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SemEval-2022 Task 6: iSarcasmEval, Intended Sarcasm Detection in English and Arabic

Ibrahim Abu Farha¹, Silviu Vlad Oprea¹, Steven R. Wilson¹,³, Walid Magdy¹,²
¹ School of Informatics, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK
² The Alan Turing Institute, London, UK
³ Oakland University, Rochester, MI, USA
{i.abufarha,silviu.oprea,steven.wilson,wmagdy}@ed.ac.uk

Abstract

iSarcasmEval is the first shared task to target intended sarcasm detection: the data for this task was provided and labelled by the authors of the texts themselves. Such an approach minimises the downsides of other methods to collect sarcasm data, which rely on distant supervision or third-party annotations. The shared task contains two languages, English and Arabic, and three subtasks: sarcasm detection, sarcasm category classification, and pairwise sarcasm identification given a sarcastic sentence and its non-sarcastic rephrase. The task received submissions from 60 different teams, with the sarcasm detection task being the most popular. Most of the participating teams utilised pre-trained language models. In this paper, we provide an overview of the task, data, and participating teams.

1 Introduction

Sarcasm is a form of verbal irony that occurs when there is a discrepancy between the literal and intended meanings of an utterance. Through this discrepancy, the speaker expresses their position towards a prior proposition, often in the form of surface contempt or derogation (Wilson, 2006).

Sarcasm is present on the social web and, due to its nature, it can be disruptive of computational systems that harness this data to perform tasks such as sentiment analysis, opinion mining, author profiling, and harassment detection (Liu, 2012; Rosenthal et al., 2014; Maynard and Greenwood, 2014; Van Hee et al., 2018). In the context of SemEval, in particular, Rosenthal et al. (2014) show a significant drop in sentiment polarity classification performance when processing sarcastic tweets, compared to non-sarcastic ones. Such computational systems are widely deployed in industry, driving marketing, administration, and investment decisions (Medhat et al., 2014). In the context of Arabic, Abu Farha and Magdy (2021) show the effect of sarcasm on Arabic sentiment analysis systems, where the performance dropped significantly for the sarcastic tweets. As such, it is imperative to devise models for sarcasm detection.

Such models are usually built in a supervised learning paradigm, relying on a dataset of texts labelled as either sarcastic or non-sarcastic. Two methods have typically been used to label texts for sarcasm: distant supervision (Ptáček et al., 2014; Khodak et al., 2018; Barbieri et al., 2014), where texts are considered sarcastic if they meet predefined criteria, such as including the tag #sarcasm; or manual labelling (Filatova, 2012; Riloff et al., 2013a; Abercrombie and Hovy, 2016), where texts are presented to human annotators. However, as argued by Oprea and Magdy (2020a), both methods could produce noisy labels, in terms of both false positives, and false negatives. For instance, when human annotators label texts, they are limited by their subjective perception of sarcasm, which might differ from the intention of the authors of those texts.

In response, we suggest the current shared task, iSarcasmEval. We rely on a novel method of labelling texts for sarcasm, where the sarcastic nature of texts is self-reported by the authors of those texts. Our shared task is also novel in that it includes two languages, English and Arabic, and includes three subtasks. The first subtask, covering both languages, is sarcasm detection as commonly understood: given a text, determine whether or not it is sarcastic. Next, as the sarcastic texts in our English dataset are also further labelled for the ironic speech category that they represent out of the categories specified by Leggitt and Gibbs (2000), the second subtask is: given an English text, determine which ironic speech category it represents, or whether it is non-sarcastic. Finally, for both languages, we also ask authors to provide

¹iSarcasmEval datasets are available at: https://github.com/iabufarha/iSarcasmEval
non-sarcastic rephrases of their sarcastic texts. As such, the third subtask, covering both languages, is: given a sarcastic text and its non-sarcastic rephrase, identify the sarcastic text.

We discuss related work in dataset creation, and related SemEval tasks, in Section 2. We introduce the data labelling method, and present statistics on the resulted datasets, in Section 3. We provide details on the shared task in Section 4, and on the submissions in Section 5.

2 Related Work

Most previous textual sarcasm detection datasets have been annotated using a distant supervision method. In this approach, texts are considered sarcastic if they meet predefined criteria, such as including specific tags (e.g. #sarcasm, #irony) (Ptáček et al., 2014; Khodak et al., 2018), or being generated by specific accounts (Barbieri et al., 2014). However, this can lead to noisy labels for several reasons. First, the tags may not mark sarcasm, but may constitute the subject or object of conversation, e.g. “there is so much #sarcasm around!””. Second, the assumption that certain tags always appear in conjunction with sarcasm, or that certain accounts always generate sarcasm (Barbieri et al., 2014), could lead to further false positives. Third, considering those texts that do not meet the criteria as non-sarcastic is a strong assumption that can lead to false negatives.

Due to the issues outlined above, other work has relied on manual labelling, where sarcasm labels are provided by human annotators (Filatova, 2012; Riloff et al., 2013a; Abercrombie and Hovy, 2016). As such, the labels represent annotator perception, which may actually differ from author intention. Annotators might lack awareness of the contextual devices that, as linguistic studies suggest (Grice, 1975; Sperber and Wilson, 1981; Utsumi, 2000), could be essential for clarifying the sarcastic intention of the authors.

Previous shared tasks in sarcasm detection (Van Hee et al., 2018; Ghanem et al., 2019; Ghosh and Muresan, 2020; Abu Farha et al., 2021) present datasets annotated via the two methods discussed above. The potential noisy labels that these methods can produce gives us reason to be concerned about the effectiveness of models that were trained on such datasets. Recently, (Shmueli et al., 2020) proposed a third method, reactive supervision, which aims to collect sarcastic examples based on the conversation dynamics, addressing some of these issues by using statements such as “I was being sarcastic” to automatically label texts. However, this method relies on specific cues of sarcasm which may lead to a sample that is biased toward more confusing examples that required clarification.

Further, the vast majority of sarcasm detection work (Campbell and Katz, 2012; Riloff et al., 2013b; Joshi et al., 2016; Wallace et al., 2015; Rajadesingan et al., 2015; Bamman and Smith, 2015; Amir et al., 2016; Hazarika et al., 2018; Oprea and Magdy, 2019) has focused exclusively on the English language and, due to the sociocultural aspects of sarcastic communication (Oprea and Magdy, 2020b), it is unclear if models trained on English could generalise to other languages. To our knowledge, the small amount of work on other languages such as Arabic (Karoui et al., 2017; Ghanem et al., 2019; Abbas et al., 2020; Abu-Farha and Magdy, 2020) relies on either manual labelling or distant supervision. Representative of distant supervision is the work of Karoui et al. (2017), who consider Arabic equivalents of #sarcasm, such as #سخرية, to collect sarcastic tweets. Other work, (Abbas et al., 2020; Ghanem et al., 2019; Abu-Farha and Magdy, 2020; Abu Farha et al., 2021), used either manual labelling, or a mix between manual labelling and distant supervision. When working with Arabic data, these two labelling methods are even more problematic considering the large number of dialects of the language that vary both across and within countries. Relying on predefined tags in modern standard Arabic (MSA), such as those specified above, can thus lead to a plethora of false negatives. Similarly, the third-party annotators might be unfamiliar with the dialect of the texts they are annotating, resulting in erroneous manual labels.

3 Dataset

3.1 Overview

In light of the issues raised in Section 2, we propose the current shared task for sarcasm detection. We introduce a new data collection method where the sarcasm labels for texts are provided by the authors themselves, thus eliminating labelling proxies (in the form of predefined tags, or third-party annotators). We use this method to collect two datasets, one in English and one in Arabic.
Within each dataset, for each sarcastic text, we also ask its author to rephrase the text to convey the same intended message without using sarcasm. Finally, for the English texts, we ask trained annotators to further label each text into one of the categories of ironic speech defined by Leggitt and Gibbs (2000): sarcasm, irony, satire, understatement, overstatement, and rhetorical question. For the Arabic dataset, we also include the dialect label of the text. As such, in both datasets, each text has at least the following information attached to it: (a) a label specifying its sarcastic nature (sarcastic or non-sarcastic), provided by its author; and (b) a rephrase provided by its author that conveys the same message non-sarcastically.

3.2 Data Collection

For both English and Arabic, the sarcasm labels of texts, as well as their non-sarcastic rephrases, are provided by the authors those texts. However, the methods in which we reach authors, and how their texts are sourced, differ slightly across the two languages.

For English texts, we used the Prolific Academic platform to recruit native English speakers who were Twitter users. We asked these participants to provide links to one sarcastic and three non-sarcastic tweets that they had posted in the past. The tweet labels were, thus, implicitly specified by the authors themselves in the process.

To collect Arabic texts, we were unable to find a suitable number of native Arabic speakers through Prolific Academic. Further, through our pilot study, we found that asking for tweets directly resulted in low quality data. Therefore, we used the Appen crowdsourcing platform to recruit native Arabic speakers, and instead of asking for previous tweets, we asked the participants to write a short sarcastic text on the spot. Through our pilot study, we found this on-the-spot generation approach to result in high quality data. However, this methodology only provided us with sarcastic examples. As non-sarcastic examples, we used a subset of the ArSarcasm-v2 dataset (Abu Farha et al., 2021), mainly those tweets that were annotated as non-sarcastic with 100% confidence, i.e. labelled non-sarcastic by all annotators.

For each sarcastic text in both the English and the Arabic datasets, we also asked participants to provide an explanation of why the text was sarcastic, and a rephrase that would convey the same message non-sarcastically. For Arabic, we also collected the dialect label. We included five main dialects: Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), Gulf, Nile Basin, Levant, and North Africa.

While we asked participants to provide examples of sarcastic texts, we found that the provided English texts that reflected a range of different ironic speech categories, not just sarcasm. Therefore, in a second annotation stage, we paid a trained annotator to further label each English-language text with the ironic speech categories that it reflected. We adopted the categorisation presented by Leggitt and Gibbs (2000): (1) sarcasm: contradicts the state of affairs, is directed towards an addressee, and expresses a critical attitude; (2) irony: contradicts the state of affairs, may or may not be directed towards an addressee, but if it is, is not obviously critical towards that addressee; (3) satire: is directed towards and addressee whom it appears to support, but underneath it express disagreement, mocking, contempt, or derogation; (4) understatement: does not contradict the state of affairs, but assigns unrealistically high weight to it; (6) rhetorical question: a question with an implicated answer that contradicts the state of affairs. Note that these categories are not mutually exclusive. A text could belong to more than one category, e.g. it could be both sarcastic, and an understatement. Regarding Arabic, we did not go the next step to include the sarcasm categories. This is because Arabic linguists had similar disagreements regarding the differences between sarcasm and irony (Andalib and Far Shirazi, 2019). Also, it would have been a challenging task to recruit linguists who are familiar with available dialects.

3.3 Test Sets

To construct our test sets, we employed, for both languages, an approach similar to that used to collect training data in Arabic. We chose this method for collecting English test data due to restrictions that were imposed on us by the Prolific Academic crowdsourcing platform on the collection of tweets that belonged directly to survey participants.

3.4 Quality Control

For English, we made sure all tweets were posted at least 48 hours before the survey submission, and came from the same account. Further, a trained an-
Table 1: Examples of sarcastic tweets (tweet text) from our English and Arabic dataset along with the rephrase that authors gave that convey the same meaning non-sarcastically (rephrased).

| Language | Sarcastic text                                                                 | Unsarcastic rephrased                                                                 |
|----------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| EN       | Gotta love people who follow you and unfollow because you don’t follow them within in an hour or 2. Sorry I don’t stay on Twitter 24/7. | I dislike people who follow me, only to unfollow me when I don’t follow back right away. I’m not on Twitter that much to follow right away. |
| AR       | محمد صالح ينقذ سمكة من الغرق, الله يعافيه! (Mo Salah saves a fish from drowning. Amazing manners, ‘you Arabs’ pride) | محمد صالح ينقذ سمكة! (Mohammad Salah holds a fish) |

For Arabic, the data collection was run multiple times during a period of 8 months. In this stage, we managed to collect around 2,000 sarcastic sentences. After manual inspection, we noticed that a large portion of the texts were not truly sarcastic, or that the non-sarcastic phrasing was not informative. Thus, we hired native speakers for each of the dialects to check texts for sarcasm, and to provide or improve the non-sarcastic phrasing, if needed.

4 iSarcasmEval Details

4.1 Task Description

We formulate three subtasks:

- **Subtask A - Sarcasm Detection**: Given a text, determine whether it is sarcastic or non-sarcastic;

- **Subtask B - Sarcasm Category Classification**: Given a text, determine which ironic speech categories it belongs to, if any;

- **Subtask C - Pairwise Sarcasm Identification**: Given a sarcastic text and its non-sarcastic rephrase, i.e. two texts that convey the same meaning, determine which is the sarcastic one.

Subtasks A and C are suggested for both languages. Subtask B is only suggested for English, as we only have ironic speech category labels for English texts.

4.2 iSarcasmEval dataset

The datasets for both languages are provided as a list of texts. Each text is accompanied by a sarcasm label, indicating whether or not it is sarcastic. For sarcastic texts, there is a rephrase that conveys the same message non-sarcastically. For English sarcastic texts, there is a label specifying the category of ironic speech that it reflects. For Arabic texts, there is a label specifying the dialect.

Table 1 shows a sample from our datasets, one in English, and one in Arabic. For English, the training set contains 3,103 sarcastic and 745 non-sarcastic texts, respectively. Recall that each sarcastic text has an associated non-sarcastic rephrase. These 867 rephrases can be used as additional non-sarcastic examples. The division of sarcastic texts into ironic speech categories in the training set is shown in Table 4. There is a separate test set for each subtask. As such, the test set for subtask A contains 200 sarcastic texts, and a total of 1,200 non-sarcastic texts. The same texts, in the same arrangement, constitute the test set for subtask B. The test set for subtask C contains 200 sarcastic texts, along with their 200 non-sarcastic rephrases. These are presented as pairs, the task being to distinguish the sarcastic text from its rephrase. This information is summarised in Table 3 (training set, and test sets for subtasks A and C); and in Table 4 (training set, and test set for subtask B).

For Arabic, the training set contains 3,103 texts, 745 of which are sarcastic. Similar to English, the sarcastic text have their non-sarcastic phrasing too. The test sets are the same size as the English test sets for both subtasks A and C. Table 2 provides a summary of the Arabic dataset splits. Table 5 provides the distribution of the whole dataset over the available dialects. It is noticeable that the majority of the sarcastic examples are in the Egyptian dialect (Nile Basin). In the future, we hope to have a higher coverage of the other dialects.
5.2 Subtask A (Sarcasm Detection) - English

Table 6 shows the results for English. We created two baseline models for subtask A. The first one uses the BERT language model (Devlin et al., 2019) to produce contextual representations of the input text, and considers the embedding corresponding to the [CLS] token as the aggregated representation of the input. Finally, this is provided to a classification head whose output we interpret as the probability that the input is sarcastic. We use the implementation provided as part of the transformers library Wolf et al. (2020), and initialise the encoder with the bert-base-uncased checkpoint published on the Hugging face model hub. We fine-tune it for a maximum of 100 epochs, but use early stopping regularisation with a patience of 3. We use a learning rate of 5e−5, and clip the norm of the gradients to 1. This results in a baseline $F_1$ of 0.348, listed as baseline-bert in Table 6. The second baseline uses a support vector machine (SVM), with a polynomial kernel of degree 3, to classify tf-idf representations of input texts. This results in a baseline $F_1$ of 0.275, listed as baseline-svm in Table 6. For both baselines, we consider the rephrases as additional non-sarcastic examples. In a preprocessing step, we remove all hashtags and urls, and replace user handles with the token @user.

As shown in Table 6, the team ranking first, stce (Yuan et al., 2022), achieved an $F_1$ of 0.605. They use an ensemble learning approach with a combination of hard and soft voting between three models, all based on the transformer architecture: RoBERTa (Liu et al., 2019), initialised with the roberta-large checkpoint; DeBERTa (He et al., 2021), initialised with the deberta-v3-large checkpoint; and XLM-RoBERTa (Conneau et al., 2020), initialised with the xlm-roberta-large checkpoint. XLM-RoBERTa is employed to make use of the Arabic training data for informing the classification of English texts. They experiment with several strategies to achieve their results. First, in addition to the task dataset, they also consider public datasets, including iSarcasm (Oprea and Magdy, 2020a), the dataset published by Van Hee et al. (2018), and a sample of texts from the multimodal sarcasm dataset. Second, they extract statistical

Table 4: Statistics for the English training set, and test set for subtask B, as discussed in Section 4.2.

| split            | sarcasm | irony | satire | underst. | overst. | rhet. quest. |
|------------------|---------|-------|--------|----------|---------|--------------|
| train (subtask B)| 713     | 155   | 25     | 10       | 40      | 10           |
| test             | 180     | 20    | 49     | 1        | 10      | 11           |

Table 5: Distribution of the Arabic dataset over the dialects.

4 https://huggingface.co
5 https://github.com/headacheboy/data-of-multimodal-sarcasm-detection
and text features that they concatenate to the text itself before providing it to the models above, such as emoji and part-of-speech information. They also use multi-sample dropout, contrastive loss functions, and adversarial training.

The team ranking second, X-PuDu (Han et al., 2022), achieved an \( F_{\text{sarcastic}}^1 \) of 0.569. They ensemble two transformer-based models: ERNIE-M (Ouyang et al., 2021), and DeBERTa, mentioned above. After providing the input text to the models, they consider the embedding corresponding to the [CLS] token as the representation of the input, which they provide to a classification head. The final ensemble considers not just the individual architectures above, but also the same architecture under different hyperparameter configurations. Using ERNIE-M, they train on both English and Arabic at the same time.

The team ranking third, TUG-CIC (Aroyehun et al., 2022), achieved an \( F_{\text{sarcastic}}^1 \) of 0.530. They use the BERT model mentioned above, but initialised with different BERTweet checkpoints, which they fine-tune on the SPIRS sarcasm dataset (Shmueli et al., 2020), before fine-tuning it on the data provided here. They also apply label smoothing.

### 5.3 Subtask A (Sarcasm Detection) - Arabic

As mentioned previously, the main metric for subtask A is the F-score of the sarcastic class. Table 7 shows the results for Arabic. The participating teams made extensive use of Arabic pre-trained language models such as MARBERT (Abdul-Mageed et al., 2021). We created two baselines for this task, the first is a Bert-based model and the other is an SVM model. We fine-tuned MARBERT for 6 epochs with a learning rate of 5e-5. For the SVM model, we used uni-gram features. Both models were trained without the non-sarcasm phrasing.

As shown in Table 7, the top team CS-UM6P (El Mahdaouy et al., 2022a) achieved an \( F_{\text{sarcastic}}^1 \) of 0.563. This team utilised a transformer encoder (MARBERT), attention layer, and a classifier. They applied the attention to the contextualised embeddings. The classifier, which is composed of one hidden layer, is fed the concatenation of the pooled output of the encoder and the attention’s output. The official submission was an ensemble of two variants of this model that are trained with and without the non-sarcastic rephrasing. AlexU-AL (Lotfy et al., 2022) achieved the second place with an \( F_{\text{sarcastic}}^1 \) of 0.508. Their results are quite close to our baseline with a small difference that can be attributed to the choice of hyperparameters. The third team, remarchka (Abdel-Salam, 2022), also used MARBERT in a similar way to the baseline and AlexU-AL team. Their results are quite close to the other two models with \( F_{\text{sarcastic}}^1 \) of 0.477. The other teams followed a similar approach where they utilise one of the many flavours of Arabic-specific models or the multilingual ones. A few of the participants relied on hand-engineered features along with conventional classifiers such as SVM and Decision Trees.

### 5.4 Subtask B (Sarcasm Category Classification)

Table 8 shows the results. We created two baseline models for subtask B. The first baseline, listed as baseline-majority in the table, always predicts that the input reflects the ironic speech category of sarcasm, and no other category. This was chosen as it is dominant in the training set, as seen in Table 4. As a second baseline, we use the BERT language model to produce contextual representa-
Table 7: Table 7: Subtask A (Arabic) results in descending order according to the main metric ($F_{\text{sarcastic}}$). The table shows the teams’ names, rank, affiliation, and score.

| Rank | Team Name | Affiliation | $F_{\text{sarcastic}}$ |
|------|-----------|-------------|----------------------|
| 1    | PALI-NLP  | Ping An, China | 0.1630               |
| 2    | CS-UM6P   | Mohammed VI Polytechnic University, Morocco | 0.0875               |
| 3    | MacAmp    | IT University of Copenhagen, Denmark | 0.0873               |
| 4    | LvivUniv  | Lviv National University of Information Technologies, Ukraine | 0.0873               |
| 5    | x-PaSe   | Bank & Shanghai Pudong Development Bank, China | 0.0790               |
| 6    | Plaisir   | Indian Institute of Technology, Chennai | 0.0885               |
| 7    | KAD2     | Kyung Hee University, South Korea | 0.0760               |
| 8    | SherrBats | Indiana Institute of Science Education and Research, India | 0.0740               |
| 9    | MadoA     | Pali Research Center, Iran | 0.0743               |
| 10   | CS-UM6P   | Mohammed VI Polytechnic University, Morocco | 0.0874               |
| 11   | AlexU-AL  | Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt | 0.0699               |
| 12   | YNU-BPCC  | Yunnan University, China | 0.0646               |
| 13   | AlexU-AL  | Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt | 0.0530               |
| 14   | UoR-NCL   | University of Reading, UK | 0.0563               |
| 15   | Devel      | Devel Research Center, Morocco | 0.0550               |
| 16   | MarSan_AI | Part AI Research Center, Iran | 0.0530               |
| 17   | MaChAmp   | Mohammed VI Polytechnic University, Morocco | 0.0523               |
| 18   |andida    | University of Reading, UK | 0.0523               |
| 19   | GUC       | Alexandria University, Egypt | 0.0523               |
| 20   | ExAP      | Chinese Academy of Sciences, China | 0.0523               |
| 21   | PALI      | PALI Inc., China | 0.0523               |
| 22   | NULL      | Auburn University, USA | 0.0523               |
| 23   | Dartmouth | Dartmouth College, USA | 0.0523               |
| 24   | Amrita-CEN | Amrita Veeramachaneni, India | 0.0523               |
| 25   | YNU-UPCC  | Yunnan University, China | 0.0523               |
| 26   | UMIT-eTeam | Universidade de Marca, Spain | 0.0523               |
| 27   | comutation-clusters | University of Tübingen, Germany | 0.0523               |
| 28   | LEV       | Jerusalem College of Technology, Israel | 0.0523               |
| 29   | NIRD-WKIP | IIT Kharagpur, India | 0.0523               |
| 30   | JCT       | Jerusalem College of Technology, Israel | 0.0523               |
| 31   | MACHON    | Jerusalem College of Technology, Israel | 0.0523               |
| 32   | iaT       | Jerusalem College of Technology, Israel | 0.0523               |
| 33   | TechSSN   | Sri Sathyanarayana Nadar College of Engineering, India | 0.0523               |
| 34   | Sarcastic weap | FAST NUCES LHR, Pakistan | 0.0523               |
| 35   | MacSan_Ali | Part AI Research Center, Iran | 0.0523               |
| 36   | -         | -            | 0.0523               |

The complete results are available in Table 11 in Appendix A. Those include the scores over each sarcasm category.

Table 8: Table 8: Subtask B results in descending order according to the main metric (macro $F$-score). The table shows the teams’ names, rank, affiliation, and score.

| Rank | Team Name | Affiliation | macro $F$-score |
|------|-----------|-------------|-----------------|
| 1    | PALI-NLP  | Ping An, China | 0.1630           |
| 2    | CS-UM6P   | Mohammed VI Polytechnic University, Morocco | 0.0875           |
| 3    | MacAmp    | IT University of Copenhagen, Denmark | 0.0873           |
| 4    | LvivUniv  | Lviv National University of Information Technologies, Ukraine | 0.0873           |
| 5    | x-PaSe   | Bank & Shanghai Pudong Development Bank, China | 0.0790           |
| 6    | Plaisir   | Indian Institute of Technology, Chennai | 0.0885           |
| 7    | KAD2     | Kyung Hee University, South Korea | 0.0760           |
| 8    | SherrBats | Indiana Institute of Science Education and Research, India | 0.0740           |
| 9    | MadoA     | Pali Research Center, Iran | 0.0743           |
| 10   | CS-UM6P   | Mohammed VI Polytechnic University, Morocco | 0.0874           |
| 11   | AlexU-AL  | Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt | 0.0699           |
| 12   | YNU-BPCC  | Yunnan University, China | 0.0646           |
| 13   | AlexU-AL  | Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt | 0.0530           |
| 14   | UoR-NCL   | University of Reading, UK | 0.0563           |
| 15   | Devel      | Devel Research Center, Morocco | 0.0550           |
| 16   | MarSan_AI | Part AI Research Center, Iran | 0.0530           |
| 17   | MaChAmp   | Mohammed VI Polytechnic University, Morocco | 0.0523           |
| 18   |andida    | University of Reading, UK | 0.0523           |
| 19   | GUC       | Alexandria University, Egypt | 0.0523           |
| 20   | ExAP      | Chinese Academy of Sciences, China | 0.0523           |
| 21   | PALI      | PALI Inc., China | 0.0523           |
| 22   | NULL      | Auburn University, USA | 0.0523           |
| 23   | Dartmouth | Dartmouth College, USA | 0.0523           |
| 24   | Amrita-CEN | Amrita Veeramachaneni, India | 0.0523           |
| 25   | YNU-UPCC  | Yunnan University, China | 0.0523           |
| 26   | UMIT-eTeam | Universidade de Marca, Spain | 0.0523           |
| 27   | comutation-clusters | University of Tübingen, Germany | 0.0523           |
| 28   | LEV       | Jerusalem College of Technology, Israel | 0.0523           |
| 29   | NIRD-WKIP | IIT Kharagpur, India | 0.0523           |
| 30   | JCT       | Jerusalem College of Technology, Israel | 0.0523           |
| 31   | MACHON    | Jerusalem College of Technology, Israel | 0.0523           |
| 32   | iaT       | Jerusalem College of Technology, Israel | 0.0523           |
| 33   | TechSSN   | Sri Sathyanarayana Nadar College of Engineering, India | 0.0523           |
| 34   | Sarcastic weap | FAST NUCES LHR, Pakistan | 0.0523           |
| 35   | MacSan_Ali | Part AI Research Center, Iran | 0.0523           |
| 36   | -         | -            | 0.0523           |

The team ranking third, MacAmp, achieved a macro $F$-score of 0.0851. They first we pre-train a RemBERT (Chung et al., 2020) multi-task model across all the tasks. Then, they re-train a model for each task individually. They use the hyperparameters of MacAmp v0.3 (van der Goot et al., 2021), which were finetuned on the xTREME benchmark (Hu et al., 2020).

5.5 Subtask C (Pairwise Sarcasm Identification) - English

Table 9 shows the results for English. We used baselines similar to those from subtask A, but modified the input. Specifically, given a sarcastic text and its rephrase, we produced two training examples. The first was the concatenation of the sarcastic text and the rephrase, in this order, separated by a [SEP] token. This example had label 0, indicating the position of the sarcastic text. The second example was the concatenation of the rephrase and the sarcastic text, in this order, and had label 1. The first baseline, shown as baseline-bert in Table 9, achieves an accuracy of 0.765, while the second baseline-bert in Table 9, achieves an accuracy of 0.765, while the second...
Table 9: Subtask C (English) results in descending order according to the main metric (accuracy). The table shows the teams’ names, rank, affiliation, and score.

| Rank | Team Name     | Affiliation                               | Accuracy |
|------|---------------|-------------------------------------------|----------|
| 1    | X-PuDu        | Baidu, China                              | 0.870    |
| 2    | Naive         | Dalian University of Technology, China    | 0.855    |
| 3    | Plutoria       | Indian Institute of Technology Kanpur, India | 0.805    |
| 4    | LISAC TEAM    | Suk Moreover Ben Abdallah University, Morocco | 0.775    |
| 5    | UTNLP         | University of Tehran, Iran                | 0.750    |
| 6    | MarSan.AI     | Pan AI Research Center, Iran              | 0.740    |
| 7    | baseline-svm  |                                          | 0.740    |
| 8    | R2D2          | Villous Institute of Technology, India    | 0.750    |
| 9    | NAREDSKOP     | HT Khargpur, India                        | 0.750    |
| 10   | remata.sca     | Cairo University, Egypt                   | 0.720    |
| 11   | CS-UMLP       | Mohammed VI Polytechnic University, Morocco | 0.805    |
| 12   | Dartmouth     | Dartmouth College, USA                    | 0.640    |
| 13   | INSEERI Brain  | Indian Institute of Science Education and Research, Bengaluru, India | 0.625 |
| 14   | sarcasm weeps | FAST NUCES LHR, Pakistan                  | 0.485    |
|      | baseline-svm  |                                          | 0.495    |
| 15   | Sarcastic weeps | Monashoh Sondasargarn Engineering College, Chennai, India | 0.344 |
| 16   | Mølckamp      | IT University of Copenhagen, Denmark      | 0.250    |

As shown in Table 9, the team ranking first, X-PuDu (Han et al., 2022), achieved an accuracy of 0.870. The same team ranked second for task A, and the approach here is rather similar, except for representing the input as we do above. The team ranking second, Naive, achieved an accuracy of 0.855. They used a RoBERTa model, initialised with the RoBERTa-large checkpoint, with a classification head appended. The team ranking third, YNU-HPCC (Zheng et al., 2022), achieved an accuracy of 0.805. They also used a RoBERTa model. They did not use any external datasets during training. We suspect the difference in performance between the second and third teams to be, at least in part, the result of data preprocessing and hyperparameter optimisation.

5.6 Subtask C (Pairwise Sarcasm Identification) - Arabic

Table 10 shows the results of this task. To prepare the baselines, we utilised the models from subtask A. Since the task is to decide which text is sarcastic out of the given pair, we ran the models from subtask A on each sentence and chose the one that had the higher probability of being sarcastic. The top team, Naive (Zefeng et al., 2022), achieved an accuracy of 0.930. They utilised the model created for subtask A, where they would compare the probabilities for each sentence and choose the one with a higher probability. Their model in subtask A relied on the voting of a 5 folds cross-validation of a Bert model. High-tech team (Hamza et al., 2022) achieved the second place with an accuracy of 0.885. They fine-tuned AraBERT (Antoun et al., 2020) on the concatenation of the sarcastic sentence and its non-sarcastic phrasing. The third team, MarSan_AI (Najafi and Tavan, 2022), achieved an accuracy of 0.875. Their model consisted of a T5 encoder (Raffel et al., 2020) followed by a transformer and Bi-LSTM, the output of the Bi-LSTM is fed to an attention layer followed by a fully connected layer. The final prediction is the softmax of the output from the fully connected layer. The other teams followed the same trend where they utilised the models from subtask A for this task. Most of these models are transformer-based models such as MARBERT and AraBERT.

In general, it is noticeable that the results on Arabic are slightly higher than the ones on English. This can be due to the slight difference in the nature of the data. As mentioned in Section 3.2, the English data are original tweets that the authors wrote before our data collection process. The Arabic data was collected on the fly, and therefore more likely to contain clear signs of sarcasm as the authors were specifically asked to provide new sarcastic and non-sarcastic phrasings.

6 Conclusion

This paper provides an overview of SemEval-2022 task 6, iSarcasmEval, which targets intended sarcasm detection. We provide an overview of the current state of research on sarcasm detection focusing on data collection methods. We introduce two new datasets for sarcasm detection in English and Arabic. The data was collected by asking people to provide and label their own words as sarcastic or not, hence intended sarcasm. iSarcasmEval contains three subtasks: sarcasm detection, sarcasm category classification, and sarcasm identification given a pair of sentences. The task was quite popular with the participation of around 62 teams. In this paper, we provide a high-level overview of the approaches of top teams in each of the subtasks. Transformer models were dominant in all subtasks.

Table 10: Subtask C (Arabic) results in descending order according to the main metric (accuracy). The table shows the teams’ names, rank, affiliation, and score.

| Rank | Team Name          | Affiliation                               | Accuracy |
|------|-------------------|-------------------------------------------|----------|
| 1    | Naive             | Dalian University of Technology, China    | 0.930    |
| 2    | IEEE-TECH Team   | High Technology School, Morocco           | 0.885    |
| 3    | MarSan.AI        | Pan AI Research Center, Iran              | 0.875    |
| 4    | Plutoria          | Indian Institute of Technology Kanpur, India | 0.870    |
| 5    | X-PuDu            | Basic & Shanghai Pudong Development Bank, China | 0.840    |
| 6    | remata.sca        | Cairo University, Egypt                   | 0.800    |
| 7    | CS-UMLP           | Mohammed VI Polytechnic University, Morocco | 0.780    |
| 8    | YNU-HPCC          | Yunnan University, China                  | 0.755    |
| 9    | Acelti-Al         | Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt  | 0.745    |
| 10   | Dartmouth         | Dartmouth College, USA                    | 0.665    |
| 11   | NAREDSKOP         | IT Khargpur, India                        | 0.585    |
| 12   | sarcasm weeps     | FAST NUCES LHR, Pakistan                  | 0.465    |
| 13   | Mølckamp          | IT University of Copenhagen, Denmark      | 0.200    |
Detecting sarcasm in texts remains challenging; detecting the ironic speech category even more so. We hope our shared task will draw the attention of the community towards these important tasks. We suggest two main directions that future work could consider.

First, in this shared task, sarcasm detection was performed by solely mining lexical and pragmatic cues from the texts being classified. However, the sarcastic intention of the authors might be unclear without reference to their previous utterances, and their sociocultural background (Oprea and Magdy, 2020b). We suggest future datasets are needed to provide access to such information, and future models that account for it effectively.

Second, the low performance achieved by the models on subtask B requires further investigation. First, alternative categorisations could be considered. Second, the ironic speech category labels should either be provided by the authors themselves, to avoid any bias introduced by trained annotators, or more emphasis should be placed on annotator training and annotation guideline clarity, to mitigate labelling noise that might indeed account, at least in part, for the low performance presented here. Finally, more effort is needed to develop more effective models, likely making use of information outside of the texts being classified, including prior assumptions about the nature of ironic speech, sociocultural information about the authors, if available, as well as commonsense facts.

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A Appendix A

Table 11 shows the complete results for subtask B.
| Rank | Team Name | Affiliation(s) | macro F-score | F1-Sarcasm | F1-irony | F1-satire | F1-understatement | F1-overstatement | F1-rhetorical question |
|------|-----------|----------------|----------------|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|
| 1    | PALI-NLP  | Ping An, China | 0.1630         | 0.4628     | 0.1885    | 0.0667    | 0.0000          | 0.0870          | 0.1758                |
| 2    | CS-UMHP   | Mohammed VI Polytechnic University, Morocco | 0.0879 | 0.2514 | 0.1622 | 0.0782 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0023 |
| 3    | MCIChimp  | IT University of Copenhagen, Denmark | 0.0851 | 0.2404 | 0.0967 | 0.1179 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0075 |
| 4    | Nanze     | Dalian University of Technology, China | 0.0809 | 0.2570 | 0.1449 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0092 |
| 5    | X-PenC   | Bank & Shanghai Pudong Development Bank, China | 0.0799 | 0.2271 | 0.1865 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0840 |
| 6    | Phmnet   | Indian Institute of Technology Kanpur, India | 0.0778 | 0.2251 | 0.1266 | 0.0263 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0899 |
| 7    | Vsc2      | Vellore Institute of Technology, India | 0.0760 | 0.2400 | 0.0523 | 0.1387 | 0.0034 | 0.0000 | 0.0559 |
| 8    | ISBRR-Brun | Indian Institute of Science Education and Research, India | 0.0751 | 0.2294 | 0.0643 | 0.0673 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0414 |
| 9    | MurSan_A3 | Part AI Research Center, Iran | 0.0743 | 0.1981 | 0.0653 | 0.0733 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.1061 |
| 10   | IE2       | Universidad de Huelva, Spain | 0.0699 | 0.2430 | 0.0405 | 0.0600 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.1260 |
| 11   | YNU-RPCC | Yunnan University, China | 0.0648 | 0.2582 | 0.0777 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0520 |
| 12   | John Thom | University of Alberta, Canada | 0.0601 | 0.2039 | 0.1569 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 13   | AME_UoA  | University of Alberta, Canada | 0.0601 | 0.2039 | 0.1569 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 14   | Dartmouth | Dartmouth College, USA | 0.0590 | 0.2293 | 0.0202 | 0.0624 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0143 |
| 15   | Ameria-CEN | Amrita Vidya Vidyapeetham, India | 0.0567 | 0.2180 | 0.0293 | 0.0061 | 0.0074 | 0.0000 | 0.0159 |
| 16   | carnatica | Caru University, Egypt | 0.0560 | 0.2251 | 0.0295 | 0.0046 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0161 |
| 17   | IITMNN   | Sree Narayana Gurukulam College of Engineering, India | 0.0485 | 0.2274 | 0.0282 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0157 |
| 18   | NARDKKGP | IIT Kanpur, India | 0.0446 | 0.2281 | 0.0282 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0112 |
|      | baseline-abt | - | 0.0431 | 0.1930 | 0.1667 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0597 |
| 19   | GitSmartSEC | Meraikabi Sundarajan Engineering College, Chennai, India | 0.0387 | 0.2521 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
|      | nikes     | - | 0.0380 | 0.2278 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
|      | baseline-majority | - | 0.0380 | 0.2279 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 20   | Salarb-Ahmezah | - | 0.0364 | 0.2079 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |
| 21   | sarcastic-wraps | FAST NUCES LHR, Pakistan | 0.0313 | 0.1518 | 0.0377 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 |

Table 11: Subtask B results in descending order according to the main metric (macro F-score). The table shows the teams’ names, rank, affiliation, and score for each class.