Integrating WordNet for Multiple Sense Embeddings in Vector Semantics

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Abstract—Popular distributional approaches to semantics allow for only a single embedding of any particular word. A single embedding per word conflates the distinct meanings of the word and their appropriate contexts, irrespective of whether those usages are related or completely disjoint. We compare models that use the graph structure of the knowledge base WordNet as a post-processing step to improve vector-space models with multiple sense embeddings for each word, and explore the application to word sense disambiguation.

Index Terms—Computational Linguistics, Vector Semantics, WordNet, Synonym Selection, Word Sense Disambiguation

I. INTRODUCTION

Vector semantics is a computational model of written language that encodes the usage of words in a vector space, which facilitates performing mathematical manipulations on words as vectors [7]. These vectors encode the contexts of words across a corpus, and are learned based on word distributions throughout the text. Vectors can then be compared by various distance metrics, usually the cosine function, to determine the similarity of the underlying words. They also seem to possess some modest degree of compositionality, in the sense that the addition and subtraction of vectors can sometimes result in equations that appear to reflect semantically meaningful relationships between words [11], [12]. Because it allows for the use of these well studied techniques from linear algebra to be brought to bear on the difficult domain of semantics, vector space models (VSMs) have been the focus of much recent research in NLP.

While vector representations of word meaning are capable of capturing important semantic features of words and performing tasks like meaning comparison and analogizing, one of their shortcomings is their implicit assumption that a single written word type has exactly one meaning (or distribution) in a language. But many words clearly have different senses corresponding to distinct appropriate contexts. Building distributional vector space models that account for this polysemous behavior would allow for better performance on tasks involving context-sensitive words, most obviously word sense disambiguation. Previous research that attempted to resolve this issue is discussed at length in the next section. Most common methods either use clustering or introduce knowledge from an ontology. The goal of the present research is to develop or improve upon methods that take advantage of the semantic groups and relations codified in WordNet, and specifically to focus on the downstream WSD task, which is often neglected in favor of less useful similarity judgment evaluations.

The algorithm we examine in depth can in principle be implemented with any ontology, but in the present paper we focus exclusively on WordNet. WordNet (WN) is a knowledge base for English language semantics [15]. It consists of small collections of synonymous words called synsets, interconnected with labeled links corresponding to different forms of semantic or lexical relations. We will be particularly interested in the synset relation of hypernymy/hyponymy. Hyponyms can be thought of as semantic subsets: If A is a hyponym of B, then x is A implies x is B, but the converse is not true. WordNet is also equipped with a dictionary definition for each synset, along with example sentences featuring varying synonymous words. Often implementations that use WordNet’s graph structure fail to make use of these other features, which we will show can improve performance on several tasks.

II. RELATED WORK

Our work is based primarily on that of Jauhar et al’s RETROFIT algorithm [6], which is discussed at greater length in Section 3. Below we discuss previous models for building sense embeddings.

A. Clustering-Based Methods

Reisinger and Mooney [16] learn a fixed number of sense vectors per word by clustering context vectors corresponding to individual occurrences of a word in a large corpus, then calculating the cluster centroids. These centroids are the sense vectors.

Huang et al. [5] build a similar model using k-means clustering, but also incorporate global textual features into initial context vectors. They compile the Stanford Contextual Word Similarity dataset (SCWS), which consists of over two thousand word pairs in their sentential context, along with a similarity score based on human judgments from zero to ten.

Neelakantan et al. [13] introduce an unsupervised modification of the skip-gram model [9] to calculate multiple sense embeddings online, by maintaining clusters of context vectors and forming new word sense vectors when a context under consideration is sufficiently far from any of the word’s known clusters. The advantage of the method is that it is capable of detecting different numbers of senses for different words, unlike the previous implementations of Huang et al. and Reisinger and Mooney.
B. Ontology-Based Methods

Chen et al. [3] first learn general word embeddings from the skip-gram model, then initialize sense embeddings based on the synsets and glosses of WN. These embeddings are then used to identify relevant occurrences of each sense in a training corpus using simple-to-complex words-sense disambiguation (S2C WSD). The skip-gram model is then trained directly on the disambiguated corpus.

Rothe and Shutze [17] build a neural-network post-processing system called AutoExtend that takes word embeddings and learns embeddings for synsets and lexemes. Their model is an autoencoder neural net with lexeme and synset embeddings as hidden layers, based on the intuition that a word is the sum of its lexemes and synset is the sum of its lexemes.

Our intuitions are most similar to those of Jauhar et al [6] and we will be building on one of their approaches. Their RETROFIT algorithm learns embeddings for different word senses from WN by iteratively combining general embeddings according to the graph structure of WN. The approach is discussed in more detail below.

III. IMPLEMENTATION

A. RETROFIT

Because our work follows so directly from [6], we repeat the essential details of the RETROFIT algorithm here. Let \( \Omega = (S_\Omega, E_\Omega) \) be an undirected graph. We call \( \Omega \) an ontology when the set of vertices \( S_\Omega \) represent semantic objects of some kind and the set of edges \( E_\Omega \) represent relationships between those objects. In the case of WN, \( S_\Omega \) is the set of synsets and \( E_\Omega \) are the semantic links (notably hypernyms and hyponyms). Given a set of sense-agnostic word embeddings \( \hat{V} \) and an ontology \( \Omega \), RETROFIT infers a set of sense embeddings \( \hat{S} \) that is maximally "consistent" with both \( \hat{V} \) and \( \Omega \). By "consistency" we refer to the minimization of the objective function

\[
D(\hat{S}) = \sum_{ij} \alpha \| \hat{w}_i - \hat{s}_{ij} \|^2
+ \sum_{ij} \sum_{i'j' \in N_{ij}} \beta_r \| \hat{s}_{ij} - \hat{s}_{i'j'} \|^2
\]

where \( N_{ij} \) is the set of neighbors of \( s_{ij} \) defined in \( E_\Omega \) and \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are hyperparameters controlling the importance of intial sense-agnostic embeddings and various ontological relationships, respectively. Essentially RETROFIT aims to make a sense embedding as similar to its sense-agnostic embedding as possible, while also reducing the distance between related senses as defined by \( \Omega \). It achieves this by iteratively updating sense embeddings according to

\[
\hat{s}_{ij} = \frac{\alpha \hat{w}_i + \sum_{i'j' \in N_{ij}} \beta_r \hat{s}_{i'j'}}{\alpha + \sum_{i'j' \in N_{ij}} \beta_r}
\]

until convergence. The RETROFIT implementation discussed in [6] defines only synonym, hypernym and hyponym relations, with respective weights of \( \beta_r = 1.0, 0.5 \) and 0.5. Below we discuss several of the limitations associated with this RETROFIT implementation and possible improvements.

1) Impoverished Synsets: Many word senses are relatively isolated in the WordNet structure. They occur in synsets with few or no synonyms or semantic relations. In the case that the word has only one meaning, this isn’t a problem, because the sense-agnostic embedding is in that case unambiguous. But in the case that the word has one or more other semantically rich senses (i.e., senses with synonyms and hyper/hyponym relations), the impoverished sense is unduly influenced by the general embedding and its unique meaning is not distinguishable. In the extreme case both senses are identical.

2) Compound Words and Multi-word Lemmas: The original RETROFIT implementation discards multi-word lemmas (and entire synsets if they consist only of multi-word lemmas.) But there exist synsets for whom most or all of the related WN synsets contain only multi-word lemmas. (E.g. in the case of brass.n.01, the hyponyms are almost all compound words for types of brass.) Adjusting the RETROFIT algorithm to allow for embeddings of the multi-word lemmas that appear in WN would greatly reduce the number of impoverished synsets.

3) Underrepresented Senses: The general embedding produced by word2vec conflates all usages of a word. If a particular sense of a word is significantly less common than others, the word2vec embedding will not be a good representation of the sense. RETROFIT indiscriminately tries to minimize the distance from any particular sense and its word2vec embedding.

For these reasons we make the following modifications to RETROFIT:

1) Regardless of the position of a word sense in WordNet, it will be equipped with a descriptive gloss that clarifies its usage. We incorporate content words from each synset’s gloss in the RETROFIT algorithm’s objective function.

2) We implement a naive model to handle a compound word by simply representing its sense-agnostic embedding as the average of the sense-agnostic embeddings of its constituent words. Although this is obviously inadequate for many compound words, we find it is already an improvement.

3) The sense-agnostic embedding of a word is assumed to be the weighted average of its sense embeddings, proportional to how common a particular word sense is. We calculate the sense-frequencies from the SemCor corpus, which consists of around 300,000 words tagged with their WordNet 3.0 synsets [10].

B. Weighted RETROFIT

Let \( M = (V, \hat{V}, S, \hat{S}, P, \Omega) \) be a model consisting of a vocabulary \( V \) and sense-agnostic embeddings \( \hat{V} \), a set of word senses \( S \) and sense-embeddings \( \hat{S} \), a discrete probability density function \( P : V \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \), and an ontology \( \Omega \). We seek the set \( \hat{S} \) that minimizes the new objective function for the weighted RETROFIT algorithm

\[
\end{equation}
\[ D(M) = \sum_i \alpha \left\| \hat{w}_i - \sum_j p_{ij} \hat{s}_{ij} \right\|^2 + \sum_{ij} \sum_{i'j' \in N_{ij}} \beta_f \left\| \hat{s}_{ij} - \hat{s}_{i'j'} \right\|^2 + \sum_{ij} \sum_{i' \in G_{ij}} \gamma \left\| \hat{w}_{i'} - \hat{s}_{ij} \right\|^2 \]

by iteratively updating embeddings according to

\[ \tilde{s}_{ij} = \frac{\alpha p_{ij} \hat{w}_i - \alpha p_{ij} \sum_{k \neq j} p_{ik} \hat{s}_{ik} + \sum_{i'j' \in N_{ij}} \beta_r \hat{s}_{i'j'} + \gamma \sum_{i' \in G_{ij}} \hat{w}_{i'}}{\alpha p_{ij}^2 + \sum_{i'j' \in N_{ij}} \beta_r + \sum_{i' \in G_{ij}} \gamma} \]

where $\hat{w}_i \in \hat{V}$, $\tilde{s}_{ij} \in \hat{S}$, $p_{ij} = P(s_{ij}|w_i)$, $N_{ij}$ is the set of neighbor indices of the $j$th sense of the $i$th word defined in $\Omega$, $G_{ij} = \{i : u_i \in V\}$ is in the gloss of $s_{ij}$, and $\alpha$, $\beta$, and $\gamma$ are the parameters controlling the weights of sense-agnostic word embeddings, relations and gloss words respectively. Note that iteratively updating the sense embeddings via Eqs. 2 or 4 is equivalent to optimizing their respective objective functions via coordinate descent.

### IV. Evaluation

We train three variations of the RETROFIT algorithm on the 50-dimensional global context vectors produced by Huang et al [5]: the unmodified RETROFIT, RETROFIT with gloss words and multi-word lemmas, and RETROFIT with weighted senses as discussed above. Training time is similar between the first two; weighted RETROFIT takes about twice as long. All converge to a solution within 0.01 within fifteen iterations.

The models are evaluated on two different tasks: Synonym Selection and Word Sense Disambiguation. We first include and discuss results from some similarity judgment tasks, but these serve more as stepping stone than as a rigorous measure of model quality. Faruqui et al. [4] give a comprehensive assessment of the inadequacies of evaluating the quality of embeddings on word similarity tasks. In general, these tasks are fairly subjective and a model’s performance on them does not correlate with performance on downstream NLP tasks.

**A. Similarity Judgments**

We evaluate the models on two word-similarity tasks: RG-65 and SCWS. The RG-65 dataset [18] consists of sixty-five pairs of words and an average human judgment of similarity scaled from one to four. The Stanford Contextual Word Similarity dataset [5] consists of over two thousand word pairs in their respective sentential contexts and an average human evaluation of similarity from one to ten.

Evaluation on the RG-65 dataset is a straightforward calculation of the average cosine similarity of each pair of sense embeddings, as used by Jauhar et al. [6] and originally proposed by Reisinger and Mooney [17]. As an exploration, we also consider the results of using the maximum cosine similarity.

We evaluate performance on SCWS by first disambiguating the words in their contexts, then comparing the cosine similarity of the chosen sense vectors. Words are disambiguated using the simple-to-complex algorithm (S2C) described by Chen et al. in [3]. S2C disambiguates every word in a sentence in increasing order of ambiguity, where a word is considered more ambiguous if it has more senses defined in WN. First, a context vector is initialized by averaging the general embeddings of each word, then the least ambiguous word is assigned a sense from WN based on which sense embedding has the greatest cosine similarity with the context embedding. The context embedding is then updated as the average of the general embeddings of the ambiguous words and the sense embeddings of the disambiguated words. The only parameter of the model is a confidence threshold. At each disambiguation, if the difference between the rating of two candidate senses for a word are within the confidence threshold of each other, we choose not to disambiguate the word and continue to use its general embedding as the context in subsequent iterations.

Our results are displayed in Table 1.

**B. Synonym Selection**

We test the models on two synonym selection datasets: ESL-50 [19] and TOEFL [8]. ESL-50 is a set of fifty English sentences with a target word for which a synonym must be selected from four candidate words. TOEFL consists of eighty context-independent words and four potential candidates for each. For both datasets, we use the same maxSim selection criteria as Jauhar et al [6]. We select the sense vector $\hat{s}_{ij}$ that corresponds to:

\[ \text{maxSim}(w_i, w_{i'}) = \max_{j, j'} \cos(\hat{s}_{ij}, \hat{s}_{i'j'}) \]

Our results are presented in Table 2.

**C. Word Sense Disambiguation**

We use Semeval 2015 task 13 [9] as our English WSD test. The corpus for the task consists of four documents taken
from the biomedical, mathematical and social issues domains, annotated with part of speech information. The task also includes named entity recognition, which we do not handle, except in the incidental case where there is a WN synset for a named entity. We explore two different methods for WSD. The first chooses a word sense by identifying a word that co-occurs in the sentence and has a sense that is closest to a sense of our target word. The intuition of the model is that although particular words may be totally unrelated to the sense of the target word, there should exists somewhere in the sentence a word pertaining to the subject described by the ambiguous word. Formally, this method is described as the contextMax function:

\[ \text{contextMax}(w, c) = \arg \max_{s \in S_i} \max_{c' \in \bigcup S_i} \cos(\vec{s}, \vec{c'}) \cdot p(s|w) \]

where \( S_i \) is the set of senses of the \( i \)th word of the context sentence.

The second WSD method incorporates both local and global context in equal parts. The intuition is that nearby words in a particular sentence will capture information about the particular usage of a word, while words that appear over the course of a passage will characterize the subject matter being discussed. Both of these component are essential to human understanding and should aid WSD algorithms, as discussed in [20]. Formally, we define the localGlobal WSD function as

\[ \text{localGlobal}(w, c) = \arg \max_{s \in W_{ij}} (\cos(\vec{s}, \vec{c}_{ij}) \cdot p(s|w)) \]

where the context vector \( \vec{c}_{ij} \) for the \( j \)th word of the \( i \)th sentence is given by

\[ \vec{c}_{ij} = \frac{\vec{t}_{ij}}{|\vec{t}_{ij}|} + \frac{\vec{g}_i}{|\vec{g}_i|} \]

and

\[ \vec{t}_{ij} = \sum_{k \neq j} \frac{1}{|j - k|} \hat{w}_{ik} \]

\[ \vec{g}_i = \sum_{n=-2}^{i+2} \sum_{k} \hat{w}_{nk} \]

As a baseline we compare against the most-frequent sense tagger (MFS) trained on the Semcor corpus [9], defined simply as

\[ mfs(w) = \arg \max_{s \in S_w} (p(s|w)) \]

Tables 3 and 4 display results for our models when unrestricted. Tables 5 and 6 show results when the search is restricted to part of speech information. Results are ranked by F1 score, the harmonic mean of precision and recall. By all measures, the various RETROFIT implementations outperform the MFS baseline. Weighted RETROFIT and Modified RETROFIT both improve the initial model. The best performing systems on the Semeval 2015 task 13 English corpus are LIMSI and SUDOKU [9], which achieve F1 scores of 65.8 and 61.6 respectively. This would position both Weighted RETROFIT and RETROFIT with compound words and gloss words as second only to the top system.

V. DISCUSSION

Results on similarity judgment are mixed, although it should be noted that despite the fact that in principle average similarity appears to be a good measure of word relatedness, in our trials the maximum similarity between two words is a better predictor of human judgments on RG-65 with all algorithms. It’s possible that in the absence of disambiguating context human judges are not actually good at combining the relatedness of different senses of words and instead specifically search for related meanings when evaluating similarity. It’s worth noting that the metric by which our modifications provide the largest improvements is the metric which RETROFIT itself also performs best by. But, as discussed above and in [4], even
human judges often do not score particularly well similarity tasks, and in fact there may be no real ”gold standard” on such a task.

The results of the synonym selection task are also mixed. On the ESL-50 dataset our modifications slightly underperform, while on the TOEFL dataset they provide an enormous improvement. We have no investigated the particulars of the datasets enough to see if there are anomalous features (over or under-representation of certain parts of speech, rare word senses, etc), or if these performance gaps are due more to the small sample size of the test data. Testing on a wider array of larger synonym selection datasets could yield insight into the models’ shortcomings.

Our models are a noticeable improvement on WSD. Interestingly, the Weighted RETROFIT algorithm achieves the best scores on verbs across all metrics. Again, whether this is a quirk of the specific corpus is unclear. If not, it may indicate that homophones in English tend to be more distinct from each other than other parts of speech, perhaps because of more common metaphorical language use. We at least can say confidently that utilizing more features from WN is an across the board improvement.

**Future Work**

As mentioned above, the limited size and scope of the test sets leaves room for doubt about the models’ performance on new datasets, especially when two datasets for the same task yield strikingly different results, like synonym selection. A useful exploration would be looking at domain-specific datasets and significantly larger datasets to identify which features of the models are most driving the performance.

We also use only a crude model of compound word vectors. An investigation of better compositional semantic models could greatly benefit the algorithm, as a large percentage of WN synsets contain compound words.

Our models are all trained on the relatively low dimensional global feature vectors produced by Huang et al [5], but significantly richer embeddings exist, such as the GoogleNews vectors, which are 300 dimensional and were trained on a 100 billion word corpus using CBOW [10]. We expect that significantly richer embeddings exist, such as the GoogleNews global feature vectors produced by Huang et al. [5], but even more so, other modern models will scale with the quality of the underlying embeddings produced by the RETROFIT algorithms will scale with the quality of the underlying embeddings, and can hope for continual improvement as larger and better datasets become available.

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