Supersense Embeddings:
A Unified Model for Supersense Interpretation, Prediction, and Utilization

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Abstract

Coarse-grained semantic categories such as supersenses have proven useful for a range of downstream tasks such as question answering or machine translation. To date, no effort has been put into integrating the supersenses into distributional word representations. We present a novel joint embedding model of words and supersenses, providing insights into the relationship between words and supersenses in the same vector space. Using these embeddings in a deep neural network model, we demonstrate that the supersense enrichment leads to a significant improvement in a range of downstream classification tasks.

1 Introduction

The effort of understanding the meaning of words is central to the NLP community. The word sense disambiguation (WSD) task has therefore received a substantial amount of attention (seeNavigli (2009) or Pal and Saha (2015) for an overview). Words in training and evaluation data are usually annotated with senses taken from a particular lexical semantic resource, most commonly WordNet (Miller, 1995). However, WordNet has been criticized to provide too fine-grained distinctions for end level applications, e.g. in machine translation or information retrieval (Izquierdo et al., 2009). Although some researchers report an improvement in sentiment prediction using WSD (Rentoumi et al., 2009; Akkaya et al., 2011; Sumanth and Inkpen, 2015), the publication bias toward positive results (Plank et al., 2014) impedes the comparison to experiments with the opposite conclusion, and the contribution of WSD to downstream document classification tasks remains “mostly speculative” (Ciaramita and Altun, 2006), which can be attributed to the too subtle sense distinctions (Navigli, 2009). This is why supersenses, the coarse-grained word labels based on WordNet’s (Fellbaum, 1998) lexicographer files, have recently gained attention for text classification tasks. Supersenses contain 26 labels for nouns, such as ANIMAL, PERSON or FEELING and 15 labels for verbs, such as COMMUNICATION, MOTION or COGNITION. Usage of supersense labels has been shown to improve dependency parsing (Agirre et al., 2011), named entity recognition (Marrero et al., 2009; Rüd et al., 2011), non-factoid question answering (Surdeanu et al., 2011), question generation (Heilman, 2011), semantic role labeling (Laparra and Rigau, 2013), personality profiling (Flekova and Gurevych, 2015), semantic similarity (Severyn et al., 2013) and metaphor detection (Tsvetkov et al., 2013).

An alternative path to semantic interpretation follows the distributional hypothesis (Harris, 1954). Recently, word vector representations learned with neural-network based language models have contributed to state-of-the-art results on various linguistic tasks (Bordes et al., 2011; Mikolov et al., 2013b; Pennington et al., 2014; Levy et al., 2015).

In this work, we present a novel approach for incorporating the supersense information into the word embedding space and propose a new methodology for utilizing these to label the text with supersenses and to exploit these joint word and supersense embeddings in a range of applied text classification tasks. Our contributions in this work include the following:

- We are the first to provide a joint word- and supersense-embedding model, which we make publicly available1 for the research community. This provides an insight into the word and supersense positions in the vector space

1https://github.com/UKPLab/acl2016-supersense-embeddings
through similarity queries and visualizations, and can be readily used in any word embedding application.

- Using this information, we propose a supersense tagging model which achieves competitive performance on recently published social media datasets.
- We demonstrate how these predicted supersenses and their embeddings can be used in a range of text classification tasks. Using a deep neural network architecture, we achieve an improvement of 2-6% in accuracy for the tasks of sentiment polarity classification, subjectivity classification and metaphor prediction.

2 Related Work

2.1 Semantically Enhanced Word Embeddings

An idea of combining the distributional information with the expert knowledge is attractive and has been newly pursued in multiple directions. One of them is creating the word sense or synset embeddings (Iacobacci et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2014; Rothe and Schütze, 2015; Bovi et al., 2015). While the authors demonstrate the utility of these embeddings in tasks such as WSD, knowledge base unification or semantic similarity, the contribution of such vectors to downstream document classification problems can be challenging, given the fine granularity of the WordNet senses (cf. the discussion inNavigli (2009)). As discussed above, supersenses have been shown to be better suited for carrying the relevant amount of semantic information. An alternative approach focuses on altering the objective of the learning mechanism to capture relational and similarity information from knowledge bases (Bordes et al., 2011; Bordes et al., 2012; Yu and Dredze, 2014; Bian et al., 2014; Faruqui and Dyer, 2014; Goikoetxea et al., 2015). While, in principle, supersenses could be seen as a relation between a word and its hypernym, to our knowledge they have not been explicitly employed in these works. Moreover, an important advantage of our explicit supersense embeddings compared to the retrained vectors is their direct interpretability.

2.2 Supersense Tagging

Supersenses, also known as lexicographer files or semantic fields, were originally used to organize lexical-semantic resources (Fellbaum, 1990). The supersense tagging task was introduced by Ciaramita and Johnson (2003) for nouns and later expanded for verbs (Ciaramita and Altun, 2006). Their state-of-the-art system is trained and evaluated on the SemCor data (Miller et al., 1994) with an F-score of 77.18%, using a hidden Markov model. Since then, the system, resp. its reimplementation by Heilman, was widely used in applied tasks (Agirre et al., 2011; Surdeanu et al., 2011; Laparra and Rigau, 2013). Supersense taggers have then been built also for Italian (Picca et al., 2008), Chinese (Qiu et al., 2011) and Arabic (Schneider et al., 2013). Tsvetkov et al. (2015) proposes the usage of SemCor supersense frequencies as a way to evaluate word embedding models, showing that a good alignment of embedding dimensions to supersenses correlates with performance of the vectors in word similarity and text classification tasks. Recently, Johannsen et al. (2014) introduced a task of multiword supersense tagging on Twitter. On their newly constructed dataset, they show poor domain adaptation performance of previous systems, achieving a maximum performance with a search-based structured prediction model (Daumé III et al., 2009) trained on both Twitter and SemCor data. In parallel, Schneider and Smith (2015) expanded a multiword expression (MWE) annotated corpus of online reviews with supersense information, following an alternative annotation scheme focused on MWE. Similarly to Johannsen et al. (2014), they find that SemCor may not be a sufficient resource for supersense tagging adaptation to different domains. Therefore, in our work, we explore the potential of using an automatically annotated Babelfied Wikipedia corpus (Scozzafava et al., 2015) for this task.

3 Building Supersense Embeddings

To learn our embeddings, we adapt the freely available sample of 500k articles of Babelfied English Wikipedia (Scozzafava et al., 2015). To our knowledge, this is one of the largest published and evaluated sense-annotated corpora, containing over 500 million words, of which over 100 million are annotated with Babel synsets, with an estimated synset annotation accuracy of 77.8%. Few other automatically sense-annotated Wikipedia corpora are available (Jordi Atserias and Attardi, 2008; Reese et
Table 1: Example of plain (1), generalized (2) and disambiguated (3) Wikipedia

1. About 10.9% of families were below the poverty line, including 13.6% of those under age 18.

2. About 10.9% of N.GROUP were below the N.POSSESSION V.CHANGE 13.6% of those under N.ATTRIBUTE.

3. About 10.9% of FAMILIES.N.GROUP were below the POVERTY_LINE.N.POSSESSION INCLUDING.V.CHANGE 13.6% of those under AGE.N.ATTRIBUTE.

Table 2: Top 10 most similar word embeddings for verb supersense vectors

1. Vectorial representations of the original words are altered (compared to training on text only), taking into account the similarity to supersenses in the vector space.

2. Standalone supersenses are positioned in the vector space, enabling insightful similarity queries between words and supersenses, esp. for unannotated words.

3. Disambiguated word-supersense vectors of annotated words can be employed similarly to sense embeddings (Iacobacci et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2014) to improve downstream tasks and serve as input for supersense disambiguation or contextual similarity systems.

In the following, the designation WORDS denotes the experiments with the word embeddings learned on plain Wikipedia text (as in row 1 of Table 1) while the designation SUPER denotes the experiments with the word embeddings learned jointly on the supersense-enriched Wikipedia (i.e., rows 1, 2 and 3 in Table 1 together).

4 Qualitative Analysis

4.1 Verb Supersenses

Table 2 shows the most similar word vectors to each of the verb supersense vectors using cosine similarity. Note that while no explicit part-of-speech information is specified, the most similar words hold both the semantic and syntactic information - most of the assigned words are verbs.

| VERBS | BODY | weared, worn, worn, wound | injured, hurt, hurt, hurt | bitten, hit, hit, hit |
|-------|------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------|
|       | CHANGE | changed, started, added, changed | drastically, begun, altered, shifted, transformed | |
|       | COGNITION | known, thought, consider, regarded, remembered | attributed, considers, accepted, believed, read | |
|       | COMMUNICATION | stated, said, argued, jokingly, called | noted, suggested, described, claimed, referred | |
|       | COMPETITION | won, played, lost, beat, scored | defeated, win, competed, winning, playing | |
|       | CONSUMPTION | fed, fed, employed, basted, hasted | feeds, utilized, applied, provided, consumed | |
|       | CONTACT | thrown, set, carried, opened | cool | |
|       | CREATION | produced, written, created, designed, developed | directed, built, published, penned, constructed | |
|       | EMOTION | want, felt, loved, wanted, delighted | disappointed, feel, like, saddened, thrilled | |
|       | MOTION | brought, led, headed, returned, followed | left, turned, sent, travelled, entered | |
|       | PERCEPTION | seek, shown, revealed, appeared, appears | shows, noticed, see, showing, presented | |
|       | POSSESSION | received, obtained, awarded, acquired, provided | donated, gained, bought, found, sold | |
|       | SOCIAL | appointed, established, elected, pinned, assisted | led, succeeded, encouraged, initiated, organized | |
|       | STATIC | included, held, includes, featured, served | represented, referred, holds, continued, related | |
|       | WEATHER | glow, emitted, ignited, flared, emitting | smoke, fumes, sunlight, lit, darkened | |
Furthermore, using a large corpus such as Wikipedia conveniently reduces the current need of lemmatization for supersense tagging, as the words are sufficiently represented in all their forms. The most frequent error originates from assigning the adverbs to their related verb categories, e.g. *jokingly* to COMMUNICATION and *drastically* to CHANGE. Such information, however, can be beneficial for context analysis in supersense tagging.

Figure 1 displays the verb supersenses using the t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (Van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008), a technique designed to visualize structures in high-dimensional data. While many of the distances are probable to be dataset-agnostic, such as the proximity of BODY, CONSUMPTION and EMOTION, other appear emphasized by the nature of Wikipedia corpus, e.g. the proximity of supersenses COMMUNICATION and CREATION or SOCIAL and MOTION, as can be explained by table 2 (see e.g. *led* and *followed*).

### 4.2 Noun Supersenses

Table 3 displays the most similar word embeddings for noun supersenses. In accordance with previous work on supersense tagging (Ciaramita and Altun, 2006; Schneider et al., 2012; Johannsen et al., 2014), the assignments of more specific supersenses such as FOOD, PLANT, TIME or PERSON are in general more plausible than those for abstract concepts such as ACT, ARTIFACT or COGNITION. The same is visible in Figure 2, where these supersense embeddings are more central, with closer neighbors. In contrast to the observations by Schneider et al. (2012) and Johannsen et al. (2014), the COMMUNICATION supersense appears well defined, likely due to the character of Wikipedia.

| NOUNS     |               |
|-----------|---------------|
| ACT       | participation, activities, involvement, undertaken, ongoing, conduct, efforts, large-scale, success |
| ANIMAL    | peccaries, capybaras, frogs, echidnas, birds mammal, rabbits, hatching, cicadenidae, species |
| ARTIFACT  | wooden, two-floor, purpose-built, installed, wall fittings, turntable, racks, wrought-iron, ceramic, stone |
| ATTRIBUTE | height, strength, age, versatility, hardness, power, fluidity, mastery, brilliance, inherent |
| BODY      | abdomen, bone, femur, anterior, forearm, femoral, skin, neck, muscles, thigh |
| COGNITION | ideas, concepts, empirical, philosophy, knowledge, epistemology, analysis, atomistic, principles |
| COMMUNICATION | written, excerpts, text, music, excerpted, translation, lyrics, subtitle, transcription, words |
| EVENT     | sudden, death, occurred, event, catastrophic, unexpected, accident, victory, final, race |
| FEELING   | sadness, love, sorrow, frustration, disgust, anger, affection, feelings, grief, fear |
| FOOD      | cheese, butter, coffee, milk, yogurt, dessert, meat, bread, vegetables, sauce |
| GROUP     | members, school, philodendron, ypsilophydaceae, pinitaria, cryptanthus, group, division, schools |
| LOCATION  | northern, southern, northeastern, area, south, capital, town, west, region, city |
| MOTIVE    | motivation, reasons, rationale, justification, motive, justifications, motives, incentive, desire, why |
| OBJECT    | river, valley, lake, hills, floodplain, lakes, rivers, mountain, estuary, ocean |
| PERSON    | great-grandfather, son, nephew, son-in-law, father, half-brother, brother, who, mentor, fellow |
| PHENOMENON| wind, forces, self-focusing, radiation, ionizing, result, intensity, gravitational, dissipation, energy |
| PLANT     | fruit, fruits, magnifera, sativum, flowers caesalpinia, shrubs, trifoliate, vines, berries |
| POSSESSION| property, payment, money, payments, taxes, cash, fund, pay, $100 |
| PROCESS   | growth, decomposition, oxidative, inactivated, rapid, reaction, hydrolysis, inhibition, development |
| QUANTITY  | miles, square, meters, kilometer, cubic, ton, number, megabits, volume, kilowatthours |
| RELATION  | southeast, southwest, northeast, northwest, east, portion, link, correlation, south, west |
| SHAPE     | semicircles, right-angled, concave, parabola, ellipse, angle, circumcircle, semicircle, lines |
| STATE     | chronic, condition, debilitating, problems, health, worsening, illness, illnesses, exacerbation, disease |
| SUBSTANCE | magnesium, zinc, silica, manganese, sulfur, oxide, sulphate, phosphate, salts, phosphorus |
| TIME      | september, december, november, july, april, january, august, february, year, days |
| TOPS      | time, group, event, person, groups, individuals, events, animals, individual, plant |

| Table 3: Top 10 most similar word embeddings for noun supersense vectors |
4.3 Word Analogy and Word Similarity Tasks

We also assess the changes between the individual word embeddings learned on plain Wikipedia text (WORDS) and jointly with the supersense-enriched Wikipedia (SUPER). With this aim we perform two standard embedding evaluation tasks: word similarity and word analogy.

Mikolov et al. (2013b) introduce a word analogy dataset containing 19544 analogy questions that can be answered with word vector operations (Paris is to France as Athens are to...?). The questions are grouped into 13 categories. Table 4 presents our results. Word vectors trained in the SUPER setup achieve better results on groups related to entities, e.g. Family Relations and Citizen to State questions, where the PERSON and LOCATION supersenses can provide additional information to reduce noise. At the same time, performance on questions such as Opposites or Plurals drops, as this information is pushed to the background. Enriching our data with the recently proposed adjective supersenses (Tsvetkov et al., 2014) could be of interest for these categories.

| Group/Vectors:               | WORDS         | SUPER         |
|-------------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| Capitals - common             | 91.1 ± 0.99   | 94.7 ± 0.99   |
| Capitals - world              | 87.6 ± 0.69   | 89.5 ± 0.69   |
| City in state                 | 65.2 ± 1.03   | 65.7 ± 1.03   |
| Nationality to state          | 94.5 ± 0.58   | 95.2 ± 0.58   |
| Family relations              | 93.0 ± 1.28   | 94.4 ± 1.28   |
| Opposites                     | 56.7 ± 3.21   | 54.6 ± 3.21   |
| Plurals                       | 89.4 ± 1.08   | 86.4 ± 1.08   |
| Comparatives                  | 90.6 ± 0.85   | 90.4 ± 0.85   |
| Superlatives                  | 79.4 ± 1.83   | 79.6 ± 1.83   |
| Adjective to adverb           | 20.2 ± 1.53   | 22.2 ± 1.53   |
| Present to participle         | 64.2 ± 1.57   | 64.6 ± 1.57   |
| Present to past               | 60.0 ± 1.30   | 59.2 ± 1.30   |
| 3rd person verbs              | 84.3 ± 1.44   | 82.1 ± 1.44   |
| Total                         | 75.0 ± 0.28   | 76.0 ± 0.28   |

Table 4: Accuracy and standard error on analogy tasks. Tasks related to noun supersense distinctions show the tendency to improve, while syntax-related information is pushed to the background. In most cases, however, the difference is not significant.

Without explicitly exploiting the sense information, we compare the performance of our text-trained (WORDS) to our jointly trained (SUPER) word vectors on the following word similarity datasets: WordSim353-Similarity (353-S) and WordSim353-Relatedness (353-R) (Agirre et al., 2009), MEN dataset (Bruni et al., 2014), RG-65 dataset (Rubenstein and Goodenough, 1965) and MC-30 (Miller and Charles, 1991).

| Data:            | MEN | 353-S | 353-R | RG-65 | MC-30 |
|------------------|-----|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| WORDS            | 73.18 | 76.93 | 62.11 | 79.13 | 79.49 |
| SUPER            | 74.26 | 78.63 | 61.22 | 79.75 | 80.94 |

Table 5: Performance of our vectors (Spearman’s ρ) on five similarity datasets. Results indicate a trend of better performance of vectors trained jointly with supersenses.

The word embeddings for words trained jointly with supersenses achieve higher performance than those trained solely on the same text without supersenses on 4 out of 5 tasks (Table 5). In addition, the explicit supersense information could be further exploited, similarly to previous sense embedding works (Iacobacci et al., 2015; Rothe and Schütze, 2015; Chen et al., 2014). Furthermore, note that while we report the performance of our embeddings on the word similarity tasks for completeness, there has been a substantial discussion on seeking alternative ways to quantify embedding quality with the focus on their purpose in downstream applications (Li and Jurafsky, 2015; Faruqui et al., 2016). Therefore, in the remainder of this paper we explore the usefulness of supersense embeddings in text classification tasks.

5 Building a Supersense Tagger

The task of predicting supersenses has recently regained its popularity (Johannsen et al., 2014; Schneider and Smith, 2015), since supersenses provide disambiguating information, useful for numerous downstream NLP tasks, without the need of tedious fine-grained WSD. Exploiting our joint embeddings, we build a deep neural network model to predict supersenses on the Twitter supersense corpus created by Johannsen et al. (2014), based on the Twitter NER task (Ritter et al., 2011), using the same training data as the authors. The datasets follow the token-level annotation which combines the B-I-O flags (Ramshaw and Marcus, 1995) with the supersense class labels to represent the multiword expression segmentation and supersense labeling in a sentence.

5.1 Experimental Setup

We implement a window-based approach with a multi-channel multi-layer perceptron model using

4https://github.com/kutschkem/SmithHeilmann_fork/tree/master/MIRATagger/data
5https://github.com/coastalcph/supersense-data-twitter
the Theano framework (Bastien et al., 2012). With a sliding window of size 5 for the sequence learning setup we extract for each word the following seven feature vectors:

1. 300-dimensional word embedding,
2. 41 cosine similarities of the word to each standalone supersense embedding,
3. 41 cosine similarities of the word to each of its word SUPERSENSE embeddings,
4. fixed vector of frequencies of each supersense in Wikipedia, in order to simulate the MFS backoff strategy,
5. for the given word, the frequency of each word SUPERSENSE in our Wikipedia corpus,
6. part-of-speech information as a unit vector,
7. casing information as a 3-dimensional (upper/lower/mixed) unit vector

After a dropout regularization, the embedding sets are flattened, concatenated and fed into fully connected dense layers with a rectified linear unit (ReLU) activation function and a final softmax.

### 5.2 Supersense Prediction

We evaluate our system on the same Twitter dataset with provided training and development (Tw-R-dev) set and two test sets: Tw-R-eval, reported by Johannsen et al. as RITTER, and Tw-J-eval, reported by Johannsen et al. as IN-HOUSE. Our results are shown in table 6 and compared to results reported in previous work by Johannsen et al. (2014), with two additional baselines: The SemCor system of Ciaramita and Altun (2006)† and the most frequent sense. Our system achieves comparable performance to the best previously used supervised systems, without using any explicit gazetteers.

To get an intuition of how the individual feature vectors contribute to the prediction, we perform an ablation test by removing one feature group at a time. The biggest performance drop in the F-score (2.7–5.4) occurs when removing the part of

Intuition, since there are many additional aspects that may affect the performance. For example, we keep the network parameters fixed for the ablation, although the feature vectors are of different lengths. Furthermore, our model performs a concatenation of the feature vectors, hence only the ablation extended to all possible permutations would verify the feature order effect.

### 6 Using Supersense Embeddings in Document Classification Tasks

Word sense disambiguation is to some extent an artificial stand-alone task. Despite its popularity, its contribution to downstream document classification tasks remains rather limited, which might be attributed to the complexity of document preprocessing and the errors cumulated along the pipeline. In this section, we demonstrate an alternative, deep learning approach, in which we process the original text in parallel to the supersense information. The model can then flexibly learn the usefulness of provided input. We demonstrate that the model extended with supersense embeddings outperforms the same model using only word-based features on a range of classification tasks.

### 6.1 Experimental Setup

Both Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) (Hochreiter and Schmidhuber, 1997) are state-of-the-art semantic composition models for a variety of text classification tasks (Kim, 2014; Li et al., 2015; Johnson and Zhang, 2014). Recently, their combinations have been proposed, achieving an unprecedented performance (Sainath et al., 2015). We extend the CNN-LSTM approach from the publicly available...
Figure 3: Network architecture. Each of the four different embedding channels serves as input to its CNN layer, followed by an LSTM layer. Afterwards, the outputs are concatenated and fed into a dense layer.

Keras demo\(^7\), into which we incorporate the supersense information. Figure 3 displays our network architecture. First, we use three channels of word embeddings on the plain textual input. The first channel are the 300-dimensional word embeddings obtained from our enriched Wikipedia corpus. The second embedding channel consists of 41-dimensional vectors capturing the cosine similarity of the word to each supersense embedding. The third channel contains the vector of relative frequencies of the word occurring in the enriched Wikipedia together with its supersense, i.e. providing the background supersense distribution for the word. Each of the document embeddings is then convoluted with the filter size of 3, followed by a pooling layer of length 2 and fed into a long-short-term-memory (LSTM) layer. In parallel, we feed as input a processed document text, where the words are replaced by their predicted supersenses. Given that we have the Wikipedia-based supersense embeddings in the same vector space as the word embeddings, we can now proceed to creating the 300-dimensional embedding channel also for the supersense text. As in the plain text channels, we feed also these embeddings into the convolutional and LSTM layers in a similar fashion. Afterwards, we concatenate all LSTM outputs and feed them into a standard fully connected neural network layer, followed by the sigmoid for the binary output. The following subsections discuss our results on a range of classification tasks: subjectivity prediction, sentiment polarity classification and metaphor detection.

6.2 Sentiment Polarity Classification

Sentiment classification has been a widely explored task which received a lot of attention. The Movie Review dataset, published by Pang and Lee (2005)\(^8\), has become a standard machine learning benchmark task for binary sentence classification. Socher et al. (2011) address this task with recursive autoencoders and Wikipedia word embeddings, later improving their score using recursive neural network with parse trees (Socher et al., 2012). Competitive results were achieved also by a sentiment-analysis-specific parser (Dong et al., 2015), with a fast dropout logistic regression (Wang and Manning, 2013), and with convolutional neural networks (Kim, 2014). Table 7 compares these approaches to our results for a 10-fold crossvalidation with 10% of the data withheld for parameter tuning. The line WORDS displays the performance using only the leftmost part of our architecture, i.e. only the text input with our word embeddings. The line SUPER shows the result of using the full supersense architecture. As it can be seen from the table, the supersense features improve the accuracy by about 2%. Both systems are significantly different \((p<0.01)\), using the McNemar’s test.

| System          | Accuracy |
|-----------------|----------|
| Socher et al. (2011) | 77.7     |
| Socher et al. (2012) | 79.0     |
| Wang and Manning (2013) | 79.1     |
| Dong et al. (2015) | 79.5     |
| Kim (2014)       | 81.5     |
| WORDS            | 81.7 ± 0.37 |
| SUPER            | 81.7 ± 0.37 |

Table 7: 10-fold cross-validation accuracy and standard error of our system and as reported in previous work for the sentiment classification task on Pang and Lee (2005) movie review data

A detailed analysis of the supersense-tagged data and the classification output revealed that supersenses help to generalize over rare terms. Noun

\(^7\)https://github.com/fchollet/keras/blob/master/examples/imdb_cnn_lstm.py

\(^8\)http://www.cs.uic.edu/liub/FBS/sentiment-analysis.html
Table 8: Example of documents classified incorrectly with word embeddings and correctly with word and supersense embeddings on Pang and Lee (2005) movie review data.

Table 9: 10-fold cross-validation accuracy and standard error of our system and as reported in previous work for binary classification on the subjectivity dataset of Pang and Lee (2004).

| System               | Accuracy  |
|----------------------|-----------|
| SVM (Pang and Lee, 2004) | 90.0      |
| NB (Pang and Lee, 2004)  | 92.0      |
| CNN (Kim, 2014)       | 93.4      |
| F-Dropout (Wang and Manning, 2013) | 93.6 |
| MV-CNN (Zhang et al., 2016) | 93.9 |
| WORDS                | 92.1      |
| SUPER                | 93.9 ±0.26|

6.3 Subjectivity Classification

Pang and Lee (2004) demonstrate that the subjectivity detection can be a useful input for a sentiment classifier. They compose a publicly available dataset\(^7\) of 5000 subjective and 5000 objective sentences, classifying them with a reported accuracy of 90-92\% and further show that predicting this information improves the end-level sentiment classification on a movie review dataset. Kim (2014) and Wang and Manning (2013) further improve the performance through different machine learning methods. Supersenses are a natural candidate for subjectivity prediction, as we hypothesize that the nouns and verbs in the subjective and objective sentences often come from different semantic classes (e.g. VERB.FEELING vs. VERB.COGNITION). We employ the same architecture as in previous task, automatically annotating the words in the documents with their supersenses. Our results are reported in Table 9. The supersenses (SUPER) provide an additional information, improving the model performance by up to 2\% over word embeddings (WORDS). The difference between both systems is significant. Based on a manual error analysis, the supersense information contributes here in a similar manner as in the previous case. Subjective sentences contain more verbs of supersense PERCEPTION, while objective ones more frequently feature the supersenses COMMUNICATION and ATTRIBUTE, while in objective ones the PERSON and POSSESSION are more frequent.

\(^7\)https://www.cs.cornell.edu/people/pabo/movie-review-data/
6.4 Metaphor Identification

Supersenses have recently been shown to provide improvements in metaphor prediction tasks (Gershman et al., 2014), as they hold the information of coarse semantic concepts. Turney et al. (2011) explore the task of discriminating literal and metaphorical adjective-noun expressions. They report an accuracy of 79% on a small dataset rated by five annotators. Tsvetkov et al. (2013) pursue this work further by constructing and publishing a dataset of 985 literal and 985 metaphorical adjective-noun pairs and classify them. Gershman et al. (2014) further expand on this work using 64-dimensional vector-space word representations constructed by Faruqui and Dyer (2014) for classification. They report a state-of-the-art F-score of 85% with random decision forests, including also abstractness and imageability features (Wilson, 1988) and supersenses from WordNet, averaged across senses.

| System                  | F1-score on test set |
|-------------------------|----------------------|
| (Gershman et al., 2014) | 85                   |
| WORDS                   | 81.91±2.81           |
| SUPER                   | 87.23±2.36           |

Table 10: F1-score and a standard error on a provided test set for the adjective-noun metaphor prediction task Gershman et al. (2014). WORDS: word embeddings only, SUPER: multi-channel word embeddings with the supersense similarity and frequency vectors added.

Since this setup is simpler than the sentence classification tasks, we use only a subset of our architecture, specifically the left half of Figure 3, i.e. our word embeddings, similarity vectors and supersense frequency vectors. Since there are only two words in each document, we leave out the LSTM layer. We merge the similarity and frequency layers by multiplication and concatenate the result to the word embedding convolution, feeding the output of the concatenation directly to the dense layer. Table 10 shows our results on a provided test set. Based on McNemar’s test, there is a significant difference ($p < 0.01$) between our system based on words only and the one with supersenses.

7 Discussion

Unlike previous research on supersenses, our work is not based on a manually produced gold standard, but on an automatically annotated large corpus. While Scozzafava et al. (2015) report a high accuracy estimate of 77.8% on sense level, the performance and possible bias on tagged supersenses are yet to be evaluated. We are also aware that some of the previously proposed approaches for building word sense embeddings (Rothe and Schütze, 2015; Chen et al., 2014; Iacobacci et al., 2015) could be eventually extended to supersenses. We strongly encourage the authors to do so and perform a contrastive evaluation comparing these methods. Additionally, a different level of granularity of the concepts, such as WordNet Domains (Magnini and Cavaglia, 2000) could be explored.

8 Conclusions and Future Work

We have presented a novel joint embedding set of words and supersenses, which provides a new insight into the word and supersense positions in the vector space. We demonstrated the utility of these embeddings for predicting supersenses and manifested that the supersense enrichment can lead to a significant improvement in a range of downstream classification tasks, using our embeddings in a neural network model. The outcomes of this work are available to the research community.$^{11}$ In follow-up work, we aim to apply our embedding method on smaller, yet gold-standard corpora such as SemCor (Miller et al., 1994) and STREUSLE (Schneider and Smith, 2015) to examine the impact of the corpus choice in detail and extend the training data beyond WordNet vocabulary. Moreover, the coarse semantic categorization contained in supersenses was shown to be preserved in translation (Schneider et al., 2013), making them a perfect candidate for a multilingual adaptation of the vector space, e.g. extending Faruqui and Dyer (2014).

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$^{11}$https://github.com/UKPLab/acl2016-supersense-embeddings
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