Language-Independent Sentiment Analysis Using Subjectivity and Positional Information

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Abstract

We describe a novel language-independent approach to the task of determining the polarity, positive or negative, of the author’s opinion on a specific topic in natural language text. In particular, weights are assigned to attributes, individual words or word bi-grams, based on their position and on their likelihood of being subjective. The subjectivity of each attribute is estimated in a two-step process, where first the probability of being subjective is calculated for each sentence containing the attribute, and then these probabilities are used to alter the attribute’s weights for polarity classification. The evaluation results on a standard dataset of movie reviews shows 89.85% classification accuracy, which rivals the best previously published results for this dataset.

Keywords

Sentiment analysis, subjectivity identification, polarity classification, text categorization.

1 Introduction

Recently, there has been growing research interest in determining the polarity, positive or negative, of the author’s opinion on a specific topic in natural language texts. Such analysis has various potential applications ranging from components for web sites to business and government intelligence [6]. Previous research on document sentiment classification has shown that machine learning based classifiers perform much better compared to rule-based systems [7]. However, the task remains challenging since opinions are typically expressed in a specific manner, using many rare words and language expressions. As previous research has shown [5], even words with a single occurrence on training can turn out to be good predictors on testing. As a result, the classification accuracy for sentiment analysis using machine learning approaches tends to be much lower compared to that for other text classification tasks like topic identification.

2 Related work

Pang & al. [7] pioneered the field of sentiment analysis. They worked on a sentiment polarity classification task, choosing between a positive and negative label using Naive Bayes and support vector machines (SVM), where each text document was represented as a bag-of-words with weights for word presence. They further tried to use negation, word positions and part-of-speech (POS) information without much success, and found that many techniques that typically help for topic classification negatively affected the accuracy for sentiment polarity. The experiments were carried out on a set of 2,000 movie reviews mined from the web, 1,000 positive and 1,000 negative, without explicit information about polarity, i.e., without ranks, scores, or number of stars. The dataset was made publicly available [1] and has since become the de-facto standard for training and evaluation in most of the subsequent research.

In the case of movie reviews, sentiment polarity classification has been found to be hard not only because of many informative words being rare, but also due to large portions of the movie reviews consisting of non-subjective sentences that just narrate the movie plot without actually contributing much sentiment information. In an attempt to get rid of such sentences, Pang and Lee [5] proposed a pre-processing filter that removes all non-subjective sentences while retaining the subjective ones to be used for sentiment polarity classification. In order to train that filter, they created a special dataset consisting of 5,000 subjective and 5,000 non-subjective sentences mined from the Internet Movie DataBase2 (IMDB). This gave rise to a new task, subjectivity classification, as an intermediate step for polarity classification. In their experiments, Pang and Lee used a Naive Bayes classifier, which yielded 92% accuracy for the subjectivity filter. Using the filter to help choose subjective sentences for polarity classification yielded 86.4% accuracy, which represents about 3% absolute improvement for the sentiment polarity classification with a Naive Bayes classifier; there were no improvements when using an SVM classifier.

Matsumoto & al. [4] experimented with an SVM classifier and a more recent version of the polarity dataset. Using several innovative features based on linguistic analysis, including unigrams, bigrams and all pairs of

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1 http://www.cs.cornell.edu/people/pabo/movie-review-data
2 http://www.imdb.com
words within the same sentence, they achieved over 88.1% accuracy when only language-independent features were used, and 92% when additional English-specific linguistic information was introduced.

There have been some attempts to use language models (LM) for polarity classification, but the resulting accuracy was low. Hu & al. [2] tried using language models (LM) for polarity classification with several different kinds of smoothing, but found that a model based on unigrams, i.e., without sequence information, performed better. One possible explanation could be found in the observation that, for the task of sentiment polarity classification, the Naïve Bayes classifier works better when the feature weights are binary (i.e., when only term presence/absence is taken into account, but repetitions are ignored) rather than frequency-based, while language models calculate the probability to generate a document taking term repetitions into account.

Below we propose a novel approach that assigns weights to individual attributes, words or word bigrams, based on their position in the text and on their likelihood of being subjective. Using the Naïve Bayes classifier, we achieve 89.85% accuracy, which is an improvement over the best previously published language-independent results that use no additional linguistic information sources such as parsers, POS taggers, stemmers, etc.

3 Method

In this section, we first describe the multinomial Naïve Bayes classifier and the way we are changing it. We then explain how we use the subjectivity dataset to improve the results further.

3.1 Naïve Bayes

We use the Naïve Bayes multinomial classifier, which makes the naïve assumption that the occurrences of the attributes (in our case: words and word bigrams) in a document are conditionally independent given the document class (in our case: ‘positive’ or ‘negative’). It further assumes that the occurrences of the attributes are position- and context-independent, and that the document length is class-independent. Each document is represented as a vector of attribute counts \( x \) and its class-conditional probability is given by a multinomial distribution over the set of attributes:

\[
Pr(x|c) = \frac{Pr(l_c) \prod_d x_d^c \prod_d Pr(d|c)^x_d}{\prod_c \sum_d Pr(d) \prod_d x_d^c} \tag{1}
\]

where \( l_c \) denotes the length of document \( x \), \( c \) is a candidate class, \( d \) ranges over the set of all attributes occurring in document \( x \), and \( x_d \) is the occurrence frequency of attribute \( d \) in document \( x \).

Using the Bayes rule, we can express the posterior probability for class \( c \) given document \( x \) as follows:

\[
Pr(c|x) = \frac{Pr(c) \prod_d Pr(d|c)^x_d}{\sum_c Pr(c) \prod_d Pr(d|c)^x_d} \tag{2}
\]

Then, the most likely class \( \hat{c} \) for a document \( x \) is selected as follows:

\[
\hat{c} = \arg \max_c Pr(c|x) \tag{3}
\]

After removing the denominator, which is independent of \( c \), and after taking a logarithm, we obtain the following formula for the classification decision:

\[
\hat{c} = \arg \max_c \left[ \log Pr(c) + \sum_d x_d \log Pr(d|c) \right] \tag{4}
\]

Let \( N_{cd} \) be the sum of the values \( x_d \) of all attributes \( d \) that occur in training documents \( x \) that belong to class \( c \):

\[
N_{cd} = \sum_{x: \text{class}(x)=c} x_d \tag{5}
\]

Then the conditional probabilities \( Pr(d|c) \) can be estimated as follows:

\[
Pr(d|c) = \frac{N_{cd}}{\sum_d N_{cd}} \tag{6}
\]

In order to avoid zero-valued estimates of attribute values, the above probability should be smoothed [3]. In our experiments, we use Laplace smoothing, which estimates \( Pr(d|c) \) as follows:

\[
Pr(d|c) = \frac{N_{cd} + s}{\sum_d (N_{cd} + s)} \tag{7}
\]

We set the smoothing parameter \( s \) to 1, which is a commonly used default value.

3.2 Positional Information

The above-described multinomial Naïve Bayes model does not take into account the position of occurrence of the attributes: for topic categorization tasks, the occurrence frequency \( x_d \) of attribute \( d \) in document \( x \) is typically used as a feature weight, in the multinomial Naïve Bayes model and for sentiment polarity classification, binary attributes for word presence have been reported to yield better classification accuracy [7]. Still, in both cases, no positional information is being used.

In the above description, each occurrence of attribute \( d \) in document \( x \) would contribute a count of \( l \) to the frequency \( x_d \) regardless of the position it occurs at. However, position seems to be playing an important role since opinions in movie reviews tend to be expressed around the end of the document. In order to account for this observation, we introduce a new schema, where instead of 1, an occurrence of attribute \( d \) in document \( x \) contributes a different value to the frequency \( x_d \) depending on its position in \( x \): an attribute starting at position 0 counts as some constant \( a \), \( a \geq 0 \), and one starting at the last word in the document counts as \( b = a + q, \, q > 0 \). Attributes occurring in between get position-dependent fractional counts that are obtained using a simple linear interpolation, namely \( a + q \times \frac{p}{|x|} \), where \( p \) is the position of occurrence of the attribute and \( |x| \) is the length of document \( x \) in words.
Consider, for example, the following sample document (tokenized and lowercased):

```
i have to admit that i was a little skeptical as to how much I could really get out of another "anti-slavery" movie. Fortunately, i turned out to be wrong.
```

The attribute for the word *have* occurs at position 1 and thus will get a fractional count of \( a + q \times \frac{a_1}{3} \); this will be also the value of its \( x_d \). Similarly, the attribute for the bigram *be wrong* occurs at position 32, and thus its \( x_d \) will be \( a + q \times \frac{a_2}{3} \). Finally, the attribute for the word *to* occurs three times, at positions 2, 11, and 31, which count as \( a + q \times \frac{a_3}{3} \), \( a + q \times \frac{a_4}{3} \), and \( a + q \times \frac{a_5}{3} \), respectively; the corresponding weight \( x_d \) should be the sum of the three fractional counts. However, since we are interested in sentiment polarity classification, where binary attributes for word presence work better, we will only take into account the last occurrence of the attribute and thus we will set the value of \( x_d \) to be the fractional count for that last occurrence.

Let us now see how using such fractional counts impacts the classifier. First, let \( a \) be 0. According to eq. (6), the conditional probability \( \Pr(d|c) \) will be independent of the value of the parameter \( q \); however, as eq. (7) shows, this will not be the case if smoothing is being used. Let \( a \neq 0 \); then the fractional counts are in the interval \([a:a + q]\), which can be seen as a scaled version of the interval \([1:1 + q')\] where \( q' = q/a \). Now, let us further take into account the fact that in the movie reviews dataset there is an equal number of positive and the negative reviews. Then, we can rewrite eq. (6) as follows:

\[
\hat{c} = \arg \max_c \sum_d x_d \log \Pr(d|c) \tag{8}
\]

From the last equation, we can see that, if we multiply the values of all attributes by the constant \( a \), \( a \neq 0 \), the classification decision will remain the same (provided that we use no smoothing).

Thus, it is enough to consider two groups of classifiers, \( 0+q \) and \( 1+q \). For \( 0+q \), the classifiers are equivalent for all values of \( q \) (except for smoothing), which means that it is enough to test with \( q = 1 \). Note that changing \( q \) would be equivalent to updating the smoothing parameter \( s \) for Laplace smoothing.

For comparison purposes, we also apply a simpler scheme where we remove all attributes that appear at the first \( k \) positions in the document, assuming they contribute no sentiment information. This is similar to the approach adopted by Pang and Lee [5], where some of the objective sentences were filtered out.

### 3.3 Subjectivity

Pang and Lee [5] used a subjectivity filter to eliminate the non-subjective sentences in a target movie review, so that they could apply their polarity classifier on a smaller set of higher-quality sentences. Although 92% accurate, their filter is not perfect, which could result in some useful features being lost. In contrast, our weighting scheme can benefit from the potential subjectivity of the last sentences while still giving some smaller weight to the words in the earlier sentences.

In order to further benefit from the position-dependent weights, we propose to move the subjective sentences to the end of the document. We thus train a Naïve Bayes classifier on the subjectivity dataset, and we use its posteriors to estimate the likelihood of each sentence being subjective; we then use this likelihood to sort the sentences in decreasing order.

A potential drawback of this approach is that, if all sentences turned out to be subjective, it would be unable to take this into account. This could be addressed by combining the approach with non-subjective sentence filtering: if we only sort sentences according to subjectivity, \( 0+q \) methods should perform well, while when we also use filtering, \( 1+q \) methods should be better since the first subjective sentences would get a high positive weight rather than one close to 0.

### 4 Experiments and evaluation

In our experiments, we used the above-described sentiment polarity dataset. Unfortunately, it is not divided into proper training and testing subsets, and thus we were forced to use a 10-fold cross-validation in order to be directly comparable to previous publications.

However, there are some complications since we further want to be able to optimize some parameters such as the value of \( q \). Normally, this requires having three separate datasets: (1) training, (2) development, and (3) testing. In order to obtain a development dataset, for each iteration of the 10-fold cross-validation, we further perform an internal 5-fold cross-validation which divides the training dataset into a train-train and a train-dev datasets: the former is used for training the classifier, while the latter is used for tuning the additional parameters. After having chosen the values for the parameters, we can train on the full training dataset.

#### 4.1 Using unigrams only

Unigrams, or just words, are the most widely used attributes in sentiment analysis, and we show that the approaches proposed in sections 3.2 and 3.3 do yield improvements in accuracy when used with unigrams.

Our baseline accuracy on the sentiment polarity dataset was 83.33% for the multinomial Naïve Bayes classifier with Laplace smoothing.

Figure 1 shows that removing attributes performs worse than updating their weights. Fully removing the first few words in the documents yields a decrease when done for the first 10% of the words. However, there are some benefits of having less noise, e.g., when removing all words after the first 10% up until 50%.

The figure further shows that using 1+q has little effect, i.e., useless attributes are not penalized enough. For 0+q, the best result is achieved for \( q = 0.5 \), which yields 85.55% accuracy with a corresponding 95% Wilson confidence interval [83.94%, 87.02%]; it is a statistically significant improvement over the baseline. However, the value of \( q = 0.5 \) was chosen a posteriori, and we need further verification to choose a value for
We also experimented using the subjectivity dataset to improve the accuracy of the classifier even further. When we used filtering of the objective sentences as a baseline, we achieved 86.31% accuracy, which is very close to what previous publications have reported [5].

All methods proposed in this paper for weighting attributes yield improvements in accuracy when the sentences are sorted according to subjectivity compared to when no sorting is used. The $0+q$ method with subjectivity sorting achieves 87.23% accuracy for $q = 0.4$. Again, we need to prove that this value of $q$ does not yield a randomly good score just because of the choice being made aposteriori. Choosing a value based on the training dataset only, using the nested 5-fold cross-validation, yielded 87.62% accuracy, which means that it is very likely that the method performs at least as good as the reported accuracy.

4.2 Using unigrams and bigrams

A natural extension of the above methods is to add more features. Previous research has shown that using different sets and methods to add bigrams may improve or damage the accuracy of the classifier [4, 7]. We show that adding bigrams improves the accuracy when using the movie reviews dataset v2.0 with the full set of 1,000 positive and 1,000 negative documents. Using unigrams and bigrams with the Naïve Bayes multinomial classifier yields 85.59% accuracy, which is significantly better than the accuracy of 83.33% for unigrams only. Similarly, when using the subjectivity dataset to filter objective sentences first, unigram features yield 86.31% accuracy while using unigrams and bigrams together yields 89.30% accuracy.

With position-dependent attribute weights, we have three experimental conditions with respect to the subjectivity dataset: (1) not using it, (2) using it to sort sentences by subjectivity, and (3) using it to filter the objective sentences and then sort the remaining sentences by subjectivity.

The results are presented on Figure 2. Not using the dataset yields the maximum accuracy of 87.81% for the $0+q$ method for $q = 1$. The corresponding 95% Wilson confidence interval is [86.30%, 89.17%]. This is a statistically significant improvement compared to the baseline, which does not use the subjectivity dataset: 85.59% accuracy.

Using the subjectivity dataset allows for higher accuracy to be achieved by the $0+q$ method. Sorting the sentences by subjectivity yields 89.38% accuracy for $q = 1$. However, this is not a statistically significant improvement compared to the baseline that filters objective sentences. Thus, the method does not perform that well with unigrams and bigrams in combination with the subjectivity dataset. The highest accuracy achieved by our methods is 89.85%; it is not statistically better than our baseline, but still shows the potential of the method.
### Method | Accuracy | Reference | Subj.?  
---|---|---|---
Naive Bayes, unigrams | 83.33 | [5] |  
Unigrams, $q = 0.5$ | 85.55 | this work | –  
Naive Bayes, unigrams and bigrams | 85.59 | this work | –  
Naive Bayes, unigrams, subjectivity filter | 86.40 | [4] | +  
Unigrams, $q = 0.4$, subjectivity sort | 87.25 | this work | +  
Unigrams and bigrams, $q = 1$ | 87.81 | this work | –  
SVM, unigrams and bigrams | 88.10 | [4] | –  
Naive Bayes, unigrams and bigrams, subjectivity filter | 89.30 | this work | +  
Unigrams and bigrams, $q = 1.5$, subjectivity sort and subjectivity filter | 89.85 | this work | +

#### Table 1: Comparing our results to those in previous publications using the sentiment polarity dataset: accuracy is shown in %. The last column indicates whether the subjectivity dataset was used.

### 5 Discussion

The polarity classification task of movie reviews has attracted a lot of research interest and many classifiers have been applied to it so far. As a result, support vector machines have been found to be among the most accurate; however, as Pang and Lee [5] have shown, although the SVM classifier performs very well on the polarity classification task, removing subjective sentences fails to improve their accuracy. Matsumoto & al. [4] experimented with several methods to add different features and reported that an SVM classifier with unigrams and bigrams yields 88.1% accuracy. Our best approach achieves 89.85% accuracy using multimodal Naïve Bayes: the corresponding 95% Wilson confidence interval is [88.45%, 91.10%), which makes it significantly better than the result for SVM. Note, however, that we are using the subjectivity dataset in addition to the sentiment polarity one.

Language modeling represents another common approach to document classification. Its popularity could be explained by its simplicity and by the existence of several easy-to-use state-of-the-art implementations. However, for polarity classification, language modeling approaches generally perform poorly: the best accuracy we could find is that of Hu & al. [2], who achieved a maximum accuracy of only 84.13%.

Table 1 shows a summarized comparison of the results from our experiments with those reported in previous publications using the sentiment polarity dataset. The table also indicates which results have been obtained using the subjectivity dataset as an additional dataset.

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### 6 Conclusion and future work

We have described a novel approach to the task of determining the polarity, positive or negative, of the author’s opinion on a specific topic in natural language text. The approach uses language-independent features only and makes no use of linguistic analysis. The evaluation results on a standard dataset of movie reviews have shown classification accuracy that rivals the best previously published results for this dataset for systems that use no additional linguistic information nor external resources.

There are many ways in which the presented approach could be extended. First, we would like to try combining our attribute weighting scheme with more complex features such as subtrees of dependency trees, as proposed by Matsumoto & al. [4]; note that this would make the resulting approach dependent on a particular dependency parser, thus yielding its language-independence questionable. Another possible research direction would be using an additional classifier such that, given a list of the document sentences sorted by the likelihood of being subjective in increasing order, it can find the position after which all sentences are actually subjective; they will be then given higher weights. We would also like to experiment with other position-dependent weighting functions, e.g., non-linear. Using other classifiers is another interesting direction; in particular, we are interested in finding a way to improve SVM using the subjectivity dataset. Finally, we plan to apply our approach to other domains and languages, thus assessing the extent of validity of its underlying assumption.

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