

Evaluating Bilingual Embeddings in Bilingual Dictionary Alignment

Çift Dilli Kelime Temsilleri ile Sözlük Eşlenmesi

Yiğit Sever

Dr. Gönenç Ercan

Supervisor

Submitted to
Graduate School of Science and Engineering of Hacettepe University
as a Partial Fulfilment to the Requirements
for the Award of the Degree of Master of Science
in Computer Engineering

2019

Declaration of Authorship

I, Yiğit Sever, declare that this thesis titled, “Evaluating Bilingual Embeddings in Bilingual Dictionary Alignment” and the work presented in it are my own. I confirm that:

- This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University.
- Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated.
- Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed.
- Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work.
- I have acknowledged all main sources of help.
- Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself.

Signed:

Date:

Abstract

Yiğit SEVER

*Evaluating Bilingual Embeddings in Bilingual Dictionary
Alignment*

Dictionaries catalog and describe the semantic information of a lexicon. WordNet provides an edge by presenting distinct concepts with the hierarchy information among them. Research in computer science has been using this hand crafted tool in natural language applications such as text summarization and machine translation. Original WordNet has been compiled for English yet counterparts for other languages are not as readily available nor as comprehensive. In order for research on languages other than English to benefit from the power of a WordNet, machine assisted creation and evaluation methods are essential.

Word embeddings can provide a mapping between words and points in a real valued vector space. Using these vectors, representing documents as well as forming geometric relationships between them is a well studied area of research. In this thesis we start by hypothesizing that a dictionary definition captures the semantic basis of the described word. We used word embeddings as building blocks to map dictionary definitions into a multidimensional space. These spaces can be aligned to accommodate two languages, allowing the transfer of information from one language to another. We investigate the success of retrieving and matching discrete senses across languages by employing supervised and unsupervised methods. Our experiments show that dictionary alignment can be evaluated successfully by using both unsupervised and supervised methods but corpora sizes should be taken into consideration. We further argue that some methods are not viable considering their poor performance.

Acknowledgements

The acknowledgments and the people to thank go here, don't forget to include your project advisor...

Contents

| | |
|---|------------|
| Declaration of Authorship | iii |
| Abstract | v |
| Acknowledgements | vii |
| 1 Introduction | 1 |
| 1.1 Dictionaries | 1 |
| 1.2 WordNet | 2 |
| 1.3 Multilingual Wordnets | 5 |
| 1.4 Thesis Goals | 6 |
| 1.5 Thesis Outline | 8 |
| 2 Background Information & Related Work | 11 |
| 2.1 Word Embeddings | 11 |
| 2.1.1 History of Word Representations | 12 |
| Linguistic Background | 12 |
| Vector Space Model | 13 |
| 2.1.2 Latent Semantic Analysis | 14 |
| 2.1.3 Building Upon Distributional Hypothesis | 15 |
| 2.1.4 Distributed Vector Representations | 15 |
| 2.1.5 Pre-trained Embeddings | 17 |
| 2.1.6 Popularization of Word Embeddings | 18 |
| 2.1.7 fastText | 19 |
| 2.1.8 ConceptNet Numberbatch | 21 |
| 2.2 Approaches in Wordnet Generation | 22 |
| 2.2.1 History of Wordnet Generation | 22 |
| 2.2.2 Examples of Wordnet Generation | 24 |

| | | |
|----------|---|-----------|
| 3 | Unsupervised Matching | 27 |
| 3.1 | Linear Assignment Using Sentence Embeddings | 27 |
| 3.2 | Linear Assignment Algorithm | 30 |
| 3.2.1 | Creating The Cost Matrix | 31 |
| 3.2.2 | Evaluation | 31 |
| 4 | Dictionary Alignment as Pseudo-Document Retrieval | 33 |
| 4.1 | Monolingual Retrieval | 33 |
| 4.1.1 | Term Document Matrix | 35 |
| 4.1.2 | Term Weighting | 35 |
| 4.1.3 | Similarity Measure | 36 |
| 4.1.4 | Retrieval | 36 |
| 4.1.5 | Evaluation | 37 |
| 4.2 | Cross Lingual Document Retrival | 39 |
| 4.2.1 | Word Movers Distance | 39 |
| 4.2.2 | Cross Lingual Word Mover's Distance | 40 |
| 4.2.3 | Evaluation | 40 |
| 5 | Supervised Validation | 41 |
| 5.0.1 | Vanishing Gradient Problem | 41 |
| 5.0.2 | Long Short-Term Memory | 42 |
| 5.0.3 | Siamese Long Short-Term Memory | 45 |
| 6 | Experiments and Evaluation | 47 |
| 6.1 | Mapping Word Embeddings | 47 |
| 6.2 | Results | 49 |
| 6.2.1 | Monolingual Retrieval Results | 49 |
| 6.2.2 | Cross Lingual Retrieval Results | 49 |
| 6.3 | Case Study | 49 |
| 7 | Conclusion | 53 |
| 7.1 | Future Work | 53 |
| A | Case Study - Aligning a Turkish Dictionary and English Princeton WordNet | 55 |
| | Bibliography | 65 |

List of Figures

| | | |
|-----|--|----|
| 1.1 | WordNet result for the query “run”, truncated for brevity. | 3 |
| 1.2 | Example of a WordNet relationship graph. Hyponymy/hypernymy relations are shown from the hierarchy level of <i>restaurant</i> | 4 |
| 2.1 | Sense representation using human judgement scores for the concept “Father” [29] | 13 |
| 2.2 | How semantic similarity can be shown using similarity of two vectors, the colour gradient represents similar values for elements of the vector . | 16 |
| 2.3 | Skipgram architecture by Mikolov <i>et al.</i> [24] | 18 |
| 2.4 | Overview of character n-gram model | 20 |
| 3.1 | Matching sentence embeddings can be shown as finding the minimum flow in a bipartite graph. Connections are similarity between sentences and not all connections are shown | 30 |
| 4.1 | Term document matrix to queries and documents | 37 |
| 5.1 | Graphical representation of vanishing gradient problem where the shades of the nodes represent the influence of the input signal [96] . . . | 42 |
| 5.2 | Simplified long short-term memory cell architecture | 43 |
| 5.3 | Preserving the input signal through blocking (-) or allowing (O) the input signal, adapted from Figure 4.4 of Graves [96] | 44 |

List of Tables

| | | |
|-----|---|----|
| 1.1 | Summary of the Wordnets used. | 6 |
| 2.1 | Example synsets and their respective glosses | 23 |
| 3.1 | Some definitions from English Princeton WordNet | 29 |
| 4.1 | Example definitions and translations | 34 |
| 4.2 | English Princeton WordNet definitions and the target wordnet definitions we want to match | 38 |
| 6.1 | Accuracy Scores of the Vectors Aligned Using VecMap | 47 |
| 6.2 | Coverage Scores for the Vectors Aligned Using VecMap | 48 |
| 6.3 | Linear Assignment Using 2000 Definitions | 48 |
| 6.4 | Linear Assignment Using 3000 Definitions | 48 |
| 6.5 | Summary of Linear Assignment | 48 |
| 6.6 | Experiment results for monolingual retrieval | 49 |

For/Dedicated to/To my...

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Dictionaries

Dictionaries are living records of a society's language usage. Languages change over time, people adopt new words for new senses while others fall out of use. Concepts appear as a result of technological advancements or social shifts, giving birth to new senses and words to define them. Meanwhile, the term *dictionary* is a broad one to define. On its own, it brings forth the monolingual dictionary into consideration [1]. This type of dictionary presents words alongside their definitions following an alphabetical order. The intention is to inform the user about the words [2]. Other types of dictionaries vary with regard to their use case, target audience, and scope. For instance, bilingual dictionaries present words alongside their translations in the target language, often used by language learners or translators. Domain specific dictionaries list technical terms that target people who are familiar with the terminology.

The term that precedes the entries is called *headword* or *lemma*. Usually, lemmas are the form of a word without inflections. The sense they convey is as comprehensive as possible, reducing the number of otherwise redundant entries that would have been the derivatives of the unmarked form [3].

Dictionaries also inform the user about how senses relate to each other. **Polysemous** words share the same spelling while having related, often derivative meanings. For example; under the entry for the term *bank*, a definition might clarify the meaning *financial institution* while another can define *the building of a financial institution*. In contrast, **homonymous** words have distinct meanings while having identical spellings through coincidence. Formal definition of homonymy separates sound based and spelling based homonymy differently as homophones and homographs but for the

purposes of our text based arguments, we do not delve into the specifics. The *bank of a river* is homonym to the given examples. Homonyms are often shown in discrete blocks of descriptions.

Synonymity is another lexical relation we are interested in. A word is synonymous to another if they share the same meaning but are not spelled alike, such as the terms *right* and *correct*. However, synonymity is seldom shown in dictionaries.

Dictionaries take an immense amount of time and expertise to prepare. We can talk about the examples after narrowing our scope down to the dictionaries that are still available today. A survey by Uzun [4] notes that the first instalment of the modern Turkish dictionary, led by a team of experts, has taken over 6 years to prepare. Kendall [5] talks about how Noah Webster, the writer of the *An American Dictionary of the English Language* had to mortgage off his home in order to finish his project which took over 26 years. The bulk of this effort is collecting documents and other written material in order to establish a *corpus* [4]. This endeavour is necessary since a corpus is crucial to create the vocabulary of a language. Once the corpus is at hand, researchers can extract the lemmas. The resulting wordstock is called the *lexicon* of the language.

The internet radically changed the way researchers aggregate data. The advancements in digital storage technology allowed the data to be persistent. Improvements in networking ensured that people can share the volume of it among themselves. With the popularization of social media, the internet generates everyday conversations at an unprecedented rate that researchers are using for natural language applications. Moreover, efforts on open, collaborative, web based encyclopedias generate structured, multilingual data often used in machine translation and text categorization tasks. Once the cumbersome task of corpus attainment is now akin to web crawling. With the digitized data, it was only natural for dictionaries to go digital as well since it's generally acknowledged that they are no longer viable if they are not electronic [1].

1.2 WordNet

George A. Miller started the WordNet project in the mid-1980s. On its early days, project members studied theories that were aimed towards enabling computers to understand natural language as intrinsically as humans do. While working on then popular semantic networks and sense graphs, they have started something that will evolve into an expansive, influential resource [6].

Traditional dictionaries are rigid, constrained by the nature of the printed form. Today, people can browse WordNet via queries, like an online dictionary or a thesaurus. Behind the scenes, a sprawling lexical database has relationship information for more than 117000 senses. Figure 1.1 shows a brief result for the query string “run”.

| |
|---|
| <p>Noun</p> <p>S: (n) run, tally (a score in baseball made by a runner touching all four bases safely) <i>"the Yankees scored 3 runs in the bottom of the 9th"; "their first tally came in the 3rd inning"</i></p> <p><i>direct hyponym / full hyponym</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> S: (n) earned run (a run that was not scored as the result of an error by the other team) S: (n) unearned run (a run that was scored as a result of an error by the other team) S: (n) run batted in, rbi (a run that is the result of the batter's performance) <i>"he had more than 100 rbi last season"</i> <p><i>direct hypernym / inherited hypernym / sister term</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> S: (n) score (the act of scoring in a game or sport) <i>"the winning score came with less than a minute left to play"</i> <p>derivationally related form</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> W: (v) run [Related to: run] (make without a miss) W: (v) tally [Related to: tally] (keep score, as in games) W: (v) tally [Related to: tally] (gain points in a game) <i>"The home team scored many times"; "He hit a home run"; "He hit .300 in the past season"</i> <p>S: (n) test, trial, run (the act of testing something) <i>"in the experimental trials the amount of carbon was measured separately"; "he called each flip of the coin a new trial"</i></p> <p>S: (n) footrace, foot race, run (a race run on foot) <i>"she broke the record for the half-mile run"</i></p> <p>Verb</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> S: (v) run (move fast by using one's feet, with one foot off the ground at any given time) <i>"Don't run--you'll be out of breath"; "The children ran to the store"</i> S: (v) scat, run, scarper, turn tail, lam, run away, hightail it, bunk, head for the hills, take to the woods, escape, fly the coop, break away (flee; take to one's heels; cut and run) <i>"If you see this man, run!"; "The burglars escaped before the police showed up"</i> |
|---|

FIGURE 1.1: WordNet result for the query “run”, truncated for brevity.

WordNet lists terms, much like a traditional dictionary, alongside its polysemes but also their homonyms. Additionally, there is a horizontal association; for any sense, the lemmas that share the row with the target term are synonyms. Furthermore, synset terms can have one or more lexemes, not necessarily singular tokens. This set of synonyms is aptly named *synsets*. An example synset is {*ledger*, *account book* and *book of account*}.

A short description is also provided to clarify the meaning. For the synset given above, the definition is; “a record in which commercial accounts are recorded” These

descriptions, hence the meanings for any synset is unique within the WordNet. During this discussion, we have used sense and synset interchangeably.

WordNet also includes other relationships such as *hypernymy* and *hyponymy*, semantic relation of senses being type-of one another [7].¹ For instance, the term “building” is a hyponym of “restaurant” since it encompasses a more general sense; the restaurant is type of a building. While coffee shop is a hypernym to the restaurant since it is a more specific sense.

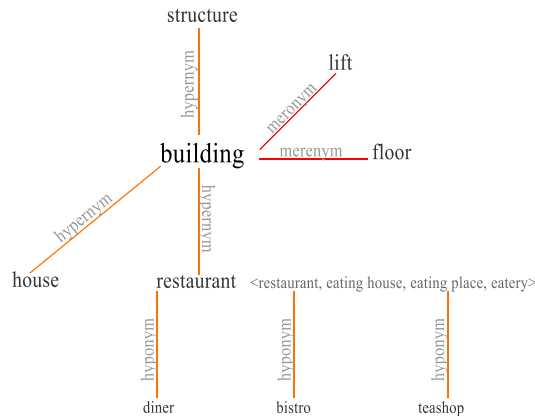


FIGURE 1.2: Example of a WordNet relationship graph. Hyponymy/hypernymy relations are shown from the hierarchy level of *restaurant*

One other relation is the meronymy, defined as a sense being part of or a member of another [8]. Keeping to our building example, windows are meronym to buildings. Other relationships exist but listing them is outside the scope of this thesis. Bottom line is the effort that has gone through to map 117,000 senses according to different semantic relationships. Sagot & Fišer [9] argue that the semantic relationships between senses are not tied to a specific language. With this assumption at hand, we can infer the effort behind the WordNet does not need to be repeated but can be translated to other languages.

¹not to be confused with homonymy

Since it's inception, other projects built lexical databases, using the same WordNet design. Fellbaum [10] talks about the correct terminology that we abide for the thesis; "As WordNet became synonymous with a particular kind of lexicon design, the proper name shed its capital letters and became a common designator for semantic networks of natural languages". Hence *WordNet* refers to English Princeton WordNet, while *wordnets* created for other languages are not stylized.

1.3 Multilingual Wordnets

Authorities list more than 7000² living languages but only 40³ of them have a sizeable presence on the internet. Among this small fraction, English is the dominant language of the web. English is not the centrepiece for natural language processing research because of any linguistic attribute. It is simply the most abundant language on web, giving researchers data to work with.

Natural language processing library spaCy⁴ resorts to lemmatizations such as *=PRON=* to denote pronouns in order to collapse the senses for "I" "you", "them" etc.. The sense and the accompanying word for the brother of a person's father or mother differs in Turkish, Danish, Chinese and Swedish among other languages while both collapse to "uncle" in English. Studying other languages can provide insight towards concepts that are not present in English.

Translation, information transfer from foreign languages is a valid way of enriching a language's corpora; if a term that for a sense does not have a match in the target language, it is a good indication for the linguists of that language to look into their lexicons and work towards expanding it [3]. Further research in the area contributes to languages other than English having access to tools that will incorporate them into the literature.

Open Multilingual WordNet [11] set out to discover the effects related to the choice of license for wordnets. Their criteria for usefulness is the number of citations a publication tied to the wordnet has gotten on literature. They identified two major problems with the current distributions;

²<https://www.ethnologue.com/statistics>

³https://w3techs.com/technologies/history_overview/content_language/

⁴<https://spacy.io/>

- some projects have picked restrictive licenses, effectively barring access to their tools for research purposes.
- the structures of the wordnets are not standardized, creating additional cost for creating programs to parse and use the wordnets.

In order to overcome the standardization issue, Bond & Paik have aligned the wordnets according to their English Princeton WordNet lemma ids and have written individual scripts to parse them. They are currently hosting the results from a single source.⁵

With alignment information at hand, we have created our dataset that we will assume to be perfectly aligned; a golden corpus. Among the 34 wordnets available on Open Multilingual WordNet, only 6 of them have gloss information available. Given this thesis will only investigate the ability to map senses using definitions of the sense, we used the subset of Albanian [12], Bulgarian [13], Greek [14], Italian [15], Slovenian [16] and Romanian [17] wordnets. Table 1.1 shows brief statistics about them. We should note that the languages of the wordnets used in the thesis are all present in the 40 languages that have a significant presence on the internet that we have mentioned before. We have constrained this study to use only the freely available wordnets and not considered wordnets that are gated behind restrictive licenses.

| Name of the Project | Language | Number of Definitions |
|---------------------|-----------|-----------------------|
| Albanet | Albanian | 4681 |
| BulTreeBank WordNet | Bulgarian | 4959 |
| Greek Wordnet | Greek | 18136 |
| ItalWordnet | Italian | 12688 |
| Romanian Wordnet | Romanian | 58754 |
| SloWNet | Slovenian | 3144 |

TABLE 1.1: Summary of the Wordnets used.

1.4 Thesis Goals

In this thesis, we will study the dictionary alignment problem. It naturally arises on wordnet generation tasks when extend approach is used. Wordnet generation as well as extend approach will be talked about in detail in Section 2.2. It can be used in

⁵<http://compling.hss.ntu.edu.sg/omw/>

conjunction with word sense disambiguation frameworks to match the correct sense of a term across languages.

Two unsupervised approaches will be presented as an answer to dictionary alignment problem. First one is the matching approach, in which the dictionary definitions across languages will be thought as nodes of a weighted bipartite graph. By assigning appropriate weights to the edges with respect to distance between individual dictionary definitions, we hypothesize that there is a case where minimum flow is achieved between the disjoint dictionary sets. The same case can also be stated as the case where the edge weights of the matching is maximum if a similarity metric is used to assign weights.

The second unsupervised approach will be a document retrieval approach, adapted on dictionary definitions. An algorithm that works with the consideration of individual distances between words will be presented.

We will also look into an encoder using a neural network approach. The encoder will be trained on a metric for determining if two sentences that were written in different languages entail the same sense. The performance of the encoder will hopefully give us insight towards using a bag of words model of sentence representation, decoupled from syntax of the language can be viable for the task.

All in all, we will investigate the following research questions;

- How feasible is it to align senses across languages using their dictionary definitions.
- Which state of the art algorithms is most suitable for the task.
- Which parameters should be taken into consideration while tackling this task

We will not train our own word embeddings but get existing models. This highlights the major advantage of our approach; current word embedding models are trained on billions of tokens to learn the distributional properties of the words. Comparatively, dictionaries are short texts. However, we can bring the word embeddings trained out of domain to solve in domain tasks.

1.5 Thesis Outline

First, we present the most important preliminary to our study in Chapter 2, the word embeddings. Word embeddings provided the crucial basis for our thesis. Without relying on representing words in a multidimensional space, establishing distance formulation simply would not work. So we report on the history of how these representations came about, present the current popular approaches to learning and distributing word embeddings and discuss the models we have chosen in detail. Even though the presented approaches can work with any two pairs of dictionary definition collections, one practical use for this application using the alignment process to extend the semantic database WordNet. We report on approaches on wordnet generation using the previous works that created wordnets. Other related work on representing senses are briefly discussed on Chapter 2 as well.

In order to address our research questions, we have looked into approaches that can be broken down into 3 separate categories.

1. Matching approach
2. Retrieval approach
3. Supervised approach

Chapter 3 is concerned with the exploration of the unsupervised matching techniques. Here we will present how dictionary alignment problem can be cast as a bipartite graph matching problem and report on our approach using linear programming.

We will handle dictionary alignment problem using state of the art document retrieval algorithms in Chapter 4. We will delve into the details of how the current approaches leverage word embeddings in order to represent words as probability distributions that lie on a multidimensional simplex. Furthermore, we will explain the algorithms behind how efficient distance calculations can be achieved in this problem setting.

Chapter 5 is reserved for our supervised approach. Given two definitions collections that we accept as perfectly aligned, we will investigate if an encoder can learn the semantic similarity as a function given positive and negative examples. In order to present our problem, we will report on the current state of the art approach on semantic similarity and the neural network model that forms the basis of said approach.

Since our thesis is heavily concerned with investigating the best approach for the task at hand, we collected all our results in Chapter 6. By presenting all results from a single place, we hope to give a complete picture on how we have attacked the dictionary alignment task, which approaches performed better against others and the findings that emerged within the results. Details concerning our implementation, how we obtained the aligned corpora and the word embeddings that share the same latent space are explained in Chapter 6 as well.

Last but not least, we will conclude our thesis in Chapter 7 with an overall look on our findings and the future work that we would like to study next.

Chapter 2

Background Information & Related Work

Somers puts down modern dictionaries in their article *You're Probably Using the Wrong Dictionary*; “The definitions are these desiccated little husks of technocratic meaningese, as if a word were no more than its coordinates in semantic space.” [18]. From the perspective of an author, the efficiency of dictionaries might be worrisome but we will build this thesis on the presumption that dictionary definitions can indeed be represented in some semantic space using the words they are written with as the elements of their vectors.

2.1 Word Embeddings

Word embeddings are real valued dense vectors that represent words. Recently, language modelling studies have been focusing on explicitly learning word embeddings in order to show words or phrases as points on a low dimensional latent space. On the other hand, earlier research had been obtaining what we can call feature vectors for words while studying natural language processing tasks such as named entity recognition or part of speech tagging [19, 20]. The vector representation allows researchers access to the tools of the broad literature in linear algebra and machine learning, since they are intuitive for humans to interpret, more so for machines. Vectors can be compared as a measure of semantic similarity or composed together to build more expansive sentence, paragraph or document representations.

Induced embeddings can be saved to the disk in matrix notation. Each row is labelled with a token which is shown in some space by the following n real numbers, as popularized by the open source package *word2vec*. Researchers have been sharing their models on the internet so that other researchers can simply download and use them in their own applications [21–23]. Word embeddings available in this manner are often called as *pre-trained* models. Examples of pre-trained word embeddings are *word2vec* [24], *GloVe* [25], *Numberbatch* [23] and *fastText* [26].

In the following section, we will briefly present the history of word embeddings. Research on word embeddings is a sprawling subject that researchers has been building upon using the ideas from probabilistic, statistical and neural network models. We have omitted crucial contributions that optimized models and brought the literature where it is today due to space constraints, following a path that will lead into the preliminary behind the models we have chosen.

2.1.1 History of Word Representations

In order to talk about how words can be mapped to a multidimensional space, we should first talk about how the idea that *they can* has came about.

Linguistic Background

In his 1954 article, Harris [27] introduced his ideas which later came to known as *distributional hypothesis* in the field of linguistics. He argued that similar words appear within similar contexts. The famous quote by Firth [28] captures the idea as; “You shall know a word by the company it keeps!”. For instance, the semantic similarity or relatedness between the terms *jacket* and *coat* can be theoretically shown since they will be accompanied by similar verbs, such as *wear*, *dry clean* or *hang*, and similar adjectives such as *warm* or *leather*. We should note that similarity and relatedness differ from each other such that *car* and *motorcycle* are similar to each other while *car* and *road* are related.

Early attempts to show words on a semantic space is studied in Osgood *et al.* [29]. Authors suggested representing concepts using orthogonal scales and relying on human judgement to score meanings on the axes. An example human annotated concept from their study is given in Figure 2.1.

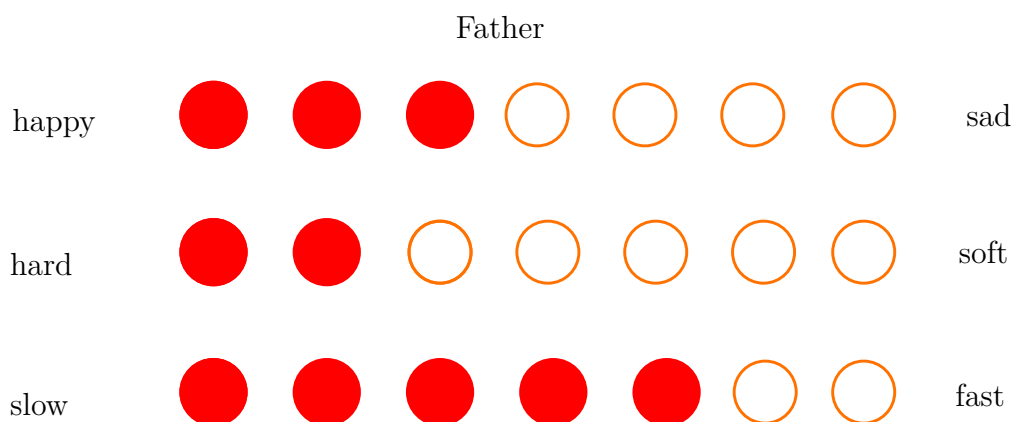


FIGURE 2.1: Sense representation using human judgement scores for the concept “Father” [29]

However, for a researcher to pick appropriate scales or have meaning extracted by hand would be infeasible for natural language processing tasks [30].

Even though Harris argued that “language is not merely a bag of words” [27], using just the word counts of a collection to capture the semantic information without regarding the order of the words will be used in the literature and be known as the *bag-of-words* model.

Vector Space Model

The history of word embeddings is tightly coupled with *vector space models* that initially appeared in the field of information retrieval. The intent was to extract vectors that represented *documents*. First vector space model developed by Salton *et al.* [31] was presented in “A Vector Space Model for Automatic Indexing”. It was the first application of bag-of-words hypothesis on a corpus to extract semantic information [32]. Salton *et al.* presented the novel idea of a *document space*. The document space is built using a term document matrix. The rows of the matrix represent individual documents using the whole vocabulary as their dimension.

In this space, a document D_i is represented using t distinct terms;

$$D_i = (d_{i1}, d_{i2}, \dots, d_{it})$$

The elements d_{ix} can be raw term counts. They can be weighted using inverse document frequency measure introduced by Jones [33]. Since this weighting scheme uses term frequency and the inverse document frequency, it is shortened as *tf-idf*. *tf-idf* is the multiplication of two metrics;

tf the number of times a term k occurs in a document

idf the inverse of the number of documents that contain k .

The weighting scheme was selected to “assign the largest weight to those terms which arise with high frequency in individual documents, but are at the same time relatively rare in the collection as a whole” [31].

The vector space model allowed Salton *et al.* to handle the similarity between documents as the angle between two vectors. Cosine similarity measure is often used since inner product of two normalized vectors is equivalent to the angle between them. Salton *et al.* have shown that there is merit to handling documents as real valued vectors.

2.1.2 Latent Semantic Analysis

Deerwester *et al.* [34] introduced latent semantic analysis in order to address a crucial problem with the vector space model. They have identified that the term document matrix approach cannot handle synonyms and homonyms due to the fact that vector space model requires the words to match exactly between the two documents. Synonymity is an issue because the query can have terms that have the same meaning as the target word, without getting matched. On the other hand, homonyms can match with an unrelated word. In order to answer these issues, their model seeks the higher order latent semantic structure in order to learn the *similarity between words*.

Latent semantic analysis starts with a word co-occurrence matrix X . An element $x_{i,j}$ of X is the number of times term i co-occurs with term j in a predefined context. Initially, whole documents were used for the context. Like term document matrices, the terms of the co-occurrence matrix is weighted by some weighting scheme. While original study by Deerwester *et al.* used raw term frequencies, *tf-idf* is a possibility while Levy *et al.* [35] reports pointwise mutual information (PMI) [36] as a popular choice. A term document matrix X is then factorized into three matrices using singular

value decomposition [37];

$$X = T_0 S_0 D'_0$$

Where the columns of T_0 and D'_0 are orthogonal to each other and S_0 is the diagonal matrix of singular values. The singular values of S_0 can be ordered by size to keep only the k largest elements, setting others to zero [34]. The resulting matrix is shown as S . The similarity tasks that are solved with S can employ the representative k dimensional vectors such that $k \ll |V|$. Latent semantic analysis was used to solve document similarity task while *word similarity* was mentioned briefly. Landauer & Dumais [38] later studied word similarity in full using latent semantic analysis, reducing the dimensions of the terms instead of documents.

2.1.3 Building Upon Distributional Hypothesis

While Deerwester *et al.* studied relatedness between words using vectors, their approach used the whole document for the co-occurrence information while the focus was clearly still on the document similarity. Schütze [39] proposed “to represent the semantics of words and contexts in a text as vectors” and built upon word co-occurrence. They theorized a context window of 1000 *characters* in order to consider words that are close to the target word instead of the whole document in co-occurrence calculations. The choice of a character window is justified with the claim that lower number of representative long words are more discriminative than numerous short words. Schütze claimed that the computation power available was not suitable yet to fully tackle the task.

Lund & Burgess [30] took the challenge and experimented with 160 million *words* taken from the Usenet, a precursor to the internet. They used a context window of 10 words and provided a method to obtain feature vectors to represent the meaning of words. However, intricate tuning of word co-occurrence generated associatively similar vectors instead of semantically similar ones.

2.1.4 Distributed Vector Representations

Bengio *et al.* [40] proposed learning word representations using a feedforward neural network. Their model learns feature vectors for words using a predictive approach instead of counting based approaches we have presented until now. Although neural networks have been proposed to learn a language model by Xu & Rudnicky [41], the

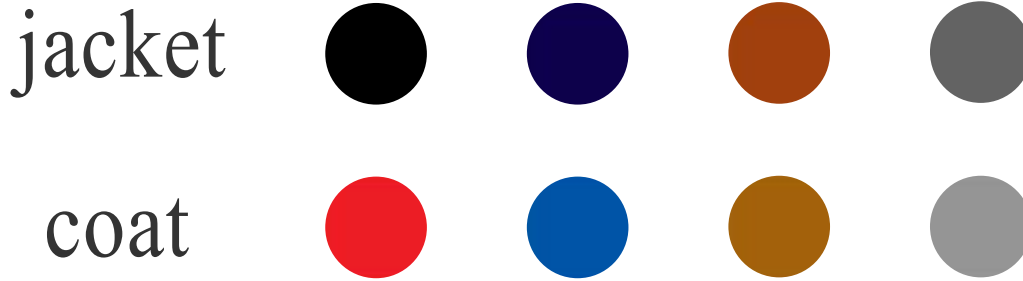


FIGURE 2.2: How semantic similarity can be shown using similarity of two vectors, the colour gradient represents similar values for elements of the vector

main contribution of Bengio *et al.* is to use an *embedding layer*, in order to attack *curse of dimensionality*. Their approach was also motivated exponentially increasing size of the vocabularies caused by *n-grams*. *n-grams* are representations that are built using multiple tokenized words. For instance, as well as showing *new* and *york* in the vocabulary, *New York* is handled as a single unit. For a corpus with vocabulary V , there are $|V|$ dimensions for the language model to learn and taking *n-gram* representations into consideration, the problem grows exponentially. Using m dimensions in the embedding layer allowed Bengio *et al.* to represent words using manageable, more representative dimensions and the problem scaled linearly as a result.

The setup for the neural network starts with the one hot encoded vector representation of the context for a word w , essentially a one dimensional vector where context words of w are set while the rest of the vocabulary are zero. This context window is similar to those used in statistical models that predicts the word w_t using the words that lead up to w_t . In other words, context window of w_t is T words on the left of w_t . In the following equation, we present the problem algebraically with an arbitrary probability function P .

$$P(w_1^T) = \prod_{t=1}^T P(w_t | w_1^{t-1})$$

In short, the input layer is projected into an embedding layer, later to a softmax layer to get a probability distribution in order to minimize the following softmax cost function.

$$\hat{P}(w_t|w_{t-1}, \dots, w_{t-n+1}) = \frac{e^{y_{w_t}}}{\sum_i e^{y_i}} \quad (2.1)$$

However, this formulation is too computationally expensive since all vocabulary needs to be considered for the sum in the denominator. The curse of dimensionality problem is shifted to the final layer of the neural network. It will be solved later using hierarchical softmax. Authors reported training times around 3 weeks using 3 to 5 context window sizes and vocabulary sizes around 17000.

Collobert & Weston [20] suggested a deep neural network model in order to learn feature vectors for various natural language processing tasks. Their proposed approach for language model is important for our case since it explicitly learned distributed word representations or simply *word embeddings*. They have introduced two key ideas;

- Instead of using a context window that used words left of the target word to estimate the probability of the target word, they have placed the context window *on* the target window, using n words for left and right of the target word.
- They introduced negative examples, where they randomly changed the middle word with a random one. As well as keeping their model from overfitting, this allowed them to use the ranking cost;

$$\sum_{s \in S} \sum_{w \in D} \max(0, 1 - f(s) + f(s^w))$$

2.1.5 Pre-trained Embeddings

P. Turian *et al.* [42] evaluated the performance of different word representations as word features that researchers can include into an existing task. Their contribution is elegantly summarized in their work as;

Word features can be learned in advance in an unsupervised, task-inspecific, and model-agnostic manner. These word features, once learned, are easily disseminated with other researchers, and easily integrated into existing supervised NLP systems.

[...]

With this contribution, word embeddings can now be used off-the-shelf as word features, with no tuning.

2.1.6 Popularization of Word Embeddings

word2vec package [24, 43, 44] popularized word embeddings. There are two aspects of the work done by Mikolov *et al.* that contributed to the fact;

- Their model captures the semantic and syntactic attributes of words and phrases on a large scale with good accuracy, trained on billions of words using a shallow neural network, keeping the computational cost down.
- They published their code as well as their pre-trained embeddings as an open source project¹.

The second point is self explanatory but in order to argue about the first one, we should report the algorithms behind word2vec.

The *skip-gram model* introduced by Mikolov *et al.* [43] differs from the previous methods by predicting the surrounding words given the target word (Figure 2.3).

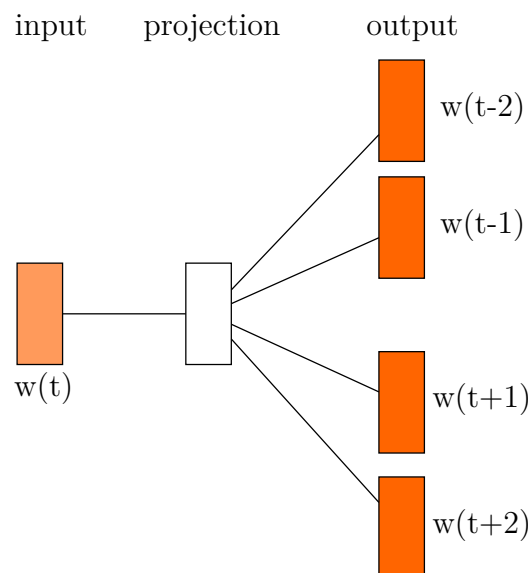


FIGURE 2.3: Skipgram architecture by Mikolov *et al.* [24]

¹<https://code.google.com/archive/p/word2vec/>

In “Distributed Representations of Words and Phrases and Their Compositionality”, it is defined as follows;

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{-c \leq j \leq c, j \neq 0} \log p(w_{t+j} | w_t) \quad (2.2)$$

The w_1, w_2, \dots, w_T are the context of the word w_t . We should note that, Levy *et al.* [35] has identified that this window size is *dynamic* in the open source implementation of word2vec, where the actual window size is sampled between 1 and T .

Levy *et al.* [35] compared the performance of count based and prediction based word representation models. Representation algorithms they considered are;

- Positive pointwise mutual information (PPMI) [36, 45]
- Singular Value Decomposition on PPMI Matrix (Latent Semantic Analysis) [34]
- Skip-Gram with Negative Sampling [24]
- Global Vectors for Word Representation [25]

They found out that choice of a particular algorithm played an insignificant role compared to choosing the right approach during training, mainly picking correct *hyperparameters*. Besides, the amount of data the models are trained on were more important than the model itself. They used this finding to counter the results reported by Baroni *et al.* [46]. Baroni *et al.* claimed that predictive models outperformed count based models. On the other hand, Levy *et al.* noted that Baroni *et al.* used count based models without hyperparameter tuning, denying them from “tricks” developed in the word representation literature.

2.1.7 fastText

Armed with the fact that a good word representation model should tune their hyperparameters and should be trained on a large dataset, we set our sights on *fastText*. On their website, authors define fastText as a “Library for efficient text classification and representation learning”. The ideas behind it are presented in Mikolov *et al.* [47]. Overall, it builds upon word2vec [24] by adding position dependent features presented in Mnih & Kavukcuoglu [48] and character n-grams suggested on Bojanowski *et al.* [26].

Let us turn our focus towards “Enriching Word Vectors with Subword Information” [26]. Instead of using a context window to learn the representation of the target word or predicting surrounding words given the centre word like in the the skip-gram model, Bojanowski *et al.* learn representations for character n-grams. We have mentioned that n-grams consider sequences like *New York* as a single token. Character n-grams start with parsing the corpus into c character long sequences. We will use 3 as the c value. The boundaries of the words are marked with “<>” characters for later and the whole corpus is transformed into tokens where the phrase “lecture slide” is now “<lecture> <slide>”. Then, sequences of 3 characters are extracted such that “<slide>” is broken down into “<sl, sli, lid, ide, de>”. Note that “lid” character n-gram is different from word “<lid>”. These character n-grams are called subword vectors, they are trained using the skip-gram architecture.

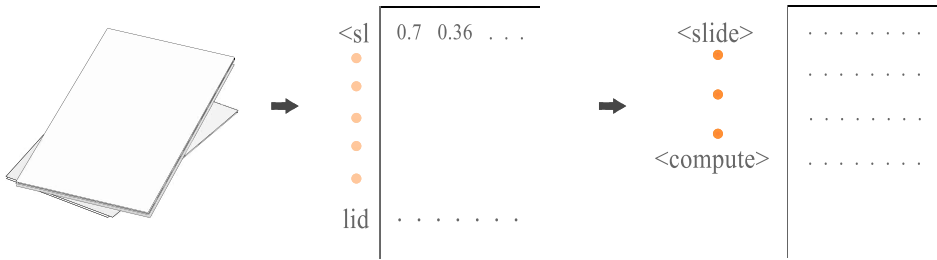


FIGURE 2.4: Overview of character n-gram model

With the subword vectors z_g for every n-gram g at hand, authors take a dictionary of n-grams of size G and for a given word w , they denote $G_w \subset 1, \dots, G$ as the n-grams of w .

$$s(w, c) = \sum_{g \in G_w} z_g^T v_c$$

Grave *et al.* [49] trained fastText model on different languages using Wikipedia and Common Crawl data. Wikipedia is a curated encyclopaedia that can be used as a multilingual corpora with 28 languages that have over *100 million* tokens and 82 languages

with 10 million tokens [49]. Considering the original word2vec was trained on *100 billion* tokens, Grave *et al.* also used Common Crawl, a non profit project that collocates web pages and publishes the data publicly. This data can be inadvertently noisy which Grave *et al.* addressed using linewise language identification and by removing duplicate lines that often appear as leftover boilerplate on many sites. While Wikipedia provided them with a curated signal, Common Crawl data helped with capturing as many contexts as possible to train their distributed model. They are currently hosting the pre-trained word embeddings on their website ².

2.1.8 ConceptNet Numberbatch

As an alternative to purely distributional models, Speer *et al.* [23] suggested *numberbatch* embeddings built in conjugation with ConceptNet.³ ConceptNet is a knowledge graph. Like the WordNet, it presents semantic relationships between concepts but the defined relationships are more fine grained. The relationships are collocated from various resources like English Princeton WordNet, Open Mind Common Sense [50] and DBPedia [51]. ConceptNet stylizes its relations with the `/r/Relationship` syntax. For instance, being distinct members of a set relation is defined as `/r/DistinctFrom` which includes concepts like August and September.⁴ Compared to WordNet, more subjective, human centric relations are defined such as `/r/MotivatedByGoal`, relationship between *compete* and *win* or `/r/ObstructedBy`, the relationship between *sleep* and *noise*. Total number of relations that are available between two concepts is 36. Moreover, these relationships are *weighted* depending on how present they are. For example, the concept *run* is related to *fast* with a weight of 9.42 but the similarity between *race* and *run* is weighted at 2.54. Finally, the ConceptNet is multilingual, encompassing 304 languages in total with 77 of them reported as having moderate support that can be used in downstream tasks. Details of the knowledge graph and the procedure is explained by Speer *et al.* [23] in the paper “ConceptNet 5.5: An Open Multilingual Graph of General Knowledge”.

Speer *et al.* also present their resource in word embedding matrix form for ease of use in the current plug-and-play environment. In order to get word embeddings from the knowledge graph, first they prepare a symmetric term-term matrix X where an element $w_{i,j}$ is the sum of all edge weights between terms i and j . This is similar to a word

²<https://fasttext.cc/>

³<http://conceptnet.io/>

⁴<https://github.com/commonsense/conceptnet5/wiki/Relations>

co-occurrence matrix but instead of constructing the matrix using unstructured text, this approach builds upon semantic connections between senses. Speer *et al.* reports that their approach learns *relatedness* more so than *similarity* which was reported by the word co-occurrence approaches before.

With the term-term matrix at hand, Speer *et al.* weigh the terms using positive point-wise mutual information (PPMI) as suggested by Levy *et al.* [35] and reduce it to 300 dimensions, as is standard set by word2vec, using truncated SVD. Resulting matrix is similar to approaches set by Deerwester *et al.* [34] or Pennington *et al.* [25] but Speer *et al.* enrich it further using *retrofitting* as proposed by Faruqui & Dyer [52]. Pre-trained word2vec and GloVe embeddings are incorporated into the reduced term-term matrix to finally obtain embeddings that include both distributional and semantic relatedness signal. Authors call their finalized model *ConceptNet numberbatch*. Speer *et al.* reports state of the art results compared to word2vec embeddings on word relatedness and models built using their embeddings get scores equivalent to humans on SAT-style analogy tasks.

2.2 Approaches in Wordnet Generation

2.2.1 History of Wordnet Generation

We have mentioned the lexical database WordNet created by Princeton University. To reiterate, WordNet is a lexical database with human annotated collection of senses and relationships among them. The relationships are hierarchical so they can be followed along to reach new nodes due to the transitive property (shown in Figure 1.2). The format itself has become the standard for databases that present meanings and concepts [53].

Glosses or the definitions that go along with synsets were not initially part of the WordNet design. Authors believed that “definition by synonymy” would be enough. In other words, definition of a synset can be derived from the lemmas that make up the synset. As the number of items in the WordNet grew, only then short glosses, later followed by longer definitions got included in WordNet [6].

WordNet has been used in various natural language processing applications over the years such as text summarization [54] or word sense disambiguation [55]. Since the original WordNet was prepared for English over many years of work, efforts for creating

| Synset | Gloss |
|--|--|
| {glossary, gloss} | an alphabetical list of technical terms in some specialized field of knowledge; usually published as an appendix to a text on that field |
| {dog, domestic dog, Canis familiaris} | (a member of the genus Canis (probably descended from the common wolf) that has been domesticated by man since prehistoric times; occurs in many breeds) |
| {university} | (the body of faculty and students at a university) |
| {depository financial institution, bank, banking concern, banking company} | (a financial institution that accepts deposits and channels the money into lending activities) |

TABLE 2.1: Example synsets and their respective glosses

an equivalent resource for other languages has been initiated. Arguably, EuroWordNet set the standard for creating wordnets for languages other than English [56, 57].

EuroWordNet⁵ project was initiated to introduce the benefits of English Princeton WordNet for other languages. Additionally, an interlinked semantic network can be a research topic on lexicalization patterns of languages, finding conceptual clusters of vocabularies or cross lingual text retrieval [56, 58]. EuroWordNet project included 7 wordnets for languages other than English and an adapted English wordnet. Due to the effort needed to create a wordnet from scratch, Vossen averted the EuroWordNet project from creating full scale semantic lexicons and prioritized the connectivity between wordnets. All in all, Vossen [56] defines the aims as;

1. to create a multilingual database;
2. to maintain language-specific relations in the wordnets;
3. to achieve maximal compatibility across the different resources;
4. to build the wordnets relatively independently (re)-using existing resources;

One challenge in achieving compatibility is the shortcomings of using the original WordNet as the anchor. On one hand, since the WordNet is the first and the most comprehensive, it is a natural hub for new wordnets. On the other hand, a sense

⁵<http://projects.illc.uva.nl/EuroWordNet/>

in one language might not have a direct equivalent in an other. Cultural differences or linguistic differences between languages contribute to this fact [59] which is called a lexical gap or untranslatability. EuroWordNet addresses lexical gaps using Inter-Lingual-Index (ILI). ILI is a higher order list of meanings just for wordnet synsets to align themselves to, elevating the burden for alignment from English Princeton WordNet. The introduction of ILI allowed language specific structures to exist in wordnets while keeping the connections among themselves.

Two approaches for wordnet generation were defined by “Introduction to EuroWordNet”;

Merge Approach where a wordnet structure is formed in the target language with synset selection and relation mapping. Then the connections between the new wordnet and English Princeton WordNet can be established.

Expand Approach where English Princeton WordNet is (machine) translated to target language [60], preserving connection information with a trade-off where the target language wordnet will be biased towards the relationships of the English Princeton WordNet and may not include target language specific lexical connections.

In order to maintain as much language specific lexical connections as possible while having a starting point for evaluation of target wordnets, EuroWordNet project offered “Base Concepts”. This idea evolved into 1000 and later to 5000 core synsets that are compiled from most frequent, connected and representative synsets to be used for evaluating wordnet generation [61].

2.2.2 Examples of Wordnet Generation

Following the EuroWordNet project, several studies were published on wordnet generation with proposals heavily leaning towards the expand approach. Diab [62] explored whether an Arabic wordnet is attainable or not using a parallel corpora. Arabic differs from the languages explored in EurowordNet due to its unusual morphological nature. Using their proposed method, they observed 52.3% of words they processed are sufficient for a future Arabic wordnet. They have also reiterated that semantic relationships in a language are transferable to a target language’s wordnet.

Further approaches using parallel corpora to align the target language with English Princeton WordNet were used by Sagot & Fišer [9] in order to create a production ready French wordnet and by Fiser [63] to create a Slovene wordnet.

Approaches that used machine translation to get potential synsets for the target language was explored by Lam *et al.* [64]. They proposed two approaches for this task. First approach uses a single bilingual dictionary to translate English Princeton WordNet lemmas to target language to form synsets. Second approach translates existing wordnet synsets to English and then translates them to target language.

Following the publication of word2vec, approaches that use word embeddings gained traction and are interest to us. Sand *et al.* [65] used word embeddings to extend Norwegian wordnet by adding new relationships on existing synsets or by introducing new synsets all together. First, cosine similarity measure is used to discover nearest neighbours to a potential synset. Then a threshold value is used to cut off any new synsets below a certain similarity value. They evaluated their approach against accuracy, the percentage of relations that were correct and attachment which is similar to a recall score. It is the percentage of considered synsets that were above the threshold value. Overall, Sand *et al.* reported.

Arguably most relevant to our study, Khodak *et al.* [66] proposed an unsupervised method for automated construction of wordnets. In their paper “Automated WordNet Construction Using Word Embeddings” they present 3 approaches and compare their precision, recall and coverage.

First off, they picked 200 French and Russian adjectives, nouns and verbs, totalling 2 corpora with 600 items in each. These words are selected based on if they have a translation in the core sense list provided by English Princeton WordNet. Their approach starts with the processing of a word w . Initially, the presented method collects the possible translations of w using a bilingual dictionary and uses them as lemmas to query English Princeton WordNet. As we have mentioned, lemmas that query the WordNet retrieve synsets in the form `<lemma.pos.offset>`. Furthermore, every synset includes possible lemmas that can represent the sense of the synset (Refer to Table 2.1). These lemmas form the set S . By translating the English Princeton WordNet lemmas to target language, they obtain the set T_S . Elements of T_S and w are both in target language so a monolingual word embeddings can be used; As a baseline,

they calculate the average cosine similarity between word embeddings of every element of S and w .

$$\frac{1}{S} \sum_{w' \in S} v_w \cdot v_{w'}$$

In order to improve the discriminative power of their target vectors, they use synsets relations, definitions and example sentences. These are used to get a more representative vector v_L . Given resources can be thought as sentences and sentence embeddings are calculated by getting a weighted average of word vectors of words that make up the sentence. The weighting is called smooth inverse frequency which was suggested by Arora *et al.* [67];

$$v_L = \sum_{w' \in L} \frac{a}{a + Pw'} v_{w'}$$

We will talk about sentence embeddings in detail for our approach in Section 3.1.

Third approach is word sense induction [68].

Gordeev *et al.* [69] uses unsupervised cross-lingual embeddings to match cross-lingual product classifications. Working on taxonomy matching, they use out of domain pre-trained embeddings due to small size of their corpora and investigate methods using untranslated and translated text.

Lesk [70] represent words using their gloss. Relied upon traditional dictionaries.

Banerjee & Pedersen [55] developed on lesk algorithm and included WordNet definitions.

Metzler *et al.* [71] talked about short text retrieval and lexical matching. They reported that lexical matching is good for finding semantically identical matches.

Chapter 3

Unsupervised Matching

3.1 Linear Assignment Using Sentence Embeddings

Word embeddings represent single tokens or n-grams such as *San Francisco* depending on the implementation. Yet, word2vec suggested and proved that word embeddings are compositional [24]. Research then moved on to study the representation of longer pieces of text like documents, paragraphs and sentences. Implementations like Le & Mikolov [72] extended the skip-gram idea from Mikolov *et al.* [24] to learn the feature vectors for *paragraphs* and used them to predict surrounding paragraphs in the text. Approaches like Kiros *et al.* [73] trained an encoder that constructed surrounding sentences to learn sentence representations. However, corpora in question for the given studies are continuous. When the document collection we would like to show on a latent space is not part of a longer text but occur as *discrete* pieces, that assumption does not hold. Regarding dictionary definitions, we cannot rely on continuous models. Our dictionary definitions are written with of 10 to 11 words each with no relation from one distinct dictionary definition to another. Refer to Table 3.1 for examples of a typical collection of definitions.

With such short pieces of text, considering the scope of a possible model could have, instead of paragraph embeddings we can talk about *sentence embeddings*. A sentence embedding model should ideally capture the collective meaning of the short text where every word is potentially informative and discriminative.

Wieting *et al.* [74] studied sentence embeddings and reported that averaging word embeddings that make up a sentence to get sentence embeddings is a valid and surprisingly effective approach. Arora *et al.* [67] built upon the simple model and has shown that

weighed average of word vectors perform so well, their publication is called; “A Simple but Tough-to-Beat Baseline for Sentence Embeddings”. In the suggested approach, word embeddings that make up a sentence is weighed with a scale called *smooth inverse frequency* and averaged across the sentence. Smooth inverse frequency is suggested as

$$\text{SIF}(w) = \frac{a}{a + p(w)}$$

where a is a hyperparameter and $p(w)$ is the estimated word probability [67].

Using smooth inverse frequency weighting, word embeddings $v_w \in R^d$ where word w is in a vocabulary V can be averaged over a sentence S such that $S \subset V$ to get sentence embedding v_S in the same dimensionality R^d .

$$v_S = \frac{1}{|S|} \sum_{w \in S} \text{SIF}(w) v_w \quad (3.1)$$

The authors point out that the metric is similar to *tf-idf* weighting scheme if “one treats a ‘sentence’ as a ‘document’ and make the reasonable assumption that the sentence doesn’t typically contain repeated words” [67]. These assumptions hold for us so we scaled our word embeddings using *tf-idf* weights to get sentence embeddings.

$$v_S = \frac{1}{|S|} \sum_{w \in S} \text{tf-idf}_{w,S} v_w \quad (3.2)$$

Parallel to Arora *et al.*, Zhao *et al.* [75] used two approaches for sentence embeddings in order to solve SemEval-2015 Task 2: Semantic Textual Similarity¹. First, for a sentence $S = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_s)$ where the length of the presumably small sentence is $|S| = s$ and the word embedding of a word w is v_w ;

- They summed up the word embeddings of the sentence $\sum_{t \in S} v_t$
- Used information content [76] to weigh each word’s LSA vector $\sum_{w \in S} I(w) v_w$

Both approaches results in a vector that is in the same dimensions R^d as the original word representations.

¹<http://alt.qcri.org/semeval2015/task2/>

TABLE 3.1: Some definitions from English Princeton WordNet

| |
|---|
| turn red, as if in embarrassment or shame |
| a feeling of extreme joy |
| a person who charms others (usually by personal attractiveness) |
| so as to appear worn and threadbare or dilapidated |
| a large indefinite number |
| distributed in portions (often equal) on the basis of a plan or purpose |
| a lengthy rebuke |

Edilson A. Corrêa *et al.* [77] expanded upon this simple yet effective idea to tackle the SemEval-2017 Task 4², Sentiment Analysis in Twitter. We have mentioned the discrete short pieces of text that are present in our definition corpora. *Twitter* exhibits a very similar case to our study.³ *Tweets* are short pieces of text due to the 280 character constraint imposed by the platform. In order to acquire embeddings that represented *tweets*, they weighed the word embeddings that made up a tweet; $\text{tweet}_i = (w_{i1}, w_{i2}, \dots, w_{im})$ with the *tf-idf* weights. For the *tf-idf* calculation, they cast individual weights as documents so that term frequency become the term count in a single tweet while document frequency become the number of tweets the term w_t occurs.

For the *tf-idf* calculations, we followed a similar approach. The term frequency is the raw count of a term in a dictionary definition. While the document frequency is the number of dictionary definitions where w occurs.

Then, with a term embedding matrix at hand, we have calculated definition embeddings using;

$$S_{\text{emb}}(S) = \sum_{t \in S} \text{tf}_{t,S} \cdot \text{idf}_t \cdot \text{Emb}_w(t) \quad (3.3)$$

Every word that makes up a definition is scaled by its vector in \mathbb{R}^n , then concatenated to form sentence embeddings on \mathbb{R}^n .

As we have N definitions in source wordnet (English Princeton WordNet) and target wordnet we have accepted as golden or perfectly aligned, we now hypothesize that there exists a one-to-one mapping between two sets. In order to discover this mapping, we can get leverage the sentence embeddings we just got and cast the cosine similarity between two sentence embeddings across languages as the weight between them. Given N real

²<http://alt.qcri.org/semeval2017/task4>

³<https://twitter.com>

valued vectors from source and target wordnet this problem naively iterates over $N!$ matchings to find the case where the sum of the similarity is maximum. Our problem is an instance of an linear assignment problem.

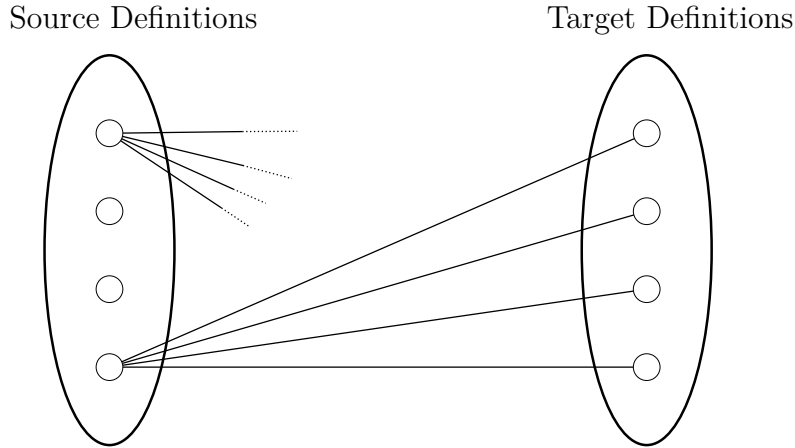


FIGURE 3.1: Matching sentence embeddings can be shown as finding the minimum flow in a bipartite graph. Connections are similarity between sentences and not all connections are shown

3.2 Linear Assignment Algorithm

Linear assignment problem is an optimization problem where a cost matrix is solved. A cost matrix is formulated such that each row corresponds to a task and each column corresponds to a solver agent. The aim is to find an assignment such that each task is solved by one agent and the total cost is minimized.

In our case, this formulation corresponds to two sets of wordnet definitions. The definitions are disjoint and independent with respect to their parent wordnet. The weights among the sets are the similarity between individual dictionary definitions. Refer to Figure 3.1 for a representation of this notation.

We have calculated sentence embeddings such that each node of the graph is an d dimensional sentence vector $v_s \in R^d$. The weights that connect one definition to another in this bipartite graph is the cosine similarity between two sentence's sentence

vectors. Cosine similarity is constrained in $[0, 1]$ where 1 is perfect similarity and 0 denotes two orthogonal vectors, or no similarity. This is crucial for our task such that we set out to maximize the total weight in this matching.

One of the most famous solvers for the linear assignment problem is the Hungarian method [78]. Given a qualification matrix, the Hungarian method uses a heuristic to solve the assignment in $O(n^3)$ time. We use Jonker & Volgenant [79] solver for the problem. Jonker & Volgenant improve upon the Hungarian Algorithm using initialization heuristics and shortest path algorithm of Dijkstra [80]. The time complexity is still $O(n^3)$ but in real life problems, Jonker & Volgenant is faster.

3.2.1 Creating The Cost Matrix

The creation of the cost matrix starts with the bilingual word embedding matrix W . W is $m \times d$ where d is the dimensionality of the word embeddings and m is the size of the joint vocabulary across two wordnets $|V|$. The definitions are parsed into term document matrices such that we obtain two matrices T_s and T_t for source and target dictionaries. We weigh T_s and T_t using *tf-idf* as we have mentioned before, the term count is the number of times a term occurs in a definition and document frequency is the number of definitions that include the term. The resulting matrices are T'_s and T'_t . In order to get sentence embedding matrices, first we normalize the term document matrices and run matrix multiplication such that;

$$S_x = T'_x \times W \quad (3.4)$$

using this equation, we obtain S_s and S_t for source and target sentence embeddings. By multiplying of S_s and the transpose of the S_t , S_t^T , we obtain a cost matrix C that is immediately compatible with the linear assignment solver. An element $c_{i,j}$ of C is the cosine similarity between source definition i and target definition j .

3.2.2 Evaluation

Since matching definitions across wordnets gives us a single *answer* for each *query*, we can only report the precision at 1 metric for this task.

Chapter 4

Dictionary Alignment as Pseudo-Document Retrieval

Document retrieval is the prototypical information retrieval task. Bush [81] theorized the possibilities of the automatic information retrieval by machines in his essay titled “As We May Think”. On his “Modern Information Retrieval”, Singhal [82] gives due credit to Luhn [83] for the initial suggestion of using word overlap in document retrieval.

Modern information retrieval techniques are out of the scope of this thesis, our short definitions are arguably not even documents. Yet, we can still benefit from the tried and tested methods of the early information retrieval. Considering the small collection of documents at hand, first we will investigate if we can handle the task using approaches that were available to the researchers when the size of corpora that were available to them were small as well [82].

4.1 Monolingual Retrieval

First of all, by collecting English Princeton WordNet definitions and target wordnet definitions, we created a corpora suitable for the task by translating the target language’s definitions to English using Google Translate. We used the Google Cloud API¹ in order to automate the process.

Table 4.1 presents some definitions and their automated translations to English. While the translations can inform the user about the general sense of the word, sentence

¹<https://cloud.google.com/translate>

| Original Definition | Translated Definition |
|---|---|
| bila pri starih Grkih in Rimljanih vojna ladja s tremi vrstami vesel | with the ancient Greeks and Romans, a three-wheeled war ship was happy |
| znanstvena veja matematike, ki se ukvarja s prostorskimi lastnostmi teles in njihovimi medsebojnimi odnosi | the scientific branch of mathematics, which deals with the spatial properties of the bodies and their interrelations |
| circumstançe, stări de fapte, lucruri luate în calcul într + o discuție sau dezbatare | circumstances, facts, things taken into account in a discussion or discussion |
| Fază a lunii în care este complet iluminată | Phase of the month in which it is fully illuminated |
| Persoană care se ocupă cu pescuitul și uneori cu conservarea peștelui pescuit | A person who deals with fishing and sometimes with the conservation of fish fishing |
| E bëj diçka që të shkojë e të përputhet me një qëllim të caktuar, i bëj ndryshimet e ndreqjet e nevojshme, që t'u përgjigjet kushteve e rrethanave të caktuara. | I do something to go and match a certain purpose, make the necessary adjustments and adjustments, to respond to certain conditions and circumstances. |
| pohoj, a paraqit dikujt një gjë për ta parë, për t'u njohur me të a për të gjykuar për të; zbuloj diçka që të shihet; tregoj | I assure you, did someone present a thing to see, to know him or to judge him? I find something to be seen; show |

TABLE 4.1: Example definitions and translations

structure is flawed at times. We can also see word duplication when synonyms collapse into single words. These shortcomings are also reported by Groves & Mundt [84].

With the English Princeton WordNet definitions and 6 target wordnet definitions at hand, we can handle the task as *monolingual document retrieval*. As usual, we present our methods with a single wordnet which is repeated for 6 wordnets trivially. We will use the vector space model that was mentioned in Chapter 2 to have real valued vectors that represent the definitions.

4.1.1 Term Document Matrix

With the corpora of two wordnets in English, we have can use a single vocabulary V . With the definition collection and the vocabulary at hand, we create a *term-document* matrix. In this instance of the term-document matrix, rows represent the documents and columns denote individual vocabulary entries. Such a matrix C is m by n while m is the number of documents and n is the size of the vocabulary $|V|$. Our definitions are used as short documents so we use the terms *definition* and *document* interchangeably with the added benefit of using d to denote either of them.

For any element of C , $c_{i,j}$ is the number of times j occurs in the document i . This matrix is sparse since documents use a fraction of the available vocabulary V . Our case with definitions is no different with an average of 10.62 words per definition with vocabulary sizes well over 10,000.

4.1.2 Term Weighting

Elements of a term-document matrix is scaled in order to assign weights to elements according to their discriminative power [85]. Stopwords like “the”, “and” have virtually no significance and terms that are common in the corpora’s domain will have no discriminating power either [85].

What is a good scaling method for term weighing? *tf-idf* is composed of two scores; term frequency *tf* and inverse document frequency *idf*. *idf* was initially suggested by Jones [33] and is highlighted by Manning *et al.* [85]. Term frequency $tf_{w,d}$ is the number of times term w occurs in a document d . Inverse document frequency idf_w is calculated using the number of documents that contain the term w which is also known as the document frequency of w , df_w . We have used the smooth variant of idf

as follows;

$$idf_w = \log \frac{N + 1}{df_w + 1} \quad (4.1)$$

Where N is the number of documents in the corpus. $\log(\cdot)$ is used to dampen the effect of the idf . Using idf ensures that terms that appear rarely have a bigger influence and coupled with tf , the highest weights are given to rare terms when they appear numerous times in a document. On the other hand, terms that appear commonly in documents or even in every document lose their influence [85]. By weighing our term-document matrix C , for any term $x_{i,j}$

$$x_{i,j} = tf_{td} \cdot idf_t \quad (4.2)$$

term $x_{i,j}$ shows the importance of term t with relation to its general significance throughout the corpus. Our choice of $tf-idf$ weighting is further motivated by Ruiz-Casado *et al.* [86] in which they claim superior results in discovering correct wordnet definitions using $tf-idf$ weights.

4.1.3 Similarity Measure

With our term-document matrix ready, similarity between two documents can be calculated by assigning a scoring scheme that uses document vectors. *Cosine similarity* is a measure that assigns to find the cosine of the angle between two vectors as their similarity score and scales to multidimensional case trivially. Moreover, since the majority of the dimensions between the vectors are zero, cosine similarity ignores these dimensions and implicitly considers the non-zero dimensions.

For the row vector \vec{d}_t and \vec{d}_p , cosine similarity between definitions t, p is

$$\cos(\theta) = \text{sim}(d_t, d_p) = \frac{\vec{d}_t \cdot \vec{d}_p}{|\vec{d}_t| |\vec{d}_p|} \quad (4.3)$$

4.1.4 Retrieval

With definition vectors and a similarity measure at hand, we split the $tf-idf$ weighted term-document matrix C' as English Princeton WordNet definitions and target wordnet definitions. The target wordnet definitions were used as pseudo-queries and English Princeton WordNet definitions were used as the document collection to retrieve definitions from. In Figure 4.1, we show the overview of the process. As we have mentioned

in Chapter 3, the golden corpora we use includes the same number of definitions on both collections. This number is shown as k in Figure 4.1.

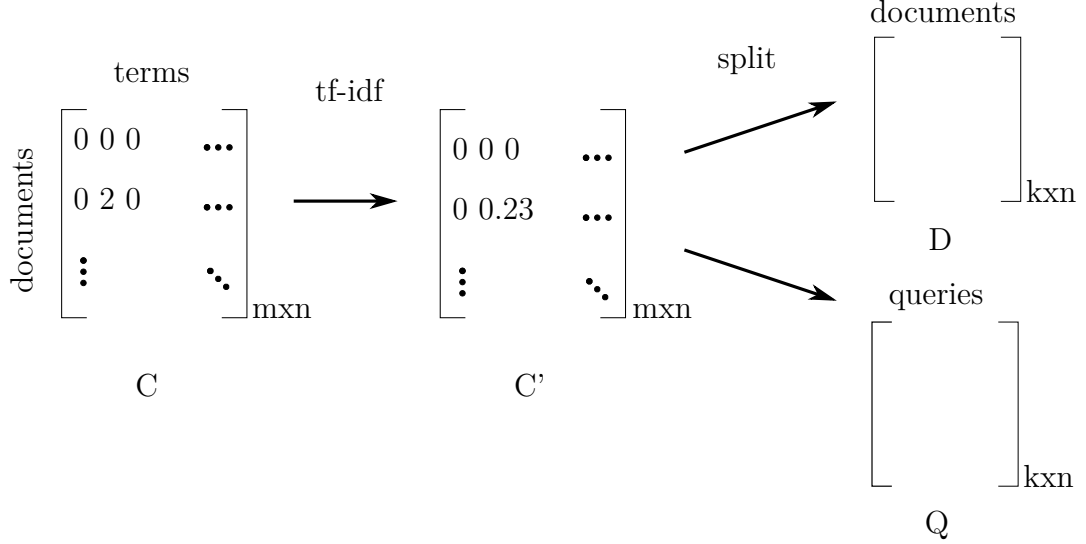


FIGURE 4.1: Term document matrix to queries and documents

In order to retrieve and rank definitions given the query definition, cosine similarity between query and each corpus definition is calculated. The similarity scores that range between 0 and 1 are sorted in descending order with the definition index attached. The retrieved documents are ranked according to their similarity score. Since the definitions are aligned across wordnets, a correctly retrieved definition will have the same index as the query definition. By sorting the retrieved indices of the definitions, we have a ranking system.

4.1.5 Evaluation

Information retrieval literature usually uses *precision* and *recall* as the evaluation metric with the assumption that the user wants to receive as many relevant documents as possible [87]. However, we only have one correct definition we are interested in and cannot access relevance any further for any other retrieved definitions anyway. The only information our corpora provides is that *correct* definition to retrieve has the same index as the query. So, we used a tweaked version of *Mean reciprocal rank* (MRR) as introduced by Voorhees [88]. In their work, mean reciprocal rank was used in order to evaluate a question answering track where a singular correct answer was sought among

several answers and is rewarded according to the rank of the correct item. In other words, mean reciprocal rank evaluates a system’s retrieval score with respect to the rank of a single correct answer, averaged over all the queries. Considering that we have k definitions that we cast as queries, the MRR is calculated as

$$\text{MRR} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{q=1}^k \frac{1}{R(q)} \quad (4.4)$$

Where rank_q is the ranking of the *correct* definition for the query q .

| English Princeton WordNet Definition | Translated Definition |
|--|---|
| ancient Greek or Roman galley or warship having three tiers of oars on each side | with the ancient Greeks and Romans, a three-wheeled war ship was happy |
| the pure mathematics of points and lines and curves and surfaces | the scientific branch of mathematics, which deals with the spatial properties of the bodies and their interrelations |
| everything stated or assumed in a given discussion | circumstances, facts, things taken into account in a discussion or discussion |
| the time when the Moon is fully illuminated | Phase of the month in which it is fully illuminated |
| someone whose occupation is catching fish | A person who deals with fishing and sometimes with the conservation of fish fishing |
| make fit for, or change to suit a new purpose | I do something to go and match a certain purpose, make the necessary adjustments and adjustments, to respond to certain conditions and circumstances. |
| admit (to a wrongdoing) | I assure you, did someone present a thing to see, to know him or to judge him? I find something to be seen; show |

TABLE 4.2: English Princeton WordNet definitions and the target word-net definitions we want to match

4.2 Cross Lingual Document Retrival

In this section, we will talk about the methods that allowed us to use bilingual word embeddings to retrieve definitions while keeping them in their own language.

4.2.1 Word Movers Distance

Following the popularization of the word2vec [24], Kusner *et al.* [22] introduced *word mover's distance*. In order to explain the algorithm, first we should talk about the motivation behind it.

We have studied bag of words representation for document retrieval tasks, using *tf-idf* weights. Kusner *et al.* gives a brilliant example where relying on word overlap falls short;

Obama speaks to the media in Illinois The President greets the press in Chicago

After the stop words are removed, the resulting tokens {Obama, speaks, media, Illinois} and {President, greets, press, Chicago} have no overlap so their vector representations would be orthogonal, showing maximum dissimilarity. Yet they convey the same meaning semantically. By calculating the distances between individual words of documents, it can be proven that the case above is basically the same sentence. Using this case as their motivation, Kusner *et al.* adapted the optimal transport theorem [89], an optimization technique like the one discussed in Chapter 3. This theorem deals with the energy cost of transporting one arbitrary mass to another, often explained with transporting piles of dirt analogy. Their idea starts by casting documents as probability distributions defined over word embeddings of the words they are written with. First, words of a document is chosen as the elements of a document's probability distribution. We now know that relying on sameness or word overlap is not feasible so the words are instead represented by their d dimensional word embeddings. The distance between two words can be represented by the Euclidian distance between them over d dimensions, or;

$$d(w_a, w_b) = ||w_a - w_b||_2$$

Kusner *et al.* [22] calls this the travel cost between word w^a and w^b . Now that the distance or the cost between words can be shown, two documents d_i and d_j , respectively written using words such that $d_i = \{w_1^i, w_2^i \dots w_n^i\}$ and $d_j = \{w_1^j, w_2^j \dots w_n^j\}$, a *flow matrix* can be formulated using the distances between every w_x^i and w_y^j pair. This flow

matrix is called T and an element $T_{i,j}$ is the distance needed to travel when starting from word i to reach word j . The T is optimized to find the minimum distance possible between d_i and d_j using linear programming. Optimization *chooses* which word pairs to use to travel from one document to another and when cast over a whole corpus, similar documents will have lower minimal costs on their T matrices depending if their words are easily *moveable* across each other.

4.2.2 Cross Lingual Word Mover’s Distance

Balikas *et al.* [21] extended the word mover’s distance with two additions. First, instead of normalized bag of words representation for the documents, they introduced term frequency and *tf-idf* to weigh the documents. Second addition is to use word mover’s distance using bilingual word embeddings.

4.2.3 Evaluation

We present mean reciprocal rank that we have mentioned in Section 4.1.5. Furthermore, we also report precision at 10 metric, that is if the correct definition was retrieved among the 10 closest definitions retrieved.

Chapter 5

Supervised Validation

The approaches we have presented so far work fully unsupervised. Given two collections of definitions, we have studied the methods that retrieved the definition(s) that represented the same meaning. In this chapter, given the moderately sized data in our hands we have accepted as “golden”, we will investigate the feasibility of training an encoder [90], where the objective is to learn whether the pair of definitions entail the same sense across languages.

Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) architectures improve upon the prototypical neural network model by introducing a *memory* for the connections in the network [91]. By updating the hidden unit over time using the output of the previous time step, the model can *remember* features of the input signal for later inputs. One particular architecture of RNNs proposed by Hochreiter & Schmidhuber [92] is *long short-term memory* (LSTM). LSTM models have been successful on language modelling tasks [90], handwriting recognition [93, 94] and machine translation with a focus on rare words [95]. Highlight of these results are that LSTM has an advantage on tasks that require contextual information to persist over long periods of time [96]. Furthermore, LSTMs do not require fixed input vectors, which is a necessity for us since our definition pairs do not have to be the same size.

5.0.1 Vanishing Gradient Problem

LSTM is born out of the need to address the *vanishing gradient problem* [92, 97]. On the original publication by Hochreiter & Schmidhuber [92], a crucial shortcoming of RNNs have been identified as their slow rate of training which may not converge in the end at all. Independently, Bengio *et al.* [97] suggested that the problem stems from the choice between the conservation of the previous inputs versus resisting against the

noise they accumulate. Figure 5.1 illustrates the problem using shades as the influence of input over neural network units. As the input signal traverses the units of an RNN, it either diminishes or blows up [96].

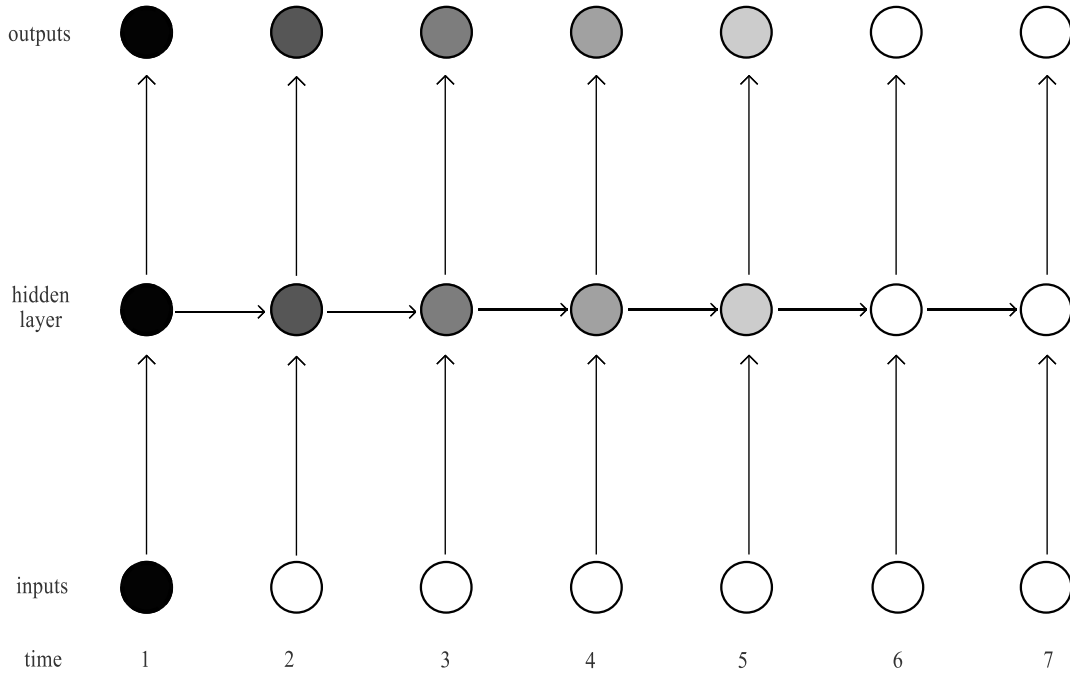


FIGURE 5.1: Graphical representation of vanishing gradient problem where the shades of the nodes represent the influence of the input signal [96]

5.0.2 Long Short-Term Memory

LSTM is the solution highlighted by Graves [96] as a recurrent neural network model that can work over temporally distant input signals while preserving their influence or diminishing their noise. The centrepiece idea is to use a *constant error carousel*, special cells that enforce a constant error flow. This complex unit is named *memory cell* [92]. Using an *input gate*, the cell is updated if the current input is relevant and using an *output gate*, the unit will not update other cells if the current output is not relevant. A simplified overview of the suggested model is presented in Figure 5.2.

Multiple arrows denote input from current time frame and recurrent connections. \odot symbol denotes multiplication. By weighing the input and output gates between 0 and 1, the impact of the current input and output can be adjusted. Overall, input gate controls how much cell will learn and output gate controls how much the cell will

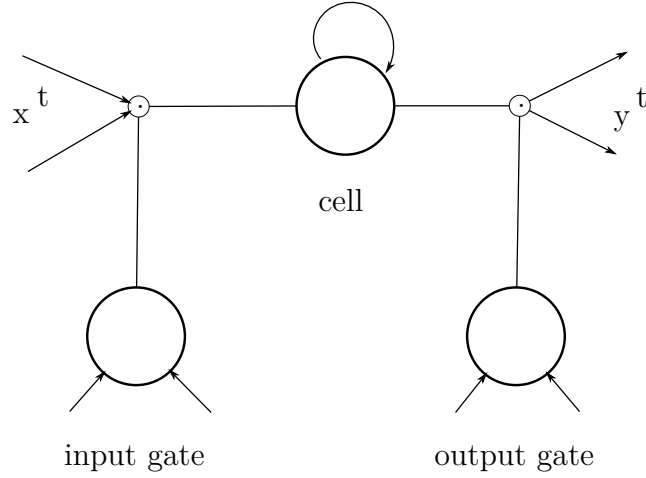


FIGURE 5.2: Simplified long short-term memory cell architecture

propagate. Figure 5.3 adapted from Graves [96] illustrates how the LSTMs operate against vanishing gradient.

Two gates on top of the cell structure model got extended with a third *forget gate* by Gers *et al.* [98]. The aim was to handle input sequences that are not segmented in a predictable manner. The error signals were getting carried too far back in time which deteriorated the performance on tasks with continuous input streams. The proposed forget gate is implemented to *reset* the cell. When a cell state got irrelevant due to a change in problem domain, forget gate gradually resets the cell state instead of erroneous activations from the input gate attempting to inefficiently do so.

Another extension came in the form of *peephole connections* by Gers *et al.* [99]. With this addition, the gates can use the cell state to increase their sensitivity to *timing* in the input data. By allowing internal gates to inspect the cell state, they have shown improvements on non-linear tasks.

The finalized model with input, forget and output gates as well as the internal peephole connections was debuted in Graves & Schmidhuber [100]. In their expansive study comparing 8 LSTM variants over 15 years of CPU time, Greff *et al.* [101] named this model the “vanilla LSTM”. This particular form of LSTM is commonly used [90].

The real valued vectors are denoted alongside their update time step $(\cdot)_t$ such that

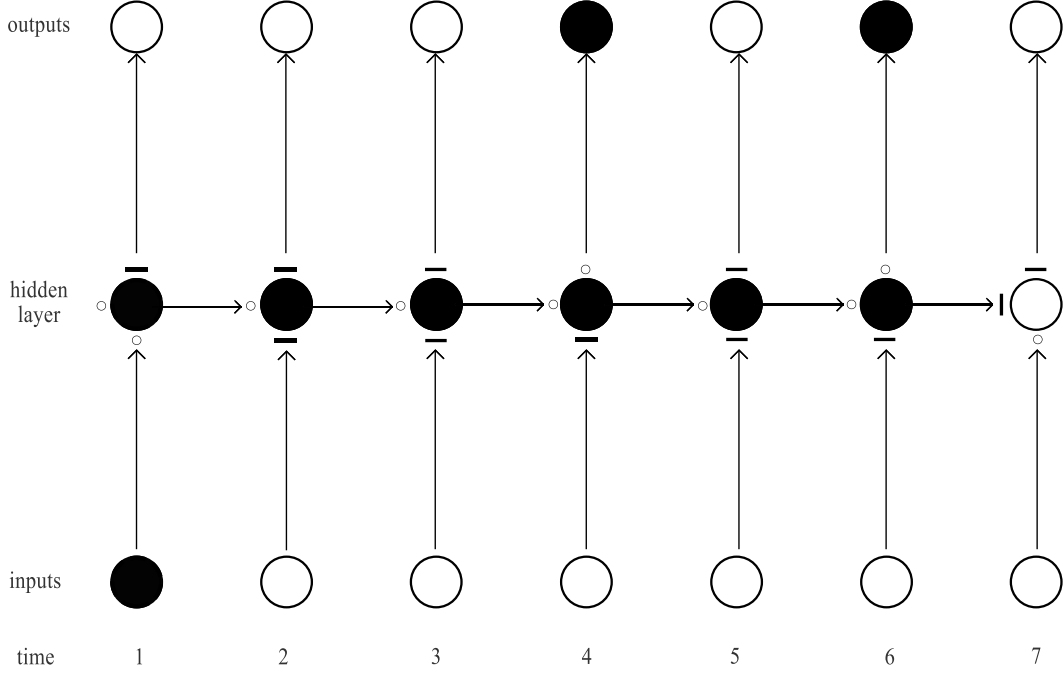


FIGURE 5.3: Preserving the input signal through blocking (-) or allowing (O) the input signal, adapted from Figure 4.4 of Graves [96]

$t \in 1, \dots, T$. Updates are performed on the input gate i_t , memory cell c_t , forget gate f_t and output gate o_t . We show the updates over weight matrices W_i, W_f, W_c and W_o via the use of recurrent weights R_i, R_f, R_c and R_o and bias vectors b_i, b_f, b_c and b_o . Peephole connections are shown using p . for input, forget and output gates as p_i, p_f and p_o respectively. Finally, the input is a sequence of data in the form of (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_T) and the model outputs real valued vector y_t at the time step t .

$$i^t = \sigma(W_i x^t + R_i y^{t-1} + p_i \odot c^{t-1} + b_i) \quad (5.1)$$

$$f^t = \sigma(W_f x^t + R_f y^{t-1} + p_f \odot c^{t-1} + b_f) \quad (5.2)$$

$$\bar{c}^t = W_c x^t + R_c y^{t-1} + b_c \quad (5.3)$$

$$c_t = \tanh(i^t \odot \bar{c}^t + f_t \odot c^{t-1}) \quad (5.4)$$

$$o^t = \sigma(W_o x^t + R_o y^{t-1} + p_o \odot c^t + b_o) \quad (5.5)$$

$$y^t = \tanh(o_t) \odot c^t \quad (5.6)$$

Where $\sigma(\cdot)$ is the *logistic sigmoid* function $\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$ and pointwise vector multiplication is denoted using \odot . The recurrence holds via the usage of signals from the previous time steps $(\cdot)^{t-1}$.

5.0.3 Siamese Long Short-Term Memory

Recently, Mueller & Thyagarajan [102] proposed a *siamese* model to solve sentence similarity problem. They suggest using two discrete LSTM units that accept input from two separate streams. They are denoted as LSTM_a and LSTM_b. The weights are shared between the networks such that LSTM_a = LSTM_b. The Manhattan distance is used as the measure of similarity between the sentences.

We extend the siamese network architecture by using bilingual word embeddings. Our learning objective encodes a sense to be represented across languages using bilingual word embeddings.

We used a similarity function that relies on cosine similarity over the outputs of the LSTM units.

$$\exp(-\sum ||y^s \cdot y^t||_2) \quad (5.7)$$

Where y^s is the output of the LSTM that encodes the source definitions and y^t is the output of the LSTM that encodes the target definitions. We use adelta optimizer as suggested by Zeiler [103] and our loss function is the mean squared error. We train our model using positive and negative samples. With the aligned golden corpora, we randomly shuffled half of the definitions and assigned them the label 0. The shuffle was done randomly since if we had chosen to only shuffle the latter half for instance, definitions that clump together might have related definitions or definitions from the same domain. So we tried to avoid assigning label 0 to related definitions.

The definitions are one hot encoded into a vector T . T is the indices of a definition's words and acts as a lookup for the embedding layer on top of the input layer. Any sentence that is longer than T will have words dropped. We have experimented with

various values for T and found that more than twice the average word count across the whole corpora work best. Following the input layer and the embedding layer, we have positioned the shared LSTM layer. The output of which is concatenated and fed into the mean squared error. We validate our model with respect to accuracy.

Chapter 6

Experiments and Evaluation

6.1 Mapping Word Embeddings

We experimented with in domain *fasttext* embeddings. We have trained Romanian and Bulgarian embeddings and ran the WMD and Sinkhorn experiments. The performance dropped to the quarter of pre-trained embeddings so we have not repeated the experiments for other language corpora.

We have evaluated our embeddings using the standard bilingual lexicon extraction as a general measure for their performance. Although Ruder *et al.* [104] and Glavas *et al.* [105] both say you should evaluate them using downstream tasks.

| Language | FastText 1M | FastText 500k | numberbatch |
|----------|-------------|---------------|-------------|
| bg | 33.61 | 35.17 | 51.97 |
| el | 37.37 | 39.58 | 30.35 |
| it | 58.20 | 59.28 | 50.37 |
| ro | 37.33 | 38.71 | 64.17 |
| sl | 21.42 | 22.91 | 74.74 |
| sq | 24.46 | 25.36 | 58.63 |

TABLE 6.1: Accuracy Scores of the Vectors Aligned Using VecMap

| Language | FastText 1M | FastText 500k | numberbatch |
|----------|-------------|---------------|-------------|
| bg | 96.43 | 93.36 | 17.53 |
| el | 94.44 | 90.28 | 12.15 |
| it | 97.93 | 95.97 | 41.08 |
| ro | 97.06 | 94.91 | 16.4 |
| sl | 94.67 | 90.73 | 9.23 |
| sq | 83.59 | 80.92 | 9.51 |

TABLE 6.2: Coverage Scores for the Vectors Aligned Using VecMap

| Language | Percentage of Correctly Matched Definitions | | |
|----------|---|---------------|-------------|
| | fastText 1M | fastText 500k | Numberbatch |
| bg | 0.39 | 0.41 | 0.19 |
| el | 0.37 | 0.38 | 0.14 |
| it | 0.28 | 0.28 | 0.36 |
| ro | 0.39 | 0.39 | 0.20 |
| sl | 0.15 | 0.15 | 0.06 |
| sq | 0.55 | 0.54 | 0.27 |

TABLE 6.3: Linear Assignment Using 2000 Definitions

| Language | Percentage of Correctly Matched Definitions | | |
|----------|---|---------------|-------------|
| | fastText 1M | fastText 500k | Numberbatch |
| bg | 0.35 | 0.36 | 0.18 |
| el | 0.36 | 0.36 | 0.12 |
| it | 0.25 | 0.25 | 0.32 |
| ro | 0.36 | 0.37 | 0.19 |
| sl | 0.11 | 0.11 | 0.05 |
| sq | 0.39 | 0.40 | 0.19 |

TABLE 6.4: Linear Assignment Using 3000 Definitions

| | fastText 1M | fastText 500k | Numberbatch |
|---------|-------------|---------------|-------------|
| Best | 0.55 | 0.54 | 0.36 |
| Worst | 0.11 | 0.11 | 0.05 |
| Average | 0.33 | 0.33 | 0.19 |

TABLE 6.5: Summary of Linear Assignment

| Language | MRR | Top 10 | Top 10 % | Top 1 | Top 1 % |
|----------|-------|--------|----------|-------|---------|
| bg | 0.087 | 674 | 0.337 | 403 | 0.202 |
| el | 0.122 | 1006 | 0.503 | 709 | 0.355 |
| it | 0.016 | 476 | 0.238 | 250 | 0.125 |
| ro | 0.051 | 988 | 0.494 | 728 | 0.364 |
| sl | 0.073 | 584 | 0.292 | 317 | 0.159 |
| sq | 0.056 | 979 | 0.490 | 767 | 0.384 |

TABLE 6.6: Experiment results for monolingual retrieval

6.2 Results

6.2.1 Monolingual Retrieval Results

6.2.2 Cross Lingual Retrieval Results

6.3 Case Study

In order to test our approach, we have acquired a general purpose Turkish dictionary¹, to be used for research purposes. The dictionary was in a proprietary format so we have parsed the terms alongside their definitions. The parts of speech for the terms are also extracted. All in all, 67351 headwords with 93062 definitions are parsed.

We have shown that the approaches we have presented so far are bound by their memory restrictions. We have tried to overcome it by running the experiment on only nouns but the issue persisted for the case study as well. As a result, we referred to Khodak *et al.* [66] and constrained our scope to a list of core WordNet synsets. Open Multilingual Wordnet hosts² a list that identifies 4961 WordNet identifiers in the form of offset and part of speech that is compatible with the nltk library. The list has been prepared in Boyd-Graber *et al.* [61] by human evaluators by selecting salient synsets from a list of frequent words. By using a core WordNet, we picked ourselves a problem domain we can tackle. We also deleted the identifiers for verbs and adjectives and worked only with nouns. Then, the experiment set for the Turkish dictionary is selected by translating the lemmas that belong to core WordNet synsets to Turkish and using the resulting set to query the headwords of the Turkish dictionary. Using this method, we obtained 702 Turkish definitions and 3280 WordNet definitions.

¹We would like to thank Hülya Küçükarakas once more

²<http://compling.hss.ntu.edu.sg/omw/wn30-core-synsets.tab>

| Language | Vector | Vocabulary Size | WMD - tfidf | | Sinkhorn tfidf | | WMD - tfidf | |
|----------|---------------|-----------------|-------------|----------|----------------|----------|-------------|----------|
| | | | MRR | Hits @ 1 | MRR | Hits @ 1 | MRR | Hits @ 1 |
| bg | 1M Fasttext | 10532 | 0.5083 | 0.4150 | 0.5185 | 0.4265 | 0.4181 | 0.3395 |
| | 500k Fasttext | 10457 | 0.5115 | 0.4190 | 0.5224 | 0.4300 | 0.4218 | 0.3415 |
| | Numberbatch | 6028 | 0.2532 | 0.1745 | 0.2497 | 0.1715 | 0.1855 | 0.1230 |
| el | 1M Fasttext | 9307 | 0.4782 | 0.3905 | 0.4867 | 0.4015 | 0.4074 | 0.3285 |
| | 500k Fasttext | 9168 | 0.4745 | 0.3845 | 0.4845 | 0.3995 | 0.4053 | 0.3255 |
| | Numberbatch | 5127 | 0.1992 | 0.1315 | 0.2006 | 0.1340 | 0.1471 | 0.0995 |
| it | 1M Fasttext | 10025 | 0.4024 | 0.3115 | 0.4060 | 0.3145 | 0.3198 | 0.2350 |
| | 500k Fasttext | 9975 | 0.4027 | 0.3115 | 0.4049 | 0.3130 | 0.3211 | 0.2365 |
| | Numberbatch | 8875 | 0.4272 | 0.3330 | 0.4277 | 0.3335 | 0.3511 | 0.2670 |
| ro | 1M Fasttext | 12165 | 0.5130 | 0.4160 | 0.5195 | 0.4150 | 0.4420 | 0.3590 |
| | 500k Fasttext | 12034 | 0.5128 | 0.4165 | 0.5237 | 0.4220 | 0.4385 | 0.3550 |
| | Numberbatch | 6939 | 0.2768 | 0.1985 | 0.2770 | 0.1980 | 0.2157 | 0.1570 |
| sl | 1M Fasttext | 12185 | 0.2622 | 0.1780 | 0.2638 | 0.1805 | 0.2343 | 0.1510 |
| | 500k Fasttext | 12020 | 0.2612 | 0.1780 | 0.2631 | 0.1795 | 0.2347 | 0.1515 |
| | Numberbatch | 5870 | 0.0935 | 0.0480 | 0.0946 | 0.0500 | 0.0635 | 0.0290 |
| sq | 1M Fasttext | 8048 | 0.6566 | 0.5915 | 0.6397 | 0.5640 | 0.5647 | 0.4855 |
| | 500k Fasttext | 7990 | 0.6561 | 0.5870 | 0.6442 | 0.5685 | 0.5661 | 0.4880 |
| | Numberbatch | 4908 | 0.3107 | 0.2355 | 0.3106 | 0.2330 | 0.2431 | 0.1780 |
| | | | 0.4000 | 0.3178 | 0.4021 | 0.3186 | 0.3322 | 0.2583 |

The methods we studied so far work with two corpora of the same size so we randomly picked 702 English WordNet definitions to go against 702 Turkish dictionary definitions. We use our best performing set of approaches; word mover’s distance using *tf-idf* weights, run on fastText embeddings mapped using VecMap. The bilingual dictionary provided by OpenSubtitles used in order to map Turkish and English fastText embeddings.

While preparing the corpora for the word mover’s distance, 101 Turkish definitions are dropped due to them having no words to be represented by fastText embeddings. Same number of English WordNet definitions are also dropped to keep to the symmetric size constraint. Then, word mover’s distance is run over 601 Turkish and English definitions.

We do not know the ground truth for the mapping in this study hence we cannot report for any evaluation metric. As a result, in Appendix [A](#), we present 100 randomly selected pairs that were retrieved as the top result against the Turkish query.

Chapter 7

Conclusion

Italian is a core language in numberbatch, the performance skyrockets!

7.1 Future Work

Transfer learning from ruder supports geomm, encode same sense using n languages and predict same sense in $n+1$ th language. Can plug ruiz wikipedia to extract possible senses and decide on the correct one.

Appendix A

Case Study - Aligning a Turkish Dictionary and English Princeton WordNet

| Turkish Definition | English WordNet Definition |
|---|--|
| birdenbire duyulan ağrı ya da türlü heyecanları anlatır | an absence of emotion or enthusiasm |
| meyve bisküvi vb ile yapılan bir İngiliz tatlısı | a small hard fruit |
| yalıtım tecrit | a thin coating or layer |
| bulgu araz | a pattern of symptoms indicative of some disease |
| 42195 m'lik en uzun yaya koşusu uzunkoşu | any long ditch cut in the ground |
| benzer olma durumu müşabehet | the quality of being similar |
| var olan bulunan | something that is lost |
| parmakların kapanmasıyla elin aldığı biçim | handwear covers the hand and wrist |
| zayıf olma durumu | any strong feeling |
| bir süreç içindeki durumlardan her biri basamak aşama rütbe mertebe | the effect of one thing or person on another |

Continued on next page

Table A.1 – *Continued from previous page*

| Turkish Definition | English WordNet Definition |
|--|---|
| bir birimin bölündüğü eşit parçalardan birini ya da birkaçını anlatan sayı | a unit of spoken language larger than a phoneme |
| haşhaş sütünü toplamakta kullanılan kaşık | grass mowed and cured for use as fodder |
| bir şeyi yapmayı önceden isteyip düşünme maksat | an act of intending a volition that you intend to carry out |
| ipekböceği kozaları çözülerek çıkarılan ve dokumacılıkta kullanılan çok ince esnek ve parlak tel | a very strong thick rope made of twisted hemp or steel wire |
| anadolu'nun doğu ve kuzey bölgelerinde en çok erzurum yöresinde el ele tutuşarak oynanan bir oyun | game a players turn to take some action permitted by the rules of the game |
| başkalarından saklanan duyurulmayan saklı kalan mahrem | a consecrated place where sacred objects are kept |
| bir kimseye ya da bir şeye karşı belli tavır takınmak | a feeling of sympathy for someone or something |
| tarihsel gelişme içinde belirli bir üretim ilişkisinin belirli bir aşamasında bir arada yaşayan insanların tümü | a large number of things or people considered together |
| bir cismin herhangi bir yöndeki uzanımı | a relatively small granular particle of a substance |
| organizmada birtakım değişikliklerin ortaya çıkmasıyla fizyoloji görevlerinin bozulması durumu sayrılık maraz esenlik" karşıtı | an impairment of health or a condition of abnormal functioning |
| yolcu ve gezmenlere geceleme olanağı sağlamak bunun yanında yemek eğlence gibi türlü hizmetleri sunmak ereğiyle kurulmuş işletme | a building where travelers can pay for lodging and meals and other services |

Continued on next page

Table A.1 – *Continued from previous page*

| Turkish Definition | English WordNet Definition |
|---|---|
| hükümdar ailesinden olan erkeklere verilen san | female of any member of the dog family |
| orduda yazı işleri ile uğraşan er ya da erbaş | a verbal or written request for assistance or employment or admission to a school |
| düşmanın gelmesi beklenen yollar üzerinde askeri önem taşıyan kentlerde geçit ve darboğazlarda güvenliği sağlamak için yapılan kalın duvarlı burçlu mazgallı yapı | an area within a building enclosed by walls and floor and ceiling |
| içi su ya da hava dolu ufak kabartı ya da kürecik | water in small drops in the atmosphere blown from waves or thrown up by a waterfall |
| hava ya da herhangi bir akışkanı bir yerden başka bir yere basınç yoluyla aktarmaya yarayan makine | a vertical flue that provides a path through which smoke from a fire is carried away through the wall or roof of a building |
| başkalarınca bilinmesi sakıncalı görülen bir gerçeği saklamaktan vazgeçip açıklama söyleme bildirme | an acknowledgment of the truth of something |
| bir bilim sanat meslek dalıyla ya da bir konu ile ilgili özel ve belirli bir kavramı olan sözcük ıstılah | an occupation requiring special education especially in the liberal arts or sciences |
| bir kilidi açıp kapamak için kullanılan araç açar açkı | a fastener fitted to a door or drawer to keep it firmly closed |
| işletilmek için bir yere ödünç verilen paraya karşılık alınan kâr ürem işlenti nema | a fixed charge for borrowing money usually a percentage of the amount borrowed |
| yeryüzü parçası yerey yer toprak alan | sloping land especially the slope beside a body of water |

Continued on next page

Table A.1 – *Continued from previous page*

| Turkish Definition | English WordNet Definition |
|--|---|
| yiyecek koymaya yarar az derin ve yayvan kap | metal or earthenware cooking vessel that is usually round and deep often has a handle and lid |
| yerleşik toplumsal düzeni köklü hızlı ve geniş kapsamlı olarak niteliksel değiştirme ve yeniden biçimlendirme eylemi inkılap | an extended social group having a distinctive cultural and economic organization |
| duygusal olma durumu | an unstable situation of extreme danger or difficulty |
| özel bir bozukluğu belirleyen bir arada görülen tanıyı kolaylaştıran bulgu ve belirtilerin tümü | a pattern of symptoms indicative of some disease |
| dumanı ocaktan çekip havaya vermeye yarayan maden ya da tuğla yol | a vertical flue that provides a path through which smoke from a fire is carried away through the wall or roof of a building |
| bir canlının üstünü kaplayan ve onu dış etkilere karşı koruyan kendiliğinden oluşmuş sertçe bölüm kışır | the activity of protecting someone or something |
| bir olayın ilk duyurusu olan biten salık | following the first in an ordering or series |
| çoğunlukla kare ya da silindir biçimindeki yüksek yapı | a protective covering or structure |
| bir yazıya başka bir yazarın yazısından alınmış parça aktarma iktibas | the form in which a text especially a printed book is published |
| felsefeyle uğraşan ve felsefenin gelişmesine katkıda bulunan kimse felsefeci feylesof | a specialist in philosophy |
| bir vücudun ya da bir organın yapı öğelerinden birini oluşturan gözeler bütünü nesiç | part of an organism consisting of an aggregate of cells having a similar structure and function |

Continued on next page

Table A.1 – *Continued from previous page*

| Turkish Definition | English WordNet Definition |
|--|---|
| fiziksel güç takat | the property of lacking physical or mental strength liability to failure under pressure or stress or strain |
| ilgisini çekmek önem vermek ya da bir şeyle ilgili kılmak | an act of help or assistance |
| askeri olmayan | a nonmilitary citizen |
| bir olayı gören izleyen kimse izleyici | someone who takes part in an activity |
| yapıları ve ulaşım araçlarını tren vapur gibi aydınlatmak havalandırmak amacıyla yapılan çerçeve cam panjur perde gibi eklentilerle daha kullanışlı bir duruma getirilen açıklık | a vertical flue that provides a path through which smoke from a fire is carried away through the wall or roof of a building |
| insanda ve omurgalılarda içinde beyin bulunan başın kemik bölümü | the bony skeleton of the head of vertebrates |
| özellikle sokakta ayağı korumak için giyilen iskarpin çizme kundura mokasen sandalet patik galoş gibi türleri olan ayak giyeceği pabuç | a shoe consisting of a sole fastened by straps to the foot |
| yüzeyi belirli uzunlukta bırakılmış ham-madde lifleriyle kaplı parlak yumuşak ku-maş | fabric woven from cotton fibers |
| delik yırtık ya da eski bir yeri uygun bir parça ile onarma kapatma | a piece of cloth used as decoration or to mend or cover a hole |
| ciltli ya da ciltsiz olarak bir araya getirilmiş basılı ya da yazılı kâğıt yaprakların tümü | one side of one leaf of a book or magazine or newspaper or letter etc or the written or pictorial matter it contains |

Continued on next page

Table A.1 – *Continued from previous page*

| Turkish Definition | English WordNet Definition |
|--|---|
| kuvvetin bir cismi bir nokta ya da bir eksen yöresinde döndürme etkisini belirleyen vektör niceliği | the effect of one thing or person on another |
| bir evin en geniş bölümü | an outbuilding or part of a building for housing automobiles |
| bez tahta kâğıt gibi maddeler üzerine yapılmış yağlıboya suluboya pastel ya da karakalem resim | a three-dimensional work of plastic art |
| ilgisiz olma durumu aldırmazlık alakasızlık | an unstable situation of extreme danger or difficulty |
| sevgi ve bağlılık duyulan | an absence of emotion or enthusiasm |
| anahtar düğme gibi takılıp çıkarılabilen bir parça yardımıyla çalışan kimi zaman elektronik de olabilen kapatma aygıtı | electronic equipment consisting of a device providing access to a computer has a keyboard and display |
| evrende ya da düşüncede yer alan “yok” karşısı bu sözcük hep yüklem olarak kullanılır ve üçüncü kişilerde koşaç almayabilir belirtten olması için sonuna olan ortacı getirilir | something that should remain hidden from others especially information that is not to be passed on |
| bir yapının dışarıya doğru çıkmış çevresi duvar ya da parmaklıkla çevrili bölümü | a movable barrier in a fence or wall |
| evin ya da herhangi bir yapının oturmak çalışmak yatmak gibi işlere yarayan banyo salon giriş vb dışında kalan bir ya da birden fazla çıkışı olan bölmesi göz | a structure taller than its diameter can stand alone or be attached to a larger building |
| kurulanmaya yarar havlı bez | white goods or clothing made with linen cloth |

Continued on next page

Table A.1 – *Continued from previous page*

| Turkish Definition | English WordNet Definition |
|---|--|
| kamuyla ilgili işlerin yürütülmesi için gerekli gelirleri ve harcanan paraları düzenleyen kuralların tümü | the management of money and credit and banking and investments |
| bir doğal su birikintisinin yanındaki alan kıyı | an area of sand sloping down to the water of a sea or lake |
| tene yumuşaklık vermek ya da güneş yağmur gibi dış etkilere korunmak için sürülen güzel kokulu merhem | fine powdery material such as dry earth or pollen that can be blown about in the air |
| sınırlamak eylemi | a rule or condition that limits freedom |
| bir sanata bir bilime temel olan yön veren ilke kaide | an occupation requiring special education especially in the liberal arts or sciences |
| il ilçe gibi yerleşim bölgelerinde iki yanında evler olan caddeye oranla daha dar ya da kısa olabilen yol | a deep and relatively narrow body of water as in a river or a harbor or a strait linking two larger bodies that allows the best passage for vessels |
| belli bir saatte belli bir yerde iki ya da daha çok kişi arasında kararlaştırılan buluşma | a time period usually extending from friday night through sunday more loosely defined as any period of successive days including one and only one sunday |
| araştırılıp öğrenilmesi düşünülp çözümlenmesi bir sonuca bağlanması gereken durum mesele problem | a question raised for consideration or solution |
| alışılmış olandan umulandan ya da gerekenden eksik niceliği küçük “çok” karşıtı | the quality of having an inferior or less favorable position |
| herhangi bir iş bir görev için kendini ileri sürme ya da başkaları tarafından ileri sürülme namzetlik | the real physical matter of which a person or thing consists |

Continued on next page

Table A.1 – *Continued from previous page*

| Turkish Definition | English WordNet Definition |
|--|---|
| birini telefonla aramak ve bir şey söylemek | a seat for one person with a support for the back |
| denemek eylemi sınama tecrübe | the act of rejecting something |
| pathıcangillerden yaprakları tüylü çiçekleri salkım durumunda vitamince zengin kırmızı ürünü için yetiştirilen bir bitki lycopersicon esculentum | mildly acid red or yellow pulpy fruit eaten as a vegetable |
| bir görevi bir işi yasaların verdiği olanaklara göre belli koşullarla yürütmeyi sağlayan hak salahiyyet mezuniyet | financial aid provided to a student on the basis of academic merit |
| bir konu ile ilgili bilgi vermek ve bu bilgiler üzerinde tartışmak amacıyla birkaç yetkilinin yönetimi altında düzenlenen toplantı | a prearranged meeting for consultation or exchange of information or discussion especially one with a formal agenda |
| kendi isteğiyle görevden ayrılma çekilme işinden ayrılma | withdrawal from your position or occupation |
| merkezde bulunan ve bir eksenin çevresinde dönebilir kurs ya da çember teker | an urban area with a fixed boundary that is smaller than a city |
| bireyle ilgili olan bireye özgü olan ferdi | a person who is a member of a partnership |
| yumuşakçalardan bahçelerde yaşayan sarmal kabuklu küçük hayvan helix | elongated crescent-shaped yellow fruit with soft sweet flesh |
| kadın ya da erkek çocuğun en ince sesi | the highest female voice the voice of a boy before puberty |
| omuz başının altında kolun gövde ile birleştiği yer | the part of the body between the neck and the upper arm |
| üzerinde sıcak ve soğuk su muslukları bulunan porselen sac emaye gibi maddelerden yapılan el yüz bulaşık yıkamaya yarar yer | metal or earthenware cooking vessel that is usually round and deep often has a handle and lid |

Continued on next page

Table A.1 – *Continued from previous page*

| Turkish Definition | English WordNet Definition |
|--|---|
| adaletle iş gören adaletten haktan ayrıl- mayan hakkı yerine getiren adaletli | a rule or condition that limits freedom |
| tanıtma filmi | gathering of producers to promote business |
| bir makinenin herhangi bir taşıtın hızını kesmeye ya da onu durdurmaya yarayan düzenek | a restraint used to slow or stop a vehicle |
| ara uzaklık | a large distance |
| kap kılıf sarma | small thin inflatable rubber bag with nar- row neck |
| herhangi birinden | the effect of one thing or person on another |
| sinema ya da müzikhol sanatçısı yıldız | a three-dimensional work of plastic art |
| okuyup yazmadan başlayarak en yüksek düzeyde bilim ve sanat bilgisi vermeye değin çeşitli derecede toplu olarak öğren- imin sağlandığı yer mektep | an occupation requiring special education especially in the liberal arts or sciences |
| başın altına koymak ya da sırtı dayamak için kullanılan içi yün pamuk kuştüyü gibi şeylerle doldurulmuş küçük minder | a piece of cloth used as decoration or to mend or cover a hole |
| alt ve üst tabanları birbirine eşit daireler- den oluşan bir nesnenin eksenini dikey olarak kesen birbirine koştut iki yüzeyin sınırladığı cisim üstüvane | a support that consists of a horizontal sur- face for holding objects |
| bir kimsenin belli bir sürede ya da yaşam boyu edindiği bilgilerin tümü tecrübe | the real physical matter of which a person or thing consists |
| yaşantıları öğrenilen konuları bunların geçmişle ilişkisini bilinçli olarak saklama gücü hafıza | a storage device on which information sounds or images have been recorded |

Continued on next page

Table A.1 – *Continued from previous page*

| Turkish Definition | English WordNet Definition |
|---|---|
| geçmeye engel olacak biçimde uzunla- masına kazılmış derin çukur | the general feeling that some desire will be fulfilled |
| bıçak makas gibi bir araçla bir şeyi ikiye ayırarak | a top as for a bottle |
| yitme yitim | a feeling of restless agitation |
| eski çağlardan beri söylenegelen olağanüstü varlıkları olayları konu edinen imgesel öykü söylence | the series of events that form a plot |

Bibliography

1. *A Practical Guide to Lexicography* (ed van Sterkenburg, P.) *Terminology and Lexicography Research and Practice* **6**. OCLC: 249659375 (Benjamins, Amsterdam, 2003). 459 pp. ISBN: 978-90-272-2329-6 978-90-272-2330-2 978-1-58811-380-1 978-1-58811-381-8.
2. Uzun, E. N. Modern Dilbilim Bulguları Işığında Türkçe Sözlüğe Bir Bakış. *Çukurova Üniversitesi Türkoloji Araştırmaları Merkezi* (2005).
3. İbrahim USTA, H. Türkçe Sözlük Hazırlamada Yöntem Sorunları. *Ankara Üniversitesi Dil ve Tarih-Coğrafya Fakültesi Dergisi*, 223–242 (Jan. 1, 2006).
4. Uzun, L. 1945'TEN BU YANA TÜRKÇE SÖZLÜKLER. *KEBİKEÇ İnsan Bilimleri İçin Kaynak Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 53–57. ISSN: 1300-2864 (1999).
5. Kendall, J. *The Forgotten Founding Father: Noah Webster's Obsession and the Creation of an American Culture* 1st Edition. 368 pp. ISBN: 0-399-15699-2 (G.P. Putnam's Sons, Apr. 14, 2011).
6. Fellbaum, C. *WordNet : An Electronic Lexical Database* ISBN: 978-0-262-27255-1 (MIT Press, 1998).
7. Miller, G. A. Nouns in WordNet: A Lexical Inheritance System. *Int J Lexicography* **3**, 245–264. ISSN: 0950-3846. <https://academic.oup.com/ijl/article/3/4/245/923281> (2019) (Dec. 1, 1990).
8. Winston, M. E., Chaffin, R. & Herrmann, D. A Taxonomy of Part-Whole Relations. *Cognitive Science* **11**, 417–444. ISSN: 1551-6709. https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1207/s15516709cog1104_2 (2019) (1987).
9. Sagot, B. & Fišer, D. Building a Free French Wordnet from Multilingual Resources (May 31, 2008).
10. Fellbaum, C. in *EuroWordNet: A Multilingual Database with Lexical Semantic Networks* (ed Vossen, P.) 137–148 (Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht, 1998). ISBN: 978-94-017-1491-4. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-1491-4_6 (2019).
11. Bond, F. & Paik, K. A Survey of WordNets and Their Licenses (Jan. 1, 2012).

12. Ruci, E. *On the Current State of Albanet and Related Applications* (Technical report, University of Vlora.(<http://fjalnet.com> ..., 2008).
13. Simov, K. I. & Osenova, P. *Constructing of an Ontology-Based Lexicon for Bulgarian*. in *LREC* (Citeseer, 2010).
14. Stamou, S., Nenadic, G. & Christodoulakis, D. *Exploring Balkanet Shared Ontology for Multilingual Conceptual Indexing*. in *LREC* (2004).
15. Pianta, E., Bentivogli, L. & Girardi, C. MultiWordNet: Developing an Aligned Multilingual Database (Jan. 1, 2002).
16. Fišer, D., Novak, J. & Erjavec, T. *sloWNet 3.0: Development, Extension and Cleaning* in *Proceedings of 6th International Global Wordnet Conference (GWC 2012)* (2012), 113–117.
17. Tufiş, D., Ion, R., Bozianu, L., Ceaşu, A. & Ştefănescu, D. *Romanian Wordnet: Current State, New Applications and Prospects* in *Proceedings of 4th Global WordNet Conference, GWC* (2008), 441–452.
18. Somers, J. *You're Probably Using the Wrong Dictionary* <http://jsomers.net/blog/dictionary> (2019).
19. Almeida, F. & Xexéo, G. Word Embeddings: A Survey. arXiv: [1901.09069](https://arxiv.org/abs/1901.09069) [cs, stat]. <http://arxiv.org/abs/1901.09069> (2019) (Jan. 25, 2019).
20. Collobert, R. & Weston, J. *A Unified Architecture for Natural Language Processing: Deep Neural Networks with Multitask Learning* in. *Proceedings of the 25th International Conference on Machine Learning (ACM, May 7, 2008)*, 160–167. ISBN: 978-1-60558-205-4. <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=1390156.1390177> (2019).
21. Balikas, G., Laclau, C., Redko, I. & Amini, M.-R. *Cross-Lingual Document Retrieval Using Regularized Wasserstein Distance*. arXiv: [1805.04437](https://arxiv.org/abs/1805.04437) [cs, stat]. <http://arxiv.org/abs/1805.04437> (2019) (May 11, 2018).
22. Kusner, M. J., Sun, Y., Kolkin, N. I. & Weinberger, K. Q. *From Word Embeddings to Document Distances* in *Proceedings of the 32Nd International Conference on International Conference on Machine Learning - Volume 37* Lille, France (JMLR.org, 2015), 957–966. <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=3045118.3045221> (2019).
23. Speer, R., Chin, J. & Havasi, C. *ConceptNet 5.5: An Open Multilingual Graph of General Knowledge* in. *AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence* (2017), 4444–4451. <http://aaai.org/ocs/index.php/AAAI/AAAI17/paper/view/14972>.

24. Mikolov, T., Sutskever, I., Chen, K., Corrado, G. & Dean, J. Distributed Representations of Words and Phrases and Their Compositionality. arXiv: [1310.4546](https://arxiv.org/abs/1310.4546) [cs, stat]. <http://arxiv.org/abs/1310.4546> (2019) (Oct. 16, 2013).
25. Pennington, J., Socher, R. & Manning, C. *Glove: Global Vectors for Word Representation* in *Proceedings of the 2014 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural Language Processing (EMNLP)* (2014), 1532–1543.
26. Bojanowski, P., Grave, E., Joulin, A. & Mikolov, T. Enriching Word Vectors with Subword Information. <https://arxiv.org/abs/1607.04606> (2018) (July 15, 2016).
27. Harris, Z. S. Distributional Structure. *WORD* **10**, 146–162. ISSN: 0043-7956. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00437956.1954.11659520> (2019) (Aug. 1, 1954).
28. Firth, J. R. A Synopsis of Linguistic Theory 1930–1955. *Studies in linguistic analysis* **Special volume of the Philological Society**, 11 (1957).
29. Osgood, C. E., Suci, G. J. & Tannenbaum, P. H. *The Measurement of Meaning* 358 pp. ISBN: 978-0-252-74539-3 (University of Illinois Press, 1957).
30. Lund, K. & Burgess, C. Producing High-Dimensional Semantic Spaces from Lexical Co-Occurrence. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers* **28**, 203–208. ISSN: 1532-5970. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03204766> (2019) (June 1, 1996).
31. Salton, G., Wong, A. & Yang, C. S. A Vector Space Model for Automatic Indexing. *Commun. ACM* **18**, 613–620. ISSN: 0001-0782. <http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/361219.361220> (2019) (Nov. 1975).
32. Turney, P. D. & Pantel, P. From Frequency to Meaning: Vector Space Models of Semantics. *Journal of Artificial Intelligence Research* **37**, 141–188. ISSN: 1076-9757. arXiv: [1003.1141](https://arxiv.org/abs/1003.1141). <http://arxiv.org/abs/1003.1141> (2018) (Feb. 27, 2010).
33. Jones, K. S. A Statistical Interpretation of Term Specificity and Its Application in Retrieval. *Journal of Documentation* **28**, 11–21 (1972).
34. Deerwester, S., Dumais, S. T., Furnas, G. W., Landauer, T. K. & Harshman, R. Indexing by Latent Semantic Analysis. *Journal of the American society for information science* **41**, 391–407 (1990).
35. Levy, O., Goldberg, Y. & Dagan, I. Improving Distributional Similarity with Lessons Learned from Word Embeddings. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics* **3**, 211–225 (Dec. 1, 2015).

36. Church, K. W. & Hanks, P. Word Association Norms, Mutual Information, and Lexicography. *Comput. Linguist.* **16**, 22–29. ISSN: 0891-2017. <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=89086.89095> (2019) (Mar. 1990).
37. Forsythe, G. E., Malcolm, M. A. & Moler, C. B. *Computer Methods for Mathematical Computations* (Prentice-hall Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1977).
38. Landauer, T. K. & Dumais, S. T. A Solution to Plato’s Problem: The Latent Semantic Analysis Theory of Acquisition, Induction, and Representation of Knowledge. *Psychological review* **104**, 211 (1997).
39. Schütze, H. *Dimensions of Meaning* in *Proceedings of the 1992 ACM/IEEE Conference on Supercomputing* Minneapolis, Minnesota, USA (IEEE Computer Society Press, Los Alamitos, CA, USA, 1992), 787–796. ISBN: 978-0-8186-2630-2. <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=147877.148132> (2019).
40. Bengio, Y., Ducharme, R., Vincent, P. & Jauvin, C. A Neural Probabilistic Language Model. *Journal of machine learning research* **3**, 1137–1155 (Feb 2003).
41. Xu, W. & Rudnicky, A. *Can Artificial Neural Networks Learn Language Models?* in *Sixth International Conference on Spoken Language Processing* (2000).
42. P. Turian, J., Ratinov, L.-A. & Bengio, Y. *Word Representations: A Simple and General Method for Semi-Supervised Learning.* in. *Proceedings of the 48th Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics.* **2010** (Jan. 1, 2010), 384–394.
43. Mikolov, T., Chen, K., Corrado, G. & Dean, J. Efficient Estimation of Word Representations in Vector Space. arXiv: [1301.3781 \[cs\]](http://arxiv.org/abs/1301.3781). <http://arxiv.org/abs/1301.3781> (Jan. 16, 2013).
44. Mikolov, T., Yih, W.-t. & Zweig, G. *Linguistic Regularities in Continuous Space Word Representations* in *Proceedings of the 2013 Conference of the North American Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics: Human Language Technologies* (2013), 746–751.
45. Bullinaria, J. A. & Levy, J. P. Extracting Semantic Representations from Word Co-Occurrence Statistics: A Computational Study. *Behavior Research Methods*, 510–526 (2007).
46. Baroni, M., Dinu, G. & Kruszewski, G. *Don’t Count, Predict! A Systematic Comparison of Context-Counting vs. Context-Predicting Semantic Vectors* in *Proceedings of the 52nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 1: Long Papers)* Baltimore, Maryland (Association for Computational

- Linguistics, June 2014), 238–247. <https://www.aclweb.org/anthology/P14-1023>.
47. Mikolov, T., Grave, E., Bojanowski, P., Puhersch, C. & Joulin, A. *Advances in Pre-Training Distributed Word Representations in Proceedings of the International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC 2018)* (2018).
 48. Mnih, A. & Kavukcuoglu, K. in *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 26* (eds Burges, C. J. C., Bottou, L., Welling, M., Ghahramani, Z. & Weinberger, K. Q.) 2265–2273 (Curran Associates, Inc., 2013). <http://papers.nips.cc/paper/5165-learning-word-embeddings-efficiently-with-noise-contrastive-estimation.pdf>.
 49. Grave, E., Bojanowski, P., Gupta, P., Joulin, A. & Mikolov, T. Learning Word Vectors for 157 Languages. arXiv: [1802.06893](https://arxiv.org/abs/1802.06893) [cs]. <http://arxiv.org/abs/1802.06893> (2019) (Feb. 19, 2018).
 50. Anacleto, J. *et al.* *Can Common Sense Uncover Cultural Differences in Computer Applications?* in *Artificial Intelligence in Theory and Practice* (ed Bramer, M.) (Springer US, 2006), 1–10. ISBN: 978-0-387-34747-9.
 51. Auer, S. *et al.* *DBpedia: A Nucleus for a Web of Open Data* in *The Semantic Web* (eds Aberer, K. *et al.*) (Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2007), 722–735. ISBN: 978-3-540-76298-0.
 52. Faruqui, M. & Dyer, C. *Improving Vector Space Word Representations Using Multilingual Correlation* in *Proceedings of the 14th Conference of the European Chapter of the Association for Computational Linguistics* (Association for Computational Linguistics, Gothenburg, Sweden, 2014), 462–471. <http://aclweb.org/anthology/E14-1049> (2018).
 53. Neale, S. *A Survey on Automatically-Constructed WordNets and Their Evaluation: Lexical and Word Embedding-Based Approaches* in *Proceedings of the Eleventh International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation (LREC 2018)* Miyazaki, Japan (eds Calzolari, N. *et al.*) (European Language Resources Association (ELRA), May 7–12, 2018). ISBN: 979-10-95546-00-9.
 54. Ercan, G. & Cicekli, I. Using Lexical Chains for Keyword Extraction. *Information Processing & Management* **43**, 1705–1714 (2007).
 55. Banerjee, S. & Pedersen, T. *An Adapted Lesk Algorithm for Word Sense Disambiguation Using WordNet* in *Computational Linguistics and Intelligent Text Processing* (ed Gelbukh, A.) (Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2002), 136–145. ISBN: 978-3-540-45715-2.

56. Vossen, P. Introduction to EuroWordNet. *Computers and the Humanities* **32**, 73–89. ISSN: 0010-4817. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/30200456> (2019) (1998).
57. Vossen, P. EUROWORDNET: A MULTILINGUAL DATABASE OF AUTONOMOUS AND LANGUAGE-SPECIFIC WORDNETS CONNECTED VIA AN INTER-LINGUAL INDEX. *Int J Lexicography* **17**, 161–173. ISSN: 0950-3846. <https://academic.oup.com/ijl/article/17/2/161/969685> (2019) (June 1, 2004).
58. Gonzalo, J., Verdejo, F., Peters, C. & Calzolari, N. in *EuroWordNet: A Multilingual Database with Lexical Semantic Networks* (ed Vossen, P.) 113–135 (Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht, 1998). ISBN: 978-94-017-1491-4. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-017-1491-4_5 (2019).
59. Kitamura, K. Cultural Untranslatability. *Translation Journal* **13** (2009).
60. Knight, K. & Luk, S. K. *Building a Large-Scale Knowledge Base for Machine Translation* in *In Proceedings of AAAI* (1994).
61. Boyd-Graber, J., Fellbaum, C., Osherson, D. & Schapire, R. *Adding Dense, Weighted Connections to WordNet* in *Proceedings of the Third International WordNet Conference* (Citeseer, 2006), 29–36.
62. Diab, M. *The Feasibility of Bootstrapping an Arabic Wordnet Leveraging Parallel Corpora and an English Wordnet* in *Proceedings of the Arabic Language Technologies and Resources, NEMLAR, Cairo* (2004).
63. Fiser, D. *Leveraging Parallel Corpora and Existing Wordnets for Automatic Construction of the Slovene Wordnet* in (Aug. 25, 2009), 359–368.
64. Lam, K. N., Tarouti, F. A. & Kalita, J. *Automatically Constructing Wordnet Synsets* in. *Proceedings of the 52nd Annual Meeting of the Association for Computational Linguistics (Volume 2: Short Papers)* (June 2014), 106–111. <https://aclweb.org/anthology/papers/P/P14/P14-2018/> (2019).
65. Sand, H., Velldal, E. & Øvrelid, L. *Wordnet Extension via Word Embeddings: Experiments on the Norwegian Wordnet* in. *Proceedings of the 21st Nordic Conference on Computational Linguistics* (May 2017), 298–302. <https://aclweb.org/anthology/papers/W/W17/W17-0242/> (2019).
66. Khodak, M., Risteski, A., Fellbaum, C. & Arora, S. *Automated WordNet Construction Using Word Embeddings* in *Proceedings of the 1st Workshop on Sense, Concept and Entity Representations and Their Applications* (2017), 12–23.

67. Arora, S., Liang, Y. & Ma, T. A Simple but Tough-to-Beat Baseline for Sentence Embeddings. <https://openreview.net/forum?id=SyK00v5xx> (2019) (Nov. 4, 2016).
68. Arora, S., Li, Y., Liang, Y., Ma, T. & Risteski, A. Linear Algebraic Structure of Word Senses, with Applications to Polysemy. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics* **6**, 483–495. ISSN: 2307-387X. <https://transacl.org/ojs/index.php/tacl/article/view/1346> (2019) (July 20, 2018).
69. Gordeev, D., Rey, A. & Shagarov, D. *Unsupervised Cross-Lingual Matching of Product Classifications* in *Proceedings of the 23rd Conference of Open Innovations Association FRUCT* Bologna, Italy (FRUCT Oy, 2018), 62:459–62:464. <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=3299905.3299967>.
70. Lesk, M. *Automatic Sense Disambiguation Using Machine Readable Dictionaries: How to Tell a Pine Cone from an Ice Cream Cone* in *Proceedings of the 5th Annual International Conference on Systems Documentation* (ACM, New York, NY, USA, 1986), 24–26. ISBN: 978-0-89791-224-2. <http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/318723.318728>.
71. Metzler, D., Dumais, S. & Meek, C. *Similarity Measures for Short Segments of Text* in *Advances in Information Retrieval* (eds Amati, G., Carpineto, C. & Romano, G.) (Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2007), 16–27. ISBN: 978-3-540-71496-5.
72. Le, Q. V. & Mikolov, T. Distributed Representations of Sentences and Documents. arXiv: [1405.4053](https://arxiv.org/abs/1405.4053) [cs]. <http://arxiv.org/abs/1405.4053> (May 16, 2014).
73. Kiros, R. *et al.* Skip-Thought Vectors. arXiv: [1506.06726](https://arxiv.org/abs/1506.06726) [cs]. <http://arxiv.org/abs/1506.06726> (2019) (June 22, 2015).
74. Wieting, J., Bansal, M., Gimpel, K. & Livescu, K. Towards Universal Paraphrastic Sentence Embeddings. arXiv: [1511.08198](https://arxiv.org/abs/1511.08198) [cs]. <http://arxiv.org/abs/1511.08198> (2019) (Nov. 25, 2015).
75. Zhao, J., Lan, M. & Tian, J. *ECNU: Using Traditional Similarity Measurements and Word Embedding for Semantic Textual Similarity Estimation* in *SemEval@NAACL-HLT* (2015).
76. Šarić, F., Glavaš, G., Karan, M., Šnajder, J. & Bašić, B. D. *TakeLab: Systems for Measuring Semantic Text Similarity* in *Proceedings of the First Joint Conference on Lexical and Computational Semantics - Volume 1: Proceedings of the Main Conference and the Shared Task, and Volume 2: Proceedings of the*

- Sixth International Workshop on Semantic Evaluation* Montréal, Canada (Association for Computational Linguistics, Stroudsburg, PA, USA, 2012), 441–448. <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=2387636.2387708> (2019).
77. Edilson A. Corrêa, J., Marinho, V. & Borges dos Santos, L. NILC-USP at SemEval-2017 Task 4: A Multi-View Ensemble for Twitter Sentiment Analysis (Apr. 7, 2017).
 78. Kuhn, H. W. The Hungarian Method for the Assignment Problem. *Naval research logistics quarterly* **2**, 83–97 (1955).
 79. Jonker, R. & Volgenant, A. A Shortest Augmenting Path Algorithm for Dense and Sparse Linear Assignment Problems. *Computing* **38**, 325–340. ISSN: 1436-5057. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02278710> (2019) (Dec. 1, 1987).
 80. Dijkstra, E. W. A Note on Two Problems in Connexion with Graphs. *Numer. Math.* **1**, 269–271. ISSN: 0945-3245. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01386390> (2019) (Dec. 1, 1959).
 81. Bush, V. As We May Think. *The atlantic monthly* **176**, 101–108 (1945).
 82. Singhal, A. Modern Information Retrieval: A Brief Overview. *Bulletin of the Ieee Computer Society Technical Committee on Data Engineering* **24**, 2001 (2001).
 83. Luhn, H. P. A Statistical Approach to Mechanized Encoding and Searching of Literary Information. *IBM Journal of research and development* **1**, 309–317 (1957).
 84. Groves, M. & Mundt, K. Friend or Foe? Google Translate in Language for Academic Purposes. *English for Specific Purposes* **37**, 112–121. ISSN: 0889-4906. <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S088949061400060X> (2019) (Jan. 1, 2015).
 85. Manning, C. D., Raghavan, P. & Schütze, H. *Introduction to Information Retrieval* Reprinted. OCLC: 549201180. 482 pp. ISBN: 978-0-521-86571-5 (Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, 2009).
 86. Ruiz-Casado, M., Alfonseca, E. & Castells, P. *Automatic Assignment of Wikipedia Encyclopedic Entries to Wordnet Synsets* in *International Atlantic Web Intelligence Conference* (Springer, 2005), 380–386.
 87. Salton, G. The State of Retrieval System Evaluation. *Information processing & management* **28**, 441–449 (1992).
 88. Voorhees, E. M. *The TREC-8 Question Answering Track Report* in *In Proceedings of TREC-8* (1999), 77–82.

89. Kantorovitch, L. On the Translocation of Masses. *Management Science* **5**, 1–4 (1958).
90. Sutskever, I., Vinyals, O. & Le, Q. V. Sequence to Sequence Learning with Neural Networks. arXiv: [1409.3215 \[cs\]](https://arxiv.org/abs/1409.3215). <http://arxiv.org/abs/1409.3215> (2019) (Sept. 10, 2014).
91. Rumelhart, D. E., Hinton, G. E. & Williams, R. J. Learning Representations by Back-Propagating Errors. *Nature* **323**, 533. ISSN: 1476-4687. <https://www.nature.com/articles/323533a0> (2019) (Oct. 1986).
92. Hochreiter, S. & Schmidhuber, J. Long Short-Term Memory. *Neural Comput.* **9**, 1735–1780. ISSN: 0899-7667. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1162/neco.1997.9.8.1735> (2019) (Nov. 1997).
93. Graves, A., Liwicki, M., Bunke, H., Schmidhuber, J. & Fernández, S. in *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 20* (eds Platt, J. C., Koller, D., Singer, Y. & Roweis, S. T.) 577–584 (Curran Associates, Inc., 2008). <http://papers.nips.cc/paper/3213-unconstrained-on-line-handwriting-recognition-with-recurrent-neural-networks.pdf>.
94. Graves, A. *et al.* A Novel Connectionist System for Unconstrained Handwriting Recognition. *IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence* **31**, 855–868. ISSN: 0162-8828 (May 2009).
95. Luong, M.-T., Sutskever, I., Le, Q. V., Vinyals, O. & Zaremba, W. Addressing the Rare Word Problem in Neural Machine Translation. arXiv: [1410.8206 \[cs\]](https://arxiv.org/abs/1410.8206). <http://arxiv.org/abs/1410.8206> (2019) (Oct. 29, 2014).
96. Graves, A. in *Supervised Sequence Labelling with Recurrent Neural Networks* (ed Graves, A.) 37–45 (Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, 2012). ISBN: 978-3-642-24797-2. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-24797-2_4 (2019).
97. Bengio, Y., Simard, P. & Frasconi, P. Learning Long-Term Dependencies with Gradient Descent Is Difficult. *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks* **5**, 157–166. ISSN: 1045-9227 (Mar. 1994).
98. Gers, F. A., Schmidhuber, J. & Cummins, F. A. Learning to Forget: Continual Prediction with LSTM. *Neural Computation* **12**, 2451–2471 (2000).
99. Gers, F. A., Schraudolph, N. N. & Schmidhuber, J. Learning Precise Timing with Lstm Recurrent Networks. *J. Mach. Learn. Res.* **3**, 115–143. ISSN: 1532-4435. <https://doi.org/10.1162/153244303768966139> (2019) (Mar. 2003).
100. Graves, A. & Schmidhuber, J. Framewise Phoneme Classification with Bidirectional LSTM and Other Neural Network Architectures. *Neural Networks. IJCNN*

- 2005 **18**, 602–610. ISSN: 0893-6080. <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0893608005001206> (2019) (July 1, 2005).
101. Greff, K., Srivastava, R. K., Koutník, J., Steunebrink, B. R. & Schmidhuber, J. LSTM: A Search Space Odyssey. *IEEE Trans. Neural Netw. Learning Syst.* **28**, 2222–2232. ISSN: 2162-237X, 2162-2388. arXiv: [1503.04069](https://arxiv.org/abs/1503.04069). <http://arxiv.org/abs/1503.04069> (2019) (Oct. 2017).
 102. Mueller, J. & Thyagarajan, A. *Siamese Recurrent Architectures for Learning Sentence Similarity* in *AAAI* (2016).
 103. Zeiler, M. D. ADADELTA: An Adaptive Learning Rate Method. arXiv: [1212.5701 \[cs\]](https://arxiv.org/abs/1212.5701). <http://arxiv.org/abs/1212.5701> (2019) (Dec. 22, 2012).
 104. Ruder, S., Vulić, I. & Søgaard, A. A Survey Of Cross-Lingual Word Embedding Models. arXiv: [1706.04902 \[cs\]](https://arxiv.org/abs/1706.04902). <http://arxiv.org/abs/1706.04902> (2018) (June 15, 2017).
 105. Glavas, G., Litschko, R., Ruder, S. & Vulic, I. How to (Properly) Evaluate Cross-Lingual Word Embeddings: On Strong Baselines, Comparative Analyses, and Some Misconceptions. arXiv: [1902.00508 \[cs\]](https://arxiv.org/abs/1902.00508). <http://arxiv.org/abs/1902.00508> (2019) (Feb. 1, 2019).