Learning Sentiment and Semantic Relatedness in User Generated Content Using Neural Models

by

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Submitted to the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science
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Abstract

Online review platforms and discussion forums are filled with insights that are critical to unlocking the value in user-generated content. In this thesis, we investigate two major Natural Language Processing (NLP) research areas: *Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis* (ABSA) and *Community Question Answering* (cQA) ranking problems, for the purposes of harnessing and understanding the *sentiment* and *semantics* expressed in review platforms and discussion forums. Riding on the recent trends of deep learning, this work applies neural networks to solve these tasks. We design neural-based models including Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Long Short-Term Memory Networks (LSTMs) to capture the *semantic* and *sentiment* information.

Aspect Based Sentiment Analysis is concerned with predicting the aspect categories mentioned in a sentence and the sentiments associated with each aspect category. We refer to these tasks as *Aspect Category Detection* and *Aspect category Sentiment Prediction*, respectively. We present a neural-based model with convolutional layers and Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) to address these tasks. The model uses the word vector representations generated using *word2vec* and computes the convolutional vectors of the user-generated reviews. These vectors are then employed to predict the aspect categories and their corresponding sentiments. We evaluate the performance of our ABSA models on a restaurant review dataset and show that our results on the aspect category detection task and aspect category sentiment prediction task outperform the baselines.

The *Community Question Answering* system is concerned with automatically finding the related questions in an existing set of questions, and finding the relevant answers to a new question. We address these ranking problems, which we respectively refer to as *similar-Question Retrieval* and *Answer Selection*. We present a neural-based model with stacked bidirectional LSTMs and MLP to address these tasks. The model generates the vector representations of the question-question or question-answer pairs and computes their semantic similarity scores. These scores are then used to rank and predict relevancies. Extensive experiments demonstrate that our cQA models for the question retrieval and answer selection tasks outperform

the baselines if enough training data is available.

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I am most grateful to my mom, dad and brother for their eternal love and support, and for being there for me under any and all circumstances. Without them, none of this would have been possible. I also cannot but thank my uncles, aunts and cousins because I am blessed to have them all in my life.

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Chapter 1

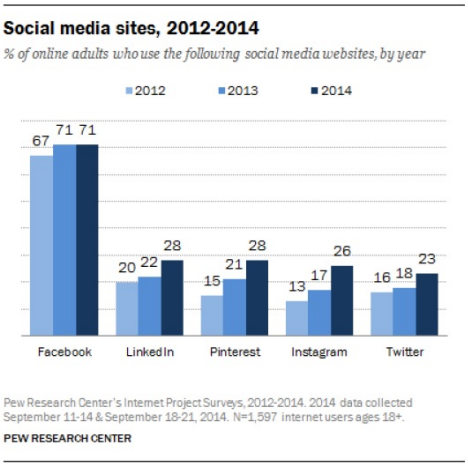
Introduction

In this thesis, we aim to capture the sentiment and semantic information in user generated content. We aim to achieve this goal by investigating two major Natural Language Processing (NLP) research topics: *Aspect-based Sentiment Analysis* (ABSA) and *Community Question Answering* (cQA) ranking problems. We present several neural-based approaches including Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) and Long Short-Term Memory Networks (LSTM) to tackle these problems. In this chapter, we first discuss the motivation behind our research in Section 1.1, then identify our goals in Section 1.1.2, explain our research problems in Section 1.2, and finally present the contributions of this thesis in Section 1.3.

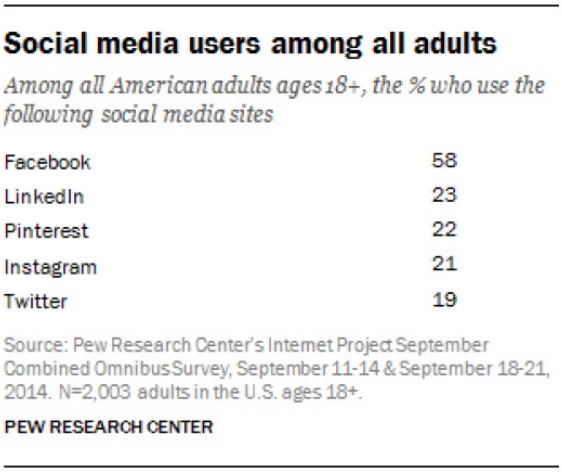
1.1 Motivation

In just a few years, social media, once merely regarded as a hub for high school and college students, has grown into a major communication and content-sharing medium, exerting tremendous influence over the way people around the world interact. Figure 1-1(a) shows the growing trend in social media, and Figure 1-1(b) shows the growing trend among adults (18+).

This growth, primarily fueled by the increase in smartphone penetration, smartphone connectivity, and change in social trends, has had profound implications on businesses. Social media shapes customers' perceptions of a brand, whether through



(a) Popularity of Social Media Platforms.



(b) Social Media Trends Among Adults.

Figure 1-1: The rise of social media. Figure 1-1(a) shows the popularity of some social media platforms from 2012 to 2014, and Figure 1-1(b) shows the fraction of adults using some of the popular social media platforms.

timely and targeted promotions, responsive customer service or the creation of communities of interest. At the same time, social media has granted power to the customers who, with the click of a button, can now share their experiences -*positive* or *negative*- with millions of people around the globe. As a result of that leverage, the successes and missteps of organizations are now on display as never before.

In light of this new distribution of influence, businesses are now concerned with harnessing the power of social media to better promote and maintain their brand. Platforms currently referred to as 'social media' fall into one or more of the current eight categories shown in Figure 1-2.

A social media platform can fall under one or multiple of the following categories.

Relationship Networks: These are the most common type of social media, and allow users to keep and share their communications either privately or with their entire networks. They vary from social networks that help you keep up with your friends, to professional relationship networks that help you connect with other professionals in the field. Major players in this area include *Facebook*, *Twitter* and *Linkedin*. An example of a relationship network (`Facebook`) is shown in Figure 1-3.

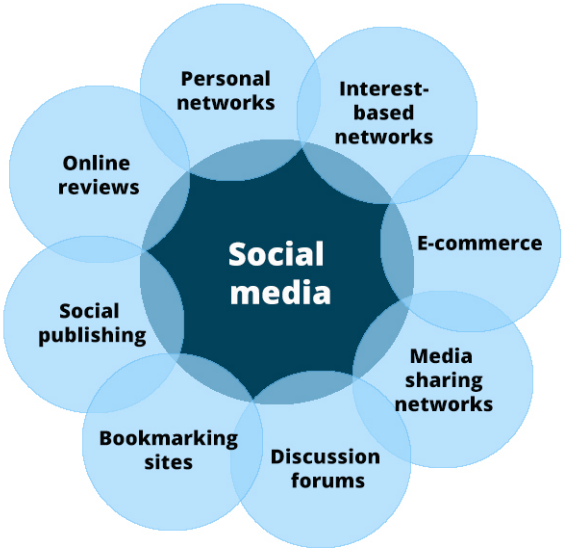


Figure 1-2: Social Media Categories (Sorokina, 2015)

Figure 1-3: Example of a relationship network (`Facebook`).

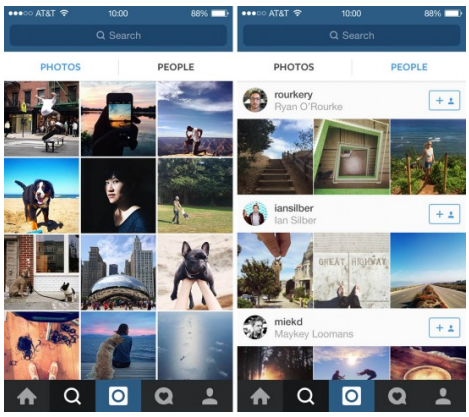


Figure 1-4: Example of a media sharing network (`Instagram`).

Media Sharing Networks: This type of social network is defined by the primary type of media shared among users, usually photos or videos. Major Players in this area include *Flickr*, *Instagram*, *Youtube*, *Vimeo*. An example of a media sharing network (`Instagram`) is shown in Figure 1-4.

Online Reviews Platforms: There are sites to review anything from hotels, restaurants or employers. Their growth has been driven by the adoption of geolocation and the need for better recommendation engines. Major players include *Yelp*, *UrbanSpoon* and *TripAdvisor*. An example of an online review network (`Yelp`) is

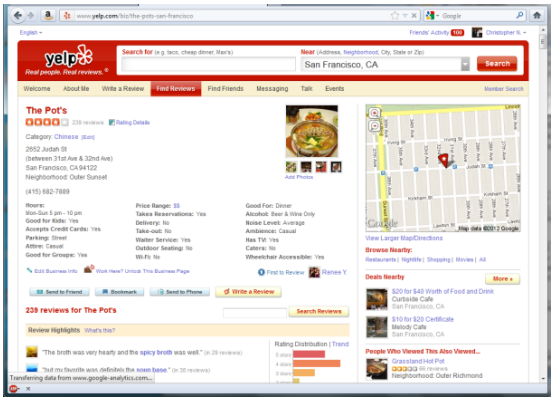


Figure 1-5: Example of an online review network (`Yelp`).

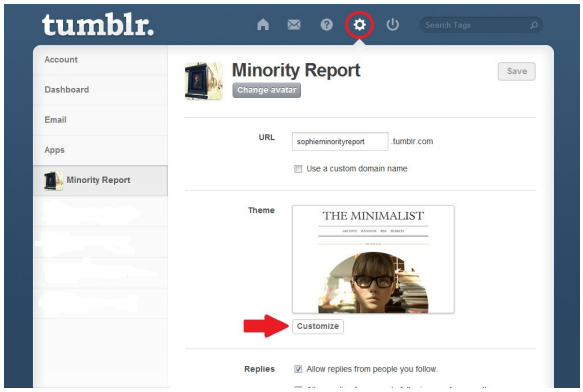


Figure 1-6: Example of a social publishing platform (`Tumblr`).

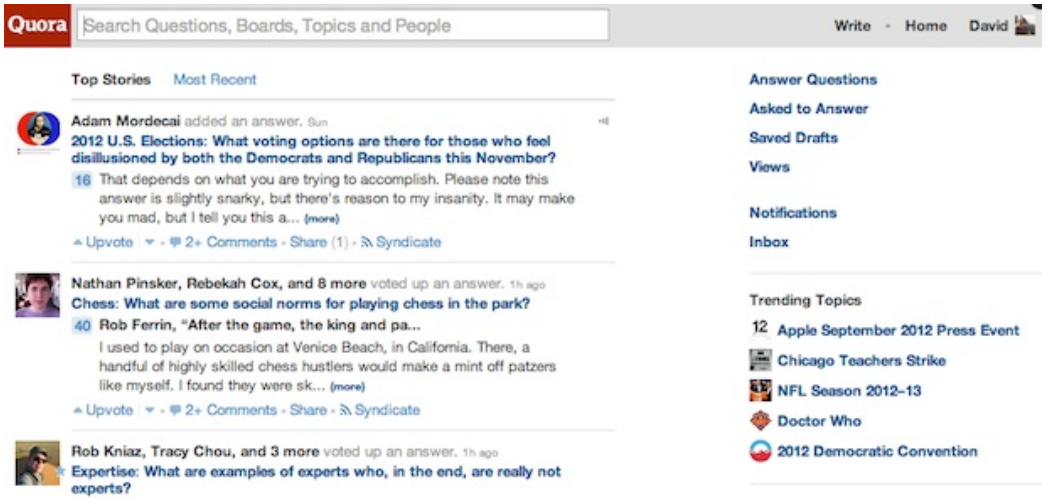


Figure 1-7: Example of a discussion forum (`Quora`).

shown in Figure 1-5.

Social Publishing Platform: These are mainly social publishing and blogging platforms, such as *Tumblr*, *Medium* and *Wordpress*. An example of a social publishing platform (`Tumblr`) is shown in Figure 1-6.

Discussion Forums: The growth in this type of network is driven by the desire share collective knowledge. There are numerous users on forums such as *Quora* and *Stack Overflow*. An example of discussion forum (`Quora`) is shown in Figure 1-7.

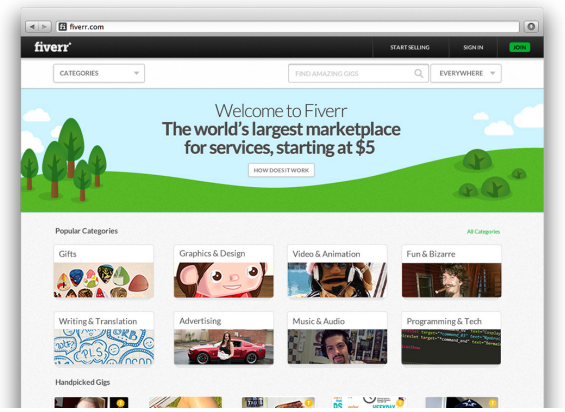


Figure 1-8: Example of e-commerce platform (`Fiverr`).

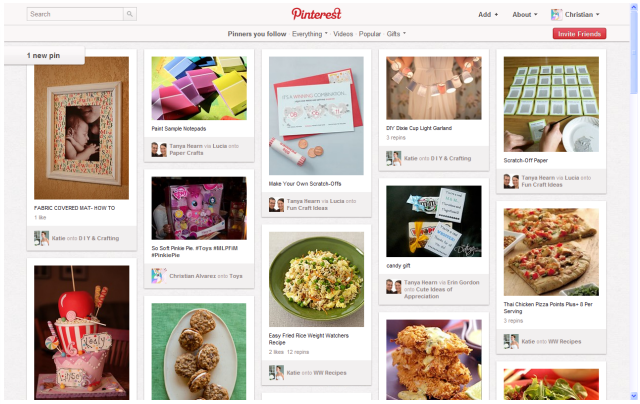


Figure 1-9: Example of a bookmarking site (`Pinterest`).

E-commerce Platform: These platforms allow small businesses and individual entrepreneurs to sell their products without an existing brick-and-mortar location. Major players are *Etsy* and *Fiverr*. Over the past years, many other networks, such as *Pinterest*, *Twitter*, and *Facebook*, have expanded into e-commerce. An example of an e-commerce platform (`Fiverr`) is shown in Figure 1-8.

Bookmarking Sites: These are content-aggregation platforms, such as *StumbleUpon*, *Pinterest*, and *Flipboard*, where users collect content from many different sources and share it with other users. An example of a bookmarking site (`Pinterest`) is shown in Figure 1-9.

Interest-Based Networks: These networks are centered around the exploration of interests. Such networks include, *Lastfm* for musicians and music lovers, and *Goodreads* for authors and avid readers. An example of an interest-based network is shown in Figure 1-10.

1.1.1 Research Scope

For the purpose of this thesis, we will only be concerned with presenting methods that can be used to harness content of *online review platforms* and *discussion forums*.

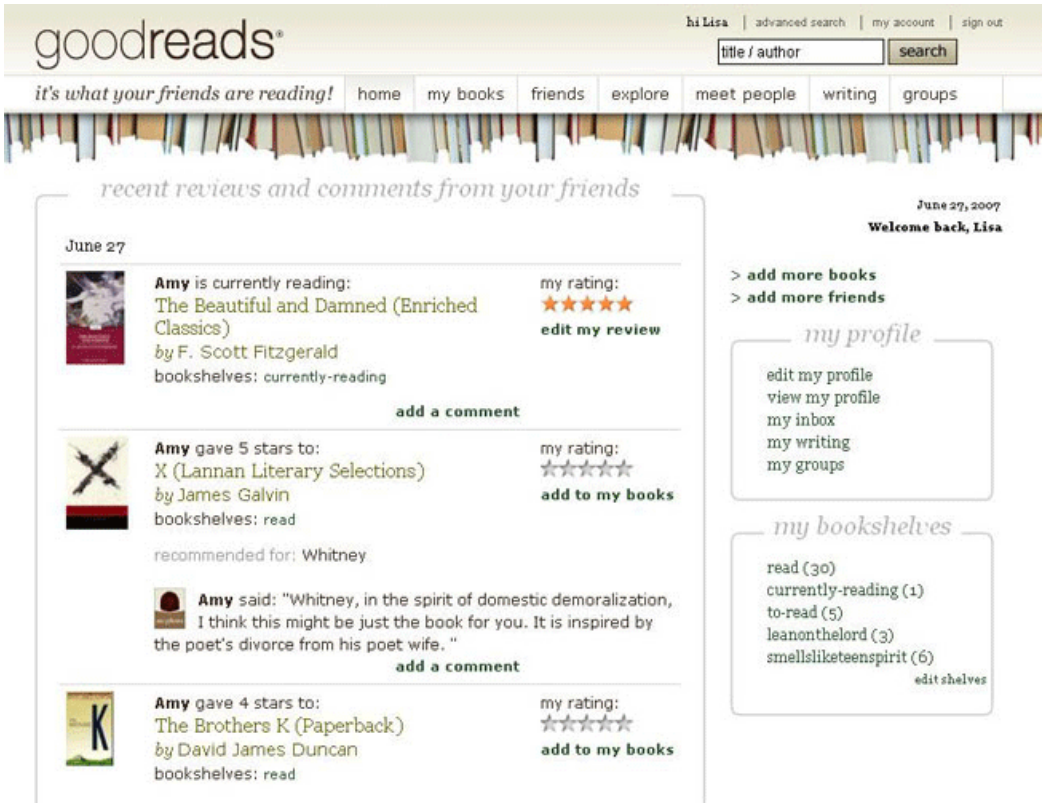


Figure 1-10: Example of an interest-based network (`Goodreads`).

Online Review Platforms: With the proliferation of reviews, ratings, recommendations, and other forms of online expression, many businesses are now looking into the field of *sentiment analysis* to identify new opportunities to manage their reputations. *sentiment analysis* or *opinion mining* deals with computational analysis of people's opinions, sentiments, attitudes and emotions towards target entities such as products, organizations, individuals, topics and their attributes (Liu, 2012).

Discussion Forums: Discussion forums or *Community Question Answering* (cQA) systems, such as *Quora*, *Stack Overflow*, are becoming the go-to platforms for many important decisions. Such systems are seldom moderated, quite open, and thus have little restrictions, if any, on who can post and who can answer a question. On the positive side, this means that one can freely ask any question and expect some good, honest answers. On the negative side, it takes effort to go through all possible answers and make sense of them. It is not unusual for a question to have hundreds of answers,

which makes it very time-consuming for the user to inspect and to winnow through them all.

1.1.2 Goal

In this thesis, we develop several approaches to harness the content of social media websites, specifically *review websites* and *discussion forums*. For *review websites*, we perform aspect-based sentiment analysis, and for *discussion forums*, we perform question and answer retrieval. In Section 1.2, we explain the research problems for each platform.

1.2 Problem Description

The methods to harness content differ from one type of platform to another. The effectiveness of any method will highly depend on the context in which it is applied. Thus, harnessing content from review websites requires a different set of methods than the ones used for harnessing content from discussion forums. For review websites, we are primarily concerned with extracting the author's sentiment and the entities (or aspects) the author is referring to. For discussion forums, we are primarily concerned with retrieving questions that are similar to a new question asked by a user, and identifying relevant the best answers to a question in a Q&A thread. We elaborate on the two different problems in the following sections.

1.2.1 Aspect Based Sentiment analysis

Mining opinions about specific aspects and aspect categories expressed in online review platforms is referred to as *Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis* (ABSA) (Pontiki et al., 2015). ABSA entails four main tasks, which have been specified in SemEval-2014 Task 4 (Pontiki et al., 2014) as the following:

Aspect Term Extraction

Given a set of sentences that target a specific pre-identified entity (e.g., a restaurant review), the system needs to identify and return a list of distinct aspects of the specified entity. For instance, in the following examples, the italic words are aspect terms:

- "I liked the *service* and the *staff*, but not the *food*."
- "The *food* was nothing much, but I loved the *staff*."

Multi-word aspect terms should be treated as single terms. For example, "hard disk" is the only aspect term of the sentence "The *hard disk* is very noisy".

Aspect Sentiment Prediction

Given a set of aspect terms for a specific entity, the system should determine whether the sentiment associated with the aspect is *positive*, *negative*, *neutral* or *conflict* (i.e., a combination of *positive* and *negative*. For example:

- "I hated their **fajitas**, but their **salads** were great." $\Rightarrow$ {fajitas: *negative*, salads: *positive*}
- "The **fajitas** are their first plate." $\Rightarrow$ {fajitas: *neutral*}
- "The **fajitas** were great to taste, but not to see." $\Rightarrow$ {fajitas: *conflict*}

In the first example, the author mentions two aspects: *fajitas* and *salads*, and clearly expresses an opinion on each of them. The word *hated* refers to *fajitas* making the author's opinion on this aspect *negative*, and the word *great* refers to *salads* making the author's opinion on this aspect *positive*. In the second example, the author does not express an opinion on the aspect *fajitas*, but rather refers to the order in which the food was served. Thus, the author has a *neutral* opinion about the aspect. In the third example, the author expresses mixed feelings about the aspect *fajitas*, some *positive* as corroborated by the expression "*great to taste*", and some *negative* as corroborated by the expression "*not great to see*". In this case, the author has a *conflict* opinion about the aspect.

Aspect Category Detection

Given a predefined set of aspect categories (e.g., *price*, *food*) and a set of review sentences (but without any annotations of aspect terms and their sentiments), the system should identify the aspect categories discussed in each sentence. Aspect categories are coarse definitions that encompass a large set of aspect terms. For instance, given the set of aspect categories *food, service, price, ambiance, anecdotes/miscellaneous*, the categories of the following sentences are as follows:

- "The restaurant was too expensive." $\Rightarrow$ {*price*}
- "The restaurant was expensive, but the menu was great." $\Rightarrow$ {*price*, *food*}

In both examples, the author mentions the word *expensive* which pertains to the *price* category. In the second example, the word *menu* pertains to the *food* category.

Aspect Category Sentiment Prediction

Given a set of identified aspect categories for a specific review, we need to classify the sentiment of each category into one of the following classes: *positive*, *negative*, *neutral*, *conflict*. For example:

- "The restaurant was too expensive." $\Rightarrow$ {*price: negative*}
- "The restaurant was expensive, but the menu was great." $\Rightarrow$ {*price: negative*, *food: positive*}

In the first example, the author was unhappy with the restaurant's price, and thus expresses a negative opinion on the category *price*. In the second example, the author expresses a positive opinion on the category *food* and a negative opinion on the category *price*.

In this thesis, we investigate the tasks "*Aspect Category Detection*" and "*Aspect Category Sentiment Prediction*" for ABSA.

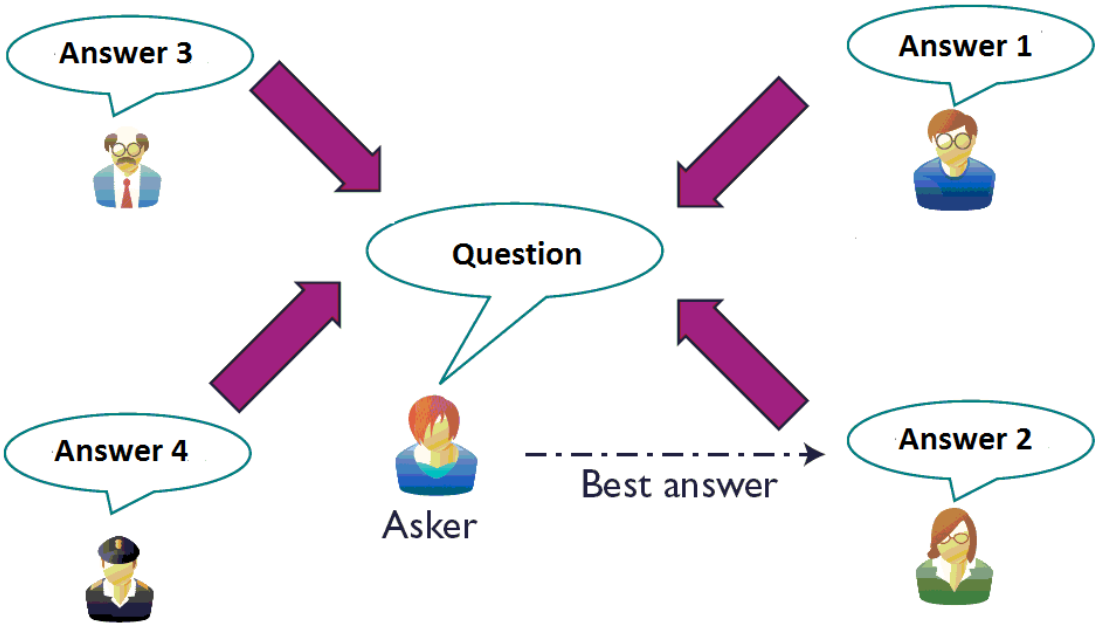


Figure 1-11: Online question answering platform. This figure shows a community question answering platform with one question and four provided answers. The second answer is selected as the *best answer* with respect to the question.

1.2.2 Community Question Answering

In Community Question Answering platforms, semantic similarity or relatedness between the questions and answers can be used to identify similar questions and rank answers in order of relevance to their questions as illustrated in Figure 1-11. The former is referred to as the *Question Retrieval* task, while the latter is referred to as the *Answer Selection* task. These tasks are explained in the following sections.

Question Retrieval

Given a new question and a list of questions, we automatically rank the questions in the list according to their relevancy to the new question. For Example:

- *Question 1:* Can I drive with an Australian driver's license in Qatar?
- *Retrieved Questions:*

  Question 2: How long can i drive in Qatar with my international driver's

permit before I'm forced to change my Australian license to a Qatari one? When I do change over to a Qatar license do I actually lose my Australian license? I'd prefer to keep it if possible... → ***question similar to Question 1.***

Question 3: How can I get a driver license ? → ***question not similar to Question 1.***

In the first retrieved question *(Question 2)*, the author inquires about the duration for which he can use his Australian driver license to drive in Qatar. This question does have some evident overlap with the original question *(Question 1)* on the possibility of driving in Qatar with an Australian driver license. In the second retrieved question *(Question 3)*, the author inquires about the process of getting a driver license, which is not related to the *(Question 1)*.

Answer Selection

Given a cQA thread containing a question and a list of answers, we automatically rank the answers according to their relevance to the question. For example:

- *Question 1:* Can I drive with an Australian driver's license in Qatar?
- *Answers:*

  Answer 1: depends on the insurer, Qatar Insurance Company said this in email to me: "Thank you for your email! With regards to your query below, a foreigner is valid to drive in Doha with the following conditions: Foreign driver with his country valid driving license allowed driving only for one week from entry date; Foreign driver with international valid driving license allowed driving for 6 months from entry date; Foreign driver with GCC driving license allowed driving for 3 months from entry" As an Aussie your driving licence should be transferable to a Qatar one with only the eyetest (temporary, then permanent once RP sorted). → ***good answer to Question 1.***

  Answer 2: Hi there :D does anyone know how much would it cost to get a driving license !! although i have had it before in my country so practically i

know how to drive. any HELP !? → ***not an answer to Question 1.***

In the first retrieved answer *(Answer 2)*, the response elaborates on the validity of foreign and international driving licenses in Qatar, as well as the process of converting an international driver license to a Qatari driver license. This answer clearly responds the question *(Question 1)*, which was about the possibility to drive in Qatar with an Australian driver license. In the second retrieved answer *(Answer 2)*, the respondent asks a different question rather than answering the initial one.

1.3 Contributions

In light of the problems explained in Section 1.2, we present our contributions to address each of the challenges in *Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis* (ABSA) and *Community-Question Answering* (cQA), as briefly explained in the following sections.

1.3.1 Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis

We present a neural-based model with Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) to address the *Aspect Category Detection*, and *Aspect Category Sentiment Prediction* tasks. The model uses vector representations computed using *word2vec* to generate feature maps through a set of a different convolutions. We explore both one-vs-all and multiclass-multilabel classification schemes to accomplish the desired tasks.

1.3.2 Community-Question Answering

We present a neural-based model with stacked bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) recurrent neural networks and Multi Layer Perceptrons (MLP) to address the *Question Retrieval*, and *Answer Selection* tasks. The model generates the vector representations of the question-question or question-answer pairs and computes their semantic similarity scores, which are then employed to rank and predict relevancies. We explore different system architectures ranging from a single bidirectional LSTM layer to a double bidirectional LSTM layer to accomplish the desired tasks.

1.4 Thesis Outline

In this thesis, we start by presenting the motivation behind our work on Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis (ABSA) and Community Question-Answering (cQA). In Chapter 2, we present a review of the methods and concepts used to address these tasks. Chapter 3 discusses previous works in the areas of ABSA and cQA. In Chapter 4, we present our experimental setup for Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis (ABSA), our evaluation metrics and results, our system performance, and visualize the output of the system to show some intuition behind the results. Chapter 5 follows a structure parallel to that of Chapter 4, but applied to Community Question Answering (cQA) instead. Finally, Chapter 6 summarizes our work and suggests future steps in these domains.

Chapter 2

Background

This chapter presents some background information for the research presented in this thesis. We outline some of the neural network concepts we have used in the two neural-based models we have developed for the ABSA and cQA problems. In Section 2.1, we review *Convolutional Neural Networks*, before discussing *Recurrent Neural Networks* in Section 2.2. We review *Long Short-Term Memory Recurrent Neural Network* in Section 2.3, and present some background about *Word Vector Representations* in Section 2.4.

2.1 Convolutional Neural Networks

A Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) is comprised of one or more convolutional layers (often with a subsampling step) followed by one or more fully connected layers as in a standard multilayer neural network. At every layer of the CNN, multiple convolving filters are applied to local features (LeCun et al., 1998) to generate feature maps. Originally invented for computer vision, CNN models have subsequently been shown to be effective for NLP and have achieved excellent results in semantic parsing (Yih et al., 2014), search query retrieval (Shen et al., 2014), sentence modeling (Kalchbrenner et al., 2014), and other traditional NLP tasks (Collobert et al., 2011). A typical Convolutional Neural Network is structured as shown in Figure 2-1.

The convolution process (Irwin, 1997) that leads to the generation of a feature

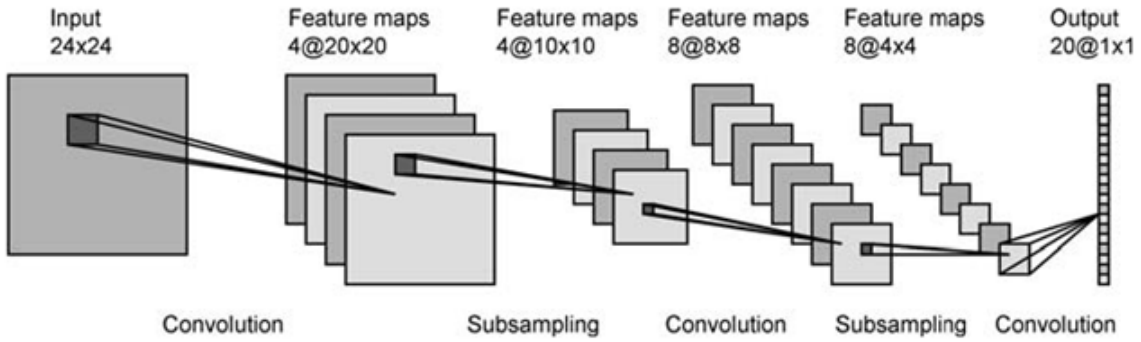


Figure 2-1: Layers in a Convolutional Neural Network. A CNN is a succession of Convolution and Subsampling layers, preceding a fully connected layer. *Based on* (LeCun et al., 1998; Strigl et al., 2010).

map is depicted in Figure 2-2. A convolution is formally defined as follows:

In 1-Dimensional Space:

$$\begin{aligned} o[n] = f[n] * g[n] &= \sum_{u=-\infty}^{\infty} f[u]g[n-u] \\ &= \sum_{u=-\infty}^{\infty} f[n-u]g[u] \end{aligned} \tag{2.1}$$

In 2-Dimensional Space:

$$\begin{aligned} o[m,n] = f[m,n] * g[m,n] &= \sum_{u=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{v=-\infty}^{\infty} f[u,v]g[m-u,n-v] \\ &= \sum_{u=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{v=-\infty}^{\infty} f[m-u,n-v]g[u,v] \end{aligned} \tag{2.2}$$

where o is the output function; f and g are the input functions.

The subsampling process is one by which the dimensionality of the feature maps is reduced. Figure 2-3 illustrates the process.

2.2 Recurrent Neural Networks

Many versions of recurrent neural networks have been developed and adapted to achieve results in different situations. We discuss the shortcomings of traditional

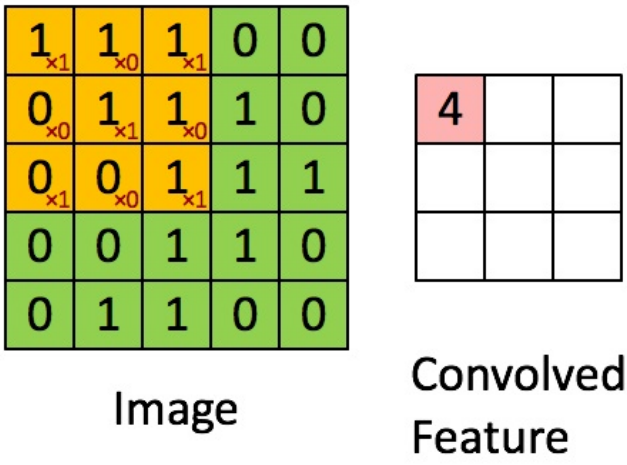


Figure 2-2: The Convolution Process (Ian Goodfellow and Courville, 2016). This figure shows the process of convolving a 3x3 filter (yellow) with a 5x5 image (green) to obtain a 3x3 feature map.

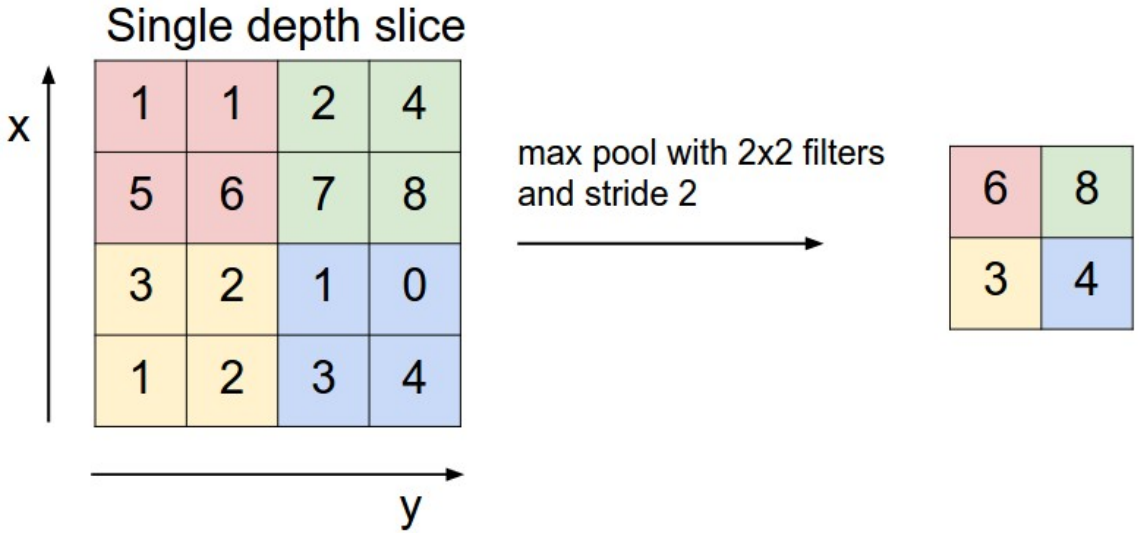


Figure 2-3: The Subsampling Step in CNN. This figure shows the process of subsampling a 4x4 image using a maxpooling operation and a 2x2 pool size (Karpathy and Fei-Fei, 2016).

recurrent neural networks, and the suitability of LSTM for calculating semantic similarity.

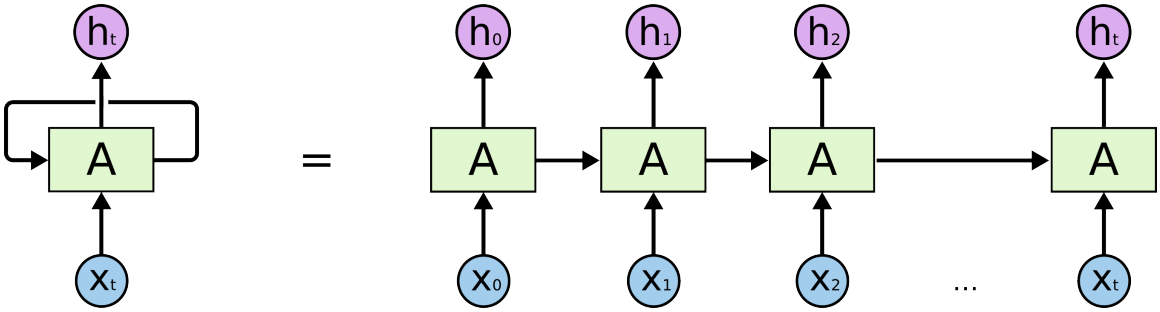


Figure 2-4: An Unrolled Recurrent Neural Network. The connections between units of an RNN form a directed cycle. (Olah, 2015).

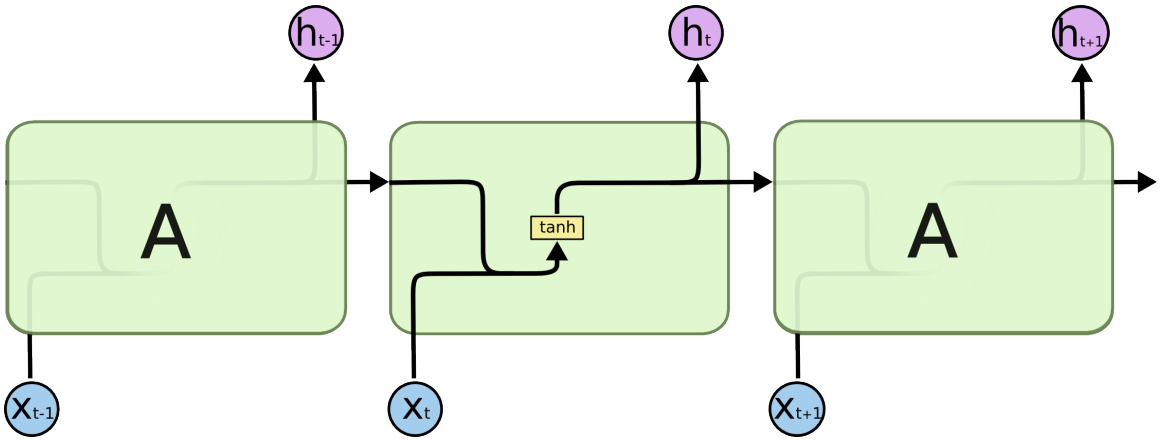


Figure 2-5: Repeating module in a standard Recurrent Neural Network. Each repeating module in a traditional RNN has a single layer (here *tanh*) (Olah, 2015).

Traditional Recurrent Neural Networks

A recurrent neural network (RNN) has the form of a chain of repeating modules of neural network. This architecture is pertinent to learning sequences of information because it allows information to persist across states. As illustrated in Figures 2-4 and 2-5, the output of each loop is utilized as input to the following loop through hidden states that capture information about the preceding sequence. Each repeating module in a traditional RNN has a single layer (e.g., *tanh*) as shown in the Figure 2-5.

RNN have wide applications including speech recognition (Graves and Jaitly, 2014), language modeling (Mikolov et al., 2010, 2011; Sutskever et al., 2011), translation (Liu et al., 2014; Sutskever et al., 2014; Auli et al., 2013), and image captioning (Karpathy and Fei-Fei, 2015).

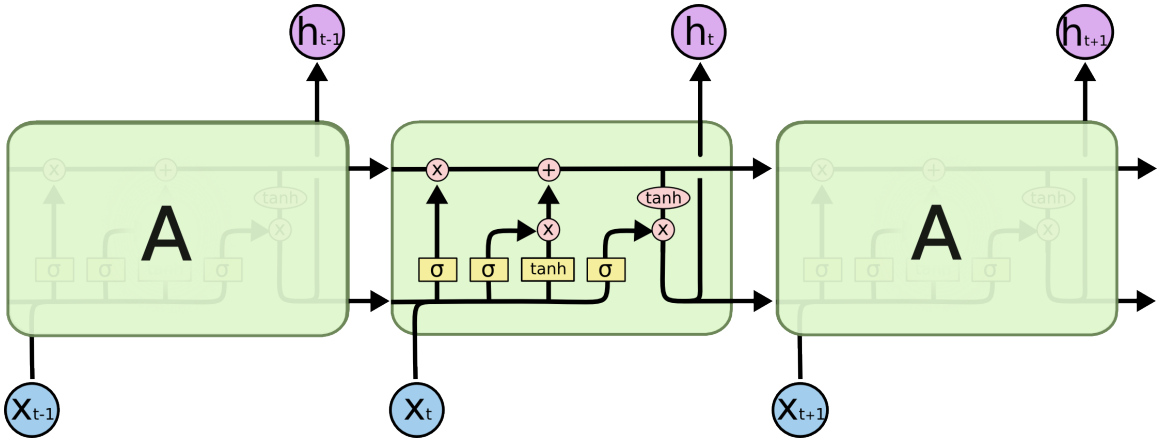


Figure 2-6: Repeating module in a Long Short-Term Memory Network. Each repeating module has four layers (input gate layer, forget gate layer, *tanh* layer and output gate layer). (Olah, 2015).

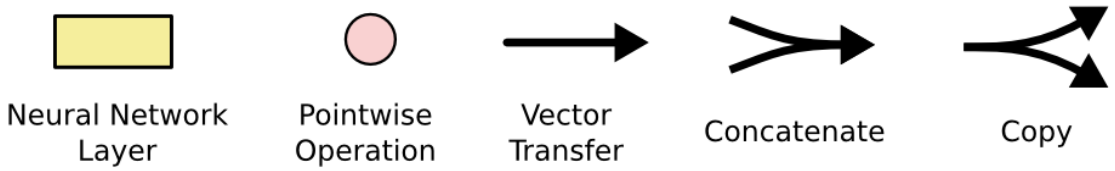


Figure 2-7: Notations for the Figure 2-6 (Olah, 2015).

Similar to traditional Neural Networks, RNNs are trained using backpropagation through time (BPTT), where the gradient at each output depends on the current and previous time steps. The BPTT approach is not effective at learning long term dependencies because of the exploding gradients problem. The fundamentals of this problem were explored by Pascanu et al. (2012) (Pascanu et al., 2012) and Bengio et al. (1994) (Bengio et al., 1994).

A certain type of RNN, Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) has been designed to improve the learning of long-term dependencies in the input sequence.

2.3 Long Short-Term Memory Recurrent Neural Networks

Like RNNs, Long Short-Term Memory Networks (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) have a chain like architecture, with a different module structure. Instead of having a single neural network layer, each module has four layers filling different purposes. As shown in Figure 2-6, each LSTM unit contains a memory cell with self-connections, as well as three multiplicative gates - *forget*, *input*, *output* - to control information flow. Each gate is composed out of a sigmoid neural net layer and a pointwise multiplication operation. The notations for Figure 2-6 are outlined in Figure 2-6.

Given the input vector x_t, previous hidden outputs h_{t-1}, and previous cell state c_{t-1}, the LSTM unit performs the following operations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_t &= \sigma(W_f.[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_f) \\
i_t &= \sigma(W_i.[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_i) \\
c_t &= f_t \odot c_{t-1} + i_t \odot \tanh(W_c.[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_c) \\
o_t &= \sigma(W_o.[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_o) \\
h_t &= o_t \odot \tanh(c_t)
\end{aligned}
$$

where f_t represents the forget gate, i_t represents the input gate, o_t represents the output gate, and h_t represents the hidden layer.

Many variants of LSTMs were later introduced, such as depth gated RNNs (Yao et al., 2015), clockwork RNNS (Koutnik et al., 2014), and Gated Recurrent Unit RNNs (Cho et al., 2014).

Bidirectional Recurrent Neural Networks

Bidirectional RNNs (Schuster and Paliwal, 1997) or BRNN use a past and future context sequences to predict or label each element. This is done by combining the outputs of two RNN, one processing the sequence forward (or left to right), the other one processing the sequence backwards (or from right to left). This technique proved

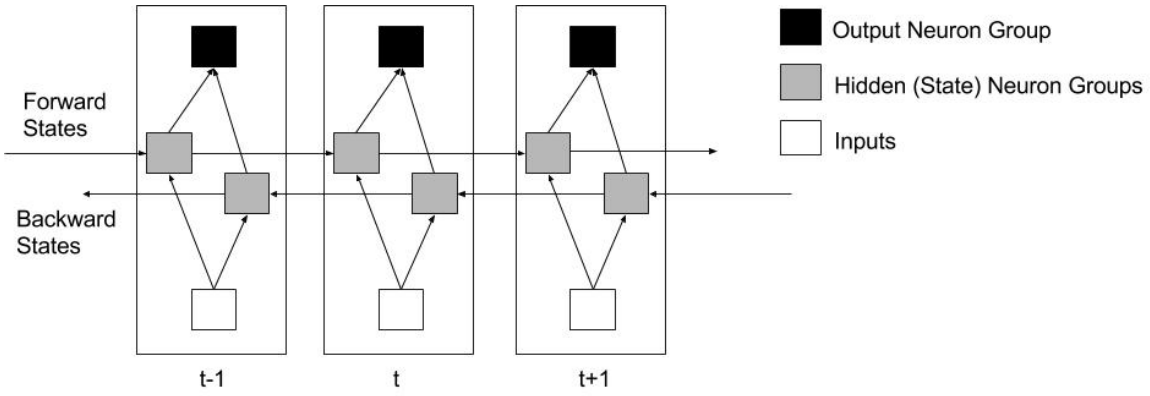


Figure 2-8: Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory Recurrent Neural Network. Bidirectional LSTMs are equivalent to two LSTMs independently updating their parameters by processing the input either in forward or backward direction (Schuster and Paliwal, 1997).

to be especially useful when combined with LSTM RNN (Graves and Schmidhuber, 2005).

2.4 Word Vectors

The introduction of word representations dates back to 1986 (Rumelhart and McClelland, 1986; Williams and Hinton, 1986; Elman, 1990). Since then, word embeddings have been extensively used in automatic speech recognition, machine translation (Schwenk, 2007; Tomáš, 2012) and Natural language processing (Collobert and Weston, 2008; Collobert et al., 2011; Turian et al., 2010; Collobert and Weston, 2008; Weston et al., 2011; Socher et al., 2011; Glorot et al., 2011; Turney et al., 2010; Turney, 2013; Mikolov et al., 2013c).

The different approaches for generating word representations can be summarized into two categories:

- *Count-based methods*, such as Latent Semantic Analysis (Dumais, 2004).

- *Predictive methods*, such as neural probabilistic language models. These methods include feed-forward Neural Net Language Model (NNLM) (Bengio et al., 2006), and Recurrent Neural Net Language Model (RNNLM) (Collobert and

Weston, 2008; Socher et al., 2011). However, these models are computationally expensive, because of the need to compute and normalize each probability using a context-compatibility score with all other words in the current context, at every training step.

`Word2vec` (Mikolov et al., 2013a) is a word vector encoder, which produces feature vectors for words in a corpus by grouping the vectors of similar words together in vector space. `Word2vec` does not use a full probabilistic model for learning features, but instead trains using a logistic regression to discriminate the real target words from noise words in the same context. While it is not a deep neural network, it turns text into a numerical form that neural networks can understand, by creating a high-dimensional distributed numerical representation of word features based on the word's past appearances and contexts.

Rather than training against the input words through reconstruction, as a restricted Boltzmann machine does (Rummelhart et al., 1986), `word2vec` trains words against other neighboring words in the input corpus. This training can be done through two distinct models (Continuous Bag-of-Words Model and skip-gram Model), each with two different training methods (with/without negative sampling) and other variations (e.g. hierarchical softmax), which optimize computations (Mikolov et al., 2013b). The architectures of the two models are described below:

- ***Continuous Bag-of-Words Model:*** In the Continuous Bag-of-Words model (CBOW), `Word2vec` uses context to predict a target word. The input to the model could be $W_{t-2}, W_{t-1}, W_{t+1}, W_{t+2}$ the two words preceding W_t and the two words following W_t. The input words get projected into the same position to produce the output W_t as shown in Figure 2-9. The system's parameters can also be adjusted to include a bigger window of input words.

- ***Continuous Skip-gram Model:*** The Skip-gram Model does the inverse of the CBOW model, and uses a target word to predict context-words by maximizing the classification of a word based on other words within a certain range before and after W_t. A log-linear classifier with continuous projection layer is used

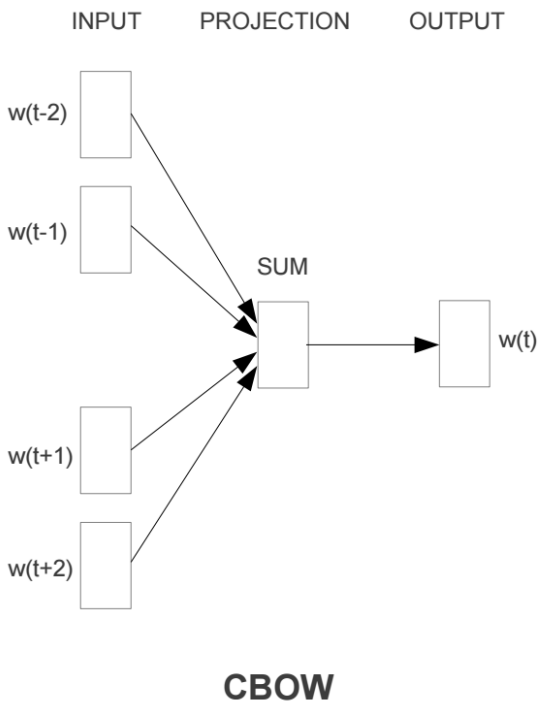


Figure 2-9: Continuous Bag-of-words model (Mikolov et al., 2013a). The output is computed as the weighted average of the vectors for the input context words, using the hidden layer weight matrix (Rong, 2014).

for this purpose. The input to the model is W_t, and the output could be $W_{t-1}, W_{t-2}, W_{t+1}, W_{t+2}$, or other context words, as shown in Figure 2-10.

Although the CBOW model tends to train several times faster than the skip-gram model, skip-gram treats each context-target pair as a new observation, whereas CBOW smooths over a lot of the distributional information (by treating an entire context as one observation). As a result, the skip-gram model tends to perform better than CBOW on large datasets (Mikolov et al., 2013b).

The success of `Word2vec` is derived from the *distributional hypothesis* (Harris, 1954), which states that words appearing in similar contexts share semantic meaning. The word representations computed using `Word2vec` encode many linguistic regularities and patterns in a comprehensive geometry of words. The names of capital cities, such as *Rome*, *Paris*, *Berlin* and *Beijing* will share a high cosine similarity, and will each have similar distances in vector-space to the countries whose capitals they are,

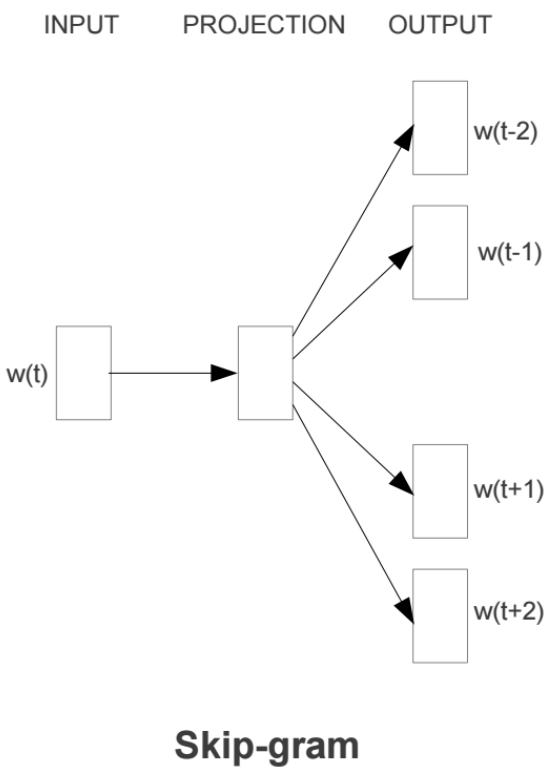


Figure 2-10: Skip-Gram model (Mikolov et al., 2013a).

as can be attested by Figure 2-11. For example,

$$vec(Rome) - vec(Italy) = vec(Beijing) - vec(China)$$

As a direct consequence of this equation, a vector approximation of the word *Rome* can be derived from:

$$vec(Rome) = vec(Beijing) - vec(Chine) + vec(Italy)$$

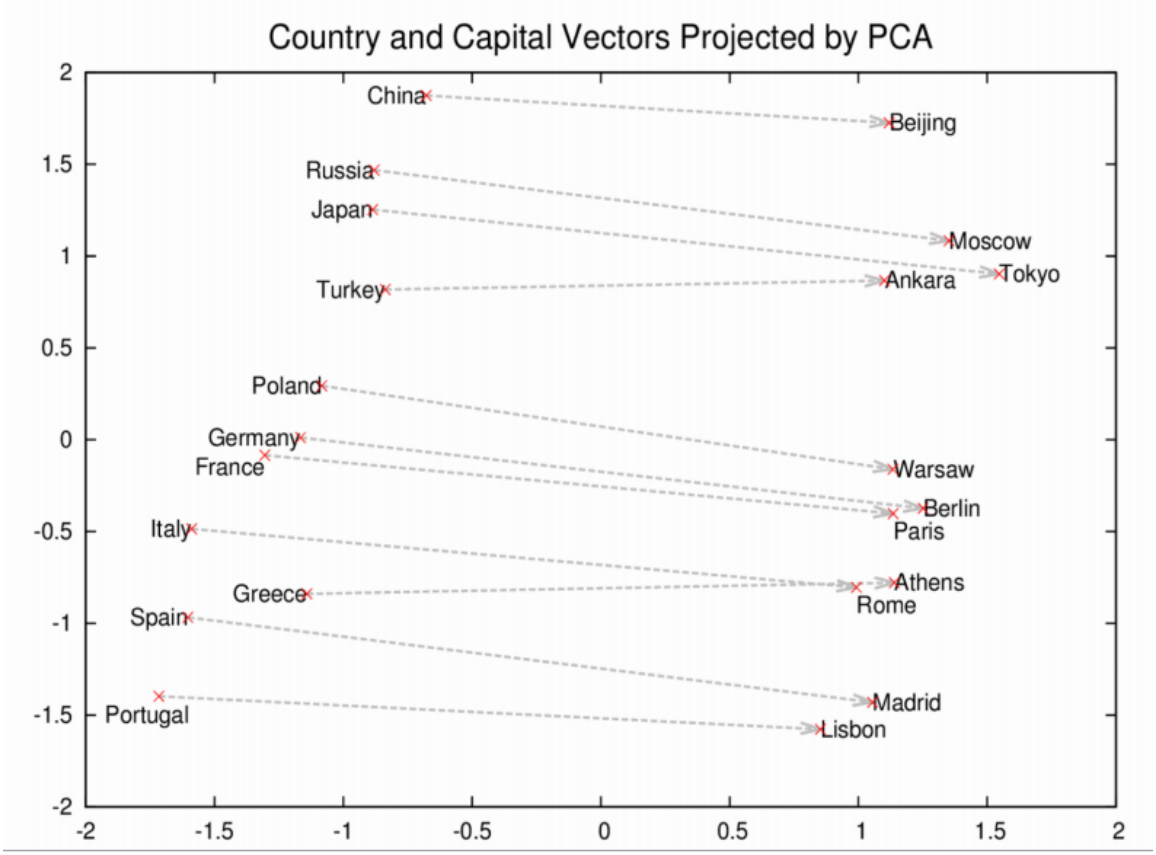


Figure 2-11: Two-dimensional PCA projection of the 1000-dimensional Skip-gram vectors of countries and their capital cities, generated by `Word2vec` (Mikolov et al., 2013b).

Chapter 3

Related Work

In the following sections we do a comprehensive review of previous work in the domains of *Aspect Based Sentiment Analysis* (ABSA) and *Community Question Answering* (cQA). Within each domain, we review each task and present major approaches that have been used to address it.

3.1 Aspect-Based Sentiment analysis

Sentiment analysis is increasingly viewed as a vital task both from an academic and a commercial standpoint. Early work in sentiment analysis was mainly aimed at detecting the overall polarity (e.g., *positive* or *negative*) of a given text or text span (Pang et al., 2002; Turney, 2002). In contrast, Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis (ABSA) aims to identify the aspects of the entities being reviewed and to determine the sentiment for each aspect expressed by the reviewers. Within the last decade, several ABSA systems of this kind have been developed for movie reviews (Thet et al., 2010), customer reviews of electronic products like digital cameras (Hu and Liu, 2004) or netbook computers (Brody and Elhadad, 2010), services (Long et al., 2010), and restaurants (Ganu et al., 2009; Brody and Elhadad, 2010). In its most simplistic form, aspect-based sentiment analysis involves two main stages:

1. Aspect term extraction and category detection.

2. Aspect sentiment classification.

3.1.1 Aspect Term Extraction and Category Detection

There are four main ways to extract explicit aspects from a sentence. The first method uses frequent nouns and noun phrases, the second method exploits opinion and target relationships, the third method relies on supervised learning, and the fourth method uses topic modeling. Each method is explained as follows.

Extraction based on frequent nouns and noun phrases: This method filters out non-aspect terms by assuming that their frequency of occurrence in a document is lower than that of aspect terms. Since most explicit aspects are nouns, it first identifies nouns and noun phrases using a part-of-speech (POS) tagger, then counts them and keeps the frequent ones. Non-aspect noun phrases can further be removed by the pointwise mutual information score between phrases and some *meronymy discriminators* associated with the entity (Popescu and Etzioni, 2007). These *meronymy discriminators* are the semantic relations signaling an aspect, such as "the camera comes with", "the camera has", etc.

Extraction by exploiting opinion and target relation: This approach relies on first finding sentiment words and then identifying the corresponding aspect, usually using a dependency parser. In Zhuang et al. (2006); Somasundaran and Wiebe (2009); Kobayashi et al. (2006), a dependency parser was used to identify such dependency relations for aspect extraction.

Extraction using supervised learning: This method relies on sequential learning involving the use of Hidden Markov Models (HMM) and Conditional Random Fields (CRF) (Hamdan et al., 2000; Toh and Wang, 2014). The models are trained on manually labeled data from different domains for a more domain independent extraction. The features can be chosen to be domain-independent e.g. tokens, POS tags, syntactic dependency, word distance, and opinion sentences. The current state-

of-the-art sequential learning methods are Hidden Markov Models (HMM) (Rabiner, 1989) and Conditional Random Fields (CRF) (Lafferty et al., 2001). Jin and Ho (Jin et al., 2009) applied a lexicalized HMM model to learn patterns to extract aspects and opinion expressions. Jakob and Gurevych (Jakob and Gurevych, 2010) used CRFs to do the same task.

Extraction using topic modeling: Topic modeling is an unsupervised learning method that assumes each document consists of a mixture of topics, and each topic is a probability distribution over words. There are two main basic models; Probabilistic Latent Semantic Analysis (pLSA) (Hofmann, 1999) and Latent Dirichlet allocation (LDA) (Blei et al., 2003; Griffiths et al., 2003; Steyvers and Griffiths, 2007).

In the sentiment analysis context, one can design a mixture model to model the distribution of both sentiment words and topics at the same time, due to the observation that every opinion has a target. Mei et al. (Mei et al., 2007) proposed a joint model for sentiment analysis based on pLSA. One main issue with topic modeling is that it needs a large volume of data and a significant amount of tuning in order to achieve reasonable results. In addition, while it is not hard for topic modeling to find those very general and frequent topics or aspects from a large document collection, it is not easy to find those locally frequent but globally not so frequent aspects. Such locally frequent aspects are often the most useful ones for applications because they are likely to be most relevant to the specific entities that the user is interested in. Topic modeling succeeds at giving a high level idea about what a document collection is about.

3.1.2 Aspect Sentiment Prediction

The *Aspect Sentiment Prediction* task consists of determining the orientation or polarity of aspect-specific sentiments expressed by the author, and can be done through two main approaches: "Supervised learning" and "Lexicon-based approach" explained as follows.

Supervised learning: Supervised learning methods are mainly used to classify sentence-level or clause-level sentiments, and involve training a classifier on a training set of labeled data. Since sentiment classification is, at its essence, a classifying problem, it can be approached using naive Bayes classification, and support vector machines (SVM) (Joachims, 1999; Cristianini and Shawe-Taylor, 2000). The first supervised learning approach to classify movie reviews using unigrams as features and naive Bayes or SVM was demonstrated by Pang, Lee and Vaithyanathan (Pang et al., 2002). When it comes to sentiment classification, the challenge of supervised learning lies in the engineering of a set of effective features. Some of the most commonly used features are: Terms and their frequency, part of speech, sentiment words and phrases, rules of opinions, sentiment shifters and syntactic dependency (Kouloumpis et al., 2011; Pak and Paroubek, 2010; Go et al., 2009; Wilson et al., 2009; Chikersal et al., 2015; Anjaria and Guddeti, 2014). Some more advanced approaches include a scoring functions in Dave et al. (2003). In Pang and Lee (2004), the minimum cut algorithm working on a graph was employed to help sentiment classification. In Wei and Gulla (2010), the authors proposed a *Localized Feature Selection* framework approach based on hierarchical learning with sentiment ontology tree that is able to identify attributes and its corresponding sentiment in one hierarchical classification process. However, this approach still fails to capture the scope of each sentiment expression, i.e., whether it covers the aspect of interest in the sentence. Overall, supervised learning is heavily dependent on the training data and suffers from domain adaptation/transfer learning. As a result, scalability to different domains can be limited.

Lexicon-based approaches: Unsupervised methods tend to perform better than supervised learning methods across different domains. They rely on a sentiment lexicon (words, phrases and idioms), composite expressions, rules of opinions, sentence parse trees and sentiment shifters to determine the sentiment orientation on each aspect in a sentence (Taboada et al., 2011; Augustyniak et al., 2014; Musto et al., 2014). After entities and aspects are extracted, Ding, Liu and Yu (Ding et al., 2008) presents the following four main steps to predict their sentiments:

- *Mark sentiment words and phrases*: This stage assigns a score of +1 to each positive sentiment word and -1 to each negative sentiment word.

- *Apply sentiment shifters*: This stage revisits the score assignment and switches the sign of the score based on its dependency on the sentiment shifter.

- *The but-clauses*: This stage handles contrary words which do not always indicate sentiment shift.

- *Aggregate opinions for each aspect*: this stage aggregates the score of all the sentiments assigned to a specific aspect to determine the overall sentiment orientation for that aspect. Ding, Liu and Yu (Ding et al., 2008) used a sum weighted by the distance between the sentiment word and the aspect in the sentence, whereas Hu and Liu (Hu and Liu, 2004) simply summed up the sentiment scores of all sentiment words in a sentence or sentence segment, and Kim and Hovy (Kim and Hovy, 2004) used multiplication of sentiment scores of words.

3.2 Community Question Answering

Managing community question websites has grown increasingly difficult because of the exponential growth in content triggered by wider access to the internet. Traditionally, websites used to keep track of a list of frequently asked questions (FAQs) that a visitor is expected to consult before asking a question. Now, with a wider range of questions being asked, a need has emerged for a better, more scalable, system to identify similarities between any two questions on the platform. In addition, with many users contributing to a single question, it has become harder to identify which answers are more relevant than others. We summarize these problems into two main tasks:

- Question Retrieval Task

- Answer Selection Task

3.2.1 Question Retrieval Task

The recent increase in the number of community-based question platforms has lead to a rapid build up of large archives of user-generated questions and answers. When a new question is asked on the platform, the system searches for questions that are semantically similar in the archives. If a similar question is found, the corresponding correct answer is retrieved and returned immediately to the user as the final answer. The quality of the answer depends on the effectiveness of the similar question retrieval process.

However, measuring semantic similarities between questions is not trivial. Sometimes, two questions that have the same meaning use very different wording. For example, *"Is downloading movies illegal?"* and *"Can I share a copy of a DVD online"* have almost identical meanings but they are lexically very different. Traditional metrics for measuring sentence distance such as the Jaccard coefficient and the overlap coefficient (Manning and Schütze, 1999) perform poorly.

Three different types of approaches have been developed in the literature to solve this word mismatch problem among questions. The first approach uses knowledge databases such as machine readable dictionaries. There has been some research on retrieval using FAQ data. FAQ Finder (Burke et al., 1997) heuristically combines statistical and semantic similarities between questions to rank FAQs. Conventional vector space models are used to calculate the statistical similarity, and `WordNet` (Fellbaum, 1998) is used to estimate the semantic similarity between questions. Song et al. (2007) presented an approach which is a linear combination of statistic similarity, calculated based on word co-occurrence, and semantic similarity, calculated using `WordNet` (Fellbaum, 1998) and a bipartite mapping. Auto-FAQ (Whitehead, 1995) applied shallow language understanding into automatic FAQ answering, where the matching of a user question to FAQs is based on keyword comparison enhanced by limited language processing techniques. However, the quality and structure of current knowledge databases are, based on the results of previous experiments, not good enough for reliable performance.

The second approach employs manual rules or templates. These methods are expensive and hard to scale for large size collections. Sneiders (2002) proposed template based FAQ retrieval systems. Lai et al. (2002) proposed an approach to automatically mine FAQs from the Web. However, they did not study the use of these FAQs after they were collected. FALLQ (Lenz et al., 1998) used case-based knowledge for FAQ answering. Berger et al. (2000) proposed a statistical lexicon correlation method. These previous approaches were tested with relatively small sized collections and are hard to scale because they are based on specific knowledge databases or handcrafted rules. User click log has also been used to find similar queries in Kim and Seo (2006).

The third approach is to use statistical techniques developed in information retrieval and natural language processing (Berger et al., 2000). Jeon et al. (2005) discussed methods for question retrieval that are based on using the similarity between answers in the archive to estimate probabilities for a translation-based retrieval model. They performed the IBM model 1 (Brown et al., 1993) to learn word translation probabilities on a collection of question pairs. Given a new question, a translation-based information retrieval model exploits the word relationships to retrieve similar questions from Q&A archives. They showed that this model makes it possible to find semantically similar questions with relatively little word overlap.

In addition, recent work shows the effectiveness of neural models in question similarity (dos Santos et al., 2015) in community question answering. dos Santos et al. (2015) developed CNN and bag-of-words (BOW) representation models for the question similarity task. Cosine similarity between the representations of the input questions were used to compute the CNN and BOW similarity scores for the question-question pairs. The convolutional representations, in conjunction with other vectors, are then passed to a MLP to compute the similarity score of the question pair. In this thesis, we present a neural model based on the stacked bidirectional LSTMs and MLPs to capture the long dependencies in questions and answers.

3.2.2 Answer Selection Task

Passage reordering or reranking has always been an essential step of automatic answer selection (Radlinski and Joachims, 2005; Jeon et al., 2005; Shen and Lapata, 2007; Moschitti et al., 2007; Severyn and Moschitti, 2015a; Moschitti, 2008; Tymoshenko and Moschitti, 2015; Surdeanu et al., 2008). Many methods have been proposed, such as web redundancy information (Magnini et al., 2002) and non-textual features (Jeon et al., 2006).

Recently, many advanced models have been developed for automating answer selection based on syntactic structures (Severyn and Moschitti, 2012, 2013; Grundström and Nugues, 2014) and textual entailment. These models include quasi- synchronous grammars to learn syntactic transformations from the question to the candidate answers (Wang et al., 2007); Continuous word and phrase vectors to encode semantic similarity (Belinkov et al., 2015); Tree Edit Distance (TED) to learn tree transformations in pairs (Heilman and Smith, 2010); Probabilistic model to learn tree-edit operations on dependency parse trees (Wang and Manning, 2010); and linear chain CRFs with features derived from TED to automatically learn associations between questions and candidate answers (Yao et al., 2013).

In addition to the usual local features that only look at the question-answer pair, automatic answer selection algorithms can rely on global thread-level features, such as the position of the answer in the thread (Hou et al., 2015), or the context of an answer in a thread (Nicosia et al., 2015), or the dependencies between thread answers using structured prediction models (Barrón-Cedeno et al., 2015).

Joty et al. (2015), modeled the relations between pairs of answers at any distance in the thread, which they combine in a graph-cut and in an Integer Linear Programming (ILP) framework (Schrijver, 1998; Wolsey and Nemhauser, 2014). They then proposed a fully connected pairwise CRFs (FCCRFs) with global normalization and an Ising-like edge potential (Ising, 1925).

In addition, recent work shows the effectiveness of neural models in answer selection (Severyn and Moschitti, 2015b; Tan et al., 2015; Feng et al., 2015) in community

question answering. While recent research has shown the effectiveness of CNNs for answer ranking of *short* textual contents Severyn and Moschitti (2015b), we develop a neural model based on LSTMs to explore the effectiveness of the neural networks on the longer questions and answers.

Chapter 4

Aspect-Based Sentiment Analysis

We aim to address the *Aspect-based Sentiment Analysis* tasks, which we briefly summarize as follows:

- *Aspect category detection:* Given a predefined set of aspect categories (e.g., price, food), identify the aspect categories expressed in a given sentence.

- *Aspect category sentiment prediction:* Given a set of pre-identified aspect categories (e.g., food, price), determine the sentiment (positive, negative, neutral or conflict) of each aspect category.

These tasks are explained in details in Chapter 1. In this chapter, we present a neural-based model based on CNNs, which we explain in Section 2.1, to address these tasks. As shown in Section 4.2, extensive experiments demonstrate the model outperforms the baselines. In Section 4.3, we visualize the semantic similarities between words on the basis of the cosine similarities between their vector representations.

4.1 Method

Unlike traditional feature-based classification methods, our method for approaching the aspect based sentiment analysis tasks relies on using Convolutional Neural Networks to capture n-grams features and long-range dependencies (Yu et al., 2014),

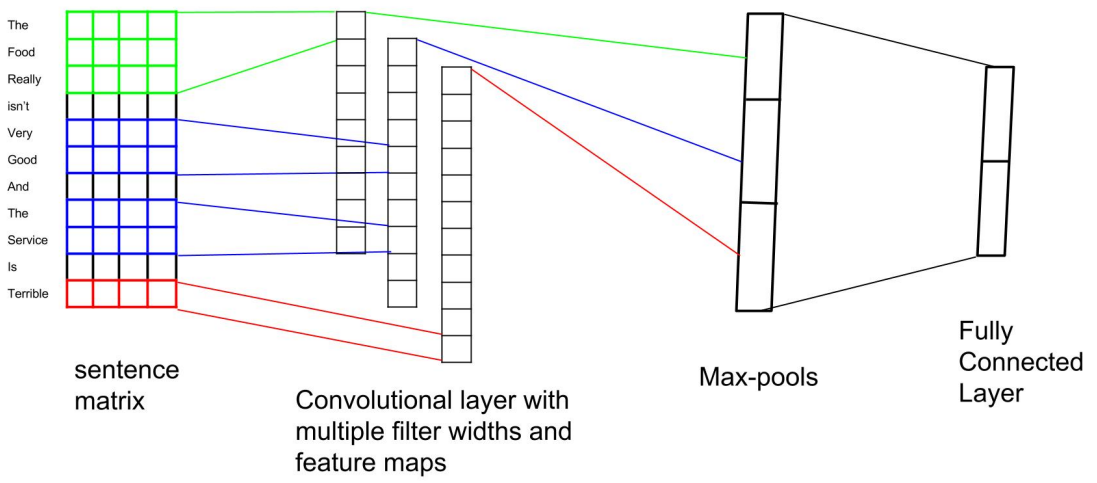


Figure 4-1: The general architecture of the ABSA model. The feature maps are produced by convolving the input sentence with filters of different sizes.

as well as extract discriminative word sequences that are common in the training instances (Severyn and Moschitti, 2015b).

4.1.1 Model Architecture

We present a CNN-based neural model to address the ABSA tasks. The model is represented in Figure 4-1. The first stage of our model involves mapping the words into vector representations. Continuous vector representations, described by Schutze (Schütze, 1992), associate geometrically close vectors with similar words and phrases. Most approaches for computing vector representations use the observation that similar words appear in similar contexts (Firth, 1957). The theses of Sahlgren (Sahlgren, 2006), Mikolov (Tomáš, 2012), and Socher (Socher, 2014) provide provide extensive details on vector representations. We compute the word vectors using `Word2Vec` (Mikolov et al., 2013a,b,c). To obtain the word vectors, we initially use the `GoogleNews` vectors dataset, available on the `Word2Vec` web site and including 3,000,000 300-dimensional word vectors trained on about 100 billion words.

In addition, for domain specific vector representation, we use the `Yelp` dataset of restaurant reviews including 131,778 unique words and about 200 million tokens. We construct 300-dimensional word vectors for all the words in the dataset. In such

dense representations, semantically close words are likewise close (in euclidean or cosine distance) in the lower dimensional vector space.

Once a vector representation is computed for each word, the input sentences are then convolved with a set of convolutional filters of different sizes (e.g., *unigrams*, *bigrams*, *trigrams*) to generate a set of feature maps. A max pooling operation is then used to subsample feature maps, which are then fed into a fully connected multi-layer perceptron leading to a softmax distribution over all classes, as shown in Figure 4-1.

In the figure, the input sentence is converted to a matrix generated using the concatenation or stacking of its word vectors. Then, the matrix is convolved with filters of size 1x300, 2x300, 3x300 to generate 3 feature maps. The feature maps undergo a maxpooling operation before being passed to the fully connected layer.

4.1.2 Aspect Category Detection

In this task, given a sentence and a pre-defined set of aspect categories (*ambiance, price, service, food, anecdotes/miscellaneous*), we aim to predict the categories expressed in the sentence. The sentence can contain more than one aspect category. We create the above model, which we apply with the following two classification schemes; *"One vs all"* and *"Multiclass-Multilabel"* classification explained below.

One vs all: In the first setup, we attempt a one-vs-all classification scheme where a prediction is made for each aspect category independently. That is, five CNN models are constructed, with each one predicting one aspect category versus others. Then, the five predictions are aggregated to predict all aspect categories mentioned in the given sentence.

Multiclass-Multilabel: The aspect categories are independently predicted in the first setup; however, these categories might not be independent and could have an effect on each other. In the second setup, we attempt simultaneous multiclass-multilabel classification. This method classifies each sentence into one or many aspect categories

Embedding	word2vec, fixed
Hidden dimension	300
Filter width	{3, 4, 5}
Optimizer	AdaDelta
Learning rate	0.95
Dropout rate	0.5

Table 4.1: The hyper-parameters of CNN model. The values of the hyper-parameters are optimized based on the results on the development set.

using a single CNN model rather than five.

4.1.3 Aspect Category Sentiment Prediction

In this task, given a sentence and its aspect category, we aim to predict the sentiment (*positive, negative, neutral, conflict*) of the aspect categories expressed in the sentence. If the sentiment of a category is predicted as both *positive* and *negative* and their corresponding sentiment scores are close, it would be predicted as *conflict*. We apply the CNN model for the Aspect Category Sentiment Prediction task with the following two classification schemes; *"One vs all"* and *"Multiclass-Multilabel"* classification explained as follows.

One vs all: In the first setup, we attempt a one-vs-all classification scheme where a prediction is independently made for each sentiment class, for each aspect category. That is, four CNN models are constructed each predicting one sentiment versus others, for each aspect category. Then, the four predictions are aggregated to predict the sentiment of the aspect category mentioned in the sentence. The sentiment class with the highest probability score is assigned to the aspect category.

Multiclass-Multilabel: In the second setup, we simultaneously consider all sentiment classes, and classify the aspect into one of them. This approach allows the capture of any dependencies between aspects and sentiments.

4.1.4 Hyper-parameters

Table 4.1 shows the hyper-parameters used in our CNN model. The values for the hyper-parameters are optimized based on the results on the development set. The word vectors are initialized using `word2vec`, as explained in Section 4.1.1. These vector representations are updated during the training phase if the *non-static* parameter is used, and remain the same if the *static* parameter is used in the CNN model. We employ *AdaDelta* (Zeiler, 2012) as the optimization method and *negative log likelihood* as loss function for our model. Furthermore, we use the values 0.95 and 0.5 as learning rate and dropout rate respectively. The convolutional filter widths selected are {3, 4, 5}.

4.2 Evaluation and Results

4.2.1 Dataset

In our experiments, we use restaurant reviews provided by Pontiki et al. (2014); Ganu et al. (2009) that contain 3,041 training sentences and 800 test sentences. The training data contains 3,713 aspect categories, while the test data contains 1,025 aspect categories. In the dataset, the predefined aspect categories are *food*, *service*, *price*, *ambiance*, *anecdotes/miscellaneous*. The four sentiment labels are *positive*, *negative*, *conflict*, and *neutral*. The histogram in Figure 4-2 shows the distribution of sentence lengths in the train and test datasets. While the average sentence length is around 40 words, the CNN model can accurately capture the long dependencies in the longer sentences to address the ABSA tasks.

4.2.2 Evaluation Metrics

We decompose ABSA into two classification problems explained in Section 4.1, and present the CNN models to predict the aspect categories and sentiment classes for a given sentence. We evaluate our results using classification metrics such as precision, recall and F1 score.

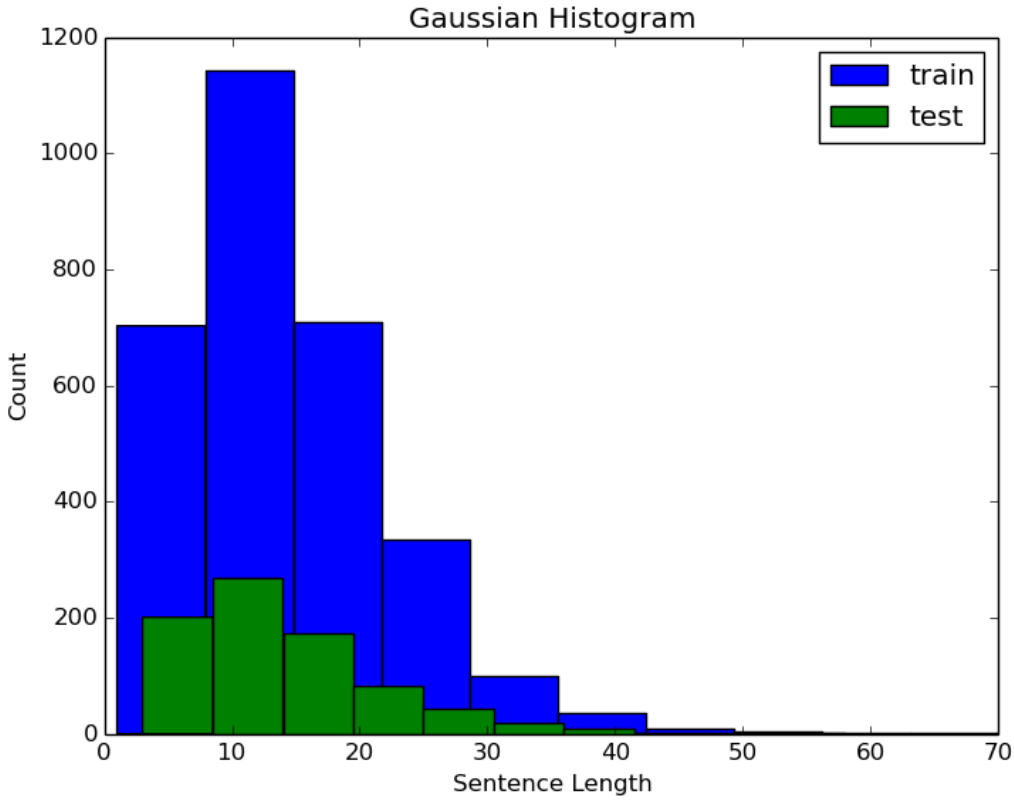


Figure 4-2: The distribution of sentence lengths in the train and test dataset of restaurant reviews for the aspect-based sentiment analysis tasks.

Precision: *Precision* is the number of correct positive results divided by the number of all positive results:

$$\texttt{Precision} = \frac{\texttt{True Positive}}{\texttt{True Positive} + \texttt{False Positive}}$$

Precision is illustrated in Figures 4-3 and 4-4. The precision values range between 0 and 1.

Recall: *Recall* is the number of correct positive results divided by the number of positive results that should have been identified:

$$\texttt{Recall} = \frac{\texttt{True Positive}}{\texttt{True Positive} + \texttt{False Negative}}$$

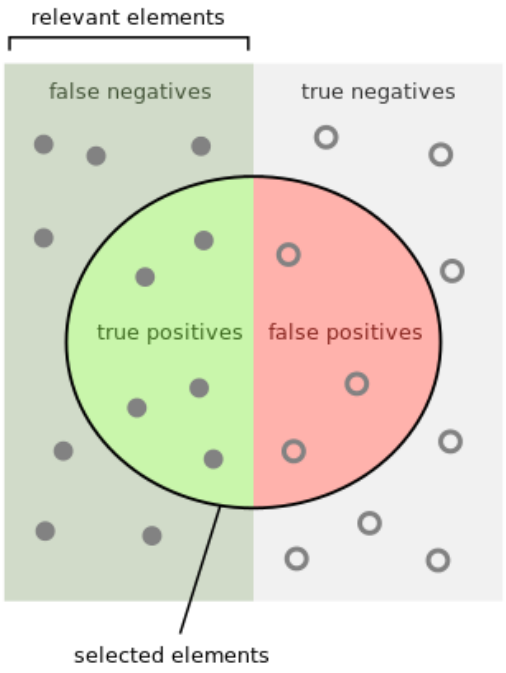


Figure 4-3: All Possible Elements. This figure shows all the possible elements, including the elements selected by the algorithm, the elements not selected by the algorithm, the relevant elements, and the irrelevant elements (Wikipedia, 2016).

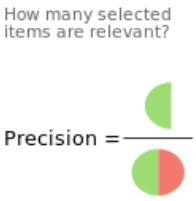


Figure 4-4: Precision (Wikipedia, 2016).

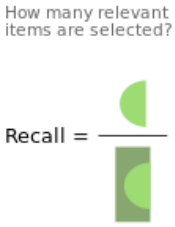


Figure 4-5: Recall (Wikipedia, 2016).

Recall is illustrated in Figures 4-3 and 4-5. The recall range values between 0 and 1.

F1 Score: The F1 score can be interpreted as a weighted average of the precision and recall, where an F1 score reaches its best value at 1 and smallest at 0:

$$\texttt{F1} = \frac{\texttt{2*precision*recall}}{\texttt{precision + recall}}$$

4.2.3 Baselines

We compare the performance of our CNN model on the ABSA tasks with the baselines that are briefly explained as follows:

Aspect category detection baselin Baselinee: For every test sentence, the k training sentences that are most similar to the test sentence are first retrieved. The similarity between two sentences is measured as the *Dice coefficient* of the sets of distinct words of the two sentences (Sørensen, 1948; Dice, 1945). For example, the similarity between the sentences "*this is a demo*" and "*that is yet another demo*" is:

$$2 * 2/(4 + 5) = 0.44$$

The most frequent number m of aspect categories per sentence among the k retrieved training sentences is then computed. For example, assume that $k = 5$ and the retrieved training sentences have the following aspect categories, then $m = 2$:

- sentence 1: *food*.
- sentence 2: *food, service*.
- sentence 3: *price*.
- sentence 4: *food, price*.
- sentence 5: *food, ambience*.

The test sentence is then assigned the m most frequent aspect categories of the k training sentences. In the above example, the test sentence would be assigned the $m = 2$ aspect categories "*food*" (with frequency 4) and "*price*" (with frequency 2). The default value of k is 5. The implementation of this baseline includes a parameter *multi*. If *multi* is set to *True*, then m is computed as above. If $multi = False$, then $m = 1$.

Experiment	Dataset		word2vec dataset		Convolution	Extra Features
Setup	*Entire*	*Balanced*	*Google*	*Yelp*	*[3,4,5]*	*Seed Words*
1	yes	no	yes	no	yes	no
2	no	yes	yes	no	yes	no
3	no	yes	no	yes	yes	no

Table 4.2: The various experimental setups of the CNN model in the context of the one-vs-all classification scheme for the aspect category detection task.

Baseline-F1 = 63.89	**Performance**		
Experiment	*F1*	*Precision*	*Recall*
1	75.24	89.17	65.07
2	84.83	79.35	91.12
3	**85.95**	81.18	**91.32**

Table 4.3: The results of the aspect category detection task of ABSA using the CNN model in the one-vs-all classification scheme.

Aspect category sentiment prediction baseline: For each test sentence and for each aspect category of the test sentence, the baseline assigns to the aspect category (of the test sentence) the most frequent sentiment that the aspect category has in the k most similar training sentences including the same aspect category.

4.2.4 Overall Performance on Aspect Category Detection

For the aspect category detection task, we report the results of our CNN approach using one-vs-all and multiclass-multilabel classification schemes, as discussed in Section 4.1.

The results of CNN approach with one-vs-all classification scheme: The results of each experiment outlined in Table 4.2 are reported in Table 4.3, after 25 epochs and using 100 hidden units.

In Table 4.3, the first row shows the results obtained when we use all available training data to train the model, `GoogleNews` dataset to build word vector representations, and tri-grams, four-grams and five-grams to generate feature maps of the CNN model, without using additional features or data.

To enrich our model with additional information relevant to aspect categories, we first identify a set of words (referred to as "seed words") for each aspect category by

Ambience	**Food**	**Price**	**Service**
ambience	food	price	service
ambiance	cuisine	pricing	waitstaff
atmosphere	delicacies	cost	staff
environment	staples	rates	servers
vibe	flours	value	attentiveness
decor	foodstuffs	pricetag	waiters
setting	items	expensive	courteous
surroundings	produce	markup	
interior	groceries	pricey	
classy	meats	quality	
cozy	supermarket	$	
fruits			

Table 4.4: Some of the seed words used in the ABSA experiments. These seed words are retrieved using the maximum cosine similarities between the vector representations of the words and the category names (*Ambience, Food, Price, Service*).

selecting the top 20 nearest word vectors to the vector of the word representing the category name. Then, for each word in the input sentence, we compute the cosine similarity between the word and each of the category seed vectors. We subsequently consider the maximum cosine similarity in each category as an additional feature which we add to the vector representation of the word. Table 4.4 shows some of these seed words. While they couldn't help improve the results of the model in the one-vs-all classification scheme, they did improve the results of the model with multiclass-multilabel classification scheme as explained in the next section.

The second row of the table shows the results obtained when we use a balanced version of the training data. The training data is balanced with respect to a specific category to improve the training process for that category. This results in a higher performance compared to the previous experiment (using the entire dataset) as shown in the table. When the training data is balanced, the following number of sentences are used for each aspect category:

- 431 sentences with "ambience" and 431 sentences without "ambience".
- 1232 sentences with "food" and 1232 sentences without "food".
- 321 sentences with "price" and 321 sentences without "price".
- 597 sentences with "service" and 597 sentences without "service".

Baseline-F1 = 63.89							
Dataset		**Extra Features**	**CNN Settings**		**Performance**		
Entire	Balanced	Seed Words	*Classification*	Convolution	F1	Pre	*Rec*
yes	no	no	softmax	relu	**84.7**	**84.62**	84.78
yes	no	no	tanh	tanh	80.09	72.36	89.66
yes	no	yes	tanh	tanh	83.76	78.29	<u>90.05</u>

Table 4.5: The results of the aspect category detection task of ABSA, using the CNN model in the multiclass-multilabel classification scheme.

- 1130 sentences with "anecdotes/miscellaneous" and 1130 sentences without "anecdotes/miscellaneous".

The highest F1 is obtained when we use the `Yelp` data to compute the word vector representations and balanced training data, as shown in the last row of the table. This result shows the effectiveness of using the domain-specific and balanced training data to address this research problem.

The results of CNN approach with multiclass-multilabel classification scheme:

In this experiment, our CNN model is trained over all aspect categories instead of one category versus the others. The CNN is also trained using all training data, which is unbalanced across different categories. The results of this experiment are shown in in Table 4.5. All results are reported after 25 epochs, using the `Yelp` dataset for training `word2vec`, 100 hidden units, and unigram, bigram and trigram convolutions. The relu (linear) and tanh (non-linear) are used at the convolution layer, and softmax (linear) and tanh (non-linear) are used at the classification layer. The first two rows of Table 4.5 show that better results are achieved by using relu (linear) at the convolution layer and softmax (linear) at the classification layer. The last row of the table shows the result when the maximum cosine similarity between the seed words of each category and the words of the input sentence is added as an additional feature. This increase in F1 score shows that additional features can improve the overall performance of the system.

Baseline-Accuracy = 65.65	**Performance**
word2vec Dataset	*Accuracy*
Yelp one-vs-all	77.8
Google one-vs-all	77.6
Yelp static	77.5
Yelp nonstatic	77.6

Table 4.6: ***Accuracy*** achieved on the aspect category sentiment prediction task of ABSA. This accuracy is reported over all sentiment classes under one-vs-all and multiclass CNN classification schemes.

	Positive		
word2vec Dataset	*Precision*	*Recall*	*F1*
Yelp one-vs-all	81.87	94.82	87.87
Google one-vs-all	82.97	92.69	87.56
Yelp static	82.19	92.69	87.12
Yelp nonstatic	81.92	92.39	86.84

Table 4.7: The results of aspect category sentiment prediction for the ***positive*** class using the CNN model with the one-vs-all and multiclass classification schemes.

4.2.5 Overall Performance on Aspect Category Sentiment Prediction

In this section, we report the results of our CNN approach using one-vs-all and multiclass classification schemes for the aspect category sentiment prediction task, as explained in Section 4.1. Accomplishing this task requires knowing the aspect categories in the sentence. For this purpose, each aspect category is provided as input to the model, along with the review sentence. To achieve this aim, the aspect category is encoded in a 5-dimensional binary vector, where the element at the location indexed by the aspect category is set to one, and the others are set to zero. Then, the concatenation of this vector with the convolutional vectors are passed to the MLP in the CNN model.

The results of CNN approach with one-vs-all classification scheme: The results of this experiment are reported after 25 epochs, using 100 hidden units, and using `Yelp` and `Google` datasets to train `word2vec` for word representations. The results of one-vs-all are reported in the first two rows of Table 4.7 for the *positive* class, Table 4.8 for the *negative* class, Table 4.9 for the *neutral* class, Table 4.10 for

	Negative		
word2vec Dataset	*Precision*	*Recall*	*F1*
Yelp one-vs-all	73.64	72.97	73.30
Google one-vs-all	67.26	67.57	67.42
Yelp static	68.33	68.02	68.17
Yelp nonstatic	69.67	66.22	67.90

Table 4.8: The results of aspect category sentiment prediction for the ***negative*** class using the CNN model with the one-vs-all and multiclass classification schemes.

	Neutral		
word2vec Dataset	*Precision*	*Recall*	*F1*
Yelp one-vs-all	68.42	13.83	23.01
Google one-vs-all	73.47	38.30	50.35
Yelp static	59.26	34.04	43.24
Yelp nonstatic	60.61	42.55	50.00

Table 4.9: The results of aspect category sentiment prediction for the ***neutral*** class using the CNN model with the one-vs-all and multiclass-multilabel classification schemes.

the *conflict* class. The overall accuracy of the one-vs-all experiments is reported in the first two rows of Table 4.6. As shown in the first two rows of the tables, higher scores have been achieved for the *positive* and negative classes using the `Yelp` data, while the *neutral* and *conflict* sentiment classes were better identified when words were trained using `Google` data. Table 4.10 shows that the model performs poorly at predicting the *conflict* class. The reason is that the number of training instances for this class is very small, as can be seen in Table 4.11.

The results of CNN approach with multiclass classification scheme: In the second setup, we simultaneously consider all sentiment classes in one CNN rather than four, and classify a given $(sentence, aspectcategory)$ pair into one of the four sentiment classes. We consider both *static* and *non-static* word representations. *static* word representations are initialized using `word2vec` trained on `Yelp` dataset and not updated during training, while *non-static* word representations are initialized using `word2vec` and updated during training using the *adadelta* (Zeiler, 2012). The results of this experiment for each sentiment class are reported in the last two rows of Tables 4.7, 4.8, 4.9, 4.10 with the overall accuracy reported in the last two rows of Table 4.6. The results show that *static* representations tend to perform slightly better

	Conflict		
word2vec Dataset	*Precision*	*Recall*	*F1*
Yelp one-vs-all	0	0	NaN
Google one-vs-all	5.26	1.92	2.82
Yelp static	33.33	5.77	9.84
Yelp nonstatic	28.57	3.85	6.78

Table 4.10: The results of aspect category sentiment prediction for ***conflict*** class using the CNN model with the one-vs-all and multiclass-multilabel classification schemes.

Sentiment Category	Test Count	Train Count
Positive	657	2177
Negative	222	839
Neutral	94	500
Conflict	52	195

Table 4.11: Count of Samples.

than *non-static* representations, except for the *neutral* class. We believe this might be due to the fact that the majority of the training samples belong to the *positive* or *negative* class, which biases many of the *neutral* words towards one of the two classes. As a result, the words that are still *neutral* after training are more likely to actually belong to the *neutral* class, leading to a better classification score than the one obtained using *static* representations. When comparing results obtained in the one-vs-all scheme to the ones obtained in the multi-class scheme, it is clear that one-vs-all performed better than multi-class for the *positive* and *negative* classes, while multi-class performed better than one-vs-all for the *neutral* and *conflict* classes. We believe this behavior is justified by the fact that *neutral* and *conflict* are not very common classes among the training set, and that the class-specific datasets for one-vs-all are very unbalanced, resulting in low classification score in the one-vs-all scenario.

4.3 Visualization

In this section, we visualize the vector representations of words and illustrate the effectiveness of vector representations at predicting aspect categories and sentiment classes. Our model uses dense, high dimensional word representations, which can be visualized in a 2-D plane using *t-SNE* (Van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008). *t-SNE*

is a variation of Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (Hinton and Roweis, 2002) that is much easier to optimize, and reduces the clustering of the points around the center of the map. It eventually results in producing better visualizations.

For each of the four aspect categories *ambience, food, price, service* and sentiment classes *positive, negative*, we project the 20 words that are closest to the category name by cosine distance into a 2-D plane using *t-SNE*. The words are represented in the scatter plot in Figure 4-6 for *ambience*, Figure 4-7 for *food*, Figure 4-8 for *price*, Figure 4-9 for *service*, Figure 4-10 for *positive* and Figure 4-11 for *negative*. These vector representations are initially generated by training `word2vec` on the `Yelp` dataset using the continuous skip-gram model. Below are the 20 closest words for each aspect category and sentiment class. The words are ordered in ascending cosine distance to the category name or sentiment class.

Aspect Category Detection:

- ***Ambience*:** {ambience, ambiance, atmosphere, decor, environment, vibe, setting surroundings, interior, atomosphere, decor, cozy, classy, atmoshere atmoshpere, elegant, romantic, trendy, decoration, quaint}, shown in Plot 4-6.

- ***Food*:** {food, cuisine, service, restaurant, fare, authentic, meals, ambience ambiance, sushi, consistently, meal, atmosphere, mediocre, dishes, resturant, quality, foods, portions, quantity}, shown in Plot 4-7.

- ***Price*:** {price, pricing, prices, cost, value, quality, rate, priced, expensive, pricey, costs, quantity, pricy, overpriced, size, considering, premium, deal, cheaper, bargain}, shown in Plot 4-8.

- ***Service*:** {service, waitstaff, staff, consistently, food, attentive, servers, efficient, polite, courteous, ambience, prompt, ambiance, exceptionally waiters, overall, friendly, exceptional, atmosphere, experience}, shown in Plot 4-9.

Aspect Category Sentiment Prediction:

- ***Positive*:** {positive, negative, favorable, based, pleasurable, bad, previous reading, rave, pleasant, important, accurate, unpleasant, comments, read, concern-

ing, horrific, enthusiastic, negatively, supportive}, shown in Plot 4-10.

- ***Negative*:** {negative, positive, favorable, bad, read, rave, reason, complaint, zero, agree, based, write, negatively, reading, harsh, comments, writing, star, horrific, previous} , shown in Plot 4-11.

4.4 Summary

We presented a neural model based on Convolutional Neural Networks and MLP for the tasks of *Aspect Category Detection* and *Aspect Sentiment Prediction*. The vector representations of words in the user-generated reviews are initialized using `word2vec` trained on the `Yelp` dataset. For each task, we explored the *one-vs-all* and *multi-class* classification schemes, and the *static* and *nonstatic* training methods for word representations. The experimental results showed that our model can perform better than the baselines. We further demonstrated the impact of unbalanced train data on the performance of the neural model for aspect category detection and sentiment prediction.

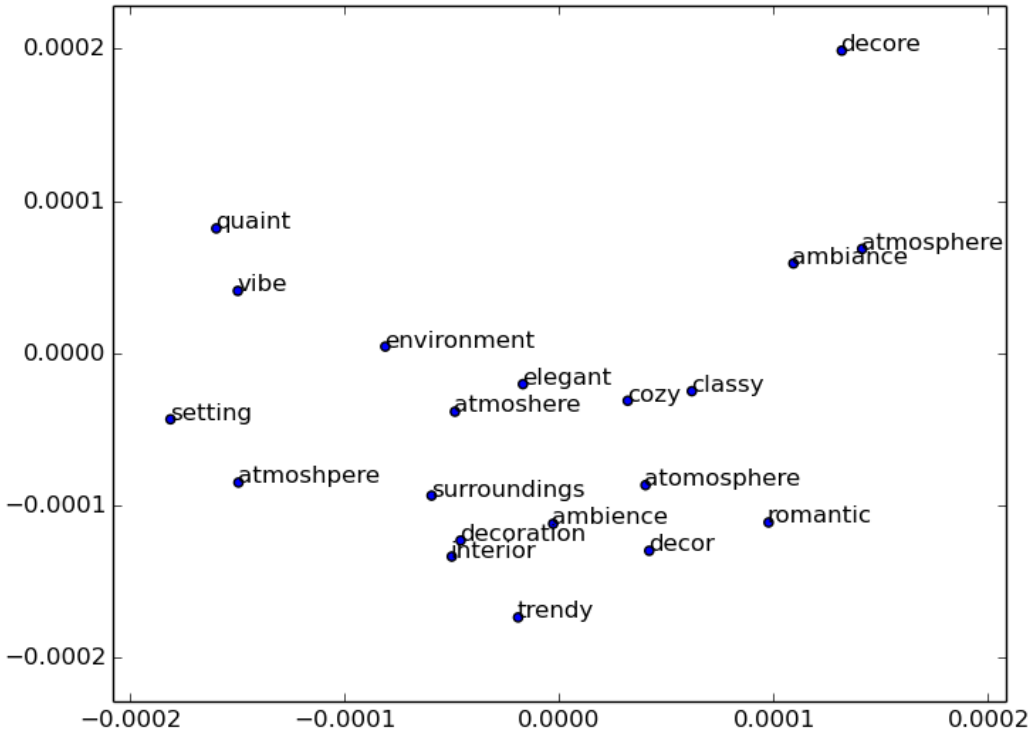


Figure 4-6: The 20 words that have the highest cosine similarity with the word ***Ambience***: {ambience, ambiance, atmosphere, decor, environment, vibe, setting surroundings, interior, atomosphere, decor, cozy, classy, atmoshere atmoshpere, elegant, romantic, trendy, decoration, quaint}.

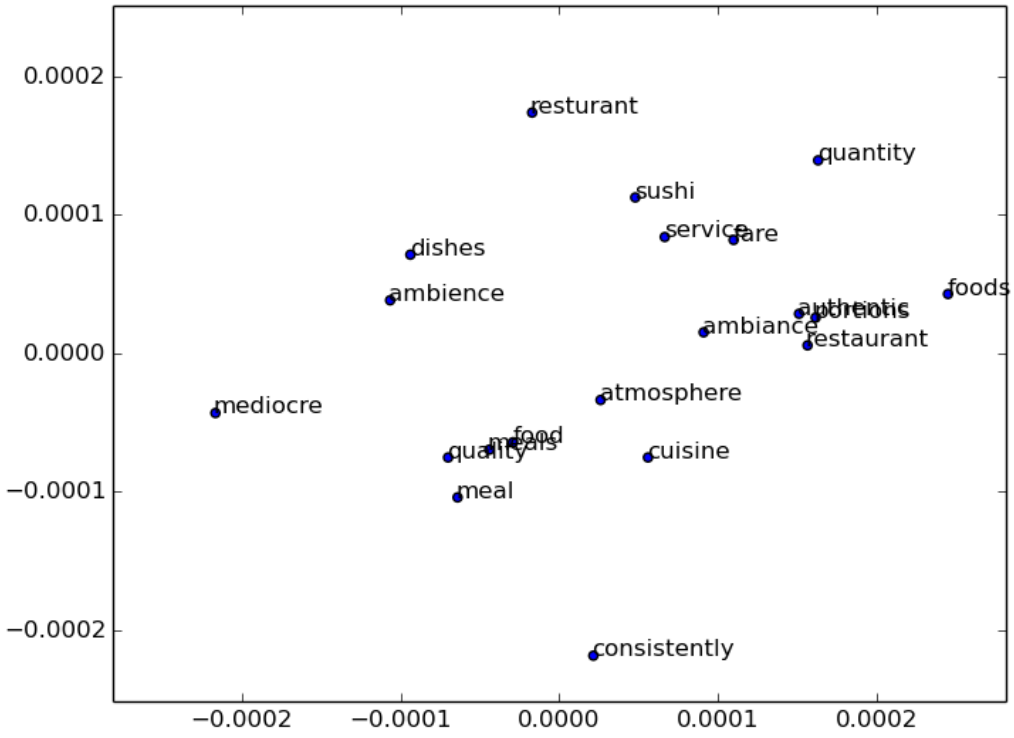


Figure 4-7: The 20 words that have the highest cosine similarity with the word ***Food***: {food, cuisine, service, restaurant, fare, authentic, meals, ambience ambiance, sushi, consistently, meal, atmosphere, mediocre, dishes, resturant, quality, foods, portions, quantity}.

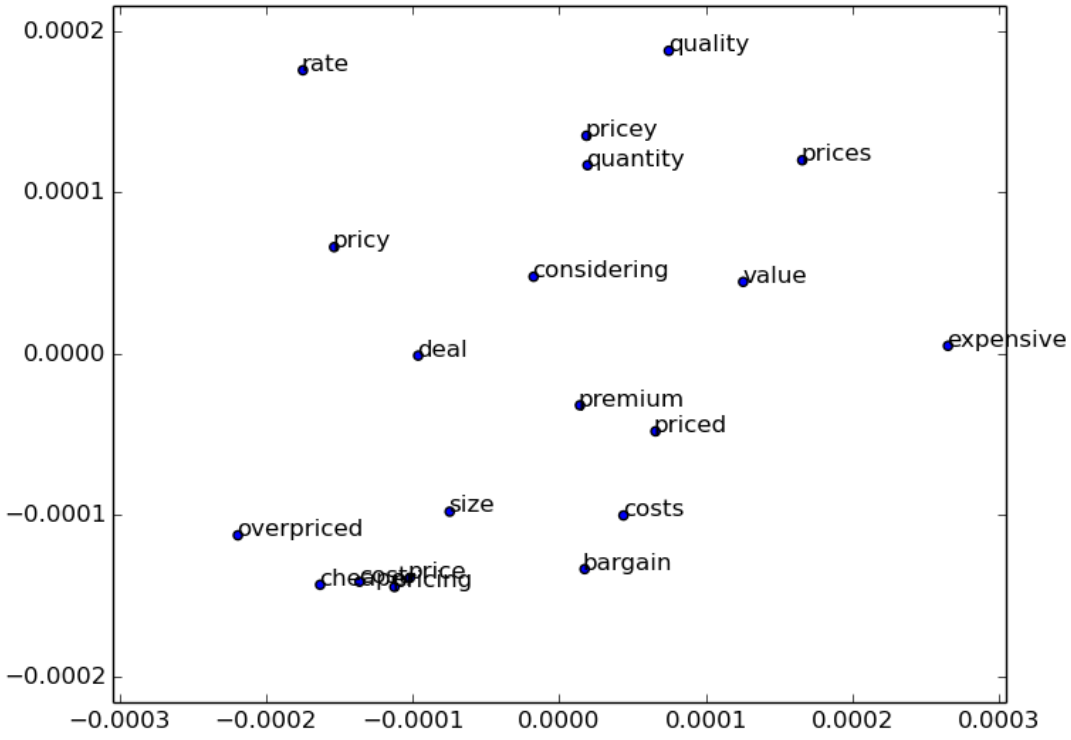


Figure 4-8: The 20 words that have the highest cosine similarity with the word ***Price***: {price, pricing, prices, cost, value, quality, rate, priced, expensive, pricey, costs, quantity, pricy, overpriced, size, considering, premium, deal, cheaper, bargain}.

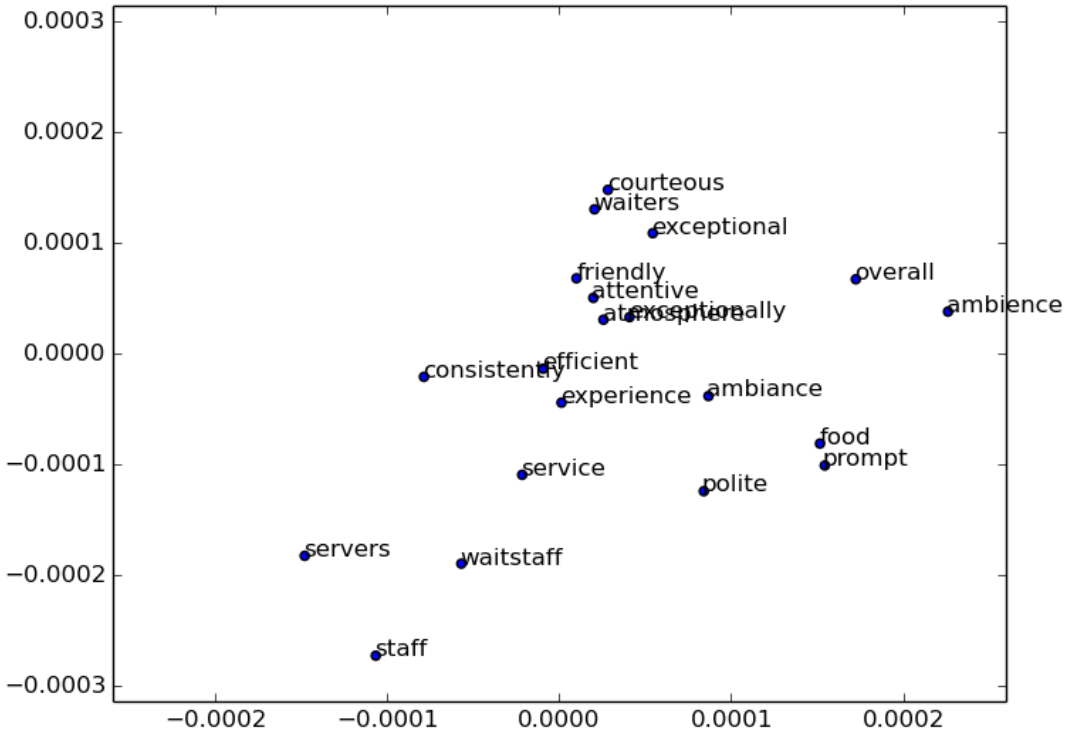


Figure 4-9: The 20 words that have the highest cosine similarity with the word ***Service***: {service, waitstaff, staff, consistently, food, attentive, servers, efficient, polite, courteous, ambience, prompt, ambiance, exceptionally waiters, overall, friendly, exceptional, atmosphere, experience}.

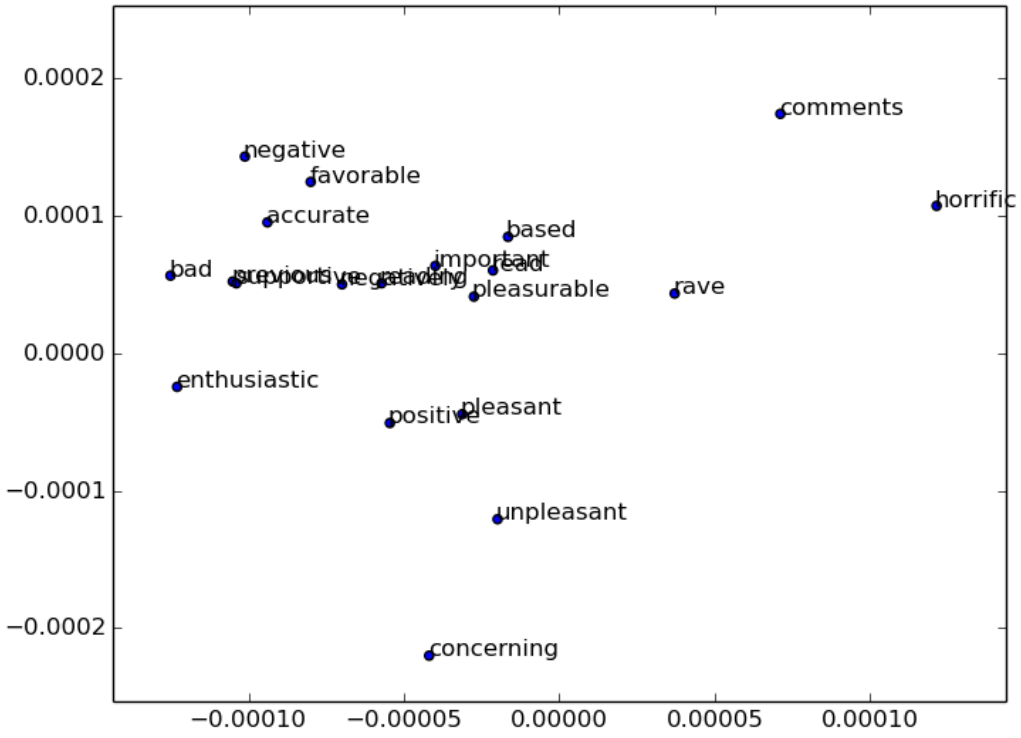


Figure 4-10: The 20 words that have the highest cosine similarity with the word *'**Positive**'*: {positive, negative, favorable, based, pleasurable, bad, previous reading, rave, pleasant, important, accurate, unpleasant, comments, read, concerning, horrific, enthusiastic, negatively, supportive}.

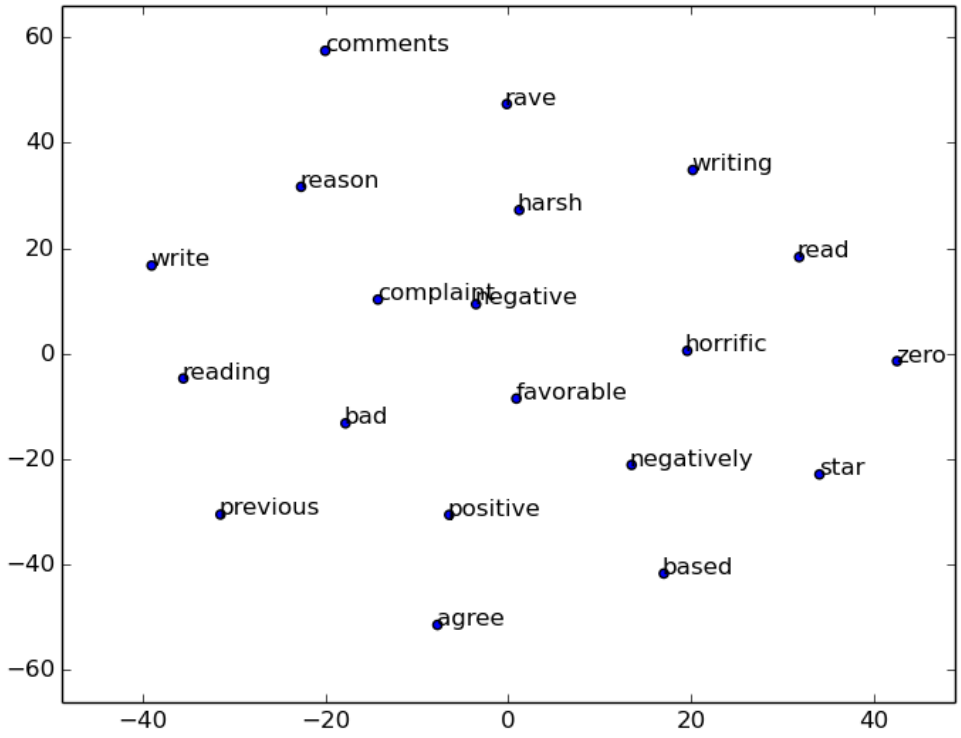


Figure 4-11: The 20 words that have the highest cosine similarity with the word *'**Negative**'*: {negative, positive, favorable, bad, read, rave, reason, complaint, zero, agree, based, write, negatively, reading, harsh, comments, writing, star, horrific, previous}.

Chapter 5

Community Question Answering

Community Question Answering forums (cQA), such as *Quora* and *Stack Overflow* contain millions of questions and answers. Automatically finding the relevant questions from the existing questions and finding the relevant answers to a new question are Natural Language Processing tasks. In this chapter, we aim to address these tasks, which we refer to as *similar-Question Retrieval* and *Answer Selection*. We summarize these two problems as follows:

- *Question Retrieval:* Given a new question and a list of questions, we automatically rank the questions in the list according to their relevancy or similarity to the new question.

- *Answer Selection:* Given a cQA thread containing a question and a list of answers, we automatically rank the answers according to their relevance to the question.

In this chapter, we present a neural-based model with stacked bidirectional LSTMs and MLP, which we explain in Section 5.1, to address these tasks. The model generates the vector representations of the question-question or question-answer pairs and computes their semantic similarity scores and then uses these score to rank and predict relevancies. As shown in Section 5.2, extensive experiments demonstrate our results outperform the baselines. In section 5.3, we visualize the semantic similari-

ties between the questions and answers using the cosine similarities between different word vectors computed by the first and second bidirectional LSTM in our model.

5.1 Method

In Chapter 2, we explained recurrent neural networks (RNNs), Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks and their bidirectional networks. In this chapter, we extend these neural networks for cQA and develop a neural model using stacked bidirectional LSTMs and MLPs to capture the semantic similarities between questions and answers in cQA.

5.1.1 Stacked Bidirectional LSTMs for cQA

Given a question, we aim to rank a list of questions, for the question retrieval task, and a list of answers to the question, for the answer selection task. To address these ranking problems, we propose a neural model that computes a semantic similarity score for each question-question (q, q') or question-answer (q, a) pair. These similarity scores are then employed to rank the list of questions and answers in order of relevance to the given question q. Figure 5-1 shows the general architecture of our model. We explain our model by referring to the pair (q, a), but the same description applies to the pair (q, q'). The question q and answer a contain the following lists of words:

$$q = \{w_1^q, w_2^q, w_3^q, ..., w_k^q\}$$
$$a = \{w_1^a, w_2^a, w_3^a, ..., w_m^a\}$$

where w_i^q and w_i^a are the i^{th} words in the question q and answer a ,respectively.

First, the question q and answer a are truncated to a similar length[1], and two lists of vectors representing the words in the question q and the words in the answer a are

[1]The length of each question or answer is set to 100 words. The questions and answers with less than 100 words are padded with zeros, and those with more than 100 words are clipped.

generated and randomly initialized:

$$V_q = \{X_1, X_2, X_3, ..., X_{n/2}\}$$
$$V_a = \{X_{n/2+1}, X_{n/2+2}, X_{n/2+3}, ..., X_n\}$$

where X_i with $i \in [1, n/2]$ is the vector of the word w_i^q in the question q, X_i with $i \in [n/2+1, n]$ is the vector of $w_{i-n/2}^a$ for the answer a[2].

The vector representations of the words in the question q (i.e., V_q) are sequentially passed to the model as shown in Figure 5-1. The model computes the representation of the question q after reading the last word vector of the question. Then the q representation along with the word vectors of the answer a (i.e., V_a) are passed to the next stage of the model. The model then uses the representation of q to generate the representation of the given pair (q, a), after processing the last word vector of the answer a. This information processing is performed at the forward layer of the first bidirectional LSTM shown in the figure (left to right). Similar processing occurs in the reverse direction (right to left), starting from the answer a and moving to the question q in the (q, a) pair. The output vectors of the hidden layers for these two directions of the first bidirectional LSTM are then concatenated and inputted to the second bidirectional LSTM as shown in the Figure 5-1. Steps similar to the ones described above occur at the second LSTM.

While the second bidirectional LSTM processes the input vectors similarly to the first one, its output vectors from two directions are summed[3]. Finally, the resulting vectors produced by the second LSTM are augmented with the extra features and passed to the MLP with two hidden layers to compute the semantic similarity score of the (q, a) pair.

[2] n equals to 200

[3] Using summation instead of concatenation is selected based on the experimental results obtained on the development set.

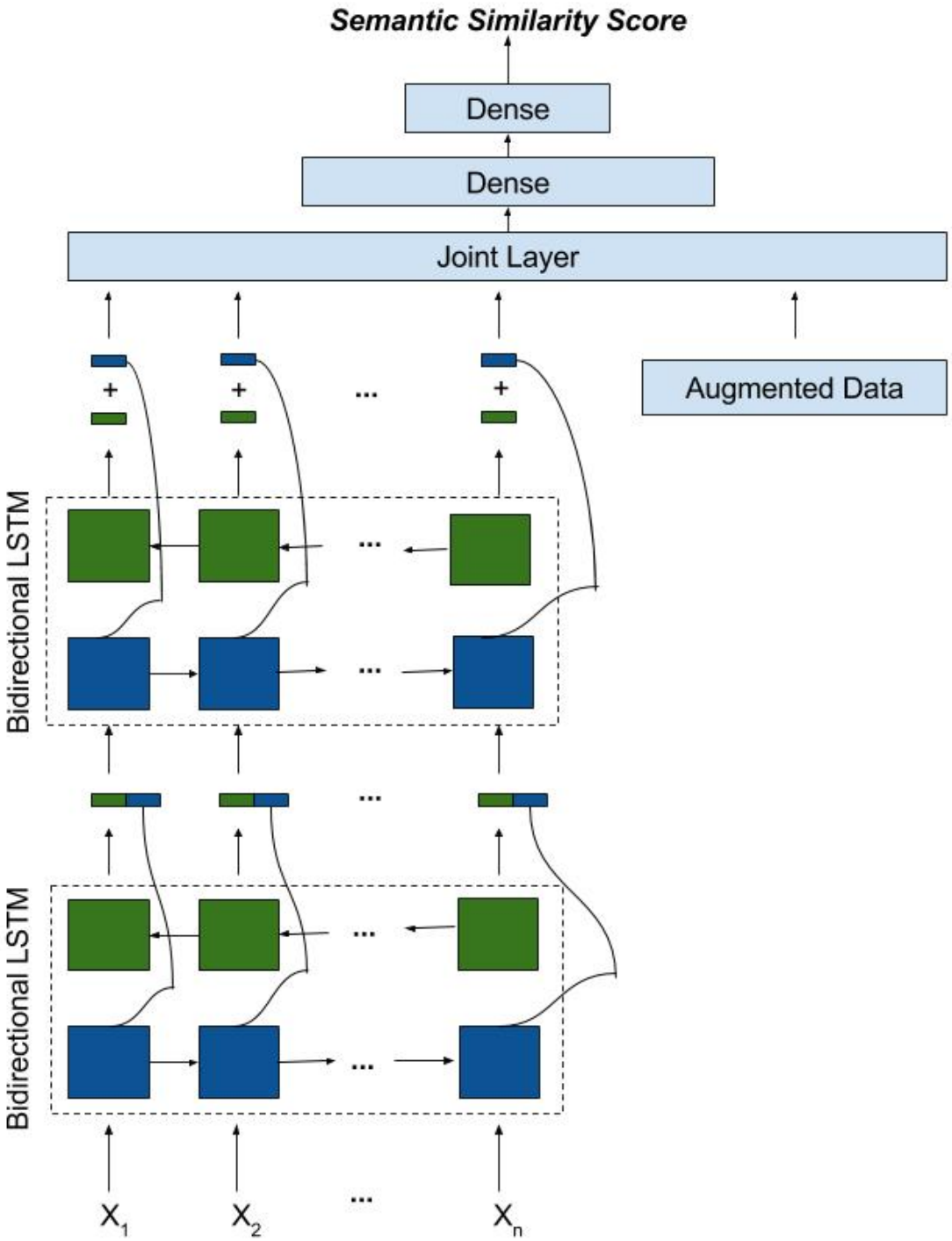


Figure 5-1: The general architecture of the cQA model, including the two stacked Bidirectional LSTMs and a MLP. The model is built on two bidirectional LSTMs whose output can be augmented with extra features and fed into a multi-layer perceptron.

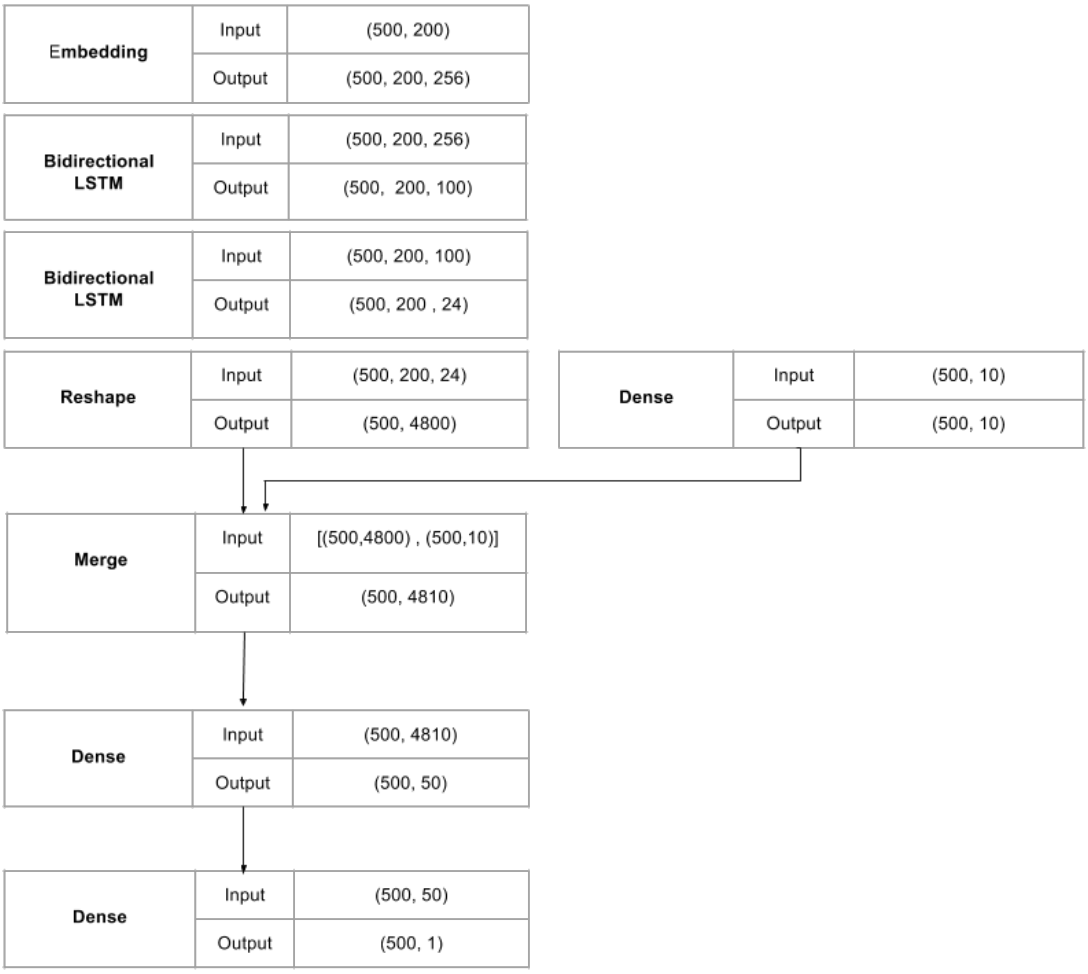


Figure 5-2: Layers of the community question answering model. The inputs to the two bidirectional LSTMs are word embeddings that are randomly initialized. The output of the second LSTM is merged with the augmented data before going through the MLP layer.

5.1.2 Hyper-parameters

Table 5.1 shows the hyper-parameters used in our model. The values for the hyper-parameters are optimized with respect to the results on the development set. The word vectors are randomly initialized and updated during the training step as explained in Section 5.1, and the weight parameters of the two bidirectional LSTMs of the model are not shared. We employ *Adam* (Kingma and Ba, 2014) as the optimization method and *mean squared error* as loss function for our model. We further use

Embedding	initialized, updated
Weights for Two LSTMs	not shared
Optimizer	Adam
Learning rate	0.001
Dropout rate	0.5
Batch Size	16

Table 5.1: The hyper-parameters of the stacked bidirectional LSTM model.

Category	**Train**	**Dev**	**Test**
New Coming Questions	267	50	70
Related Questions	2,669	500	700
– Perfect-Match	235	59	81
– Relevant	848	155	152
– Irrelevant	1,586	286	467
Related Answers	17,900	2,440	7,000
– Good	6651	818	2,767
– Bad	8,139	1,209	3,090
– Potentially-Useful	3,110	413	1,143

Table 5.2: The statistics for the cQA train, dev and test data (Nakov et al., 2016) that we employ to evaluate our neural model.

the values 0.001, 0.5 and 16 for learning rate, dropout rate and batch size respectively. Figure 5-2 indicates the size of the inputs and outputs for each layer in the network.

5.2 Evaluation and Results

5.2.1 Dataset

We evaluate our model on the cQA data (Nakov et al., 2016) in which the questions and answers have been manually labeled by a community of annotators in a crowd-sourcing platform. Table 5.2 shows some statistics of the train, development and test data. For the question retrieval task, questions are labeled as *Perfect-Match*, *Relevant* and *Irrelevant*. Given a specific question, the *Irrelevant* questions should be ranked lower than the other *Perfect-Match* or *Relevant* questions. For the answer selection task, answers are labeled as *Good*, *Bad* and *Potentially-Useful* with respect to a question. Both *Good* and *Potentially-Useful* answers have useful information that is relevant to the question, and should be ranked higher than *Bad* answers.

5.2.2 Evaluation Metrics

For the cQA problems, the model produces a list of questions or answers ranked with respect to a given question. In addition to the metrics used to assess the ABSA system (F1 score, Precision, and Recall), we use the ranking metrics; Mean Average Precision (MAP), Average Recall, and Mean Reciprocal Rank (MRR).

Mean Average Precision: For each query, Average Precision (AP) is the Average of the precision values at the ranks where relevant elements are retrieved. AP is defined as:

$$AP = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{R} \frac{i}{rank(i)}}{R}$$

where R is the number of relevant documents for that query and $\frac{i}{rank(i)} = 0$ if document i is not retrieved in the query.

The Mean Average Precision (MAP) is defined as:

$$MAP = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{Q}(AP_i)}{Q}$$

where Q is the number of Queries.

Average Recall: The average recall (AR) is defined as the average of the recall values across the different queries performed by the system.

$$AR = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{Q}(R_i)}{Q}$$

where Q is the number of Queries and R_i is the Recall value of query i.

Mean Reciprocal Rank: The reciprocal rank of a query response is the multiplicative inverse of the rank of the first correct answer. The mean reciprocal rank is the average of the reciprocal ranks of results for a sample of queries Q (Voorhees et al., 1999)

Text-based features
– Longest Common Substring
– Longest Common Subsequence
– Greedy String Tiling
– Monge Elkan Second String
– Jaro Second String
– Jaccard coefficient
– Containment similarity
Vector-based features
– Normalized Averaged Word Vectors using `word2vec` (Mikolov et al., 2013b)
– Most similar sentence pair for a given (q, a) using sentence vector representation
– Most similar chunk pair for a given (q, a) using chunk vector representation
Metadata-based features
– User information, like user id

Table 5.3: Some of the most important text-based and vector-based features employed in the Bag-of-Vectors (BOV) baseline (Belinkov et al., 2015).

$$MRR = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{Q} \frac{1}{rank_i}}{Q}$$

where $rank_i$ refers to the rank position of the first relevant document for the i^{th} query.

Accuracy: Accuracy is the proportion of true results (both true positives and true negatives) among the total number of cases examined.(Metz, 1978)

$$\texttt{Accuracy} = \frac{\texttt{True Positive} + \texttt{True Negative}}{\texttt{True Positive} + \texttt{False Positive} + \texttt{False Negative} + \texttt{True Negative}}$$

5.2.3 Baselines

We compare our neural model with the BOV, BM25, IR and TF-IDF baselines, which we briefly explain below:

- *Bag-of-Vectors (BOV):* This baseline employed various text-based and vector-based features for the cQA problems. (Belinkov et al., 2015). We highlight some of those features in Table 5.3.

- *BM25:* We use the BM25 similarity measure trained on the cQA raw data provided by (Màrquez et al., 2015).

- *IR:* In the context of question retrieval, this is the order of the related questions provided by the search engine. In the context of answer selection, this is the chronological ranking of answers based on their time of posting.

- *TF-IDF:* This is computed using the cQA raw data provided by Màrquez et al. (2015). The ranking is defined by the cosine similarity of the TF-IDF vectors for the questions and answers.

5.2.4 Overall Performance on Question Retrieval Task

In the question retrieval experiments, we restrict the vocab to words that occur at least 40 times across the entire training sample, and choose the model with the lowest validation error over 10 epochs. For each question, we append the subject title of the thread to the beginning of the question, before supplying it to the model.

The results of the question retrieval task on development and test data are shown in Tables 5.4 and 5.5. In these tables, the first four rows show the baseline results, and the following rows show the results obtained using the neural models described in Section 5.1.1. In this task, we employ the IR rank, the order of the related questions provided by the search engine as explained in Section 5.2.1, as augmented features F_{aug}. As shown in the tables, the neural models using F_{aug} outperform the models without F_{aug} for both development and test data. For the development set shown in Table 5.4, the "*Double BLSTM*" model achieves the highest performance over the evaluation metrics. For the test set shown in Table 5.5, the result of the "*Single BLSTM*" model is comparable with the IR and TF-IDF baselines, while the highest F1 is obtained using BOV baseline. There are several points to highlight regarding the performance of the neural models in comparison to the baselines: First, the size of the data for this task is small, which makes it harder to train our neural models. Second, the baselines have access to external resources; for example IR had access to the click log of the users and TF-IDF is trained on a large cQA raw dataset (Màrquez

Method	Dev					
	MAP	AveRec	MRR	**F1**	R	P
BOV	64.60	80.83	71.42	59.55	49.53	**74.65**
BM25	61.31	79.42	69.27	-	-	-
IR	71.35	86.11	76.67	-	-	-
TF-IDF	63.40	81.74	70.43	-	-	-
Single LSTM - F_{aug}	54.49	73.39	62.00	-	-	-
Single BLSTM - F_{aug}	57.00	74.54	62.85	51.64	51.40	51.89
Single BLSTM	67.40	83.14	75.87	44.94	37.38	56.34
Double BLSTMs	**70.75**	**86.2**	**76.83**	**62.83**	**66.36**	59.66

Table 5.4: Results on development data for the question retrieval task in cQA.

Method	Test					
	MAP	AveRec	MRR	**F1**	R	P
BOV	66.27	82.40	77.96	**56.81**	51.93	**62.69**
BM25	67.27	83.41	79.12	-	-	-
IR	74.75	88.30	83.79	-	-	-
TF-IDF	73.95	87.50	84.55	-	-	-
Single LSTM - F_{aug}	45.24	67.12	52.07	-	-	-
Single BLSTM - F_{aug}	48.00	70.39	54.18	40.88	48.07	35.56
Single BLSTM	73.20	86.99	83.38	48.15	44.64	52.26
Double BLSTMs	71.98	85.86	81.16	51.27	**64.81**	42.42

Table 5.5: Results on test data for the question retrieval task in cQA.

et al., 2015). Finally, the number of out-of-vocabulary (OOV) words in the test data is higher than the development data, and the OOV word vectors are randomly initialized and do not get updated during the training phase. This results in a smaller improvement on the test data.

5.2.5 Overall Performance on Answer Selection Task

In the answer selection experiments, we also restrict the vocab to words that occur at least 40 times across the entire training sample, and choose the model with the lowest validation error over 10 epochs. For each question, we append the subject title of the thread to the beginning of the question, before supplying it to the model.

The results of the answer selection task on development and test data are shown in Tables 5.6 and 5.7. In the tables, the first four rows show the baseline results, and the following rows show the neural models results. The "*Single LSTM - F_{aug}*" row shows the results when only one LSTM is used in our model instead of two bidirectional LSTMs, and no augmented features F_{aug} are used. The "*Single BLSTM*

Method	Dev					
	MAP	AveRec	MRR	**F1**	R	P
BOV	63.18	82.56	69.36	56.84	52.08	62.56
BM25	55.16	73.18	63.33	-	-	-
IR	53.84	72.78	63.13	-	-	-
TF-IDF	52.52	72.34	60.20	-	-	-
Single LSTM - F_{aug}	61.25	81.76	68.57	-	-	-
Single BLSTM - F_{aug}	62.51	82.35	69.61	51.69	42.91	**65.00**
Single BLSTM	65.46	85.22	72.78	**62.47**	**63.69**	61.29
Double BLSTMs	**66.27**	**85.52**	**73.33**	60.36	59.66	61.08

Table 5.6: Results on development data for answer selection task in cQA.

Method	Test					
	MAP	AveRec	MRR	**F1**	R	P
BOV	75.06	85.76	82.14	59.21	50.56	**71.41**
BM25	59.57	72.57	67.06	-	-	-
IR	59.53	72.60	67.83	-	-	-
TF-IDF	59.65	72.06	66.62	-	-	-
Single LSTM - F_{aug}	71.55	83.54	79.00	-	-	-
Single BLSTM - F_{aug}	73.29	84.58	80.82	53.00	42.89	69.34
Single BLSTM	74.03	85.49	82.53	62.91	59.67	66.53
Double BLSTMs	74.98	**85.98**	**83.05**	**63.53**	**59.89**	67.63

Table 5.7: Results on test data for answer selection task in cQA.

- F_{aug}" row indicates the results when one bidirectional LSTM is used in the model instead of two bidirectional LSTMs, and no augmented features F_{aug} are used. Using a bidirectional LSTM improves the model's performance compared to the single LSTM case, as can be seen in the tables. The "*Single BLSTM*" row shows the results for one bidirectional LSTM using F_{aug}. F_{aug} is a 10-dimensional binary vector that encodes the order of the answers in their respective threads corresponding to their time of posting. F_{aug} helps improve the overall performance of the system, as can be seen by comparing the results with the ones obtained using a single BLSTM without F_{aug}. The "*Double BLSTM*" row shows the results generated by the complete model displayed in Figure 5-1. For the development set represented in Table 5.6, the highest results over all the evaluation metrics are obtained using the neural models. The "*Double BLSTM*" achieves the highest performance over the ranking metrics. In addition, the results on the test set reported in Table 5.7 show that while the MAPs of the "*Double BLSTM*" and BOV baseline are comparable, the "*Double BLSTM*" achieves the highest performance over most other metrics, especially F1.

5.3 Model Visualization

In order to gain better intuition of the neural model illustrated in Figure 5-1, we represent the outputs of the hidden layers of each bidirectional LSTM. The represented outputs correspond to the cosine similarities between vector representations of words in question-question pairs or question-answer pairs. Figure 5-3 shows the heatmaps for the first (top) and second (bottom) bidirectional LSTM for the question retrieval task with the following two questions:

- q_1: Which is the best Pakistani school for children in Qatar ? Which is the best Pakistani school for children in Qatar ?
- q_2: Which Indian school is better for the kids ? I wish to admit my kid to one of the Indian schools in Qatar Which is better DPS or Santhinekethan ? please post your comments.

The areas of high similarity are highlighted in the red squares in Figure 5-3. While both bidirectional LSTMs correctly predict that the questions are similar, the heatmaps show that the second bidirectional LSTM performs better than the first one, and that the areas of similarities (delimited by the red rectangles) are much better defined in the output of the second bidirectional LSTM than they were in the output of the first bidirectional LSTM. For example, the first bidirectional LSTM identifies similarities between the part "*for children in qatar ? Which is the*" from the question q_1 and the parts "*is better for the kids ?*" and "*is better DPS or Santhinekethan ?* ***please post***" from the question q_2. The second bidirectional LSTM accurately updates those parts from the question q_2 to "*for the kids ? I wish to* ***admit*** *my*" and "*Qatar which is better DPS or Santhinekethan*", respectively. This difference shows that the second bidirectional LSTM assigns smaller values to the non-important words (e.g., "*please post*"), while emphasizing more important ones, such as "*admit*".

Figure 5-4 shows the heatmaps of the outputs of the first bidirectional LSTM (top) and the second bidirectional LSTM (bottom) in another example drawn from the question retrieval task with the following two questions:

- q_1: New car price guide. Can anyone tell me prices of new German cars in Qatar and deals available ?

- q_2: Reliable and honest garages in Doha. Can anyone recommend a reliable garage that is also low priced ? I have been around the industrial area but it is hard to know who is reliable and who is not. The best way is if I hear from the experience of the qatarliving members . I am looking to do some work on my land cruiser.

As shown in Figure 5-4, the dark blue areas are much larger in the first bidirectional than in the second bidirectional LSTM. These results show that the first bidirectional LSTM incorrectly predicts that the questions q_1 and q_2 are similar, while the second bidirectional LSTM correctly predicts that the questions are dissimilar.

More examples of question-question pairs, and question-answer pairs are available in the appendix A.

5.4 Summary

We presented a neural-based model with stacked bidirectional LSTMs to generate the vector representations of questions and answers, and predict their semantic similarities. These similarity scores are then employed to rank questions in a list of questions for the question retrieval task, and answers to a given question in a list of answers for the answer selection task. The experimental results show that our model can outperform the baselines, even though baselines use various text-based and vector-based features and have access to external resources. We also demonstrate the impact of the Out-Of-Vocabulary (OOV) words, and the size of the train data on the performance of the neural model.

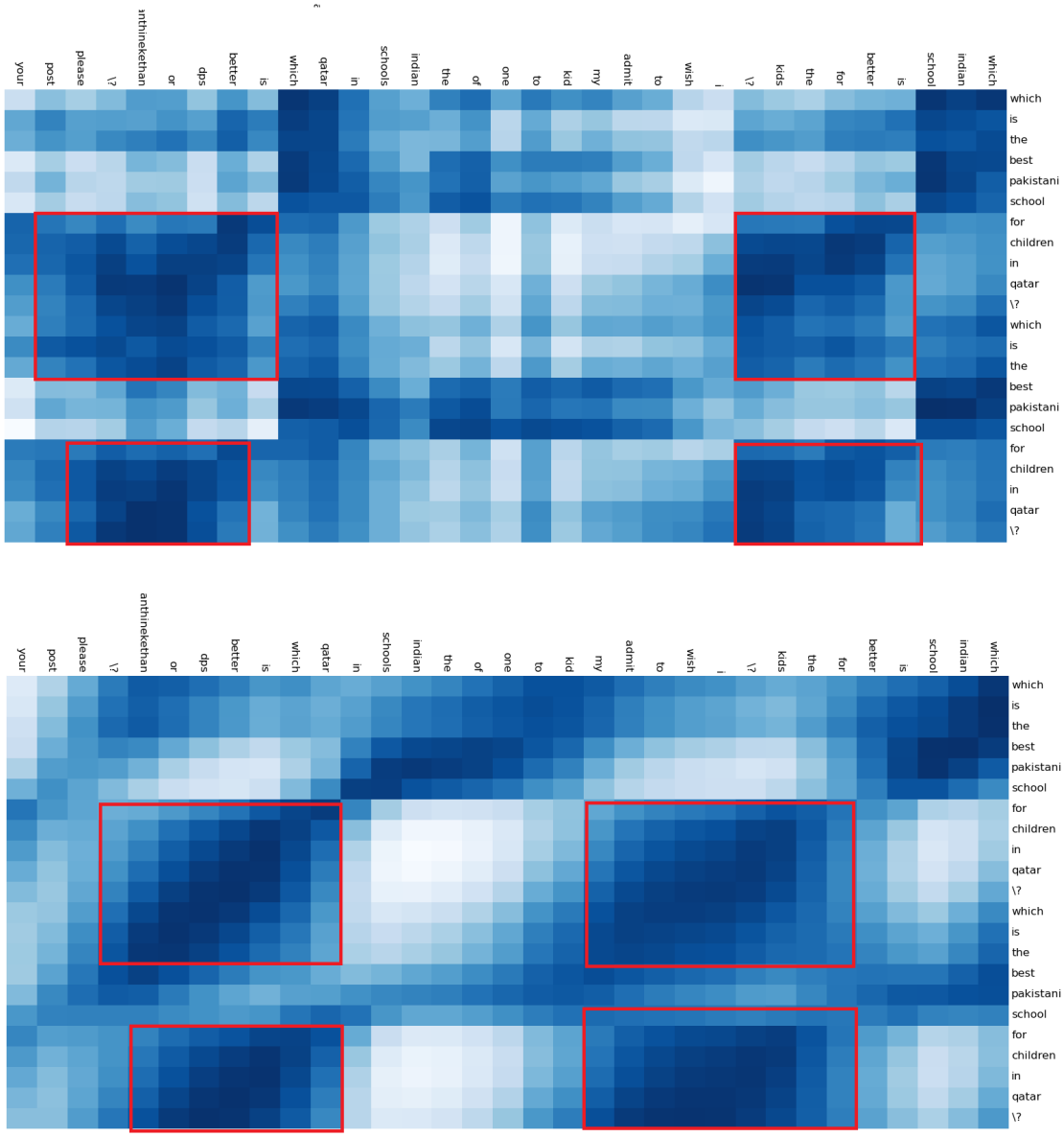


Figure 5-3: Example of a pair of questions that is correctly predicted as similar by the first (top) and second (bottom) bidirectional LSTMs. The dark blue squares represent areas of high similarity.

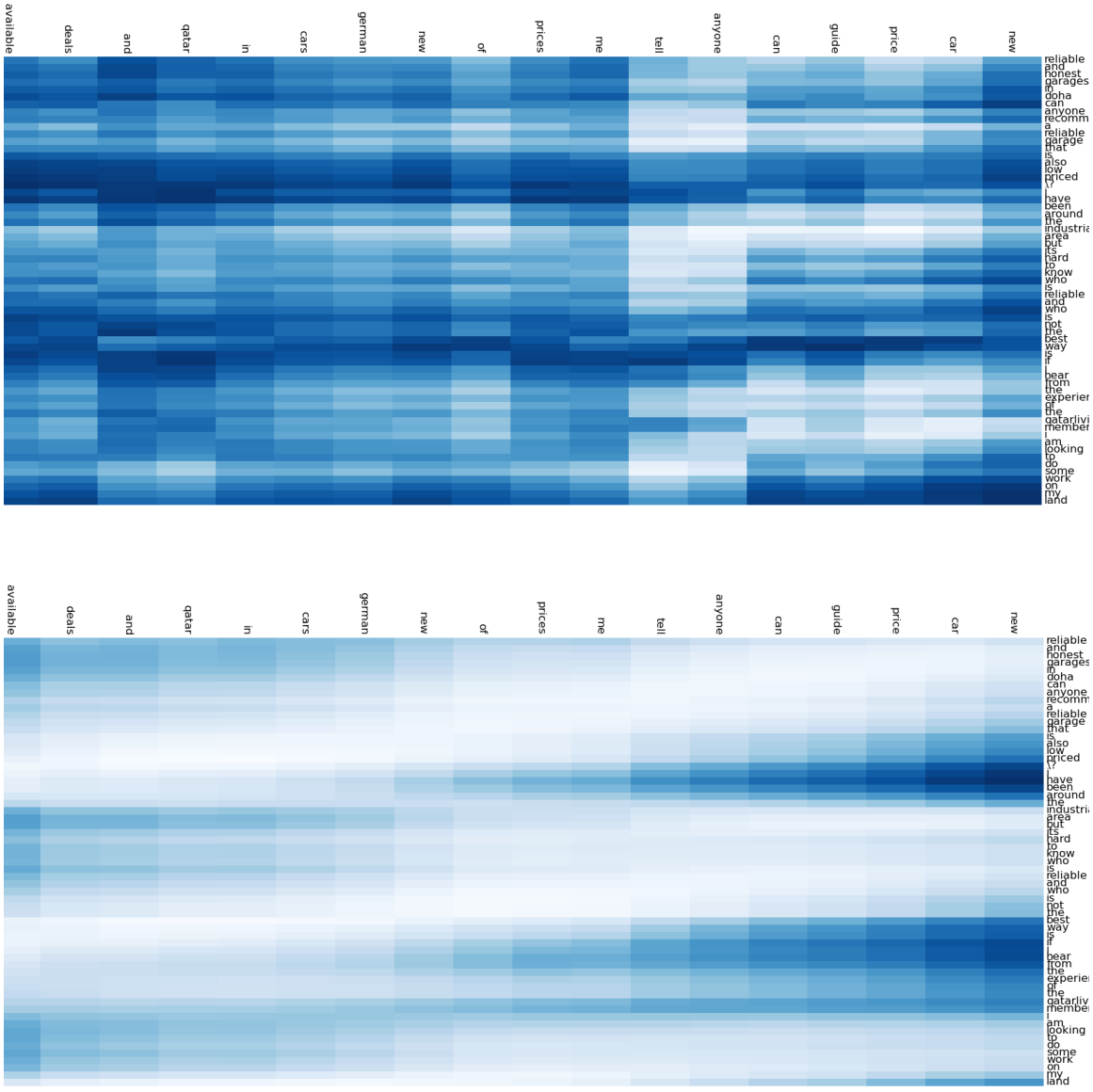


Figure 5-4: Example of a pair of questions that is incorrectly predicted as similar by the first bidirectional LSTM (top) and correctly predicted as dissimilar by the the second bidirectional LSTM (bottom). The dark blue squares represent areas of high similarity.

Chapter 6

Conclusion

In this thesis, we presented neural-based models for *semantic* and *sentiment* understanding of user-generated content. We have examined online review platforms in the context of *Aspect-based Sentiment Analysis*, with the goal of capturing the aspect categories and the sentiment of each category, and discussion forums in the context of *Community Question Answering* with the goal of capturing semantic similarities between questions and answers and retrieving the similar questions and relevant answers for a given question. In the future, we plan to combine the presented models for semantic and sentiment prediction into an integrated model.

6.1 Contributions

The methods presented in this thesis are centered around semantic and sentiment understanding in the context of two major NLP research problems: *Aspect-Based Sentiment analysis* and *Community Question Answering*. The primary contributions are as follows.

6.1.1 Aspect-Based Sentiment analysis

In Chapter 4, we presented neural-based models with Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) to address two ABSA tasks: *Aspect Category Detection*, and *Aspect Category*

Sentiment Prediction. The models use the word vector representations of a given sentence computed from *word2vec* to generate feature maps through a set of a different convolutions. Th multilayer perceptron then uses the feature maps to predict the aspect category or sentiment labels expressed in the sentence. Furthermore, we explored both one-vs-all and multiclass-multilabel classification schemes to accomplish the desired tasks. Our evaluation of the model's performance on the restaurant reviews dataset demonstrated that the results for aspect category detection and category sentiment prediction outperform the baselines.

6.1.2 Community Question Answering

In Chapter 5, we presented neural-based models with stacked bidirectional LSTMs and MLP to address the *Similar-Question Retrieval* and *Answer Selection* tasks. The model generates the vector representations of the questions and answers, and computes their semantic similarity scores which are then employed to rank and predict relevancies. We explored different architectures for the models ranging from a single bidirectional LSTM layer to a double bidirectional LSTM layer to accomplish the desired tasks. We demonstrated that our model performs more accurately than the baselines if enough training data is available. Our work for cQA is submitted to the ACL Workshop on Representation Learning for NLP (Nassif et al., 2016).

6.2 Directions for Future Research

There are many interesting directions we could take to improve and refine the developed models. Here, we describe a few possible extensions of our work on aspect-based sentiment analysis and community question answering.

6.2.1 Aspect-Based Sentiment analysis

In the future, we plan on applying our current experimental setup on the other ABSA sub-tasks, such as aspect term extraction and aspect sentiment prediction. We would

additionally like to explore ways to integrate both models for aspect category detection and aspect sentiment prediction into a single joint model which extracts both *semantic* and *sentiment* information from a given user-generated input. It would also be interesting to assess the performance of a neural model based on recurrent neural networks, such as Long short-Term Memory Networks (LSTMs), rather than CNNs.

6.2.2 Community Question Answering

In the future, we plan on extending our current setup to retrieve the relevant answers from existing cQA threads, and rank them with respect to a new coming question. We would like to explore an integrated model built on the combination of our developed models for question retrieval and answer selection. Moreover, we would like to investigate the combination of several neural models, such as LSTM and CNN, to better learn joint representations of question-question pairs and question-answer pairs in cQA.

Appendix A

Visualizations of Community Question-Answering System

A.1 Examples

In this appendix are more examples that illustrate the performance of our cQA neural model. This model is designed to capture the semantic similarities between questions for question retrieval task and the semantic similarities between questions and answers for the answer selection task.

A.1.1 Example 1

The two questions represented in Figure A-1 are:

- q_1: Buying car without driving license. Hi folks is it possible to buy a car and register it in my name without having a driving license ?
- q_2: Buying a car. Hi I'm planning to buy a car, which is better Honda civic or Hyundai Santa Fe both 2011 model ? just new here in Qatar could you please give some feedback reviews.

The algorithm initially identifies similarities between "*Buying a car without driving license*" from q_1 and "*Buying a car. Hi I'm planning*" from q_2, as well as between "*is it*

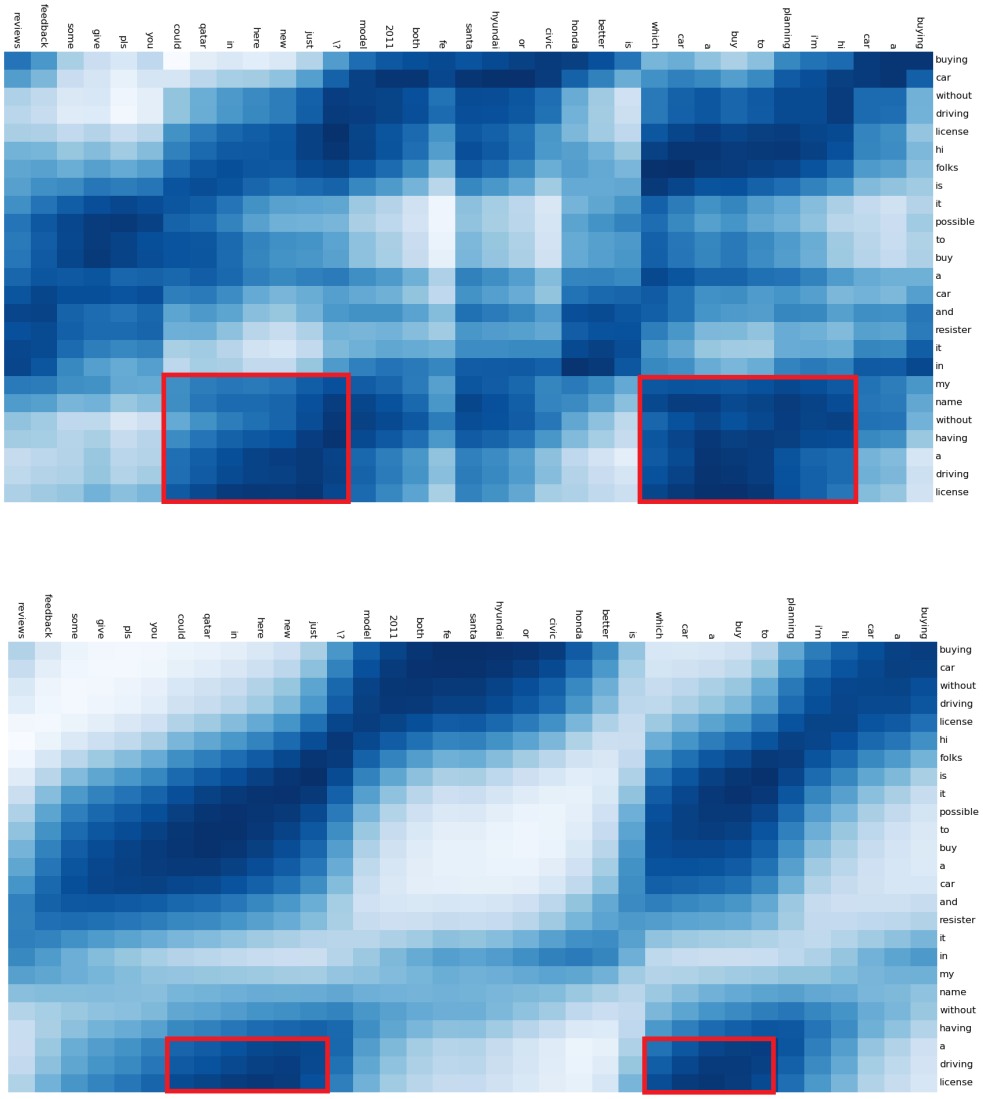


Figure A-1: Example of a pair of questions that is correctly classified as dissimilar. The second heatmap shows a reduction in the areas of high similarity delimited by red boxes in both heatmaps.

possible to buy a car" from q_1 and "*to buy a car which*" from q_2. Other similarities are identified between "*buying car without driving license*" from q_1 and "*Honda civic or Hyundai Santa Fe both 2011 model*" from q_2; also between "*is it possible to buy a car*" from q_1 and "*just new here in Qatar could you please give some feedback*" from q_2. In this case, the second bidirectional LSTM layer corrects the first one, and the model adjusts to recognize the lack of similarity between the two questions. In fact, the

incorrect similarities identified by the first LSTM between "*my name without having a driving license*" from q_1 and "*just new here in Qatar*" and "*Hi I'm planning to buy a car which*" from q_2 are minimized by the second LSTM.

A.1.2 Example 2

The two questions represented in Figure A-2 are:

- q_1: What's the weather in Qatar during November December ? Hi anyone can share with this how cold is it during November in Qatar ? this coming October is it already cold in Qatar ?
- q_2: Weather in Qatar in December. Hi all I'm coming in 2 weeks to Doha and I was wondering how's the weather in December should I bring winter clothes ? jacket ? coat ? wool etc ! can see in the forecasts that it can go down to 10 degrees sometimes but this doesn't mean much since there's a lot of factors for example 10 degrees Celsius is ok in Boston but if you go to Washington you're gonna freeze in 10 deg C.

As shown in the figure, the dark blue areas are much better defined in the second heatmap than in the first heatmap. In this case, the second LSTM refines the regions of similarities identified by the first LSTM.

A.1.3 Example 3

The two questions represented in Figure A-3 are:

- q_1: Direction to LuLu. Anyone can tell me how to drive to LuLu from TV RA.
- q_2: Thai food grocery shops in Doha . Hi I love cooking Thai food but don't know where in Doha I can find Thai food grocery shops for the cooking ingredient also where are the Thai restaurants ? appreciate your information.

The first BLSTM identifies high similarities between the two questions and incorrectly classified the questions as similar, while the second bidirectional LSTM recognizes the difference between the two questions and classifies them as dissimilar.

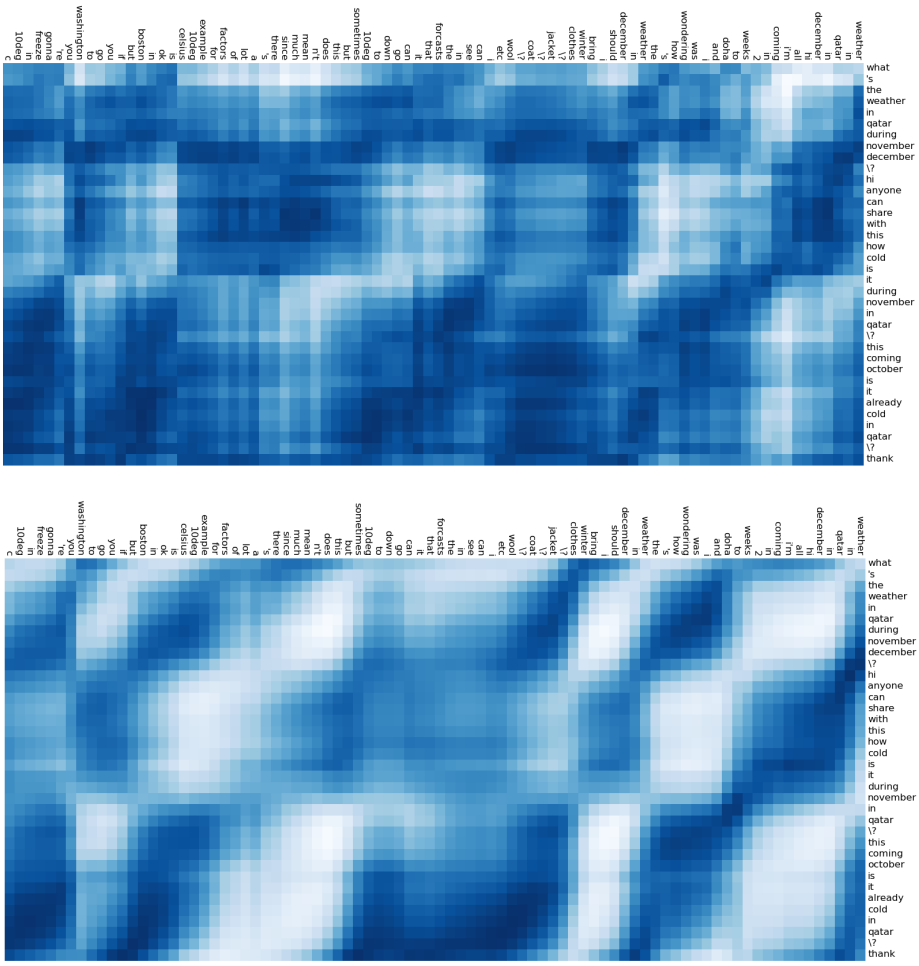


Figure A-2: Example of a pair of questions that is correctly classified as similar. The second LSTM fine-tunes the output of the first one.

A.1.4 Example 4

The question and answer represented in Figure A-4 are:

- *q*: Best Bank. Hi to all qatarliving what bank you are using ? and why ? are you using this bank just because it has an affiliate at home ?
- *a*: With QNB for last 4 years plus no issues great service with a smile from Qatari's and now since they started QNB first it just got even better.

The model identifies similarities between "*Best Bank. Hi to all qatarliving what bank you are*" from *q* and "*with QNB for last 4 years plus no issues great service with*

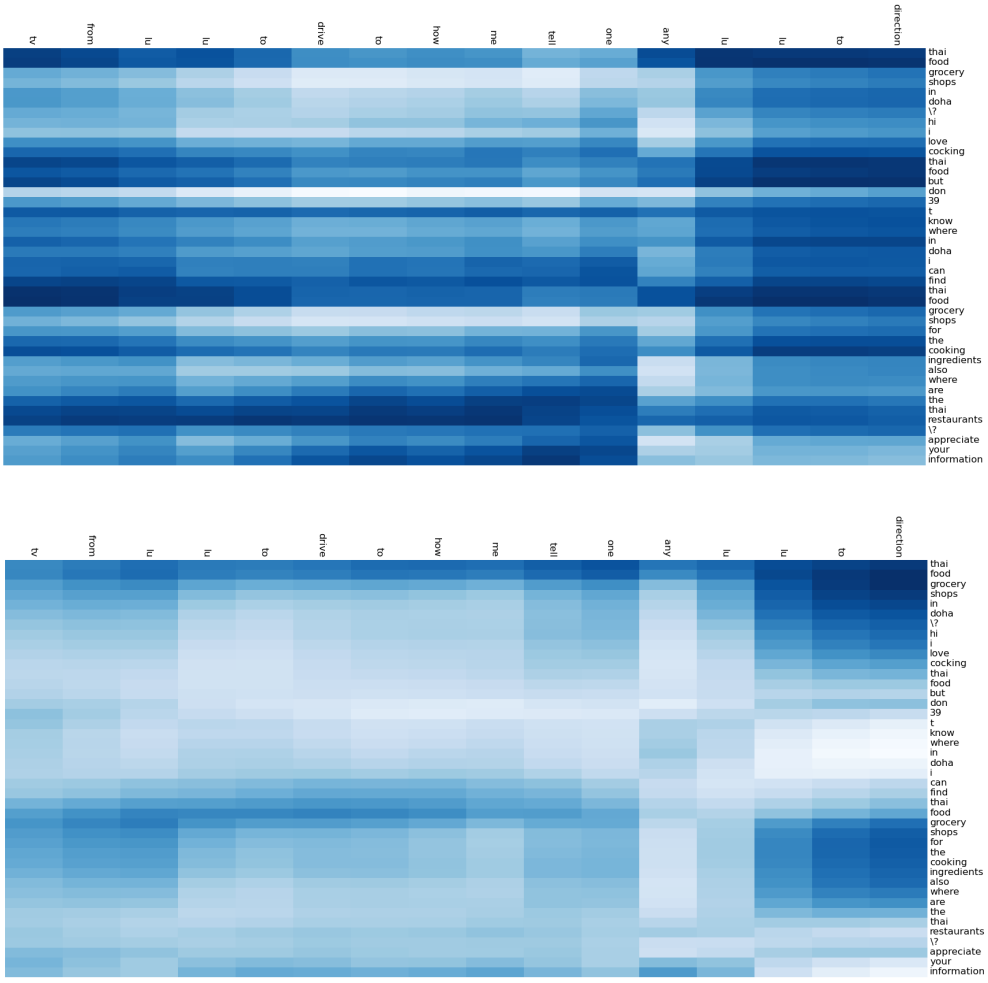


Figure A-3: Example of a pair of questions that is incorrectly classified as similar by the first LSTM and correctly classified as dissimilar by the second LSTM.

a smile from Qatari's and now since they started QNB first it just got even better" from a, which correctly captures the semantic relationship between the question q and answer a.

A.1.5 Example 5

The question and answer represented in Figure A-5 are:

- q: Best places to live in Doha . Hi qatarliving where is the best place to live in Doha for a family with children and the average prices for each of u basis for 2

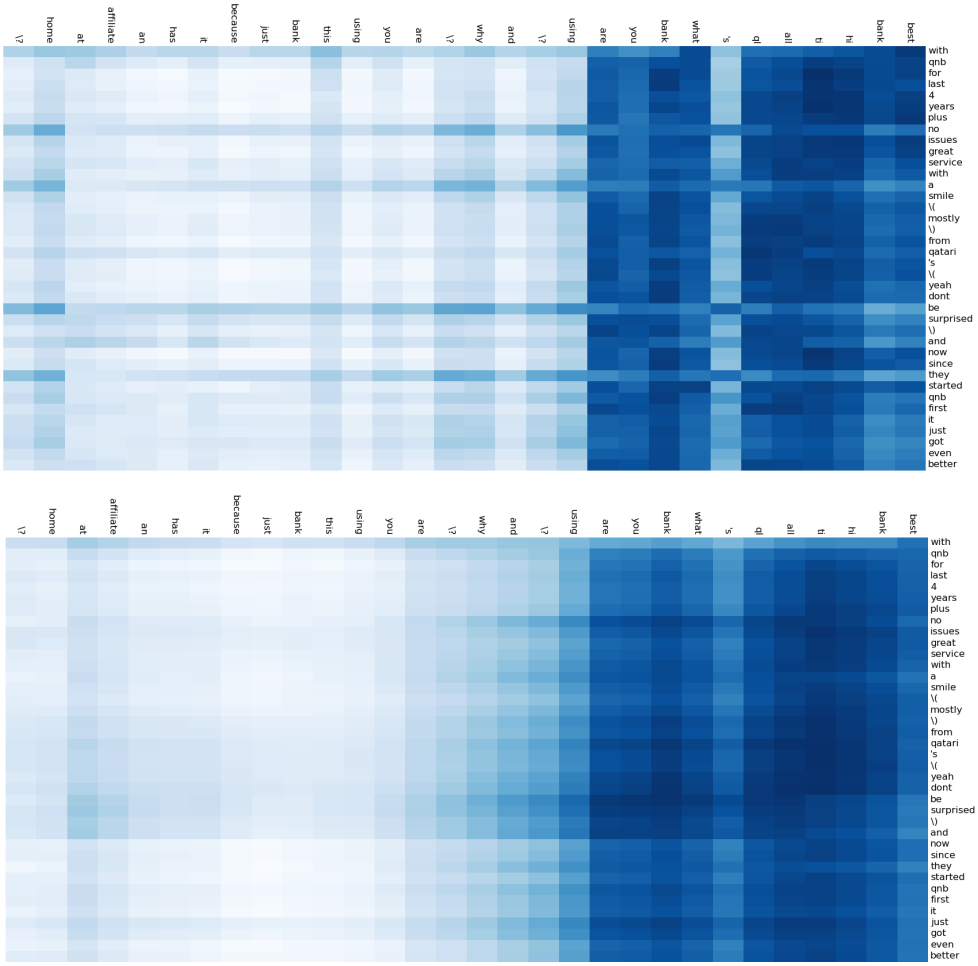


Figure A-4: Example of a question-answer pair that correctly classified as related. Each bidirectional LSTM makes a correct prediction.

rooms quits and clean and modern areas.

- a: ezdan al wakrah qr 5200 with water and electricity nice compound with all amenities quite.

The model identifies similarities between "*a family with children and the average prices for each of u basis for 2 rooms quits and clean and modern areas*" from q and "*ezdan al wakrah qr 5200 with water and electricity nice compound with all amenities quite and*" from a.

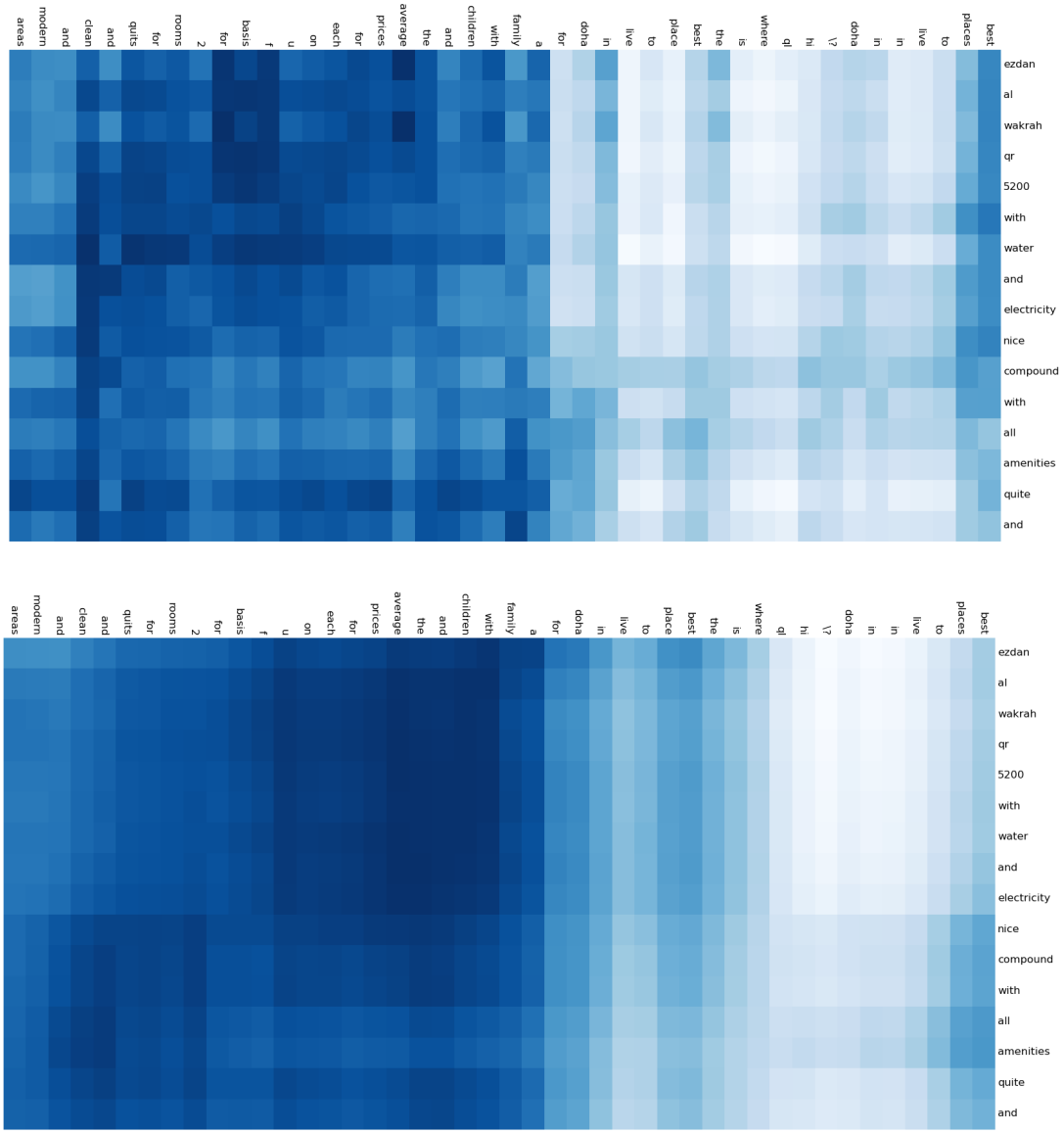


Figure A-5: Example of a question-answer pair that is correctly classified as related.

A.1.6 Example 6

The question and answer represented in Figure A-6 are:

- *q*: My inhouse plants are dying. I dont know what is happening to all my inhouse plants . they just wont survive. I changed manure; but in vain. put them in sunlight. gave them ventilation tried all tactics but they would just die away. turn black. watz happening can anyone suggest me?

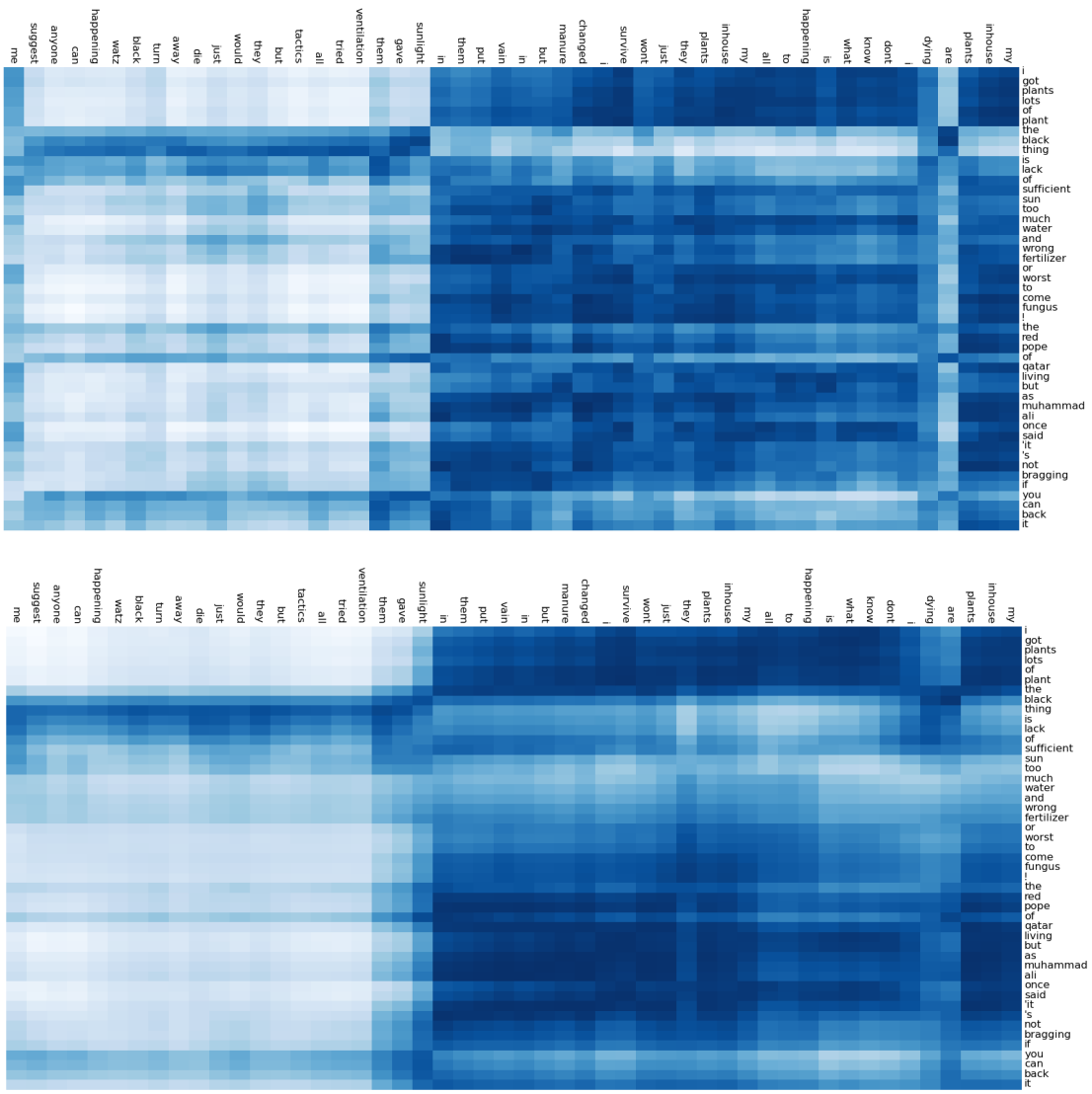


Figure A-6: Example of a question-answer pair that is correctly classified as related by both first and second bidirectional LSTM.

- a: I got plants lots of plant. The black thing is lack of sufficient sun; too much water and wrong fertilizer. Or worst to come Fungus!.

The model identifies similarities between "*My inhouse plants are dying. I dont know what is happening to all my inhouse plants . they just wont survive. I changed manure; but in vain. put them in*" from q and "*I got plants lots of plant. The black thing is lack of sufficient sun; too much water and wrong fertilizer. Or worst to come Fungus!*" from a.

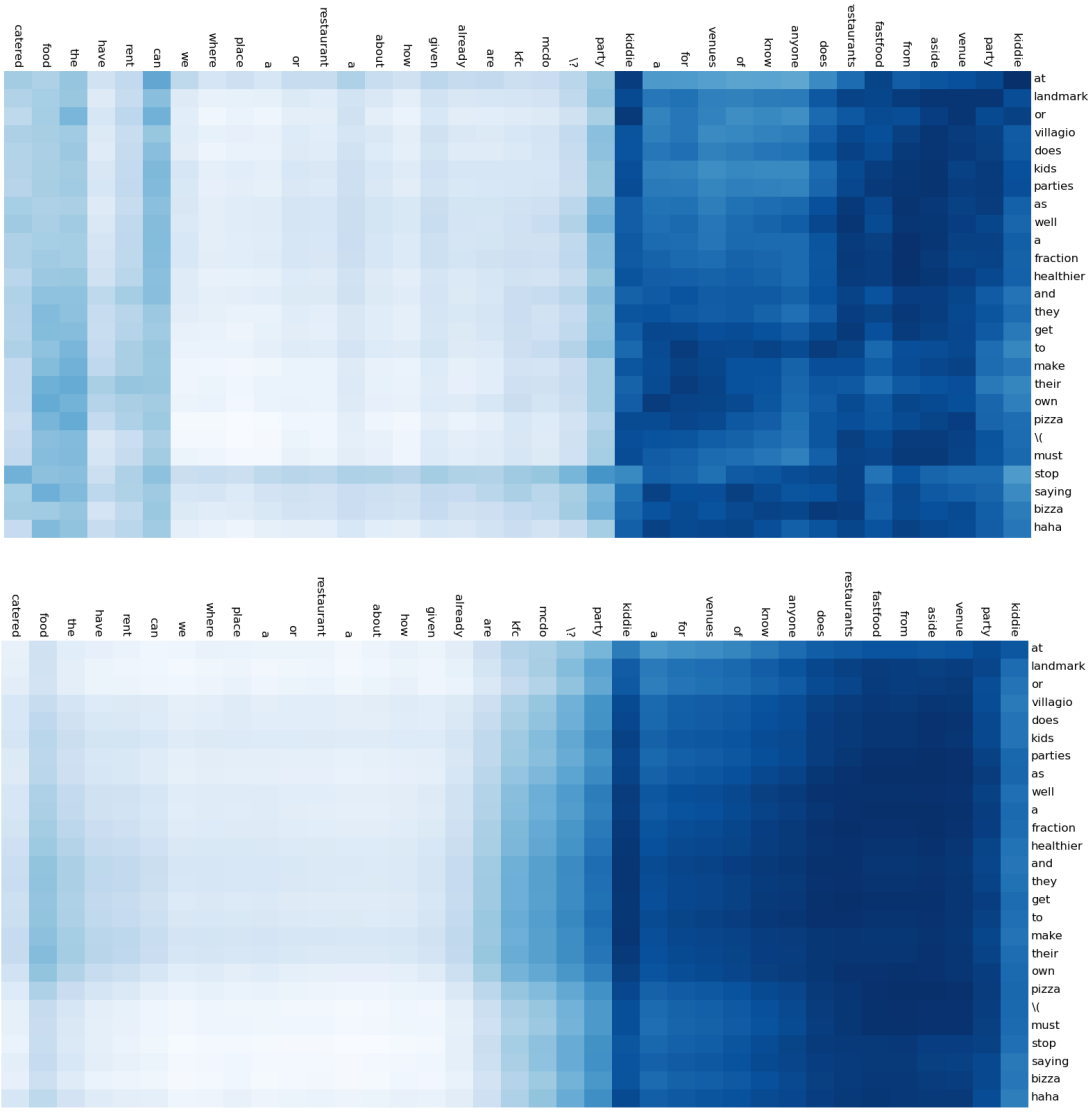


Figure A-7: Example of a question-answer pair that is correctly classified as related by both bidirectional LSTMs.

A.1.7 Example 7

The question and answer represented in Figure A-7 are:

- q: Kiddie party venue aside from fastfood restaurants. Does anyone know of venues for a kiddie party? Mcdo & KFC are already given. How about a restaurant or a place where we can rent & have the food catered?
- a: Landmark or Villagio does kids parties as well. A fraction healthier and they

get to make their own pizza

The model identifies similarities between "*Kiddie party venue aside from fastfood restaurants. Does anyone know of venues for a kiddie*" from q and "*...at Landmark or Villagio does kids parties as well. A fraction healthier and they get to make their own pizza*" from a.

A.1.8 Example 8

The question and answer represented in Figure A-8 are:

- q: Cheapest Cargo services? Hi all, can anybody suggest which is the cheapest cargo (shipping) service center available in Qatar to transport things to Singapore and its contact numbers or the place where its office is located in Qatar? Very urgent as we are leaving the country. Thank you for your help .

- a: Located near Lulu's. Don't know about shipping to Singapore; but had fairly good service and price moving a friend to Canada last fall. Would think that Singapore would be easier.

The model identifies similarities between "*service center available in Qatar to transport things to Singapore and its contact numbers or the place where its office is located in Qatar? Very urgent as we are leaving the*" from q and "*Located near Lulu's. Don't know about shipping to Singapore; but had fairly good service and price moving a friend to Canada last fall. Would think that Singapore would be easier*" from a.

A.1.9 Example 9

The question and answer represented in Figure A-9 are:

- q: Is tap water drinkable after boiling? I experienced 2 times that the water after boiling has a certain smell like disinfectant. Do they control the quantity of chemicals in water treatment? Is it ok to drink the tap water after boiling?

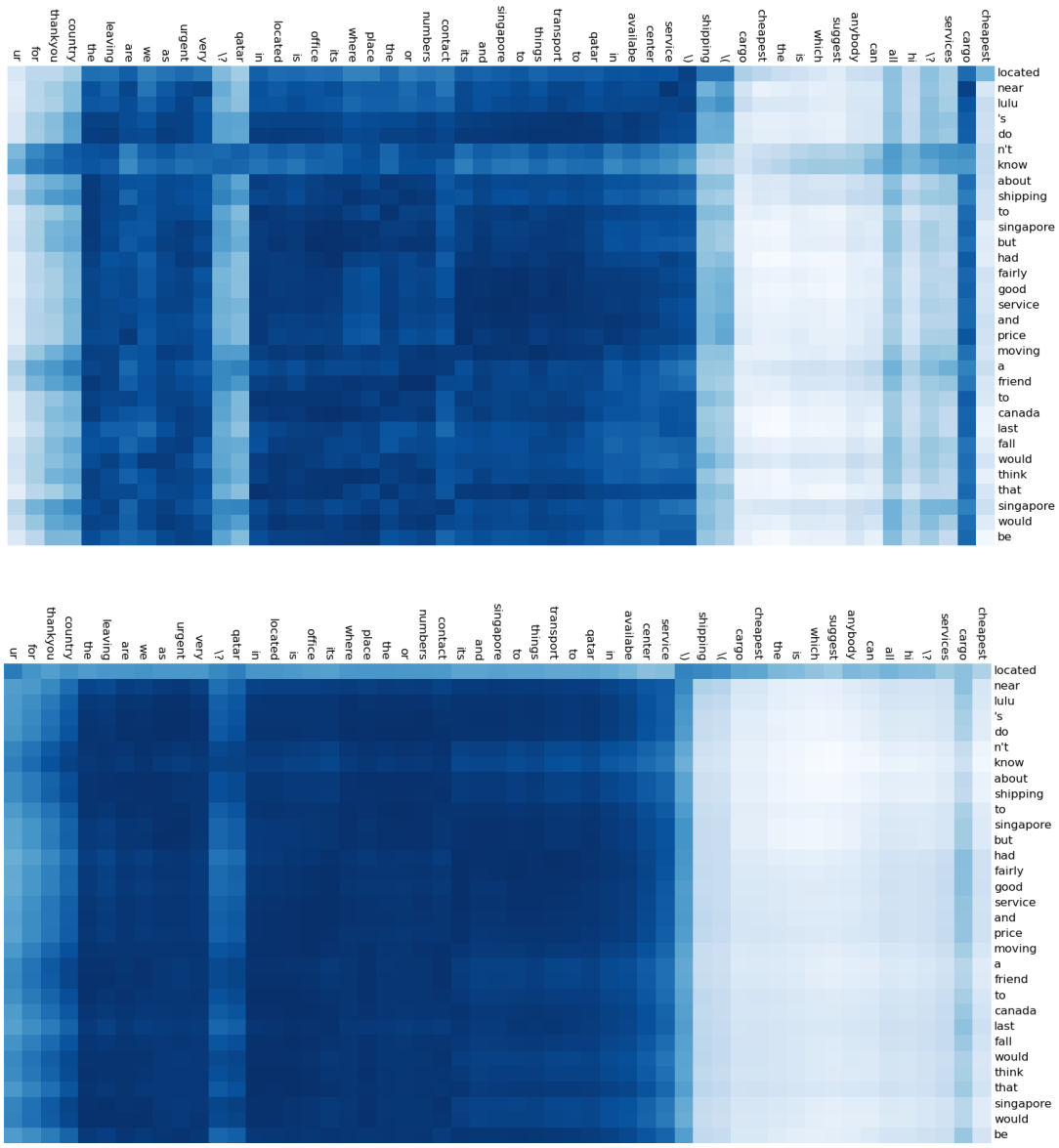


Figure A-8: Example of a question-answer pair that is correctly classified as related by both bidirectional LSTMs.

- a: Even if they say the bacteria will die after boiling; id still say NO. i wont drink from tap water especially here in Qatar where dust is inevitable.

The model identifies similarities between "*boiling? I experienced 2 times that the water after boiling*" and "*treatment? Is it ok to drink*" from q and "*even if they say the bacteria will die after boiling; id still say NO. i wont drink*" from a; and between "*is*

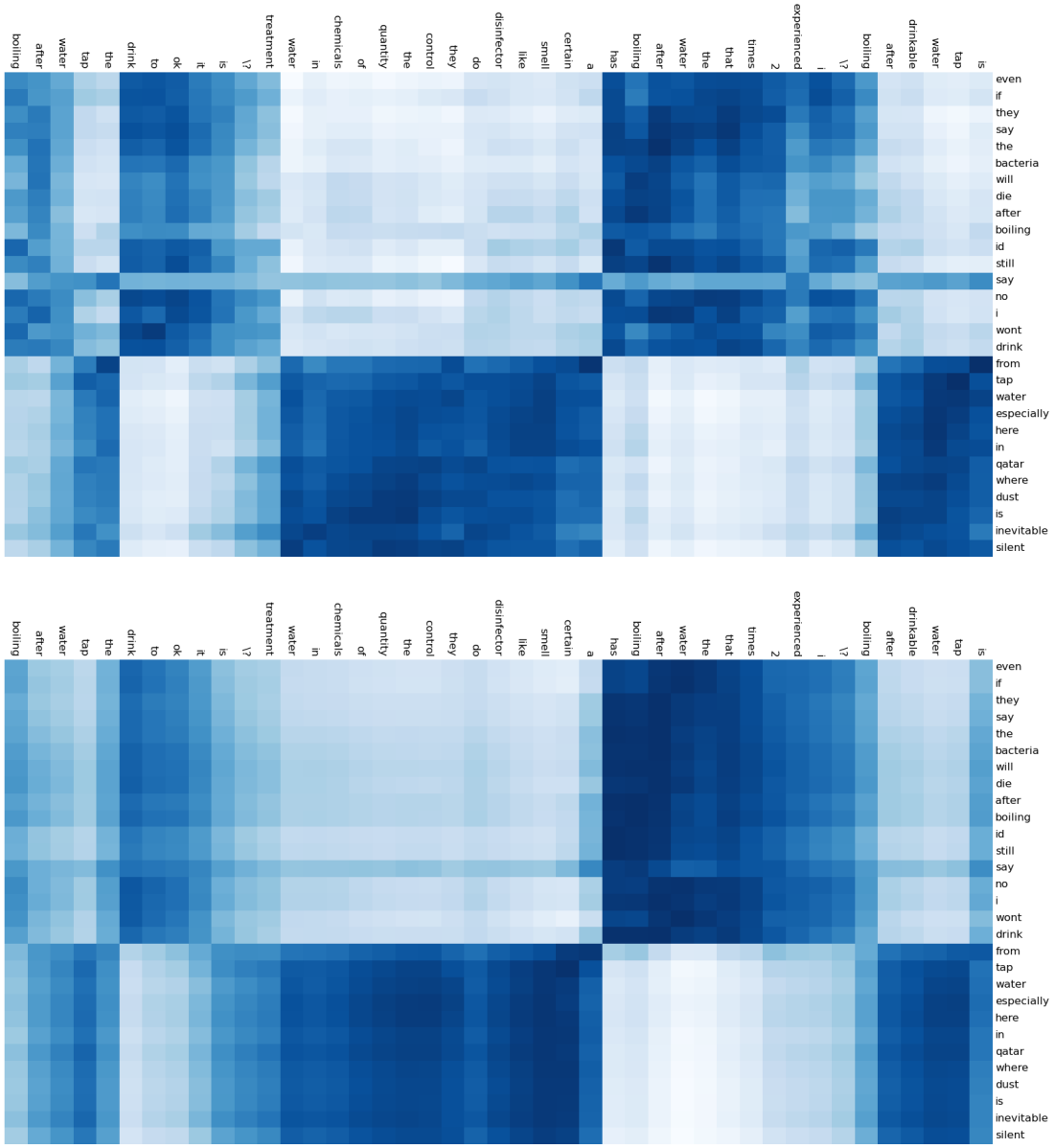


Figure A-9: Example of a question-answer pair that is correctly classified as related by both bidirectional LSTMs.

tap water drinkable after" and "*a certain smell like disinfectant. Do they control the quantity of chemicals in water*" from q and "*from tap water especially here in Qatar where dust is inevitable. silent*" from a.

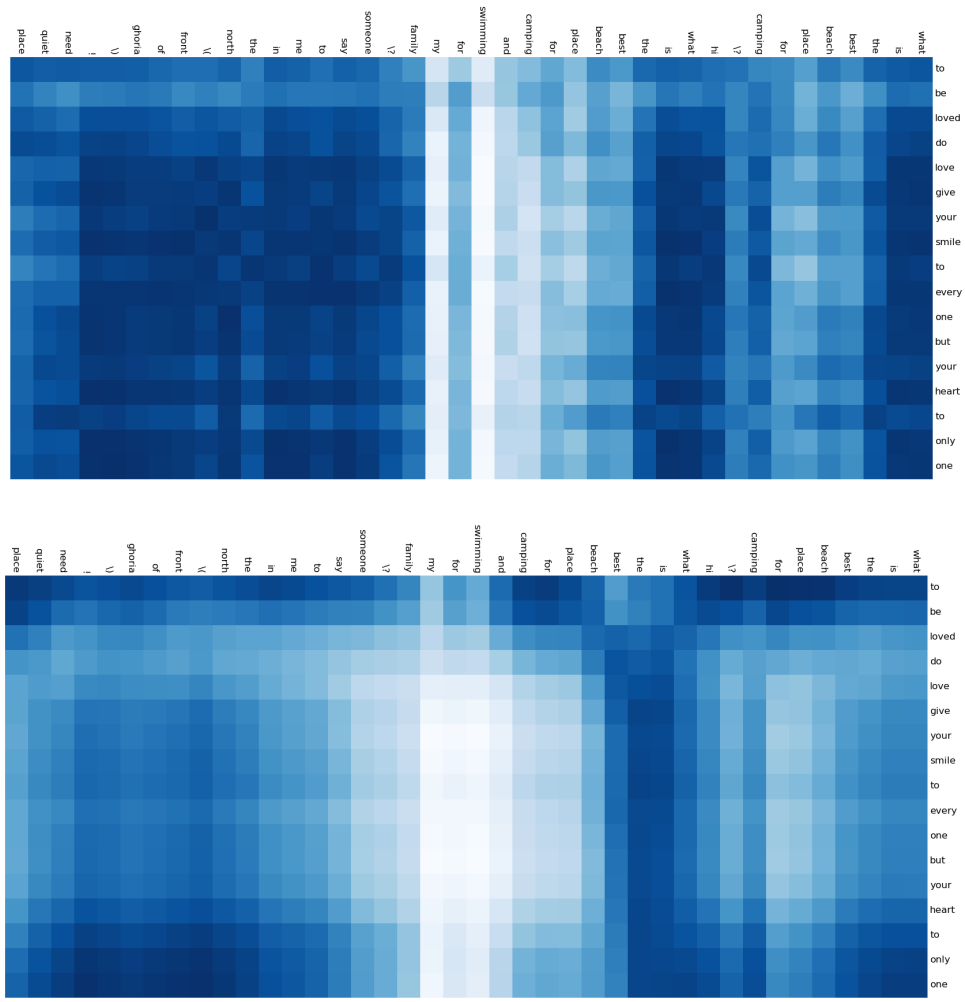


Figure A-10: Example of a spam answer that is first incorrectly classified as relevant by the first bidirectional LSTM, but then correctly classified as irrelevant by the second bidirectional LSTM.

A.1.10 Example 10

The question and answer represented in Figure A-12 are:

- q: What is the best beach place for camping.Hi, What is the best beach place for camping and swimming for my family. Someone said to me on the North, south of Goria. I need a quiet place !

- a: to be loved do love give your smile to everyone but your heart to only one.

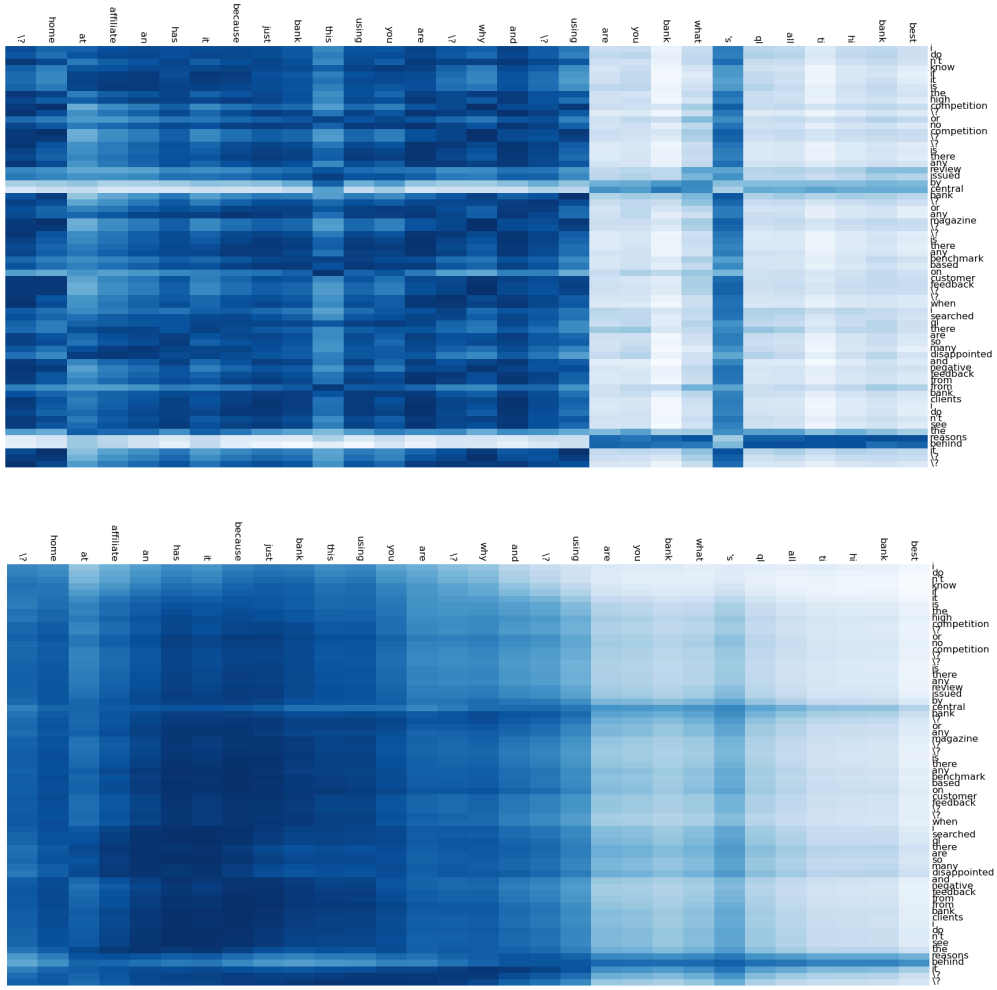


Figure A-11: Example of a question-answer pair that is correctly classified as irrelevant to each other.

As can be seen in figure A-10, the first bidirectional LSTM identifies many false similarities that the second bidirectional LSTM attenuates.

A.1.11 Example 11

The question and answer represented in Figure A-11 are:

- q: Best Bank. Hi to all qatarliving what bank you are using ? and why ? are you using this bank just because it has an affiliate at home ?
- a: I don't know if it is the competition or no competition ? Is there any review

issued by central bank ? Is there any magazine ? Is there any benchmark based on customer feedback ? When I searched qatarliving there are so many disappointed and negative feedback from bank clients. I don't see the reasons behind it.

The first bidirectional LSTM in the model incorrectly identifies a high level of similarity between "*using ? and why ? are you using this bank just because it has an affiliate at home ?*" from q and all of a. The second LSTM reduces the similarity scores to a value under the threshold.

A.1.12 Example 12

The question and answer represented in Figure A-12 are:

- q: best Bank. hi to all qatarliving what bank you are using ? and why ? are you using this bank just because it has an affiliate at home ?
- a: Westernindoha that's the information i am looking for and it answers my question

The model first identifies similarities between "*using ? and why ? are you using this bank just because it has an affiliate at home ?*" from q and "*westernindoha that's the information i am looking for and it answers my question*" from a. However, because the question is asked and answered by the same user, this question-answer pair is labeled as *bad*.

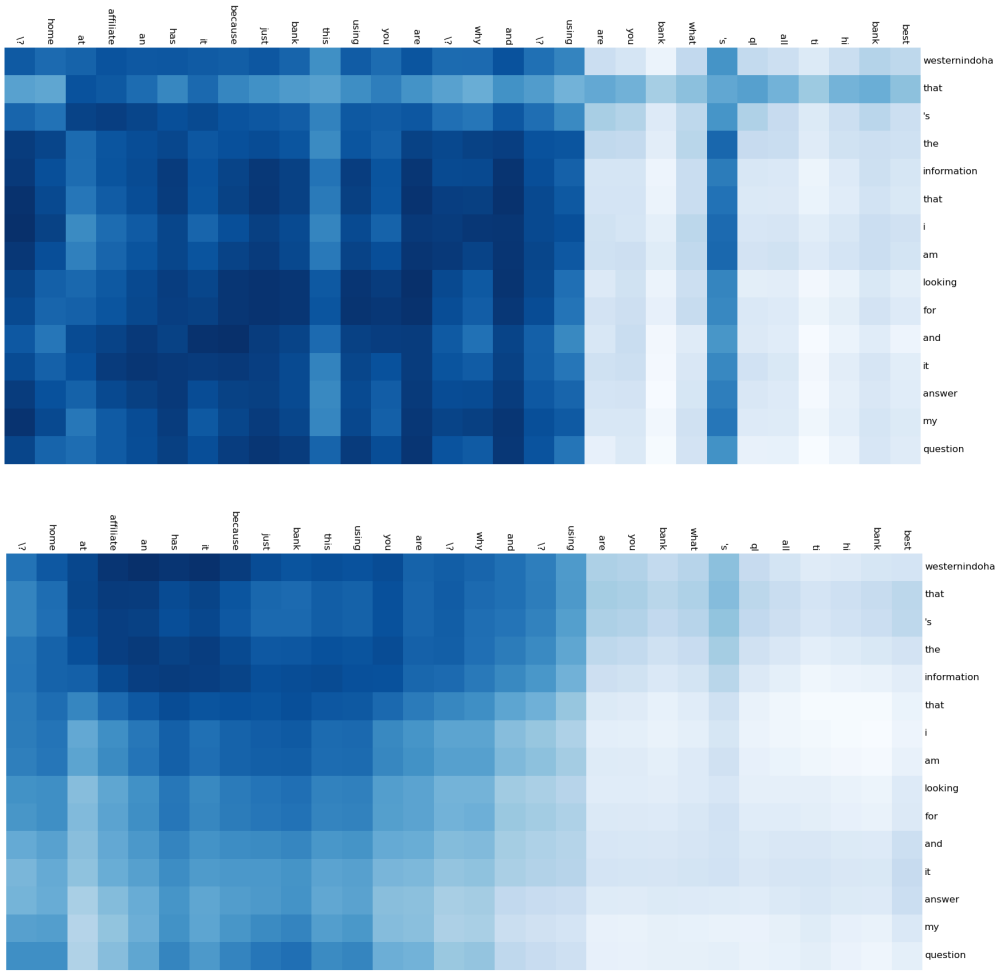


Figure A-12: Example of a question-answer pair that is correctly classified as irrelevant to each other. In this case, the question and answer are provided by the same user.

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