, mainly when identity politics is used in political campaigns. The rise of hate speech and false information on social media sites such as TikTok and Twitter has fueled concerns about how it may affect elections and possibly exacerbate tensions between different racial and religious groups. To ensure free and fair elections in 2024, the problem of hate speech and false information on these platforms must be addressed. Increased content moderation on social media sites, such as Twitter and TikTok, has been called for to stop disinformation from spreading and fueling hostility due to concerns about hate speech and misinformation. A high-level discussion on 'Combating Hate Speech and Disinformation Ahead of Indonesia's 2024 General Elections' was organised by UNESCO. This institution supports efforts to counter hate speech and disinformation ahead of the 2024 elections. The initiative aims to encourage Indonesia to hold peaceful elections (UNESCO, 2023).

Social Media Shapes Public Opinion

Social media platforms allow users to communicate at almost zero cost. With these platforms, any user with a cheap Internet connection can broadcast any message and quickly reach many users. This makes content more accessible to a broader audience; anyone can create and share it. There have been substantial changes in society as a result of this democratisation. The transformational potential of social media systems comes with a number of problems that can be detrimental to some groups of people (Mossie & Wang, 2020).

Social media connects people in a network. However, with the convenience it promises, its implementation in Indonesia needs to be different from the limitations provided by the applicable law (Wibowo, 2018). The existence of Law No. 11/2008 on Electronic Information and Transactions (UU ITE) in Indonesia, some of its articles are effectively used by parties who feel offended by other people's status or posts to report them to the authorities. This research explicitly discusses cases relating to Article 27, paragraph 3. This article provides a legal basis for individuals who feel that their good name or honour has been harmed by information disseminated online. Through the application of this article, individuals who feel insulted or defamed can seek legal protection and take legal action against the perpetrator. This shows the government's seriousness in regulating and supervising the use of information technology to ensure that digital communication remains in a corridor that respects the rights and dignity of every person.

Negligent social media users can use platform features to harass their victims by spreading inappropriate content or by taking over the technological infrastructure of social media sites (Matamoros-Fernández, 2017). Political concerns have the potential to spread quickly on social media, as seen on some of the fake Islamist pages examined in this study. The most popular of these pages were shared and commented on by thousands of people on

Facebook and quickly gained attention from traditional media (Farkas et al., 2018). Social media platforms influence election outcomes as various political, commercial, and government entities compete to use them (Bruns, 2019).

Hate speech is a type of cybercrime that falls under the category of misuse of information technology. This phenomenon is clear evidence that public opinion is heavily influenced by transparency and advances in information technology (Sinaga, 2019). Hate organisations can use democracy activists on social media as a way to attract and mobilise a larger audience (Kartika & Nurhayati, 2023). People are more likely to use hate speech on social media because of the openness of the material there, as shown by the comment sections available to readers of electronic media. Therefore, writers and readers have a reciprocal relationship where they can quickly and readily comment on each other (Ningrum et al., 2018).

Hate speech could only be found in pamphlets, book manuscripts, handwritten letters, and similar materials before the social media era. However, hate speech is now widely accessible in the technologies we use daily, such as smartphones (Sinaga, 2019). While most social media professionals' research objectives are far from 'orthogonal' to the platform's interests, social media also raises broader concerns about user profiling, spam, harassment, hate speech, trolling, and excessive polarisation (Bruns, 2019). Social media capabilities, rules, algorithms, and business choices contribute significantly to the development of racist dynamics. Digital technologies reconfigure structural oppressions based on race, gender, and sexuality and their intersectional relationships more than "digitising oppression." (Matamoros-Fernández & Farkas, 2021).

Social media sites such as Facebook and Twitter have come under fire for allowing harassers to operate anonymously and tolerating offensive material disguised as humour (Matamoros-Fernández & Farkas, 2021). By transforming practices into a series of digital procedures, technology has been seen as a component of the answer. However, in addition to offline hate crimes, online hate speech broadcast on social media has emerged as a social problem that threatens the foundations of society (Williams et al., 2020). Hate speech is often confused with free speech, although this is not true. Both relate to the right to free speech, but it is clear that the former is tied to natural limitations and the norms of society at large. Banning expression is allowed, but only within the parameters of legality; that is, the ban must be authorised by law, have a certain level of urgency, and be done for specific and clear reasons (Syarif, 2020).

Hate speech spread on social media, including Twitter, can have a negative impact on public opinion. One of the most striking impacts is the increase in social tensions, where hate speech can trigger conflict and damage relations between community groups (Jubany, 2016). It also tends to increase societal polarisation, reinforce divergent views, and undermine dialogue and cooperation. Another impact is increased distrust of political institutions and leaders. Hate speech can poison public perceptions of government, increase scepticism, and erode trust in the fairness and integrity of institutions (Guess et al., 2021). In addition, hate speech can also trigger violent tendencies and discriminatory actions against certain groups, thus creating an unsafe and non-inclusive environment (Solovev & Pröllochs, 2023).

Hate speech can reinforce injustice and discrimination against minority groups or those perceived as different. It can threaten individual rights and undermine community harmony (Harel, 2021). Therefore, people must avoid being easily provoked by hoaxes, news, and hate speech and actively monitor and filter information on social media significantly ahead of the 2024 General Election. In addition to the role of individuals, the government and related institutions also play an essential role in overcoming hate speech. More extraordinary efforts are needed to filter and respond to harmful social media content (Lopez-Sanchez & Müller, 2021). In addition, dialogue and cooperation between community groups also need to be promoted as a concrete step to strengthen national unity (Wypych & Bilewicz, 2024). This joint effort will help create a more positive online environment and support the democratic process constructively.

Hate speech has a strong influence on public opinion and can lead to division, reduced empathy, and negative social impact. Hate speech can encourage acts of violence, fuel prejudice, and intolerance, and have a negative effect on how communities are perceived to be cohesive. While some studies have not identified a direct correlation between the volume of hate speech and how certain groups perceive public opinion, it is clear that hate speech threatens

the social fabric by fueling intolerance and division (Lopez-Sanchez & Müller, 2021). Concerns have also been raised regarding hate speech and how it affects public opinion; the majority of internet users believe that hate speech and disinformation should be tackled (Izquierdo Montero et al., 2022). Therefore, it is imperative to combat hate speech and its detrimental impact on public opinion through effective moderation, counter-speech mechanisms, and increased awareness and sensitivity to hate speech online (Lepoutre, 2021).

Social media has become a significant platform in shaping public opinion. Through its various features and interactions, social media influences people's perceptions and attitudes towards social and political issues. Social media allows users to monitor other people's opinions on public issues. The fear of social isolation makes people pay more attention to other users' comments on social media, which in turn affects their perception of majority opinion and their readiness to participate in discussions on social media (Heiss, 2021). Opinion leaders on social media also play an essential role. News recommendations from opinion leaders on social media increase the level of trust in the media and make people more likely to follow news from these sources in the future. This effect is more potent when real friends who are perceived as opinion leaders share the news (Kazkaz, 2022). Cognitive and affective reactions to political disinformation on social media are also striking. Political disinformation tends to trigger more robust emotional responses, such as anger and incivility, than actual news. Political disinformation also produces lower analytical responses from social media users (Peter & Muth, 2023).

Exposure to ideologically diverse news on social media tends to be limited by algorithms. While users can view news from multiple perspectives, personal choice and algorithms reduce exposure to content that does not match their ideological views (Krylov, 2022). Social media also provides opportunities for citizens to express their political opinions. Studies show that emotions such as enthusiasm and anger can stimulate the expression of political opinions on social media, especially for politically motivated individuals (Heiss, 2021). In conclusion, social media plays a vital role in shaping public opinion through various mechanisms, including influence from opinion leaders, emotional reactions to disinformation, and selective exposure to ideological content. This shows that social media is not only a communication platform but also a powerful tool to shape people's perceptions and attitudes (Levy, 2021).

Consequences of Hate Speech on the Election Process

Hate speech can have a significant impact on the electoral process in Indonesia. When people are exposed to hate speech, social and political divisions can occur. As a result, social conflict becomes more likely, undermining the harmony that already exists in society (Irawan, 2018). Polarisation between different groups deepens, creating sharp dividing lines and hampering constructive dialogue between election stakeholders (Surya Kelana Putra & Sisila Fitriany Damanik, 2021). Not only that, hate speech also often triggers acts of violence and intimidation against specific individuals or groups. This violence and intimidation not only undermines the electoral process but also violates human rights (Romario De Fretes et al., 2023). Fear for personal safety can reduce voter turnout as they feel threatened and unsafe to exercise their right to vote (Subiakto et al., 2020).

Public trust in the electoral process and democratic institutions can also be eroded by rampant hate speech. When people feel that elections are filled with hatred and injustice, a sense of apathy and distrust will arise. They may be reluctant to participate, feeling that their vote will not matter in a system riddled with hate (Romario De Fretes et al., 2023). Political campaigns coloured by hate speech can distract from substantive issues that should be the focus of elections (Surya Kelana Putra & Sisila Fitriany Damanik, 2021). Debates that should be based on ideas and work programs turn into an arena for mutual attacks and insults. This reduces the quality of public debates and inhibits voters from making well-informed decisions (Subiakto et al., 2020).

Legally, in Indonesia, hate speech can be sanctioned under applicable laws, such as the Electronic Information and Transaction Law (UU ITE) and the Criminal Code (Wahyuningsih et al., 2023). These legal proceedings can disrupt political campaigns, and the reputation of the candidates or political parties involved. These legal repercussions are not only detrimental to the individuals concerned but also disrupt the course of the political campaign as a whole

(Romario De Fretes et al., 2023). Hate speech can also manipulate public opinion and influence election results. Candidates or political parties that use hate speech can gain support through unethical means, which ultimately undermines the integrity of election results (Surya Kelana Putra & Sisila Fitriany Damanik, 2021). This manipulation undermines the basic principles of democracy and fairness in elections. Certain groups targeted by hate speech may experience stigmatisation and marginalisation. They feel isolated and alienated from the political process, which ultimately inhibits their participation in elections (Alexandra & Satria, 2023). This stigmatisation exacerbates social inequalities and places additional burdens on already vulnerable groups. To address these negative impacts, measures are needed that involve strict law enforcement against perpetrators of hate speech, as well as public education on the importance of tolerance and diversity. Ethical political campaigning should be prioritised, avoiding the use of hate speech to gain support. The government, law enforcement officials, and civil society need to work together to ensure that the electoral process is peaceful, fair, and inclusive. That way, democracy in Indonesia can be maintained and developed healthily.

CONCLUSION

This research emphasises the importance of social media's influence in shaping public opinion in Indonesia, especially ahead of the 2024 general election. The rapid increase in social media usage has made hate speech a widespread issue, especially during sensitive political periods. The study highlights that platforms such as Twitter can trigger social tension, psychological distress and even physical violence, especially targeting minority groups. The spread of false information and hate speech is a significant threat to the democratic process, impacting voter behaviour and trust in political institutions. Social media's capacity for broad communication also enables the rapid spread of hate speech and misinformation. This dual nature of social media requires careful monitoring and proactive measures to mitigate its harmful effects. The research underscores the need for a comprehensive strategy, including stricter law enforcement, public education on tolerance, and ethical political campaigns, to combat the rise of hate speech and ensure a fair and peaceful electoral process.

This research also demonstrates the importance of understanding the experiences of social media users through a phenomenological lens. By examining language and interactions on social media, this research highlights how public opinion is formed and the potential for social media to have both positive and negative impacts on democratic processes. In conclusion, while social media can significantly increase political engagement, it also requires strong mechanisms to prevent its misuse in spreading hate speech and misinformation and to protect electoral integrity and social cohesion.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research can be carried out because of the academic community's supporting facilities and infrastructure. So that researchers can access various literature sources through the website to find journal articles and other data sources relevant to this research.

REFERENCES

- Ahad, M. (2023). A review article: use of sentiment analysis in social media. *International Journal of Engineering Applied Sciences and Technology*, 7(9), 171-176. <https://doi.org/10.33564/IJEAST.2023.v07i09.026>
- Alexandra, L. A., & Satria, A. (2023). Identifying Hate Speech Trends and Prevention in Indonesia: a Cross-Case Comparison. *Global Responsibility to Protect*, 15(2-3), 135-176. <https://doi.org/10.1163/1875984X-20230005>
- Aliansi Jurnalis Independen (AJI) Indonesia. (2024). *Kampanye Pemilu 2024, Ujaran Kebencian terhadap Kelompok Minoritas Meningkat*. AJI Indonesia. <https://aji.or.id/informasi/kampanye-pemilu-2024-ujaran-kebencian-terhadap-kelompok-minoritas-meningkat>
- Alkiviadou, N. (2019). Hate speech on social media networks: Towards a regulatory framework? *Information and Communications Technology Law*, 28(1), 19-35. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13600834.2018.1494417>
- Anabella, P. (2021). Penanganan Ujaran Kebencian Oleh Kepolisian Negara Republik Indonesia Berdasarkan Surat Edaran No Se/06/X/2015 Tentang Penanganan Ujaran Kebencian. *JISIP (Jurnal Ilmu Sosial Dan Pendidikan)*, 5(1), 579-586. <https://doi.org/10.58258/jisip.v5i1.1785>
- Antaraneews.co.id. (2023). *Sebanyak 96 isu hoaks Pemilu berkeliaran di medsos jelang kampanye*. ANTARA. <https://m.antaranews.com/amp/berita/3844767/sebanyak-96-isu-hoaks-pemilu-berkeliaran-di-medsos-jelang-kampanye>
- Barnidge, M., Kim, B., Sherrill, L. A., Luknar, Ž., & Zhang, J. (2019). Perceived exposure to and avoidance of hate speech in various communication settings. *Telematics and Informatics*, 44, 101263. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2019.101263>

- Binus Communication. (2022). *Ujaran Kebencian di Media Sosial dan Pengaruhnya pada Kesehatan Mental*. Binus Communication. <https://communication.binus.ac.id/resilience/post/ujaran-kebencian-di-media-sosial-dan-pengaruhnya-pada-kesehatan-mental>
- Bruns, A. (2019). After the 'APocalypse': social media platforms and their fight against critical scholarly research. *Information Communication and Society*, 22(11), 1544-1566. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369118X.2019.1637447>
- Burnap, P., & Williams, M. L. (2015). Cyber hate speech on twitter: An application of machine classification and statistical modeling for policy and decision making. *Policy and Internet*, 7(2), 223-242. <https://doi.org/10.1002/poi3.85>
- Canhoto, A. I., & Padmanabhan, Y. (2015). 'We (don't) know how you feel' - a comparative study of automated vs. manual analysis of social media conversations. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 31(9-10), 1141-1157. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0267257X.2015.1047466>
- DataIndonesia.id. (2023). *Pengguna Media Sosial di Indonesia Sebanyak 167 Juta pada 2023*. <https://dataindonesia.id/internet/detail/pengguna-media-sosial-di-indonesia-sebanyak-167-juta-pada-2023>
- Debasish, L., Vasudevan, K., Dhasaram, P., & Mathiyalagen, P. (2022). Sensitizing the medical undergraduates to qualitative research: In the context of experiential learning debriefings. *Journal of Education and Health Promotion*, 11(1), 130. https://doi.org/10.4103/jehp.jehp_807_21
- Dwi Floranti, A. (2022). Racism Toward Chinese Ethnic Group in Indonesian Social Media: Hate Speeches Analysis from Forensic Linguistic Perspective. *Jomantara: Indonesian Journal of Art and Culture*, Vol. 2 No. 2 July 2022. <https://doi.org/10.23969/jijac.v2i2.5753>
- Farkas, J., Schou, J., & Neumayer, C. (2018). Cloaked Facebook pages: Exploring fake Islamist propaganda in social media. *New Media and Society*, 20(5), 1850-1867. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461444817707759>
- Fuchs, T., & Schäfer, F. (2021). Normalizing misogyny: hate speech and verbal abuse of female politicians on Japanese Twitter. *Japan Forum*, 33(4), 553-579. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09555803.2019.1687564>
- Grinberg, N., Joseph, K., Friedland, L., Swire-Thompson, B., & Lazer, D. (2019). Fake news on Twitter during the 2016 U.S. presidential election. *Science*, 363(6425), 374-378. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aau2706>
- Guess, A. M., Barberá, P., Munzert, S., & Yang, J. (2021). The consequences of online partisan media. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 118(14). <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2013464118>
- Gunawan, F. (2022). "JARIMU HARIMAUMU": FENOMENA UJARAN KEBENCIAN MASYARAKAT KOTA KENDARI DI MEDIA SOSIAL FACEBOOK ("Jarimu Harimaumu": The Phenomenon of Hate Speech among Kendari Community in Facebook Social Media). *Kandai*, 18(2), 195. <https://doi.org/10.26499/jk.v18i2.4687>
- Harel, A. (2021). Hate Speech. In *The Oxford Handbook of Freedom of Speech* (pp. 455-476). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780198827580.013.25>
- Heiss, R. (2021). The Affective Foundation of Political Opinion Expression on Social Media: A Panel Analysis. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 33(1), 57-75. <https://doi.org/10.1093/ijpor/edaa009>
- Irawan, I. (2018). Hate Speech di Indonesia. *Mawa'izh: jurnal dakwah dan pengembangan sosial kemanusiaan*, 9(1), 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.32923/maw.v9i1.712>
- Izquierdo Montero, A., Laforgue-Bullido, N., & Abril-Hervás, D. (2022). Hate speech: a systematic review of scientific production and educational considerations. *Revista Fuentes*, 2(24), 222-233. <https://doi.org/10.12795/revistafuentes.2022.20240>
- Jubany, O. (2016). Backgrounds, Experiences and Responses to Online Hate Speech: An Ethnographic Multi-sited Analysis. *Proceedings of the 2nd Annual International Conference on Social Science and Contemporary Humanity Development*. <https://doi.org/10.2991/sschd-16.2016.143>
- Kartika, S., & Nurhayati, N. (2023). Ujaran Kebencian (Hate Speech) di Media Sosial dalam Konteks Hukum dan Perubahan Sosial (Studi Kasus pada Masyarakat Kota Medan). *Jurnal Mercatoria*, 16(1), 99-106. <https://doi.org/10.31289/mercatoria.v16i1.7668>
- Kazkaz, L. (2022). Role of New Opinion Leaders on Social Media in Political and Religious Polarization (Jordanian case study). *Lebanese Science Journal*, 21(2), 233-251. <https://doi.org/10.22453/LSJ-021.2.233-251>
- Kompas ID. (2023). *Polarization is no longer felt, Bawaslu continues to monitor election violations on the internet*. Kompas ID. <https://app.kompas.as/t5x67ZAmd1G8CQPb7>
- Krylov, A. (2022). Bifurcation of public opinion created by social media algorithms. *Izvestiya VUZ. Applied Nonlinear Dynamics*, 30(3), 261-267. <https://doi.org/10.18500/0869-6632-2022-30-3-261-267>
- Lepoutre, M. (2021). Countering Public Hate Speech. In *Democratic Speech in Divided Times* (pp. 83-105). Oxford University Press/Oxford. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oso/9780198869757.003.0004>
- Levy, R. (2021). Social Media, News Consumption, and Polarization: Evidence from a Field Experiment. *American Economic Review*, 111(3), 831-870. <https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.20191777>
- Lopez-Sanchez, M., & Müller, A. (2021). On Simulating the Propagation and Countermeasures of Hate Speech in Social Networks. *Applied Sciences*, 11(24), 12003. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app112412003>
- Lucas, A. C., Galleli, B., & Hamza, K. M. (2022). Editorial: Thoughts for improving qualitative research in management studies. *RAUSP Management Journal*, 57(3), 214-218. <https://doi.org/10.1108/RAUSP-06-2022-268>
- Lyrwati, D. P. N. (2019). Deteksi Ujaran Kebencian Pada Twitter Menjelang Pilpres 2019 Dengan Machine Learning. *Journal Ilmiah Matematika*, 7(2), 104-110.
- Matamoros-Fernández, A. (2017). Platformed racism: the mediation and circulation of an Australian race-based controversy on Twitter, Facebook and YouTube. *Information Communication and Society*, 20(6), 930-946. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369118X.2017.1293130>
- Matamoros-Fernández, A., & Farkas, J. (2021). Racism, Hate Speech, and Social Media: A Systematic Review and Critique. *Television and New Media*, 22(2), 205-224. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1527476420982230>
- Mossie, Z., & Wang, J. H. (2020). Vulnerable community identification using hate speech detection on social media. *Information Processing and Management*, 57(3), 102087. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ipm.2019.102087>
- Muannas, & Mansyur, M. (2020). Model Literasi Digital untuk Melawan Ujaran Kebencian di Media Sosial. *IPTEK-KOM: Jurnal Ilmu Pengetahuan Dan Teknologi Komunikasi*, 22(2), 125-142. <http://dx.doi.org/10.33164/iptekkom.22.2.2020.125-142>

- Ningrum, D. J., Suryadi, & Wardhana, D. E. C. (2018). Kajian ujaran kebencian di media sosial. Dian Junita Ningrum, Suryadi, dan Dian Eka Chandra Wardhana Program. *Jurnal Ilmiah Korpus*, 2(3), 241-252.
- Pamungkas, E. W., Basile, V., & Patti, V. (2020). Misogyny Detection in Twitter: a Multilingual and Cross-Domain Study. *Information Processing and Management*, 57(6), 102360. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ipm.2020.102360>
- Pamungkas, E. W., Fatmawati, A., & Salam, F. D. (2022). Hate Speech Detection on Indonesian Social Media: A Preliminary Study on Code-Mixed Language Issue. *Proceedings of the 2022 6th International Conference on Natural Language Processing and Information Retrieval*, 104-109. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3582768.3582771>
- Papakitsou, V. (2020). Qualitative Research: Narrative approach in sciences. *Dialogues in Clinical Neuroscience & Mental Health* |, 63(1), 63-70. <https://doi.org/10.26386/obrela.v3i1.177>
- Paulus, T., Warren, A., & Lester, J. N. (2016). Applying conversation analysis methods to online talk: A literature review. *Discourse, Context & Media*, 12, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dcm.2016.04.001>
- Peter, C., & Muth, L. (2023). Social Media Influencers' Role in Shaping Political Opinions and Actions of Young Audiences. *Media and Communication*, 11(3). <https://doi.org/10.17645/mac.v11i3.6750>
- Radio Republik Indonesia. (2023). Masa Kampanye, Bawaslu Temukan 124 Konten Ujaran Kebencian. Radio Republik Indonesia. <https://www.rri.co.id/pemilu/487470/masa-kampanye-bawaslu-temukan-124-konten-ujaran-kebencian>
- Romario De Fretes, D., Zainuddin, A., Darmawati, D., Muhammadong, M., & Maha Dewi, P. (2023). Challenges in enforcing hate speech laws in Indonesian politics. *International journal of humanities, social sciences and business (INJOSS)*, 2(3), 418-442. <https://doi.org/10.54443/injoss.v2i3.89>
- Sinaga, L. V. (2019). Tinjauan Sosial Dalam Pencegahan Ujaran Kebencian Dalam Media Sosial Pada Pemilihan Presiden Tahun 2019. *Jurnal Rectum*, 1(1), 10-17. <https://jurnal.darmaagung.ac.id/index.php/jurnalrectum/article/view/103>
- Sirulhaq, A., Yuwono, U., & Muta'ali, A. (2023). Lack of Critical Approach in the Hate Speech Research as Ideological Practice in Indonesia. *SHS Web of Conferences*, 173, 04004. <https://doi.org/10.1051/shsconf/202317304004>
- Sitti, S. M. (2022). Komunikasi Konflik Pada Pelaksanaan Dan Pasca Pilpres 2019 Di Media Sosial Twitter. *KOMVERSAL*, 4(2), 164-175. <https://doi.org/10.38204/komversal.v4i2.1207>
- Solovev, K., & Pröllochs, N. (2023). Moralized language predicts hate speech on social media. *PNAS Nexus*, 2(1). <https://doi.org/10.1093/pnasnexus/pgac281>
- Subiako, V. U., Pandjaitan, R. H., Ismail, E., & Zuhri, S. (2020). Strategy Of Over Coming Hate Speech To President Joko Widodo On Social Media At Presidential Election In 2019 The Perspective Of Cases Study. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications (IJSRP)*, 10(4), p10045. <https://doi.org/10.29322/IJSRP.10.04.2020.p10045>
- Surya Kelana Putra, & Sisila Fitriany Damanik. (2021). Hate Speech About Politics in Social Media. *Talenta Conference Series: Local Wisdom, Social, and Arts (LWSA)*, 4(2). <https://doi.org/10.32734/lwsa.v4i2.1208>
- Syarif, E. (2020). Pengaruh Media Sosial Terhadap Sikap Dan Pendapat Pemuda Mengenai Ujaran Kebencian. *Jurnal Common*, 3(2), 120-141. <https://doi.org/10.34010/common.v3i2.2602>
- UNESCO. (2023). "Together for Peaceful 2024 Elections in Indonesia!" UNESCO. <https://www.unesco.org/en/articles/together-peaceful-2024-elections-indonesia>
- van Dijck, J. (2020). Governing digital societies: Private platforms, public values. *Computer Law and Security Review*, 36(xxxx), 10-13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clsr.2019.105377>
- VOA Indonesia. (2021). CSIS Temukan 9 Ribuan Ujaran Kebencian di Medsos. VOA Indonesia. <https://www.voaindonesia.com/a/csis-temukan-9-ribuan-ujaran-kebencian-di-medsos/6007305.html>
- Wahyuningsih, S. E., Pramono, J. A., & Mashdurohatun, A. (2023). Criminal Sanctions against Hate Speech (Hoax) Actors in Indonesian Positive Law and From the Perspective of Islamic Law. *International Journal of Social Science And Human Research*, 06(01). <https://doi.org/10.47191/ijsshr/v6-i1-75>
- Wibowo, T. O. (2018). Konstruksi Ujaran Kebencian Melalui Status Media Sosial. *CHANNEL: Jurnal Komunikasi*, 6(2), 169. <https://doi.org/10.12928/channel.v6i2.11578>
- Widyatnyana, K. N., Rasna, I. W., & Putrayasa, I. B. (2023). Ujaran Kebencian dalam Twitter #Sebelum2024JokowiLengser: Kajian Cyberpragmatics. *GHANCARAN: Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa Dan Sastra Indonesia*, 5(1), 151-170. <https://doi.org/10.19105/ghancaran.v5i1.8660>
- Williams, M. L., Burnap, P., Javed, A., Liu, H., & Ozalp, S. (2020). Hate in the Machine: Anti-Black and Anti-Muslim Social Media Posts as Predictors of Offline Racially and Religiously Aggravated Crime. *British Journal of Criminology*, 60(1), 93-117. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bjc/azz049>
- Wulandari, C. D. (2023). Fenomena Buzzer Di Media Sosial Jelang Pemilu 2024 Dalam Perspektif Komunikasi Politik. *Avant Garde*, 11(1), 134. <https://doi.org/10.36080/ag.v11i1.2380>
- Wypych, M., & Bilewicz, M. (2024). Psychological toll of hate speech: The role of acculturation stress in the effects of exposure to ethnic slurs on mental health among Ukrainian immigrants in Poland. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 30(1), 35-44. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000522>
- Younas, A., Fàbregues, S., Durante, A., Escalante, E. L., Inayat, S., & Ali, P. (2023). Proposing the "MIRACLE" Narrative Framework for Providing Thick Description in Qualitative Research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 22, 160940692211471. <https://doi.org/10.1177/16094069221147162>