

SenticNet 7: A Commonsense-based Neurosymbolic AI Framework for Explainable Sentiment Analysis

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Abstract

In recent years, AI research has demonstrated enormous potential for the benefit of humanity and society. While often better than its human counterparts in classification and pattern recognition tasks, however, AI still struggles with complex tasks that require commonsense reasoning such as natural language understanding. In this context, the key limitations of current AI models are: dependency, reproducibility, trustworthiness, interpretability, and explainability. In this work, we propose a commonsense-based neurosymbolic framework that aims to overcome these issues in the context of sentiment analysis. In particular, we employ unsupervised and reproducible subsymbolic techniques such as auto-regressive language models and kernel methods to build trustworthy symbolic representations that convert natural language to a sort of protolanguage and, hence, extract polarity from text in a completely interpretable and explainable manner.

Keywords: Neurosymbolic AI, sentiment analysis, natural language processing

1. Introduction

In 2012, a large-scale, international public effort was launched with the goal of reconstructing the full record of neural activity across complete neural circuits (Alivisatos et al., 2012). Ten years later, we still do not understand much about how the human brain works: we know well its hardware, but we are still pretty clueless about its operating system. Much earlier, the field of AI was born as an attempt to emulate human intelligence into machines. Today, however, most of AI research has regressed to the mimicking of intelligent behavior. Rather than ‘artificial’, such research should probably go under the name of ‘pareidoliac’ intelligence, as it tends to develop expert systems while claiming that these embed some sort of intelligence. Intelligence, however, is a ‘suitcase’ word that encapsulates several cognitive processes such as learning, attention, memory, decision making, emotions, and many more we may not even know about.

While recent developments have generated AI models that achieve human-like performance in many classification and pattern recognition tasks, AI still struggles with complex tasks that require more than just encoding joint probabilities or co-occurrence frequencies. Moreover, even the finest AI models are vulnerable to adversarial examples (Goodfellow et al., 2015).

The five key problems with AI today are: dependency, reproducibility, trustworthiness, interpretability, and explainability. In this work, we propose a commonsense-based neurosymbolic AI framework that aims to overcome these issues in the context of sentiment analysis. The framework is neurosymbolic because it leverages both subsymbolic and symbolic AI to perform polarity detection from text.

In particular, subsymbolic techniques such as auto-regressive language models and kernel methods are used to build a symbolic representation, i.e., a hierarchical commonsense knowledge graph (Fig. 1), which is later used in concomitance with linguistic patterns to extract polarity from natural language text. As a result, the proposed framework is:

- unsupervised, because it does not require training on labeled data and it is domain-independent;
- reproducible, because each reasoning step can be explicitly recorded and replicated through each iteration;
- interpretable, because the process that generalizes input words and multiword expressions into their corresponding primitives is fully transparent;
- trustworthy, because classification outputs (positive or negative) come with a confidence score;
- explainable, because classification outputs are explicitly linked to emotions and the input concepts that convey these.

For example, a sentence like “Roberta murdered Elmo” would be categorized by most statistical sentiment analysis models as negative simply because the word ‘murdered’ is usually contained in negative sentences. SenticNet 7, instead, recognizes ‘murdered’ as the level-3 primitive MURDER, which is defined as KILL (PERSON). The level-2 primitive KILL, in turn, is defined as DEACTIVATE (LIFE), while DEACTIVATE is a level-1 primitive that is defined as TERMINATE (PROCESS).

Finally, $\text{TERMINATE}(x)$ is a level-0 primitive (or superprimitive), which is defined as the transition from a state of existence to a state of inexistence ($\exists x \rightarrow \nexists x$). Such a transition is characterized by the emotions ‘fear’ and ‘anger’ (towards the agent) and ‘sadness’ (towards the experiencer), which correspond to negative polarity values according to the Hourglass model (Susanto et al., 2020). In other words, the input sentence is ‘translated’ from natural language into a sort of ‘protolanguage’ sentence “Roberta $\text{TERMINATE}(\text{Elmo} . \text{LIFE} . \text{PROCESS})$ ”, which generalizes words and multiword expressions in terms of primitives and, hence, connects these (in a semantic-role-labeling fashion) to their corresponding emotion and polarity labels. Here, we list the processing steps for this sentence:

- Roberta murdered Elmo
- Roberta **MURDER** Elmo
- Roberta **KILL** (PERSON=Elmo)
- Roberta **DEACTIVATE** (Elmo . LIFE)
- Roberta **TERMINATE** (Elmo . LIFE . PROCESS)
- Roberta $\Rightarrow \nexists \text{Elmo} . \text{LIFE} . \text{PROCESS}$
- Roberta $\Rightarrow \text{fear+anger} \wedge \text{Elmo} \Rightarrow \text{sadness}$
- Roberta $\Rightarrow \text{NEGATIVE} \wedge \text{Elmo} \Rightarrow \text{NEGATIVE}$

While these polarity values are hashed into upper-level primitives ($\text{MURDER} := \text{NEGATIVE}$) for fast processing, the reasoning behind such hashing can always be unfolded (as shown in the example above) in order to ensure the full interpretability and explainability of classification results. Additionally, such results are associated with a confidence score between 0 and 100% calculated by means of sentic paths (explained later).

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: the next section briefly discusses related works at the crossroads of neurosymbolic AI and sentiment analysis; later, we describe in detail the framework structure, including explaining how primitives are discovered, named, and refined; the following section presents experimental results on 10 different datasets; finally, we provide concluding remarks.

2. Related Work

Neurosymbolic AI is a new kind of ‘hybrid’ AI that aims to leverage the strengths of both recent sub-symbolic AI techniques, e.g., deep neural networks, and good old-fashioned symbolic AI, e.g., knowledge graphs. In the last couple of years, AI researchers have started investigating how neurosymbolic AI can be used for natural language processing (NLP) and natural language understanding, computer vision and image understanding, speech recognition and machine translation (Wang et al., 2019; Mao et al., 2019; Krishnaswamy and Pustejovsky, 2020; d’Avila Garcez and Lamb, 2020; Sarker et al., 2021). In this work, we employ neurosymbolic AI for sentiment analysis, an NLP task that aims to identify, extract, quantify, and study affective states and subjective information from text.

Recently, sentiment analysis systems have achieved remarkable accuracy thanks to the advancements of deep learning techniques. For example, (Barnes et al., 2021) proposed a unified approach to improve structured sentiment analysis which used dependency graph parsing to jointly predict all elements of an opinion tuple and their relations, instead of dividing the task into sub-tasks. (Li et al., 2021), instead, proposed to consider the complementarity of syntax structures and semantic correlations simultaneously using dual graph convolutional networks. (Yan et al., 2021) proposed to convert all subtasks in aspect-based sentiment analysis into a unified generative formulation, and redefined every subtask target as a sequence mixed by pointer indexes and sentiment class indexes. (Tang et al., 2021) designed a hierarchical multimodal fusion architecture to improve multimodal sentiment analysis, and employed coupled-translation fusion networks to model bi-direction interplay via couple learning, ensuring the robustness with respect to missing modalities.

Despite achieving increasingly higher accuracy, mainstream approaches are still based on black-box models that do not provide any insights about their internal reasoning process. Despite this state of affairs, over the last few years some works have started trying to make sentiment analysis systems more explainable without affecting performance (Gunning and Aha, 2019; Arrieta et al., 2020). For example, (Bodria et al., 2020) explored attention-based techniques to extract meaningful sentiment scores and, hence, to shed light on the internal behavior of deep neural networks. (Yang et al., 2021) proposed to automatically generate counterfactual augmented data for enhancing the robustness of sentiment analysis models. Finally, (Bacco et al., 2021) employed a hierarchical transformer architecture on movie reviews to generate extractive summaries that serve as an explanation for the decisions taken by the system.

3. Framework Structure

In the next four sections, we describe in detail how SenticNet 7 is built. Firstly, primitive sets (groups of concepts with similar meaning) are discovered by means of lexical substitution. Secondly, these semantically-related sets are refined in terms of affective similarity. Next, each primitive set is named after its most representative term and paired with its semantic opposite (e.g., ACCEPT versus REJECT). Finally, primitive sets are further refined by studying the multidimensional path between each antithetic primitive pair.

3.1. Primitive Set Discovery

One of the main reasons why conceptual dependency theory (Schank, 1972) and many other decompositional methods for conceptualization (Minsky, 1975; Jackendoff, 1976; Rumelhart and Ortony, 1977; Wierzbicka, 1996) were abandoned in favor of subsymbolic techniques was the amount of time and effort required to come up with a comprehensive set of rules.

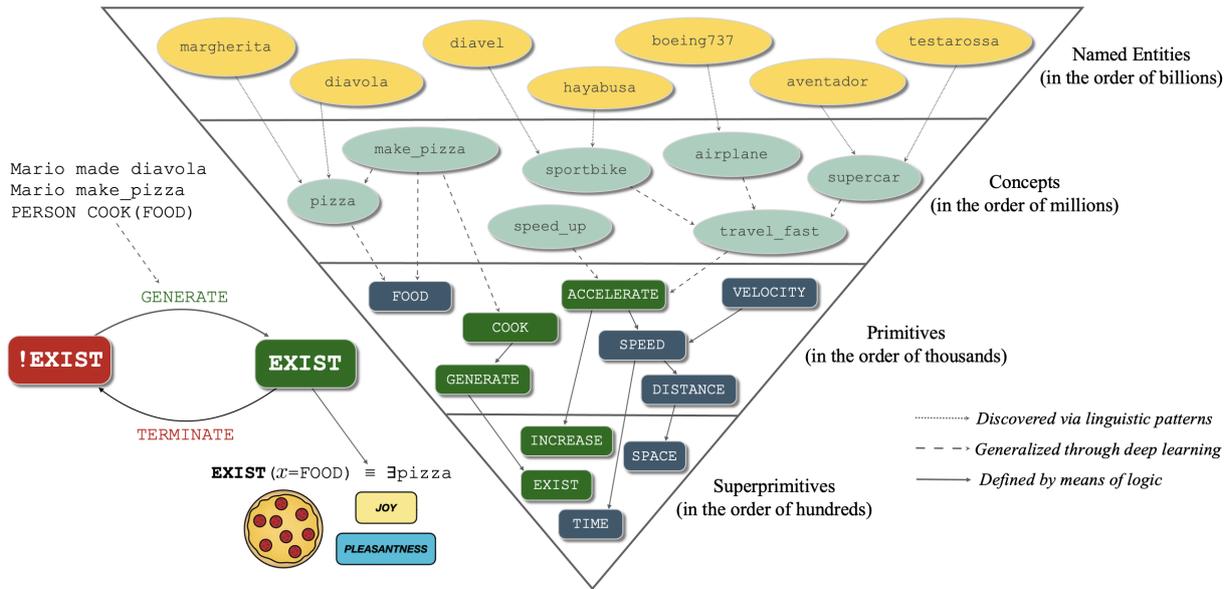


Figure 1: SenticNet 7’s dependency graph structure.

In this work, we take inspiration from the field of semiotics (Peirce, 1902; Eco, 1984; Greimas, 1987) to perform symbol grounding in the context of sentiment analysis. In particular, we leverage the representation learning power of XLNet (Yang et al., 2019) to automatically discover primitive sets for affective reasoning. The aim is to get away from associating polarity to a static list of affect words by letting SenticNet 7 figure out such polarity on the fly based on the building blocks of meaning. Thus, given a target primitive like ACCEPT, for example, the goal is to find its synonym ring, i.e., words like welcome, agree, and embrace that are semantically equivalent. Firstly, we use word2vec’s negative sampling objective function (Mikolov et al., 2013) to learn the appropriate representation of sentential context and target primitive. Here, a positive pair is described as a valid context and primitive pair and the negative pairs are created by sampling random words from a unigram distribution. Our aim is to maximize the following objective function:

$$Obj = \sum_{\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{c}} (\log(\sigma(\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{c})) + \sum_{i=1}^z \log(\sigma(-\mathbf{p}_i \cdot \mathbf{c}))), \quad (1)$$

where \mathbf{p} is the target primitive and \mathbf{c} is the sentential context representation. The overall objective is calculated across all the valid primitive and context pairs. We choose z invalid primitive-context pairs where each $-\mathbf{p}_i$ refers to an invalid primitive with respect to a context. Next, we use the XLNet architecture in order to obtain the sentential context embedding of a primitive. XLNet is a large bidirectional transformer that uses an improved training methodology, larger data and more computational power to achieve better prediction metrics on many NLP tasks. To improve the training, XLNet introduces permutation language modeling, where all tokens are predicted but in random order.

This is in contrast to BERT’s masked language model where only the masked tokens are predicted (Devlin et al., 2019). This is also in contrast to the traditional language models, where all tokens were predicted in sequential order instead of random order. This helps the model to learn bidirectional relationships and therefore better handles dependencies and relations between words. In particular, we utilize XLNet as it follows:

- First, we fine-tune the pre-trained XLNet network on the ukWaC corpus (Baroni et al., 2009).
- Next, we calculate the embedding for the context \mathbf{c} . For this, we first remove the target primitive \mathbf{p} , i.e., either the verb or noun from the sentence. The remainder of the sentence is then fed to the XLNet architecture which returns the context embedding.
- Finally, we adopt a new similarity measure in order to find the replacement of the primitive. For this, we need the embedding of the target primitive which we obtain by simply feeding the word to XLNet pre-trained network. Given a target primitive \mathbf{p} and its sentential context \mathbf{c} , we calculate the cosine distance of all the other words in the embedding hyperspace with both \mathbf{p} and \mathbf{c} . If \mathbf{w} is a candidate word, the distance is then calculated as:

$$dist(\mathbf{w}, (\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{c})) = \cos(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{p}) \cdot \cos(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{c}) \cdot \cos(\text{XLNet}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{w}), \text{XLNet}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{p})), \quad (2)$$

where $\text{XLNet}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{w})$ is the XLNet-produced embedding of the sentence formed by replacing primitive \mathbf{p} with the candidate word \mathbf{w} in the sentence. Similarly, $\text{XLNet}(\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{p})$ is the embedding of the original sentence which contains the primitive \mathbf{p} . We rank candidates as per their cosine distance and generate the list of possible lexical substitutes.

We apply the algorithm described above (code available on our github¹) on ConceptNet 5.5 (Speer et al., 2017), a semantic network of commonsense knowledge developed through crowdsourcing. First, we extract all the verb-noun and adjective-noun concepts together with a sample sentence for each concept. Then, we select one word from the concept to be the target word while the remaining sentence serves as the context. Next, we obtain the context and target word embeddings (\mathbf{c} and \mathbf{p}) from the joint hyperspace of the network to find a substitute for the target word having the same part of speech in the given context. For all possible substitute words \mathbf{w} , finally, we calculate their cosine similarity by Equation (2) and rank them using this metric for possible substitutes. This substitution leads to new verb-noun and adjective-noun pairs which bear the same conceptual meaning in the given context.

3.2. Affective Similarity Prediction

The lexical substitution algorithm described in the previous section allows for discovering synonym rings that group together concepts sharing similar meaning. Lexical substitution, however, tends to ignore affective differences between concepts. For example, verbs like `accept` and `reject` can be found in similar lexical contexts, e.g., “he accepted the job” versus “he rejected the job” or “she accepts the offer” versus “she rejects the offer”, although they bear opposite polarity orientation. To solve this issue, we propose an affective similarity prediction algorithm that calculates the affective relatedness of concepts based on their links with 24 key emotion nodes (Susanto et al., 2020) in the graph representation of ConceptNet.

Such algorithm, inspired by another work of ours (Qiu et al., 2022), consists of two basic steps: 1) define an affective similarity index that assigns a score known as affective similarity score $Score_{x,y}$ for every pair of nodes (c_x, c_y) ; 2) rank the pairs of nodes in decreasing order based on their score and select links at the top of the ranking as the prediction results. The definition of the similarity index is the key to similarity-based link prediction. A well-defined similarity index can capture the link formation process, and then achieve high prediction accuracy, and vice versa. Table 1 lists a set of well-known similarity indexes along with a brief description and the mathematical definition of $Score_{x,y}$.

We define our semantic network as $G = (V, E)$, where $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is the node set and n is the number of nodes, and $E = \{e_{i,j}\}$ is the link set. The adjacency matrix is denoted as $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, where $\mathbf{a}_{i,j} \in [0, 1]$ is the link weight between nodes v_i and v_j . The value of $\mathbf{a}_{i,j}$ represents the connection strength between nodes v_i and v_j . If there is no link between v_i and v_j , then $\mathbf{a}_{i,j} = 0$. We define $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ as the embedding matrix of the network G , where the i -th row of \mathbf{U} , $\mathbf{U}_{i,*}$, is the embedding vector of v_i and d is the embedding dimension (d is a preset constant and $d \ll n$).

Our task is to propose a network embedding method to learn the \mathbf{U} of G while preserving the affective properties of G . Let $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ denote the affective similarity matrix, where $s_{i,j}$ is the affective similarity between v_i and v_j . The similarity index vector $S_v = \{s_1, \dots, s_i, \dots, s_\gamma\}$ is a vector consisting of γ single similarity indexes. For example, s_i could be the CN index. For any node pair $\{v_i, v_j\}$, the similarity index vector is $S_v(v_i, v_j) = \{s_1(v_i, v_j), \dots, s_\gamma(v_i, v_j)\}$. The index weight vector $\phi = \{\varphi_1, \dots, \varphi_i, \dots, \varphi_\gamma\}$ is the weight vector of S_v and φ_i denotes the weight of index s_i in S_v . Given S_v and ϕ , the comprehensive similarity index $S(v_i, v_j)$ between nodes v_i and v_j is defined as:

$$S(v_i, v_j) = \sum_{s_k \in S_v} \varphi_k \frac{s_k(v_i, v_j) - \min(s_k)}{\max(s_k) - \min(s_k)}, \quad (3)$$

where $\min(s_k)$ is the minimum s_k value of all node pairs in the network, and $\max(s_k)$ is the maximum value. To make the comprehensive similarity index S more consistent, we need to determine the optimal weight value of each single similarity index s_i in S_v . A ϕ whose corresponding S achieves the most accurate node similarity evaluation is defined as the optimal index weight, ϕ^* . To search for the optimal ϕ^* , we adopt the AUC (Hu et al., 2017) as the metric of prediction accuracy. Let $AUC(\phi)$ denote the prediction accuracy of the S corresponding to the ϕ .

The problem turns into searching for the ϕ^* such that the corresponding $AUC(\phi^*)$ is maximized: clearly, this is a random search problem. The Quantum-behaved Particle Swarm Optimization (QPSO) method (Tang et al., 2014) proved to be effective in random search problems, hence we use it to search the ϕ^* and construct the affective similarity matrix \mathbf{S} . In QPSO, the two polarization states of a qubit (the basic information storage unit) are $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$. A qubit state is denoted as $P_{i,c}|0\rangle + P_{i,s}|1\rangle$, where $P_{i,c}$ and $P_{i,s}$ is the probability amplitudes of $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$. The three steps of affective similarity prediction are as follows:

(1) Produce the initial quantum particle swarm. The coding method of each quantum particle in the swarm is

$$P_i = \left[\left[\begin{array}{c} \cos(\theta_{i,1}) \\ \sin(\theta_{i,1}) \end{array} \right], \left[\begin{array}{c} \cos(\theta_{i,2}) \\ \sin(\theta_{i,2}) \end{array} \right], \dots, \left[\begin{array}{c} \cos(\theta_{i,\gamma}) \\ \sin(\theta_{i,\gamma}) \end{array} \right] \right], \quad (4)$$

where $\theta_{i,j} = 2\pi \times rnd$, rnd is a random number between 0 and 1, $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$, and $j = 1, 2, \dots, \gamma$. Here, m is the number of particles in the quantum particle swarm. γ is the size of S_v . Each quantum particle corresponds to two probability amplitudes $P_{i,s}$ and $P_{i,c}$:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{i,s} &= [\sin(\theta_{i,1}), \sin(\theta_{i,2}), \dots, \sin(\theta_{i,\gamma})] \\ P_{i,c} &= [\cos(\theta_{i,1}), \cos(\theta_{i,2}), \dots, \cos(\theta_{i,\gamma})] \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

¹<https://github.com/senticnet>

Index	Definition	Description
CN	$ \Gamma(u) \cap \Gamma(v) $	$\Gamma(u)$ denotes the neighbors set of node u . CN calculates the intersection set size of joint neighbors between nodes u and v (Liben-Nowell and Kleinberg, 2007).
AA	$\sum_{z \in \Gamma(u) \cap \Gamma(v)} \frac{1}{\log \Gamma(z)}$	The index measures the similarity between two nodes based on their shared neighbors. Each neighbor's weight is logarithmically penalized by its frequency (Adamic and Adar, 2003).
PA	$ \Gamma(u) \Gamma(v) $	The index based on the observation that the probability of link formation between two nodes increases as the degree of these nodes dose (Barabási and Albert, 1999).
JA	$\frac{ \Gamma(u) \cap \Gamma(v) }{ \Gamma(u) \cup \Gamma(v) }$	The index measures the ratio of shared neighbors in the complete set of neighbors for two nodes (Martínez et al., 2017).
Kate	$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \beta^k (A^k)_{u,v}$	The A is the adjacency matrix and $0 < \beta < 1$. The index sums the influence of all possible paths between two pairs of nodes, incrementally penalizing paths by their length (Katz, 1953).
GLHN	$I_{u,v} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \beta^k (A^k)_{u,v}$	The I is a identity matrix term, which indicates maximal self-similarity (Leicht et al., 2006).

Table 1: Popular similarity indexes

For each quantum particle, $P_{i,s}$ and $P_{i,c}$ can be transformed into index weight arrays $\phi_{i,s}$ and $\phi_{i,c}$. The ϕ can be $\phi_{i,s}$ or $\phi_{i,c}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \phi_{i,s} &= \left[\frac{\sin(\theta_{i,1})}{\sum_{\eta=1}^{\gamma} \sin(\theta_{i,\eta})}, \dots, \frac{\sin(\theta_{i,\gamma})}{\sum_{\eta=1}^{\gamma} \sin(\theta_{i,\eta})} \right], \\ \phi_{i,c} &= \left[\frac{\cos(\theta_{i,1})}{\sum_{\eta=1}^{\gamma} \cos(\theta_{i,\eta})}, \dots, \frac{\cos(\theta_{i,\gamma})}{\sum_{\eta=1}^{\gamma} \cos(\theta_{i,\eta})} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

(2) Weight array update. We update ϕ iteratively. Let $\phi_{i,l}$ denotes the index weight array for which $AUC(\phi_{i,l})$ is maximized during the current search for particle i , and $P_{i,l} = [\cos(\theta_{i,l,1}), \dots, \cos(\theta_{i,l,\gamma})]$ (we assume the optimal sites are cosine sites) be the probability amplitude for $\phi_{i,l}$. Let ϕ^* denote the index weight vector for which $AUC(\phi^*)$ is maximized for the entire search process, and $P_g = [\cos(\theta_{g,1}), \dots, \cos(\theta_{g,\gamma})]$ be the probability amplitude for ϕ^* . The new value of ϕ can be obtained by updating $P_{i,s}$ and $P_{i,c}$. In each iteration, $\bar{P}_{i,s}$ and $\bar{P}_{i,c}$ are obtained by the following equations. Then $P_{i,s} = \bar{P}_{i,s}$, $P_{i,c} = \bar{P}_{i,c}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{P}_{i,s} &= [\sin(\theta_{i,1}(t) + \Delta\theta_{i,1}(t+1)), \\ &\quad \dots, \sin(\theta_{i,\gamma}(t) + \Delta\theta_{i,\gamma}(t+1))], \\ \bar{P}_{i,c} &= [\cos(\theta_{i,1}(t) + \Delta\theta_{i,1}(t+1)), \\ &\quad \dots, \cos(\theta_{i,\gamma}(t) + \Delta\theta_{i,\gamma}(t+1))], \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

where $\Delta\theta_{i,j}(t+1) = \Delta\theta_{i,j} + c_1 r_1 \Delta\theta_l + c_2 r_2 \Delta\theta_g$, c_1 and c_2 are scaling parameters, r_1 and r_2 are uniform random number between 0 and 1, and $\Delta\theta_{i,j}(0) = 0$. The value of $\Delta\theta_l$ and $\Delta\theta_g$ are determined by the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta\theta_l &= \begin{cases} 2\pi + \theta_{i,l,j} + \theta_{i,j}(\theta_{i,l,j} - \theta_{i,j} < -\pi) \\ \theta_{i,l,j} - \theta_{i,j}(-\pi \leq \theta_{i,l,j} - \theta_{i,j} \leq \pi) \\ \theta_{i,l,j} - \theta_{i,j} - 2\pi(\theta_{i,l,j} - \theta_{i,j} > \pi) \end{cases} \\ \Delta\theta_g &= \begin{cases} 2\pi + \theta_{g,j} + \theta_{i,j}(\theta_{g,j} - \theta_{i,j} < -\pi) \\ \theta_{g,j} - \theta_{i,j}(-\pi \leq \theta_{g,j} - \theta_{i,j} \leq \pi) \\ \theta_{g,j} - \theta_{i,j} - 2\pi(\theta_{g,j} - \theta_{i,j} > \pi) \end{cases}. \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

(3) After the iterative search, we can obtain the optimal ϕ^* . Lastly, we calculate the affective similarity between each pair of nodes (v_i, v_j) and construct \mathbf{S} by S . Summarizing, said g_{max} be the number of iterations, the process of affective similarity prediction is detailed in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Affective Similarity Prediction

Input: Semantic network G , similarity index vector S_v .

Output: Affective similarity matrix \mathbf{S} .

- 1: Initialize the index weight vector ϕ with the indexes listed in Table 1;
- 2: Generate m quantum state particles by Equation (4);
- 3: **for** $r = 1$ to g_{max} **do**
- 4: **for** $i = 1$ to m **do**
- 5: Transform $P_{i,s}$ and $P_{i,c}$ of each particle into index weigh vector $\phi_{i,s}$ and $\phi_{i,c}$ by Equation (6);
- 6: **if** $AUC(\phi_{i,c}) > AUC(\phi_{i,l})$ then $P_{i,l} = P_{i,c}$ **end**
- 7: **if** $AUC(\phi_{i,s}) > AUC(\phi_{i,l})$ then $P_{i,l} = P_{i,s}$ **end**
- 8: **if** $AUC(\phi_{i,l}) > AUC(\phi_g)$ then $P_g = P_{i,l}$ **end**
- 9: Update $P_{i,s}$ and $P_{i,c}$ by Equation (7)
- 10: **end for**
- 11: **end for**
- 12: Convert P_g to ϕ^* by Equation (6);
- 13: **for** each node pair $(v_i, v_j) \in G$ **do**
- 14: Calculate affective similarity $s_{i,j}$ by Equation (3);
- 15: **end for**
- 16: **return** \mathbf{S} .

3.3. Primitive Definition and Pairing

A recent big shift in NLP research has been the upgrade from the bag-of-words (BOW) model to the continuous-bag-of-words (CBOW) model, which allowed NLP systems to take into account context in the same way one can tell what is the role of a pixel in an image based on its neighbors (Cambria and White, 2014). This same shift, however, is what had slowly turned NLP systems into black-box systems (Adadi and Berrada, 2018). Since they are better than CBOW at preserving meaning, multiword expressions are a possible solution to reverse this trend. Nevertheless, multiword expressions are hard to discover and can cause the size of a lexicon to increase exponentially (Rajagopal et al., 2013; Xing et al., 2019).

Instead of assigning polarity to millions of multiword expressions, SenticNet 7 allows polarity to be inferred on the fly by combining verb primitives (e.g., SUPPORT and its semantic opposite OBSTRUCT) and noun primitives (e.g., FRIEND and its semantic opposite ENEMY), so that expressions like help_buddy, assist_pal, or stand_up_for_homeboy are all generalized as SUPPORT(FRIEND) and, thus, categorized as positive.

verb primitive	
SUPPORT ENEMY 😞 $(+1) \times (-1) = -1$	SUPPORT FRIEND 😊 $(+1) \times (+1) = +1$
noun primitive	
OBSTRUCT ENEMY 😊 $(-1) \times (-1) = +1$	OBSTRUCT FRIEND 😞 $(-1) \times (+1) = -1$

Figure 2: An example of sentic algebra.

Besides reducing lexicon size and processing time, this approach also ensures higher accuracy as compared to many statistical approaches that simply classify text based on word occurrence frequencies. For example, a BOW model would classify expressions like `stand_in_the_way_of_foe`, `slow_down_rival` or `stall_adversary` as negative because of the statistically negative words that compose them. In our framework, instead, such expressions are all generalized as `OBSTRUCT (ENEMY)` and thus correctly classified as positive (Fig. 2). This way, SenticNet 7 reduces the symbol grounding problem and, hence, gets one step closer to natural language understanding.

After discovering primitive sets by means of XLNet and splitting each set into positive subset and negative subset by means of affective similarity prediction, we assign a label to each subset by selecting the most typical of the terms. In the positive subset `{add, soar, increase, escalate, mount_up, ...}`, for example, the term with the highest occurrence frequency is `increase`. Hence, the subset is named after it, i.e., `INCREASE`, and later defined manually using logic, i.e., `INCREASE(x) := x + 1`. Likewise, the corresponding negative subset is termed `DECREASE` and defined as `DECREASE(x) := x - 1`. Primitives like `INCREASE` and `DECREASE` are Level-0 primitives (or superprimitives) because they are ‘grounded’ using logic. Primitives defined in terms of these, e.g., `GROW := INCREASE(SIZE)`, are Level-1 primitives. Primitives defined in terms of Level-1 primitives, e.g., `LENGTHEN := GROW(LENGTH)`, are Level-2 primitives and so on (Fig. 3).

3.4. Sentic Paths

Lexical substitution and affective similarity prediction enable the discovery of primitive sets that are both semantically and affectively related. However, they do not ensure that the intersection between different sets is null, i.e., they sometimes generate overlapping primitive clusters which may share some words and multiword expressions. In order to force the mutual exclusiveness of primitive sets, we introduce sentic paths, a cognitive-inspired algorithm that takes into account the topology of affective data in a multidimensional vector space of commonsense knowledge.

Sentic paths are an affective version of the principal path method (Ferrarotti et al., 2019), a kernel method conceived to find smooth paths between objects in space through a number of waypoints (N_c). The main feature of the method is that the obtained path aims to move through high probability regions of the space, searching for a geodesic whose underlying topology is ruled by the samples probability. This method aspires to mimic the cognitive intuition for which thinking is the process of moving from one concept to another through regions of the space where there is a high probability of finding other concepts (Ragusa et al., 2019). In particular, in this work we take advantage of a recently refined version of the algorithm (Gardini et al., 2021) and we employ the plain feature space (linear kernel, primal problem). Rather than a distance, sentic paths calculate a discrete path between a primitive concept p_0 and its semantic opposite p_{N_c+1} throughout the vector space manifolds. While the shortest path (through the pure Euclidean distance) between two antithetic primitives risks to include many irrelevant concepts, a path that follows the topological structure of the vector space from a positive primitive (e.g., $p_0 = \text{ACCEPT}$) to its semantic antithesis (e.g., $p_{N_c+1} = \text{REJECT}$) is more likely to contain concepts that are both semantically and affectively relevant.

Because positive and negative concepts are found in diametrically opposite zones of the space (Cambria et al., 2015), sentic paths always traverse the vector space from one end to the other (Fig. 4). This ensures the discovery of concepts that are both semantically and affectively related to both the positive primitive p_0 (e.g., `welcome`, `agree`, and `take_in`) and the negative one p_{N_c+1} (e.g., `refuse`, `turn_down`, and `deny`). To adapt the algorithm to the context of sentiment analysis, we employ a metric based on the Hourglass model (Susanto et al., 2020), a biologically-inspired and psychologically-motivated emotion categorization model based on four independent but concomitant affective dimensions. The core steps of the algorithm can be summarized as it follows:

1. *Sentic path initialization*: given the starting and the ending primitives p_0 and p_{N_c+1} , the Dijkstra algorithm is run over a penalized graph obtained by computing the penalized distance matrix among all the concepts c_i in \mathbf{C} as follows:

$$d_p^2(c_i, c_j) = \begin{cases} d^2(c_i, c_j), & c_i \in \text{nn}_k(c_j) \\ td^2(c_i, c_j), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $\text{nn}_k(c_j)$ is the nearest neighbors set and t is a penalization factor. This approach allows to capture the manifold and avoid shortcuts.

2. *Waypoint concept positioning*: the Dijkstra algorithm is run on the penalized distance matrix and some intermediate concepts are returned. This path is then reparameterized to obtained equally distanced points.

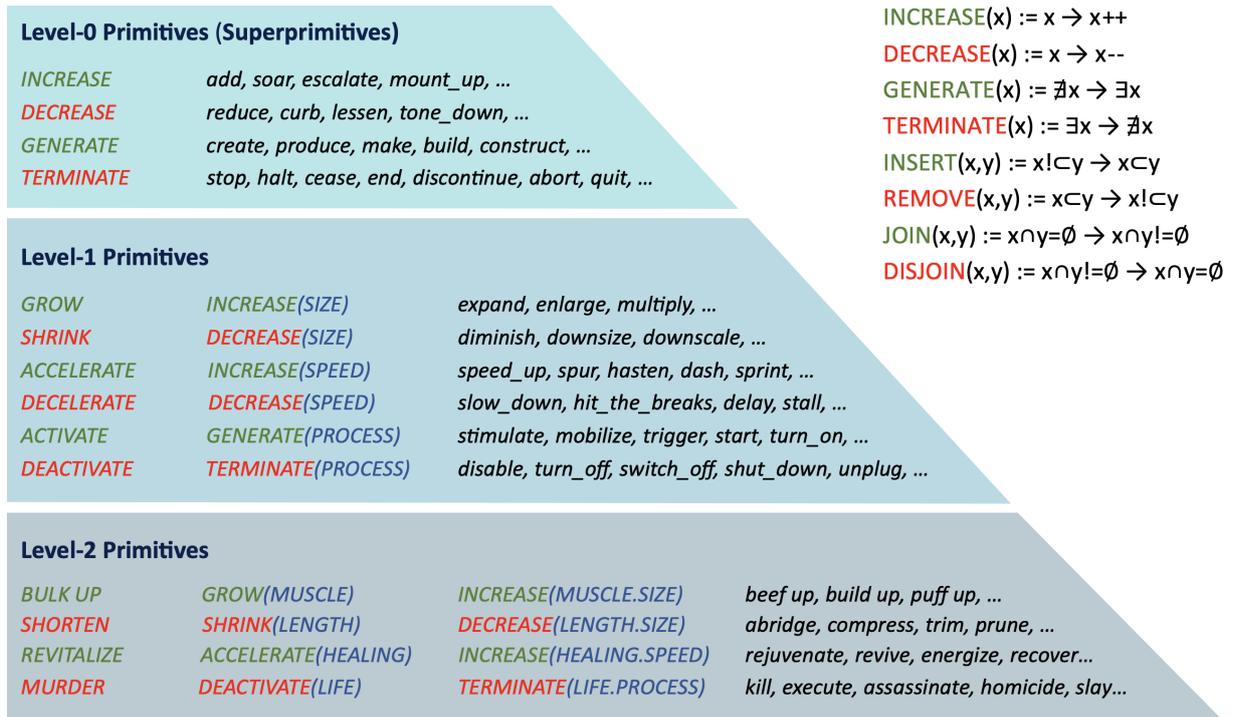


Figure 3: Primitives hierarchy.

Lexicon	Year	CR	MR	Amazon	IMDb	Sanders	SST	STS	SE13	SE15	SE16
General Inquirer*	1966	56.56%	53.76%	59.63%	59.43%	46.81%	54.39%	54.59%	47.82%	51.12%	40.88%
LIWC	1993	52.42%	41.84%	57.33%	63.53%	52.45%	44.88%	67.68%	44.85%	43.96%	39.75%
ANEW	1999	51.55%	51.13%	50.66%	51.94%	50.08%	51.33%	47.35%	50.44%	48.26%	49.93%
WordNet-Affect*	2004	04.61%	05.05%	18.87%	28.99%	17.81%	4.812%	24.23%	15.92%	16.35%	10.54%
Opinion Lexicon	2004	72.98%	62.90%	65.76%	70.91%	67.89%	66.50%	74.09%	72.65%	64.01%	73.42%
Opinion Finder*	2005	62.05%	59.98%	59.48%	58.75%	51.22%	61.86%	60.72%	50.28%	53.57%	44.21%
Micro WNOp*	2007	20.39%	18.73%	44.48%	49.17%	22.95%	17.64%	28.13%	24.89%	26.58%	18.41%
Sentiment140	2009	65.50%	61.52%	66.64%	68.64%	70.92%	64.67%	76.88%	66.78%	60.94%	62.55%
SentiStrength*	2010	45.69%	41.72%	59.09%	60.18%	47.87%	41.57%	58.49%	42.32%	45.60%	35.46%
SentiWordNet	2010	64.60%	59.07%	62.36%	64.13%	61.68%	61.55%	63.23%	50.03%	60.53%	46.80%
AFINN	2011	70.59%	63.78%	66.63%	71.27%	71.90%	66.85%	78.27%	59.04%	67.08%	53.82%
SO-CAL	2011	65.58%	64.58%	75.86%	78.67%	52.78%	67.33%	63.51%	41.15%	37.63%	41.02%
EmoLex	2013	61.10%	56.03%	52.73%	51.94%	56.86%	59.06%	60.17%	66.21%	64.21%	66.40%
NOVAD*	2013	64.88%	56.91%	57.06%	56.81%	51.06%	58.88%	61.55%	61.10%	57.87%	58.16%
NRC HS Lexicon	2014	65.26%	58.53%	59.39%	63.49%	59.31%	61.58%	64.07%	70.45%	60.53%	72.72%
VADER	2014	75.18%	61.37%	67.03%	69.24%	71.81%	65.94%	78.83%	74.88%	69.53%	74.05%
MPQA	2015	68.20%	64.03%	62.43%	64.33%	61.03%	66.66%	71.03%	56.35%	58.28%	54.70%
SentiWords*	2016	62.71%	58.65%	58.11%	57.29%	53.59%	60.57%	60.44%	58.82%	57.46%	54.38%
HSSWE*	2017	71.33%	60.61%	67.08%	65.27%	73.94%	63.15%	78.27%	68.67%	64.83%	66.62%
Lingmotif-lex	2018	76.08%	66.52%	73.34%	74.08%	70.59%	70.58%	79.11%	74.70%	64.62%	74.91%
SenticNet 7	2022	83.60%	77.04%	81.53%	82.91%	80.54%	78.71%	90.08%	83.69%	81.67%	84.39%

Table 2: Comparison with 20 popular lexica on 10 benchmark datasets for sentiment analysis (top 3 results for each dataset are in bold). When available, we tested lexica using their own polarity detection framework. The lexica followed by a star sign (*), instead, were tested using a standard set of linguistic patterns plus microtext normalization. Data and code of the evaluation process are available upon request.

3. *Optimize the cost function*: the path is smoothed through a cost function optimized via the expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm. The waypoint concept configuration \mathbf{P}_{init} from the previous step is used as waypoint concept initialization and as input matrix \mathbf{C} ($\mathbf{P}_{init} = \mathbf{C}$). The cost function, hence, is:

$$\min_{P,u} \sum_{i=1}^{N_c} \sum_{j=1}^{N_c} \|c_i - p_j\|^2 \delta(u_i, j) + s \sum_{i=0}^{N_c} \|p_{i+1} - p_i\|^2 \quad (9)$$

where $\delta(u_i, j)$ is a Kronecker delta to rule the waypoint membership and s is a regularization coefficient. Hence, the method is an out-of-sample smooth extension of Dijkstra shortest path, where the underlying graph is ruled by a penalized Euclidean metric and whose smoothness is ruled by s . Sentic paths are not only used to refine the generalization capability of the framework by reducing the overlap between primitive sets but also to calculate a confidence score for each concept, which is defined as the normalized distance between concept c and primitive p along the path.

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