

On the Effect of Word Order on Cross-lingual Sentiment Analysis

Sobre el efecto del orden de las palabras en el análisis de sentimiento cross-lingüe

Anonymous Submission

Abstract: Current state-of-the-art models for sentiment analysis make use of word order either explicitly by pretraining on language modeling or implicitly by using recurrent neural networks (RNNS) or convolutional networks (CNNS). This is a problem for cross-lingual models that use bilingual embeddings as features, as the difference in word order between source and target languages is not resolved. In this work, we explore reordering as a preprocessing step for sentence-level cross-lingual sentiment classification with two language combinations (English-Spanish, English-Catalan). We find that while reordering helps both models, CNNS are more sensitive to local reorderings, while global reordering benefits RNNS.

Keywords: sentiment analysis, cross-lingual

Resumen: Los modelos de análisis de sentimiento que actualmente representan el estado del arte utilizan el orden de las palabras, o bien explícitamente al entrenar con un objetivo de modelo de lenguaje, o bien implícitamente al recurrir a redes neuronales recurrentes (RNR) o convolucionales (RNC). Esto es un problema para los acercamientos cross-lingües que emplean vectores bilingües para entrenar, ya que la diferencia del orden de las palabras entre la lengua de origen y la de destino no se resuelve. En este trabajo, exploramos el reordenamiento de las palabras como etapa de procesamiento previa para la clasificación de sentimiento cross-lingüe a nivel de frase, con dos combinaciones de idiomas (Inglés-Castellano, Inglés-Catalán). Descubrimos que aunque el reordenamiento ayuda a los dos modelos, los RNC son más sensibles al reordenamiento local, mientras un reordenamiento global beneficia a los RNR.

Palabras clave: análisis de sentimiento, cross-lingüe

1 Introduction

Cross-lingual Sentiment Analysis (CLSA) exploits resources, *e. g.* labeled data of a high-resource language, to train a sentiment classifier for low-resource languages. This approach is useful when a target language lacks plentiful labeled data, particularly for specific domains. Machine Translation (MT) is often used to bridge the gap between languages (Banea et al., 2008; Balahur y Turchi, 2014), but requires abundant parallel data, which may be difficult to find for some low-resource languages. Approaches that use bilingual distributional representations, in contrast, have proven competitive while requiring less parallel data (Chen et al., 2016; Barnes, Klinger, y Schulte im Walde, 2018).

Recently, sentiment classifiers pre-trained on a language modeling task have lead to

state-of-the-art results (Peters et al., 2018; Howard y Ruder, 2018; Devlin et al., 2018). This improvement suggests that sentiment analysis benefits from learning word order and fine-grained relationships between tokens, which can be gleaned from unlabeled data. These approaches, however, have only been applied in a monolingual setting and it is not clear how the difference in word orders would affect them in a cross-lingual setup. In this work, we perform an analysis of the effect of word order on cross-lingual sentiment classifiers that use bilingual embeddings as features. We show that these models are sensitive to word order and benefit from pre-reordering the target-language test data so that it resembles the source-language word order.

2 Related Work

Cross-lingual Sentiment Analysis: Although most approaches to cross-lingual sentiment analysis rely on machine translation (Banea et al., 2008; Balahur y Turchi, 2014; Klinger y Cimiano, 2015), this requires large amounts of parallel data, making it less helpful for under-resourced languages.

Bilingual word embeddings (Mikolov, Le, y Sutskever, 2013; Artetxe, Labaka, y Agirre, 2017; Lample et al., 2018) often make better use of small amounts of parallel data and are now used as features for state-of-the-art document-level (Chen et al., 2016), sentence-level (Barnes, Klinger, y Schulte im Walde, 2018), and targeted (Hangya et al., 2018) cross-lingual sentiment analysis approaches.

Word Order in Sentiment Analysis: Pre-training sentiment classifiers with a language-modeling task represents a successful transfer learning method. Peters et al. (2018) learn to create contextualized embeddings by training a character-level convolutional network to predict the next word in a sequence. Similarly, Howard y Ruder (2018) introduce techniques that improve the fine-tuning of the base language-model. Finally, Devlin et al. (2018) introduce a self-attention network and adjust the language modeling task to a cloze task, where they predict missing words in a sentence, rather than the next word given a sequence. They then fine-tune their models on downstream tasks. These models that explicitly learn word order have led to state-of-the-art results on monolingual sentiment tasks.

Word Reordering: Rule-based pre-reordering has a long tradition in Machine Translation (see Bisazza y Federico (2016) for a survey), where word order directly effects the final result. Reordering rules can be determined manually (Collins, Koehn, y Kucerova, 2005; Gojun y Fraser, 2012) or with data-driven approaches that either learn POS-tag based (Crego y Mariño, 2006a; Crego y Mariño, 2006b) or tree-based (Neubig, Watanabe, y Mori, 2012; Nakagawa, 2015) reordering rules. The advantage of POS-tag based rules is that they are simple to implement and do not require full parsing of the target-language sentences.

		EN	ES	CA
4-class Binary	+	1258	1216	682
	−	473	256	467
	++	379	370	256
	+	879	846	426
	−	399	218	409
	−−	74	38	58
	<i>Total</i>	1731	1472	1149

Table 1: Statistics for the OpeNER English (EN) and Spanish (ES) as well as the Multi-Booked Catalan (CA) sentence-level datasets (Agerri et al., 2013; Barnes, Badia, y Lambert, 2018)

3 Methodology

3.1 Corpora and Datasets

At document-level, bag-of-words models are often expressive enough to give good results without relying on word order (Meng et al., 2012; Iyyer et al., 2015). But because we are interested in word-order effects in cross-lingual sentiment analysis, we require datasets that are annotated at a fine-grained level, *i. e.* sentence- or aspect-level.

For this reason, we use the English and Spanish OpeNER corpora of hotel reviews (Agerri et al., 2013) as well as the Catalan MultiBooked Dataset (Barnes, Badia, y Lambert, 2018). Each sentence is annotated for four classes of sentiment (strong positive, positive, negative, and strong negative). We use the English subset for training our classifiers and the Spanish and Catalan for testing the effects of word order on the target languages. Although these datasets are relatively small, they are all annotated similarly and are in-domain, which avoids problems with mapping labels or domain shifts.

3.2 Bilingual Word Embeddings

VecMap (Artetxe, Labaka, y Agirre, 2016; Artetxe, Labaka, y Agirre, 2017) creates bilingual embeddings by learning an orthogonal projection between two precomputed monolingual vector spaces and requires only a small bilingual dictionary. We use the publicly available GoogleNews vectors for the English (available at <https://code.google.com/archive/p/word2vec/>), and for Spanish and Catalan we create skip-gram embeddings with 300 dimensions trained on Wikipedia data. The bilingual dictionaries

ORIGINAL	Único punto negativo el ruido que las ventanas de madera tan típicas de la zona <i>no consiguen</i> aislar
REORDERED	Único negativo punto el ruido que las ventanas de tan típicas madera de la <i>no zona consiguen</i> aislar
NOUN-ADJ.	Único negativo punto el ruido que las ventanas de madera tan típicas de la zona <i>no consiguen</i> aislar
RANDOM	aislar madera <i>consiguen</i> típicas de el de zona las ventanas punto negativo Único la <i>no ruido</i> tan que
ONLY-LEXICON	UNK negativo UNK UNK ruido UNK UNK UNK UNK UNK UNK UNK UNK UNK UNK aislar
NO-LEXICON	Único punto UNK el UNK que las ventanas de madera tan típicas de la zona <i>no consiguen</i> UNK
Translation	The only negative point the noise that the typical wooden windows in the area <i>don't manage</i> to block

Table 2: An example of a negative Spanish sentence (ORIGINAL) with the five reordering transformations applied, as well as its English translation. The **bold tokens** are words found in the sentiment lexicon, and the *italic words* are words that convey sentiment in this instance, but are not in the lexicon

are translated sentiment lexicons with 5700 pairs for English – Spanish (5271 for English – Catalan).

3.3 Experimental Setup

In order to test whether a sentiment classifier trained on bilingual embeddings is sensitive to word order, we test classifiers on six versions of the target-language sentiment data, which we describe in the following section. An example of these six versions is shown in Table 2.

Original: We test the model on the original data with no changes in word order.

Reordered: A competing hypothesis is that a full pre-reordering of the target-side sequences will be more familiar to the sentiment classifier trained on English and therefore lead to better results. We implement POS-tag based rewrite rules (Crego y Mariño, 2006a; Crego y Mariño, 2006b), which are then applied to the target-language test data before testing.

Noun-Adj.: Given that adjectives are important for sentiment analysis, we hypothesize that adjusting the order of nouns and adjectives should be beneficial if the classifier is learning source-language word order. Therefore, we implement a simple reordering which places Spanish and Catalan adjectives before, rather than after, the noun they modify.

Random: We randomly permute the order of the target-language sentences. If the sentiment classification models take the target language word order into consideration, this should lead to poor results.

Only-Lexicon and No-Lexicon: Finally, we provide two baselines for clarification. The ONLY-LEXICON experiment removes all words which do not appear in the Hu & Liu sentiment lexicon (Hu y Liu, 2004). If our systems

take word order into account, they should be affected negatively by this, as the resulting sentence does not resemble the normal word order. If, however, the models are relying on keywords, this will have little effect.

For the NO-LEXICON experiment, we remove all of the words in a phrase which appear in the sentiment lexicon. If the models are attending to sentiment keywords, this approach should lead to the worst performance.

Baselines: We perform additional experiments with monolingual and Machine Translation (MT)-based cross-lingual approaches. For the former, we use the Google API (available at <https://translate.google.com/>) and translate the target-language data to English.

For both baseline setups, we only test the RANDOM reordering, ONLY-LEXICON, and NO-LEXICON approaches. Additionally, the monolingual setup is not comparable to the MT and cross-lingual versions, as we use must use the target-language data for training, development, and testing (70%/10%/20%).

3.4 Models

To test our hypotheses, we compare three different classifiers: a Support Vector Machine (SVM) with Bag-of-Embeddings feature representations, a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) (dos Santos y Gatti, 2014; Severyn y Moschitti, 2015), and a Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory Network (BiLSTM) (Luong, Pham, y Manning, 2015). Each of these classifiers theoretically has an increasing reliance on word order. Although the SVM does not take into account word order at all, it is a strong baseline for sentiment analysis (Kiritchenko et al., 2014). The CNN considers only local word order, while the BiLSTM relies on both local and long-distance dependencies.

			4-class			Binary		
			BiLSTM	CNN	SVM	BiLSTM	CNN	SVM
BWE	EN-ES	ORIGINAL	33.3 (1.8)	35.4 (1.1)	34.9	64.9 (0.9)	60.0 (1.4)	66.6
		REORDERED	34.0 (1.6)	35.6 (1.4)	34.9	65.1 (1.3)	60.1 (1.3)	66.6
		N-ADJ	34.0 (1.8)	35.8 (1.2)	34.9	65.0 (1.2)	60.2 (1.4)	66.6
		RANDOM	33.2 (1.3)	35.3 (1.1)	34.9	63.9 (2.3)	58.8 (0.9)	66.6
		ONLY-LEXICON	28.2 (3.8)	26.9 (2.5)	30.7	57.6 (5.5)	34.2 (5.5)	53.0
		NO-LEXICON	31.9 (1.6)	33.2 (1.4)	33.3	61.1	57.1 (2.8)	63.4
	EN-CA	ORIGINAL	37.0 (1.4)	37.4 (1.5)	33.2	64.0 (1.1)	61.9 (6.8)	68.2
		REORDERED	37.8 (1.2)	37.9 (1.5)	33.2	65.6 (1.5)	62.6 (5.8)	68.2
		N-ADJ	37.7 (1.5)	38.1 (1.6)	33.2	65.5 (1.5)	62.8 (6.3)	68.2
		RANDOM	35.7 (1.0)	35.6 (1.5)	33.2	63.3 (0.8)	60.8 (5.5)	68.2
		ONLY-LEXICON	28.2 (1.8)	25.7 (3.2)	23.8	49.9 (4.3)	40.5 (6.7)	39.1
		NO-LEXICON	35.9 (1.7)	34.3 (1.8)	31.2	61.7 (1.1)	58.1 (5.3)	63.1
MT	EN-ES	ORIGINAL	46.5 (1.2)	41.2 (3.7)	44.6	71.8 (1.1)	64.3 (1.6)	70.7
		RANDOM	46.0 (1.8)	38.9 (3.9)	44.6	71.0 (1.4)	62.2 (1.5)	70.7
		ONLY-LEXICON	32.9 (2.5)	28.2 (4.4)	36.2	63.0 (3.8)	44.6 (3.5)	51.9
		NO-LEXICON	41.8 (0.7)	37.0 (3.0)	41.6	63.0 (1.1)	54.8 (2.6)	66.2
	EN-CA	ORIGINAL	51.5 (3.1)	44.1 (4.3)	46.8	79.9 (1.5)	72.8 (2.0)	74.2
		RANDOM	49.7 (1.4)	37.7 (3.6)	46.8	76.5 (2.2)	66.4 (1.4)	74.2
		ONLY-LEXICON	32.0 (2.7)	32.5 (4.0)	36.1	58.4 (7.8)	57.5 (2.9)	43.7
		NO-LEXICON	48.4 (2.0)	40.9 (2.9)	46.2	75.6 (1.6)	65.6 (2.8)	70.4
Monolingual	ES	ORIGINAL	43.2 (3.3)	36.2 (2.2)	32.1	68.5 (3.4)	64.8 (2.3)	52.7
		RANDOM	42.5 (2.6)	32.7 (1.8)	32.1	67.5 (4.2)	63.1 (2.7)	52.7
		ONLY-LEXICON	27.0 (0.5)	21.2 (4.5)	27.0	45.2 (0.0)	47.9 (3.9)	45.2
		NO-LEXICON	37.9 (1.9)	34.3 (2.0)	30.3	64.7 (2.7)	65.0 (0.9)	51.8
	CA	ORIGINAL	48.6 (1.6)	46.2 (0.8)	46.8	77.1 (1.3)	76.4 (1.2)	75.0
		RANDOM	47.4 (1.9)	43.9 (3.0)	46.8	73.6 (1.3)	71.9 (1.9)	75.0
		ONLY-LEXICON	20.3 (2.8)	27.4 (3.2)	16.7	40.1 (1.5)	56.4 (5.2)	39.6
		NO-LEXICON	47.5 (0.6)	45.8 (1.6)	45.8	75.0 (1.6)	74.5 (1.1)	74.8

Table 3: Macro F_1 results for all corpora and techniques. We denote the best performing bilingual embedding method per column with a **blue box**, the best MT method with a **pink box**, and the best monolingual method with a **green box**. We do not denote bag-of-words SVM results, as they are invariant to word order. Monolingual results are not comparable to BWE or MT

For the neural models, we train five classifiers on five random seeds and report the mean and standard deviation of the macro F_1 score, while we only report the macro F_1 score of a single run for the SVM.

BiLstm We implement a single-layered BiLSTM classifier with a 100-dimensional hidden layer, which passes the concatenation of the two final hidden states to a softmax layer for classification. The cross-lingual model is initialized with the pretrained bilingual embeddings (monolingual embeddings for the monolingual and translation models), use dropout of 0.3 for regularization, and are trained for 30 epochs with a batch size of 32 using Adam as an optimizer. We choose the parameter for training epochs on the source-language development set and test this model on the target-language data.

Cnn The CNN has a single convolutional layer with filters $\in \{3, 4, 5\}$ followed by a max-pooling layer of length 2. The pooled representation of the sentence is passed to a feed-forward layer and finally a softmax layer of size $\mathbb{R}^{|L|}$ where L is the set of labels. The optimization is the same as the BiLSTM, with dropout applied after the feed-forward layer.

SVM Finally, we implement a baseline bag-of-embeddings SVM. For each sentence in the dataset, we create an averaged embedding representation $A = \frac{1}{n}(\sum_{i=1}^n e(t_i))$ where $e(t_i)$ is the embedding representation of the i th token in the sentence $S \in \{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n\}$ of length n . For the cross-lingual approaches we use the bilingual embeddings (monolingual embeddings for the monolingual and translation approaches) and tune the c parameter on the source-language development set.

model	text	prediction
ORIGINAL	relación calidad precio muy buena	negative
REORDERED	relación muy buena calidad precio	positive
<i>translation</i>	very good quality price relationship	positive
ORIGINAL	hotel perfecto	negative
REORDERED	perfecto hotel	positive
<i>translation</i>	perfect hotel	positive
ORIGINAL	el desayuno muy bueno .	negative
REORDERED	el muy bueno desayuno .	positive
<i>translation</i>	the breakfast (was) very good	positive
ORIGINAL	gestión nefasta .	positive
REORDERED	nefasta gestión .	negative
<i>translation</i>	terrible management	negative

Table 4: Examples where reordering improves results over original on binary English-Spanish setup with the BiLSTM classifier

4 Results

Table 3 shows the results of all experiments. Firstly, reordering the test data improves the results on all of the eight experiments (we do not consider SVM experiments to calculate improvements as they are invariant to word order). Specifically, the REORDERED approach improves the BiLSTM results the most on all experiments, while the simpler NOUN-ADJ. flip is the best performing setup with CNNs. This indicates that local word reordering has more of an effect on CNNs, while the global reordering can be more helpful to BiLSTMs. While the improvements from reordering are often small (0.2 - 1.6 percentage points (ppt.)), they are stable.

RANDOM has a more substantial negative effect on monolingual models (an average decrease of 1.6 ppt. for BiLSTM and 3.0 ppt. for CNN) and MT-based models (1.6/4.3 ppt., respectively) than bilingual embedding models (0.8/1.1). This indicates that noise from the embedding projection renders it more difficult for models to use word order in the cross-lingual setup.

Additionally, RANDOM has a larger effect on the CNN (an average loss of 1.1 ppt.) than on the BiLSTM (0.8). This is likely because the CNN relies on specific combinations of n-grams in order to correctly classify a sentence. If these are not present, the filters are not effective at classification.

Although they are not comparable (the test datasets have fewer examples), the monolingual models generally perform better than

the cross-lingual versions, except for the SVM classifiers. The machine translation approaches perform better than the cross-lingual embedding methods.

The classification models display different trends across the setups. On the monolingual and machine translations setups, the BiLSTM is the strongest model, followed by the CNN and SVM (SVM and CNN, respectively for machine translation). With bilingual embeddings, however, the SVM outperforms both the BiLSTM and CNN on the Spanish binary setup, while the CNN is strongest on the multiclass. This shows that BiLSTM displays a different behavior with bilingual embeddings.

The machine translation models perform well and surprisingly suffer less than monolingual models (an average decrease of 15.4 ppt. for MT BiLSTM and CNN models vs. 20.6 for monolingual) from using only features from the sentiment lexicon (ONLY-LEXICON). This suggests that MT models rely more on these keywords while ignoring word order effects to a higher degree.

Finally, the NO-LEXICON and ONLY-LEXICON baselines perform poorly, with ONLY-LEXICON often more than 20 ppt. below the performance of ORIGINAL. This is due largely to the low coverage of the sentiment lexicon used in this work, as many full sentences were completely unked (38% for Spanish, 43% for Catalan). This also explains the similar performances of ORIGINAL and NO-LEXICON.

5 Analysis

Reordering tends to help both the BiLSTM and CNN models with shorter examples (less than eight tokens long) where adjective order can easily be changed to resemble English word order, such as the examples shown in Table 4. In longer instances (more than ten tokens), however, the reordering either introduces too much noise or does not affect the final prediction. The current reordering models are therefore more adequate for sentiment tasks that deal with shorter texts, such as aspect- or sentence-level, rather than document-level sentiment analysis.

6 Conclusion and Future Work

In this work, we have shown that neural networks that rely on bilingual embeddings as features are sensitive to differences in source- and target-language word order and subsequently benefit from reordering the target language test data. The gains, however, are still relatively small, which suggests that currently bilingual embeddings introduce too much noise for a classifier to generalize well to the target language.

Given that language modeling pre-training is beneficial for state-of-the-art results in monolingual sentiment analysis, it is important to realize that cross-lingual models based on bilingual word embeddings do not currently benefit from word order learned in the source language. In the future, it may be useful to pretrain bilingual language models for cross-lingual sentiment analysis.

References

- Aggeri, R., M. Cuadros, S. Gaines, y G. Rigau. 2013. OpeNER: Open polarity enhanced named entity recognition. *Sociedad Española para el Procesamiento del Lenguaje Natural*, 51(Septiembre):215–218.
- Artetxe, M., G. Labaka, y E. Agirre. 2016. Learning principled bilingual mappings of word embeddings while preserving monolingual invariance. En *Proceedings of the 2016 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, páginas 2289–2294.
- Artetxe, M., G. Labaka, y E. Agirre. 2017. Learning bilingual word embeddings with (almost) no bilingual data. En *Proceedings of the 55th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, páginas 451–462.
- Balahur, A. y M. Turchi. 2014. Comparative experiments using supervised learning and machine translation for multilingual sentiment analysis. *Computer Speech & Language*, 28(1):56–75.
- Banea, C., R. Mihalcea, J. Wiebe, y S. Hassan. 2008. Multilingual subjectivity analysis using machine translation. En *Proceedings of the 2008 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing*, páginas 127–135.
- Barnes, J., T. Badia, y P. Lambert. 2018. MultiBooked: A Corpus of Basque and Catalan Hotel Reviews Annotated for Aspect-level Sentiment Classification. En N. C. C. chair) K. Choukri C. Cieri T. Declerck S. Goggi K. Hasida H. Isahara B. Maegaard J. Mariani H. Mazo A. Moreno J. Odijk S. Piperidis, y T. Tokunaga, editores, *Proceedings of the Eleventh International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC 2018)*, Miyazaki, Japan, May 7-12, 2018. European Language Resources Association (ELRA).
- Barnes, J., R. Klinger, y S. Schulte im Walde. 2018. Bilingual sentiment embeddings: Joint projection of sentiment across languages. En *Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, páginas 2483–2493. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Bisazza, A. y M. Federico. 2016. A Survey of Word Reordering in Statistical Machine Translation: Computational Models and Language Phenomena. *Computational Linguistics*, 42:163–205.
- Chen, X., B. Athiwaratkun, Y. Sun, K. Q. Weinberger, y C. Cardie. 2016. Adversarial deep averaging networks for cross-lingual sentiment classification. *CoRR*, abs/1606.01614.
- Collins, M., P. Koehn, y I. Kucerova. 2005. Clause restructuring for statistical machine translation. En *Proceedings of the 43rd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (ACL’05)*, páginas 531–540. Association for Computational Linguistics.

- Crego, J. M. y J. B. Mariño. 2006a. Improving statistical mt by coupling reordering and decoding. *Machine Translation*, 20(3):199–215.
- Crego, J. M. y J. B. Mariño. 2006b. Integration of pos tag-based source reordering into smt decoding by an extended search graph. En *Proceedings of the 7th Conference of the Association for Machine Translation in the Americas (AMTA)*, páginas 29–36. Cambridge.
- Devlin, J., M.-W. Chang, K. Lee, y K. Toutanova. 2018. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. *CoRR*, abs/1810.04805.
- dos Santos, C. N. y M. Gatti. 2014. Deep convolutional neural networks for sentiment analysis of short texts. En *Proceedings of COLING 2014, the 25th International Conference on Computational Linguistics: Technical Papers*, páginas 69–78, Dublin, Ireland, August.
- Gojun, A. y A. Fraser. 2012. Determining the placement of german verbs in english-to-german smt. En *Proceedings of the 13th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, páginas 726–735. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Hangya, V., F. Braune, A. Fraser, y H. Schütze. 2018. Two methods for domain adaptation of bilingual tasks: Delightfully simple and broadly applicable. En *Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, páginas 810–820. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Howard, J. y S. Ruder. 2018. Universal language model fine-tuning for text classification. En *Proceedings of the 56th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, páginas 328–339. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Hu, M. y B. Liu. 2004. Mining opinion features in customer reviews. En *Proceedings of the 10th ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining (KDD 2004)*, páginas 168–177.
- Iyyer, M., V. Manjunatha, J. Boyd-Graber, y H. Daume III. 2015. Deep unordered composition rivals syntactic methods for text classification. En *Proceedings of the 53rd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the 7th International Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, páginas 1681–1691, Beijing, China.
- Kiritchenko, S., X. Zhu, C. Cherry, y S. M. Mohammad. 2014. NRC-Canada-2014: Detecting aspects and sentiment in customer reviews. *Proceedings of the 8th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation*, páginas 437–442.
- Klinger, R. y P. Cimiano. 2015. Instance selection improves cross-lingual model training for fine-grained sentiment analysis. En *Proceedings of the Nineteenth Conference on Computational Natural Language Learning*, páginas 153–163, Beijing, China, July. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Lample, G., A. Conneau, M. Ranzato, L. Denoyer, y H. Jégou. 2018. Word translation without parallel data. En *International Conference on Learning Representations*.
- Luong, T., H. Pham, y C. D. Manning. 2015. Bilingual word representations with monolingual quality in mind. En *Proceedings of the 1st Workshop on Vector Space Modeling for Natural Language Processing*, páginas 151–159. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Meng, X., F. Wei, X. Liu, M. Zhou, G. Xu, y H. Wang. 2012. Cross-lingual mixture model for sentiment classification. En *Proceedings of the 50th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, páginas 572–581, Jeju Island, Korea, July. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Mikolov, T., Q. V. Le, y I. Sutskever. 2013. Exploiting similarities among languages for machine translation. *CoRR*, abs/1309.4168. <http://arxiv.org/abs/1309.4168>.
- Nakagawa, T. 2015. Efficient top-down btg parsing for machine translation preordering. En *Proceedings of the 53rd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics and the 7th International*

- Joint Conference on Natural Language Processing (Volume 1: Long Papers)*, páginas 208–218. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Neubig, G., T. Watanabe, y S. Mori. 2012. Inducing a discriminative parser to optimize machine translation reordering. En *Proceedings of the 2012 Joint Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing and Computational Natural Language Learning*, páginas 843–853. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Peters, M., M. Neumann, M. Iyyer, M. Gardner, C. Clark, K. Lee, y L. Zettlemoyer. 2018. Deep contextualized word representations. En *Proceedings of the 2018 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies, Volume 1 (Long Papers)*, páginas 2227–2237. Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Severyn, A. y A. Moschitti. 2015. Unitn: Training deep convolutional neural network for twitter sentiment classification. En *Proceedings of the 9th International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation (SemEval 2015)*, páginas 464–469.