Comparison of Short-Text Sentiment Analysis Methods for Croatian

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Abstract

We focus on the task of supervised sentiment classification of short and informal texts in Croatian, using two simple yet effective methods: word embeddings and string kernels. We investigate whether word embeddings offer any advantage over corpus- and preprocessing-free string kernels, and how these compare to bag-of-words baselines. We conduct a comparison on three different datasets, using different preprocessing methods and kernel functions. Results show that, on two out of three datasets, word embeddings outperform string kernels, which in turn outperform word and n-gram bag-of-words baselines.

1 Introduction

Sentiment analysis (Pang and Lee, 2008) – a task of predicting whether the text expresses a positive, negative, or neutral opinion in general or with respect to an entity – has attracted considerable attention over the last two decades. Some of the more popular applications include political popularity (O’Connor et al., 2010) and stock price prediction (Devitt and Ahmad, 2007). Social media texts, including user reviews (Tang et al., 2009; Pontiki et al., 2014) and microblogs (Nakov et al., 2016; Kouloumpis et al., 2011), are particularly amenable to sentiment analysis, with applications in social studies (O’Connor et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2012) and marketing analyses (He et al., 2013; Yu et al., 2013). At the same time, social media poses a great challenge for sentiment analysis, as such texts are often short, informal, and noisy (Baldwin et al., 2013), and make heavy use of figurative language (Ghosh et al., 2015; Buschmeier et al., 2014).

Sentiment analysis is most often framed as a supervised classification task. Many approaches resort to rich, domain-specific features (Wilson et al., 2009; Abbasi et al., 2008), including surface-form, lexicon-based, and syntactic features. On the other hand, there has been a growing trend in using feature-light methods, including neural word embeddings (Maas et al., 2011; Socher et al., 2013) and kernel-based methods (Culotta and Sorensen, 2004; Lodhi et al., 2002a; Srivastava et al., 2013). In particular, two methods that stand out in terms of both their simplicity and effectiveness are word embeddings (Mikolov et al., 2013a) and string kernels (Lodhi et al., 2002b).

In this paper we focus on sentiment classification of short text in Croatian, a morphologically complex South Slavic language. We compare two simple yet effective methods – word embeddings and string kernels – which are often used in text classification tasks. While both methods are easy to set up, they differ in terms of preprocessing required: word embeddings require a sizable, possibly lemmatized corpus, whereas string kernels require no preprocessing at all. This motivates the main question of our research: do word embeddings offer any advantage over corpus- and preprocessing-free string kernels, and how do these methods compare to simpler bag-of-words methods? To the best of our knowledge, this question has not explicitly been addressed before, especially for a morphologically complex language like Croatian. We present findings from the comparison on three different short-text datasets in Croatian, manually labeled for sentiment polarity, using different levels of morphological preprocessing. To spur further research, we make one dataset publicly available.

2 Related Work

Sentiment classification for short and informal texts has been the focus of considerable research,
e.g., (Thelwall et al., 2010; Kiritchenko et al., 2014), especially within the recent SemEval evaluation campaigns (Nakov et al., 2016; Rosenthal et al., 2015; Rosenthal et al., 2014). Recent research has focused on sentence-level sentiment classification using neural networks: Socher et al. (2012) and Socher et al. (2013) report impressive results using a matrix-vector recursive neural network (MV-RNN) and recursive neural tensor networks models over parse trees. Tree kernels present an alternative to neural-based approaches: Kim et al. (2015) and Srivastava et al. (2013) use tree kernels on sentence dependency trees and achieve competitive results. However, as noted by Le and Mikolov (2014), while syntax-based methods work well at the sentence level, it is not straightforward to extend them to fragments spanning multiple sentences. Another downside of these methods is that they rely on parsing, which often fails on informal texts.

Word embeddings (Mikolov et al., 2013a) and string kernels (Lodhi et al., 2002b) present an alternative to syntax-based methods. Tang et al. (2014) and Maas et al. (2011) learn sentiment-specific word embeddings, while Le and Mikolov (2014) reach state-of-the-art performance for both short and long sentiment classification of English texts. Zhang et al. (2008) report impressive performance on Chinese reviews using string kernels.

There has been limited research on sentiment analysis for Croatian. Bidin et al. (2014) applied MV-RNN to prediction of phrase sentiment, while Glavaš et al. (2013) addressed aspect-based sentiment analysis using a feature-rich model. More recently, Mozetić et al. (2016) presented a multilingual study of sentiment-labeled tweets and sentiment classification in different languages, including Croatian. However, they experiment only with classifiers using standard bag-of-words features.

3 Datasets

We conducted our comparison on three short-text datasets in Croatian. The datasets differ in domain, genre, size, and the number of classes. Table 1 summarizes the datasets’ statistics.

|                     | GR | TD | TG |
|---------------------|----|----|----|
| # Positive          | 826| 2091| 2258|
| # Negative          | 1032| 607| 3883|
| # Neutral           | –  | 269| 1858|
| Total               | 1858| 2967| 7999|
| Avg. # words        | 7.97| 11.12| 22.04|
| Type-token ratio    | 0.35| 0.18| 0.21|

Table 1: Datasets’ statistics

Text spans for our analysis. The spans were labeled by three annotators, and the final annotation was determined by the majority vote on a per-token basis. The spans need not contain full sentences nor need to be limited to a single sentence.

Domain-specific tweets (TD). This dataset contains tweets related to the television singing competition “The Voice of Croatia”. The dataset contains 2967 tweets labeled as positive, neutral, or negative by three annotators. The inter-annotator agreement in terms of Fleiss’ kappa is 0.721. The final label for each tweet was determined by the majority vote.

General-topic tweets (TG). This is a collection of 7999 general-topic tweets, labeled as positive, neutral, or negative by a single annotator.

The two Twitter datasets, TD and TG, mostly contain informal and often ungrammatical text, whereas the GR dataset is mostly edited, grammatical text. Furthermore, as can be seen from Table 1, Twitter datasets are fairly unbalanced across the three classes, whereas GR is more balanced across the two classes. The GR dataset exhibits the greatest lexical variance, as evidenced by the high type-token ratio. On the other hand, as indicated by the average number of words per text segment/tweet, the texts in TG are longer than the text in the other two datasets.

4 Models

We based all our experiments on the Support Vector Machine (SVM) classification algorithm. Besides being a high-performing algorithm, SVM offers the advantage of using various kernel functions, including string kernels. We used the LIBSVM implementation (Chang and Lin, 2011) for nonlinear models and the LIBLINEAR implementation (Fan et al., 2008) for linear models.

Preprocessing. We applied the same preprocessing to all three datasets. For tokenization, we used the Google’s SyntaxNet model for Croatian (An-
Table 2: BoW baseline feature vector dimensions

|          | GR | TD | TG |
|----------|----|----|----|
| # Words  | 1558 | 1915 | 9645 |
| # Lemmas | 1383 | 1484 | 8101 |
| # Stems  | 1454 | 1516 | 7928 |
| # N-grams| 8357 | 9966 | 46474 |

dor et al., 2016). Croatian is a highly inflectional language, which has been shown to negatively affect classification accuracy (Malenica et al., 2008). We therefore experimented with two morphological normalization techniques: lemmatization and stemming. For lemmatization, we used the CST lemmatizer for Croatian by Agić et al. (2013). The reported lemmatization accuracy is 97%. For stemming, which is a simple and less accurate alternative to lemmatization, we employed a simple rule-based stemmer by Ljubešić et al. (2007). The stemmer works by stripping the inflectional suffixes of nouns and adjectives. We performed no stopwords removal.

**BoW baselines.** We evaluated four bag-of-word (BoW) baselines. The baselines use words, stems, and lemmas as features. Additionally, we considered character n-grams, which have been shown useful for text classification of noisy texts (Cavnar et al., 1994). Character n-grams can be viewed as an alternative to morphological normalization, as well as a feature-based counterpart to string kernels. We experimented with 2-, 3-, 4-, and 5-grams, which we combined into a single feature set. From each dataset, we filtered out all words, lemmas, and stems occurring less than two times, and all n-grams occurring less than six times. Table 2 lists the vector feature dimensions after filtering. We used a linear kernel for all baseline models.

**Word embeddings.** Word embeddings (Mikolov et al., 2013a) belong to a class of predictive distributional semantics models (Turney and Pantel, 2010), which derive dense vector representations of word meanings from corpus co-occurrences. While it has been shown that word embeddings produce high-quality word representations, it has also been shown that they exhibit additive compositionality, i.e., they can be used to represent the compositional meaning of phrases and text fragments by means of simple vector averaging (Mikolov et al., 2013b; Wieting et al., 2015). We trained 300-dimensional skip-gram word embeddings using the word2vec tool\(^3\) on fhrWaC (Šnajder et al., 2013), a filtered version of the Croatian web corpus compiled by Ljubešić and Klubička (2014). We set the window size to 5, negative sampling parameter to 5, and used no hierarchical softmax. When averaging the vectors, we ignored the words, stems, or lemmas that are not covered in the corpus.

SVM’s performance very much depends on the choice of the kernel function. For the word embeddings model, we experimented with three different kernels: the linear kernel, the radial basis function (RBF) kernel, and the cosine kernel (Kim et al., 2015). A linear kernel is tantamount to not using any kernel at all and effectively results in a linear model. In contrast, the RBF kernel yields a high-dimensional non-linear model. The cosine kernel is similar to a linear kernel, but additionally includes vector normalization (hence accounting for different-length vectors) and raising to a power:

\[
CK(x, y) = \left[ \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{(x, y)}{\|x\|\|y\|} \right) \right]^{\alpha}
\]

**String kernels.** A string kernel measures the similarity of two texts in terms of their string similarity, effectively mapping the instances to a high-dimensional feature space. This eliminates the need for features and morphological processing. We experimented with two widely used kernels: a subsequence kernel (SSK) (Lodhi et al., 2002a) and a spectrum kernel (SK) (Leslie et al., 2002). SSK maps each input string \(s\) to

\[
\varphi_u(s) = \sum_{i:u=s[i]} \lambda^l(i)
\]

where \(u\) is a subsequence searched for in \(s\), \(i\) is a vector of indices at which \(u\) appears in \(s\), \(l\) is a function measuring the length of a matched subsequence and \(\lambda \leq 1\) is a weighting parameter giving lower weights to longer subsequences. The corresponding kernel is defined as:

\[
K_n(s, t) = \sum_{u \in \Sigma^n} \langle \varphi_u(s), \varphi_u(t) \rangle
\]

where \(n\) is maximum subsequence length for which we are calculating the kernel and \(\Sigma^n\) is a set of all finite strings of length \(n\). The spectrum kernel can be viewed as a special case of SSK where vector of

\(^2\)https://github.com/tensorflow/models/blob/master/syntaxnet/universal.md

\(^3\)https://code.google.com/p/word2vec/
Table 3: F1-scores for the BoW, word embeddings, and string kernel models on the game reviews (GR), domain-specific (TD), and general-topic (TG) twitter datasets. The best-performing configuration for each model is indicated in bold. Statistically significant differences are marked with *.

| Model/Features | Kernel | GR   | TD   | TG   |
|----------------|--------|------|------|------|
| **BoW baseline** |        |      |      |      |
| Words          | Linear | 0.712| 0.673| 0.485|
| N-grams        | Linear | 0.714| 0.690| 0.509|
| Stems          | Linear | 0.765| 0.716| 0.517|
| Lemmas         | Linear | 0.741| 0.711| 0.505|
| **Word embeddings** |        |      |      |      |
| Words          | Linear | 0.801| 0.653| 0.550|
| Words          | RBF    | 0.807| 0.693| 0.565*|
| Words          | Cosine | 0.812| 0.715| 0.560|
| Lemmas         | Linear | 0.798| 0.655| 0.536|
| Lemmas         | RBF    | 0.806| 0.715| 0.543|
| Lemmas         | Cosine | 0.822*| 0.711| 0.546|
| **String kernels** |        |      |      |      |
| – SK           |        | 0.781| 0.722| 0.496|
| – SSK          |        | 0.778| 0.718| 0.506|

indices $i$ must yield contiguous subsequences and $\lambda$ is set to 1. We compute the string kernels using the Harry string similarity tool.4

5 Experiments

Evaluation setup. We evaluated all models using nested $k$-folded evaluation with hyperparameter grid search ($C$ and $\gamma$ for RBF, $\lambda$ and $n$ for SSK, $n$ for SK, $\alpha$ for the cosine kernel). We used 10 folds in the outer and 5 folds in inner (model selection) loop. Following the established practice in evaluating sentiment classifiers (Nakov et al., 2013), we evaluated using the average of the F1-scores for the positive and the negative classes. We used a t-test (p < 0.05, with Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons where applicable) for testing the significance of differences between the F1-scores.

Results. Table 3 shows the F1-scores on the three datasets for the baseline, word embeddings, and string kernel models, using different feature sets and kernel configurations. For BoW baselines, the best results are obtained using stemming on all three datasets, i.e., lemmatization does not outperform stemming on neither of the three datasets. For word embeddings, non-linear kernels, cosine kernel in particular, outperform the linear kernel. Lemmatization improves the performance only slightly on the GR dataset, and does not improve or even hurts the performance on the other two datasets. Finally, for string kernels, we obtain the best results with the spectrum kernel on GR and TD datasets, and subsequence kernel on the TG dataset.

Comparing the best results for the three models, we observe that both word embeddings and string kernels outperform the BoW baseline on the GR and TG datasets (statistically significant difference). Overall, word embeddings yield the best performance on these two datasets, while string kernels give the best performance on the TD dataset, though the difference is not statistically significant.

Comparing across the datasets, we notice that the performance on TD and TG datasets is worse than on the GR dataset. This can be traced back to the informality of TD and TG texts, and also the fact that these datasets have three sentiment classes, whereas the GR dataset has only two. The performance on the TG set is probably further impeded by the fact that it covers a variety of topics, and has been annotated by a single annotator.

Discussion. We can make three main observations based on the results obtained. The first is that a word embedding model with a cosine kernel and with either words or lemmas as features significantly outperforms both the baseline and the string kernel model on two out of three datasets. This suggest that a word embedding model should be the model of choice for short-text sentiment analysis in Croatian. The second observation is that lemmatization was mostly not useful in our case: for BoW baseline, stems and n-grams offer better or comparable performance, while for word embeddings lemmatization improved performance on only one out of three datasets. While this could probably be traced back to the noisiness of the informal text (at least for TD and TG datasets), it suggests that lemmatization does not really pay off for this task, especially considering its complexity relative to stemming. Finally, we observe that, although string kernels did not significantly outperform the best baseline models, they do significantly outperform the BoW with words as features on two out of three datasets. Thus, in cases when both a stemmer and word embeddings are not available, string kernels may be the model of choice.

6 Conclusion

We addressed the task of short-text sentiment classification for Croatian using two simple yet effective methods: word embeddings and string kernels.
We trained a number of SVM models, using different preprocessing techniques and kernels, and compared them on three datasets exhibiting different characteristics. We find that word embeddings outperform the baseline bag-of-word-models and string kernels on two out of three datasets. Thus, word embeddings are a method of choice for short-text sentiment classification of Croatian. In cases when word embeddings are not an option, bag-of-words with simple stemming is the preferred method. Finally, if stemming is not available, string kernels should be used. We found lemmatization to be of limited use for this task.

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