Automated Ontology Matching and Construction using Cross-lingual Embeddings

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

In this paper we propose a method for matching ontologies, taxonomies and other forms of graph-trees with textual information using hierarchical information and cross-lingual embeddings.

1 Introduction

There are numerous structured information representations containing texts in forms of titles, descriptions or definitons. Among them we can name ontologies, taxonomies, lexical databases such as WordNet (Miller, 1995). Many of them exist only for English. Many researchers have tried automatically converting such resources from English into their languages. Mostly attempts were focused on using machine translation engines, bilingual dictionaries or parallel corpora (Khodak et al., 2017; Neale, 2018). All this resources are very rare except most popular languages. Some works used word embeddings, which proved to be a powerful tool for dense text representations after papers by Bengio (Bengio et al., 2003) and Mikolov (Mikolov et al., 2013a). However, first word vector representations models were monolingual only. Soon researchers proposed cross-lingual word embedding models (Mikolov et al., 2013c; Lazaridou et al., 2015). Unfortunately, most of the early works in this domain relied on massive parallel corpora. This solution is not really applicable to low-resource languages due to the lack of available data.

Learning mappings between embeddings from different languages or sources has proven to be a rather efficient method for solving this problem to some extent (Ruder et al., 2017).

Thus, Alexis Conneau et al. (Conneau et al., 2017) have published a programming library called MUSE to map embeddings from two different sources into a single space. They have reached 81.7% accuracy for English-Spanish and 83.7% for Spanish English pairs for top-1500 source queries in a completely unsupervised mode. For English-Russian and Russian-English their results are not as high and they achieved accuracy of 51.7% and 63.7% respectively. Their FastText embeddings were trained on respective Wikipedia datasets for each corresponding language.

Artetxe, Labaka and Agirre have investigated into limitations of MUSE and show its results to be low for some language pairs, e.g. English-Finnish (0.38% accuracy). They also present their own solution called Vecmap (Artetxe et al., 2018) that outperforms MUSE for this task. It gets 37.33% for Spanish-English on average of 10 runs and 37.60% as the best result (they estimate MUSE result to be 21.23% on average of 10 runs and 36.20% at best) and 32.63% on average for the English-Finnish language pair.

In this paper we propose a method for matching ontologies, taxonomies and other forms of graph-trees with textual information using hierarchical information and cross-lingual embeddings. It makes it possible to match ontology graphs containing textual descriptions in different languages. As the example of such taxonomy we use national product classifications: US NIGP-5 and Russian OKPD2. Matching national product classifications is of extreme importance because it facilitates worldwide trade and helps in bridging the gap between inconsistent product standards of the world economies. According to the UN (uns) there are at least 909 (the list seems incomplete - e.g. the currently used OKPD2 for Russia is not listed) classifications from 159 countries and most of them except the most prominent ones are unaligned. OKPD2 is a Russian national classification for goods and services introduced in 2014. It has a four-level hierarchy. Categories consist of a code and its description (e.g. 01.11.11.112 - Seeds

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of winter durum wheat where code 01.11.1 corresponds to "Wheat"). NIGP-5 is its 2-level US analogue (e.g. 620-80 would be "pens" and 620 – "office supplies").

Taxonomy/Ontology matching is a rather challenging problem because of the vast number of possible variants of matching which is challenging even for specialists and requires a lot of time. This is also made more difficult by the fact that matching is not one-by-one but many-to-many (some categories from one product classification may be broad enough to correspond to several categories from the other classification) and should be made across several hierarchy levels. Moreover, it requires expert and language knowledge which is especially difficult to come by in cases of rare languages and taxonomies. Thus, our product classification matching algorithm should satisfy several criteria.

Due to the lack of resources for rare languages the algorithm should be:

1. be language independent

2. not require parallel texts

   Due to the lack of expert knowledge the algorithm should be:

3. be fully or partially unsupervised

2 Related work

There are numerous papers concerned with taxonomies and ontologies matching. The problem of matching product taxonomies was also studied by Gordeev et al. in (2018).

Процитировать себя

3 Cross-lingual embeddings

MUSE is based on the work by Conneau et al. (Conneau et al., 2017). It consists of two algorithms. The first one which is used only in unsupervised cases is a pair of adversarial neural networks. The first neural network is trained to predict from which distribution $\{X, Y\}$ embeddings come. The second neural networks is trained to modify embeddings X multiplying it by matrix W to prevent the first neural network from making accurate discriminations. Thus, at the end of the training we get a matrix WX which is aligned with matrix Y.

The second method is supervised and the aim is to find a linear mapping W between embedding
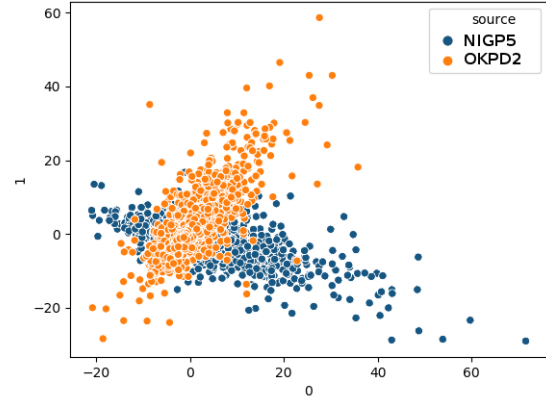

Figure 1: PCA visualisation of averaged FastText MUSE vectors for OKPD2 and NIGP-5 taxonomies

spaces X and Y which can be solved using Orthogonal Procrustes problem:

$$W^* = argmin_W ||WX - Y||_F = UV^T$$

where UV^T is derived using singular value decomposition $SVD(YX^T) = U\Sigma V^T$ This method is used iteratively with the default number of iterations in MUSE equal to 5. As Søgaard, Ruder and Vulić state Procrustes refinement relies on frequent word pairs to serve as reliable anchors.

Conneau et al. also apply cross-domain similarity local scaling to reduce the hubness problem to which cross-lingual embeddings are prone to (Dinu et al., 2015). It uses cosine distance between a source embedding and k-target embeddings (the default k in MUSE is 10) instead of the usual cosine distance to generate a dictionary.

$$sim_{source/target} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^{K} cos(x, nn_i)$$

$$CSLS(x, y) = 2cos(x, y) - sim_{source}(x) - sim_{target}(y)$$

Vecmap (Artetxe et al., 2018) is close in its idea to the Procrustes refinement, it computes SVD-factorization $SVD(YX^T) = U\Sigma V^T$ and replaces X and Y with new matrices $X' = U$ and $Y' = V$. The authors also propose normalization and whitening (sphering transformation). After applying whitening new matrices are equal to: $X' = (X^T X)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ and $Y' = (Y^T Y)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$

Jawanpuria et al. (Jawanpuria et al., 2018) propose a method which is also based on SVD-factorization but in smooth Riemannian manifolds instead of Euclidean space.

Ivan Vulić, Wim De Smet and Marie-Francine Moens used BiLDA for cross-language information retrieval which is similar to the task of classification matching. In this LDA variant topic distributions are considered to be equivalent for same articles from different languages (Vulić et al., 2013). However, in our case this method is unlikely to perform because LDA requires longer texts (Yan et al., 2013). Word embeddings methods are preferable for short texts (Maslova and Potapov, 2017).

3.1 Simplistic use of word embeddings for graph representations

In this paper we use a very simple baseline for representing graphs. We represent higher levels of hierarchy as averaged embeddings of lower levels, thus we use a bottom-up approach.

4 Graph Matching

There are many methods for graph matching. Many of them are based on graph edit distance. However, they usually exhibit strong requirements for graph isomorphism. Unfortunately, most taxonomies do not satisfy this requirement (e.g. even in cases of a WordNet one word may have different synsets that may be absent from the other language). Inexact matching methods that overcome this constraint are based on spectral decompositions of graphs using eigenvalues or on weighted graph matchings (Conte et al., 2004). Given that we deal with cross-lingual embeddings it seemed reasonable to adapt a weight matching algorithm for our task. Thus, we used our hierarchical modification of the so-called Hungarian algorithm (Lawler, p. 201) (Riesen and Bunke, 2010, p. 48). We also compared it with the greedy method, where we just select the vector with the highest similarity.

4.1 The Hungarian method

We use a hierarchical version of the Hungarian algorithm. The algorithm takes as the input a similarity matrix of the size $n \times m$. If $m < n$, the matrix is transposed. As given by Brauner et al. in 2004 the algorithm looks the following way:

1. For the initial weight matrix subtract the minimum from each row and then subtract the minimum from each column.

2. Construct a maximum independent set and a minimal cover of same cardinality k. Exit if k = n.

3. Let h be the minimum of all non covered elements. Add $h = 2$ to all elements in each covering line. Then subtract $h = 2$ from each noncovered line. This results in h being subtracted from all noncovered elements, and h being added to all doubly covered elements. All entries that are only covered once remain unchanged.

4. Goto step 2.

For each level of the hierarchy we repeat the algorithm. For nodes that were invalidated at the previous (because they correspond to another branch of the tree) similarities are set to 0. If yet they are chosen by the algorithm we consider that this node is not present in the graph. Thus, we overcome the problems between taxonomies/ontologies.

5 Data

5.1 Taxonomies

Table 1: Taxonomy examples

Category code	Category description (with translation from Russian)	Bid description
325-25	Dog and Cat Food	Dog Food: Blue Buffalo Chicken and Brown Rice Food
43.31.10	Работы штукатурные Plastering Works	Overhaul of the Basement Of The Administration Building

In this study we use two national product classifications as examples of cross-lingual taxonomies. Both NIGP-5 and OKPD2 are used to classify products and services. However, they differ in the way products are described (two-level vs four-level hierarchy) as well as in the amount of described categories (8700 for NIGP-5 (wik, b) vs 17416 for OKPD2 (wik, a)). It means that two graphs that might describe these product classifications are not isomorphic (contain the same number of graph vertices connected in the same way and may be transformed into one another) by itself. It does not imply that they may not be made isomorphic by disregarding some vertices (e.g. using some threshold or similarity measure) and then aligned using graph matching methods but it complicates their alignment. It should be also noted that some notions from one classification

may not exist in the other (e.g. popular in Russia curd snacks and traditional Russian felt footwear 'valenki' do not appear in NIGP-5).

The data for the Russian taxonomy OKPD2 was collected from them Russian state website Gosza-kupki [1], which contains purchases made by state entities. The data for the US national classification was collected from the US state website data.gov [2]. We have used only marketplace bids by the state of Maryland because they were the only found entries that contained bids descriptions not matching code-descriptions that are required for training Doc2Vec. Extracts from taxonomies can be seen in Table 1.

5.2 WordNet

We use English WordNet provided by the NLTK package (Miller, 1995; Bird, 2006). It contains 117'659 synsets. Among them the vast majority does not have hyponyms (97'651) and 30'062 lacks hypernyms (29'716 lacks any hierarchical relations). In this study we examined only nouns (82'115). Because of the small size of the MUSE model we had to use only 22'566 synsets that are included both in the model and in the WordNet.

6 Experiments

In this paper we have conducted two experiments. In the first experiment we compared different methods for products taxonomy matching. In the second we used the same methods for unsupervised WordNet construction.

6.1 NIGP and OKPD2 matching

Several methods and their combinations were used for mapping taxonomy embeddings. As the first method as described by (Gordeev et al., 2018) we tried to train doc2vec embeddings and map them directly using Vecmap or MUSE. However, due to the differences between graphs we failed to reach any meaningful result.

We also made a simple baseline with category descriptions transformed into English using Google Translate. We considered category descriptions from each taxonomy as bags of words, then for a set of words from the first taxonomy we calculated averaged similarity to all category descriptions from the second taxonomy and chose the category from the second taxonomy with the

largest similarity. Thus, our method resembles Monge-Elkan similarity (Christen, 2012, p. 111):

$$mapping\{A_i, B\}_{i=1}^{|A|} = max_{j=1}^{|B|}\{sim(A_i, B_j)\}$$

where

$$sim = \frac{|A_i \cap B_j|}{2} + \frac{|B_j \cap A_i|}{2}$$

We used our custom similarity function to fine the function in the cases when the first set of strings is short in comparison with the second set (or the opposite).

We also used hierarchical information to modify mappings from direct string comparison and averaged Word2vec descriptions.

For taxonomy matching using cross-lingual embeddings we tried two approaches: top-down and bottom-up. For the top-down approach we took upper-level category descriptions and transformed them into embeddings using pre-trained MUSE embeddings (Conneau et al., 2017). We used the averaging scheme (we checked various embedding weighting schemes (e.g. TF-IDF) but did not observe any considerable difference.) For the bottom-up approach the lowest level of hierarchy was also attained with averaging description embeddings. Upper-level vectors were gained via averaging their constituent node embeddings. As in the top-down approach. After getting a vector for each category we built layer-wise similarity matrices between taxonomies. Then we applied either Hungarian or greedy method for matching the taxonomies. After getting closest categories for the first layer, we looked only for categories that corresponded to the category chosen at the upper level (e.g. if the chosen category code is 64.12 at the next level we look only for categories 64.12.1, 64.12.2).

6.2 Russian WordNet construction using cross-lingual word embeddings

We use an extension approach where we take the existing English WordNet and transform its synsets into Russian (Neale, 2018). As with taxonomies we built a Wordnet tree using hypernym-hyponym relations between synsets. Also we build a list of Russian nouns using the rnnmorph library [3]. Then for the bottom WordNet layer we looked for the closest Russian nouns using most-similar

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[1] www.zakupki.gov.ru

[2] https://www.data.gov/

[3] https://github.com/IlyaGusev/rnnmorph

function (cosine similarity) provided by the library Gensim (Řehůřek and Sojka, 2010). After that, just as in the case with taxonomy matching we constructed embeddings for the upper level averaging bottom-level vectors. We used the same hyponym-hyperonym relations as for English.

7 Results

7.1 Taxonomy matching

Table 2: Taxonomy examples

Method	Accuracy %
bottom-up hungarian	47.5
bottom-up greedy	45
top-down hungarian	33
top-down greedy	25.5

7.2 Wordnet construction

Table 3: Taxonomy examples

Method	Accuracy %
bottom-up hungarian	47.5
bottom-up greedy	45
top-down hungarian	33
top-down greedy	25.5

8 Discussion

9 Conclusion

10 Mapping methods

10.1 Matching methods

We tried several matching techniques:

1. Untranslated texts in the common embedding space.

   We used cross-lingual embeddings in a single vector space provided by the authors of MUSE (i.e. vectors for "cat" and its Russian translation "кот" are close to each other). Using these embeddings we trained Word2Vec and got averaged vectors for each category using its description.

11 Annotation procedure

Mappings made by all methods were manually annotated on top-N examples according to the corresponding similarity metric (cosine distance for vectors and our string similarity function for strings similarity). If for the first 50 (about top-1%) examples the accuracy was below 1% we dropped annotation for this method. The probability for at least one correct example for a random matching method is difficult to estimate (there may be several categories from the second classification that correspond to the category from the first classification and we do not have the reference alignment) but it may be estimated as 0.006%. Otherwise, we annotated top-5% (231 examples). The annotation included three classes: True, False, Partially true. Partially true examples are usually those that are too specific (fuel management -> nuclear fuel management; rubber shoes -> women rubber shoes; property management services -> state property management) or just not accurate enough according to the assessor. During accuracy estimation "partially true" entries were considered as wrong matches.
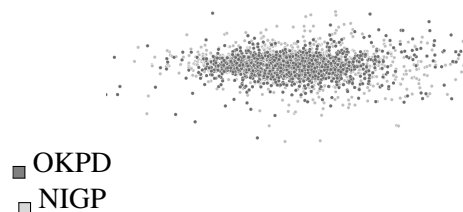
12 Results

■ OKPD
□ NIGP

Figure 2: PCA visualisation of averaged Word2Vec vectors for OKPD and NIGP-5 taxonomies after applying unsupervised MUSE
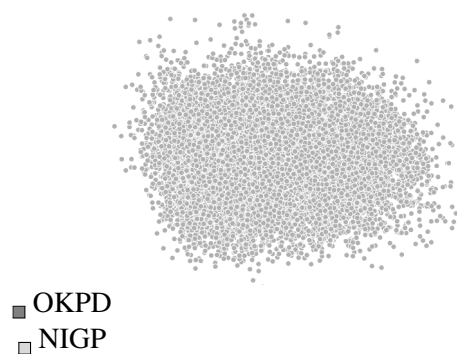

■ OKPD
□ NIGP

Figure 3: PCA visualisation of averaged Word2Vec vectors for OKPD and NIGP-5 taxonomies after applying supervised Vecmap with 50% categories in the dictionary

In the Table 3 we can see annotation results for top-n best matches according to cosine distances

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Table 4: Illustration of category allignment

| Source Category Code	Source Category description	Target Category Code	Target Category Description (translated from Russian)	Result
800-16	Shoes and Boots: Boots, Rubber	43.31.10	Сапоги резиновые Rubber boots	True
958-78	Management Services Property Management Services	84.11.19.110	Услуги государственного управления имуществом State property management services	Partially True (state)
936-70	Roofing Equipment and Machinery Maintenance and Repair	33.12.23.000	Услуги по ремонту и техническому обслуживанию оборудования для металлургии Services in repair and maintenance service of the equipment for metallurgy	False
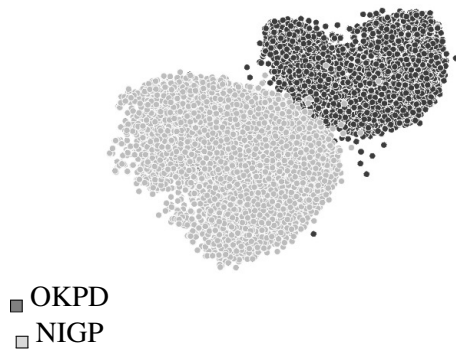
Figure 4: T-SNE visualisation of original doc2vec embeddings

between vectors and the string similarity score for the translation method.

Figure 4 shows that original embeddings (Fig. 1) can be successfully clustered using t-SNE. Vecmap and MUSE manage to align both spaces (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3) successfully so that they are not linearly separable. However, as can be seen from Table 5 unsupervised matching techniques fail to properly align taxonomy embeddings. MUSE and Vecmap failed to achieve accuracy above 0%. Word2Vec and string matching demonstrate better results at the level of alignments for low-resource languages reported by Conneau and Søgaard. Results from averaged Word2vec after alignment are worse than those of translated string comparison which may be attributed to pre-trained embeddings being from a different domain. Moreover, averaging tends to make to broad assumptions (thematic in nature) which is unsuitable for the current task. Doc2vec unsurprisingly gets worse results because of the lack of training data. Unfortunately, for low-resource languages string matching is impossible without a working translation solution which unsupervised cross-lingual dictionary alignment strives to solve.

The surprising fact that Vecmap and Muse cannot align data even in supervised and semi-supervised modes with dictionaries created after Word2Vec or string-alignment matching. It can be partially attributed to the insufficient accuracy of the provided dictionaries or a very low amount of categories (in comparison to words). However, it is possible that both methods latently and mainly depend on word frequencies and other similar distributive information provided by word embeddings. Also supervised mapping adjustment turned out to be strong for our dataset.

Using pre-aligned cross-lingual embeddings might appear to be helpful and is useful for rare languages which lack efficient translation engines. Thus, the procedure would be: first, to train word-embeddings using some corpora from a common domain (e.g. Wikipedia), then align them using MUSE or Vecmap. After that, those embeddings may be used to map category descriptions. It should be also noted that mappings annotated as wrong were not completely incorrect and were usually on topic (e.g. acids -> oils; engine maintenance -> auto body repair; sewage treatment equipment -> sewage treatment services). Thus, some other procedure rather than Word2vec averaging might demonstrate better results for this task.

According to our results, it seems unlikely that unsupervised matching techniques might result in sufficiently good dictionary alignment and machine translation for rare languages (e.g. those that do not have rich corpora like Wikipedia and currently there are only 61 languages with the number of Wikipedia articles exceeding 100'000).

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Table 5: Comparison of matching methods for top-n entries by cosine distance

Method Description	Correct matches	Partially correct matches	Wrong matches	Accuracy (%)
Translated strings comparison	126	31	74	55
Averaged Word2Vec for translated descriptions	102	53	76	44
Doc2Vec for translated descriptions	0	0	50	0
Unsupervised MUSE with different parameters (none is better)	0	0	50	0
Supervised MUSE with different parameters and reference dictionaries with 1,30,50 and 70% of the vocabulary (none is better)	0	0	50	0
Vecmap supervised, semi-supervised with various dictionary sizes (10, 30, 50, 70) and unsupervised	0	0	50	0
averaged Word2Vec using cross-lingual embeddings in single space	45	19	167	19.5
Hierarchical string comparison	48	40	143	20.8
Hierarchical averaged Word2vec	94	43	94	40.7
Hierarchical averaged Word2Vec using cross-lingual embeddings in single space	108	7	116	47.5

As with the work by Søgaard string matching techniques perform better than their unsupervised counterparts.

Using domain knowledge and hierarchical information turned out to be helpful, especially in the case of pre-aligned vectors. However, hierarchical matching techniques show worse results for averaged Word2Vec and string similarity evaluated on translated category descriptions. For Word2Vec the results are insignificant (the p-value between hierarchical and non-hierarchical version for Fisher test is only 0.5). However, domain information may be even harmful for string matching (the p-value is less than 0.001). It may be explained by the fact that upper-level categories have two broad descriptions which may significantly differ in wording and thus it leads to mistakes at lower hierarchy grades. At lower hierarchy levels items tend to be described more exactly. Using hierarchy information is extremely helpful for pre-aligned vectors in a common space(p-value < 0.001). It removes the problem of being too general and increases accuracy. So for structured datasets like Wikipedia it may be helpful to include not only information about word distributions but also meta-information like connections between articles and their hierarchy.

13 Conclusion

In this work we have demonstrated several successful methods for unsupervised matching of unaligned national classification systems.

The first method is completely unsupervised matching with the help of pre-matched averaged Word2Vec embeddings inferred from product categories descriptions. Pre-matching is done using MUSE library and Wikipedia FastText embeddings. On its own it achieves accuracy of 19.5%. However, hierarchical level-by-level matching allows to increase accuracy up to 47.5%.

The second method uses averaged Word2Vec inferred from translated product categories descriptions. As the translation engine we used Google Translate. In its non-hierarchical variant it achieves 44% accuracy. However, this method is unlikely to be suitable for languages that have less resources and are more distant from English than Russian because of the worse search engine quality for such languages (Wu et al., 2016).

The third method also uses machine translations, but instead of relying on Word2Vec embed-

dings it directly compares strings using our custom word-level similarity function. It achieves the best results (55% accuracy) but because of its dependence on translated descriptions, it has the same limitations as the previous method.

We demonstrate that using translation information from a pre-trained translation engine or using embeddings pre-aligned in a common space may help in solving this task. However, it seems unlikely that it is possible to directly align categories vectors for national taxonomies because their domains are too different. Moreover, it turns out that even supervised matching techniques relying on partially matched dictionaries fail at this task. It may be attributed to the low number of categories.

In our case general adversarial networks and analytical methods fail to properly align the studied manifolds, so it raises a question whether it is possible to unsupervisedly match national taxonomies for rare languages which lack any translation engines or parallel corpora. Moreover, we support issues raised by Søgaard et al. (Søgaard et al., 2018) and demonstrate that both MUSE and Vecmap do not achieve acceptable results both in the supervised and unsupervised mode for tiny datasets from different domains.

However, our results show that it is possible to unsupervisedly create a national taxonomies matching model if there are corpora for both languages from the same domain (e.g. Wikipedia).

The results also hint on the idea that unsupervised dictionary alignment results may be so successful because of the parallel nature of Wikipedia (some articles may be direct translations of English ones). However, it requires further investigation. We also demonstrate that using structural and hierarchical dataset information may considerably improve matching results, what is applicable to many Internet-based datasets like Wikipedia.

14 General phrases

Using hierarchical information may be beneficial in a range of text classification tasks (Škrlj et al., 2019) as well as in computer vision problems such as ImageNet (Deng et al.).

It was also shown by Yang (2018) that using graph and hierarchical is beneficial for many downstream tasks such as SQuAD.

There is a dedicated taxonomy matching competition Ontology Alignment Evaluation Initiative (Shvaiko et al.).

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