


A Method for the Evaluation of the Semantic Localization of Sentence Embeddings

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1 Introduction

Various sentence embeddings are often called Semantic Vector Space Representations, such as in [1]. This paper aims to provide a method to assess the accuracy of that statement. Such a tool will allow us to assert whether the vector representation of a given method is more influenced by the structure (syntax) of the sentence embedded, or of its meaning (semantics).

Clearly, the vector sentence models are very useful and functional. As developed  have been producing highly competitive benchmarks in a number of areas. These benchmarks, while showing the great practical use of techniques, do not look closely at the theoretical foundation.

Here a new method is presented to assess directly how accurate the methods localize sentences in semantic space. Checking if sentence which mean the same thing are located closely, or not; and whether sentences of different meanings are located distantly, or not. This will allow a better understanding of how these models work, and suggest new directions for the development in this area.

1.0.1 Sentence Embedding

Here we will define a sentence embedding as the embedding of a sentence. This is often called a phrase in the work of Sorcher et Al[2, 3, 4, 5, 6], and is one form of what is called a paragraph or document in [7]. A semantically, a sentence is the expression of a single idea. Thus by embedding sentences into vector spaces is embedding ideas into vector spaces.

1.0.2 Semantic Equivalence

Sentences are said to be semantically equivalent if they each imply the other – the relationship is that of bidirectional entailment. If we consider two sentences A and B. A is equivalent to B if A being true implies that B also must be true, and if B is true then A also must be true. This definition is closely related

to that for logical equivalence. Different equivalent sentences are said to be paraphrases of each other.

The paraphrases from the Microsoft Research Paraphrase Corpus (MSRPC) were judged by the human raters to have the same high-level meaning, and to show “mostly bidirectional entailment” [8]. That is to say, that while each sentence may contain information which is not implied by the other, the core meaning of the sentences is entailed by both. [8] provides the examples of:

Charles O. Prince, 53, was named as Mr. Weill’s successor.


Mr. Weill’s longtime confidant, Charles O. Prince, 53, was named as his successor.

While additional information is present, each sentence implies most of the meaning of the other. Thus while not semantically equivalent, they are semantically close.

It should be noted that that semantic similarity is often defined differently for words. While semantic similarity for sentences is defined in terms of shared meaning and mutual entailment, semantic similarity for words can be defined in terms of shared properties[9]. For example: “rise” and “fall” are antonyms, but are under the aforementioned definition for word semantic similarity are very similar: they both describe an vertical change in (potentially metaphorical) position. However, the sentences “The share price is predicted to rise.” and “The share price is predicted to fall.” are not semantically similar sentences, as they do not imply each other - in-fact each implies that the other is false. This sentence definition of semantic equivalence can be seen to be essential in applications such as machine translation.

1.0.3 A Substitution Based Evaluation Corpus



The method proposed here to evaluate the semantic localization requires the construction of a corpus which contains semantically close and semantically distant sentences. To allow discrimination between embeddings which capture structure (syntax) or word content, and those which capture meaning, the semantically distinct sentences should have the same structure and word content except for the variations evaluated. Thus a method is required to change the meaning of sentences, without changing anything else. To change meaning at least one word must be changed. As the key action or statement of a sentence clause is given by its verb, replacing that verb with its antonym will substantially change the clauses meaning. This change will always break semantic entailment, though the pragmatic change may not always be as strong as in the share price example from above. Consider instead the sentences: “They inhaled the smog filled air.” vs “They exhaled the smog filled air.”. Clearly there is no bi-directional entailment between the two sentences, though pragmatically the meaning is similar – the air the characters were breathing was smog-filled. As the number of verbs changed increase though the meaning generally gets more distant, though multiple negations may apply. For example: “They exhaled the

smog emptied air”. Thus semantically distinct sentences are constructed. by progressively negating the verbs.

To contrast this, and see the effect of simply changing words, but not structure or meaning, a second method is used. For this evaluation, nouns are replaced with their synonyms. Thus the structure and meaning are preserved, and only the word content is changed.

1.0.4 The Validity of Substitutions

One of the basic tests for determining the part of speech a word of unknown lexical category is to substitute a word of known category in its place, if the sentence is still correct, then the unknown word may have that category[10]. For example if a sentence contains the never seen word “foobar”, and substituting “hat” in its place is grammatical, it can be concluded that “foobar” is most likely also a noun. It has been suggested that this is the mechanism by which people learn the parts of speech relations. In general, substitutions of the same parts of speech are valid.

As synonyms and antonyms make up the same parts of speech as their base form, it is grammatically valid to substitute for the original. Substituting a synonym is not expected to change the meaning of the sentence, thus such a substitution creates a new sentence which is semantically equivalent. Indeed this has been proposed as the very definition of synonymy ([11] attributes this definition to Leibniz), though there has been some debate over the nature and degree of this relation[11]. It has been noted in a limited study that subjects could identify whether an adjective or its antonym belong in blanked out section of a sentence[12]. This suggests that identical seces up to an antonym swap in adjectives, may not occur in natural English.  Nevertheless, such a swap is still a part-of-speech matched substitution and thus is grammatical.

2 Background and Motivation

2.1 Semantic Tasks

Many of the key tasks in natural language processing and generation have strong semantic components:

- Translation
- Sentiment Recognition
- Indexing and Retrieval
- Summarization
- Automatic Paraphrasing[1]

2.2 Existing Corpora

2.2.1 Paraphrase Corpora

Closely related to the corpus use for evaluation here are paraphrase corpora such as MSRP. The paraphrase corpora and paraphrase detection tasks present sentences and possible paraphrases. The goal is to determine whether a sentence is a paraphrase of another or not. This implicitly requires working out if the sentences are semantically equivalent. However the corpora are not controlled to present syntactically similar sentences, thus can not be used to assess the prevalence of syntactic vs semantic information in the vector encoding.

The Paraphrases for Plagiarism corpus (P4P)[13] does have useful information on the types of changes and relations between the compared texts, but is not a sentence oriented corpus. P4P compares short paragraphs, giving more context. While this results in a deeper and more meaningful paraphrasing task, the multiple sentences complicates the evaluation, and renders some embedding methods ([2, 3, 4, 5, 6]) unable to directly process the result. As with other paraphrasing corpora it also does not constrain the structure of sentences.

2.2.2 Finding Structural Matches in Large Corpora

Inspection of large corpora will reveal that structurally identical sentences are rare. While Large corpora contain many thousands of sentences, very few have the same structure, or even same order of POS tags. For example, MASC[14] (Manually Annotated Sub-Corpus of the Open American National Corpus) contains 34,535 sentences, only 4,230 share a set and ordering of POS tags with another. Further: if trivial sentences with 5 or fewer tokens are excluded there are just 634. If sentences where 30% or more of the words are proper nouns, dates, times, or numbers are also excluded (thus removing sentences such as “Posted by : tomemos | Sunday , 09 May 2010 at 09:16 AM”), only 316 sentences remain. Only a subset of these will be structurally identical when considered under a parse tree.

Thus it is not surprising that MSRPC, which only contains 7800 sentences, contains 5 structurally identical sentences in two structural classes, other than paraphrases or differing only numerically. Even these sentences are highly similar in topic and word usage. Class 1: {‘Schering-Plough shares fell 72 cents to close at \$ 18.34 on the New York Stock Exchange .’, ‘Wal-Mart shares rose 16 cents to close at \$ 58.28 on the New York Stock Exchange .’, ‘Xerox shares rose 2 cents to close at \$ 11.45 on the New York Stock Exchange .’}, Class 2: {‘Jason Giambi capitalized with an RBI single to center .’, ‘Randall Simon followed with an RBI single to right .’}.

Similarly, there is only one structural match between MSRPC and the MASC corpus: MSRPC contains: “I’m never going to forget this day.” which is a structural match for the sentence: “I’m not going to allow that question.” from MASC. Thus it is not viable to find naturally occurring sentences of the same structure, but different meaning.

2.2.3 Lexical Substitution Corpora

CoInCo (Concepts in Context) is a manually created all-words lexical substitution corpus[15]. Approximately 2500 sentences from a subset of MASC (Manually Annotated Subcorpus of the Open American National Corpus), were given to human annotator, who were tasked with listing all the word synonyms that could replace words. CoInCo only handles synonym substitutions, though an effort could be made to automatically extend it to antonyms (and other lexical relations), by mapping substitution lemmas from CoInCo on to WordNet synsets. According to [15] CoInCo is the only large scale, manually created corpus of its type, though other single word substitution corpora exist.

2.2.4 What is required

To create a corpus capable of assessing the degree of semantic information, as compared to syntactic and word content information, a paraphrase corpus is extended through lexical substitutions maintaining the syntactic structure. The automatically created corpus discussed here, combines features of existing corpora, to make it suited to this fine-grained approach.

3 Creation of Corpus

3.1 Base Paraphrase Corpus

The Microsoft Research Paraphrase Corpus (MSRPC)[8] is used as a base source of sentences, and of the ground truth for their semantic equality. The sentences with paraphrases provided are combined from the training and testing sets. This gives 7,800 sentences for evaluation. Of these 311 are repeated – that is they have multiple different paraphrases specified – no special handling is done for these cases. The sentences are modified by the procedure described below to create semantically equivalent and semantically distinct versions.

3.2 WordNet Lookup

The second primary resource required is a source of synonyms and antonyms for the words being modified. For this WordNet 3.0[16] is used, via the NLTK[17] interface. WordNet organizes the words in to sets of synonymous words called synsets. WordNet only stores the base word form i.e. lemma for each word, but the Morphy tool is provided to lookup the lemma for the words inflected forms[18]. Thus WordNet can be used to find the replacement words need for the modifications of the sentences.

3.3 Method

3.3.1 Tokenization



The first step is to tokenize the sentence. This was achieved using the NLTK[17] Treebank Word Tokenizer. This tokenizer is based on regular expressions. It splits the sentences into words, punctuation elements, and also separates contractions: “don’t” becomes “do n’t”. Tokenization is a fairly simple task, accomplished by these regular expressions.

3.3.2 POS Tagging and Restriction of Auxiliary Verbs

The second step is to tag the word tokens with their parts of speech (POS). The Stanford POS Tagger[19] was used via NLTK[17] interface, to accomplish this. The Stanford POS Tagger, has a 97.24% accuracy on the Penn Treebank Wall Street Journal test set[19]. It is one of the best POS taggers available.

Though it does still make some mistakes, for example, in the sentence: “Cadets were ticketed for drinking alcohol.” drinking is mistaken for a noun, when it should be a verb.

The sentences are tagged with the Penn Treebank tagset[20]. This tagset contains 37 POS tags. Of interest to this work are the tags for nouns and verbs. Valid noun tags for transformation are NN and NNS, which covers singular, mass and plural nouns. The proper noun tags NNP and NNPS are not valid for transformation and are excluded. Valid verbs are marked those marked with all verb tags (VB, VBD, VBG, VBN, VBZ, VBP), except for models (MD) and auxiliaries.

Model and auxiliary verbs are normally inverted by inserting a not after the verb, or equivalently a contraction n’t.[21] This is forbidden by the guideline of not changing the structure in the generated sentences. Thus model verbs and auxiliaries are excluded.

While the POS tagger captures models with the MD tag, the other auxiliary verbs are not caught. [20] states they are to be handled as other verbs. Some of them also have non-auxiliary senses, for example “has” in “he has gone” is an auxiliary[21], but in “He has a dog” it is not. WordNet also does not differentiate auxiliaries from other verbs, and so in both cases suggests that antonym for “has” is “lacks”. To avoid any confusion of this sort auxiliary verbs are blocked using a blacklist. This blocks changes to: “be”, “am”, “are”, “is”, “was”, “were”, “being”, “can”, “could”, “do”, “did”, “does”, “doing”, “have”, “had”, “has”, “having”, “may”, “might”, “must”, “shall”, “should”, “will”, and “would”.

WordNet uses much simpler parts of speech tags, as it only considered lemmas. WordNet POS tags are: noun, verb, adverb and adjective. The Penn Treebank POS tags can be simplified down to them. Further more, the additional information captured in the Penn Treebank Tags, is sufficient to allow recover the full form and a lemma generated from WordNet. (see section 3.3.6).

3.3.3 Phrase Detection

Certain sets of words are best treated as a single unit, this paper, as in [18], will call these collocations, they are also sometimes referred to as continuous dictionary phrases. WordNet Version 3.0 contains 64,331 such collocations.

Consider the word sequences: “chief financial officer”, and “police officer”.

A synset exist containing “chief_finial_officer” and “CFO”, another exist containing: “police_officer”, “officer” and “policeman”. If collocations were handled as word sequences “chief financial officer” could have the officer replaced, to get: “chief financial policeman”, or even: “police officer” could become “police police officer”.

If collocations were handled as words, “policeman” could become “police officer”. This adds a word, violating the constraint of not changing the sentence’s structure. To avoid all these issues entirely, we forbid the substituting for any words in a phrase, as well as forbidding substituting a phrase for any words.

These collocations are detected using a sliding window of width 3 and 2 words across the sentences. The words in the window are then checked to see if they form a collocations known to WordNet. If they do then they are blocked from substitution. This blocks all such collocations of up to length 3.

While this blocks all such continuous phrases it does not handle other kinds. Several other kinds of phrases have been distinguished as having distinct meaning. Such as the skip-bigrams considered by [22]. The necessity of avoiding substitutions with these is less clear. As they are not considered as clear single lexical entity (unlike the continous dictionary phrases), they may be sufficiently handled by word sense disambiguation.

3.3.4 Word Sense Disambiguation

Word sense disambiguation is used to select the correct sense of the word being substituted for – so that it synonym or antonym is the same sense. This is used for example to ensure that the synonym of “bank”, as in a financial institution, is not “shore” as in the edge of a body of water[9]. While several methods were considered for performing the word sense disambiguation, it was resolve to use the simple Most Frequent Sense (MFS).

The MFS is a naïve method for determining word sense. It functions by always choosing the word sense that occurs most often – without regard for context, beyond the POS tag of the word. This method is almost certain to make some mistakes, however more sophisticated algorithms have been shown to offer little improvement over it.

BabelNet[23] is a multilingual extension of WordNet that has seen significant use as a target for the evaluation of word sense disambiguation methods. In the English BabelNet WSD subtask at [24], the MFS obtained a F1 score of 66.5%, the best competing algorithm scores 68.6%. Since then, new methods have improved that to [25] 71.5% – which exceeds MFS by 5%. On a similar task at [26], no entry exceeded the MFS F1 score of 67.5%. As simple MFS remains one of the most competitive methods it is used in this system.

3.3.5 Substitution Generation

Noun Synonyms As discussed above, all words sorted in WordNet are stored in synsets[16]. A synset contains many lemmas all with the same semantic meaning. Any given word may have many word-senses, each word-sense for that word belongs to a different synset. All the lemmas within a synset are synonymous. The synonyms of a noun are all the lemmas from the correct synset.


Verb Antonyms Verbs, as nouns are stored in synsets. WordNet stores antonyms on a per-lemma basis. The possible antonyms for a given verb are thus the antonym of the lemma, and also of the any synonyms – lemmas from the same synset. This extension increases the number of antonym lemmas available for any base lemma.

3.3.6 Un-lemmatizing



As the words generated from WordNet are lemmatized, this process must be reversed to restore them to their grammatically correct form for the context. For example, the verbs, “rise”, “rose”, and “rising” are all mapped to the lemma “rise”, from this lemma we generate the antonym: “fall”, to put it into the context of the first word, it needs to be mapped to “fall”, “fell”, and “falling” respectively. Similarly, for nouns lemmatization removes plurals. The needed information for both is captured in the parts of speech tags.

The Penn Treebank POS tags captures the information required to go from a lemma to the correct form. This can be used with the heuristic conjugation and pluralization methods from the Pattern.en library [27] to correct the generated lemma to the appropriate form. The mappings used are shown in figure 1. It can be noted that no processing is done on the Verb, non-3rd person singular present case (VBP), this is because with the exception of the various forms of the verb “be”, which are excluded earlier as and auxiliary/model, the non-3rd person singular present is always the same as the base form of the verb[28, p. 84]. These rules have been found to be generally sufficient to ensure grammatical text.

To ensure against any failure in the heuristic rules based un-lemmatization the validity of the generated and un-lemmatized word is checked against the “british-english-insane” collection of words from the Spell Checker Orientated Word Lists (SCOWL)[29]. Any generated words which fail this test are discarded.

During this step, the initial letter capitalization of any generated word is matched to that of the base word. While no method evaluated below makes use of capitals they are preserved for ease of future comparisons with methods which do.

1

¹Pattern.en Verb Conjugation methods use are described in detail in the documentation

Sentence	base word	generated word	POS	POS meaning[20]	Pattern.en method to un-lemmatize
The share price will rise.	rise	fall	VB	Verb, base form	–
The share price rose.	rose	fell	VBD	Verb, past tense	<code>conjugate(lemma, tense=PAST)</code>
The share price is rising.	rising	falling	VBG	Verb, gerund or present participle	<code>conjugate(lemma, tense=PRESENT, aspect=PROGRESSIVE)</code>
The share price normally rises.	rises	falls	VBZ	Verb, present tense, 3rd person singular	<code>conjugate(lemma, tense=PRESENT)</code>
The share price has risen.	risen	fallen	VBN	Verb, past participle	<code>conjugate(lemma, tense=PAST, aspect=PROGRESSIVE)</code>
The share prices rise.	rise	fall	VBP	Verb, non-3rd person singular present	–
The car is hot.	car	auto-mo-bile	NN	Noun, singular or mass	–
The cars are hot.	cars	auto-mo-biles	NNS	Noun, plural	<code>pluralize(lemma)</code>

Figure 1: POS Tags for various forms of words. The WordNet lemma is in **bold**.

3.3.7 Indefinite Article Correction

A word substituted for may have been preceded by an indefinite article. Depending on the vowel sound at the start of the next word, it may no longer be appropriate[28, p. 1618]. This case is detected and rectified, again making use of the Pattern.en library[27]. This correctly handles phonetic cases such as “an honest man” and “a unit of measure”. Case is again preserved. This is the final step in the generation of semantically altered sentences.

3.4 Sequential addition of substitutions

For each sentence, for each verb/noun with a valid substitution that substitution is made progressively. Starting with the base sentence, first one word is changed, and the new sentence added to the corpus, than another and so forth until valid substitutions are exhausted. This is applied separately for nouns and verbs to generate the two test sets. These progressive additions allow investigation into whether simple word content affects reported distances, as well as into the effects of double negation. Examples of this can be seen in the next section.

<http://www.clips.ua.ac.be/pages/pattern-en#conjugation>

4 Examples of Constructed Evaluation Sentences

Change	Sentence	Wiki PV-DM Conca- tenting Model Distance
Base Sentence	However , other unions including the powerful CGT remained opposed to the reform and demanded the government begin fresh negotiations with them .	0.00
Para- phrase	The powerful CGT and other unions remained opposed to the plans , however , and demanded the government renegotiate the reform with them .	0.35
1 Noun Synonym	However , other brotherhoods including the powerful CGT remained opposed to the reform and demanded the government begin fresh negotiations with them .	<i>0.27</i>
2 Noun Synonym	However , other brotherhoods including the powerful CGT remained opposed to the reform and demanded the authorities begin fresh negotiations with them .	<i>0.25</i>
3 Noun Synonym	However , other brotherhoods including the powerful CGT remained opposed to the reform and demanded the authorities begin fresh dialogues with them .	0.43
1 Verb Antonym	However , other unions including the powerful CGT remained opposed to the reform and obviated the government begin fresh negotiations with them .	<i>0.36</i>
2 Verb Antonym	However , other unions including the powerful CGT remained opposed to the reform and obviated the government end fresh negotiations with them .	<i>0.36</i>
3 Verb Antonym	However , other unions including the powerful CGT changed opposed to the reform and obviated the government end fresh negotiations with them .	<i>0.43</i>
4 Verb Antonym	However , other unions excluding the powerful CGT changed opposed to the reform and obviated the government end fresh negotiations with them .	<i>0.46</i>

5 Evaluation

A given model may be evaluated on how semantically close, or distantly it places sentences which are semantically equivalent, or not. As discussed, replacing a noun with its synonym produces a semantically equivalent sentence – both the original sentence, and the modified sentence entail the other. Conversely, replacing a verb with its antonym generally will produce a semantically different sentence, often the the modified sentence will entail the converse of the original and visa-verse. As a baseline for a reasonable distance under a model, the distance to the gold standard, semantically equal, paraphrase is computed.

5.0.1 Scoring

By comparing the distance from the base sentence embedding to the paraphrase and modified sentence embeddings, the success of the modal at semantic localization is evaluated. It is assessed on keeping close semantically similar sentences, and distant semantically distinct sentences. A semantically different sentence must be further away that a semantically equivalent one, thus the sentences modified by replacing verbs with their antonyms must be more distant than the semantically equal paraphrase. Conversely, the semantically identical similar form should be no further away than the paraphrase. By counting the portion of the evaluation corpus is correctly placed under this definition, the models semantic semantic accuracy with respect to fine-grained changed is scored.

5.0.2 Distance

Distance may be calculated though any method the model specifies. The models chosen below, as most for vector embeddings, use the cosine distance. This is given by $d(\tilde{u}, \tilde{v}) = 1 - \frac{\tilde{u} \cdot \tilde{v}}{\|\tilde{u}\|_2 \|\tilde{v}\|_2}$, this is between 0, and 2 and is proportional to the cosine of the angle between the embeddings \tilde{u} and \tilde{v} .

5.1 The Models

For demonstration purposes, several models are evaluated below.

5.1.1 RAE

5.1.2 Doc2Vec: PV-DM concatenating

5.1.3 Doc2Vec: PV-DM concatenating sentences

6 Results and Discussion

7 Conclusion and Future Work

7.1 Motivating better use of Semantic Resources in embedding creation

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