

Multilingual Word Embeddings from Sentence Representations

Benno Kruit

10576223

benno.kruit@student.uva.nl

Sara Veldhoen

10545298

sara.veldhoen@student.uva.nl

Abstract

This is an abstract

1 Introduction

2 Related Work

Some research has focused on the induction of multilingual word embeddings, using both different techniques to obtain word representations, and different approaches to the cross-lingual aspects. The evaluation methods applied also vary a lot.

2.1 Linear Mapping

According to Mikolov et al. (Mikolov et al., 2013b), the vector space of word representations in different languages are geometrically similar, because words in languages are grounded in real world concepts. It is therefore possible to find a linear mapping between these vector spaces.

The approach is to first train word embeddings on large monolingual data for both languages separately, using the `word2vec` implementation. In the reported experiments, the so-called CBOW architecture is used, that predicts a word given its context in both directions. Notably, the authors also propose a way to include some phrases: multi-word expressions. This may prove useful for translation, as one multiple words can together express a concept that has a single word in another language.

Using a relatively small set of gold standard word translations, in this case obtained from Google Translate, a transformation matrix W is searched. The training objective is to minimize the distance between words that are translations of one another.

The evaluation is performed on a test set of gold-standard word translations, again from Google Translate. The word representation in the source language is transformed using W , and a

ranked list of the nearest words in the target language is the output. The precision at ranks 1 and 5 is reported.

2.2 Multitask Learning

Distributed representations for a pair of languages are induced jointly by Klementiev and Titov (Klementiev et al., 2012). Words in both languages are represented in a single vector space.

The induction is treated as a multitask learning problem where each task corresponds to a single word. The training influences other tasks depending on the task-relatedness. The latter is derived from co-occurrence statistics in bilingual parallel data: the number of alignment links between that word and its (supposed) translations.

The word representations are induced in a neural language model architecture. The n preceding words form the context, their representations are concatenated to form a context vector. The probability of the next word occurring is predicted from this vector. The training procedure aims to find the word representations that minimize the data (log) likelihood: $L(\theta) = \sum_{t=1}^T \log \hat{P}_{\theta}(w_t | w_{t-n+1:t-1})$.

The method is evaluated on a real-world task: crosslingual document classification. Topic annotations are available for documents in one of the languages, and the system predicts the topics of documents in the other language. The jointly induced word representation outperform two other approaches to the problem: glossing (where every word in the document is translated separately, based on word alignments) and Machine Translation.

2.3 Joint Learning from Sentence Embeddings

Unlike the previous approaches, Hermann and Blunsum (Hermann and Blunsum, 2013) start from sentence alignments, which share the same semantics. The assumption is that some function

can describe the composition of word embeddings into a sentence embedding. For the sake of argument, the authors use a simple bag-of-words additive interpretation of composition. The word embeddings are induced jointly for both languages from these sentence-embeddings, by minimizing the distance between both sums of word embeddings. In order to make sure the weights won't be reduced to zero, similarity between unaligned sentence embeddings is penalized.

The same evaluation as in (Klementiev et al., 2012) is applied, i.e. the document classification task. Furthermore, the authors present a graphical qualitative analysis. In (Hermann, 2014), this approach is expanded by evaluating on a larger number of language pairs.

2.4 An Autoencoder approach

3 Sentence embeddings from parallel data

Like most of the afore-mentioned approaches, we aim to induce multilingual word embeddings from parallel data. In order to make sure the semantic spaces for all languages are aligned, we rely solely upon the fact that sentences are aligned without using word alignments. We introduce the `paragraph2vec` from (Le and Mikolov, 2014) that we extend for this purpose, and explain how we use it to obtain word embeddings.

3.1 `paragraph2vec`

An efficient model to induce word embeddings from (monolingual) text is called `word2vec` and was introduced in (Mikolov et al., 2013a). It was extended to a version that can induce the same kind of embeddings for paragraphs: `paragraph2vec` (Le and Mikolov, 2014). A paragraph in this case can be any sequence of words, e.g. a sentence, paragraph or entire document. There are two different models to induce them, called PV-DM (distributed memory) and PV-DBOW (distributed bag of words). The authors combine paragraphs obtained from both models in their experiments.

In the DM model, a *paragraph vector* is used as a part of the context of each word in the sequence (figure 1a). The hidden layer is formed by taking the average (or sum) of the sentence vector and word vectors of the context. The network tries to predict the index of the word that was left out of the context. This way, the paragraph vector influ-

ences the learned representations of those words in the same way that their context words do.

In the DBOW model, no word embeddings are trained. Rather, the sentence embedding is trained by trying to predict the indexes of all words that occur in the sentence (see figure 1b).

3.2 Embeddings for parallel sentences

This paragraph representation could also be used for encouraging similarity between two bitext sentences. In our novel approach, we will run the algorithm from (Le and Mikolov, 2014), but using the same paragraph vector when training word vectors from parallel sentences. The sentence representation therefore acts as a way to relate the word spaces in both languages, without using word alignments. We hope this will create a word vector space that is trainable on both monolingual and parallel data, allowing for the mitigation of sparsity in all languages.

We will explore at least two training methods:

- Sequentially training all sentence pairs. As a paragraph id, we use a single identifier for every sentence pair in the bitext. This is equivalent to concatenating the parallel sentences and training from the context windows that do not bridge the sentence boundary.
- A two-step process: First creating paragraph representations for each sentence pair from a fully trained monolingual model. The information from the words in the first language will create a representation for the sentence. Then, we fix the sentence representations and train the word spaces in each language using these vectors. These sentence vectors will influence the learning of word embeddings in the other languages. The error gradient for the sentence vector can either be distributed over the words or be discarded.

The model is depicted in figure 2. From the embedding of a single parallel sentence representation, the network tries to predict all words that occur in the sentence either language. Note that no word embeddings are trained, only word indexes are predicted from the sentence embedding. The error is propagated back to train the sentence embeddings.

Another training procedure relies on the previous experiments. It is based on the distributed

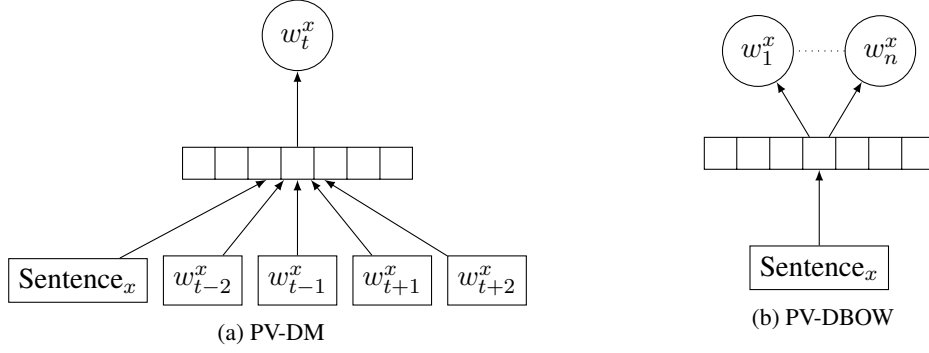


Figure 1: paragraph2vec models

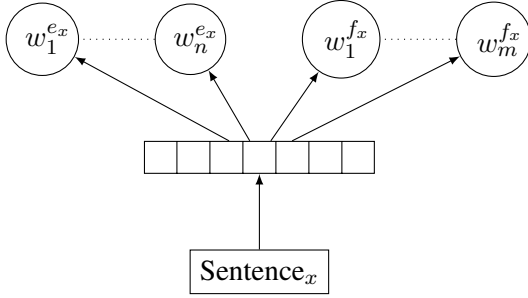


Figure 2: Bilingual PV-DBOW

memory training from paragraph2vec and is illustrated in figure 3. The sentence embeddings that resulted from the dbow training were used and kept fixed. The word word embeddings from the previous experiment to initialize the multilingual DM setting. The idea is to further refine the word embeddings using a smaller context. However, the training occurs independently for both languages and the commonality of the semantic space relies solely on the sentence embeddings.

4 Obtaining multilingual word embeddings

5 Evaluation

It is not trivial to measure the quality of the multilingual word embeddings. The semantic space should be reliable for each language in isolation, and consistent across languages. Even the former is not easy to assess. In (Mikolov et al., 2013a), an analogy task is introduced to this aim, which we apply to our English word embeddings as well.

The latter is evaluated on a real-world task of cross-lingual document classification. The models we use rely on bag-of-words representations of sentences, as explained in section 4. Therefore, we do not expect a fine-grained semantic analysis of

sentences and words but rather capture something like ‘topicality’. It thus make sense to apply a document classification task, following the evaluation strategy of (Klementiev et al., 2012; ?; Hermann and Blunsom, 2014).

5.1 Word analogy task

5.2 Document classification - RCV

In (Klementiev et al., 2012) a cross-lingual document classification task is introduced. The task, that is also used in (Hermann and Blunsom, 2013), is based on Reuters corpora, which has topic-annotated documents. The evaluation data is available for English and German documents that belong to a single topic, and thus the gold standard can be represented by a one-hot vector.

A vector representation is obtained for each document in the dataset. In (Klementiev et al., 2012), the document vector is the average of the representations of its *tokens*, weighted by *idf* score. In (Hermann and Blunsom, 2013), the document vector is the average of the representations of its *sentences*. We use both approaches, depending on the experimental settings.

As a classifier, we use the implementation of an averaged perceptron algorithm from (Klementiev et al., 2012). It is trained to predict classes (topics) from document representations. In the cross-lingual setting, the perceptron is trained for document classification in one language, and tested on data in another resulting in a classification accuracy score. If the semantic space is coherent between languages, performance should not diverge much between monolingual and cross-lingual document classification.

The topics in the RCV evaluation sets belong to four topics: Corporate/Industrial, Economics, Government/Social, and Markets. For both lan-

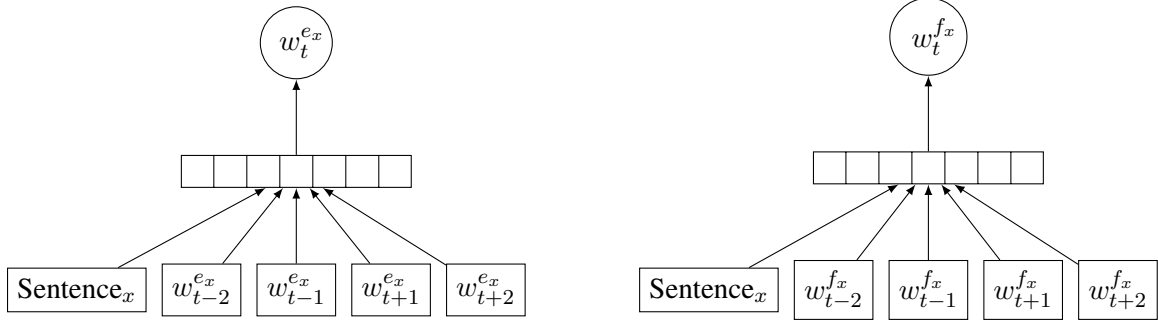


Figure 3: Bilingual PV-DM

guages, the documents are split into train sets with 100, 200, 500, 1000, 5000 and 100000 documents, and a test set of around 5000 documents. As a baseline, we compute chance accuracy for the majority class estimate. For both languages, the majority class was Markets, with around 46.8% of the documents.

5.3 TED document classification

The WIT TED corpus (Cettolo et al., 2012) contains short documents with transcriptions and translations of TED talks, with topic annotations. The original distribution was aimed at machine translation, but (Hermann and Blunsom, 2014) propose it for a multilingual document classification task. The major advantage of this task over the previous one, is the availability of documents in many languages. It has documents in English sentence-aligned with other languages, six of which are also in the Europarl data we use for obtaining our data: Spanish, French, German, Italian, Dutch, and Portuguese.

The classification labels in this set are technology, culture, science, global issues, design, business, entertainment, arts, politics, education, art, health, creativity, economics, and biology. Note that contrary to the previous task, a document can have more than one topic annotation. A binary classifier is thus trained for each topic, using the same system as before. Performance is reported both as classification accuracy and F1 score. As the chance accuracy for majority class is quite high, since there are only few positive examples per class, F1 is more informative for comparing performance.

The majority class estimate is not usable as a baseline for F1 performance: as the majority of the documents are labeled negative, precision would be zero and thus F1 too (or, actually, unde-

fined). As an alternative baseline, we compare to a stochastic classifier that predicts ‘true’ with probability $P = pos/total$. The expected number of True Positives is thus $P * pos = P^2 * |X|$, the expected False Positives and False Negatives are both $P * (1 - P) * |X|$. We can now compute expected F1:

$$\begin{aligned} F1 &= \frac{2 * TP}{2 * TP + FN + FP} \\ &= \frac{2 * P^2 * |X|}{2 * P^2 * |X| + 2((1 - P) * P * |X|)} \\ &= P \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we use the ratio of positive examples as a baseline for the performance on TED data.

6 Experiments and results

We conducted several experiments using the multilingual `paragraph2vec` models described in 3. In this section, the training data and implementations we use are explained. We report empirical results for different experimental set-ups.

6.1 Data

For training the sentence and word embeddings, we use 50 000 sentences of Europarl data, unless stated otherwise.. The documents are sentence-aligned across English, German, Dutch, French, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese. These cross-lingual sentence alignments were created by matching the English side of all pairwise aligned corpora. All documents were tokenized and lower-cased. No other preprocessing, such as stemming, was applied.

In all experiments, words that occurred fewer than five times were excluded. The resulting vocabulary sizes in this dataset are presented in table 1.

	Europarl 50k	Europarl 500k
English	8377	24403
German	11578	47071
Dutch	10008	
French	11092	
Spanish	10865	
Italian	11503	
Portuguese	11101	

Table 1: Vocabulary size for Europarl data using a rare word cut-off of 5.

6.2 Implementation

6.3 Sentence embeddings from multilingual dbow

Using our multilingual version of the paragraph2vec dbow architecture, we obtain sentence embeddings for parallel sentences: DE-EN are German and English paired, multi are all 7 aligned languages, EN and DE are monolingually trained sentence embeddings trained with the original dbow model. In each case, the model is trained on Europarl data, for 10 epochs. We start with a learning rate (α) of 0.025, which is decreased with 0.002 after each epoch.

In order to evaluate the quality of the sentence embeddings, we obtain sentence representations for the (parallel) TED corpus. We use the trained model, keeping the softmax weights fixed and training the TED sentence representations for 10 iterations.

We apply the induced sentence embeddings to the document classification task. In this case, we take the document representation to simply be the average of its sentence embeddings. These representations are then used to train and test the two document classification tasks. The results on TED data are in the second column of table 2.

6.4 Word embeddings from sentence embeddings

We compare to the multitask-learning approach by (Klementiev et al., 2012) described in section 2. A distribution of word embeddings in four language pairs (German-English, Czech-English, French-English, and Spanish-English) is available on <http://klementiev.org/data/distrib/>. The alignments used to populate the interaction matrix are obtained from the Europarl corpus. The word embeddings of the German-English part of the data are trained on the Reuters

data that also make up the RCV evaluation set. Note that the amount and nature of training data is quite different from ours, as are the vectors lengths: 40.

We explore how the resulting sentence embeddings can be used to induce word embeddings in two languages. The word embeddings are in the same space and anticipated to be aligned crosslingually, because the sentence representations for bilingual sentences are equal.

In one setting, we define the word representation as the average of the embeddings of all sentences it occurs in. We evaluate the word embeddings that result from this.

7 Discussion and future work

A distribution of word embeddings in four language pairs (German-English, Czech-English, French-English, and Spanish-English) <http://klementiev.org/data/distrib/>

8 Conclusion

References

- [Cettolo et al.2012] Mauro Cettolo, Christian Girardi, and Marcello Federico. 2012. Wit³: Web inventory of transcribed and translated talks. In *Proceedings of the 16th Conference of the European Association for Machine Translation (EAMT)*, pages 261–268, Trento, Italy, May.
- [Hermann and Blunsom2013] Karl Moritz Hermann and Phil Blunsom. 2013. Multilingual distributed representations without word alignment.
- [Hermann and Blunsom2014] Karl Moritz Hermann and Phil Blunsom. 2014. Multilingual Models for Compositional Distributional Semantics. In *Proceedings of ACL*.
- [Hermann2014] Karl Moritz Hermann. 2014. *Distributed Representations for Compositional Semantics*. Ph.D. thesis.
- [Klementiev et al.2012] Alexandre Klementiev, Ivan Titov, and Binod Bhattacharai. 2012. Inducing crosslingual distributed representations of words.
- [Le and Mikolov2014] Quoc V. Le and Tomas Mikolov. 2014. Distributed Representations of Sentences and Documents.
- [Mikolov et al.2013a] Tomas Mikolov, Kai Chen, Greg Corrado, and Jeffrey Dean. 2013a. Efficient estimation of word representations in vector space. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1301.3781*.
- [Mikolov et al.2013b] Tomas Mikolov, Quoc V Le, and Ilya Sutskever. 2013b. Exploiting similarities among languages for machine translation.

Sentences trained on:	sentence quality	Classification [train]-[test]			
		EN-EN	DE-DE	EN-DE	DE-EN
EN	.293	.186	.134	.084	.153
DE	.305	.132	.091	.076	.132
DE-EN	.378	.194	.127	.100	.136
multi		.297	.196	.206	.226

Table 2: F1 scores on TED classification task for sentence representations and word representations.