Multi Sense Embeddings from Topic Models

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Abstract

Distributed word embeddings have yielded state-of-the-art performance in many NLP tasks, mainly due to their success in capturing useful semantic information. These representations assign only a single vector to each word whereas a large number of words are polysemous (i.e., have multiple meanings). In this work, we approach this critical problem in lexical semantics, namely that of representing various senses of polysemous words in vector spaces. We propose a topic modeling based skip-gram approach for learning multi-prototype word embeddings. We also introduce a method to prune the embeddings determined by the probabilistic representation of the word in each topic. We use our embeddings to show that they can capture the context and word similarity strongly and outperform various state-of-the-art implementations.

1 Introduction

Representing words as dense, low dimensional embeddings (Mikolov et al., 2013a,b; Pennington et al., 2014) allow the representations to capture useful syntactic & semantic information making them useful in downstream Natural Language Processing tasks. However, these embedding models ignore the lexical ambiguity among different meanings of the same word. They assign only a single vector representative of all the different meanings of a word. In this work, we attempt to address this problem by capturing the multiple senses of a word using the global semantics of the document in which the word appears. Li and Jurafsky (2015) indicated that such sense specific vectors improve the performance of applications related to semantic understanding, such as Named Entity Recognition, Part-Of-Speech tagging.

In this work, we first train a topic model on our corpus to extract the topic distribution for each document. We treat these extracted topics as a heuristic to model word senses. We hypothesize that these word senses correlate quite well with the human notion of word senses, and validate it through our rigorous experiments as we demonstrate in our results section. We then use this topic distribution to train sense-specific word embeddings for each sense. We train these embeddings by weighing the learning procedure in proportion to the corresponding topic representation for each document. However, a word need not strongly correlate with each of these extracted senses. To address it, we propose a variant of this model which restricts the learning to only those embeddings where the word has a strong correlation with the topic extracted, i.e., high $p(\text{word}|\text{topic})$.

The major contributions of our work are (i) training multi-sense word embeddings based on structured skip gram using topic models as a precursor (ii) non-parametric approach which prunes the embeddings to capture variability in the number of word senses.

2 Prior Work

Recently, learning multi-sense word embedding models has been an active area of research and has gained a lot of interest. TF-IDF (Reisinger and Mooney, 2010), SaSA (Wu and Giles, 2015), MSSG (Neelakantan et al., 2015), Huang et al. (2012) used cluster-based techniques to cluster the context of a word and comprehend word senses from the cluster centroids. Tian et al. (2014) proposed to use EM-based probabilistic clustering to assign word senses. Li and Jurafsky (2015) used Chinese Restaurant Process to model the word senses. All these techniques are just local context based and thus ignore the essential correlations amongst words and phrases in a broader document-level context. In contrast, our method enriches the embeddings with the document level information,
capturing word interactions in a broader document-level context.

AutoExtend (Rothe and Schütze, 2015), SenseEmbed (Iacobacci et al., 2015), Nasari (Camacho-Collados et al., 2016), Deconf (Pilehvar and Collier, 2016), Chen et al. (2014); Jauhar et al. (2015); Pelevina et al. (2017) have used multi-step approach to learn sense & word embeddings but require an external lexical database like WordNet to achieve it. SW2V(Mancini et al., 2016) train the embeddings in a single joint training phase. Nonetheless, all these methods assign same weight to every sense of a word, ignoring the extent to which each sense is associated with its context.

MSWE (Nguyen et al., 2017) trained sense and word embeddings separately, with sense specific word embeddings computed as a weighted sum of the two, where the weights are calculated using topic modeling. Similarly, Liu et al. (2015a,b); Cheng et al. (2015); Zhang and Zhong (2016) used skip-gram based approach to obtain separate word & topic embeddings. Lau et al. (2013) also used topic models to distinguish between different senses of a word. All these techniques express the sense-specific word representation as a function of word & sense embeddings which essentially belongs to two different domains. Our work trains more robust compositional word embeddings formulated as a weighted sum of sense specific word embeddings, thus, taking into consideration all the different word senses while operating in the same vector space.

More recent techniques like ELMo (Peters et al., 2018), BERT (Devlin et al., 2018) compute the contextual representations of a word based on the sentence in which the word appears, whereas, our method yields precomputed embeddings for each sense of a word within the same vector space.

3 Multi Sense Embeddings Model

3.1 Topic Modeling

Mixed membership models like topic models allow us to discover topics that occur in a collection of documents. A topic is defined as a distribution over words and consists of cluster of words that occur frequently. This formulation benefits us in inferring the probability distribution over different contexts(topics) the word can occur in. Latent Dirichlet Allocation(LDA) (Blei et al., 2003) is a topic modeling technique that assigns multiple topics in different proportions to each document along with the probability distribution over words for each of the topics. Topic models based on Gibbs Sampling (Geman and Geman, 1987) achieve this by computing the posterior for a word based on the topic proportion at document level coupled with how often the word appears together with other words in the topic. We use Gibbs Sampling based approach to compute the topic distribution for each document. We use the LDA implementation from MALLET topic modeling toolkit (McCallum, 2002) for our experiments.

3.2 Embeddings from Topic Models (ETMo)

In this section we present our baseline approach for training sense-specific word embeddings. We formulate our approach as follows. Let $E_w \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$ represent the embedding matrix for word $w$, where $k$ is the number of topics(treated as number of word senses) and $n$ is the dimensionality of embeddings. We represent the embedding of word $w$ corresponding to topic $z_i$ as $E_{w,z_i}$. Let $v_g(w)$ be the output vector representation for word $w$, which is shared across senses, and enforces the embeddings of different senses to be within the same vector space.

We introduce a latent variable $z$, representing the topic dimension, to model separate embedding for each topic. Inline with the skip-gram(Mikolov et al., 2013a) approach, we maximize the probability of predicting the context word $w_{t+j}$, given a
central word \( w_t \) for a document \( d \) as:
\[
p(w_{t+j}|w_t, d) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} p(w_{t+j}|w_t, z_i, d) \cdot p(z_i|d)
\]
\[
p(z_i|d) \text{ represents the topic distribution of the document } d, \text{ obtained from the trained topic model.}
\]
In the above equation, we reasonably make the assumption, \( p(z_i|w_t, d) = p(z_i|d) \), owing to the fact that the topic distribution is computed at the document level. Using Negative Sampling (Mikolov et al., 2013b), we reduce the first term in the above equation as:
\[
p(w_{t+j}|w_t, z_i) = \sigma(E_{w_t, z_i} \ast v_g(w_{t+j})) + \sum_{w \in S} \sigma(- E_{w_t, z_i} \ast v_g(w))
\]
\[\] (2)
Formally, given a large corpus of documents, with size \( D \), having a words sequence \( w_1, w_2, ..., w_{N_d-1}, w_{N_d} \), where \( N_d \) is the number of words in document \( d \), skip-window size \( c \), number of topics \( k \), the objective is to maximize the following log likelihood:
\[
L = \sum_{d=1}^{D} \sum_{t=1}^{N_d} \sum_{j=-c}^{c} \log p(w_{t+j}|w_t, d) = \sum_{d=1}^{D} \sum_{t=1}^{N_d} \sum_{j=-c}^{c} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \log p(w_{t+j}|w_t, z_i, d) \cdot p(z_i|d)
\] (3)
As shown in Figure 1, we use a neural network architecture to compute the log likelihood. We feed the central word, in its BoW representation, as input to the model and compute the probability of the context word. Refer to the figure for detailed explanation.

During inference, we first compute the topic distribution for the given document, \( p(z_i|d) \), using our pre-trained topic model. Finally, for a document \( d \) and for each word \( w \), we infer the word embedding as:
\[
v_{w,d} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} p(z_i|d) \ast E_{w,z_i}
\] (4)
\[
\]

### 3.3 ETMo + Non-parametric
In this section, we substantiate the flaws in our baseline approach and present our non-parametric method to learn the embeddings.

Our previous approach assigns an embedding to every word corresponding to each topic. As one can see, this method would undesirably accumulate a fair amount of noisy updates to those word embeddings that have minimal representation in a topic. Hence, we extend our model by exploiting the information from topic models to learn only those embeddings where the word has a strong correlation with the topic.

In particular, we train only those embedding \( E_{w_t, z_i} \) such that \( p(w_t|z_i) > p_{\text{thres}} \), where \( p_{\text{thres}} \) is chosen empirically, which we will explain later. For the words where none of the senses satisfy the above condition (might be the case for some monosemous words), we chose the embedding \( E_{w_t, x} \) to be trained, such that \( x = \arg\max_{z_i} p(w_t|z_i) \).

### 4 Experimental Setup
We use the English Wikipedia corpus dump (Shaoul and Westbury, 2010) for training both, topic models and embedding models. Though many previous research works have used a larger training corpus, but for a fair comparison, we only compare our results with those works which have used the same corpus. We could also improve obtained results by using a larger training corpus, but this is not central point of our paper. The main aim of our work is to compute sense specific embed-
We evaluate our model on two tasks, namely, word similarity and word analogy. For word similarity evaluation, we evaluate our embeddings on standard word similarity benchmark datasets including WS-353 (Finkelstein et al., 2001) & SCWS-2003 (Huang et al., 2012). WS-353 includes 353 pairs of words and a human judgment score of the similarity measure between the two words. Similarly, SCWS-2003 consists of 2003 pairs of words, but, given with a context.

We note that our embeddings can capture only those senses that are represented by the extracted topics, and due to the restricted number of topics extracted, they might not be able to capture all the senses for a word. However, at a specific number of topics, our model is effective in capturing various senses of words in standard word similarity datasets. We demonstrate this effect qualitatively and quantitatively in this section.

For each of the datasets, we report the Spearman correlation between the human judgment score and model’s similarity score computed between two words \( w \) and \( w' \). We follow Reisinger and Mooney (2010) to compute the following similarity measures. For a pair of words \( w \) and \( w' \) and given their respective contexts \( c \) and \( c' \), we represent the cosine distance between the embeddings \( E_{w,i} \) and \( E_{w',j} \) as \( d(E_{w,i}, E_{w',j}) \).

\[
\text{globalSim} = d(v_g(w),)
\]

\[
\text{avgSim} = \frac{1}{N_1 \times N_2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} \sum_{j=1}^{N_2} d(E_{w,i}, E_{w',j})
\]

\[
\text{avgSimC} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} \sum_{j=1}^{N_2} p(z_i|c) \times p(z_j|c') \times d(E_{w,i}, E_{w',j})
\]

\[
N_1 \text{ and } N_2 \text{ are chosen such that they satisfy } p(w_t|z_i) \geq p_{\text{thres}}. v_g(w) \text{ represents the output vector for word } w, \text{ as mentioned in section 3.2. We infer the probabilities, } p(z_i|c) \text{ & } p(z_j|c') \text{ using our pre-trained topic model.}
\]

In contrast to our model, methods such as ELMo, BERT requires a document context to compute an embedding, which makes it unfair to compare on avgSim metric since it doesn’t take any context into account. Additionally, ELMo gives a set of 3 different embeddings making it unclear to compare

| Model                  | avgSim | avgSimC |
|-----------------------|--------|---------|
| TF-IDF                | 60.4   | -       |
| Huang et al. (2012)   | 62.8   | 65.7    |
| Tian et al. (2014)    | -      | 65.4    |
| Chen et al. (2014)    | 66.2   | 68.9    |
| Cheng et al. (2015)   | -      | 65.9    |
| GC-MULTI              | -      | 65.9    |
| (Jauhar et al., 2015) |        |         |
| SENSEMBED             | 62.4   | -       |
| (Iacobacci et al., 2015) |       |         |
| SaSA                  | -      | 66.4    |
| (Wu and Giles, 2015)  |        |         |
| TWE-I (Liu et al., 2015b) |      |         |
| NP-MSSG               | 67.2   | 69.3    |
| (Neelakantan et al., 2015) |     |         |
| SG+Greedy             | -      | 69.1    |
| (Li and Jurafsky, 2015) |       |         |
| MSWE                  | 66.7   | 66.6    |
| (Nguyen et al., 2017) |        |         |
| ETMo (Ours)           | 65.4   | 65.8    |
| ETMo + NP (Ours)      | 67.5   | 69.1    |

Table 2: Spearman’s correlation \( \rho \times 100 \) on SCWS

| Model                  | Accuracy (%) |
|-----------------------|--------------|
| Word2Vec              | 67           |
| Huang et al. (2012)   | 12           |
| Neelakantan et al. (2015) | 64         |
| ETMo (Ours)           | 67           |
| ETMo + NP (Ours)      | 66           |

Table 3: Results on Word Analogy task
We show a qualitative comparison of some polyse-mous words in Table 4, with the nearest neighbors of words in the table, for Glove embeddings and the embeddings trained from our model. For each of the words in Table 4, we can clearly see that the different senses of words are being effectively captured by our model whereas Glove embeddings could only capture most frequently used meaning for the word. Moreover, each of these senses can be easily correlated with the topic that these embeddings correspond to which can be seen from Table 5. Consider the word *Play*. The first sense for *play* corresponds to *Music* (topic 2). The second embedding corresponds to *Sports* (topic 7).

An interesting qualitative result is shown for the word *Network*. The nearest neighbors to Glove embeddings show that they are only able to capture one meaning which is in the subject of *Television Network*. However, our model is able to capture 3 different meanings for the word quite powerfully. The first one, which corresponds to topic 2, occurs in the context of *Television Network* which is the sense Glove was able to capture. The second sense, which corresponds to topic 5, occurs in the context of *Computer Networks*. The third sense, which corresponds to topic 6, remarkably relates to the context *Geography*.

5.3 Number of Topics Analysis

In this section, we perform a study on choosing the right number of topics(k) in Table 6. Here, topic uniqueness refers to the proportion of unique words in a topic, computed over the top words in the vocabulary. Higher the topic uniqueness score, more distinct are the obtained topics. We compute the Spearman correlation on the *avgSim* metric using the word pairs from RG-65 (Rubenstein and Goodenough, 1965). With k = 10, we obtained a topic uniqueness of 32.23, which dropped to 27.12 for k=20 topics. Thus increasing the number of topics increases overlap which harms our model as the topic weight gets divided while training the embeddings. This effect can be clearly seen in the correlation coefficient which drops from 68.5 to 66.9 for 10 & 20 topics respectively. Using k=5 improved the topic uniqueness score to 34.05, but the perplexity score (Blei et al., 2003) reduced, indicating that the topic model requires more degrees of freedom to fit the corpus. We also observed not very distinct topics at k=5 (i.e. a topic could be mixture of sports and history), resulting in reduced correlation coefficient of 67.1.

5.4 Threshold Parameter Analysis

In this section, we study the effect of $p_{thres}$ on the model performance. We tune its value by comparing the Spearman correlation on the *avgSim* metric using the word pairs from RG-65 (Rubenstein and Goodenough, 1965). However, we hypothesize that the threshold parameter depends only on the output
Table 4: Nearest neighbours of some polysemous words for Glove, and for each sense identified by our algorithm, based on the cosine similarity. We take only those senses corresponding to topics where $p(w_t | j) > p_{thres}$.

| Word | Topic # | Nearest Neighbors |
|------|---------|-------------------|
| play | Glove 2 | playing, played, plays, game, players, player, match, matches, games |
|      | Glove 7 | played, performance, musical, performed, plays, stage, release, song, work, time season, players, played, one, game, first, football, teams, last, year, clubs |
| rock | Glove 2 | band, punk, pop, bands, album, rocks, music, indie, singer, albums, songs, rockers metal, pop, punk, members, jazz, alternative, indie, folk, band, hard, recorded, blues island, point, valley, hill, large, creek, granite, railroad, river, lake |
|      | Glove 6 | banks, banking, central, credit, bankers, financial, investment, lending, citibank river, tributary, flows, valley, side, banks, mississippi, south, north, mouth, branch company, established, central, first, group, one, investment, organisation, development |
|      | Glove 8 | plants, factory, facility, flowering, produce, reactor, factories, production plants, bird, genus, frog, rodent, flowering, fish, species, tree, endemic, asteraceae design, plants, modern, power, process, technology, standard, substance, production |
| war  | Glove 4 | wars, conflict, battle, civil, military, invasion, forces, fought, fighting, wartime combat, first, world, army, served, american, battle, civil, outbreak, forces series, championship, cup, fifa, champion, chess, records, wrestling, championships |
|      | Glove 7 | cable, channel, television, broadcast, internet, stations, programming, radio series, program, shows, bbc, broadcast, station, channel, aired, nbc, radio, episode data, information, computer, system, applications, technology, control, standard, design light, station, car, stations, railway, commuter, lines, rail, trains, commute |

Table 5: The top words for each topics according to topic modeling
of topic modeling, particularly $p(\text{word}|\text{topic})$, and thus is independent of the this chosen subset, as can be seen in the results on other datasets. In Table 7, we can see that the optimal value for $p_{\text{thres}}$ is 1e-4 for the non-parametric model at which it can strongly differentiate between the different senses for network. A higher threshold value of 1e-3 captures a fewer number of senses. A lower threshold value of 1e-5 allows training of more than the actual number of true senses leading to noisy updates, thus becoming ineffective in capturing any sense. The corresponding lower correlation coefficients in Table 7 confirm these effects quantitatively.

### 6 Conclusion & Future Work

In this work, we presented our approach to learn word embeddings to capture the different senses of a word. Unlike previous sense-based models, our model exploits knowledge from topic modeling to induce mixture weights in structured skip-gram approach, for learning sense specific representations. We extend this model further by pruning the embeddings conditioned on the number of word senses. Finally, we showed our model achieves state-of-the-art results on word similarity tasks, and demonstrated the strength of our model in capturing multiple word senses qualitatively. Future work should aim towards using these embeddings for downstream tasks.

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