

# Sentiment Analysis in Social Streams

Hassan Saif, F. Javier Ortega, Miriam Fernández and Iván Cantador

**Abstract** In this chapter, we review and discuss the state of the art on sentiment analysis in social streams—such as web forums, microblogging systems, and social networks, aiming to clarify how user opinions, affective states, and intended emotional effects are extracted from user generated content, how they are modeled, and how they could be finally exploited. We explain why sentiment analysis tasks are more difficult for social streams than for other textual sources, and entail going beyond classic text-based opinion mining techniques. We show, for example, that social streams may use vocabularies and expressions that exist outside the mainstream of standard, formal languages, and may reflect complex dynamics in the opinions and sentiments expressed by individuals and communities.

## 7.1 Introduction

Sentiment Analysis is the field of study that analyzes the people's attitudes toward entities—individuals, organizations, products, services, events, and topics, and their attributes [36]; The attitudes may correspond to personal opinions and evaluations, affective states (sentiments and moods), or intended emotional effects. It represents a large problem space, covering different tasks, such as subjectivity identification, sentiment extraction and analysis, and opinion mining, to name a few.

---

H. Saif

Knowledge Media Institute, Milton Keynes, UK

e-mail: h.saif@open.ac.uk

F.J. Ortega

Universidad de Sevilla, Seville, Spain

e-mail: javierortega@us.es

M. Fernández

Knowledge Media Institute, Milton Keynes, UK

e-mail: m.fernandez@open.ac.uk

I. Cantador (✉)

Universidad Autónoma de Madrid, Madrid, Spain

e-mail: ivan.cantador@uam.es

Although some of the above tasks have been addressed on multimodal data sources—e.g., sentiment extraction in audio and video, from its origins, sentiment analysis has mainly focused on textual data sources [48]. Hence, it commonly refers to the use of natural language processing, text analysis, and computational linguistics to extract and exploit subjective information from text materials. In Chaps. 2 and 4 the reader can find overviews of the state of the art in affective information representation and acquisition for various modalities.

With the advent of the Social Web, the amount of text material is huge and grows exponentially every day. The Web is a source of up-to-date, never-ending streams of user-generated content; people communicate online with contacts in social networks, create or upload multimedia objects in online sharing sites, post comments, reviews and ratings in blogs and recommender systems, contribute to wiki-style repositories, and annotate resources in social tagging platforms.

The Web thus provides unstructured information about user opinions, moods and emotions, and tastes and interests, which may be of great utility to others, including consumers, companies, and governments. Hence, for instance, someone who wants to buy a camera may look in web forums for online opinions and reviews about different brands and models, while camera manufacturers implicitly/explicitly get feedback from customers to improve their products, and adapt their marketing strategies. Very interestingly, this information can go beyond reflecting the users' subjective evaluations and sentiments about entities and their changes over time, by triggering chains of reactions and new events. For instance, identifying the overall concern, expressed in social media, on certain political decision may impact the modification or rejection of such decision.

The interest and potential exploitation of sentiment analysis in *social streams*—understood as social media in which user-generated content emerges and changes rapidly and constantly, are evident, and have been shown in numerous domains and applications, like politics and e-government [6, 45, 77], education and e-learning [76], business and e-commerce [85], and entertainment [23, 72, 80]. The reader is referred to several chapters of this book for detailed surveys of particular applications of affective information by personalized services, specifically by recommender systems (Chaps. 9, 15 and 17), conversational systems (Chap. 10), multimedia retrieval systems (Chaps. 12 and 14), and e-learning systems (Chap. 13).

The high availability of user-generated content in social streams, nonetheless, comes with some challenges. The large volume of data makes difficult to get the relevant information in an efficient and effective way. Proposed techniques have to be simple enough to scale up, but have to deal with complex data. Some of these challenges are related to general natural language processing (NLP) approaches, such as opinion-feature association [31], opinion negation [32], irony and sarcasm [12, 18], and opinion spam [33]. Others, in contrast, are related to issues characteristic of online user-generated content, such as multiple languages, high level of ambiguity and polysemy, misspellings, and slang and swear words [70]. In this context, it is also important to mention the need of determining the users' reputation and trust. For certain topics, the majority opinion (i.e., the wisdom of the crowd) may be the best solution [49], while for others, only the experts' opinions should be the

source of information to consider [87]. Another relevant issue is the existence of particular pieces and forms of information existing in social streams: explicit citations to users, groups, and organizations (e.g., @robinwilliams in Twitter), explicit forms for referring to concepts (e.g., Twitter hashtags #comedian and #funny), emoticons and slang terms noting emotions and moods (e.g., :D and lol), mechanisms to express interests and tastes (e.g., Facebook likes), and URLs to resources that complement posted information. There, the use of contextual metadata also plays a key role; extracting and mining time and geo-location metadata may be very valuable for sentiment analysis on dynamic and global social stream data.

In this chapter, we review and discuss the state of the art on sentiment analysis in social streams, describing how opinion and affective information is extracted, processed, modeled, and exploited, in comparison to classic text-based opinion mining techniques.

The chapter is structured as follows. In Sect. 7.2 we overview the research literature in sentiment analysis, focusing on the main addressed tasks and applied techniques. In Sect. 7.3 we provide a description of social media, characterizing the user-generated content and research challenges that arise from them. Next, in Sect. 7.4 we discuss sentiment analysis to social streams, and describe existing applications in such context. Finally, in Sect. 7.5 we discuss current and open research trends on Sentiment Analysis in social streams.

## 7.2 Sentiment Analysis

In the last 15 years, Sentiment Analysis and Opinion Mining have been fed by a number of research problems and opportunities of increasing importance and interest [48]. In this section, we review the main tasks addressed in the literature related to sentiment analysis, together with the different assumptions and approaches adopted. We then discuss some interesting proposals, resources, and techniques intended to deal with those tasks.

### 7.2.1 Sentiment Analysis Tasks

The different sentiment analysis tasks can be categorized based on the granularity of their linguistic units they consider. In this sense, there are tasks where the document is assumed to be the main linguistic unit as a whole, while there are others where sentences or even words are considered as linguistic units. We can summarize these levels as follows:

- *Document-level*: At this level, it is assumed that each document expresses a particular sentiment, or at least it poses a predominant one. Many works have faced sentiment analysis tasks at the document level; see for example the survey presented in [78].

- *Sentence-level*: Some tasks could benefit from the determination of the sentiment in a text at a sentence level, as done in information extraction and question answering systems, where it is necessary to provide the user with particular information for a given topic.
- *Aspect-level*: In general, a sentence can contain more than one opinion about different aspects of an entity or topic. In an aspect-level approach, the context of the words are taken into account to determine the subjectivity of each expression in a sentence, and the specific aspect being opinionated [82, 84]. This level can be useful, for example, in recommender systems [13], and in automatic processing of product reviews [16, 44], where knowing individual opinions about each feature of a given product is crucial for the performance of the system.
- *Word-level* (also called as *entity level*): In this category, we can find those tasks consisting of identifying the sentiment expressed by a given word regardless its context. Word-level analysis is useful in order to build resources like sentiment lexicons with the possible sentiment orientations of a word [29, 64].

Another possible classification of sentiment analysis tasks can be made from the point of view of the dependency on the target domain. While some tasks are defined independently of the domain of application—like subjectivity detection, some research works have shown the influence of domain-dependency on sentiment analysis problems—e.g., polarity detection [16, 52, 53, 83].

In general, the following are the main goals of sentiment analysis:

- *Subjectivity detection*. Identifying subjective and objective statements.
- *Polarity opinion detection*. Identifying positive and negative opinions within subjective texts.
- *Emotion detection*. Identifying human emotions and moods.

Subjectivity detection can provide valuable knowledge to diverse NLP-based applications. In principle, any system intended to extract pieces of information from a large collection of texts could take advantage of subjectivity detection approaches as a tool for identifying and considering/discarding nonfactual information [57]. Such is the case of question answering [86] and information extraction systems.

Polarity detection aims to identify whether a text expresses a positive or a negative sentiment from the writer. Since it is very common to address this task only on subjective texts, usually a subjectivity detection stage is needed. Hence, in the literature we can find a number of works that tackle both problems—subjectivity and polarity detection—as a single one. Existing approaches commonly distinguish between three types of texts: positive, negative, and neutral or objective texts. Some works have shown this approach is much more challenging than the binary classification of subjective texts [57]. Applications of polarity classification are the identification of the writer’s political ideology—since it can be considered as a binary classification problem [21], and the analysis of product reviews—determining user positive or negative opinions about a given item (a product, a movie, a hotel, etc.) or even personal sentiments about specific features of such item.

In emotion detection, the main object of study is the user's emotional attitude with respect to a text. In this context, we may aim to determine the writer's mood toward a text [82] or to identify the emotions "provoked" by the text to the reader [67].

### 7.2.2 *Sentiment Analysis Approaches*

In this section, we discuss some interesting approaches intended to deal with the sentiment analysis tasks and goals previously described. For the sake of clarity, we classify them into two groups, according to the nature of the applied techniques:

- *Lexicon-based approaches* are those techniques that rely on a resource containing information about the affective terms that may occur in the texts, and usually additional information about such terms (e.g., polarity, intensity, etc.). These resources can be manually or automatically generated, domain independent or focused on a particular domain. Most of these approaches take advantage of the information available in a lexicon to compute subjective and affective estimations over the texts.
- *Machine-Learning approaches* are those techniques that apply a machine-learning method to address sentiment analysis tasks. In this case, a majority of techniques have been based on support vector machines, which are usually fed with lexical and syntactic features, or even with lexicon-based features, to provide subjective and affective classifications.

It is worth to note that the creation, integration, and use of lexicons are crucial in sentiment analysis, not only for lexicon-based techniques, but also for machine-learning techniques, which can be enhanced with the information available in such resources. In this context, General Inquirer [69] can be considered as one of the most relevant and widely used resources. It is a manually built lexicon formed by lemmas with associated syntactic, semantic and pragmatic information. It contains 4,206 lemmas manually tagged as positive or negative.

The MPQA (Multi-Perspective Question Answering) is a lexicon of news documents from the world press based on General Inquirer, including a set of words obtained from a dictionary and a thesaurus, and a set of automatically compiled subjective terms [57]. The MPQA lexicon is composed by 8,222 words with a set of syntactic and semantic features (*type strength*, *length*, *part of speech*, *stem*, and *prior polarity*).

Following the same schema, the Bing Liu's English Lexicon (BLEL) [30] consists of an automatically generated list of words that have been classified into positive and negative. This classification is manually updated periodically. In total, BLEL contains 4,783 negative words and 2,006 positive words, including misspelled terms, morphological variants, and slang words, among others.

Maybe one of the most well-known and widely used lexical resources is WordNet [42], a thesaurus for English based on the definition of the so-called *synsets*,

which are groups of words with the same meaning and a brief definition (*gloss*). To relate synsets, WordNet provides a number of semantic relations, such as synonymy, hyperonymy, and meronymy.

A very large number of works have used WordNet in a wide number of tasks and domains, and some of them have aimed to enrich or expand WordNet in different ways. In this context, it is worth to mention the Global WordNet Association,<sup>1</sup> a noncommercial organization devoted to provide a platform to ease the creation and connection of WordNet versions in different languages. Regarding the enrichment of WordNet, we can highlight WordNet Domains [5], a semi-supervised generated resource that augments WordNet with domain labels for all its synsets. Related to it, we find WordNet Affect [68], which assigns to each WordNet synset a set of affective labels encoding emotions, moods, attitudes, behaviors, etc. in order to build a resource suitable for emotion detection, in addition to subjectivity and polarity classification. Another affective extension of WordNet is SentiWordNet (SWN) [4], which attaches to each WordNet synset three sentiment scores in the range [0, 1] summing up to 1, representing positivity, negativity, and objectivity degrees of each synset. The polarities of words are assigned by means of a propagation of the polarity of some manually picked synsets through the relations in WordNet. SWN includes 117,000 synsets with sentiment scores.

The main advantage of WordNet-based resources and techniques over MPQA, BLEL, or General Inquirer is the lack of semantic ambiguity between synsets, which unequivocally represent the term meaning. Word sense disambiguation constitutes a crucial problem in NLP, and most of the works using the above lexicons address such problem by computing the polarity at the level of words or lemmas by means of the polarity values from all the respective synsets [1, 71]. In addition to this, the graph structure of WordNet-based resources allows for the application of graph-based techniques in order to better exploit the semantic information encoded within the relations.

Among the existing lexicon-based approaches, the technique presented in [78] has been a main reference work for many others. This technique is applied over manually selected sets of strongly positive words (such as *excellent* and *good*) and strongly negative words (such as *poor* and *bad*), which are considered as seed terms. The technique computes the pointwise mutual information (PMI) between input words and the seeds in order to determine the polarity of the former. Since the polarity of a word depends on the relation between the word and the seed sets, the technique is usually called semantic orientation by association. A similar idea is proposed in [34], but replacing the PMI computation by building a graph with the adjectives in WordNet for computing the polarity of a word; specifically, by selecting the shortest graph path from the synset of the word to the synsets of the positive and negative seeds.

With respect to machine-learning-based approaches, a considerable number of works has been done, applying well-known machine-learning techniques, such as SVM and LSA, to deal with sentiment analysis tasks. These works usually include

---

<sup>1</sup><http://globalwordnet.org/>.

the exploitation of lexical, syntactic, and semantic features suitable for the classification problems that must be tackled in sentiment analysis for the subjectivity and polarity detection. Among these features, one may highlight n-grams, part-of-speech (POS) tags, PMI, and features extracted from lexicons [19, 84]. In this context, it has to be noted that the joint use of lexicon—an machine-learning-based approaches can be performed in the opposite direction, i.e., by using machine-learning techniques in order to improve lexicon-based approaches. For instance, in [51] LSA-based techniques are used to expand a given lexicon for different languages.

The work presented in [29] is another representative example of a machine-learning-based sentiment analysis approach. It aims to predict the orientation of subjective adjectives by analyzing a large unlabeled document set, and looking for pairs of adjectives linked with conjunctions. It then builds a graph where the nodes correspond to terms connected by *equal-orientation* or *opposite-orientation* edges, according to the conjunctions that link the terms, and finally apply a clustering algorithm that partitions the graph into clusters of positive and negative terms.

A combination of ideas from Turney [78] and Hatzivassiloglou [29] is presented in [15], where a set of seed words is used to introduce a bias in a random-walk algorithm that computes a ranking of the terms in a graph of words linked according to the conjunctions that join them in the texts. In the generated rankings, positive and negative terms are respectively located into the highest and lowest positions. The word graph is also used as a mechanism to process the negations in the text by developing a PageRank-based algorithm that builds graphs with positive and negative weighted edges.

### 7.3 Sentiment Analysis on User-Generated Content

Online social media platforms support social interactions by allowing users to create and maintain connections, share information, collaborate, discuss, and interact in a variety of ways. The proliferation and usage of these platforms have experienced an explosive growth in the last decade, expanding to all areas of society, such as entertainment, culture, science, business, politics, and public services. As a result, a large amount of user-generated content is continuously being created, offering individuals, and organizations a fast way to monitor people's opinions and sentiments toward any form of entity, such as products, services, and brands.

The nature and purpose of these platforms is manifold, and thus, they differ in a variety of aspects, such as the way in which users establish connections, the main activities they conduct, and the type of content they share. These characteristics pose novel challenges and opportunities to sentiment analysis researchers. In the subsequent sections, we characterize the user-generated content available in popular types of existing social media platforms, and present the major challenges to process such content in the context of sentiment analysis and opinion mining.

### 7.3.1 Characterizing User-Generated Content

In the literature, social media platforms have been categorized in different ways [35].<sup>2</sup> Here, we propose a categorization based on three dimensions: the type of user connections, the type of user activities, and the type of contents generated/shared within the platforms. We summarize such a categorization in Table 7.1.

- *Connections*: Users' connections—e.g., friendship and *following* relations—in social media are based on three main models: explicit connections, which can be reciprocal— $u$  follows  $v$ , and  $v$  follows  $u$ —and nonreciprocal— $u$  follows  $v$ , but not necessarily  $v$  follows  $u$ , and implicit connections, where relations are extracted via interactions in the social platform—e.g., if user  $u$  posts a message and user  $v$  replies to that message, an implicit relation between  $v$  and  $u$  may be assumed. An example of a social platform that uses explicit reciprocal connections is Facebook<sup>3</sup> via its friendship relations. Twitter,<sup>4</sup> differently, uses explicit nonreciprocal connections via its follower-followee relation; if a user  $u$  follows a user  $v$  on Twitter, it does not necessarily imply that  $v$  follows  $u$ . Implicit connections, on the other hand, are more common in forums and blogs, where users post questions, evaluations or opinions, and other users react to the posted content.
- *Activities*: Users may perform different activities and have different goals when participating in a social media platform. In this chapter, we mainly focus on five activities: nurturing social connections, discussing about particular issues and topics, asking for information, sharing content and, collaborating with others for certain tasks. Note that the majority of social media may allow performing various of these activities.
- *Types of contents*: The third dimension to categorize social platforms is the type of content that users share between them. Here, we distinguish between six main types: text, micro-text, tags, URLs, videos, and images. Text and micro-text contents differ on their number of characters. Micro-text is characteristic of microblogging platforms, such as Twitter, which allows a maximum of 140 characters in their text messages. Note that, as with activities, many of the existing platforms allow for multiple combinations of these content types, although their focus tends to be on few of them.

According to these three dimensions, social platforms can be described as follows:

- *Forums*: Forums and discussion boards are mainly focused on allowing users to hold conversations and to discuss about particular issues and topics. A user generally posts a comment, opinion, or question, and other users reply, starting a conversation. All the posts related to a conversation are grouped into a structure

---

<sup>2</sup><http://decidedlysocial.com/13-types-of-social-media-platforms-and-counting/>,  
<http://outthinkgroup.com/tips/the-6-types-of-social-media>.

<sup>3</sup><http://www.facebook.com>.

<sup>4</sup><http://twitter.com>.



**Table 7.1** Main characteristics of particular social media

			Social media						
User connections	Explicit	Reciprocal	Forums	Q&A systems	Wikis	Blogs	Microblogs	Social networks	Social tagging systems
		Non-reciprocal							
Actions	Implicit		x	x		x			
	Nurturing social connections							x	
	Discussing issues and topics		x	x		x	x		
	Asking for information		x	x					
	Sharing content		x		x	x	x	x	x
Contents	Collaborating in tasks				x				
	Text		x	x	x	x		x	
	Micro-text						x		
	Tags					x			x
	URLs		x		x	x	x	x	x
	Videos		x			x	x	x	
	Images				x	x	x	x	

called thread. The predominant type of content in these platforms is the text generated with the evolution of the users' discussions. User connections in forums usually are implicit. In general, users are not "friends" with each other explicitly, but connections between them can be extracted from the question-reply chains of their discussions. An example of this type of social platform is Boards.ie,<sup>5</sup> a popular Irish public forum board system, which is not restricted to certain topic, and where users discuss about any domain or topic, e.g., politics, sports, movies, TV programs, and music.

- *Q&A systems*: Question answering (QA) platforms can be understood as a particular type of forums, where the main goal of their users is to ask for information, and therefore discussions are generated around the answers to formulated questions. A popular example of QA system is Stack Overflow,<sup>6</sup> where users ask a variety of questions about computer programming. A particular characteristic of Stack Overflow and other QA platforms is that users can gain reputation points based on the quality of their contributions.
- *Wikis*: The key goal of wikis is to enable collaboration between users in order to create content (ideas, documents, reports, etc.). Users are therefore allowed to add, modify, and delete content in collaboration with others. Connections in this type of platforms are generally implicit, and are derived from common editing of a particular resource: a wiki page. The main type of content generated in wikis is text, but other content types, such as images and URLs, are also quite common. One of the most popular examples of this type of platforms is Wikipedia,<sup>7</sup> a wiki with more than 73,000 editors around the world, who have contributed to the creation of a very large open online encyclopedia.
- *Blogs*: Blogs represent a more "personal" type of platform with respect to forums and wikis. When using these platforms, the main goal is to share information, although this often generates discussions. A user does not participate in a blog, but owns it, and uses it to share explanations, opinions, or reviews about a variety of issues. Other users can comment about particular blog posts, sometimes generating large discussions. Differently to forums, these discussions are not grouped into threads, but are located under a particular blog post. Multimedia content (photos, videos) are also frequent within this type of platforms. Popular examples of blogging platforms are Blogger<sup>8</sup> and WordPress.<sup>9</sup>
- *Microblogs*: Microblogs can be considered as a particular type of blog, where the posted content typically is much smaller. Microblogs are also focused on sharing information, but in this case, information is exchanged in small elements, such as short sentences, individual images, videos, and URLs. As opposed to blogs, microblogs generally allow for explicit user connections, both reciprocal and nonreciprocal. One of the most popular microblogging platforms is Twitter, which

---

<sup>5</sup><http://www.boards.ie>.

<sup>6</sup><http://stackoverflow.com>.

<sup>7</sup><http://www.wikipedia.org>.

<sup>8</sup><http://www.blogger.com>.

<sup>9</sup><http://www.wordpress.com>.

allows a maximum message length of 140 characters. This limitation forces users to use abbreviations and ill-formed words, which represent important challenges when analyzing sentiments and opinions.

- *Social networks*: The main goal of social networks is to maintain and nurture social connections. With this purpose, they enable the creation of explicit, reciprocal relations between users. Most of these platforms also support other types of activities, such as sharing content and enabling discussions. In this sense, users share text, URLs, and multimedia content within a platform. Popular examples of social networks are LinkedIn,<sup>10</sup> which is focused on professional connections, and Facebook, which tends to be more focused on personal relations.
- *Social tagging systems*: In these platforms, users create or upload content (e.g., images, audios, videos), annotate it with freely chosen words (called *tags*), and share it with others. The whole set of tags constitutes an unstructured collaborative categorization scheme, which is commonly known as *folksonomy*. This implicit categorization is then used to search for and discover resources of interest. In principle, social tagging systems are not conceived for connecting users. Nonetheless, the shared tags and annotated items are usually used to find implicit relations between users based on common interests and tastes. Moreover, tags do not always describe the annotated items, but reflect personal opinions and emotions concerning such items [10]. Popular sites with social tagging services are Flickr,<sup>11</sup> YouTube<sup>12</sup> and Delicious.<sup>13</sup>

Note that our purpose is not to provide an exhaustive categorization of social media, but an overview of the main types of platforms used in the literature to extract and capture opinion and affective information. Other categorizations and platforms exist, such as social bookmarking systems and multimedia sharing sites. In the following subsection, we explain the challenges and opportunities that social media content poses to the extraction and analysis of the above information.

### 7.3.2 Challenges of Sentiment Analysis in Social Media

Content generated by users via social media in general, and microblogging platforms in particular, poses multiple challenges to sentiment analysis [38, 60]. In this section, we aim to overview and summarize some of these challenges.

- *Colloquial language*: Social platforms, except those targeting professional circles, are commonly used for informal communication. Colloquial written language generally contains spelling, syntactical, and grammatical mistakes [73]. In addition, users tend to express their emotions and opinions using *slang terms*,

---

<sup>10</sup><http://www.linkedin.com>.

<sup>11</sup><http://www.flickr.com>.

<sup>12</sup><http://www.youtube.com>.

<sup>13</sup><http://delicious.com>.

*emoticons, exclamation marks, irony and sarcasm* [38]. Processing ill-formed text, understanding the semantics of slang language, emphasizing the detected emotion/opinion level according to exclamation marks, and detecting that the emotion expressed by a user is the opposite than the emotion reflected within the text due to sarcasm, represent difficult challenges for current NLP and sentiment analysis tools.

- *Short texts*: Small pieces of text are typical in microblogging platforms, such as Twitter, where a maximum of 140 characters per message is allowed. To condense their messages, users make use of *abbreviations* (e.g., *lol* for laugh out loud), *ill-formed words* (e.g., *2morrow* for tomorrow), and *sentences lacking syntactical structure* (e.g., TB Pilot Measuring up (Time): <1 week from data sharing). The lack of syntactical structure, as well as the appearance of abbreviations and contemporaneous terms not recorded in dictionaries, represent important challenges when attempting to understand the affective information expressed within the texts [60].
- *Platform-specific elements*: Some social platforms have their own symbols and textual conventions to express opinions (e.g., Facebook “likes”, Google+ “+1”, and StackOverflow points to reward high-quality answers), topics (e.g., Twitter hashtags), and references to other users (e.g., Twitter @ symbol). To exploit these conventions, sentiment analysis methods and tools have to be adapted [75].
- *Real-time Big Data*: User-generated content coming from popular social media, such as Facebook and Twitter, is characterized by the Big Data challenges, including: *volume*—data size, *velocity*—the speed of change, *variety*—different types of data, and *veracity*—the trustworthiness of the data. Hence, sentiment analysis techniques applied to social media platforms have to deal with: processing massive amounts of data in short periods of time, dealing with the constant emergence of new words and topics, managing data in different formats (text, image, video), and assessing the veracity of data sources [7, 8, 65]. From these aspects, we highlight the *velocity* aspect, which implies not only to capture and process the user-generated content in real time, but also to perform a response (e.g., recommendation, news provision, trending topic detection) as fast as possible, since it is a common demanding functionality from social media users.

## 7.4 Sentiment Analysis in Social Streams

Once presented the main sentiment analysis tasks and techniques (Sect. 7.2), and described the characteristics of user-generated content with regard to the expression of personal opinions and sentiments (Sect. 7.3), in the subsequent sections we focus on particular problems and applications of Sentiment Analysis in social streams.

### ***7.4.1 Sentiment Analysis Problems Addressed in Social Streams***

Sentiment analysis is an essential processing task for personalized services that aim to exploit textual content—such as microblog messages and social tags—generated in social streams, since they usually reflect the users’ subjectivity, in terms of opinions and sentiments for certain issues and topics. For such purpose, in addition to the fundamental sentiment analysis problems—such as entity and opinion recognition, and sentiment polarity estimation, there are aspects that have to be taken into account. User-generated content in social streams presents a number of interesting phenomena, namely opinion spam, user reputation, irony, sarcasm, and emotion dynamics. If we intend to address these issues, we have to go beyond classic text-based opinion mining techniques.

Opinion spam [33] is aimed to disturb the normal behavior in social media services, especially those integrated in recommendation and e-commerce systems, by introducing a bias toward a specific opinion tendency that promotes or demotes an entity (e.g., a product, a service, a brand), or makes users express reviews and opinions in a certain direction. The identification of opinion spam represents a crucial problem for opinion mining and sentiment analysis approaches, which should be able to detect deceptive opinions that try to simulate real user reviews that increase or harm an entity’s reputation [28, 47]. In certain media, such as social networks and microblogging platforms, the users’ responses (e.g., by unfollowing contacts, and posting complaint comments) may represent a valuable source of information to detect spam content.

The writers’ reputation is another important aspect of sentiment analysis of user-generated content. From the point of view of a review site, the higher the reputation of a review author, the more reliable the review can be to other customers, and sometimes vice versa: A review that is seen as reliable by the users can provide high reputation to its author. In this sense, determining the reputation of the authors of a content can be helpful for opinion spam detection. Moreover, some sites have adopted reputation systems as a tool for avoiding or at least discouraging the production of opinion spam. The reputation of users also plays an important role in social networks, since automatically determining the most influential users in a given network can be really valuable [20].

Given the subjective nature of user-generated content, another relevant phenomenon is the existence of irony or sarcasm in the texts. This can constitute a serious problem for many tasks in sentiment analysis, like detection of subjectivity and the classification of the polarity of a given opinion, since the explicit text content reflects the opposite of the sentiment really expressed by the writers. Most of published works has focused on the identification of one-liners (jokes or humorous contents in short texts), but there are some researches aimed to extract humorous patterns from longer texts. In a different way, there are also approaches that use results of sentiment analysis in order to detect humor in texts, for example, the (negative) polarity of a text has been taken as a feature to retrieve patterns of humorous contents [41], and

syntactic and semantic features have been used as indicatives of humor [56], e.g., semantic ambiguity, the appearance of emoticons, idioms and slang language, and the abundance/absence of punctuation marks, to name a few. In the case of social media, certain user responses, such as expressions of amusement and laughing emoticons, may be used as a source for identifying contents with irony and sarcasm, which may be difficult to detect if no additional information apart from the contents themselves exist.

### 7.4.2 Applications of Sentiment Analysis on Social Streams

Sentiment analysis over social platforms offers a fast and effective way to monitor the public's opinions and feelings toward products, brands, governments, events, etc. Such insights can be used to support decision making in a variety of scenarios. In this section, we present three scenarios where the extraction and exploitation of affective information from social streams have become key for certain decision making tasks.

- *Sentiment Analysis in politics and e-government*: Designing and implementing a policy at any level of government is a complex process. One of the key difficulties is finding and summarizing public opinions and sentiments. Citizens do not actively participate in e-government portals [43], and policy specialists lack of appropriate tools to take into account the citizens' views on policy issues expressed in real time through social network discussions. Governments are currently investing in research and development<sup>14</sup> to learn about the citizens, by summarizing public opinion via popular social platforms, and to engage them more effectively. One of the key challenges that arises from this scenario is the lack of awareness of the characteristics of those users that discuss politic issues in social media, and whether those users really represent the public opinion [24]. Sentiment analysis tools are therefore challenged in this scenario to complement affective information with details about the citizens and organizations behind the gathered opinions. Another common task in which social streams are used as a source of affective and opinion information about politics is the prediction of the outcome and evolution of events, such as elections [45, 77], and crises and revolutions [6], as in the case of the Westgate Mall Terror Attack in Kenya [66].
- *Sentiment Analysis in education and e-learning*: Schools and universities strive to collect feedback from students to improve their courses and tutorship programs. Such feedback is often collected at the end of a course via survey forms. However, such methods are too controlled, slow, and passive. With the rise of social streams, many students are finding online social streams as perfect venues in which sharing their experiences, and seeking for peer help and support. To address this issue, educational institutions—such as the Open University<sup>15</sup>—are working toward the

---

<sup>14</sup><http://www.wegov-project.eu>, <http://www.sense4us.eu>.

<sup>15</sup><http://data.open.ac.uk>.

development of platforms that allow capturing and monitoring the students' sentiment and opinion in open social media groups [76]. The aim is to speed up the reaction to the concerns and challenges raised by students. In this scenario, one of the key challenges that arises is the need for adapting the sentiment and opinion extraction processes to the particularities of the domain. For example, discussions around a World War lecture will generally have a negative connotation. Sentiment analysis tools need to isolate the opinions targeting the logistics of a course, with respect to the opinions targeting themes inherent to the course.

- *Sentiment Analysis in business and e-commerce:* Public as well as corporate social platforms generate major economic value to business, and can form pivotal parts of corporate expertise management, corporate marketing, product support, customer relationship management, product innovation, and targeted advertising. Public social platforms are generally used to monitor public opinion and reputation about brands and products [85].<sup>16</sup> Corporate social platforms, on the other hand, are more focused on providing product support and knowledge interchange within a company. One of the new challenges associated with managing these online communities is the ability to predict change in their "health." Providing owners and managers of the social platforms with early warnings (by monitoring the members' contributions, opinions, levels of satisfaction, etc.) may facilitate their decisions to safeguard the communities, e.g. by maintaining engagement, reducing community churn, and providing adequate support. The identification of sentiments is key as an initial indicator, but it does not necessarily represent the overall health of the community. The challenge of sentiment analysis tools in this scenario is to complement sentiment extraction with techniques for risk detection in the context of business domains, helping owners and hosts to ensure a sustained stability of their communities.
- *Sentiment Analysis in entertainment:* In an online entertainment scenario, it is well accepted that (i) the user's current mood may affect the type of resource (e.g., a song, a tv series episode, a video game) she prefers to consume at a particular time—partial or completely regardless her personal tastes—and, in the opposite direction that (ii) emotions evoked by consumed resources may affect the user's current mood. These facts are the basis for the investigation and development of sentiment-aware engaging services in social media. How user moods and item-provoked emotions can be determined [26], how they can be related each other [88], and how they and their relations can be exploited for user entertainment applications are indeed emerging research topics, such as those addressed in recommender systems [72], and multimedia retrieval and entertainment [23, 80].

All these application scenarios come with an additional common challenge: scalability. Social platforms can easily exceed a million users with hundreds of thousands online each day. Content generation may be of Gigabytes per day, and orders of magnitude more data is derived from observing interaction of the users within a system. Existing data analysis approaches, and in particular sentiment analysis tools, currently struggle with these scalability challenges.

---

<sup>16</sup><http://www.brandwatch.com/>, <http://www.lithium.com/>.

## 7.5 Discussion

In the previous sections, we have reviewed and discussed the state of the art on sentiment analysis in social streams. We have explained the different types of user-generated content existing in social media platforms, as well as some of the most common challenges that this type of content poses when analyzing affective and opinion information. We have described the different problems and tasks addressed in the sentiment analysis research area, as well as the variety of techniques that have been developed to approach them. We have shown examples of applications that use sentiment analysis on social streams to support decision-making process in a variety of domains. In this section, we provide an overview of directions that sentiment analysis area is currently following, and what are the main factors driving the research into these directions.

- *Sentiments are dynamic*: Social streams, such as Twitter, may exhibit very strong temporal dynamics with opinions about the same entity or event changing rapidly over time. Since sentiment analysis approaches generally work by aggregating information, a key challenge faced by current sentiment analysis approaches is to detect when new opinions are emerging, so that the new information is not aggregated to an existing opinion for the given entity. For example, the opinion about the Nexus4 smartphone is generally determined based on a set of posts expressing sentiment about this particular device. Opinions about it may change over time, e.g., as new technical problems or bugs are discovered. Sentiment analysis approaches should therefore be able to identify opinion changes for entities and/or events as long as new issues regarding them emerge. An option adopted by several approaches is to define a time-window (minute, hour, day) in which sentiment is aggregated for the particular entity that is being monitored. However, discussions in social media may emerge and spread really fast, or cool down for long time periods. Therefore, assessing the right granularity level is key to not lose relevant information when discussions spike, and not waste resources when discussions about target entities or events are not present [7, 39].
- *Sentiments are entity-focused*: As discussed in Sect. 7.2, sentiment is generally computed at document and/or sentence level. Multiple sentiments, nonetheless, can be expressed within the same document or the same sentence toward different targets. For example, the post “I love Nexus4 but I don’t like Nexus5 at all!” expresses two different sentiments toward two different targets, the Nexus4 and Nexus5 devices. Additionally, when monitoring the sentiment or particular brands, events, or individuals in social media, sentiment analysis approaches should consider if the sentiment of the posts referencing the brand, event or individual do indeed express sentiment toward those entities. For instance, a significant number of negative posts do exist in social streams mentioning the WWF (the World Wildlife Fund) organization, which do not criticize it, but the negative impact of climate change, the danger of extinction suffered by a number of species, and other sustainability issues. Furthermore, approaches in the literature of sentiment analysis have emerged in the last few years that aim to identify sentiment targets



within a given text, focusing on entity-level and aspect-level sentiment analysis detection [37, 40, 54, 85], i.e., they first identify the entities and events appearing in the text, and then check the sentiment expressed toward them.

- *Sentiments are semantics-dependent*: Most of existing approaches to sentiment analysis in social streams have shown effective when sentiment is explicitly and unambiguously reflected in text fragments through affective (opinionated) words, such as “great” as in “I got my new Android phone, what a great device!” or “sad” as in “so sad, now four Sierra Leonean doctors lost to Ebola.” However, merely relying on affective words is often insufficient, and in many cases does not lead to satisfactory sentiment detection results [8, 27, 61]. Examples of such cases arise when the sentiment of words differs according to (i) the context in which those words occur (e.g., “great” conveys a negative connotation in the context “pain” and positive in the context “smile”), or (ii) the conceptual meaning associated with the words (e.g., “Ebola” is likely to be negative when its associated concept is “Virus” and likely to be neutral when its associated concept is “River”). Therefore, ignoring the semantics of words when calculating their sentiment, in either case, may lead to inaccuracies. Recent research in sentiment analysis is therefore focusing on investigating the identification and use of contextual and semantic information to enhance the accuracy of traditional machine-learning [59] and lexicon-based approaches [61].
- *Sentiments are domain-dependent*: Sentiment is expressed in social streams within multiple domains. For example, the domain of death is generally more negative than the domain of birth, although both use common terminology, such as hospital, family, etc. Sentiment analysis approaches need to establish the sentiment of the targeted domain to be able to establish the positivity/negativity of the posts. It has been observed that current sentiment classifiers trained with data from one specific domain do indeed fail when applied to a different domain [3]. Similarly, while lexicon-based approaches have a higher tolerance to domain changes, these approaches do suffer when the vocabulary of the domain under analysis is not well covered by the available sentiment lexicon. Given the great variety of topics and domains that constantly emerge in social streams, domain constraints currently affect the applicability of sentiment analysis approaches. Research is currently being conducted to adapt to new domains, by automatically assigning sentiment to terms not previously covered by the lexicons, and by providing dynamic retraining of existing classifiers [9, 50, 61, 65]. There are also recent approaches aimed to generate domain-dependent lexicons, such as that presented in [26]. In that work, automatic lexicons<sup>17</sup> with emotional categories for the movie, music, and book domains—e.g., *gloomy* movies, *nostalgic* music compositions, and *suspenseful* books—are automatically generated and modeled by exploiting information available in social tagging systems and online thesauri. The terms of these lexicons are also linked to a core lexicon which is composed of weighted terms associated to 16 general emotions—e.g., *happiness*, *calmness*, and *tension*—of the well-known Russell’s circumplex model of affect [58].

---

<sup>17</sup><http://ir.ii.uam.es/emotions/>.

- *Sentiments are language- and culture-dependent*: An important problem when analyzing sentiment in social media streams is that posts are written in different languages. Even individual posts may include terminology from a variety of languages within them. Language identification tools are therefore needed to detect the language in which posts are written [11]. An even more complex problem is that sentiment is culturally dependent. The way in which we express positivity or negativity, humor, irony, or sarcasm varies depending on our cultural background [22]. Sentiment analysis tools therefore need to account for language and culture variances to provide accurate sentiment identification. Few research works have been recently conducted in this vein, focusing mainly on demographic language variations (e.g., age, gender) of users to improve sentiment analysis performance [74, 79].
- *Sentiments are personality-dependent*: The relationships between emotional states and personality have been a topic of study in psychology in the last 20 years (see, e.g., seminal works as [55]). The reader can find more details on this in Chap. 3. In particular, several studies have revealed associations between *extra-version* and *neuroticism* (sometimes referred as *emotional stability*) personality traits with individual differences in affective level and environmental response [14, 55]. This, together with the facts that (i) it has been shown that there exist correlations between user personality traits and user preferences in several domains [25], and that (ii) approaches have been proposed to infer user personality from data about user activity and behavior in social streams [2] (see Chap. 5), raise new research opportunities and applications –such as customer characterization, market segmentation, and personalized recommendation– for sentiment analysis in the context of the Social Web.

## References

1. Agrawal, S., Siddiqui, T.J.: Using syntactic and contextual information for sentiment polarity analysis. In: Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on Interaction Sciences Information Technology, Culture and Human (ICIS'09), pp. 620–623 (2009)
2. Amichai-Hamburger, Y., Vinitzky, G.: Social network use and personality. *Comput. Hum. Behav.* **26**(6), 1289–1295
3. Aue, A., Gamon, M.: Customizing sentiment classifiers to new domains: a case study. In: Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Recent Advances in Natural Language Processing (RANLP'05) (2005)
4. Baccianella, S., Esuli, A., Sebastiani, F.: *entiWordNet 3.0*: an enhanced lexical resource for sentiment analysis and opinion mining. In: Proceedings of the 7th International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'10) (2010)
5. Bentivogli, L., Forner, P., Magnini, B., Pianta, E.: Revising WordNet domains hierarchy: semantics, coverage, and balancing. In: Proceedings of the COLLING'04 Workshop on Multilingual Linguistic Resources (MLR'04), pp. 101–108 (2004)
6. Bhuiyan, S.I.: Social media and its effectiveness in the political reform movement in Egypt. *Middle East Media Educ.* **1**(1), 14–20 (2011)
7. Bifet, A., Frank, E.: Sentiment knowledge discovery in twitter streaming data. In: Proceedings of the 13th International Conference on Discovery Science (DS'10), pp. 1–15 (2010)

8. Cambria, E., Schuller, B., Xia, Y., Havasi, C.: New avenues in opinion mining and sentiment analysis. *IEEE Intell. Syst.* **28**(2), 15–21 (2013)
9. Cambria, E., Song, Y., Wang, H., Howard, N.: Semantic multi-dimensional scaling for open-domain sentiment analysis. *IEEE Intell. Syst.* **29**(2), 44–51 (2013)
10. Cantador, I., Konstas, I., Jose, J.M.: Categorising social tags to improve Folksonomy-based recommendations. *J. Web Semant.* **9**(1), 1–15 (2010)
11. Carter, S., Weerkamp, W., Tsagkias, M.: Microblog language identification: overcoming the limitations of short, unedited and idiomatic text. *Lang. Resour. Eval.* **47**(1), 195–215 (2013)
12. Carvalho, P., Sarmento, L., Silva, M.J., de Oliveira, E.: Clues for detecting irony in user-generated contents: Oh...!! It's "so easy" ;-) In: *Proceedings of the 1st International Workshop on Topic-sentiment Analysis for Mass Opinion (TSA'09)*, pp. 53–56 (2009)
13. Chow, A., Foo, M.-H. N., Manai, G.: HybridRank: a hybrid content-based approach to mobile game recommendations. In: *Proceedings of the 1st Workshop on New Trends in Content-based Recommender Systems (CBRecSys'14)*, pp. 1–4 (2014)
14. Corr, P.J.: The reinforcement sensitivity theory. In: Corr, P.J. (ed.) *The Reinforcement Sensitivity Theory of Personality*. Cambridge University Press (2008)
15. Cruz, F.L., Vallejo, C.G., Enríquez, F., Troyano, J.A.: PolarityRank: finding an equilibrium between followers and contraries in a network. *Inf. Process. Manage.* **48**(2), 271–282 (2012)
16. Cruz, F.L., Troyano, J.A., Enríquez, F., Ortega, F.J., Vallejo, C.G.: Long autonomy or long delay? The importance of domain in opinion mining. *Expert Syst. Appl.* **40**(8), 3174–3184 (2013)
17. Cruz, F.L., Troyano, J.A., Pontes, B., Ortega, F.J.: Building layered, multilingual sentiment lexicons at synset and lemma levels. *Expert Syst. Appl.* **41**(13), 5984–5994 (2014)
18. Davidov, D., Tsur, O., Rappoport, A.: Semi-supervised recognition of sarcastic sentences in Twitter and Amazon. In: *Proceedings of the 14th Conference on Computational Natural Language Learning (CoNLL'10)*, pp. 107–116 (2010)
19. Dehkharghani, R., Yanikoglu, B., Tapucu, D., Saygin, Y.: Adaptation and use of subjectivity lexicons for domain dependent sentiment classification. In: *Proceedings of the 12th IEEE International Conference on Data Mining Workshops*, pp. 669–673 (2012)
20. Barbagallo, D., Bruni, L., Francalanci, C., Giacomazzi, P.: An empirical study on the relationship between twitter sentiment and influence in the tourism domain. In: *Information and Communication Technology in Tourism*, pp. 506–516 (2012)
21. Durant, K.T., Smith, M.D.: Mining sentiment classification from political web logs. In: *Proceedings of the WebKDD'06 Workshop on Web Mining and Web Usage Analysis* (2006)
22. Elahi, M.F., Monachesi, P.: An examination of cross-cultural similarities and differences from social media data with respect to language use. In: *Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'12)*, pp. 4080–4086 (2012)
23. Feng, Y., Zhuang, Y., Pan, Y.: Music information retrieval by detecting mood via computational media aesthetics. In: *Proceedings of the 2003 IEEE/WIC International Conference on Web Intelligence (WI'03)*, pp. 235–241 (2003)
24. Fernández, M., Allen, B., Wandhoefer, T., Cano, E., Alani, H.: Using social media to inform policy making: to whom are we listening? In: *Proceedings of the 1st European Conference on Social Media (ECSM'14)*, pp. 174–182 (2014)
25. Fernández-Tobías, I., Cantador, I.: Personality-aware collaborative filtering: an empirical study in multiple domains with facebook data. In: *Proceedings of the 15th International Conference on E-Commerce and Web Technologies (EC-Web'14)*, pp. 125–137 (2013)
26. Fernández-Tobías, I., Cantador, I., Plaza, L.: An emotion dimensional model based on social tags: crossing folksonomies and enhancing recommendations. In: *Proceedings of the 14th International Conference on E-Commerce and Web Technologies (EC-Web'13)*, pp. 88–100 (2013)
27. Gangemi, A., Presutti, V., Reforgiato Recupero, D.: Frame-based detection of opinion holders and topics: a model and a tool. *IEEE Comput. Intell. Mag.* **9**(1), 20–30 (2014)
28. Hancock, J.T., Cardie, C.: Finding deceptive opinion spam by any stretch of the imagination. In: *Proceedings of the 49th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (HLT'11)*, pp. 309–319 (2011)

29. Hatzivassiloglou, V., McKeown, K.R.: Predicting the semantic orientation of adjectives. In: Proceedings of the 35th Annual Meeting on Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL'98), pp. 174–181 (1998)
30. Hu, M., Liu, B.: Mining and summarizing customer reviews. In: Proceedings of the 2004 ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (KDD'04), pp. 168–177 (2004)
31. Hu, M., Liu, B.: Opinion feature extraction using class sequential rules. In: Proceedings of the AAAI'06 Spring Symposium: Computational Approaches (2006)
32. Jia, L., Yu, C., Meng, W.: The effect of negation on sentiment analysis and retrieval effectiveness. In: Proceedings of the 18th ACM Conference on Information and Knowledge Management (CIKM'10), pp. 1827–1830 (2010)
33. Jindal, N., Liu, B.: Opinion spam and analysis. In: Proceedings of the 2008 International Conference on Web Search and Data Mining (WSDM'08), pp. 219–230 (2008)
34. Kamps, J., Marx, M., Mokken, R.J., Rijke, M.: Using WordNet to measure semantic orientations of adjectives. In: Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'04), pp. 1115–1118 (2004)
35. Kaplan, A.M., Haenlein, M.: Users of the World, unite! the challenges and opportunities of social media. *Bus. Horiz.* **53**(1), 59–68 (2010)
36. Liu, B.: *Web Data Mining: Exploring Hyperlinks, Contents, and Usage Data*, 2nd edn. Springer (2011)
37. Long, J., Yu, M., Zhou, M., Liu, X., Zhao, T.: Target-dependent twitter sentiment classification. In: Proceedings of the 49th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies (HLT'11), pp. 151–160 (2011)
38. Maynard, D., Bontcheva, K., Rout, D.: Challenges in developing opinion mining tools for social media. In: Proceedings of NLP can u tag# usergeneratedcontent?! Workshop (2012)
39. Maynard, D., Gossen, G., Funk, A., Fisichella, M.: Should I care about your opinion? Detection of opinion interestingness and dynamics in social media. *Future Internet* **6**(3), 457–481 (2014)
40. Meng, X., Wei, F., Liu, X., Zhou, M., Li, S., Wang, H.: Entity-centric topic-oriented opinion summarization in twitter. In: Proceedings of the 18th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (KDD'12), pp. 379–387 (2012)
41. Mihalcea, R., Strapparava, C.: Making computers laugh. In: Proceedings of the 2005 Conference on Human Language Technology and Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (HLT'05), pp. 531–538 (2005)
42. Miller, G.A.: WordNet: a lexical database for English. *Commun. ACM* **38**(11), 39–41 (1995)
43. Miller, L., Williamson, A.: *Digital Dialogs—Third Phase Report*. Handsard Society (2008)
44. Morinaga, S., Yamanishi, K., Tateishi, K., Fukushima, T.: Mining product reputations on the web. In: Proceedings of the 8th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (KDD'02), pp. 341–349 (2002)
45. O'Connor, B., Balasubramanyan, R., Routledge, B.R., Smith, N.A.: From tweets to polls: linking text sentiment to public opinion time series. In: Proceedings of the 4th International AAAI Conference on Weblogs and Social Media (ICWSM'10), pp. 122–129 (2010)
46. Ortega, F.J.: Detection of dishonest behaviors in on-line networks using graph-based ranking techniques. *AI Commun.* **26**(3), 327–329 (2013)
47. Ott, M., Cardie, C., Hancock, J.T.: Negative deceptive opinion spam. In: Proceedings of 2013 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics (NAACL-HLT'13), pp. 497–501 (2013)
48. Pang, B., Lee, L.: Opinion mining and sentiment analysis. *Found. Trends Inf. Retr.* **2**(1–2), 1–135 (2008)
49. Pak, A., Paroubek, P.: Twitter as a corpus for sentiment analysis and opinion mining. In: Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'10), pp. 1320–1326 (2010)
50. Peddinti, V.M.K., Chintalapoodi, P.: Domain adaptation in sentiment analysis of twitter. In: *Analyzing Microtext*, vol. WS-11-05 of AAAI'11 Workshops (2011)

51. Pérez-Rosas, V., Banea, C., Mihalcea, R.: Learning sentiment lexicons in spanish. In: Proceedings of the 8th International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'12), pp. 3077–3081 (2012)
52. Popescu, A.-M., Etzioni, O.: Extracting product features and opinions from reviews. In: Proceedings of the Conference on Human Language Technology and Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (HLT/EMNLP'05), pp. 339–346 (2005)
53. Qiu, G., Liu, B., Bu, J., Chen, C.: Opinion word expansion and target extraction through double propagation. *Comput. Linguist.* **37**(1), 9–27 (2011)
54. Recupero, D.R., Presutti, V., Consoli, S., Gangemi, A., Nuzzolese, A.G.: Sentilo: frame-based sentiment analysis. *Cogn. Comput.* 1–15 (2014)
55. Revelle, W.: Personality processes. *Annu. Rev. Psychol.* **46**, 295–328 (1995)
56. Reyes, A., Rosso, P., Buscaldi, D.: From humor recognition to irony detection: the figurative language of social media. *Data Knowl. Eng.* **74**, 1–12 (2012)
57. Riloff, E., Wiebe, J., Wilson, T.: Learning subjective nouns using extraction pattern bootstrapping. In: Proceedings of the 7th Conference on Computational Natural Language Learning (CoNLL'03), vol. 4, pp. 25–32 (2003)
58. Russell, J.A.: A circumplex model of affect. *J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.* **39**(6), 1161–1178 (1980)
59. Saif, H., He, Y., Alani, H.: Semantic sentiment analysis of twitter. In: Proceedings of the 11th International Semantic Web Conference (ISWC'12), pp. 508–524 (2012)
60. Saif, H., He, Y., Alani, H.: Alleviating data sparsity for twitter sentiment analysis. In: Proceedings of the WWW'12 Workshop on Making Sense of Microposts (2012)
61. Saif, H., Fernández, M., He, Y., Alani, H.: SentiCircles for contextual and conceptual semantic sentiment analysis of twitter. In: Proceedings of the 11th Extended Semantic Web Conference (ESWC'14), pp. 83–98 (2014)
62. Saif, H., Fernández, M., He, Y., Alani, H.: On stopwords, filtering and data sparsity for sentiment analysis of twitter. In: Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'14), pp. 810–817 (2014)
63. Saif, H., He, Y., Fernández, M., Alani, H.: Semantic patterns for sentiment analysis of twitter. In: Proceedings of the 13th International Semantic Web Conference (ISWC'14)—part 2, pp. 324–340 (2014)
64. Sebastiani, F., Esuli, A.: Determining term subjectivity and term orientation for opinion mining. In: Proceedings of the 11th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics (EACL'06) (2006)
65. Silva, I.S., Gomide, J., Veloso, A., Meira Jr, W., Ferreira, R.: Effective sentiment stream analysis with self-augmenting training and demand-driven projection. In: Proceedings of the 34th international ACM SIGIR Conference on Research and Development in Information Retrieval (SIGIR'11), pp. 475–484 (2011)
66. Simon, T., Goldberg, A., Aharonson-Daniel, L., Leykin, D., Adini, B.: Twitter in the cross fire—the use of social media in the Westgate Mall terror attack in Kenya. *PloS one* **9**(8), e104136 (2014)
67. Strapparava, C., Mihalcea, R.: Learning to identify emotions in text. In: Proceedings of the 2008 ACM Symposium on Applied Computing (SAC'08), pp. 1556–1560 (2008)
68. Strapparava, C., Valitutti, A.: Wordnet-affect: an affective extension of WordNet. In: Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC'04), pp. 1083–1086 (2004)
69. Stone, P.J., Dunphy, D.C., Smith, M.S.: *The General Inquirer: A Computer Approach to Content Analysis*. MIT Press (1966)
70. Szomszor, M., Cantador, I., Alani, H.: Correlating user pprofiles from multiple folksonomies. In: Proceedings of the 19th ACM Conference on Hypertext and Hypermedia (Hypertext'08), pp. 33–42 (2008)
71. Taboada, M., Brooke, J., Tofiloski, M., Voll, K., Stede, M.: Lexicon-based methods for sentiment analysis. *Comput. Linguist.* **37**(2), 267–307 (2011)
72. Tkalcic, M., Burnik, U., Odic, A., Kosir, A., Tasic, J.: Emotion-aware recommender systems—a framework and a case study. In: Markovski, S., Gusev, M. (eds.) *ICT Innovations 2012. Advances in Intelligent Systems and Computing* 207, pp. 141–150. Springer (2013)

73. Thelwall, M., Buckley, K., Paltoglou, G., Cai, D., Kappas, A.: Sentiment strength detection in short informal text. *J. Am. Soc. Inf. Sci. Technol.* **61**(12), 2544–2558 (2010)
74. Thelwall, M., Wilkinson, D., Uppal, S.: Data mining emotion in social network communication: gender differences in MySpace. *J. Am. Soc. Inf. Sci. Technol.* **61**(1), 190–199 (2010)
75. Thelwall, M., Buckley, K., Paltoglou, G.: Sentiment strength detection for the social web. *J. Am. Soc. Inf. Sci. Technol.* **63**(1), 163–173 (2012)
76. Thomas, K., Fernández, M., Brown, S., Alani, H.: OUSocial2—a platform for gathering students’ feedback from social media. In: Demo at the 13th International Semantic Web Conference (ISWC’14) (2014)
77. Tumasjan, A., Sprenger, T.O., Sandner, P.G., Welp, I.M.: Predicting elections with twitter: what 140 characters reveal about political sentiment. In: Proceedings of the 4th International AAAI Conference on Weblogs and Social Media (ICWSM’10), pp. 178–185 (2010)
78. Turney, P.: Thumbs up or thumbs down? Semantic orientation applied to unsupervised classification of reviews. In: Proceedings of the 40th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL’02), pp. 417–424 (2002)
79. Volkova, S., Wilson, T., Yarowsky, D.: Exploring demographic language variations to improve multilingual sentiment analysis in social media. In: EMNLP, pp. 1815–1827 (2013)
80. Vorderer, P., Klimmt, C., Ritterfeld, U.: At the heart of media entertainment. *Commun. Theory* **14**(4), 388–408 (2004)
81. Wiebe, J., Bruce, R., O’Hara, T.: Development and use of a gold standard data set for subjectivity classifications. In: Proceedings of the 37th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL’99), pp. 246–253 (1999)
82. Wiebe, J., Wilson, T., Cardie, C.: Annotating expressions of opinions and emotions in language. *Lang. Resour. Eval.* **39**(2–3), 165–210 (2006)
83. Wilson, T., Wiebe, J., Hoffmann, P.: Recognizing contextual polarity in phrase-level sentiment analysis. In: Proceedings of the 2005 Conference on Human Language Technology and Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (HLT’05), pp. 347–354 (2005)
84. Wilson, T., Wiebe, J., Hoffmann, P.: Recognizing contextual polarity: an exploration of features for phrase-level sentiment analysis. *Comput. Linguist.* **35**(3), 399–433 (2009)
85. Yerva, S.R., Mikls, Z., Aberer, K.: Entity-based classification of twitter messages. *Int. J. Comput. Sci. Appl.* **9**, 88–115 (2012)
86. Yu, H., Hatzivassiloglou, V.: Towards answering opinion questions: Separating facts from opinions and identifying the polarity of opinion sentences. In: Proceedings of the 2003 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP’03), pp. 129–136 (2003)
87. Zhang, J., Tang, J., Li, J.: Expert finding in a social network. In: Proceedings of the 12th International Conference on Database Systems for Advanced Applications (DASFAA’07), pp. 1066–1069 (2007)
88. Zillmann, D.: Mood management: using entertainment to full advantage. In: Donohew, L., Sypher, H.E., Higgins, E.T. (eds.) *Communication, Social Cognition, and Affect*, pp. 147–171. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates (1988)