XLM-EMO: Multilingual Emotion Prediction in Social Media Text

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Abstract

Detecting emotion in text allows social and computational scientists to study how people behave and react to online events. However, developing these tools for different languages requires data that is not always available. This paper collects the available emotion detection datasets across 19 languages. We train a multilingual emotion prediction model for social media data, XLM-EMO. The model shows competitive performance in a zero-shot setting, suggesting it is helpful in the context of low-resource languages. We release our model to the community so that interested researchers can directly use it.

1 Introduction

Emotion Detection is an important task for Natural Language Processing and for Affective Computing. Indeed, several resources and models have been proposed (Alm et al., 2005; Abdul-Mageed and Ungar, 2017; Nozza et al., 2017; Xia and Ding, 2019; Demszky et al., 2020; inter alia) for this task. These models can be used by social and computational scientists (Verma et al., 2020; Kleinberg et al., 2020; Huguet Cabot et al., 2020) to better understand how people react to events through the use of social media. However, these methods often require large training sets that are not always available for low-resource languages. Nonetheless, multilingual methods (Wu and Dredze, 2019) have risen across the entire field showing powerful few-shot and zero-shot capabilities (Bianchi et al., 2021b; Nozza, 2021).

In this short paper, we introduce a new resource: XLM-EMO. XLM-EMO is a model for multilingual emotion prediction on social media data. We collected datasets for emotion detection in 19 different languages and mapped the labels of each dataset to a common set \{joy, anger, fear, sadness\} that is then used to train the model. We show that XLM-EMO is capable of maintaining stable performances across languages and it is competitive against language-specific baselines in zero-shot settings.

We believe that XLM-EMO can be of help to the community as emotion prediction is becoming an interesting and relevant task in NLP; the addition of a multilingual model that can perform zero-shot emotion prediction can be of help for many low-resource languages that still do not have a dataset for emotion detection.

Contributions

We release XLM-EMO which is a multilingual emotion detection model for social media text. XLM-EMO shows competitive zero-shot capabilities on unseen languages. We release the model in two versions a base and a large to adapt to different possible use-cases. We make the models\(^1\) and the code to train it freely available under a Python package that can be directly embedded in novel data analytics pipelines.\(^2\)

2 Data and Related Work

We surveyed the literature to understand which datasets are available in the literature and with which kinds of emotions. Details on how we operate on this data can be found in the Appendix, here we give an overview of the transformation pipeline we have adopted and which datasets have been included.

\(^1\)Models can be found at https://huggingface.co/MilaNLProc/

\(^2\)See https://github.com/MilaNLProc/xlm-emo, where we also release other details for replication.
The datasets we have collected and used in this paper are presented in Table 1 with the method of annotation and the linguistic family of the language. Figure 1 shows instead the class distribution.

We describe here the general guidelines we have used to create this dataset, readers can find details for each dataset in the Appendix. For all the datasets we removed the emotions that are not in the set joy, anger, fear, sadness (e.g., Cortiz et al. (2021), Vasantharajan et al. (2022), Shome (2021) used the 27 emotions from GoEmotion (Demszky et al., 2020) and we just collected the subset of our emotions). We have some exceptions to Twitter data, as the Tamil dataset Vasantharajan et al. (2022) contains YouTube comments.

Some data was impossible to reconstruct because the tweets do not exist anymore and thus only a subset is still available (e.g., Korean (Do and Choi, 2015)). For some languages, we decided to apply undersampling in order to limit the skewness of the final distribution (e.g., both Shome (2021) and Cortiz et al. (2021) provide dozens of thousands of tweets). To simplify reproducibility, we will release the exact data extraction scripts that we have used to collect our data.

There are papers that we have not included in our research: Vijay et al. (2018) introduce a Hindi dataset that contains Hindi-English code switched text. However, Hindi is Romanized and only a few of this data has been used to pre-train XLM. Sabri et al. (2021) released a collection of Persian tweets annotated with emotions, however, their data has not been evaluated in a training task and thus we decided not to include it in our training. We also found a dataset for Japanese Danielewicz-Betz et al. (2015), however, the dataset is not publicly available.

French and German are collected through the translation of Spanish (Mohammad et al., 2018) tweets using DeepL. For Chinese, we use the messages found in the NLPCC dataset (Wang et al., 2018). Note that this dataset has some internal code-switching.

The most similar work to ours is the work by Lamprinidis et al. (2021). Lamprinidis et al. (2021) introduces a dataset collected through distant supervision on Facebook and covers 6 main languages for training and a set of 12 other languages that can be used for testing. We will run a comparison with this model in Section 3.3.

| Language | Anger | Joy | Sadness | Fear |
|----------|-------|-----|---------|------|
| Arabic   | 816   | 1072| 657     | 312  |
| Bengali  | 1037  | 1453| 1303    | 951  |
| English  | 1892  | 3347| 1059    | 630  |
| Spanish  | 1523  | 1820| 941     | 457  |
| Filipino | 67    | 165 | 72      | 20   |
| French   | 1523  | 1790| 937     | 456  |
| German   | 1522  | 1798| 936     | 457  |
| Hindi    | 661   | 559 | 501     | 269  |
| Indonesian | 1100 | 1012| 996     | 646  |
| Italian  | 909   | 724 | 293     | 103  |
| Malay    | 194   | 186 | 137     | 183  |
| Portuguese | 366  | 132 | 259     | 241  |
| Romanian | 724   | 785 | 701     | 705  |
| Russian  | 133   | 1024| 1066    | 255  |
| Tamil    | 801   | 2101| 655     | 92   |
| Turkish  | 787   | 796 | 787     | 782  |
| Vietnamese | 440  | 1772| 1033    | 348  |
| Chinese  | 374   | 1523| 769     | 405  |
| Korean   | 108   | 110 | 196     | 32   |

Figure 1: Label distribution. German, French have different numbers because some API translations failed.

3 Experiments

We perform three different experiments. The first one is meant to show the performance of XLM-EMO across the different languages. The second one evaluates how well XLM-EMO works on a zero-shot task in which data from one language is held out; we focus on testing three languages: English, Arabic, and Vietnamese. The third evaluation shows the performance of XLM-EMO on additional datasets different from those used for training on which we compare our model with other state-of-the-art models.

3.1 Performance on Test Set

We fine-tune 3 different models: XLM-RoBERTa-base (Conneau et al., 2020), XLM-RoBERTa-large (Conneau et al., 2020) and Twitter-XLM-RoBERTa (Barbieri et al., 2021). The first two are trained on data from 100 languages while the latter is a fine-tuned version of XLM-RoBERTa-base on Twitter data.

We use 10% for validation (we evaluate the
Table 1: Languages used in this work

| Language | Reference                  | Method          | Family         |
|----------|----------------------------|-----------------|----------------|
| English  | Mohammad et al. (2018)     | Manual Annotation | Indo-European |
| Spanish  | Mohammad et al. (2018)     | Manual Annotation | Indo-European |
| Arabic   | Mohammad et al. (2018)     | Manual Annotation | Afroasiatic    |
| French   |                            | Translation     | Indo-European |
| German   |                            | Translation     | Indo-European |
| Chinese  | Wang et al. (2018)         | Manual Annotation | Sino-Tibetan  |
| Korean   | Do and Choi (2015)         | Manual Annotation | Koreanic      |
| Romanian | Ciobotaru and Dinu (2021)  | Manual Annotation | Indo-European |
| Russian  | Shoey et al. (2020)        | Manual Annotation | Indo-European |
| Indonesian | Saputri et al. (2018) | Manual Annotation | Austronesian  |
| Bengali  | Iqbal et al. (2022)        | Manual Annotation | Indo-European |
| Italian  | Bianchi et al. (2021a)     | Manual Annotation | Indo-European |
| Portuguese | Cortiz et al. (2021)  | Distant Supervision | Indo-European |
| Turkish  | Güven et al. (2020)        | Distant Supervision | Turkic      |
| Filipino | Lapitan et al. (2016)      | Manual Annotation | Austronesian  |
| Malay    | Husein (2018)              | Distant Supervision | Austronesian |
| Hindi    | Shome (2021)               | Translation     | Indo-European |
| Vietnamese | Ho et al. (2019)          | Manual Annotation | Austroasiatic |
| Tamil    | Vasantharajan et al. (2022) | Manual Annotation   | Dravidian    |

Table 2: Comparison between the language-specific models, the zero-shot XLM-EMO and an XLM-EMO that has been trained also on the additional data used for language-specific models plus all the other languages. Results are computed over the average of 5 different seeds.

| Model         | ME   | EE-EN | EE-ES |
|---------------|------|-------|-------|
| XLM-EMO       | 0.62 | 0.66  | 0.73  |
| LS-EMO        | 0.58 | 0.44  | -     |
| UJ-Combi      | 0.35 | 0.52  | 0.51  |

Table 3: Results on the Out of Domain test. XLM-EMO performs better than the selected baseline.

For all languages but Korean and Filipino, the performance is reliable. This is probably because both do not occur frequently in the training data. It should be noted that also Chinese and Tamil have a performance that is slightly above 0.6 with the large model. Considering these results, we will refer to the fine-tuned XLM-RoBERTa-large as XLM-EMO and we will use it in the rest of the paper.

3.2 Zero-shot Tests

We run 3 zero-shot comparisons to show the model performance on unseen languages. We select Arabic, English, and Vietnamese. Target language data is split into training and test (80/20). A language-specific model is trained (we again select the best model based on checkpoints on validation that is 10% of the training data). We use language-specific BERT-large for all the three languages. For all languages but Korean and Filipino, the performance is reliable. This is probably because both do not occur frequently in the training data. It should be noted that also Chinese and Tamil have a performance that is slightly above 0.6 with the large model. Considering these results, we will refer to the fine-tuned XLM-RoBERTa-large as XLM-EMO and we will use it in the rest of the paper.

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We also use an XLM-EMO trained on all the languages plus the 80% training data also used for the language-specific model. Results in Table 2 show that XLM-EMO is competitive in the zero-shot settings. Still, language-specific models beat both the zero-shot and the model with additional training data. On English data, XLM-EMO Trained seems to show better performance than the language-specific model, but this is probably because in language-specific datasets some English data might still be present.

3.3 Comparison with Available Models

We compare how XLM-EMO (large) behaves against out-of-training data to better understand if it generalizes well in other domains. In this test, we use other models to see how they perform in comparison with our XLM-EMO.

As datasets, we use the MultiEmotion Italian dataset (ME) (Sprugnoli, 2020) that contains YouTube and Facebook comments annotated with emotions (we collect only the comments with emotions that overlap with ours) and the EmoEvent dataset (EE) in English and Spanish (Plaza del Arco et al., 2020). For both datasets we filtered out only the text that has been annotated with one of the labels we also use.

Respectively, as language-specific competitors (LS-EMO), we use the FEEL-IT (Bianchi et al., 2021a) as found on HuggingFace and EmoNet Abdul-Mageed and Ungar (2017) as found on GitHub. In addition, we also compare with the multilingual baseline Universal Joy (UJ) (Lamprinidis et al., 2021), using their combi model that has been trained on 6 languages (English, Spanish, Portuguese, Tagalog, Indonesian, and Chinese); note that, Italian has not been seen by the UJ model during training.

EmoNet and UJ predict additional emotions. To be as a fair as possible, we filter out the missing emotions from the predicted logits so that both models predict only joy, anger, sadness, and fear. The results in Table 3 show that XLM-EMO is the best performing model.

4 Limitations

Unfortunately, we have not been able to find datasets for emotions detection in any of the African Languages. Moreover, automatic translation tools do not often cover African languages or

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7Similar conclusions have been reached by Nozza et al. (2020).
8We could not find another Spanish model to test against this data since the Spanish emotion recognition model (Pérez et al., 2021a,b) is trained on this data.
9https://huggingface.co/MilaNLProc/feel-it-italian-emotion
10https://github.com/UBC-NLP/EmoNet
they do not provide reliable evidence of being able to provide those translations with a certain level of quality. We reached out to members of our community to understand if there was any work that we were not aware of but we did not find any. Further iterations of this resource might want to focus on those languages.

5 Conclusion

In this short paper, we propose XLM-EMO, a novel resource for emotion detection. The model shows stable performance across 19 languages and it is competitive in a zero-shot setting, supporting its usage in low-resource contexts. We plan to enrich this model with more languages as soon as we find them so that we can continually improve these results and offer better methods to the community.

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Ethical Considerations

There is still a mismatch in the adoption of the methods we release and our understanding of them (Bianchi and Hovy, 2021). We are releasing a resource for multi-lingual emotion detection, but any list of language resources runs the risk of being (mis)interpreted as exhaustive, with languages included being regarded as more important than those that are not. We would like to emphatically state that this is not the case here: we tried to include as many languages as possible to allow for a wide comparison and provide a basis for further research. Any omission should not be read as a value judgment.

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| Param          | Value |
|---------------|-------|
| Batch Size    | 64    |
| Warm Up Steps | 50    |
| Learning Rate | 1e-3  |
| Learning Epochs* | 5     |
| Optimizer     | AdamW |
| Betas         | 0.9 and 0.999 |
| Max Length    | 100   |

Table 4: The main parameters we used to run the models. *While epochs are 5, we remark that we are running a step-wise evaluation.*

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A Training Details

A.1 Parameters

All the models are trained with the same pipeline. We report the shared parameters in Table 4. The only difference can be found in the experiments presented in Section 3.2, the zero-shot tests. Since the language-specific datasets contain less data, we reduced the number of steps for which we run the evaluation and create a checkpoint (i.e, we evaluate every 5 steps).

The loss we use is weighted with respect to the frequency of each label.

This configuration was obtained after several grid search experiments, we found that one of the parameter that impacts the most the training of large configurations of the models is the batch size. Models are trained on a Nvidia GeForce RTX 2080 Ti.

A.2 Pre-processing

We align our pre-processing to the one described in *(Barbieri et al., 2021)*, replacing user tags with
@user and links with http. For those datasets that had a different pre-processing (e.g., some datasets used @username to replace user tags) we applied a normalization procedure to align them with our pre-processing.

PhoBERT Note that the Vietnamese model requires a particular pre-processing pipeline: as suggested by the authors on their own GitHub page, for this specific model we apply segmentation on the Vietnamese text.

B Dataset Details

In general, when a message is annotated with multiple emotions we remove it from the dataset. When a dataset comes with multiple emotions that could overlap (e.g., joy and enthusiasm), we just select the emotions of our interest and we do not apply any mapping (e.g., treating enthusiasm messages as joy). This is done to avoid bias in the final collection.

We are going to release also our entire processing pipeline (that is mainly based on data transformations) so that interested researchers can re-run it. Note that all the samplings we do have been run with a fixed seed so that they are reproducible.

Arabic This data come from the Affects In Tweet dataset (Mohammad et al., 2018). We combine train, validation and test in a single dataset but we drop emotions that are not covered by our set of emotions.

Bengali This dataset contains data coming from a different source, such as youtube comments and Facebook posts. We only take the messages with emotions that are part of our set.

English This data come from the Affects In Tweet dataset (Mohammad et al., 2018). We combine train, validation and test in a single dataset but we drop emotions that are not covered by our set of emotions.

Spanish This data come from the Affects In Tweet dataset (Mohammad et al., 2018). We combine train, validation and test in a single dataset but we drop emotions that are not covered by our set of emotions.

Filipino This is one of the languages with a lower amount of data. The number of tweets in Filipino (Lapitan et al., 2016) was already low in the original work (i.e., 647) and the final number is even lower since we removed the emotions that do not overlap with ours.

French For this language, we translated the training data that comes from the Spanish subset of the Affects In Tweet dataset (Mohammad et al., 2018).

German For this language, we translated the training data that comes from the Spanish subset of the Affects In Tweet dataset (Mohammad et al., 2018).

Hindi This dataset comes from a translation of the original GoEmotion dataset (Demszky et al., 2020). We just selected the emotions we are interested in and removed the others. Since this dataset has been translated with Google API we opted for sampling only 2000 examples not to bias the representation too much.

Indonesian We collected this dataset directly from the authors work (Saputri et al., 2018), we dropped the love emotions and we mapped happy to our emotion joy.

Italian This dataset comes from the work of Bianchi et al. (2021a), their labels overlap with ours.

Malyan We were slightly less confident on the quality of the annotations of this dataset and we thus sampled 200 messages for each emotion.

Portuguese This dataset has been collected using a keyword search of terms related to emotions. We focus only on our target emotions and randomly sample a maximum of 1000 tweets. This is done because the keyword used for the emotions are few and we would like to avoid biasing the actual representation.

Romanian This dataset (Ciobotaru and Dinu, 2021) has been collected by scraping Twitter using specific keywords. The emotions considered are 5, where the additional one is neutral, which we remove. As our data, we used both the training and the validation data released by the authors.

Russian We mainly focused on Twitter data and from the Russian dataset Sboev et al. (2020) we extract only the data that comes from Twitter. We remove the tweets with neutral label.

Tamil The Tamil dataset contains YouTube comments and we use the training dataset described by the authors. We decided to remove the long tail of
messages that have more than 30 tokens to make the dataset more consistent with the other datasets. Our labels are a subset of the labels described in the paper and we take only the messages with those labels.

**Turkish** The Turkish dataset contains 5 emotions, one of which is *surprise* that was removed from our datasets.

**Vietnamese** This dataset contains youtube comments and has been manually annotated. We drop the emotions that are not covered in our dataset.

**Chinese** This dataset comes from the challenge described by (Wang et al., 2018). It contains Chinese messages, some of which contain English words (it is a code-switching dataset).

**Korean** The Korean dataset contains tweets that we reconstructed using the Twitter API. Since the release of the dataset, most tweets have been deleted or are not available anymore for other reasons. The dataset contains the *Neutral* label that we filter out. The other labels easily map onto ours.