

Emotion and Affect Representation in Sentence Embeddings

Author: Luis Alberto Barradas Chacón 278183

Supervisors:
Prof. Dr. Christian WARTENA
MSc. Rafael DRUMOND

21st May 2020

Thesis submited for Master of Science in Data Analytics

Wirtschaftsinformatik und Maschinelles Lernen Stiftung Universität Hildesheim Universitatsplätz 1, 31141 Hildesheim

Statement as to the sole authorship of the thesis:

Emotion and Affect Representation in Sentence Embeddings.

I hereby certify that the master's thesis named above was solely written by me and that no assistance was used other than that cited. The passages in this thesis that were taken verbatim or with the same sense as that of other works have been identified in each individual case by the citation of the source or the origin, including the secondary sources used. This also applies for drawings, sketches, illustration as well as internet sources and other collections of electronic texts or data, etc. The submitted thesis has not been previously used for the fulfilment of a degree requirements and has not been published in English or any other language. I am aware of the fact that false declarations will be treated as fraud.

21st May 2020, Hildesheim

Abstract

Word embeddings exist to abstract features of text into a numeric space. In this project we explore the representation of different emotions and affects from established labeled datasets in common word embeddings.

Acknowledgements

Acknowledgements Here

Contents

1	Intr	roduction 1								
	1.1	Emotions and Affect								
		Models of Emotions								
	1.2	Emotion and Machine Learning								
	1.3	Problem setting								
	1.4	Project Description								
	1.5	Objective								
	1.6	Justification								
2	Related Work 5									
	2.1	Lexicons								
	2.2	Automatic Approaches								
	2.3	Word Embeddings								
	2.4	Language Models								
		Selected Language Models								
	2.5	Analysis Algorithms								
	2.6	Datasets								
		Inclusion Criteria								
		Candidate datasets								
	2.7	Research Question								
3	Met	thodology								
	3.1	Preliminaries								
		Environment Setup								
		The Datasets								
	3.2	Analysis								
		Correlational Analysis								
		Linear Dimentionality Reduction								
		Non-Linear Dimentionality Reduction								
		Clustering Analysis								

4	Experiments				
		Emolex	26		
		Selecting Emotions	26		
		Class Inbalance	26		
		Valence	26		
	4.1	Performance	26		
	4.2	Results	26		
5	Cor	nclusion	27		

List of Figures

List of Tables

3.1	Runtimes for	embedding	datasets with BERT			22
J. I	runtimes for	embedding	datasets with DERT	 		44

Listings

3.1	Tokenizing with Spacy	18
3.2	Loading Word2Vec	19
3.3	Loading BERT	21
3.4	Embedding with BERT	21
3.5	Pre-processed datasets	23
3.6	Correlation Algorithm	23
3.7	PCA correlation Algorithm	24

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Emotions and Affect

Within the context of this project it is important to distinguish between emotion and affect. Affect, in the context of this project will be treated as a term to associate predisposition towards stimuli. Thus, affect is in a sense, a general term that can be even used to describe animal, and other non-human entities. Emotions, on the other hand, are treated in this project as a state inherent to humans. This state is multidimensional, and every dimension, or emotion, can either be present in a certain amount, or not be present at all. Emotions present an affect value, but not necessarily otherwise.

Models of Emotions

When trying to detect emotion, it is relevant to know what emotions to look for. This is called a model of emotions, and is still a very discussed subject is psychology. Although there are several models of emotions the most persistent are Ekman's model, Plutchike's model. The main assumption this work does follows the theory of constructed emotions, which recognizes affect as a physiological response to positive or negative stimuli, but emotions as a cognitive form of context-giving.

Why is it important to study emotion? Emotions are considered a human state that influences behaviour and decision making. Many times, when expressing thoughts in a written or spoken form, one or several emotions are present. Detecting these emotions is an important task for human interaction. Automatic emotion detection on text is thus a machine learning task required for comprehensive human-computer interaction.

Eckman's model of Emotions

What are emotions? What is affect? Why study emotions? The role of emotions in communication Measurements of emotions:

- Facial Expressions
- Biosignals
- Language or self report

Constructed theory of emotions Emotions in Language Semantic Fields Emotion Lexicon Emotion Networks Learning word semantics from context

1.2 Emotion and Machine Learning

Language in Machine Learning NLP workflow? Language representation Tokenization The problem of large dictionaries Dimensionality reduction/autoencoders Deep learning for language: automatic feature extraction Machine Learning meaning from context Word Embeddings Transformers

1.3 Problem setting

1.4 Project Description

1.5 Objective

Objetivo general: Análizar la representación de emociones en modelos del lenguaje en machine learning. Esto de manera objetiva y medible, y subjectiva, pero disponible al público para fomentar discución sobre la representación de emociones en modelos de machine learning.

Objectivos secundarios Plantear una metodología para análisar un dataset de emociones, basado en modelos de lenguaje previamente entrenados.

Cómo consecuencia del objetivo anterior, a marco teoríco y práctico se puede crear para el análisis de eficiencia de modelos previamente entrenados en datasets de clasificación de textos cortos, acompañados de una sola etiqueta. Ya que el resultado no está vinculado a la semántica de la etiqueta: (emociones). Pero la representatividad adecuada de las etiquetas en el espacio abstracto propuesto por el modelo, resulta en la más fácil clasificación de las observaciones y sus respectivas etiquetas.

1.6 Justification

Word Embeddings Numerically representing words is commonly known as word embedding. This allows for Machine Learning (ML) models to easily manipulate text data that would otherwise be an arbitrary encoding of text. With the advances in machine learning automatic word embedding became a possible solution to avoid crowdsourcing. Several machine learning approaches try to automatically learn the best numeric representation for characters, words, or sentences given the context of a dataset. Recently there have been many efforts from research institutions to generalize these embeddings though the use of powerful models, and bigger datasets. Such is the case of BERT, a model created by Google with massive datasets.

Affect learning and its relevance The relevance of affect in text has increased since the popularization of text-based social networks, like twitter. There, individuals and organizations openly express their opinions. This creates an environment where implicit feedback about entities is present. An easy way to abstract popular opinion about a named entity is learning the affect expressed in text, such as a tweet. Affect can be a multidimensional phenomenon, but the most important dimension of it is valence: whether a text expresses positive or negative emotion.



Figure 1.1: Example of an image

Followed by equation 1.1

$$A = \{'a' : ['d', 'e', 'f', 'g'], \\ 'b' : ['d', 'e', 'f', 'g'], \\ 'c' : ['d', 'e', 'f', 'g'], \\ 'd' : ['h'], \\ 'e' : ['h'], \\ 'f' : ['h'], \\ 'g' : ['h'], \\ 'h' : []\}$$

$$(1.1)$$

Chapter 2

Related Work

2.1 Lexicons

Mohamad and Turney created an Emotion Lexicon through crowdsourcing [Mohammad and Turne In this way an emotional word embedding was created by subjectively asking participants whether or not a word was related to a specific emotion.

2.2 Automatic Approaches

Vo and Zhang created an automatic approach to learning sentiment lexicons for short texts through the use of emojis [Vo and Zhang, 2016]. This method uses the intrinsic usage of emojis to express positive or negative valence in a sentence, and exploded this to expand that valence to words used in the same context.

Maas et alcreated a method to learn word vectors for sentiment analysis [Maas et al., 2011].

By applying machine learned automatic embeddings, the creation of word embeddings based only on text data was open as a possibility. This is also a method that later became the popular Word2Vec method [Mikolov et al., 2013].

A refining of word embeddings has been suggested by Yu et alby means of a clustering algorithm on the vector space [Yu et al., 2017].

Rothe et alsuggested an orthogonal transformation to word embeddings used on SemEval2015 which yielded ultradense word embeddings for affect [Rothe et al., 2016].

A further exploration of transformations of a word vector space was done by Hollis et alby means of component analysis, thus creating models of semantics from text. These were applied to affect [Hollis and Westbury, 2016]. These studies have mostly been done with affect: positive and negative valences, but have mostly ignored other emotional dimensions.

2.3 Word Embeddings

2.4 Language Models

There is an incredible amount of pre-trained Machine Learned Language models. For this project we have selected models based on the following criteria:

- The model was trained with a large amount of general purpose language corpora.
- It represented a breakthrough in NLP tasks at the moment of its publication.
- The model has been reproduced, implemented, and tested in many ML language tasks.

Under this criteria, four models have been spotted as candidates for the experiment:

- Word2Vec: Words to Vectors
- GloVe: Global Vectors for Word Representation
- ELMo: Embeddings from Language Models
- BERT: Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers

Word2Vec is the result of converting large corpus into itself, by using an auto-encoder method, with help of a one-hot encoding of the corpus vocabulary [?]. At the time of its publication it captured much atention, mostly due to the posibility of semantic artimetic. This was tipified by the \ddot{K} ing - Man + Woman = Queenëxample. Due to the one-hot encoding step in the algorithm, it does not solve the problem of words with multiple meanings.

Glove is recognizable between other language models, for its linear substructures of meaning. Since it was trained on aggregated co-occurrence statistics, it captures semantic structure better than Word2Vec [?]. It still asigns a one-to-one representation of words and embedded vectors, so it does not solve ambiguities.

ELMo solved this last mentioned problem by analyzing context[?]. This was acheived by training on prediction of words in forwards and backwards passes. Even though this model solved the problem of context-dependant meaning, it was created with the premise that context in text is secuential, and it's architecture dependant on LSTMs showed this.

BERT was the first algorithm to solve this problem, by implementing a context-dependant learning, that is not based on the secuential structures. This was done with the use of Transformers. A deep learning architecture based on the atention model, that does not depend on secuential structures.

Both BERT and ELMo give different embeddings to words in different contexts, but BERT has proven better at solving language tasks. For this reason, only BERT will be used in this project.

One last model will be used as a mean of comparing results between the different models. This is FastText [?]. FastText is very similar to the algorithm with which word2vec was created. It creates a one hot encoding of a corpus, and creates a latent dimension through training either an autoencoder, for an unsupervised approach, or a classifier, for a supervised one. This algorithm requires training on the corpus. Since the corpus selected on this project are relatively small, FastText provides a way to create a baseline for pretrained models, by analyzing what a basic model trained only on the corpus would look like.

Selected Language Models

Considering the prospective models, and the given criteria, the selected models for embedding the datasets are the following:

- Fasttext
- Word2Vec
- GloVe
- BERT

FastText

Python's FastText library[?] is used in this project. This provides two approaches for training the model: an unsupervised, and a supervised. The unsupervised requires a text file with one sentence per line. The algorithm is in charge of the tokenization. This of course only works in english. The supervised approach requires a similar file for the corpus, but at the end

of every line, two underscores most be followed by the label of the given sentence.

Word2Vec

Since this pre-trained model has a one-to-one correspondance between word and embedding, a dictionary can be downloaded and imported via the gensim python library [?]. This model has been trained with the Google News [] corpus. It weights about 1.5 Gb, and has a latent space of 300 dimensions. It is supposed to be located at the url https://code.google.com/archive/p/word2vec/, but the file is not to be found. Forums on google groups for the word2vec (https://groups.google.com/forum/#!topic/word2vec-toolkit/z0Aw5powUco) point several urls where the model can be found.

GloVe

This model, provided by the Standford University, is of easy access, and as Word2Vec, can be imported as a dictionary [?]. The download can be found under https://nlp.stanford.edu/projects/glove/. This specific version selected was trained on the Wikipedia corpus, contains 6 billion words, uses 300 latent dimensions, and weights less than 1Gb.

BERT

The BERT model is trained not with one, but two types of tasks. The first one is masked word or sentence prediction, and a second one requires extra layers on the architecture and a fine-tunning training for task specific performance. [?] The pre-trained model that one can get is the language model trained with the masked-language task. This model is not as easy to get, since the defoult python libraries to import BERT, require training and fine-tunning. For this reason, the bert-embeddings python library has been selected for this task.

2.5 Analysis Algorithms

Two algorithms have been chosen for dimensionality reduction:

- PCA
- TSNE

PCA can be interpreted as a linear transformation on the input space, that yields the maximum explainability by the least amount of dimensions. While TSNE uses statistical information to maximize the distribution of information of groups, while minimizing the distribution of information within groups.

2.6 Datasets

There are many datasets of ëmotion in textön the internet, and finding them is not a new problem. Unfortunately, the methodology and rigor for their creation cannot be easily tested. A heavy use of the paper "An analysis of annotated corpora for emotion classification in text" by Klinger in 2018 [Klinger et al., 2018] was done. This paper not only collects information about the datasets, but also tests their valididty in the context of a text cliassifier.

Inclusion Criteria

To be included into these experiments, the following criteria must be met by a dataset:

- The dataset must contain short labeled texts, in english.
- The label must be a single emotion, from an eckman-analogous emotional model.
- The labels must not be a reference to valence, arousal, dominance, or other affect models.

The text to be analyzed must be in english, since the methods and language models that we are testing will not all be available in other languages. The single-single label criterion has been chosen due to the restriction of two-dimensional projections, and their visualizations as scatter plots. The label is to be expressed as a single color on scatter plots, and a multi-label problem would not present the effect desired when developing the desired intuitions.

Candidate datasets

For the datasets included in Klinger's original paper [Klinger et al., 2018] the naming in the paper was not followed. This is due to the inconsistencies between the paper and their github repository, which (as the moment of writing this thesis) was last updated on Dec 17 2019 (commit e58d676).

The dataset naming conventions used here is the same as in the document called "unified dataset of emotion in text": https://github.com/sarnthil/unify-emotion-datasets/tree/master/datasets.

Lastly, the candidate list includes the datasets mentioned, but is not restricted to them:

- AffectiveText [Strapparava and Mihalcea, 2007]
- AIT-2018 [Mohammad et al., 2018]
- CrowdFlower
- DailyDialogs [Li et al., 2017]
- Emotion-Cause [Ghazi et al., 2015]
- Emotiondata-Aman [Aman, 2007]
- EmotionPush [Huang and Ku, 2018]
- EmoBank [Buechel and Hahn, 2017]
- fb-valence-arousal [Preotiuc-Pietro et al., 2016]
- Friends [Chen et al., 2018]
- Grounded-Emotions [Liu et al., 2017]
- ISEAR International Survey On Emotion Antecedents And Reactions [Scherer and Wallbott
- Tales [Alm et al., 2005]
- EmoInt [Mohammad and Bravo-Marquez, 2017]
- TEC The Twitter Emotion Corpus published [Mohammad, 2012]
- Electoral-Tweets [Mohammad et al., 2014]
- SSEC The Stance Sentiment Emotion Corpus published [Schuff et al., 2017]

The link to these datasets can be found under the github repository for the unified emotion datasets. https://github.com/sarnthil/unify-emotiondatasets/tree/master/datasets From this list, several datasets use an affective model of valence, arousal or dominance. Removing the datasets that do not explicitly comply with the inclusion criteria leaves the following:

CrowdFlower

- DailyDialogs [Li et al., 2017]
- Emotion-Cause [Ghazi et al., 2015]
- fb-valence-arousal [Preotiuc-Pietro et al., 2016]
- Friends [Chen et al., 2018]
- EmoInt [Mohammad and Bravo-Marquez, 2017]
- TEC The Twitter Emotion Corpus published [Mohammad, 2012]
- Electoral-Tweets [Mohammad et al., 2014]
- SSEC The Stance Sentiment Emotion Corpus published [Schuff et al., 2017]

During the exploratory phase of this project, a subset of these datasets will be selected, giving priority to those with a more standardized, cleaner, or easier to access data. Models

2.7 Research Question

As a general research question we propose to answer the following: When using pre-trained models for word and sentence embedding, is the information about the emotional and affective content or context of the word or sentence represented in the vector space?

This question can be approached in three different ways:

- Is there a direct correlation between any of the dimensions of the vector space and human-labeled emotions and affect?
- Is there a linear transformation that will yield a direct correlation to the same human-labeled emotions?
- Is there a hierarchical structure that accurately represents the embedding of said labels?

Chapter 3

Methodology

To analyze the representation of emotions in different word embeddings, this project has been divided in two main parts: Embedding and Analysis. The embedding part includes selecting the intermediate representation of the dataset, and the usage of the language model to do so. The Analysis is focused on finding the information contained in the language models, through the exploration of the mentioned intermediate representation. A high emphasis on dimensionality-reducing visualizations was done in this last part. These allow for the development of intuitions that can be further explored through statistical tests.

The process for finding information on the desired embedded structure has been divided in consecutive steps, that represent progressive steps into finding structure in a dataset. The steps are the following:

Correlation A correlation between embedded dimensions and labels.

Linear Transformation A correlation between the labels and a linear transformation of the embedded dimensions.

n-Linear Transformation A non-linear transformation for obtaining separable clusters.

Hierarchical clustering Clustering the embedded dimensions, or linear transformations of these.

These steps also correspond to the complexity of a theoretical classifier on the embedded dimension. The first one answering to the question: Can the output of the embeddings be used directly to classify the labels? The second step corresponds to asking if a linear transformation of the embedded space could yield a classifier. For example, can an LDA preform on this dataset and embedding? The third question relates to the preformance of a non-linear classifier. This is the case of a Single Layer Perceptron. Considering the

embeddings can be used as an intermediate step, for a further clasification, this step should already yield the results of baseline emotion classifiers. The fourth question relates to the relation of emotion and valence. Emotions tend to fit hierarchically into affective models of arousal and valence. [?] By searching for a hierarchy in the representation of emotions, we should be able to trace back the representation of valence [?].

Separating the methodology in this way, enables a progressive apporximatons approach to answering the research question. It is highly unlikely that a general lenguage model in machine learning represents emotions into a single dimension in a linear manney, but it is increasingly more likely that some correlation is found with a linear transformation of the aforementioned. In case these two approaches present no information about emotions, a hierarchical clustering can extract the intrinsic information of affect in emotions. Since previous works have already shown that affect can be represented in vector spaces, created with a linear transformation of word embeddings[?], it would be contradictory to not find a hierarchical structure of emotions in this last step. If this were to happen, it would be reasonable to question the dataset and it's methodology, or the contextual information lost in the embedding process.

3.1 Preliminaries

This research was managed as both, a research project, and a software development project. With scientific rigor, order, and reproducibility in mind, a git repository has been setup, where not only the working environment is provided, but also the history of the project development.

Environment Setup

The environment is all required hardware and software necessary to execute this computational experiment. Here it is presented how to reproduce the same environment, to be able to reproduce the results presented. A short organizational note is also included, to keep track of the project management.

Organizational

The project planning was layed out throught three months: March, April and May of 2020. A total of twelve weeks were divided into four equal sprints, where the four main tasks in the project were equaly separated in time: Exploration and Preparation, Programming, Experiments, and Writing. The

four sprints were described by tasks, further divided by sub-tasks. These were kept in track and followed by me, and both Supervisors through the Asana application[?].

The repository is accessible through github: https://github.com/abcsds/MasterThesis

Hardware

This project was implemented and executed in my personal computer: A Manjaro Linux x86°64, with Kernel 5.6.11-1-MANJARO. The available CPU is an Intel i7-8700K (12) @ 5.000GHz, and the GPU is an NVIDIA GeForce GTX 1080 Ti. A total of 15937MB of RAM memory were available for experiments, as well as 16GB of swap disk. Although much of the technology available for these experiments is more than necesary, the execution of some BERT models is not possible with these technical specifications. This influenced the selection of the BERT model to be used, and played a big part in selecting a pre-embedding of models.

Software

As mentioned, the development and execution were on a Linux Operating System (OS). The Distribution used was Manjaro. This OS is a rolling release distribution, so the version used changed allong the development. This is one of the reasons why virtual development and execution environments were used: to keep reproductability, and ensure a stable testing. The only reason for this OS to be used is that it is my personal computer. As a Version Control System (VCS), git was added to the repository. This enables distributed access and historical revision for anyone trying to reproduce or supervise the project. Several development tools were used. For text editing and script execution, Atom 1.46.0 [?] was used. Within the Atom environment, community packages were used to simplify the workflow: Hydrogen 2.14.1 [?], for example, allows the execution of python code from within the text editor, and can even show output of the lines executed. A list of the used packages is provided in ?? For some exploratory analysis, Jupyter Notebooks [?] were used. To run these, a specific virtual environment was created with Docker 19.03 [?] and NVIDIA-Docker. A docker image for these notebooks was created. The dockerfile of this image contains the libraries used for data exploration. The downloading of the BERT models ran in TensorFlow is also contained in this dockerfile. The description and an initialization script for the virtual container are included in the project folder called "TF". While the notebooks provided were used for data exploration, and visualization. Most of the development was done on the text editor. For this, python virtual environments were created with the help of the virtualenv and virtualenvwrapper python libraries. For these, a "requirements.txt" file was provided with the libraries used, and their versions. When developping, the desired virtual environment was activated. After this, the atom editor is open on the desired folder. By doing so, the Hydrogen library takes the virtual environment for the execution of the code in the project. By developing in this way, the whole project is available from the folder view on Atom. Code can be executed, and tested on the run, as if it were a Jupyter notebook, but changes are inmediately integrated into the code repository. This specific development environment was seleted to avoid conflicts between Jupyter Notebooks, and the VCS. The explorations are stored as notebooks, but cannot really represent the development of the project. The Python programming language was used for the programming of the current project. This is due to it's incredible flexibility, access to the main ML libraries, and the predisposition of the Wirtschaftsinformatik und Maschinelles Lernen Institut. Under Python's umbrella of libraries, several were specifically added to enable this study. A List of the used libraries is provided in the appendix ??.

Two main ML frameworks were selected for the current project: Tensor-Flow 2.1.0 [?] (TF), and PyTorch 1.4.0 [?] (Also called Torch, for simplicity.). TF was selected specifically for it's access to a pre-trained BERT library [] for embedding sentences. This was very usefull, since, compared to the Transformers library [?], it must not be fine-tunned. TF confronts developers with two main compatibility issues:

- The cuda library being used most be a specific version. Most TF libraries will only work under CUDA library 9.2. Some might run under 10.1, but not under 10.2. Since the development environment is a rolling release linux distribution, the latest version of libraries is provided. Installing multiple versions brings problems to the day-to-day usage. Since the environment is also my personal computer, a virtual environment with containers were used instead, and for these, NVIDIA-Docker.
- at the moment of the development of this project, TF is undergoing a major version change, from 1.x to 2.x. Many reference libraries, and all code I have creted, used, or studied in my masters is depricated. The techniques learned during my studies need to be updated, and in many cases, re-learned. This is not an uncommon problem in technology, but it opens the opportunity for changing the work framework.

For all ML programming requirements that did not use the pre-trained

BERT library, PyTorch was used. Certain algorithms were not programmed, but simply integrated from their implementation on python:

- FastText: This algorithm was not implemented. It's python library from the implementaiton of Facebook Research was used. [?]
- MulticoreTSNE: The TSNE algorithm was not implemented. Since it has heavy requirements on hardware, its implementation using distributed computing was used. [?]
- Normalize: The sklearn version of the normalization algorithm was used due to its optimization. [?]
- PCA: SKlearn version was used. [?]
- Tokenization: Part of the embedding pipeline requires the tokenization of the sentences. This was done with the Spacy library, and the "en'core'web'sm" model.[?]

The Datasets

Three datasets were selected to be used for this project. Here it's described how and when they were accessed, stored and embedded into the intermediate representation.

Access

Accessing datasets to train machine learning models is not a standarized process. The developer of every dataset is in charge of the distribution method. Fortunately, two of the three datasets used in this project were distributed by the same organization: the EmotionPush, and Friends datasets were, while CrowdFlower was distributed originally by a company with the same name.

The CrowdFlower dataset was downloaded from the official CrowdFlower website in October 2019. The url to this dataset is http://www.crowdflower.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/text_emotion.csv. As of May 20, 2020, this link still works, but the website www.CrowdFlower.com redirects to www.appen.com a company that collects [data] to build [...] artificial intelligence systems. [?]TODO This company offers access to some open source datasets, but the mentioned crowdflower emotion dataset is not listed there. A discussion on this is provided on chapter ??

The EmotionPush and Friends datasets were distributed as part of the EmotionX Task, which in turn is part of a set of Social NLP tasks, created by the Academia Sinica of Taiwan. [?] To access this datasets, one must

register on the EmotionX 2019 website: https://sites.google.com/view/emotionx2019. Access to a google drive is then granted via email, and a zip file with both datasets can be downloaded. This dataset has been used more than once in different analysis on the internet, and it can be therefore accessed without permissions to the official method. Here, the original dataset is used.

Storage

The datasets were downloaded and stored under the project folder "data". Since every dataset is provided in different format and under different folder structures, every dataset is simply stored inside a folder with it's name. Under the datasets folder, every selected dataset is accompanied by folders with the embedding model used to embed the dataset. Thus every dataset folder has several subfolders. On these subfolders, a python script called "embed.py". This script varies for every model and dataset. In general terms, it extracts the text and label from the dataset, embeds the text into the desired model, and stores it in a "csv" file under the same folder. The "csv" file is stored under the name "embedded.py", except for the FastText model. In this case, there are two embedding approaches, one supervised and one unsupervised. Thus the names of the FastText embedding files are "embeddings supervised.csv", and "embeddings unsupervised.csv". Every other script creates a single "csv" file called "embeddings.csv".

Thie file structure of the embedded files allows for exploration and experimental scripts to access the embedded data of different datasets, by building a single string with the dataset and model selected. This string must be prepended by the "./data/" folder name, and appended with the "embeddings.csv" string to generate a path that creates accesibility to the different datasets via a python coma-sepparated-value library, such as the built in csv, or Pandas [?] and it's read_csv function. This effectively create a data source to be used in a data pipeline. This approach was selected due to it's simplicity.

Embedding

The comparisson of the representation of different language models in this project requires a convergence of many different techniques. For this reason it was chosen to embed the datasets into an intermediate format, to later use them in experiments.

The embedding of the datasets is comprised of 5 steps:

1. Loading model, text, and labels.

- 2. Tokenizing text.
- 3. Embedding every token into the model latent space.
- 4. Average the given embedded words.
- 5. Store the average sentence embedding.

Loading text, and labels was done with either the CSV[?] or the JSON[?] python library, depending on the format of the data.

Tokenizing was done with Spacy's "en'core'web'sm" model, which allows access to the tokens via an iterator on the model, and the sub-component "text". An small snippet showing this process is shown in 3.1. This snippet considers a model has been loaded as a dictionary on tokens.

Listing 3.1: Tokenizing with Spacy

```
import spacy
nlp = spacy.load("en_core_web_sm")
for token in nlp("This is a sentence in English"):
   word_embedding = model[token.text]
```

Every token is embedded in this way, but some models might not contain some tokens. In this case, the token is simply skipped. Some tokens with relevant information can be lost with using pretrained models that don't contain the complete vocabulary of the dataset, but it is expected, that the information distribution converge to the real distribution when large number of samples are integrated. This problem is later discussed in relation to training a model from zero ??.

Once every token has been embedded into the model's latent space. A simple average is done across the tokens, keeping the dimensionality of the vector representation, and effectively creating a sentence embedding, represented in the model's latent space. This technique was selected since it's the most common [?] method for sentence representation. With this method, the secuential nature of the tokens in the sentence is lost, in favor of providing a constant sized sentence embedding to compare between methods and datasets.

Lastly, the sentence embeddings are stored along with the label information. For this, the CSV format was selected, due to it's interoperability, and accessibility. The statistics library Pandas has an excellent csv reader, but the data can also be imported into spreadsheet software, other statistical software, or very quickl loaded on to python with the CSV library. Every CSV file contains a header on the first row. The header is composed by

N+1 columns where N is the number of latent dimensions in the model. The last column is the "Emotion" column, where the label is stored. The name of every column starts with the letter \dot{d} ; and is followed by consecutive numbers.

Since every pre-trained model is different, there were specific requirements on loading the model and embedding the tokens:

FastText

As previously mentioned, the FastText algorithm is an exception in this project, since it is NOT a pretrained model. The model is trained based on the dataset given. This can be done in a supervised, or an unsupervised manner. Due to the two methods for the usage of the FastText python library, the process of embedding a dataset with it requires two extra text files one with a sentence per line, and a second one, which includes the label as the last word of every line, prepended by two underscores (__).

In both ways of training, the language model is being trained specifically for the dataset vocabulary. For this reason, all tokens will be available in the model's vocabulary, resulting in the most complete language model. This is at the cost of representing only the topics on the dataset. This is therefore also not a general language model.

Word2Vec

Word2Vec is trained in a very similar way as fasttext. Therefore, the expected results are similar. Word2Vec is treated within the context of this experiments as the pre-trained equivalent of fast text. The same number of latent dimensions, and a similar training approach were used. In this case, if a word in the dataset is not contained in the Word2Vec model, it is droped, and its analysis won't be included in the results of this project. Word2Vec was trained with a very large corpus, it is therefore considered a general language model.

The pre-trained model has been stored under the project folder :/models/Word2Vec/GoogleNe vectors-negative300.bin.gz: The gensim python library is used to load the model in binary format without having to decompress it. This model is loaded as a dictionary. An example of this is shown in snippet 3.2 that considers an iterator over a tokenized sentence.

Listing 3.2: Loading Word2Vec

import gensim

```
model =
    gensim.models.KeyedVectors.load_word2vec_format(model_path,
    binary=True)
for token in tokenized_sentence:
    word_embedding = model[token]
```

GloVe

Pre-trained GloVe models can be downloaded from the official website TODO. This model was downloaded and stored under the project folder :/models/GloVe/glove.6B/glove.6E. The name of this file contains two numbers: 6B is the number of words that are represented in this model, while 300d is the number of latent dimensions used to represent the vocabulary. This model has been trained for 50, 100, 200, and 300 dimensions. Since a smaller number of dimensions represents a lesser capability for representing complex language concepts [?], the larger version of this model was selected. This also concides with the number of dimensions used in Word2Vec, which makes results easier to compare.

BERT

Although BERT is a pretrained model, it's original distribution is considered to be only partially trained. On the original paper [?], a fine-tunning task-specific phase is mentioned, and generally required for the model to work best. This finetunning also presents a great infrastructure challenge, since some pre-trained BERT models simply wont fit into a personal computer's RAM.

For this reason, the pre-trained BERT embedding library https://github.com/imgarylai/bert-embedding was used. This library allows for a selection of the BERT model, and the embedding of the whole sentence, without tokenization. The result is a json-like dictionary in Python that contains both the original sentence and the embedded sentence.

To be able to run the embedding notebook, provided under the project folder ëxploration/Embedding with bert.ipynb; the following requirements should be met:

- Docker i=19.03
- NVIDIA Container Toolkit
- This Docker TF Image: 'tensorflow/tensorflow:2.1.0-gpu-py3-jupyter'

On Linux, the a correct installation of the nvidia-docker environment would yield a successful run of the following command: docker run --gpus all --rm nvidia/cuda nvidia-smi

To build the docker image for this project, one must open a terminal on the "TF" project folder and run the following docker instruction: docker build -t bert . where bert is the name of the image to be created. Once this image has been built, docker can create containers with it. So to run the container necessary for the BERT embedding, the following command is used inside the project folder: docker run --gpus all -p 8888:8888 -v \$(pwd):/tf -it bert. This last command will run a docker container, based on the "tensorflow:2.1.0-gpu-py3-jupyter" image, connect it to the localhost port 8888, and integrate the project folder to the jupyter server running on the container.

Docker is used to comply with the complex requirements of TensorFlow, CUDA, and the bert-embeddings.Once the Jupyter server is running, the notebook can be opened, and executed. The loading of the model is shown in the following snippet 3.3:

Listing 3.3: Loading BERT

```
from bert_embedding import BertEmbedding
bert_embedding = BertEmbedding(model='bert_24_1024_16',
    dataset_name='book_corpus_wiki_en_cased')
```

Here, the selected model is shown. This is a model with 1024 latent dimensions, trained on the Wikipedia corpus, and with case sensitivity. This means that words lowercase and uppercase letters will be embedded differently.

Within the notebook, a function was created to embed the datasets. This receives three arguments: a list of the sentences, a list of the labels, and the name of the output file, as a string. The embedding function is shown here:

Listing 3.4: Embedding with BERT

Running the embeddings for the datasets reported the following data:

Dataset	User	System	Total	Wall
CrowdFlower	user 3h 57min 7s	13min 11s	4h 10min 18s	1h 5min 33s
EmotionPush	user 1h 28min 35s	$5\min 25s$	1h 34min 1s	$24\min 31s$
Friends	user 1h 26min 40s	5 min 3s	1h 31min 44s	24 min 9 s

Table 3.1: Runtimes for embedding datasets with BERT

This is much less than the several daysverbaly reported by colegues at the ISMLL. This might be due to the use of pre-trained models, and not running back-propagation to fine-tune the language models.

While running the embeddings, almost no GPU memory was used. This signals that the library is actually not making use of the GPU resources available. This also might mean that the embedding of the datasets might be much faster if the correct hardware resources are used.

At the beginning of the Year 2020, the library seemed a reliable way of getting the embedding done quickly. It allowed for embedding of the complete datasets in matter of minutes. Since I had been warned BERT embeddings could take days, I saw this as a gread advantage, and kept the method. Unfortunately as of May 2020, this library has been depricated. It's unmantained, and has requirements that might only be achievable under very specific conditions. This will not be a problem for reproduction, as long as the library is still available, and the provided docker image is used.

3.2 Analysis

The python scripts to analyze the data are found under the folder :/exploration; where they are numbered, and named. The order of the scripts corresponds to the progressive steps in the search for structure in the embedded spaces. The scripts are the following:

- 1. 01_corr.py
- 2. 02_pca.py
- 3. 03_tsne.py

The order of these scripts corresponds to the methodology proposed in this thesis. They generate the visualizations, and test the hypotesis on the data. The last step in the methodology, Clustering, has been performed in all scripts. The scripts each contain a list of strings. Every string in that list is the relative path of one of the pre-processed datasets. These strings can be commented out. In doing so, the analysis will not be run on that specific instance. The full list is declared as follows:

Listing 3.5: Pre-processed datasets

This was done so to facilitate the integration of new datasets or models to the analysis. As mentioned before ??, the csv file contains a line for every sentence in the dataset, with the number of columns equal to the dimensionality of the model, plus one, for the label.

Every analysis script separates the embedded sentence from the label, into two structures:

- X: contains all the embedded sentences, and is therefore of size NxM, where N is the number of sentences in the dataset, and M is the number of latent dimensions in the model.
- Y: contains all the labels of the dataset, and is of size Nx1.

Correlational Analysis

The correlational analysis runs the numpy corcoef ?? algorithm between every dimension of the model, and the labels vector. A snippet of the algorithm can be seen in listing 3.6

Listing 3.6: Corrlelation Algorithm

```
cors = []
for emotion in ind:
    y = (Y == emotion).astype(int)
    cor_p_sent = []
    for j in range(X.shape[1]):
        x = normalize(X[:, j].reshape(-1, 1)).reshape(-1)
        c = np.corrcoef(x, y)[1,0]
        cor_p_sent.append(c)
    cors.append(cor_p_sent)
    cors = np.array(cors)
    x = np.nan_to_num(cors)
```

The correlation is done between every dimension, and every emotion. Therefore, the labels vector is filtered with the selected emotion, as it can be seen on line 3. This results in a vector of size N filled with zeros, except in the places where the selected emotion is the label. This ones-and-zeros vector is the reason why the dimensions vector is normalized. The latent space of every model is different. By normalizing it, we restrict the embedding values between 0 and 1, since the default normalization algorithm uses the L2 norm. The next step, evaluating the numpy corrocef function, returns the Pearson product-moment correlation matrix. A matrix is formed from the correlations of every dimension, against every emotion. The resulting matrix is then of size MxE, where E is the number of the emotions labeled in the dataset.

Linear Dimentionality Reduction

For a linear dimensionality reduction algorithm, PCA has been selected. The methodology here only differs from the linear correlation analysis in that a PCA transformation is preformed before examining correlations. It looks as follows:

Listing 3.7: PCA correlation Algorithm

```
projection = PCA().fit_transform(X)
cors = []
for emotion in ind:
    y = (Y == emotion).astype(int)
    cor_p_sent = []
    for j in range(projection.shape[1]):
        x = normalize(projection[:, j].reshape(-1, 1)).reshape(-1)
        c = np.corrcoef(x, y)[1,0]
```

```
cor_p_sent.append(c)
cors.append(cor_p_sent)
cors = np.array(cors)
x = np.nan_to_num(cors)
```

Non-Linear Dimentionality Reduction

The non-linear dimensionality reduction algorithm selected was the T-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (TSNE). This uses the distribution information from the embedded sentences to search for a linearly-separable two-dimensional projection. This algorithm was selected for its relationship to visualizations. The multi-core algorithm from the MulticoreTSNE library was used [?].

Clustering Analysis

The clustering algorithm used was SciPy's linkage algorithm, a part of the cluster.hierarchy library [?]. This algorithm is an aglomerative, or bottom-up clustering algorithm. It measures euclidian distance between the selected data points, and clusters them one by one. The result of this algorithm can be seen as a dendrogram plot, next to every heatmap in the results section 4.2.

Chapter 4

Experiments

- 1. 04_cluster.py
- $2.05_{\texttt{emolex.py}}$

Emolex

Selecting Emotions

Class Inbalance

Valence

- 4.1 Performance
- 4.2 Results

Chapter 5

Conclusion

Bibliography

- [Alm et al., 2005] Alm, C. O., Roth, D., and Sproat, R. (2005). Emotions from text: machine learning for text-based emotion prediction. In *Proceedings of the conference on human language technology and empirical methods in natural language processing*, pages 579–586. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- [Aman, 2007] Aman, S. (2007). Recognizing emotions in text. In *Masters Abstracts International*, volume 46. Citeseer.
- [Buechel and Hahn, 2017] Buechel, S. and Hahn, U. (2017). Emobank: Studying the impact of annotation perspective and representation format on dimensional emotion analysis. In *Proceedings of the 15th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Volume 2, Short Papers*, pages 578–585.
- [Chen et al., 2018] Chen, S.-Y., Hsu, C.-C., Kuo, C.-C., Ku, L.-W., et al. (2018). Emotionlines: An emotion corpus of multi-party conversations. arXiv preprint arXiv:1802.08379.
- [Ghazi et al., 2015] Ghazi, D., Inkpen, D., and Szpakowicz, S. (2015). Detecting emotion stimuli in emotion-bearing sentences. In *International Conference on Intelligent Text Processing and Computational Linguistics*, pages 152–165. Springer.
- [Hollis and Westbury, 2016] Hollis, G. and Westbury, C. (2016). The principals of meaning: Extracting semantic dimensions from co-occurrence models of semantics. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 23(6):1744–1756.
- [Huang and Ku, 2018] Huang, C.-Y. and Ku, L.-W. (2018). Emotion push: Emotion and response time prediction towards human-like chatbots. In 2018 IEEE Global Communications Conference (GLOBECOM), pages 206–212. IEEE.

- [Klinger et al., 2018] Klinger, R. et al. (2018). An analysis of annotated corpora for emotion classification in text. In *Proceedings of the 27th International Conference on Computational Linquistics*, pages 2104–2119.
- [Li et al., 2017] Li, Y., Su, H., Shen, X., Li, W., Cao, Z., and Niu, S. (2017). Dailydialog: A manually labelled multi-turn dialogue dataset. arXiv preprint arXiv:1710.03957.
- [Liu et al., 2017] Liu, V., Banea, C., and Mihalcea, R. (2017). Grounded emotions. In 2017 Seventh International Conference on Affective Computing and Intelligent Interaction (ACII), pages 477–483. IEEE.
- [Maas et al., 2011] Maas, A. L., Daly, R. E., Pham, P. T., Huang, D., Ng, A. Y., and Potts, C. (2011). Learning Word Vectors for Sentiment Analysis. page 9.
- [Mikolov et al., 2013] Mikolov, T., Sutskever, I., Chen, K., Corrado, G. S., and Dean, J. (2013). Distributed Representations of Words and Phrases and their Compositionality. page 9.
- [Mohammad et al., 2014] Mohammad, S., Zhu, X., and Martin, J. (2014). Semantic role labeling of emotions in tweets. In *Proceedings of the 5th Workshop on Computational Approaches to Subjectivity, Sentiment and Social Media Analysis*, pages 32–41.
- [Mohammad, 2012] Mohammad, S. M. (2012). # emotional tweets. In Proceedings of the First Joint Conference on Lexical and Computational Semantics-Volume 1: Proceedings of the main conference and the shared task, and Volume 2: Proceedings of the Sixth International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation, pages 246–255. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- [Mohammad and Bravo-Marquez, 2017] Mohammad, S. M. and Bravo-Marquez, F. (2017). Emotion intensities in tweets. In *Proceedings of the sixth joint conference on lexical and computational semantics (*Sem)*, Vancouver, Canada.
- [Mohammad et al., 2018] Mohammad, S. M., Bravo-Marquez, F., Salameh, M., and Kiritchenko, S. (2018). Semeval-2018 Task 1: Affect in tweets. In *Proceedings of International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval-2018)*, New Orleans, LA, USA.

- [Mohammad and Turney, 2013] Mohammad, S. M. and Turney, P. D. (2013). Crowdsourcing a Word-Emotion Association Lexicon. arXiv:1308.6297 [cs]. arXiv: 1308.6297.
- [Preoţiuc-Pietro et al., 2016] Preoţiuc-Pietro, D., Schwartz, H. A., Park, G., Eichstaedt, J., Kern, M., Ungar, L., and Shulman, E. (2016). Modelling valence and arousal in facebook posts. In *Proceedings of the 7th workshop on computational approaches to subjectivity, sentiment and social media analysis*, pages 9–15.
- [Rothe et al., 2016] Rothe, S., Ebert, S., and Schütze, H. (2016). Ultradense Word Embeddings by Orthogonal Transformation. arXiv:1602.07572 [cs]. arXiv: 1602.07572.
- [Scherer and Wallbott, 1990] Scherer, K. and Wallbott, H. (1990). International survey on emotion antecedents and reactions (isear).
- [Schuff et al., 2017] Schuff, H., Barnes, J., Mohme, J., Padó, S., and Klinger, R. (2017). Annotation, modelling and analysis of fine-grained emotions on a stance and sentiment detection corpus. In *Proceedings of the 8th Workshop on Computational Approaches to Subjectivity, Sentiment and Social Media Analysis*, pages 13–23.
- [Strapparava and Mihalcea, 2007] Strapparava, C. and Mihalcea, R. (2007). Semeval-2007 task 14: Affective text. In *Proceedings of the Fourth International Workshop on Semantic Evaluations (SemEval-2007)*, pages 70–74.
- [Vo and Zhang, 2016] Vo, D. T. and Zhang, Y. (2016). Don't Count, Predict! An Automatic Approach to Learning Sentiment Lexicons for Short Text. In Proceedings of the 54th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 2: Short Papers), pages 219–224, Berlin, Germany. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- [Yu et al., 2017] Yu, L.-C., Wang, J., Lai, K. R., and Zhang, X. (2017). Refining Word Embeddings for Sentiment Analysis. In *Proceedings of the 2017 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, pages 534–539, Copenhagen, Denmark. Association for Computational Linguistics.