PIC a Different Word: A Simple Model for Lexical Substitution in Context

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Abstract
The Lexical Substitution task involves selecting and ranking lexical paraphrases for a target word in a given sentential context. We present PIC, a simple measure for estimating the appropriateness of substitutes in a given context. PIC outperforms another simple, comparable model proposed in recent work, especially when selecting substitutes from the entire vocabulary. Analysis shows that PIC improves over baselines by incorporating frequency biases into predictions.

1 Introduction
Lexical substitution (McCarthy and Navigli, 2009) is a task in which word meaning in context is described not through dictionary senses but through substitutes (paraphrases) chosen by annotators. For example, consider the following usage of the adjective bright: “The bright girl was reading a book.” Valid lexical substitutions for bright include adjectives like smart and intelligent, but not words like luminous or colorful.

Originally introduced as a SemEval task in 2007, lexical substitution has often been used to evaluate the ability of distributional models to handle polysemy (Erk and Padó, 2008; Thater et al., 2010; Dinu and Lapata, 2010; Van de Cruys et al., 2011; Melamud et al., 2015b; Melamud et al., 2015a; Kawakami and Dyer, 2015). Recent models include a simple but high-performing method by Melamud et al. (2015b), which uses the Skip-gram model of Mikolov et al. (Mikolov et al., 2013) to compute the probability of a substitute given a sentence context, and integrates it with the probability of the substitute given the target. The current state of the art is held by another model of Melamud (Melamud et al., 2015a), which uses a more complex architecture.

In this paper we build on the simple model of Melamud et al. (2015b), as simpler methods are easier to recreate and integrate into larger pipelines. We explore a weak form of supervision that recently has proved beneficial on many NLP tasks: using a language modeling task on unannotated data. We find a strong improvement over Melamud’s simple measure, particularly on the all-words ranking task. Interestingly, analysis of PIC shows it improves over baselines by incorporating frequency biases into predictions.

2 Prior Work
In the lexical substitution task, an annotator is given a target word in context and generates one or more substitutes. As multiple annotators label a target, the result is a weighted list of substitutes, where weights indicate how many annotators chose a particular substitute (McCarthy and Navigli, 2009).

There have been numerous approaches on the lexical substitution task of varying complexity and using various lexical resources (McCarthy and Navigli, 2007). Some approaches focus on explicitly modeling an in-context vector (Erk and Padó, 2008; Dinu and Lapata, 2010; Thater et al., 2010; Van de Cruys et al., 2011; Kremer et al., 2014; Kawakami and Dyer, 2015), while others approach it using more sophisticated pipelines, in both super-
vised (Szarvas et al., 2013) and unsupervised (Melamud et al., 2015a) settings. The latter is the current state-of-art system, and is based around generating and pruning second-order word representations using language models.

In this work, we limit our comparisons to the model of Melamud et al. (2015b), a method which performs nearly state-of-art, is extremely easy to implement, and is a good testbed for focused hypotheses. They propose a novel measure which uses dependency-based word and context embeddings derived from Skip-gram Negative Sampling algorithm (SGNS) (Mikolov et al., 2013; Levy and Goldberg, 2014a). Their measure \( \text{addCos} \) for estimating the appropriateness of a substitute \( s \) as a substitute for \( t \) in the context \( C = \{c_1, c_2, \ldots \} \) is defined as follows:

\[
\text{addCos}(s|t, C) = \cos(s, t) + \sum_{c \in C} \cos(s, c).
\]

They also propose a similar measure \( \text{balAddCos} \), which controls for the context size:

\[
\text{balAddCos}(s|t, C) = |C| \cos(s, t) + \sum_{c \in C} \cos(s, c).
\]

3 Proposed Measure

We propose a new measure, called Probability-in-Context (PIC), based on SGNS context vectors to estimate the appropriateness of a lexical substitute. Similar to \( \text{balAddCos} \), the measure has two equally-weighted, independent components measuring the appropriateness of the substitute for both the target and the context, each taking the form of a softmax:

\[
\text{PIC}(s|t, C) = P(s|t) \times P(s|C)
\]

\[
P(s|t) = \frac{1}{Z_t} \exp \left\{ s^T t \right\}
\]

\[
P(s|C) = \frac{1}{Z_C} \exp \left\{ \sum_{c \in C} s^T [Wc + b] \right\}
\]

\( Z_t \) and \( Z_C \) are normalizing constants to make sure each distribution sums to one. This measure has two free parameters, \( W \) and \( b \), which act as a linear transformation over the context vectors. These parameters are estimated from the original corpus, and are trained to maximize the prediction of a target from only its syntactic contexts (c.f. Section 4.4). Given this formulation, a natural question is why not train the embeddings to optimize the softmax directly? We choose to parameterize the measure rather than the embeddings because (i) SGNS embeddings are already popular and readily available and (ii) it ensures the quality of embeddings remains constant across experimental settings.

To measure the importance of parameterization, we also compare to a non-parameterized PIC (nPIC), which only uses a softmax over the dot product:

\[
\text{nPIC}(s|t, C) = P(s|t) \times P_n(s|C)
\]

\[
P_n(s|C) = \frac{1}{Z_n} \exp \left\{ \sum_{c \in C} s^T c \right\}
\]

4 Experimental Setup

We compare our proposed measures to three baselines: OOC, the Out-of-Context cosine similarity between the word and target \( \cos(s, t) \), and the \( \text{addCos} \) and \( \text{balAddCos} \) measures. It is important to note that existing papers on Lexical Substitution all contain subtle differences in experimental setup (vocabulary coverage, candidate pooling, etc.). We compare to our own re-implementation of the baselines, so our numbers differ slightly from those in the literature.

4.1 Data sets

We evaluate on three lexical substitution data sets.

**SE07**: The data set used in the original SemEval 2007 shared task (McCarthy andNavigli, 2007) consists of 201 words manually chosen to exhibit polysemy, with 10 sentences per target. For a given target in a particular context, five annotators were asked to propose up to 3 substitutes. As all our experiments are unsupervised, we always evaluate over the entire data set, rather than the original held-out test set.

**Coinco**: The Concepts-in-Context data set (Kremer et al., 2014) is a large lexical substitution corpus with proposed substitutes for nearly all content
words in roughly 2,500 sentences from a mixture of genres (newswire, emails, and fiction). Crowdsourcing was used to obtain a minimum of 6 contextually-appropriate substitutes for over 15k tokens.

**TSWI2**: The Turk bootstrap Word Sense Inventory 2.0 (Biemann, 2012) is a crowdsourced lexical substitution corpus focused on about 1,000 common English nouns. The data set contains nearly 25,000 contextual uses of these nouns. Though the data set was originally constructed to induce a word-sense lexicon based on common substitution patterns, here we only use it as a lexical substitution data set.

### 4.2 Task Evaluation

We compare models on two variations of the lexical substitution task: candidate ranking and all-words ranking. In the candidate ranking task, the model is given a list of candidates and must select which are most appropriate for the given target. We follow prior work in pooling candidates from all substitutions for a given lemma and POS over all contexts, and measure performance using Generalized Average Precision (GAP). GAP is similar to Mean Average Precision, but weighted by the number of times a substitute was given by annotators. See Thater et al. (2010) for full details of the candidate ranking task.

The second task is the much more difficult task of all-words ranking. In this task, the model is not provided any gold list of candidates, but must select possible substitutes from the entire vocabulary. We measure performance by (micro) mean Precision@1 and P@3: that is, of a system’s top one/three guesses, the percentage also given by human annotators. These evaluation metrics are similar to the best and oot metrics reported in the literature, but we find P@1 and P@3 easier to interpret and analyze.

### 4.3 Word and Context Vectors

We use the word and context vectors released by Melamud et al. (2015b), which were previously shown to perform strongly in lexical substitution tasks. These embeddings were computed from a corpus of (word, relation, context) tuples extracted from ukWaC and processed using the dependency-based word2vec model of Levy and Goldberg (2014a). These embeddings contain 600d vectors for 173k words and about 1M syntactic contexts.

### 4.4 Training Procedure

To train the $W$ and $b$ parameters, we extract tokens with syntactic contexts using the same corpus (ukWaC), parser (Chen and Manning, 2014), and extraction procedure used to generate the embeddings. See (Melamud et al., 2015b) for complete details. After extracting every token with its contexts, we randomly sample 10% of the data to reduce computation time, leaving us with 190M tokens for training $W$ and $b$. We use sampled softmax to reduce training time (Jean et al., 2015), sampling 15 negative candidates uniformly from the vocabulary, optimizing cross-entropy over just these 16 words per sample. We optimize $W$ and $b$ in one epoch of stochastic gradient descent (SGD) with a learning rate of 0.01, momentum of 0.98, and a batch size of 2048. We found all of these hyperparameters worked well initially, and did not tune them.

### 5 Results

Table 1 contains results for all measures across all experimental settings.

The first observation we make is that the PIC measure performs best in all evaluations on all data sets by a significant margin. In the GAP evaluation, all measures perform substantially better than the OOC baseline, and the nPIC measure performs comparably to balAddCos. We note that context-sensitive measures give the most improvement in SE07, reflecting its greater emphasis on polysemy.

As we turn to the all-words ranking evaluations, we observe that the absolute numbers are much lower, reflecting the increased difficulty of the task. We also see that nPIC and PIC both improve greatly over all baselines: The nPIC measure is a relative 30% improvement over balAddCos in SE07 and Coinco, and the PIC measure is a relative 50% improvement over balAddCos in 5 evaluations.

Since both measures have a clear improvement over the baselines, especially in the more difficult

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4All models are also hardcoded not to predict substitutes with the same stem as the target, e.g. for the bright girl example, models cannot predict brighter or brightest.

5http://www.cs.biu.ac.il/nlp/resources/downloads/lexsub_embeddings

6Wilcoxon signed-rank test, $p < 0.01$
Table 1: Lexical Substitution results for candidate ranking (GAP) and all-words ranking tasks (P@1, P@3).

| Measure | SE07 | Coinco | TWSI2 |
|---------|------|--------|-------|
| OOC     | 44.2 | 44.5   | 57.9  |
| addCos  | 51.2 | 46.3   | 62.2  |
| balAddCos | 49.6 | 46.5   | 61.3  |
| nPIC    | 51.3 | 46.4   | 61.8  |
| PIC     | 52.4 | 48.3   | 62.8  |

| All-Words Ranking (Mean Precision@1) |
| OOC     | 11.7 | 10.9   | 9.8   |
| addCos  | 12.9 | 10.5   | 7.9   |
| balAddCos | 13.4 | 11.8   | 9.8   |
| nPIC    | 17.3 | 16.3   | 11.1  |
| PIC     | 19.7 | 18.2   | 13.7  |

| All-Words Ranking (Mean Precision@3) |
| OOC     | 9.7  | 8.6    | 7.0   |
| addCos  | 9.0  | 7.9    | 6.1   |
| balAddCos | 9.8  | 9.1    | 7.4   |
| nPIC    | 13.1 | 12.1   | 7.9   |
| PIC     | 14.8 | 13.8   | 10.1  |

5.1 Analysis

We first an few cherry and lemon-picked examples to give intuitions about why our model performs better. Table 2 contains the cherry example, where our model performs better than prior work. While OOC and balAddCos both suggest replacements with reasonable semantics, but are all misspelled. nPIC and PIC only pick words with the correct spellings, with the exception of “realy.”

Table 3 shows the lemon example, where our model performs worse. We notice that the unusual “sea-change” item is prominent in the OOC and balAddCos models, but has dropped from the rankings in our models. From these and other examples, we hypothesize the model is simply guessing more frequent terms.

We consider a few experiments with this hypothesis that the measures do better because they capture better unigram statistics than the baselines. Recent literature found that the vector norm of SGNS embeddings correlates strongly with word frequency (Wilson and Schakel, 2015). We verified this for ourselves, computing the Spearman’s rank correlation between the corpus unigram frequency and the vector length and found $\rho = 0.90$, indicating the two correlate very strongly. Since the dot product is also the unnormalized cosine, it follows that nPIC and PIC should depend on unigram frequency.

To verify that the nPIC and PIC measures are indeed preferring more frequent substitutes, we compare the single best predictions (P@1) of the balAddCos and nPIC systems on all-words prediction on Coinco. Roughly 42% of the predictions made by the systems are identical, but of the remaining items, 74% of predictions made by nPIC have a higher corpus frequency than balAddCos (where chance is 50%). We find balAddCos and PIC make the same prediction 37% of the time, and PIC predicts a more frequent word in 83% of remaining items. The results for SE07 and TWSI2 are similar.

This indicates that the unigram bias is even higher for PIC than nPIC. To gain more insight, we manually inspect the learned parameters $W$ and $b$. We find that the $W$ matrix is nearly diagonal, with the values along the diagonal normally distributed around $\mu = 1.11$ ($\sigma = 0.02$) and the rest of the matrix normally distributed roughly around 0 ($\mu=2e-5$, $\sigma=0.02$). This is to say, the PIC model is approximately learning to exaggerate the magnitude of the dot product, $s^T c$. This suggests one could even replace our parameter $W$ with a single scaling parameter, though we leave this for future work.

To inspect the bias $b$, we compute the inner product of the $b$ vector with the word embedding matrix, to find each word’s a priori bias, and correlate it with word frequencies. We find $\rho = 0.25$, indicating that $b$ is also capturing unigram statistics.

Is it helpful in lexical substitution to prefer more frequent substitutes? To test this, we pool all annotator responses for all contexts in Coinco, and find the number of times a substitute is given correlates strongly with frequency ($\rho = 0.54$).

These results emphasize the importance of incorporating unigram frequencies when attempting the lexical substitution task (as with many other tasks in NLP). Compared to cosine, the dot product in nPIC stresses unigram frequency, and the parameters $W$ and $b$ strengthen this tendency.
You can sort of challenge them well, did you really know the time when you said yes? 

| OOC | balAddCos | nPIC | PIC |
|-----|-----------|------|-----|
| really | truly | proably | really |
| actually | truly | trully | actually |
| actually | actuallly | actually | already |
| acutally | acutally | hardly | barely |
| probaly | probaly | definitely | just |

Table 2: Example where the PIC performs better in the All-Words Ranking task. The target word and correct answers are bolded.

| OOC | balAddCos | nPIC | PIC |
|-----|-----------|------|-----|
| sea-change | alter | reoccur | re-occur |
| alter | sea-change | re-occur | appear |
| shift | shift | prevail | overstate |
| downshift | downshift | deviate | differ |
| re-configure | increase/decrease | divulged | disappear |

Table 3: Example where the PIC performs worse the All-Words Ranking task. The target word and correct answers are bolded.

6 Conclusion

We have presented PIC, a simple new measure for assessing the appropriateness of a substitute in a particular context for the Lexical Substitution task. The measure assesses the fit of the substitute both to the target word and the sentence context. It significantly outperforms comparable baselines from prior work, and does not require any additional lexical resources. An analysis indicates its performance improvements derive primarily from a tendency to lean more strongly on unigram statistics than baselines. In future work, our measure could be simplified by implementing the bias as a single scaling parameter.

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