Abstract

Word sense induction aims to discover different senses of a word from a corpus by using unsupervised learning approaches. Once a sense inventory is obtained for an ambiguous word, word sense discrimination approaches choose the best-fitting single sense for a given context from the induced sense inventory. However, there may not be a clear distinction between one sense and another, although for a context, more than one induced sense can be suitable. Graded word sense method allows for labeling a word in more than one sense. In contrast to the most common approach which is to apply clustering or graph partitioning on a representation of first or second order co-occurrences of a word, we propose a system that creates a substitute vector for each target word from the most likely substitutes suggested by a statistical language model. Word samples are then taken according to probabilities of these substitutes and the results of the co-occurrence model are clustered. This approach outperforms the other systems on graded word sense induction task in SemEval-2013.

1 Introduction

There exists several drawbacks of representing the word senses with a fixed-list of definitions of a manually constructed lexical database. There is no guarantee that they reflect the exact meaning of a target word in a given context since they usually contain definitions that are too general (Véronis, 2004). More so, lexical databases often include many rare senses while missing corpus/domain-specific senses (Pantel and Lin, 2004). The goal of Word Sense Induction (WSI) is to solve these problems by automatically discovering the meanings of a target word from a text, not pre-defined sense inventories. Word Sense Discrimination (WSD) approaches determine best-fitting sense among the meanings that are discovered for an ambiguous word. However, (Erk et al., 2009) suggested that annotators often gave high ratings to more than one WordNet sense for the same occurrence. They introduced a novel annotation paradigm allowing that words have more than one sense with a degree of applicability.

Unlike previous SemEval tasks in which systems labeled a target word’s meaning with only one sense, word sense induction task in SemEval-2013 relaxes this by allowing a target word to have more than one sense if applicable.

Word sense induction approaches can be categorized into graph based models, bayesian, and vector-space ones. In graph-based approaches, every context word is represented as a vertex and if two context words co-occur in one or more instances of a target word, then two vertices are connected with an edge. When the graph is obtained, one of the graph clustering algorithm is employed. As a result, different partitions indicate the different senses of a target word (Véronis, 2004). Agirre et al. (2006) explored the use of two graph algorithms for unsupervised induction and tagging of nominal word senses based on corpora. Recently, Korkontzelos and Manandhar (2010) proposed a graph-based model which achieved good results on word sense induction and discrimination task in SemEval-2010.
Brody and Lapata (2009) proposed a Bayesian approach modeling the contexts of the ambiguous word as samples from a multinomial distribution over senses which are in turn characterized as distributions over words.

Vector-space models, on the other hand, typically create context vector by using first or second order co-occurrences. Once context vector has been constructed, different clustering algorithms may be applied. However, representing the context with first or second order co-occurrences can be difficult since there are plenty of parameters to be considered such as the order of occurrence, context window size, statistical significance of words in the context window and so on. Instead of dealing with these, we suggest representing the context with the most likely substitutes determined by a statistical language model. Statistical language models based on large corpora has been examined in (Yuret, 2007; Hawker, 2007; Yuret and Yatbaz, 2010) for unsupervised word sense disambiguation and lexical substitution. Moreover, the best results in unsupervised part-of-speech induction achieved by using substitute vectors (Yatbaz et al., 2012).

In this paper, we propose a system that represents the context of each target word by using high probability substitutes according to a statistical language model. These substitute words and their probabilities are used to create word pairs (instance id - substitute word) to feed our co-occurrence model. The output of the co-occurrence model is clustered by k-means algorithm. Our systems perform well among other submitted systems in SemEval-2013.

Rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 describes the provided datasets and evaluation measures of the task. Section 3 gives details of our algorithm and is divided into five contiguous subsections that correspond to each step of our system. In Section 4 we present the differences between our three systems and their performances. Finally, Section 5 summarizes our work in this task. The code to replicate this work is available at http://goo.gl/jPTZQ.

2 Data and Evaluation Methodology

The test data for the graded word sense induction task in SemEval-2013 includes 50 terms containing 20 verbs, 20 nouns and 10 adjectives. There are a total of 4664 test instances provided. All evaluation was performed on test instances only. In addition, the organizers provided sense labeled trial data which can be used for tuning. This trial data is a redistribution of the Graded Sense and Usage data set provided by Katrin Erk, Diana McCarthy, and Nicholas Gaylord (Erk et al., 2009). It consists of 8 terms; 3 verbs, 3 nouns, and 2 adjectives all with moderate polysemy (4-7 senses). Each term in trial data has 50 contexts, in total 400 instances provided. Lastly, participants can use ukWaC1, a 2-billion word web-gathered corpus, for sense induction. Furthermore, unlike in previous WSI tasks, organizers allow participants to use additional contexts not found in the ukWaC under the condition that they submit systems for both using only the ukWaC and with their augmented corpora.

The gold-standard of test data was prepared using WordNet 3.1 by 10 annotators. Since WSI systems report their annotations in a different sense inventory than WordNet 3.1, a mapping procedure should be used first. The organizers use the sense mapping procedure explained in (Jurgens, 2012). This procedure has adopted the supervised evaluation setting of past SemEval WSI Tasks, but the main difference is that the former takes into account applicability weights for each sense which is a necessary for graded word sense.

Evaluation can be divided into two categories: (1) a traditional WSD task for Unsupervised WSD and WSI systems, (2) a clustering comparison setting that evaluates the similarity of the sense inventories for WSI systems. WSD evaluation is made according to three objectives:

- Their ability to detect which senses are applicable (Jaccard Index is used)
- Their ability to rank the applicable senses according to the level of applicability (Weighted Kendall’s $\tau$ is used)
- Their ability to quantify the level of applicability for each sense (Weighted Normalized Discounted Cumulative Gain is used)

Clustering comparison is made by using:

1Available here: http://wacky.sslmit.unibo.it
• Fuzzy Normalized Mutual Information: It captures the alignment of the two clusterings independent of the cluster sizes and therefore serves as an effective measure of the ability of an approach to accurately model rare senses.

• Fuzzy B-Cubed: It provides an item-based evaluation that is sensitive to the cluster size skew and effectively captures the expected performance of the system on a dataset where the cluster (i.e., sense) distribution would be equivalent.

More details can be found on the task website.²

3 Algorithm

In this section, we explain our algorithm. First, we describe data enrichment procedure then we will answer how each instance’s substitute vector was constructed. In contrast to common practice which is clustering the context directly, we first performed word sampling on the substitute vectors and created instance id - substitute word pairs as explained in Subsection 3.3. These pairs were used in the co-occurrence modeling step described in Subsection 3.4. Finally, we clustered these co-occurrence modeling output with the k-means clustering algorithm. It is worth noting that this pipeline is performed on each target word separately.

SRILM (Stolcke, 2002) is employed on entire ukWaC corpus for the 4-gram language model to conduct all experiments.

3.1 Data Enrichment

Data enrichment aims to increase the number of instances of target words. Our preliminary experiments on the trial data showed that additional contexts increase the performance of our systems.

Assuming that our target word is *book* in noun form. We randomly fetch 20,000 additional contexts from ukWaC where our target word occurs with the same part-of-speech tag. This implies that we skip those sentences in which the word *book* functions as a verb. These additional contexts are labeled with unique numbers so that we can distinguish actual instances in the test data. We follow this procedure for every target word in the test data. In total, 1 million additional instances were fetched from ukWaC. Hereafter we refer to this new dataset with as an expanded dataset.

3.2 Substitute Vectors

Unlike other WSI methods which rely on the first or the second order co-occurrences (Pedersen, 2010), we represent the context of each target word instance by finding the most likely substitutes suggested by the 4-gram language model we built from ukWaC corpus. The high probability substitutes reflect both semantic and syntactic properties of the context as seen in Table 1 for the following example:

```
And we need Your help to **meet** the challenge!
```

For every instance in our expanded dataset, we use three tokens each on the left and the right side of a target word as a context when estimating the probabilities for potential lexical substitutes. This tight window size might seem limited, however, tight context windows give better scores for semantic similarity, while larger context windows or second-order context words are better for modeling general topical relatedness (Sahlgren, 2006; Peirsman et al., 2008).

Fastsubs (Yuret, 2012) was used for this process and the top 100 most likely substitutes were used for representing each instance since the rest of the substitutes had negligible probabilities. These top 100 probabilities were normalized to add up to 1.0 giving us a final substitute vector for a particular target word’s instance. Note that the substitute vector is a

| Substitute | Probability |
|------------|-------------|
| solve      | 0.305       |
| complete   | 0.236       |
| meet       | 0.096       |
| overcome   | 0.026       |
| counter    | 0.022       |
| tackle     | 0.014       |
| address    | 0.012       |
| ...        | ...         |

Table 1: The most likely substitutes for **meet**

²www.cs.york.ac.uk/semeval-2013/task13/
function of the context only and is indifferent to the target word.

At the end of this step, we had 1,004,466 substitute vectors. The next common step might be to cluster these vectors either locally, which means every target word will be clustered separately; or globally, which indicates all instances (approximately 1 million) will be clustered together. Both approaches led us to lower scores than the presented method. Therefore, instead of clustering substitute vectors directly, we relied on co-occurrence modeling.

### 3.3 Substitute Word Sampling

Before running S-CODE (Maron et al., 2010) to model co-occurrence statistics, we needed to perform the substitute word sampling. For each target word’s instance, we sample 100 substitutes from its substitute vector. Assuming that our target word is *meet* and its substitute vector is the one shown in

| Instance ID | Substitute Word |
|-------------|-----------------|
| meet₁       | complete        |
| meet₁       | solve           |
| meet₁       | solve           |
| meet₁       | overcome        |
| ...         | ...             |
| ...         | ...             |
| meet₁       | meet            |
| meet₁       | complete        |
| meet₁       | solve           |
| meet₁       | solve           |

Table 2: Substitute word sampling for instance meet₁

Table 1. We choose 100 substitutes from this instance’s substitute vector by using individual probabilities of substitutes. As seen in Table 2, those substitutes which have high probabilities dominate the right column. Recall that Table 2 illustrates only one instance (subscript denotes the instance number) for the target word *meet* which has 20,000 and 100 instances from the context enrichment procedure and the test, respectively. We followed the same procedure for every instance of each target word. Table 3 depicts instance id - substitute word pairs for the target word *meet* rather than for only one instance shown in Table 2.

| Instance ID | Substitute Word |
|-------------|-----------------|
| meet₁       | complete        |
| meet₁       | solve           |
| ...         | ...             |
| meet₂       | hold            |
| meet₂       | visit           |
| ...         | ...             |
| meet₂₀₁₀₀   | assemble        |
| ...         | ...             |
| meet₂₀₁₀₀   | gather          |

Table 3: Substitute sampling for a target word *meet*. Instance ID - Substitute word pairs

After sampling, we had approximately 20,000 instance id - substitute word pairs. These pairs were used to feed S-CODE. The premise is that words with similar meanings will occur in similar contexts (Harris, 1954), and at the end this procedure enables us to put together words with similar meanings as well as making the clustering procedure more accurate. If two different instances have similar substitute word pairs (i.e., similar contexts) then these two word pairs attract each other and they will be located closely on the unit sphere, otherwise they will repel and eventually be far away from each other (see Figure 1).

### 3.4 Co-Occurrence Modeling

After sampling, we had approximately 20,000 instance id - substitute word pairs. These pairs were used to feed S-CODE. The premise is that words with similar meanings will occur in similar contexts (Harris, 1954), and at the end this procedure enables us to put together words with similar meanings as well as making the clustering procedure more accurate. If two different instances have similar substitute word pairs (i.e., similar contexts) then these two word pairs attract each other and they will be located closely on the unit sphere, otherwise they will repel and eventually be far away from each other (see Figure 1).

### 3.5 Clustering

We used k-means clustering on S-CODE sphere. Note that the procedures explained in the foregone subsections were repeated for each target word.
word. More precisely, the substitute sampling, co-
ocurrence modeling and clustering were performed
one by one for each target word.

We picked 22 as \( k \) value since the test set con-
tained words with 3 to 22 senses. After all word
pairs were labeled, we counted all class labels for
each instance in the test set. For example, if meet
1’s 50 word pairs are labeled with \( c_1 \) and 30 word pairs
are labeled with \( c_2 \) and finally 20 word pairs are la-
beled with \( c_3 \), then this particular instance would
have 50% sense\(_1\), 30% sense\(_2\) and 20% sense\(_3\).

### 4 Evaluation Results

In this section, we will discuss evaluation scores and
the characteristics of the test and the trial data.

All three AI-KU systems followed the same pro-
cedures described in Section 3. After clustering,
some basic post-processing operations were per-
formed for ai-ku(a1000) and ai-ku(r5-a1000). For
ai-ku(a1000), we added 1000 to all sense labels
which were obtained from the clustering procedure;
for ai-ku(r5-a1000), those sense labels occurred less
than 5 times in clustering were removed since we
considered them to be unreliable labels, afterwards
we added 1000 for all remaining sense labels.

**Supervised Metrics:** Table 5 shows the perform-
ance of our systems on the test data using all
instances (verbs, nouns, adjectives) for all super-
vised measures and in comparison with the sys-
tems that performed best and worst, most frequent
sense (MFS), all senses equally weighted, all senses
average weighted, random-3, and random-n base-
lines. Bold numbers indicate that ai-ku achieved
best scores among all submitted systems. Our sys-
tems performed generally well for all three super-
vised measures and slightly better for all submit-
ted systems. On the other hand, baselines achieved
better scores than all participants. More precisely,
on sense detection objective, MFS baseline obtained
0.552 which is the top score, while the best submit-
ted system could reach only 0.244. Why is it the case
that MFS had one of the worst sense detection score
on trial data (see Table 4), but best on test data? Un-
like the trial data, test data largely consists of only
one sense instances, MFS usually gives correct an-
swer. Table 6 illustrates the characteristics of the
test and trial data. Instances annotated with multiple
sense had a very small fraction in the test data. In
fact, 517 instances in the test set were annotated with
two senses (11%) and only 25 were annotated with
three senses (0.5%). However, trial data provided
by the organizers had almost 5 senses per instance
on the average. A similar results can be observed
in All-Senses baselines. On sense ranking objec-

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{System} & \text{JI} & \text{WKT} & \text{WNDCG} \\
\hline
\text{ai-ku} & 0.759 & 0.804 & 0.432 \\
\text{ai-ku(a1000)} & 0.759 & 0.794 & 0.612 \\
\text{ai-ku(r5-a1000)} & 0.760 & 0.800 & 0.541 \\
\text{MFS} & 0.381 & 0.655 & 0.337 \\
\text{All-Senses} & 0.757 & 0.745 & 0.660 \\
\text{All-Senses-freq-ranked} & 0.757 & 0.789 & 0.671 \\
\text{All-Senses-avg-ranked} & 0.757 & 0.806 & 0.706 \\
\text{Random-3} & 0.776 & 0.784 & 0.306 \\
\text{Random-n} & 0.795 & 0.747 & 0.301 \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Table 4: Supervised results on the trial set using median
gold-standard (JI: Jaccard Index FScore, WKT: Weighted
Kendall’s Tau FScore, WNDCG: Weighted Normalized
Discounted Cumulative Gain FScore)

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{System} & \text{JI} & \text{WKT} & \text{WNDCG} \\
\hline
\text{ai-ku} & 0.197 & 0.620 & 0.387 \\
\text{ai-ku(a1000)} & 0.197 & 0.606 & 0.215 \\
\text{ai-ku(r5-a1000)} & 0.244 & \textbf{0.642} & 0.332 \\
\text{Submitted-Best} & 0.244 & 0.642 & 0.387 \\
\text{All-Best} & 0.552 & 0.787 & 0.499 \\
\text{All-Worst} & 0.149 & 0.465 & 0.215 \\
\text{MFS} & 0.552 & 0.560 & 0.412 \\
\text{All-Senses-eq-weighted} & 0.149 & 0.787 & 0.436 \\
\text{All-Senses-avg-ranked} & 0.187 & 0.613 & 0.499 \\
\text{Random-3} & 0.244 & 0.633 & 0.287 \\
\text{Random-n} & 0.290 & 0.638 & 0.286 \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Table 5: Supervised results on the test set. (Submitted-
Best indicates the best scores among all submitted sys-
tem. All-Best indicates the best scores among all sub-
mitted systems and baselines. JI: Jaccard Index FS-
core, WKT: Weighted Kendall’s Tau FScore, WNDCG:
Weighted Normalized Discounted Cumulative Gain FS-
core)

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Number of Sense} & \text{Trial Data} & \text{Test Data} \\
\hline
\text{Sense Perplexity} & 4.97 & 1.19 \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Table 6: Average number of senses and average sense perplexity for trial and test data
| System              | FScore | FNMI | FB-Cubed |
|---------------------|--------|------|----------|
| ai-ku               | 0.641  | 0.045| 0.351    |
| ai-ku(a1000)        | 0.601  | 0.023| 0.288    |
| ai-ku(r5-a1000)     | 0.628  | 0.026| 0.421    |
| Submitted-Best      | 0.641  | 0.045| 0.441    |
| All-Best            | 0.641  | 0.048| 0.570    |
| All-Worst           | 0.477  | 0.006| 0.180    |
| MFS                 | 0.578  | -    | -        |
| SemCor-MFS          | 0.477  | -    | -        |
| One Sense           | 0.569  | 0.0   | 0.570    |
| Random-3            | 0.555  | 0.010| 0.359    |
| Random-n            | 0.533  | 0.006| 0.223    |

Table 7: Supervised and unsupervised results on the test set using instances which have only one sense. Bold numbers indicate that ai-ku achieved the best submitted system scores. (FScore: Supervised FScore, FNMI: Fuzzy Normalized Mutual Information, FB-Cubed: Fuzzy B-Cubed FScore)

| System              | Fuzzy NMI | Fuzzy B-Cubed |
|---------------------|-----------|---------------|
| ai-ku               | 0.065     | 0.390         |
| ai-ku(a1000)        | 0.035     | 0.320         |
| ai-ku(r5-a1000)     | 0.039     | 0.451         |
| Submitted-Best      | 0.065     | 0.483         |
| All-Best            | 0.065     | 0.623         |
| All-Worst           | 0.016     | 0.201         |
| Random-2            | 0.028     | 0.474         |
| Random-3            | 0.018     | 0.382         |
| Random-n            | 0.016     | 0.245         |

Table 8: Scores on clustering measures (Fuzzy NMI: Fuzzy Normalized Mutual Information, Fuzzy B-Cubed: Fuzzy B-Cubed FScore)

| All instances       |            |
|---------------------|------------|
| ai-ku               | 7.72       |
| ai-ku(a1000)        | 7.72       |
| ai-ku(r5-a1000)     | 3.11       |

Table 9: Average number of senses for each ai-ku systems on test data

Net sense. *ai-ku* performed best for Fuzzy NMI among other systems included baselines. For Fuzzy B-Cubed, *ai-ku(r5a1000)* outperformed random-3 and random-n baselines. Table 8 depicts the performance of our systems, best and worst systems as well as the random baselines.

The best scores for the graded word sense induction task in SemEval-2013 are mostly achieved by baselines in supervised setting. Major problem is that there is huge sense differences between test and trial data regarding to number of sense distribution. Participants that used trial data as for parameter tuning and picking the best algorithm achieved lower scores than baselines since test data does not show properties of trial data. Consequently, *ai-ku* systems produce significantly more senses than the gold-standard (see Table 9), and this mainly deteriorates our performance.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we presented substitute vector representation and co-occurrence modeling on WSI task. Clustering substitute vectors directly gives lower scores. Thus, taking samples from each target’s substitute vector, we obtained instance id - substitute word pairs. These pairs were used by S-CODE. Fi-
nally we run k-means on the S-CODE. Although our systems were highly ranked among the other submitted systems, no system showed better performance than the top baselines for all metrics. One explanation is that trial data does not reflect the characteristics of test data according to their number of sense distributions. Systems used trial data biased to return more than one sense for each instance since average number of sense is almost five in trial data. In addition, baselines (except random ones) know true sense distribution in the test data beforehand which make them harder to beat.

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