

Emoji as Emotion Tags for Tweets

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Abstract

In many natural language processing tasks, supervised machine learning approaches have proved most effective, and substantial effort has been made into collecting and annotating corpora for building such models. Emotion detection from text is no exception; however, research in this area is in its relative infancy, and few emotion annotated corpora exist to date. A further issue regarding the development of emotion annotated corpora is the difficulty of the annotation task and resulting inconsistencies in human annotations. One approach to address these problems is to use self-annotated data, using explicit indications of emotions included by the author of the data in question. This approach has had success with using text emoticons and selected hash tags for sentiment annotation (Davidov et al., 2010) and emotion-specific hash tags for emotion annotation (Mohammad, 2012; Mohammad and Kiritchenko, 2015). We present a study of the use of unicode emoji as self-annotation of a Twitter user's emotional state. Emoji are found to be used far more extensively than hash tags and we argue that they present a more faithful representation of a user's emotional state. We present an evaluation plan including training a supervised emotion detection model and applying it to the SemEval2007 data set as well as manual annotation of a subset of collected tweets.

Keywords: Twitter, hash tags, emotion annotation, emotion detection, emoji, emoticons

1. Previous Work

Purver and Battersby (2012) also use distant supervision labels for detecting Ekman's six emotions in Twitter, in their case hashtags and emoticons. They conduct several experiments to assess the quality of classifier to identify and discriminate between different emotions. A survey reveals that emoticons associated with anger, surprise, and disgust are ambiguous. Generally, they find that emoticons are unreliable labels for most emotions besides happiness and sadness.

In another study, Suttles and Ide (2013) examine hashtags, emoticons, as well as emoji as distantly supervised labels to detect Plutchik's eight emotions, constructing a binary classifier for each pair of polar opposites. In order to create a multi-way classifier, they require four additional neutral binary classifiers.

2. Emotion Expression in Text Only Communication

Facial expressions, voice inflection and body stance are all significant communicators of emotion (Johnston et al., 2015). Indeed research into emotion detection from video and voice has found that arousal (the level of excitement or activation associated with an emotional experience) is difficult to detect in text transcripts, implying that those aspects are not strongly expressed in text. One might think, therefore, that text-only communication would be emotion-poor, containing less expression of emotion than face to face or vocal communication.

Research into text-only communication has, however, found that people find ways to communicate emotion, despite the lack of face, voice and body stance, and that text only communication is no less rich in emotional content than face to face communication (Derks et al., 2008). Other research has found that text emoticons (text sequences that indicate facial expressions, such as “(-:”) produce similar brain responses to faces (Churches et al., 2014), and it is not

unreasonable to expect that facial expression emoji (unicode characters that whose glyphs are small images, such as “😊”) to function similarly.

In recent years, marketing researchers have observed significant and continuing increases in the use of emoji in online media. This increase was not constrained to young internet users, but across all ages. Facial expression emoji have become a common method for emotion communication in online social media that appears to have wide usage across many social contexts, and are thus excellent candidates for the detection of emotions and author-specified labelling of text data.

3. Collecting Emoji Tweets

A selection of commonly used emoji¹ with clear emotional content were hand selected as emotion indicators and tweets that contained at least one of the selected emoji were collected. We used Ekman's emotion classification of six basic emotions (Ekman, 1992) for our experiments. Another common scheme for categorical emotion classification was presented by Plutchik (1980) and includes two extra basic emotions, trust and anticipation, however there were no emoji we considered clearly indicative of these emotions and Previous research found (Suttles and Ide, 2013) that emoji they chose for them are few and unreliable so they were not included here. The selected emoji are indicated in Tables 1 and 2.

There are a few choices and difficulties in selecting these emoji that should be noted. First, it was difficult to identify emoji that clearly indicated disgust. An emoji image with green vomit has been used in some places, including Face Book, however this is not part of the Unicode official emoji set (though is slated for release in 2016) and does not currently appear in Twitter.

The second difficulty concerns the interpretation and popular usage of emoji. All emoji have an intended interpretation (indicated by their description in the official unicode

¹as indicated by <http://emojitracker.com/>

joy	
anger	
disgust	
fear	
sad	
surprise	

Table 1: Selected Emoji

joy	U+1F600, U+1F602, U+1F603, U+1F604, U+1F606, U+1F607, U+1F609, U+1F60A, U+1F60B U+1F60C, U+1F60D, U+1F60E, U+1F60F, U+1F31E, U+263A, U+1F618, U+1F61C, U+1F61D U+1F61B, U+1F63A, U+1F638, U+1F639, U+1F63B, U+1F63C, U+2764, U+1F496, U+1F495 U+1F601, U+2665
anger	U+1F62C, U+1F620, U+1F610, U+1F611, U+1F620, U+1F621, U+1F616, U+1F624, U+1F63E
disgust	U+1F4A9
fear	U+1F605, U+1F626, U+1F627, U+1F631, U+1F628, U+1F630, U+1F640
sad	U+1F614, U+1F615, U+2639, U+1F62B, U+1F629, U+1F622, U+1F625, U+1F62A, U+1F613 U+1F62D, U+1F63F, U+1F494
surprise	U+1F633, U+1F62F, U+1F635, U+1F632

Table 2: Selected Emoji Code Points

list), however it is not guaranteed that their popular usage will align with the description. The choices made in this study were intended as a proof of concept, drawing on the personal experiences of a small group of people. Though these choices are likely to be, on the whole, reasonably accurate, A more thorough analysis of emoji usage through the analysis of associated words and contexts is in order.

The “sample” endpoint of the Twitter public streaming API was used to collect tweets. This endpoint provides a random sample of all tweets produced in twitter. Tweets containing at least one of the selected emoji were retained. The “sample” endpoint is not an entirely unbiased sample, with a substantially smaller proportion of all tweets sampled during times of high traffic (Morstatter et al., 2013). This was considered to be of some benefit for this study, as it reduces the prominence of individual significant effects and associated bias in the collected data.

Twitter has a streaming endpoint to which search phrase can be supplied (the “filter” endpoint), providing only tweets that match the search criteria. This endpoint has two disadvantages: first, you can only search on whole (whitespace delimited) words, and not individual unicode glyphs, thus only emoticons surrounded by whitespace are retrieved. Second the volume of data for an emoji search phrase build from the above list is very large. A substantial data set could be collected in a single day, however this would be subject to biases resulting from the particular trending topics during that day. Collecting a smaller proportion of tweets over a longer period mitigates this problem. As an illustration of the trending topic problem, in our initial experiment with the “filter” endpoint, the most common hash tag (in 35 thousand tweets) was “#mrndmrssotto”, which relates to a prominent wedding in the US Philipino community.

We also considered a set of emotion-related hash tags (similar to in (Mohammad, 2012)), however we found that the number of such tweets was orders of magnitude less than

tweets with our emotion emoji. That combined with the evidence from psychology that connects emoji to emotion expression (see Section 2.) prompted us to focus on emoji for this study.

4. Data Summary

Over a two week collection period, we collected a total of over half a million tweets, of which 190,591 were tagged by Twitter as English. Note that all the tweet counts provided below do not include retweets. These are considered to bias the natural distribution of word frequencies due to the power-law distribution of retweet frequencies and the fact that a retweet contains verbatim text from the original tweet.

5. Evaluation

We carry out two forms of evaluation: Firstly, in section 5.1., we evaluate the quality of classifiers trained using emoji-labeled data; secondly, in section 5.2., we evaluate the quality of the chosen emojis as emotion indicators.

5.1. Evaluation of classifiers

First, we will train support vector machine models on the collected data for each basic emotion. Cross-validation will be carried out on the collected data and a final model will be applied to the SemEval2007 data set (Strapparava and Mihalcea, 2007) then compared to results from that competition as well as cross validation results for the same model trained on SemEval2007 data. Features for these model will include word, ngram, hash tag and emoji tokens as well as emotion scores calculated with the hash tag emotion lexicon (Mohammad, 2012). Note that there is evidence that term usage in social media can be useful for detection of emotions in media such as news articles (Mohammad, 2012).

Note to reviewers: It is unfortunate that we have not been able to perform these evaluations prior to writing this abstract, however we submit in any case due to the important prospect of new and easily obtainable labelled data. It is also likely that during the coming week, at the end of which final papers for the workshop should be completed, that we will complete the automated evaluation and a small manual evaluation. If not, I propose to withdraw the paper and wait for a future venue. This would be a shame, as this workshop would seem the most appropriate venue for this work.

5.2. Evaluation of emojis

For the second evaluation, we selected a random subset of 360 of the collected English tweets. For these, we removed emotion-indicate emojis and created an annotation task asking the annotator to annotate all emotions expressed in the text.

In past research using crowd-sourcing, usually three annotators annotate a tweet. As emotion annotation is notoriously ambiguous, we increased the number of annotators. In total, 17 annotators annotated between 60 and 360 of the provided tweets, providing us with a large sample of different annotations.

For calculating inter-annotator agreement, we use Fleiss’ kappa as this (in contrast to Cohen’s kappa) allows us to

Language	Total	Joy	Sadness	Anger	Fear	Surprise	Disgust
en	190,591	136,623	36,797	7,658	6,060	2,943	510
ja	99,032	68,215	17,397	4,595	4,585	3,631	609
es	65,281	45,809	11,773	3,877	2,532	1,176	114
UNK	56,597	42,535	9,217	1,959	1,624	1,033	229
ar	44,026	29,976	11,216	1,114	1,084	5,72	64
pt	29,259	21,987	4,894	1,208	8,89	233	48
tl	20,438	14,721	4,096	752	656	176	37
in	18,910	13,578	3,175	1,018	738	323	78
fr	13,848	10,567	1,821	651	572	213	24
tr	8,644	6,935	773	419	305	201	11
ko	7,242	5,980	916	142	113	87	4
ru	5,484	4,024	646	411	317	74	12
it	4,086	3,391	376	156	119	34	10
th	3,828	2,461	857	227	156	124	3
de	2,773	2,262	235	119	81	69	7

Table 3: Number of collected tweets per emoji for the top 15 languages (displayed with their ISO 639-1 codes). UNK: unknown language.

take into account (parital) annotations by more than two annotators. We weight each annotation with $6/n_{ij}$ where n_{ij} is the number of emotions annotated by annotator i for tweet j in order to prevent a bias towards annotators that favor multiple emotions. This yields κ of 0.51, which signifies moderate agreement, a value in line with previous reported research.

To gain an understanding of the correlation, between emotions and emojis, we calculate PMI scores between emojis and emotions. We first calculate PMI scores between emojis and the emotion chosen by most annotators per tweet (scores are the ilar fo witeothe selecvtrys, which we show in Table 4.

	Joy	Dis.	Sur.	Fear	Sad.	Ang.	Ø
Joy	.40	-.53	.08	-.59	-.59	-.62	-.12
Dis.	.01	.33	-.11	-.02	-.24	-.27	.17
Sur.	-.49	.31	.64	-1.00	-.03	-.29	.15
Fear	.12	-.16	-.12	.66	-.14	-.07	-.03
Sad.	.11	-.68	-.58	.76	.66	-.37	-.69
Ang.	-.58	.71	-.22	-.13	-.35	.87	.06

Table 4: PMI scores between emojis and emotions chosen by most annotators per tweet. Emoji ↓, emotion →. Ø: No emotion.

Note that among all emojis, emotions are correlated most highly with their corresponding emojis. Anger and – to a lesser degree – surprise emojis are also correlated with disgust, while we observe a high correlation between sadness emojis and fear. Additionally, some emojis that we have associated with sadness and fear seem to be somewhat ambiguous, showcasing a slight correlation with joy.

Calculating PMI scores not only between emojis and those emotions, which have been selected by the most annotators for each tweet, but all selected emotions produces a slightly different picture, which we show in Table 5.

The overall correlations still persist; an investigation of scores where the sign has changed reveals new insights: Surprise and fear are closely correlated now, with surprise

	Joy	Dis.	Sur.	Fear	Sad.	Ang.	Ø
Joy	.32	-.35	.04	-.24	-.56	-.46	-.27
Dis.	-.17	.27	-.36	-.14	.09	.11	.17
Sur.	-.23	.20	.35	.63	-.27	-.13	-.03
Fear	.23	-.31	.29	.31	.16	-.20	.22
Sad.	.16	-.33	-.08	-.13	.26	-.16	-.57
Ang.	-.50	.48	-.15	.09	.21	.61	.06

Table 5: PMI scores between emojis and all annotated emotions. Emoji ↓, emotion →. Ø: No emotion.

emojis showing a strong correlation with fear, while fear emojis are correlated with surprise. This interaction wasn't evident before, having been eclipsed by the prevalence of fear and sadness. Additionally, disgust emojis now show a slight correlation with sadness and anger, fear emojis with sadness, and anger emojis with fear and sadness.

Finally, we calculate precision, recall, and F1 using the emojis contained in each tweet as predicted labels. We calculate scores both using the emotion chosen by most annotators per tweet (as in Table 4) and all emotions (as in Table 5) as gold label and show results in Table 6.

Emotion	P _{top}	R _{top}	F1 _{top}	P _{all}	R _{all}	F1 _{all}
Joy	0.51	0.45	0.48	0.67	0.41	0.51
Disgust	0.13	0.24	0.17	0.33	0.21	0.26
Surprise	0.24	0.33	0.28	0.57	0.29	0.38
Fear	0.03	0.33	0.06	0.13	0.24	0.17
Sadness	0.32	0.45	0.38	0.33	0.17	0.22
Anger	0.21	0.45	0.28	0.39	0.19	0.25

Table 6: Precision, recall, and F1 scores for emojis predicting annotated emotions. _{top}: emotion selected by most annotators used as gold label. _{all}: all emotions chosen by annotators used as gold labels.

As we can see, joy emojis are the best at predicting their corresponding emotion, while fear is generally the most ambiguous. Fear emojis are present in many more tweets that are predominantly associated in fear and even when

taking into account weak associations, only about every eighth tweet containing a fear emoji is also associated with fear. Disgust, anger, and sadness are similarly present in only about every third tweet containing a corresponding emoji, although sadness usually dominates when it is present. While surprise is less often the dominating emotion, its emojis are the second-best emotion indicators in tweets.

6. Conclusion

We have collected a substantial and multilingual data set of tweets containing emotion-specific emoji in a short time. We argue that we can expect these emoji to perform well as ground truth indicators of tweet emotion content and propose evaluations of that claim. The lack of large, quality annotated data for emotion detection in social media and other text is a substantial barrier to continued research efforts in that area, and the approach presented here promises to provide some relief.

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