

EMA at SemEval-2018 Task 1: Emotion Mining for Arabic

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Abstract

While significant progress has been achieved for **Opinion Mining in Arabic (OMA)**, very limited efforts have been put towards the task of Emotion mining in Arabic. In fact, businesses are interested in learning a fine-grained representation of how users are feeling towards their products or services. In this work, we describe the methods used by the team **Emotion Mining in Arabic (EMA)**, as part of the SemEval-2018 Task 1 for Affect Mining for Arabic tweets. EMA participated in all 5 subtasks. For the five tasks, several preprocessing steps were evaluated and eventually the best system included diacritics removal, elongation adjustment, replacement of emojis by the corresponding Arabic word, character normalization and light stemming. Moreover, several features were evaluated along with different classification and regression techniques. For the 5 subtasks, word embeddings feature turned out to perform best along with Ensemble technique. EMA achieved the 1st place in subtask 5, and 3rd place in subtasks 1 and 3.

1 Introduction

Emotion recognition has captured the interest of researchers for many years. Different models have been used to detect people's emotions such as human computer interaction (HCI) (Hibbeln et al., 2017; Patwardhan and Knapp, 2017; Constantine et al., 2016) and their facial expressions (Trad et al., 2012; Wegrzyn et al., 2017). Recently, with Web 2.0, the size of textual data charged with opinions and emotions on the web has tremendously increased. Thus, researchers have been looking at automatically performing sentiment and emotion analysis from textual data. In fact, learning emotions of users is critical for different applications such as shaping marketing strategies (Bougie et al., 2003), providing

customers with better personalized recommendations for advertisements and products (Mohammad and Yang, 2011), improving recommendation of typical recommender systems (Badaro et al., 2013, 2014c,d), tracking emotions of users towards politicians, movies, music, products, etc. (Pang et al., 2008), or accurately predicting stock market prices (Bollen et al., 2011).

Some efforts have already been placed in developing emotion classification models from text (Shaheen et al., 2014; Houjeij et al., 2012; Abdul-Mageed and Ungar, 2017). Since sentiment lexicons helped in improving the accuracy of sentiment classification models (Liu and Zhang, 2012; Taboada et al., 2011), several researchers are working on developing emotion lexicons for different languages such as English, French, Chinese (Mohammad, 2017; Bandhakavi et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2007; Poria et al., 2012; Das et al., 2012; Mohammad et al., 2013; Abdaoui et al., 2017; Staiano and Guerini, 2014; Badaro et al., 2018a). There were also couple of attempts for developing Arabic emotion lexicons (Mohammad and Turney, 2013; Mohammad et al., 2013; El Gohary et al., 2013; Badaro et al., 2018b).

Building on our previous work on opinion mining which involved development of sentiment lexicons (ArSenL (Badaro et al., 2014a)), opinion mining models (Baly et al., 2014; Al Sallab et al., 2015; Al-Sallab et al., 2017; Baly et al., 2017b) and applications (Badaro et al., 2014b, 2015), and building on our analysis and characterization for Twitter Data (Baly et al., 2017a,c), we participate in SemEval 2018 Task 1 (Mohammad et al., 2018): Affect in Arabic Tweets. In fact, analyzing sentiment and emotions from dialectal Arabic such as text data from Twitter is of great importance given the tremendous increase of Arabic speaking users

on Twitter.¹

In this paper, we describe our approaches to SemEval 2018 Task 1 (Mohammad et al., 2018): Affect in Arabic Tweets, along with the achieved results for each of the subtasks where we employed preprocessing steps, features and classification models based on our prior work on sentiment analysis. In section 2, we present a brief overview of related work to emotion classification for English and Arabic. In section 3, we describe the five subtasks that are part of Affect in Tweet task. In section 4, we present our proposed approach and finally, we conclude in section 5.

2 Related Work

There have been extensive efforts for extracting emotions from different modalities including HCI (Constantine et al., 2016; Hibbeln et al., 2017; Patwardhan and Knapp, 2017), facial expressions (Trad et al., 2012; Wegrzyn et al., 2017) and speech (Houjeij et al., 2012). The related work for text emotion classification can be categorized into approaches for Emotion classification in English, that are leading the advances, versus research progress in Emotion in Arabic texts.

Emotion detection task from text is usually defined as a categorical classification task, where given a text, the classifier needs to predict the emotion label corresponding to the input text. Two typical categorical representations for emotions exist: Ekman representation (Ekman, 1992) which includes anger, happiness, surprise, disgust, sadness and fear and Plutchik model (Plutchik, 1980, 1994) which includes Ekman’s six emotions in addition to two labels: trust and anticipation.

2.1 English Emotion Analysis

In general, there are three different approaches for emotion classification: keyword-based detection, learning-based detection, and hybrid detection (Avetisyan et al., 2016).

Keyword-based techniques, also known as lexicon-based, depend on identifying emotional keywords in the input sentence (Strapparava et al., 2004; Mohammad and Turney, 2010, 2013). These models rely on the existence of large scale emotion lexicons and their accuracy is correlated with the accuracy of the emotion lexicon that is being utilized. On the other hand, they do not require

the existence of training data.

Learning-based approaches or feature-based approaches depend on the existence of annotated training data that are processed in order to extract several features such as syntactic, stylistic and semantic features (Ho and Cao, 2012; Bandhakavi et al., 2017). Additionally, in hybrid methods, emotions are detected by using a combination of emotional keywords and learning patterns collected from training datasets.

Due to the notable lack of resources related to emotion (annotated data and lexicons), progress on automatic affect intensity is still lagging. Mohammad and Bravo-Marquez (2017) created not only the first datasets of tweets annotated with emotion intensities, but also developed an emotion regression system with benchmark results. Abdul-Mageed and Ungar (2017) developed a large scale English dataset with fine grained emotion labels and trained deep learning models on top of it achieving an average accuracy of 87.58%.

2.2 Arabic Emotion Analysis

Emotion recognition for Arabic text has been gaining more attention recently. El Gohary et al. (2013) applied a knowledge-based approach to achieve 65% accuracy on the six basic Ekman emotions. Rabie and Sturm (2014) extracted a sample Arabic emotion lexicon and demonstrated how it enhanced the emotion detection results. Sayed et al. (2016) utilized Conditional Random Fields (CRF) and AdaBoost classifiers for classifying emotions of tweets and expression levels in which CRF achieved the best results. Alsharif et al. (2013) used Naive Bayes and SVM to classify Arabic poems into four emotion classes.

While some attempts were performed for Emotion recognition from Arabic text, there is still a lot of area for improvement as for example, developing large scale emotion lexicon for more accurate emotion recognition model, developing highly accurate emotion mining models for MSA as well as dialectal Arabic whether through the use of feature based approaches or deep learning.

3 SemEval 2018 Task 1: Affect in Arabic Tweets

We describe in this section the subtasks of SemEval 2018 task 1.

¹<https://weedoo.tech/twitter-arab-world-statistics-feb-2017/>

3.1 Subtasks' Descriptions

SemEval 2018 Task 1 Affect in Tweets (Mohammad et al., 2018) included five subtasks each with annotated dataset for English, Arabic and Spanish. The tasks were as follows:

1. EI-reg (Emotion Intensity Regression Task):

Given a tweet and an emotion E (anger, fear, joy or sadness), determine the intensity of E that best represents the emotion intensity of the tweeter by predicting a real-valued score between 0 (least E) and 1 (most E).

2. EI-oc (Emotion Intensity Ordinal Classification):

Given a tweet and an emotion E, classify the tweet into one of four ordinal classes of intensity of E, from 0 (low amount) to 3 (high amount), that best represents the mental state of the tweeter.

3. V-reg (a sentiment intensity regression task):

Given a tweet, determine the valence (V) that best represents the mental state of the tweeter by predicting a real-valued score between 0 (most negative) and 1 (most positive).

4. V-oc (a sentiment analysis, ordinal classification, task):

Given a tweet, classify it into one of seven ordinal classes, from -3 (very negative) to +3 (very positive), corresponding to various levels of positive and negative sentiment intensity, that best represents the sentiment of the tweeter.

5. E-c (an emotion classification task):

Given a tweet, classify it as *neutral (no emotion)* or as one, or more, of eleven given emotions that best represent the tweeter.

3.2 Datasets

For each of the 5 tasks, 3 sets of datasets were released, each set corresponding to a language (English, Arabic and Spanish). For each language, 3 datasets were released (training, development and test). For subtasks 1 and 2 Arabic, each emotion of the four emotions had a training set of around 800 tweets on average and a development set of around 200 tweets. Subtasks 3 and 4 Arabic had a dataset consisting of 932 tweets for training and 138 tweets for development. For subtask 5 Arabic, 2278 tweets were used for training and 585 tweets for development.

4 Explored Models for Competition

We present a description of EMA system covering preprocessing steps, features used, machine learn-

ing models employed and results achieved. An overview of the system is show in Figure 1.

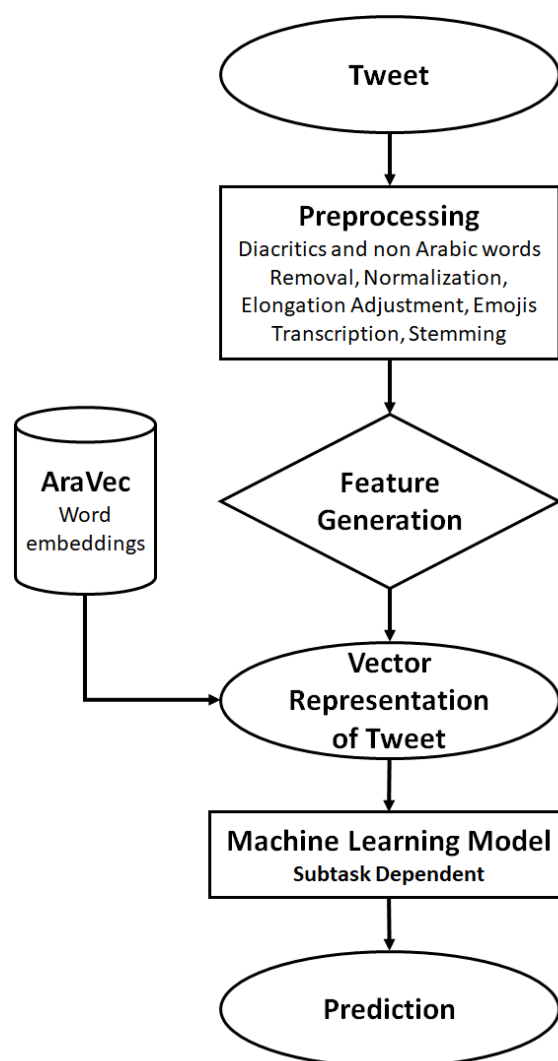


Figure 1: Overview of EMA System.

4.1 Preprocessing

The provided datasets contained raw tweets that included different properties used in Twitter such as hashtags, user mentions, urls, images, Arabizi and emojis. Thus, preprocessing steps were needed to enhance the analysis of the tweet. We experimented with different preprocessing configurations that led to mixed results. For example, using stems instead of lemmas proved to be better. One justification is that tweets are mostly in dialectal Arabic while most Arabic morphological analyzers are trained on MSA data. We present next the steps that led to the best performance.

We first applied the normalization rules followed by Shoukry and Rafea (2012): Diacritics were removed, the “hamza” on characters was

normalized in addition to normalizing some word ending characters such as the “t marbouta” and “ya’ maqsoura”. We then removed elongations as well as non Arabic letters. We manually created a lexicon containing the most frequent emojis in tweets and transcribed each emoji to its corresponding Arabic word. The lexicon consisted of 100 emojis. The tweets were finally stemmed using A Robust Arabic Light Stemmer (ARLSTEM) (Abainia et al., 2017).

4.2 Features

We have tried different features separately including unigrams, bigrams, trigrams, scores from emotion lexicon, ArSEL (Badaro et al., 2018b), sentiment lexicon, ArSenL ((Badaro et al., 2014a) and word embeddings from AraVec (Soliman et al., 2017) and FastText by Facebook (Bojanowski et al., 2016). AraVec was trained on three different datasets (Wikipedia, Text data from Web and Twitter) while FastText was trained on Wikipedia. Using word embeddings from AraVec outperformed significantly all other features including word embeddings trained on Wikipedia provided by Facebook. This is likely due to the fact that AraVec is a large scale dataset (around 205,000 words) trained on the same data domain (twitter), and includes several Arabic dialects. Word embeddings overcome the problem of sparsity present with n-grams and also reduce semantic complexity by providing similar representations to words that can appear in the same context. Each word was represented by a vector of real numbers of dimension 300. The sentence embeddings were computed by taking the average of its word embeddings. If a word did not have a vector representation, we tried using its stem’s representation. If neither the word nor its stem had a vector representation in AraVec, the average of the embeddings of closest words was utilized. By closest words, we mean words that had the smallest minimum edit distance (Levenshtein distance) with the target term. Eventually, each tweet was represented by a vector consisting of 300 real valued numbers. The same feature is used for all subtasks. For feature extraction, we used Python with NLTK, gensim and Numpy libraries.

4.3 Classification and Regression Models

Overall, we tried different learning models including Ridge regression, support vector machines, random forests, ensemble methods and deep neu-

ral networks such as convolutional neural networks with long short term memory layer. Deep neural networks performed poorly compared to other models. One possible explanation was that the training data size was very small and deep neural networks perform best when trained on a large scale data to ensure a well representation of the data (Beleites et al., 2013).

For regression subtasks 1 and 3, we tried different machine learning models including Ridge, Elastic Net, Decision Trees, random forest, xgboost and support vector regressor with (rbf kernel). The best was an Ensemble of Ridge regression (RR), Support Vector Regressor (SVR), and Random Forests (RF). In fact, the 3 models performed reasonably well on their own. For classification subtasks 2 and 4, we also tried different classification models including Ridge, Elastic Net, Decision Trees, Random Forest, Support Vector Classifier (SVC) with linear and non linear kernels and convolutional neural nets. For subtask 2, SVC performed best. As for subtask 4, an ensemble of SVC and Ridge Classifier performed best. Ridge Classifier allows defining a linear mapping without allowing weights to be large thanks to regularization effect for generalization while SVM tries to find the best classification margins. Adding ElasticNet did not help much since L1 and L2 errors were already covered by optimized using the ensemble of Ridge and SVM. Moreover, Zhou et al. (2015) shows that ElasticNet can be reduced to SVM. Random Forest with its large number of estimators had a better generalization than regular decision trees. Combining all these models in an ensemble model ensured a better generalization and accuracy on the test data.

For subtask 5, we tested SVC (with both penalties L1 and L2), RC, RF and Ensemble. SVC with L1 performed best. While Pearson correlation measure was used for evaluating subtasks 1 to 4, Accuracy was used to evaluate subtask 5.

For all subtasks, we utilized the training data for training the different models and the development set was treated as unseen data in order to make sure that comparison across the different models is fair. The best model was selected based on its performance on the development set. Our focus was on feature extraction and preprocessing, so most feature-based models performed well. One main problem faced in all problems was sparsity, since most tweets were in Dialectical Arabic.

4.4 Experimental Results

All experiments were conducted using Python with scikit-learn and Keras libraries. A grid search mechanism was utilized to optimize the hyperparameters of the different learning models used and whose performances are reported in below tables: alpha parameter for Ridge, penalty C, kernel and gamma for Support Vectors, and, number trees, maximum tree depth and number of features per tree for Random Forests. Rows 2 to 5 in tables 1 and 2 show the results (Pearson Score) of the different regression techniques used for subtasks 1 and 3 respectively on the corresponding development sets for each of the four emotions (Joy, Sadness, Fear and Anger). Average performance is also reported in the last column. The last two rows in table 1 show the result on the test set of our Ensemble model on average and per each emotion and the performance of the best team for subtask1 respectively. The last two rows in table 2 show the performance of Ridge Regression on the test set and the performance of the best team respectively. In both subtasks, EMA ranked 3rd among participants. By examining the results of the different participants in subtask 1, we can observe that the proposed systems perform best for the Joy emotion. Tables 3 and 4 show the hyperparameters for each technique employed. For Random Forest, the number of estimators was set to 1000.

In Tables 5 and 6, we show the results of subtasks 2 and 4 respectively. SVC was the best performing model on the development set in subtask 2 and Ensemble methods performed best in subtask 4. The last column in table 5 shows the performance of SVC on the test set on average and per each of the four emotions. The last row in table 6 represents the Pearson score achieved by the Ensemble of RC and SVC on the test set. EMA was ranked 8th and 5th in subtasks 2 and 4 respectively. Tables 7 and 8 show the best hyperparameters of the classification models used.

Regression Model	Joy	Sadness	Fear	Anger	Avg
RR	0.610	0.635	0.481	0.566	0.573
SVR	0.615	0.628	0.484	0.567	0.574
RF	0.578	0.547	0.413	0.458	0.499
Ensemble	0.624	0.630	0.488	0.563	0.576
Ensemble on Test	0.709	0.656	0.593	0.615	0.643
Best (AffecThor)	0.756	0.694	0.642	0.647	0.685

Table 1: Subtask 1 Pearson Correlation Results on Dev and Test Sets. RR = Ridge Regression; SVR = Support Vector Regressor; RF = Random Forest.

Regression Model	Pearson Correlation
RR	0.746
SVR	0.744
RF	0.609
Ensemble	0.737
Ensemble on Test	0.804
Best (EITAKA)	0.8284

Table 2: Subtask 3 Pearson Correlation Results on Dev and Test Sets. RR = Ridge Regression; SVR = Support Vector Regressor; RF = Random Forest.

Regression Model	Joy	Sadness	Fear	Anger
Ridge (alpha)	7.1	5.9	3.7	4.9
SVR (C)	4.4	4.7	10	4.9
RF (depth)	10	10	10	10

Table 3: Subtask 1 Regression Models' Hyperparameters.

Regression Model	Parameter Value
Ridge (alpha)	3.9
SVR (C)	5.6
RF (depth)	10

Table 4: Subtask 3 Regression Models' Hyperparameters.

Model	RC	SVC	Ens	SVC on Test	Best (AffecThor)
Joy	0.502	0.484	0.480	0.215	0.631
Sadness	0.587	0.594	0.589	0.535	0.618
Fear	0.373	0.431	0.390	0.242	0.551
Anger	0.472	0.518	0.497	0.077	0.551
Average	0.484	0.507	0.489	0.267	0.587

Table 5: Subtask 2 Pearson Correlation Results on Dev and Test Sets. RC = Ridge Classification; SVC = Support Vector Classifier; Ens = Ensemble.

Classification Model	Pearson Correlation
RC	0.611
SVC	0.623
Ensemble	0.625
Ensemble on Test	0.643
Best (EITAKA)	0.809

Table 6: Subtask 4 Pearson Correlation Results on Dev and Test Sets. RC = Ridge Classification; SVC = Support Vector Classifier.

Model	RC (alpha)	SVC (C)
Joy	18.2	19.5
Sadness	3.3	29.4
Fear	20.6	17.1
Anger	15.4	19.5

Table 7: Subtask 2 Classification Models' Hyperparameters.

Finally, Table 9 shows the results of subtask 5 on the development and the test sets where for a given tweet, the tweet is classified either as neutral

Classification Model	Parameter Value
RC (alpha)	27.2
SVC (C)	10.7

Table 8: Subtask 4 Classification Models’ Hyperparameters.

or as one or more of 11 emotions (anger, anticipation, disgust, fear, joy, love, optimism, pessimism, sadness, surprise, trust). Linear SVC performed best among all classifiers. EMA ranked 1st in subtask 5. Table 10 shows the best hyperparameters for each classification model used. The number of estimators for Random Forest was set to 1000.

Classification Model	Accuracy
SVC L1	0.488
SVC L2	0.484
RC	0.443
RF	0.370
Ensemble	0.401
SVC L1 on Test	0.489

Table 9: Subtask 5 Accuracy Results on Dev and Test Sets. RC = Ridge Classification; SVC = Support Vector Classifier; RF = Random Forest.

Classification Model	Parameter Value
SVC L1 (C)	1.98
SVC L2 (C)	0.3
RC (alpha)	7.9
RF (depth)	14

Table 10: Subtask 5 Classification Models’ Hyperparameters.

5 Conclusion and Future Work

In this paper, we presented EMA (Emotion Mining in Arabic) at SemEval 2018 Task 1 Affect in Tweets to perform Arabic Emotion and Sentiment mining. Several methods were tested for deciding on features, regression and classification techniques. Word embeddings provided the best feature while the choice of the predictor was task dependent. EMA ranked 1st in subtask 5 and 3rd in subtasks 1 and 3. As future work, we suggest finding the best combination of the different features that were employed in separate models. Other future work includes dealing with sparsity caused by dialectal Arabic.

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