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General Purpose Textual Sentiment Analysis and Emotion Detection Tools

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Abstract. Textual sentiment analysis and emotion detection consists in retrieving the sentiment or emotion carried by a text or document. This task can be useful in many domains: opinion mining, prediction, feedbacks, etc. However, building a *general purpose* tool for doing sentiment analysis and emotion detection raises a number of issues, theoretical issues like the dependence to the domain or to the language but also practical issues like the emotion representation for interoperability. In this paper we present our sentiment/emotion analysis tools, the way we propose to circumvent the difficulties and the applications they are used for.

Keywords: sentiment analysis, emotion detection, applications

1 Sentiment Analysis and Emotion Detection from text

1.1 Definition

One of the most complete definition of the sentiment analysis task is proposed by Liu [13] in which a sentiment is defined as a quintuple $\langle e, a, s, h, t \rangle$ where e is the name of an entity, a an aspect of this entity, s is a sentiment value about a , h is the opinion holder and t is the time when the opinion is expressed by h . The sentiment analysis task consists in outputting for a given text or sentence the set of sentiments that this text conveys. Whereas sentiment analysis is limited in general to binary sentiment value (positive, negative) or ternary (positive, negative, neutral), emotion detection consists in determining the sentiment value among a larger set of emotions, typically Ekman's emotions [7]: joy, fear, sadness, anger, disgust, or surprise.

1.2 Difficulties and existing approaches

A difficult aspect of sentiment analysis is the fact that a given word can have a different polarity in a different context. In [25], authors oppose the *prior polarity* of a word, that is the polarity that a word can have out of context, and the *contextual polarity*, that is the polarity of a word in a particular context. There are many complex phenomena that influence the contextual valence of a word

[17, 25, 13] as the table 1 shows, and most of the approaches thus reduce the scope of the problem to $\langle s \rangle$ the sole sentiment value or sometimes to $\langle e, s, h \rangle$, the entity, the sentiment value and the holder like in [11].

| <i>Phenomenon</i> | <i>Example</i> | <i>Polarity</i> |
|-------------------|---|--|
| Negation | it's not good ; no one thinks it is good | negative |
| Irrealis | it would be good if... ; if it is good then ... | neutral |
| Presupposition | how to fix this terrible printer? can you give me a good advice? | negative neutral |
| Word sense | this camera sucks ; this vaccum cleaner sucks | negative vs positive |
| Point of view | Israel failed to defeat Hezbollah | negative or positive |
| Common sense | this washer uses a lot of water | negative |
| Multiple entities | Ann hates cheese but loves cheesecake | negative wrt cheese positive wrt cheesecake |
| Multiple aspects | this camera is awesome but too expensive | positive wrt camera negative wrt price |
| Multiple holders | Ann hates cheese but Bob loves it | negative wrt Ann positive wrt Bob |
| Multiple time | Ann used to hate cheese and now she loves it | negative wrt past positive wrt present |

Fig. 1. Examples of linguistic phenomena that influence the final valence of a text

Given the complexity of the task, it is not a surprise that the first approaches to the problem use machine learning. In [24] an unsupervised approach is proposed. It uses the Pointwise Mutual Information distance between online reviews and the words “excellent” and “poor”. Its accuracy ranges from 84% for the automobile reviews to 66% for the movie reviews. In [16], a corpus of movie reviews and their annotation in terms of number of stars is used to train several classifiers (Naive Bayes, Support Vector Machine and Maximum Entropy) and obtain a good score for the best (around 83%). More recent work in machine learning approaches to sentiment analysis explore successfully different kinds of learning algorithms such as Conditional Random Fields [15] or autoencoders which are a kind of Neural Networks and which offer good performance on the movie reviews domain [21]. A detailed and exhaustive survey of the field can be found in [13].

2 Cross Domains problems

A general purpose sentiment analysis or emotion detection tool is meant to work in different domains with different applications and thus faces at least three problems: the dependence of the algorithms to the domain they were developed on, the representation of emotions/sentiments for interoperability, and the fact that different applications may require other languages than English, and as such

the multilinguality issue must be considered. We detail these three problems in this section.

2.1 Domain dependence

Machine learning dependence An important issue of supervised machine learning is the dependence to the training domain. Classical supervised algorithms require a new training corpus each time a new domain is tackled. In [2] several methods are tried to overcome the domain-dependence of machine learning and they show that the best results can be obtained by combining small amounts of labeled data from the training domain and large amounts of unlabeled data in the target domain. Actually, unsupervised or semi-supervised machine learning seems more adequate than purely supervised machine learning to reach domain-independence [18]. Another approach [1] is to use hybrid methods, classifiers trained on corpora and polarity lexicons. Indeed, polarity lexicons, such as Sentiwordnet [8] or the Liu Lexicon [9], being in general domain-independent seem to be an interesting track to follow.

Types of emotions dependence Moreover the set of relevant emotions depends on the domain. In a generic emotion analysis tool, there is not much choice apart providing a set of the least domain specific emotions, hence the frequent choice of Ekman's emotions. These may not describe accurately the affective states in all domains, for instance their use is criticized in the learning domain [12, 3], but their independence to the domain and the existence of Ekman's based emotional lexicons such as WordNet-Affect [22] makes them a common practical choice.

2.2 Interoperability

The representation of emotions for interoperability is an important issue for a sentiment/emotion analysis tool that is meant to work in several domains and with several applications. We advocate the use of EmotionML [20] a W3C proposed recommendation for the representation of emotions. An interesting aspect of EmotionML is the acknowledgement that there exists no consensus on how to represent an emotion, for instance is an emotion better represented as a cognitive-affective state like [12], as a combination between pleasure and arousal like [3], or as an Ekman emotion [7]? Thus, EmotionML proposes instead an emotion skeleton whose features are defined by the target application. An emotion is defined by a set of descriptors, either dimensional (a value between 0 and 1) or categorical (a discrete value), and each descriptor refers to an emotional vocabulary document. An emotion and its vocabulary can be embedded in one single document or the emotion can refer to an online vocabulary document.

2.3 Multilinguality

A general purpose sentiment/emotion analysis tool is also required to be working in other languages than English. Most of the work related to multilinguality is

tied to subjectivity analysis, a simpler sentiment-like analysis which consists in determining whether a text conveys an objective or subjective assessment. Several solutions are possible, for instance training classifiers on translated corpora, using translated lexicons, building lexicons or corpora for targeted language [5]. Recent experiments with automatic translation for sentiment analysis show that the performance of machine translation does not degrade the results too much [4]. We refer the interested reader to [5, 13] for a good overview of the topic.

3 Tools and applications

We present here the sentiment/emotion analysis tools and the applications that use them in the context of the Empathic Products ITEA2 project (11005)¹, a european project dedicated to the creation of applications that adapt to the intentional and emotional state of the users.

3.1 Sentiment/emotion analysis tools

We implemented several sentiment analysis and emotion detection engines, and will briefly present them here. All of them are integrated in one Web API that takes text in input and returns a single emotion formatted in EmotionML format, dimensional valence for sentiment analysis engines and categorical emotion for the emotion detection engines². A support also exists for non-English languages following [4] using Google machine translation but this service has not yet been evaluated.

For emotion detection, the approach uses an emotion lexicon, namely WordNet-Affect [22] by detecting emotional keywords in text complemented with a naive treatment of negation which inverts the found emotion, ad hoc filters (smileys, keyphrases) and simple semantic rules. Despite its simplicity this tool manages to reach performance similar to other approaches when evaluated on the SemEval-07 affective task dataset [23], it obtains 54.9% of accuracy given an emotion to valence mapping (joy is positive and the others are negative).

For sentiment analysis, we are currently exploring two opposed approaches, one symbolic and one with machine learning. The symbolic approach follows [17] as an attempt to both tackle the linguistic difficulties we mentioned thanks to valence shifting rules and domain dependence by using general purpose lexicons. It works by first retrieving the prior polarity of words as found in the Liu lexicon [9] after a part-of-speech tagging phase with the Stanford CoreNLP library. Then, a parsing phase enables to construct the dependencies (also with Stanford CoreNLP), the resulting dependencies are filtered such that prior word valence is propagated along the dependencies following manually crafted rules for valence shifting or inversion. This approach enables to be more precise, for instance the sentence “I don’t think it’s a missed opportunity” would be tagged as positive

¹ <http://www.empathic.eu/>

² The Web API is currently accessible on <http://talc2.loria.fr/empathic>

by the application of two valence flipping rules, a modifier rule for “missed opportunity”, and a verb negation rule for “don’t think”. This approach obtains 56.3% accuracy on the Semeval-07 dataset and 65.86% accuracy on the Semeval-13 data set. The impact of rules has also been evaluated and show that the rules enable to gain 5% accuracy on the Semeval-13 dataset as opposed to a simple lexical approach that only takes the average valence of all words contained in a sentence.

The second approach relies on machine learning by training a classifier, namely a Random Forest classifier evaluated on the Semeval-13 dataset. It uses simple features such as the stemmed words and the part-of-speech but manages to obtain 64.30% accuracy on Semeval-07 and 60.72% accuracy on Semeval-13 both evaluated with 10-fold cross validation. We also performed preliminary evaluation of the cross-domain abilities of the statistical approach and observed that when trained on the Semeval-07 dataset and evaluated on Semeval-13 it obtains 47.08% accuracy. While training it on Semeval-13 and evaluating it on Semeval-07, it obtains 55.5% accuracy. The significant difference is likely caused by the dataset dissimilarities: first the Semeval-07 dataset is much smaller than Semeval-13 (1000 utterances vs 7500 utterances) and then, training on Semeval-07 is less efficient, and second the Semeval-07 dataset only consists in short news headline while the Semeval-13 dataset is composed of tweets which are much longer and then a better source for training. We assume that the difference in text length could also explain the difference in the results for the symbolic approach (56% vs 65.86%) since it is known that text length can influence the performance of sentiment analysis engines. A less difficult cross-domain evaluation would then rely on datasets that share the same properties in terms of text length and available data size.

3.2 Applications

Video conference feedback One problem of video conference is the lack of feedback that the presenter can have about its remote audience. The first application of our sentiment/emotion analysis tool consists in providing the presenter an aggregated feedback of the emotional state of its audience. We assume that the audience is both attending to the videoconference remotely and expressing its feelings over a textual channel, using Twitter, Facebook or by chat. Moreover in the context of the Empathic Products project, the audience video feedback is also analyzed with regards to visual emotions. The interoperability solution based on EmotionML proves to be an efficient option for combining the two kinds of feedbacks. The most generic emotional output is the binary valence which offers a basic yet more reliable characterization of the affective state of the audience. Emotions are also possible, but depending on the video domain (e-learning, news, etc.), Ekman’s emotions may not be fully relevant. The sentiment/emotion of all messages sent by audience participants is averaged; when using valence it is possible to animate a gauge, when using emotions, it is possible to animate iconic emotion representations (fig. 2)

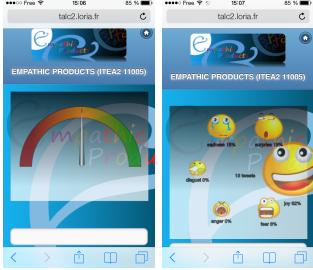


Fig. 2. Display of valence and emotions on mobile device

E-learning virtual world emotion tagging E-learning in a virtual world requires some level of investment by the participants and is eased by their collaboration. It has been shown that emotional information can enhance the collaboration. For instance [10] show that participants interact more if provided with emotional clues about their partner's current state. We propose to integrate our sentiment analysis tool to the Umniverse collaborative virtual world [19]: the virtual world works as a situated forum in which participants can move around and submit posts. When participants submit posts they can annotate by hand the emotion that their post carries (with Ekman's emotions). Our tool can then be used to pre-annotate each post by proposing automatically an emotion. After posts have been annotated and published to the forum, it is possible to filter the existing posts by their annotated emotion and as such find all the posts that carry sadness for example.

Global opinion of TV viewers An early application for sentiment analysis has been the annotation of movie reviews in order to automatically infer the sentiment of viewers towards a movie [16]. We propose to apply the same idea to the TV shows. It is known that regular TV shows have Twitter fan-base who discusses the show. The idea is thus to conduct sentiment/emotion analysis on Twitter streams that are related to a particular TV show. The ongoing work related to that application is thus inline with recent work in sentiment analysis and emotion detection in Twitter, see for instance [14].

4 Conclusion

When developing a sentiment/emotion analysis service that is meant to be generic enough to work with several different applications, it is important to consider whether the algorithms are tied to a particular domain, whether the representation of output emotions is homogenous for all applications and whether the algorithms may be adapted to other languages than English. We detailed these three problems while mentioning the existing solutions to them. We introduced our own sentiment/emotion analysis service developed in the context of the Empathic Products ITEA project which partially addresses these problems.

While interoperability seems satisfactory enough and multilinguality support has already been shown to be robust when using machine translation, the domain dependence aspects could be improved. In particular we evaluated the algorithms on two quite different domains, the news headlines provided by the Semeval-07 affective task evaluation and the tweets provided by the Semeval-13 sentiment analysis in Twitter evaluation. The results show significant difference, probably caused by the difference of text length between the two types of dataset. Nevertheless, for future work we are considering approaches that are more hybrid such as [1] in order to tackle domain dependence.

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