Building Large-Scale Twitter-Specific Sentiment Lexicon: A Representation Learning Approach

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Abstract

In this paper, we propose to build large-scale sentiment lexicon from Twitter with a representation learning approach. We cast sentiment lexicon learning as a phrase-level sentiment classification task. The challenges are developing effective feature representation of phrases and obtaining training data with minor manual annotations for building the sentiment classifier. Specifically, we develop a dedicated neural architecture and integrate the sentiment information of text (e.g. sentences or tweets) into its hybrid loss function for learning sentiment-specific phrase embedding (SSPE). The neural network is trained from massive tweets collected with positive and negative emoticons, without any manual annotation. Furthermore, we introduce the Urban Dictionary to expand a small number of sentiment seeds to obtain more training data for building the phrase-level sentiment classifier. We evaluate our sentiment lexicon (TS-Lex) by applying it in a supervised learning framework for Twitter sentiment classification. Experiment results on the benchmark dataset of SemEval 2013 show that, TS-Lex yields better performance than previously introduced sentiment lexicons.

1 Introduction

A sentiment lexicon is a list of words and phrases, such as “excellent”, “awful” and “not bad”, each of which is assigned with a positive or negative score reflecting its sentiment polarity and strength. Sentiment lexicon is crucial for sentiment analysis (or opinion mining) as it provides rich sentiment information and forms the foundation of many sentiment analysis systems (Pang and Lee, 2008; Liu, 2012; Feldman, 2013). Existing sentiment lexicon learning algorithms mostly utilize propagation methods to estimate the sentiment score of each phrase. These methods typically employ parsing results, syntactic contexts or linguistic information from thesaurus (e.g. WordNet) to calculate the similarity between phrases. For example, Baccianella et al. (2010) use the glosses information from WordNet; Velikovich et al. (2010) represent each phrase with its context words from the web documents; Qiu et al. (2011) exploit the dependency relations between sentiment words and aspect words. However, parsing information and the linguistic information from WordNet are not suitable for constructing large-scale sentiment lexicon from Twitter. The reason lies in that WordNet cannot well cover the colloquial expressions in tweets, and it is hard to have reliable tweet parsers due to the informal language style.

In this paper, we propose to build large-scale sentiment lexicon from Twitter with a representation learning approach, as illustrated in Figure 1. We cast sentiment lexicon learning as a phrase-level classification task. Our method contains two parts: (1) a representation learning algorithm to effectively learn the continuous representation of phrases, which are used as features for phrase-level sentiment classification, (2) a seed expansion algorithm that enlarge a small list of sentiment seeds to collect training data for building the phrase-level classifier. Specifically, we learn sentiment-specific phrase embedding (SSPE), which is a low-dimensional, dense and real-valued vector, by encoding the sentiment information and

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Figure 1: The representation learning approach for building Twitter-specific sentiment lexicon.

syntactic contexts into the continuous representation of phrases. As a result, the nearest neighbors in the embedding space of SSPE are favored to have similar semantic usage as well as the same sentiment polarity. To this end, we extend the existing phrase embedding learning algorithm (Mikolov et al., 2013b), and develop a dedicated neural architecture with hybrid loss function to incorporate the supervision from sentiment polarity of text (e.g. tweets). We learn SSPE from tweets, leveraging massive tweets containing positive and negative emoticons as training set without any manual annotation. To obtain more training data for building the phrase-level sentiment classifier, we exploit the similar words from Urban Dictionary, which is a crowd-sourcing resource, to expand a small list of sentiment seeds. Finally, we utilize the classifier to predict the sentiment score of each phrase in the vocabulary of SSPE, resulting in the sentiment lexicon.

We evaluate the effectiveness of our sentiment lexicon (TS-Lex) by applying it in a supervised learning framework (Pang et al., 2002) for Twitter sentiment classification. Experiment results on the benchmark dataset of SemEval 2013 show that, TS-Lex yields better performance than previously introduced lexicons, including two large-scale Twitter-specific sentiment lexicons, and further improves the top-performed system in SemEval 2013 by feature combination. The quality of SSPE is also evaluated by regarding SSPE as the feature for sentiment classification of the items in existing sentiment lexicons (Hu and Liu, 2004; Wilson et al., 2005). Experiment results show that SSPE outperforms existing embedding learning algorithms. The main contributions of this work are as follows:

- To our best knowledge, this is the first work that leverages the continuous representation of phrases for building large-scale sentiment lexicon from Twitter;
- We propose a tailored neural architecture for learning the sentiment-specific phrase embedding from massive tweets selected with positive and negative emoticons;
- We report the results that our lexicon outperforms existing sentiment lexicons by applying them in a supervised learning framework for Twitter sentiment classification.

2 Related Work

In this section, we give a brief review about building sentiment lexicon and learning continuous representation of words and phrases.

2.1 Sentiment Lexicon Learning

Sentiment lexicon is a fundamental component for sentiment analysis, which can be built manually (Das and Chen, 2007), through heuristics (Kim and Hovy, 2004) or using machine learning algorithms (Turney, 2002; Li et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2013). Existing studies typically employ machine learning methods

1Word/unigram is also regarded as phrase in this paper.
2http://www.urbandictionary.com/
and adopt the propagation method to build sentiment lexicon. In the first step, a graph is built by regarding each item (word or phrase) as a node and their similarity as the edge. Then, graph propagation algorithms, such as pagerank (Esuli and Sebastiani, 2007), label propagation (Rao and Ravichandran, 2009) or random walk (Baccianella et al., 2010), are utilized to iteratively calculate the sentiment score of each item. Under this direction, parsing results, syntactic contexts or linguistic clues in thesaurus are mostly explored to calculate the similarity between items. Wiebe (2000) utilize the dependency triples from an existing parser (Lin, 1994). Qiu et al. (2009; 2011) adopt dependency relations between sentiment words and aspect words. Esuli and Sebastiani (2005) exploit the glosses information from Wordnet. Hu and Liu (2004) use the synonym and antonym relations within linguistic resources. Velikovich et al. (2010) represent words and phrases with their syntactic contexts within a window size from the web documents. Unlike the dominated propagation based methods, we explore the classification framework based on representation learning for building large-scale sentiment lexicon from Twitter.

To construct the Twitter-specific sentiment lexicon, Mohammad et al. (2013) use pointwise mutual information (PMI) between each phrase and hashtag/emoticon seed words, such as #good, #bad, :) and :('. Chen et al. (2012) utilize the Urban Dictionary and extract the target-dependent sentiment expressions from Twitter. Unlike Mohammad et al. (2013) that only capture the relations between phrases and sentiment seeds, we exploit the semantic and sentimental connections between phrases through phrase embedding and propose a representation learning approach to build sentiment lexicon.

2.2 Learning Continuous Representation of Word and Phrase

Continuous representation of words and phrases are proven effective in many NLP tasks (Turian et al., 2010). Embedding learning algorithms have been extensively studied in recent years (Bengio et al., 2013), and are dominated by the syntactic context based algorithms (Bengio et al., 2003; Collobert et al., 2011; Dahl et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2012; Mikolov et al., 2013a; Lebret et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2014). To integrate the sentiment information of text into the word embedding, Maas et al. (2011) extend the probabilistic document model (Blei et al., 2003) and predict the sentiment of a sentence with the embedding of each word. Labutov and Lipson (2013) learn task-specific embedding from an existing embedding and sentences with gold sentiment polarity. Tang et al. (2014) propose to learn sentiment-specific word embedding from tweets collected by emoticons for Twitter sentiment classification. Unlike previous trails, we learn sentiment-specific phrase embedding with a tailored neural network. Unlike Mikolov et al. (2013b) that only use the syntactic contexts of phrases to learn phrase embedding, we integrate the sentiment information of text into our method. It is worth noting that we focus on learning the continuous representation of words and phrases, which is orthogonal with Socher et al. (2011; 2013) that learn the compositionality of sentences.

3 Methodology

In this section, we describe our method for building large-scale sentiment lexicon from Twitter within a classification framework, as illustrated in Figure 1. We leverage the continuous representation of phrases as features, without parsers or hand-crafted rules, and automatically obtain the training data by seed expansion from Urban Dictionary. After the classifier is built, we employ it to predict the sentiment distribution of each phrase in the embedding vocabulary, resulting in the sentiment lexicon. To encode the sentiment information into the continuous representation of phrases, we extend an existing phrase embedding learning algorithm (Mikolov et al., 2013b) and develop a tailored neural architecture to learn sentiment-specific phrase embedding (SSPE), as described in subsection 3.1. To automatically obtain more training data for building the phrase-level sentiment classifier, we use the similar words from Urban Dictionary to expand a small list of sentiment seeds, as described in subsection 3.2.

3.1 Sentiment-Specific Phrase Embedding

Mikolov et al. (2013b) introduce Skip-Gram to learn phrase embedding based on the context words of phrases, as illustrated in Figure 2(a).

Given a phrase $w_i$, Skip-Gram maps it into its continuous representation $e_i$. Then, Skip-Gram utilizes
Figure 2: The traditional Skip-Gram model and our neural architecture for learning sentiment-specific phrase embedding (SSPE).

\( e_i \) to predict the context words of \( w_i \), namely \( w_{i-2}, w_{i-1}, w_{i+1}, w_{i+2}, \) et al. Hierarchical softmax (Morin and Bengio, 2005) is leveraged to accelerate the training procedure because the vocabulary size of phrase table is typically huge. The objective of Skip-Gram is to maximize the average log probability:

\[
f_{\text{syntactic}} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^{T} \sum_{-c \leq j \leq c, j \neq 0} \log p(w_{i+j}|e_i)
\]

where \( T \) is the occurrence of each phrase in the corpus, \( c \) is the window size, \( e_i \) is the embedding of the current phrase \( w_i \). \( w_{i+j} \) is the context words of \( w_i \), \( p(w_{i+j}|e_i) \) is calculated with hierarchical softmax. The basic softmax unit is calculated as \( \text{softmax}_j = \exp(z_j)/\sum_k \exp(z_k) \). We leave out the details of hierarchical softmax (Morin and Bengio, 2005; Mikolov et al., 2013b) due to the page limit. It is worth noting that, Skip-Gram is capable to learn continuous representation of words and phrases with the identical model (Mikolov et al., 2013b).

To integrate sentiment information into the continuous representation of phrases, we develop a tailored neural architecture to learn SSPE, as illustrated in Figure 2(b). Given a triple \( \langle w_i, s_j, \text{pol}_j \rangle \) as input, where \( w_i \) is a phrase contained in the sentence \( s_j \) whose gold sentiment polarity is \( \text{pol}_j \), our training objective is to (1) utilize the embedding of \( w_i \) to predict its context words, and (2) use the sentence representation \( s e_j \) to predict the gold sentiment polarity of \( s_j \), namely \( \text{pol}_j \). We simply average the embedding of phrases contained in a sentence as its continuous representation (Huang et al., 2012). The objective of the sentiment part is to maximize the average of log sentiment probability:

\[
f_{\text{sentiment}} = \frac{1}{S} \sum_{j=1}^{S} \log p(\text{pol}_j|s e_j)
\]

where \( S \) is the occurrence of each sentence in the corpus, \( \sum_k \text{pol}_{jk} = 1 \). For binary classification between positive and negative, the distribution of \([0,1]\) is for positive and \([1,0]\) is for negative. Our final training objective is to maximize the linear combination of the syntactic and sentiment parts:

\[
f = \alpha \cdot f_{\text{syntactic}} + (1 - \alpha) \cdot f_{\text{sentiment}}
\]

where \( \alpha \) weights the two parts. Accordingly, the nearest neighbors in the embedding space of SSPE are favored to have similar semantic usage as well as the same sentiment polarity.

We train our neural model with stochastic gradient descent and use AdaGrad (Duchi et al., 2011) to update the parameters. We empirically set embedding length as 50, window size as 3 and the learning rate of AdaGrad as 0.1. Hyper-parameter \( \alpha \) is tuned on the development set. To obtain large-scale training corpus, we collect tweets from April, 2013 through TwitterAPI. After filtering the tweets that are too short (< 5 words) and removing @user and URLs, we collect 10M tweets (5M positive and 5M negative) with positive and negative emoticons \(^3\), which is are utilized as the training data to train our neural model. The vocabulary size is 750,000 after filtering the 1~4 grams through frequency.

\(^3\) We use the emoticons selected by Hu et al. (2013), namely :) : ) :-D =) as positive and :( : ( :-( as negative ones.
3.2 Seed Expansion with Urban Dictionary

Urban Dictionary is a web-based dictionary that contains more than seven million definitions until March, 2013. It was intended as a dictionary of slang, cultural words or phrases not typically found in standard dictionaries, but it is now used to define any word or phrase. For each item in Urban Dictionary, there is a list of similar words contributed by volunteers. For example, the similar words of “coool” are “cool”, “awesome”, “coooool”, et al and the similar words of “not bad” are “good”, “ok” and “cool”, et al. These similar words are typically semantically close to and have the same sentiment polarity with the target word. We conduct preliminary statistic on the items of Urban Dictionary from “a” to “z”, and find that there are total 799,430 items containing similar words and each of them has about 10.27 similar words on average.

We utilize Urban Dictionary to expand little sentiment seeds for collecting training data for building the phrase-level sentiment classifier. We manually label the top frequent 500 words from the vocabulary of SSPE as positive, negative or neutral. After removing the ambiguous ones, we obtain 125 positive, 109 negative and 140 neutral words, which are regarded as the sentiment seeds. Afterwards, we leverage the similar words from Urban Dictionary to expand the sentiment seeds. We first build a k-nearest neighbors (KNN) classifier by regarding the sentiment seeds as gold standard. Then, we employ the KNN classifier on the items of Urban Dictionary containing similar words, and predict a three-dimensional discrete vector \([knn_{pos}, knn_{neg}, knn_{neu}]\) for each item, reflecting the hits numbers of sentiment seeds with different sentiment polarity in its similar words. For example, the vector value of “not bad” is [10, 0, 0], which means that there are 10 positive seeds, 0 negative seeds and 0 neutral seeds occur in its similar words. To ensure the quality of the expanded words, we set threshold for each category to collect the items with high quality as expanded words. Take the positive category as an example, we keep an item as positive expanded word if it satisfies \(knn_{pos} > knn_{neg} + threshold_{pos}\) and \(knn_{pos} > knn_{neu} + threshold_{pos}\) simultaneously. We empirically set the thresholds of positive, negative and neutral as 6, 3, 2 respectively by balancing the size of expanded words in three categories. After seed expansion, we collect 1,512 positive, 1,345 negative and 962 neutral words, which are used as the training data to build the phrase-level sentiment classifier. We also tried the propagation methods to expand the sentiment seeds, namely iteratively added the similar words of sentiment seeds from Urban Dictionary into the expanded word collection. However, the quantity of expanded words is less than the KNN-based results and the quality is relatively poor.

After obtaining the training data and feature representation of phrases, we build the phrase-level classifier with softmax, whose length is two for the positive vs negative case:

\[
y(w) = \text{softmax}(\theta \cdot e_i + b)
\]

where \(\theta\) and \(b\) are the parameters of classifier, \(e_i\) is the embedding of the current phrase \(w_i\), \(y(w)\) is the predicted sentiment distribution of item \(w_i\). We employ the classifier to predict the sentiment distribution of each phrase in the vocabulary of SSPE, and save the phrases as well as their sentiment probability in the positive (negative) lexicon if the positive (negative) probability is larger than 0.5.

4 Experiment

In this section, we conduct experiments to evaluate the effectiveness of our sentiment lexicon (TS-Lex) by applying it in the supervised learning framework for Twitter sentiment classification, as given in subsection 4.1. We also directly evaluate the quality of SSPE as it forms the fundamental component for building sentiment lexicon. We use SSPE as the feature for sentiment classification of items in existing sentiment lexicons, as described in subsection 4.2.

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5http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Urban_Dictionary
6http://www.urbandictionary.com/define.php?term=not+bad
7We will publish the sentiment seeds later.
4.1 Twitter Sentiment Classification

**Experiment Setup and Dataset** We conduct experiments on the benchmark Twitter sentiment classification dataset (message-level) from SemEval 2013 (Nakov et al., 2013). The training and development sets were completely released to task participants. However, we were unable to download all the training and development sets because some tweets were deleted or not available due to modified authorization status. The statistic of the positive and negative tweets in our dataset are given in Table 1(b). We train positive vs negative classifier with LibLinear (Fan et al., 2008) with default settings on the training set, tune parameters \(-c\) on the dev set and evaluate on the test set. The evaluation metric is Macro-F1.

| Lexicon      | Positive | Negative | Total |
|--------------|----------|----------|-------|
| HL           | 2,006    | 4,780    | 6,786 |
| MPQA         | 2,301    | 4,150    | 6,451 |
| NRC-Emotion  | 2,231    | 3,324    | 5,555 |
| **TS-Lex**   | **178,781** | **168,845** | **347,626** |
| HashtagLex   | 216,791  | 153,869  | 370,660 |
| Sentiment140Lex | 480,008  | 260,158  | 740,166 |

Table 1: Statistic of sentiment lexicons and Twitter sentiment classification datasets.

**Results and Analysis** We compare TS-Lex with HL8 (Hu and Liu, 2004), MPQA9 (Wilson et al., 2005), NRC-Emotion10 (Mohammad and Turney, 2012), HashtagLex and Sentiment140Lex11 (Mohammad et al., 2013). The statistics of TS-Lex and other sentiment lexicons are illustrated in Table 1(a). HL, MPQA and NRC-Emotion are traditional sentiment lexicons with a relative small lexicon size. HashtagLex and Sentiment140Lex are Twitter-specific sentiment lexicons. We can find that, TS-Lex is larger than the traditional sentiment lexicons.

We evaluate the effectiveness of TS-Lex by applying it as the features for Twitter sentiment classification in the supervised learning framework (Pang et al., 2002). We conduct experiments in two settings, namely only utilizing the lexicon features (Unique) and appending lexicon feature to existing feature sets (Appended). In the first setting, we design the lexicon features as same as the top-performed Twitter sentiment classification system in SemEval201312 (Mohammad et al., 2013). For each sentiment polarity (positive vs negative), the lexicon features are:

- total count of tokens in the tweet with score greater than 0;
- the sum of the scores for all tokens in the tweet;
- the maximal score;
- the non-zero score of the last token in the tweet;

In the second experiment setting, we append the lexicon features to the existing basic feature. We use the feature sets of Mohammad et al. (2013) excluding the lexicon feature as the basic feature, including bag-of-words, pos-tagging, emoticons, hashtags, elongated words, etc. Experiment results of the Unique features and Appended features from different sentiment lexicons on Twitter sentiment classification are given in Table 2(a).

From Table 2(a), we can find that TS-Lex yields best performance in both Unique and Appended feature sets among all sentiment lexicons, including two large-scale Twitter-specific sentiment lexicons. The reason is that the classifier for building TS-Lex utilize (1) the well developed feature representation of phrases (SSPE), which captures the semantic and sentiment connections between phrases, and (2) the enlarged sentiment words through web intelligence as training data. HashtagLex and Sentiment140Lex

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8http://www.cs.uic.edu/~liub/FBS/sentiment-analysis.html#lexicon
9http://mpqa.cs.pitt.edu/lexicons/subj_lexicon/
10http://www.saifmohammad.com/WebPages/ResearchInterests.html
11We utilize the unigram and bigram lexicons from HashtagLex and Sentiment140Lex.
12http://www.saifmohammad.com/WebPages/Abstracts/NRC-SentimentAnalysis.htm
Table 2: Macro-F1 on Twitter sentiment classification with different lexicon features.

| Lexicon          | Unique | Appended |
|------------------|--------|----------|
| HL               | 60.49  | 79.40    |
| MPQA             | 59.15  | 76.54    |
| NRC-Emotion      | 54.81  | 76.79    |
| HashtagLex       | 65.30  | 76.67    |
| Sentiment140Lex  | 72.51  | 80.68    |
| TS-Lex           | 78.07  | 82.36    |

| Lexicon           | Unique |
|-------------------|--------|
| Seed              | 57.92  |
| Expand            | 60.69  |
| Lexicon(seed)     | 74.64  |
| TS-Lex            | 78.07  |

Table 2: Macro-F1 on Twitter sentiment classification with different lexicon features.

only utilize the relations between phrases and hashtag/emoticon seeds, yet do not well capture the connections between phrases. In the Unique setting, the performances of the traditional lexicons (HL, MPQA and NRC-Emotion) are lower than large-scale Twitter-specific lexicons (HashtagLex, Sentiment140Lex and our lexicon). The reason is that, tweets have the informal language style and contain slangs and diverse multi-word phrases, which are not well covered by the traditional sentiment lexicons with a small size. After incorporating the lexicon feature of TS-Lex into the top-performs system (Mohammad et al., 2013), we further improve the macro-F1 from 84.70% to 85.65%.

Effect of Seed Expansion with Urban Dictionary

To verify the effectiveness of seed expansion through Urban Dictionary, we conduct experiments by applying (1) sentiment seeds (Seed), (2) words after expansion (Expand), (3) sentiment lexicon generated from the classifier only utilizing sentiment seeds as training data (Lexicon(seed)), (4) the final lexicon (TS-Lex) exploiting the expanded words as training data to build sentiment classifier, to produce lexicon features, and only use them for Twitter sentiment classification (Unique). From Table 2(b), we find that the performance of sentiment seeds and expanded words are relatively poor due to their low coverage. Under this scenario, seed expansion yields 2.77% improvement (from 57.92% to 60.69%) on macro-F1. By utilizing the expanded words as training data to build the phrase-level sentiment classifier, TS-Lex obtains 3.43% improvements on Twitter sentiment classification (from 74.64% to 78.07%), which verifies the effectiveness of seed expansion through Urban Dictionary. In addition, we find that only using a small number of sentiment seeds as the training data, we can obtain superior performance (74.64%) than all baseline lexicons. This indicates that the representation learning approach effectively capture the semantic and sentimental connections between phrases through SSPE, and leverage them for building the sentiment lexicon.

Effect of \( \alpha \) in SSPE

We tune the hyper-parameter \( \alpha \) of SSPE on the development set of SemEval 2013, and study its influence on the performance of Twitter sentiment classification by applying the generated lexicon as features. We utilize the expanded words as training data to train softmax and only utilize the lexicon features (Unique) for Twitter sentiment classification. Experiment results with different \( \alpha \) are illustrated in Figure 3(a).

From Figure 3(a), we can see that that SSPE performs better when \( \alpha \) is in the range of [0.1, 0.3], which is dominated by the sentiment information. The model with \( \alpha = 1 \) stands for Skip-Gram model. The sharp decline at \( \alpha = 1 \) indicates the importance of sentiment information in learning sentiment-specific phrase embedding for building sentiment lexicon.

Discussion

In the experiment, we do not apply TS-Lex into the unsupervised learning framework for Twitter sentiment classification. The reason is that the lexicon-based unsupervised method typically require the sentiment lexicon to have high precision, yet our task is to build large-scale lexicon (TS-Lex) with broad coverage. We leave this as the future work, although we may set higher threshold (e.g. larger than 0.5) to increase the precision of TS-Lex and lose the recall.

4.2 Evaluation of Different Representation Learning Methods

Experiment Setup and Dataset

We conduct sentiment classification of items in two traditional sentiment lexicons, HL (Hu and Liu, 2004) and MPQA (Wilson et al., 2005), to evaluate the effective of the
sentiment-specific phrase embedding (SSPE). We train the positive vs negative classifier with LibLinear (Fan et al., 2008). The evaluation metric is the macro-F1 of 5-fold cross validation. The statistics of HL and MPQA are listed in Table 1(a).

Baseline Embedding Learning Algorithms We compare SSPE with the following embedding learning algorithms:

1. C&W. C&W is one of the most representative embedding learning algorithms (Collobert et al., 2011) for learning word embedding, which has been proven effective in many NLP tasks.

2. W2V. Mikolov et al. (2013a) introduce Word2Vec for learning the continuous vectors for words and phrases. We utilize Skip-Gram as it performs better than CBOW in the experiments.

3. MVSA. Maas et al. (2011) learn word vectors for sentiment analysis with a probabilistic model of documents utilizing the sentiment polarity of documents.

4. ReEmbed. Lebret et al. (2013) learn task-specific embedding from existing embedding and task-specific corpus. We utilize the training set of Twitter sentiment classification as the labeled corpus to re-embed words. ReEmbed(C&W) and ReEmbed(W2V) stand for the use of different embedding results as the reference word embedding.

The embedding results of the baseline algorithms and SSPE are trained with the same dataset and parameter sets.

Results and Analysis Experiment results of the baseline embedding learning algorithms and SSPE are given in Figure 3(b). We can see that SSPE yields best performance on both lexicons. The reason is that SSPE effectively encode the sentiment information of tweets as well as the syntactic contexts of phrases from massive data into the continuous representation of phrases. The performances of C&W and W2V are relatively low because they only utilize the syntactic contexts of items, yet ignore the sentiment information of text, which is crucial for sentiment analysis. ReEmbed(C&W) and ReEmbed(W2V) achieve better performance than C&W and W2V because the sentiment information of sentences are incorporated into the continuous representation of phrases. There is a gap between ReEmbed and SSPE because SSPE leverages more sentiment supervision from massive tweets collected by positive and negative emoticons.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we propose building large-scale Twitter-specific sentiment lexicon with a representation learning approach. Our method contains two parts: (1) a representation learning algorithm to effectively learn the embedding of phrases, which are used as features for classification, (2) a seed expansion algorithm that enlarge a small list of sentiment seeds to obtain training data for building the phrase-level sentiment classifier. We introduce a tailored neural architecture and integrate the sentiment information of tweets into its hybrid loss function for learning sentiment-specific phrase embedding (SSPE). We learn SSPE from the tweets collected by positive and negative emoticons, without any manual annota-
tion. To collect more training data for building the phrase-level classifier, we utilize the similar words from Urban Dictionary to expand a small list of sentiment seeds. The effectiveness of our sentiment lexicon (TS-Lex) has been verified through applied in the supervised learning framework for Twitter sentiment classification. Experiment results on the benchmark dataset of SemEval 2013 show that, TS-Lex outperforms previously introduced sentiment lexicons and further improves the top-perform system in SemEval 2013 with feature combination. In future work, we plan to apply TS-Lex into the unsupervised learning framework for Twitter sentiment classification.

Acknowledgements

We thank Nan Yang, Yajuan Duan and Yaming Sun for their great help. This research was partly supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (No.61133012, No.61273321, No.61300113).

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