## University of Bucharest Team at Semeval-2022 Task4: Detection and Classification of Patronizing and Condescending Language

# Raluca Andreea Gînga, Bogdan Dobre, Tudor-Andrei Dumitrașcu and Bogdan Radu Silviu Sielecki University of Bucharest

{gingaraluca, dobrebogdan98, tudorandrei.dumitrascu, sieleckiradu}@gmail.com

#### Abstract

This paper details our implementations for finding Patronizing and Condescending Language in texts, as part of the SemEval Workshop Task 4. We have used a variety of methods from simple machine learning algorithms applied on bag of words, all the way to BERT models, in order to solve the binary classification and the multi-label multi-class classification.

#### 1 Introduction

The Patronizing and Condescending Language Detection Task (Pérez-Almendros et al., 2022) is based on the paper Don't Patronize Me! (P'erez-Almendros et al., 2020), which is an annotated Dataset with Patronizing and Condescending Language Towards Vulnerable Communities.

The aim of this task is to identify PCL, and to categorize the language used to express it, specifically when referring to communities identified as being vulnerable to unfair treatment in the media.

Participants were provided with sentences in context (paragraphs), extracted from news articles, in which one or several predefined vulnerable communities are mentioned. The challenge is divided into two subtasks.

- 1. Subtask 1: Binary classification. Given a paragraph, a system must predict whether or not it contains any form of PCL.
- 2. Subtask 2: Given a paragraph, a system must identify which PCL categories express the condescension. The PCL taxonomy was defined based on previous works on PCL (i.e. Unbalanced power relations, Shallow solution, Presupposition, Authority voice, Metaphor, Compassion, The poorer, the merrier.)

#### 2 Background

The dataset used for this SemEval 2022 task was Don't Patronize Me! (P'erez-Almendros et al.,

2020), which contains a suite of sentences that mention some vulnerable communities and published in media in a lot of English speaking countries. The paragraphs were manually annotated to show 1) whether the text contains any kind of PCL, and 2) if it contains PCL, what linguistic techniques (categories) are used to express the condescension. The paragraphs, according to (P'erez-Almendros et al., 2020), were extracted from News on Web (NoW) corpus (Davies, 2013), being annotated by three expert annotators, with backgrounds in communication, media and data science.

The dataset for subtask 1 (binary classification) contained a number of 10.636 paragraphs and 2.792 instances were used for the categories classification subtask.

In Figure 1, it can be seen that for the first subtask, there are almost 1000 texts that contain PCL. This means that the dataset is highly imbalanced and this problem needs to be addressed.

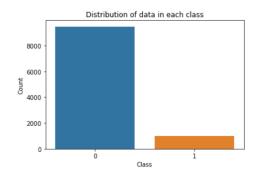


Figure 1: Classes Distribution for Binary Classification problem (Subtask 1)

For task 2, the paragraphs from task 1 are split according to the type of PCL speech category into sentences, resulting in 950 samples.

#### 3 System Overview

1. Subtask 1 (Binary Classification)

Because the dataset was very imbalanced, we tried different approaches in order to make it

#### balanced:

- Adding a class weight to the models used. In this approach, we computed a metric in which we obtained a class weight according to the imbalance of the dataset. Through this method, we gave some different weights to both the majority and minority classes. This whole process had the purpose to penalize the miss classification made by the minority class by setting a higher class weight and at the same time, reducing the weight for the majority class.
- Using oversampling methods and special ensemble techniques. In this approach, we used methods like SMOTE (Synthetic Minority Over-sampling Technique) (Chawla et al., 2002), Adasyn (Adaptive Synthetic) (He et al., 2008), SVM-SMOTE (Mathew et al., 2015) and SPE (Self-Paced Ensemble) (Liu et al., 2020) that performs strictly balanced under-sampling in each iteration, being very efficient computationally.
- Augmenting the data. Because we notice so little data for label 1, we decided to collect hate speech datasets from Kaggle<sup>1</sup> and add the positive texts into our dataset in order to balance the classes frequency, obtaining a total of 6372 from 795 initial texts with label 1. We will notice in the results section that this collection and generation of new dataset did not provide good results.

The dataset was preprocessed. The preprocessing consisted in: clearing the special characters, lowercasing, tokenization, stopwords removal, removing the words shorter than 3 characters. Then, the resulted (and clean) dataset was split into two preprocessed types: lemmatized cleaned dataset and stemmed cleaned dataset. These two datasets were generated in order to make some comparison between those two techniques and to see which provided the best results.

To extract features from text, we have used TF-IDF (Sammut and Webb, 2010), Keras Tokenizer<sup>2</sup>, Word2Vec with Skip-Gram (Mikolov

et al., 2013) and, finally, Bert Tokenizer provided by Hugging Face (Wolf et al., 2019).

We have also used a variety of models such as Neural Networks with 3 dense layers, Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) with 64 and 128 neurons with dropout of 0.1 as well, basic Machine Learning algorithms like Logistic Regression, Random Forest, Support Vector Machines as XGBoost. In the end, we decided to try BERT embeddings and a BERT classification model, BertForSequenceClassification <sup>3</sup>, that contains a single linear classification layer on top and that provided the best results after all of the other approaches.

Another approach, called "Text shards" made use of the subtask related to multi-class classification as well. For an average text that contains PCL, only some small pieces of them are actually PCL and the rest of the text are not. The assumption is that this confuses the model, because a combination of PCL and non-PCL is labeled as PCL. To address this, the following approach is used:

- negative examples are left as they are
- each positive example is replaced with the actual pieces of PCL inside it that we can get from the categories file
- the positive examples obtained this way are added with the negative examples to obtain a training dataset
- all the sentences are cleaned of characters that are not letters and the words in each sentence are lemmatized
- a Tensorflow Hub pretrained model called Universal Sentence Encoder (Cer et al., 2018) is trained on it
- for each text that we want to predict, we first use the model on the whole text to get an initial label
- a window (of the size of the average length of a cleaned PCL fragment \* 2) is slided through the text and the model is used to predict that particular substring. If it is labeled as PCL, then we consider the whole text as PCL.
- 2. Subtask 2 (Multi-label Multi-class Classification)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Hate Speech datasets

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Tokenizer method brought by Keras

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Bert for Sequence Classification

Considering the fact that the vocabulary of the is English is large, we have tried to leverage the power of pretrained language models. Therefore we have chosen 3 BERT-based models which were pretrained for hate speech detection and sentiment analysis. The BERT models also provided a tokenizer which split the sentences into tokens and appended the required tokens. The BERT models are used from the transformers library (Wolf et al., 2019).

- BERT (Devlin et al., 2018) Uncased
- BERT Multilingual Uncased
- BERT HateXplain (Mathew et al., 2020): This model was trained to classify text as Hate speech, Offensive or Normal. It was trained on Gab, Twitter and Humain Rationale;
- Distil BERT: This model is a version of Distilled BERT finetuned on the Twitter dataset;
- Distil BERT Multilingual Cased (Sanh et al., 2019)
- Distill RoBERTa: This model is a version of Distilled RoBERTa finetuned on the Twitter dataset:

In the paper describing the dataset (P'erez-Almendros et al., 2020), the authors group the categories into 3 General categories.

- (a) The saviour: Unbalanced power relations and Shallow relations
- (b) The Expert: Presupposition and Authority voice
- (c) The Poet: Compassion, Metaphor and The poorer the merrier

From this idea, we tried to train the models to predict those 3 categories, and save the hidden features to a fixed latent space. Then these learned features can be used when training the model to predict the required 7 sub-classes.

Along with those BERT-based model, we also tried to implement models based on Word2Vec (Mikolov et al., 2013) (trained on "Google News") and Machine Learning algorithms based on TF-IDF and BOW:

 LSTM Word2Vec Embeddings (Staudemeyer and Morris, 2019)

- biLSTM Word2Vec Embeddings (Huang et al., 2015)
- RNN Word2Vec Embeddings (Sherstinsky, 2020)
- SVM TF-IDF
- · RandomForest TF-IDF

We also dabbled with the thought of training our own Word2Vec, in order to create a model specialized on hate speech. However we decided against this idea, due to the lack of usable datasets and the computational resources required for this task.

#### 4 Results

1. Subtask 1 (Binary Classification)

Since we experimented with various techniques and approaches, we decided to split the results based on the experiments made.

(a) Deep Learning / Machine Learning for Imbalanced and Oversampled dataset In table 1, we can notice the results provided by classical Machine Learning algorithms and 3-layer Neural Networks (512, 256 and 128 layers with relu activation and using class weight for providing accurate performance in terms of data imbalance) on 4 types of datasets: the original dataset (without proceeding to class balance, but using class weights for controlling the class weights), Random Forest with Self-Paced Ensemble Bootstrap technique (SPE), SMOTE and SVM-SMOTE.

Logistic Regression gave solid results on all variations of the datasets, providing an  $fl\_score$  of 0.35 on lemmatized dataset and 0.38 on stemmed validation dataset. Neural Networks provided as well good results, but did not manage to obtain the performance of Logistic Regression. We could infer from the tables that Logistic Regression gave the best performance on stemmed dataset.

(b) Keras Tokenizer & Word2Vec Embeddings + LSTM neural network Another experiment that we conducted was the use of Keras Tokenizer and Word2Vec in order to extract the embeddings from the texts. We then applied

Approach \ Dataset	Simple	SPE	SMOTE	SVM-SMOTE
Neural Networks	0.27	-	0.2823	0.3187
Logistic Regression	0.34	-	0.35	0.35
Random Forest	0.067	0.31	0.19	0.16
Support Vector Machines	0.27	-	0.10	0.14
XGBoost	0.15	-	0.23	0.24

(a) Results on Imbalanced and Oversampled Lemmatized dataset

* *		•		
Approach \ Dataset	Simple	SPE	SMOTE	SVM-SMOTE
Neural Networks	0.2698	-	0.289	0.3166
Logistic Regression	0.35	-	0.38	0.37
Random Forest	0.038	0.31	0.21	0.13
Support Vector Machines	0.27	-	0.14	0.20
XGBoost	0.17	-	0.23	0.24

(b) Results on Imbalanced and Oversampled Stemmed dataset

Table 1: Results on Imbalanced and Oversampled Lemmatized & Stemmed dataset. The results are in terms of  $fl\_score$ .

Approach \ Dataset	Augmented dataset
Neural Networks	0.2155
Logistic Regression	0.23
U.S.E. + 2 dense layers	0.2316

Table 2: Results on Augmented dataset.

two LSTM models: one with 64 neurons and the other one with 128 neurons.

The results of these two models on both Lemmatized & Stemmed datasets with two variations of created embeddings (Keras Tokenizer and Word2Vec) are provided in table 3. LSTM with 64 neurons provided best results on the datasets that were using the default Tokenizer from Keras, with an f1\_score of almost 27% on Lemmatized dataset and 32& on Stemmed dataset. Word2Vec did not seem to provide good results in combination with LSTM networks.

#### (c) Data augmentation

As we discussed in the previous section, we augmented the data by using the positive texts from different hate speech datasets from Kaggle and adding to our dataset. We then applied TF-IDF vectorizer with 5000 features and fed the embeddings into a 3-layer Neural Network (512, 256 and 128 neurons) and to a Logistic Regression model. Another method used was Universal Sentence Encoder (U.S.E. annotated in table) + 2 dense layers of 128 and 64 neurons.

The results are present in table 2. We can infer that the third method provided the

best results, but still insufficient to reach the level and performance of Logistic Regression from (a).

#### (d) BERT Transformers + BertForSequence-Classification

For Bert Transformers, we obtained a performance of **0.5074**, the best result provided among all of the other models and techniques. This performance was obtained by using Bert Tokenizer for encoding the entire texts, calculating the class weight and providing it to a BERT-base-uncased model with AdamW as optimizer (learning rate of 2e-5) and 3 epochs for training. The total training time took 2 hours.

#### (e) Text shards

For "Text shards" approach, we obtained an F1 score of 0.3117.

Overall, for the first subtask, we obtained the best performance using BERT Transformers and fine-tuning a BERT model with an F1 score of 0.5074. The second best-performing algorithm was, surprisingly, Logistic Regression, that provided 0.38 on SMOTE oversampled dataset.

### 2. Subtask 2 (Multi-label Multi-class Classification)

(a) BERT models approach for classification across 7 classes. Table 4a shows that the model was able to learn only two of the classes. The best model, DistilBERT, obtains F1 score of 0.34.

Approach \ Dataset	Keras Tokenizer	Word2Vec
LSTM (64 neurons)	0.2693	0.2109
LSTM (128 neurons)	0.2317	0.2308
(a) Results on Lemma	tized dataset with c	lass weight
(a) Results on Lemma Approach \ Dataset	tized dataset with c Keras Tokenizer	lass weight Word2Vec

<sup>(</sup>b) Results on Stemmed dataset with class weight

Table 3: Results on Lemmatized & Stemmed datasets using Keras Tokenizer and Word2Vec as word embeddings. The results are in terms of *fl score*.

Model \ Class	Unb	Sha	Pre	Aut	Met	Com	Mer	Mean
BERT	0.82	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.64	0.21
DistilRoBERTa	0.83	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.59	0.20
DistilBERT	0.82	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.66	0.08	0.0	0.34

(a) Results of transformers trained directly on 7 classes

Model \ Sub-classes	Expert	Aut	Pre	Saviour	Sha	Unb	Poet	Com	Mer	Met	Mean
BERT	0.44	0.0	0.0	0.85	0.0	0.84	0.69	0.0	0.0	0.59	0.20
DistilRoBERTa	0.54	0.0	0.0	0.85	0.0	0.84	0.69	0.11	0.0	0.65	0.22
DistilBERT	0.42	0.0	0.40	0.75	0.0	0.81	0.61	0.0	0.0	0.67	0.26
DistilBERTMLC	0.36	0.0	0.0	0.86	0.0	0.83	0.60	0.0	0.0	0.52	0.19

(b) Results of transformers that were trained on 3 general classes, then finetuned for the desired 7 classes

Table 4: Transformer Results

(b) The general class approach is detailed in table 4b, where the general classes are italicized. It shows that the general classes were learned, but when using the pretrained models and fine-tuning on the specific classes, some of previously learned features are lost. The bestresults it obtained yet again by the DistilBERT model with an F1 score of .26.

#### 5 Conclusion

In this paper, we presented our solution to the problem posed by SemEval 2022 Task 4: Patronizing and Condescending Language Detection. We applied various methods, including the application of Word Embedings (Bag of Words, Word2Vec, BERT), tokenization, oversampling/undersampling of the datasets.

In the binary classification problem, the approach that gave the best result on the validation dataset was BERT transformers combined with BERT for Sequence Classification, obtaining 0.50 as F1 score, followed by Logistic Regression applied on stemmed SMOTE dataset with a performance of 0.38.

In the multi classification multi label task, the number of labels proved to be a challenge. The results overall are low and the models were only able to learn only a few classes. The general class approach also proved to be inefficient. Perhaps a more suitable approach would be to build more complex models and use models that do not rely on specific pretrained approaches.

Some recommendations for future work could be to have a better approach and introduce more linguistic insight in the approach.

#### Acknowledgements

We would like to thank our supervisor Ana-Sabina Uban for the guidance and throughout the development of the project.

#### References

Daniel Cer, Yinfei Yang, Sheng yi Kong, Nan Hua, Nicole Limtiaco, Rhomni St. John, Noah Constant, Mario Guajardo-Cespedes, Steve Yuan, Chris Tar, Yun-Hsuan Sung, Brian Strope, and Ray Kurzweil. 2018. Universal sentence encoder.

N. V. Chawla, K. W. Bowyer, L. O. Hall, and W. P. Kegelmeyer. 2002. SMOTE: Synthetic minority oversampling technique. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research*, 16:321–357.

Mark Davies. 2013. Corpus of news on the web (now):

- 3+ billion words from 20 countries, updated every day.
- Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2018. BERT: pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. *CoRR*, abs/1810.04805.
- Haibo He, Yang Bai, Edwardo A. Garcia, and Shutao Li. 2008. ADASYN: Adaptive synthetic sampling approach for imbalanced learning. In 2008 IEEE International Joint Conference on Neural Networks (IEEE World Congress on Computational Intelligence), pages 1322–1328.
- Sepp Hochreiter and Jürgen Schmidhuber. 1997. Long Short-Term Memory. *Neural Computation*, 9(8):1735–1780.
- Zhiheng Huang, Wei Xu, and Kai Yu. 2015. Bidirectional LSTM-CRF models for sequence tagging.
- Zhining Liu, Wei Cao, Zhifeng Gao, Jiang Bian, Hechang Chen, Yi Chang, and Tie-Yan Liu. 2020. Self-paced ensemble for highly imbalanced massive data classification. In 2020 IEEE 36th International Conference on Data Engineering (ICDE). IEEE.
- Binny Mathew, Punyajoy Saha, Seid Muhie Yimam, Chris Biemann, Pawan Goyal, and Animesh Mukherjee. 2020. Hatexplain: A benchmark dataset for explainable hate speech detection. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2012.10289*.
- Josey Mathew, Ming Luo, Chee Khiang Pang, and Hian Leng Chan. 2015. Kernel-based SMOTE for SVM classification of imbalanced datasets. In *IECON 2015 41st Annual Conference of the IEEE Industrial Electronics Society*, pages 001127–001132.
- Tomas Mikolov, Kai Chen, Greg Corrado, and Jeffrey Dean. 2013. Efficient estimation of word representations in vector space.
- Carla P'erez-Almendros, Luis Espinosa-Anke, and Steven Schockaert. 2020. Don't Patronize Me! An Annotated Dataset with Patronizing and Condescending Language towards Vulnerable Communities. In *Proceedings of the 28th International Conference on Computational Linguistics*, pages 5891–5902.
- Carla Pérez-Almendros, Luis Espinosa-Anke, and Steven Schockaert. 2022. SemEval-2022 Task 4: Patronizing and Condescending Language Detection. In *Proceedings of the 16th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval-2022)*. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Claude Sammut and Geoffrey I. Webb, editors. 2010. *TF–IDF*, pages 986–987. Springer US, Boston, MA.
- Victor Sanh, Lysandre Debut, Julien Chaumond, and Thomas Wolf. 2019. DistilBERT, a distilled version of BERT: smaller, faster, cheaper and lighter. *ArXiv*, abs/1910.01108.

- Alex Sherstinsky. 2020. Fundamentals of recurrent neural network (RNN) and long short-term memory (LSTM) network. *Physica D: Nonlinear Phenomena*, 404:132306.
- Ralf C. Staudemeyer and Eric Rothstein Morris. 2019. Understanding LSTM – a tutorial into long short-term memory recurrent neural networks.
- Thomas Wolf, Lysandre Debut, Victor Sanh, Julien Chaumond, Clement Delangue, Anthony Moi, Pierric Cistac, Tim Rault, Rémi Louf, Morgan Funtowicz, and Jamie Brew. 2019. Huggingface's transformers: State-of-the-art natural language processing. *CoRR*, abs/1910.03771.