

Characterizing Departures from Linearity in Word Translation

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Abstract

We investigate the behavior of maps learned by machine translation methods. The maps translate words by projecting between word embedding spaces of different languages. We locally approximate these maps using linear maps, and find that they vary across the word embedding space. This demonstrates that the underlying maps are non-linear. Importantly, we show that the locally linear maps vary by an amount that is tightly correlated with the distance between the neighborhoods on which they are trained. Our results can be used to test non-linear methods, and to drive the design of more accurate maps for word translation.

1 Introduction

Following the success of monolingual word embeddings (Collobert et al., 2011), a number of studies have recently explored multilingual word embeddings. The goal is to learn word vectors such that similar words have similar vector representations regardless of their language (Zou et al., 2013; Upadhyay et al., 2016). Multilingual word embeddings have applications in machine translation, and hold promise for cross-lingual model transfer in NLP tasks such as parsing or part-of-speech tagging.

A class of methods has emerged whose core technique is to learn *linear* maps between vector spaces of different languages (Mikolov et al., 2013a; Faruqui and Dyer, 2014; Vulic and Korhonen, 2016; Artetxe et al., 2016; Conneau et al., 2018). These methods work as follows: For a given pair of languages, first, monolingual word vectors are learned independently for each language, and second, under the assumption that

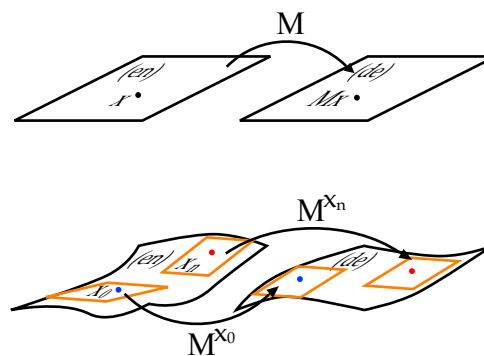


Figure 1: **Top:** Assumption of linearity implies a single linear map M . **Bottom:** Our hypothesis is that the underlying map is expected to be non-linear but in small enough neighborhoods can be approximated by linear maps M^{x_i} for each neighborhood defined by x_i .

word vector spaces exhibit comparable structure across languages, a linear mapping function is learned to connect the two monolingual vector spaces. The map can then be used to translate words between the language pair.

Both seminal (Mikolov et al., 2013a), and state-of-the-art methods (Conneau et al., 2018) found linear maps to substantially outperform specific non-linear maps generated by feedforward neural networks. Advantages of linear maps include: 1) In settings with limited training data, accurate linear maps can still be learned (Conneau et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2017; Artetxe et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2017). For example, in unsupervised learning, (Conneau et al., 2018) found that using non-linear mapping functions made adversarial training unstable¹. 2) One can easily impose constraints on the linear maps at training time to ensure that the quality of the monolingual em-

¹<https://openreview.net/forum?id=H196sainb>

beddings is preserved after mapping (Xing et al., 2015; Smith et al., 2017).

However, it is not well understood to what extent the assumption of linearity holds and how it affects performance. In this paper, we investigate the behavior of word translation maps, and show that there is clear evidence of departure from linearity.

Non-linear maps beyond those generated by feedforward neural networks have also been explored for this task (Lu et al., 2015; Shi et al., 2015; Wijaya et al., 2017; Shi et al., 2015). However, no attempt was made to characterize the resulting maps.

In this paper, we allow for an underlying mapping function that is non-linear, but assume that it can be approximated by linear maps at least in small enough neighborhoods. If the underlying map is linear, all local approximations should be identical, or, given the finite size of the training data, similar. In contrast, if the underlying map is non-linear, the locally linear approximations will depend on the neighborhood. Figure 1 illustrates the difference between the assumption of a single linear map, and our working hypothesis of locally linear approximations to a non-linear map. The variation of the linear approximations provides a characterization of the nonlinear map. We show that the local linear approximations vary across neighborhoods in the embedding space by an amount that is tightly correlated with the distance between the neighborhoods on which they are trained. The functional form of this variation can be used to test non-linear methods.

2 Review of Prior Work

To learn linear word translation maps, different loss functions have been proposed. The simplest is the regularized least squares loss, where the linear map \mathbf{M} is learned as follows: $\hat{\mathbf{M}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{M}} \|\mathbf{M}\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}\|_F + \lambda \|\mathbf{M}\|$, here \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} are matrices that contain word embedding vectors for the source and target language (Mikolov et al., 2013a; Dinu et al., 2014; Vulic and Korhonen, 2016). The translation t of a source language word s is then given by: $t = \arg \max_t \cos(\mathbf{M}x_s, y_t)$.

(Xing et al., 2015) obtained improved results by imposing an orthogonality constraint on \mathbf{M} , $\mathbf{M} = \|\|\mathbf{M}\mathbf{W}^T - \mathbf{I}\|$ where \mathbf{I} is the identity matrix. Another loss function used in prior work

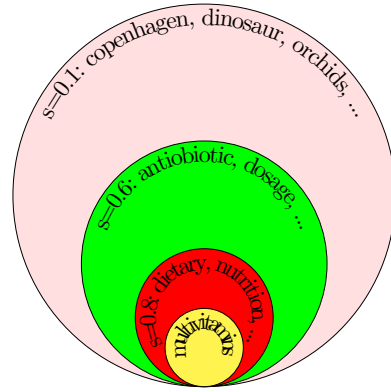


Figure 2: Neighborhoods formed around the word “multivitamins”.

is the max-margin loss, which has been shown to significantly outperform the least squares loss (Lazaridou et al., 2015; Nakashole and Flauger, 2017).

Unsupervised or limited supervision methods for learning word translation maps have recently been proposed (Conneau et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2017; Artetxe et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2017). However, the underlying methods for learning the mapping function are similar to prior work (Xing et al., 2015).

Non-linear cross-lingual mapping methods have been proposed. In (Wijaya et al., 2017) when dealing with rare words, the proposed method backs-off to a feed-forward neural network. (Shi et al., 2015) model relations across languages. (Lu et al., 2015) proposed a deep canonical correlation analysis based mapping method. Work on phrase translation has explored the use of many local maps that are individually trained (Zhao et al., 2015). In contrast to our work, these prior papers do not attempt to characterize the behavior of the resulting maps.

Our hypothesis is similar in spirit to the use of locally linear embeddings for nonlinear dimensionality reduction (Roweis and Saul, 2000).

3 Neighborhoods in Word Vector Space

In order to study the behavior of word translation maps, we begin by introducing a simple notion of neighborhoods in the embedding space. For a given language (e.g., English, en), we define a *neighborhood* of a word as follows: First, we pick a word x_i , whose corresponding vector is $x_i \in \mathbf{X}^{en}$, as an anchor. Second, we initialize a neighborhood $\mathcal{N}(x_i)$ containing a single

vector x_i . We then grow the neighborhood by adding all words whose cosine similarity to x_i is $\geq s$. The resulting neighborhood is defined as: $\mathcal{N}(x_i, s) = \{x_j \mid \cos(x_i, x_j) \geq s\}$.

Suppose we pick the word *multivitamins* as the anchor word. We can generate neighborhoods using $\mathcal{N}(x_{\text{multivitamins}}, s)$ where for each value of s we get a different neighborhood. Neighborhoods corresponding to larger values of s are subsumed by those corresponding to smaller values of s .

Figure 2 illustrates the process of generating neighborhoods around the word *multivitamins*. For large values of s (e.g., $s = 0.8$), the resulting neighborhoods only contain words that are closely related to the anchor word, such as *dietary* and *nutrition*. As s gets smaller (e.g., $s = 0.6$), the neighborhood gets larger, and includes words that are less related to the anchor, such as *antibiotic*.

Using this simple method, we can define different-sized neighborhoods around any word in the vocabulary.

4 Analysis of Map Behavior

Given the above neighborhood definition, we now seek to understand how word translation maps change as we move across neighborhoods in word embedding space.

Questions Studied. We study the following questions: [Q.1] Is there a single linear map for word translation that produces the same level of performance regardless of where in the vector space the words being translated fall? [Q.2] If there is no such single linear map, but instead multiple neighborhood-specific ones, is there a relationship between neighborhood-specific maps and the distances between their respective neighborhoods?

4.1 Experimental Setup and Data

In our first experiment we translate from English (*en*) to German (*de*). We obtained pre-trained word embeddings from FastText (Bojanowski et al., 2017). In the first experiment, we follow common practice (Mikolov et al., 2013a; Ammar et al., 2016; Nakashole and Flauger, 2017; Vulic and Korhonen, 2016), and used the Google Translate API to obtain training and test data. We make our data available for reproducibility². For the second experiment, we repeat the first experiment, but instead of using Google Translate, we

²nakashole.com/mt.html

use the recently released Facebook AI Research dictionaries³ for training and test data. To test the generality of the findings of the first experiment, the second experiment was performed on a different language pair: English (*en*) to Swedish (*sv*).

In our all experiments, the cross-lingual maps are learned using the max-margin loss, which has been shown to perform competitively, while having fast run-times. (Lazaridou et al., 2015; Nakashole and Flauger, 2017). The max-margin loss aims to rank correct training data pairs (x_i, y_i) higher than incorrect pairs (x_i, y_j) with a margin of at least γ . The margin γ is a hyper-parameter and the incorrect labels, y_j can be selected randomly such that $j \neq i$ or in a more application specific manner. In our experiments, we set $\gamma = 0.4$ and randomly selected negative examples, one negative example for each training data point.

Given a seed dictionary as training data of the form $D^{tr} = \{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^m$, the mapping function is

$$\hat{\mathbf{W}} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{W}} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j \neq i}^k \max \left(0, \gamma + d(y_i, \mathbf{W}x_i) - d(y_j, \mathbf{W}x_i) \right), \quad (1)$$

where $\hat{y}_i = \mathbf{W}x_i$ is the prediction, k is the number of incorrect examples per training instance, and $d(x, y) = (x - y)^2$ is the distance measure.

For the first experiment, we picked the following words as anchor words and obtained maps associated with each of their neighborhoods: $\mathbf{M}^{(\text{multivitamins})}$, $\mathbf{M}^{(\text{antibiotic})}$, $\mathbf{M}^{(\text{disease})}$, $\mathbf{M}^{(\text{blowflies})}$, $\mathbf{M}^{(\text{dinosaur})}$, $\mathbf{M}^{(\text{orchids})}$, $\mathbf{M}^{(\text{copenhagen})}$. For each anchor word, we set $s = 0.5$, thus the neighborhoods are $\mathcal{N}(x_i, 0.5)$ where x_i is the vector of the anchor word. The training data for learning each neighborhood-specific linear map consists of vectors in $\mathcal{N}(x_i, 0.5)$ and their translations.

Table 1 shows details of the training and test data for each neighborhood. The words shown in Table 1 were picked as follows: first we picked the word *multivitamins*, then we picked the other words to have varying degrees of similarity to it. The cosine similarity of these words to the word ‘multivitamins’ are shown in column 3 of Table 1. It is also worth noting that there is nothing special about these words. In fact, the second experiment

³<https://github.com/facebookresearch/MUSE>

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Anchor Word	Data, $\mathcal{N}(x_i, s = 0.5)$		x_0 Similarity	Translation Accuracy				Matrix Property	
	Train	Test	$\cos(x_0, x_i)$	M	M^{x_0}	M^{x_i}	Δ	$\cos(M^{x_0}, M^{x_i})$	$\ M\ $
x_0 :multivitamins	3,415	500	1.0	58.3	68.2	68.2	0	1.0	33.07
x_1 :antibiotic	3,507	500	0.60	61.1	67.3	72.7	5.4 \uparrow	0.59	33.29
x_2 :disease	2,478	500	0.45	69.3	59.2	73.4	14.2 \uparrow	0.31	35.35
x_3 :blowflies	2,434	500	0.33	71.4	28.4	73.2	44.8 \uparrow	0.20	33.36
x_4 :dinosaur	990	500	0.24	63.2	14.7	77.1	62.4 \uparrow	0.14	36.50
x_5 :orchids	2,981	500	0.19	73.7	19.3	78.0	58.7 \uparrow	0.20	30.68
x_6 :copenhagen	2,083	500	0.11	38.5	31.2	67.4	36.2 \uparrow	0.15	31.42

Table 1: The behavior of word translation maps trained on different neighborhoods (en \rightarrow de translation). Highlighted columns illustrate variations in maps. Accuracy refers to precision at 10.

was carried out on different set of words, and on a different language pair.

4.2 Map Similarity Analysis

If indeed there exists a map that is the same linear map everywhere, we expect the above neighborhood-specific maps to be similar. Our analysis makes use of the following definition of matrix similarity:

$$\cos(\mathbf{M}_1, \mathbf{M}_2) = \frac{\text{tr}(\mathbf{M}_1^T \mathbf{M}_2)}{\sqrt{\text{tr}(\mathbf{M}_1^T \mathbf{M}_1) \text{tr}(\mathbf{M}_2^T \mathbf{M}_2)}} \quad (2)$$

Here $\text{tr}(\mathbf{M})$ denotes the trace of the matrix \mathbf{M} . $\text{tr}(\mathbf{M}_1^T \mathbf{M}_1)$ computes the Frobenius norm $\|\mathbf{M}_1\|^2$, and $\text{tr}(\mathbf{M}_1^T \mathbf{M}_2)$ is the Frobenius inner product. That is, $\cos(\mathbf{M}_1, \mathbf{M}_2)$ computes the cosine similarity between the vectorized versions of matrices \mathbf{M}_1 and \mathbf{M}_2 .

4.3 Experimental Results

The main results of our analysis are shown in Table 1.

We now analyze the results of Table 1 in detail. The 0th column contains the anchor word, x_i , around which the neighborhood is formed. The 1st, and 2nd columns contain the size of the training and test data from $\mathcal{N}(x_i, s = 0.5)$ where x_i is the word vector for the anchor word.

The 3rd column contains the cosine similarity between x_0 , *multivitamins*, and x_i . For example, x_1 (*antibiotic*) is the most similar to x_0 (0.6), and x_6 , *copenhagen*, is the least similar to x_0 (0.11).

The 4th column is the translation accuracy of the single global map M , training on data from all x_i neighborhoods. The 5th column is the translation accuracy of the map M^{x_0} , trained on the train-

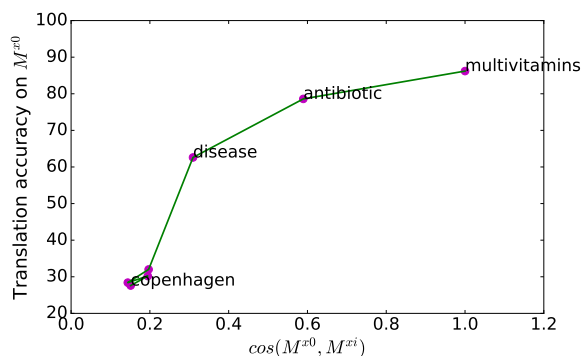


Figure 3: Correlation between the 8th column (x -axis), map similarity $\cos(\mathbf{M}^{x_0}, \mathbf{M}^{x_i})$, and the 5th column (y -axis), performance of map M^{x_0} on test data from the neighborhood anchored at x_i .

ing data of x_0 , and tested on the test data in x_i . We use precision at top-10 as a measure of translation accuracy. Going down this column we can see that accuracy is highest on the test data from the neighborhood anchored at x_0 itself, and lowest on the test data from the neighborhood anchored at x_6 , *copenhagen*, which is also the furthest word from x_0 .

The 6th column is translation accuracy of the map M^{x_i} , trained on the training data of the neighborhood anchored at x_i , and tested on the test data in x_i . We can see that compared to the 5th column, in all cases performance is higher when we apply the map trained on data from the neighborhood, M^{x_i} instead of M^{x_0} . The 7th column shows the difference in translation accuracy of the map M^{x_i} and M^{x_0} . This shows that the more dissimilar the neighborhood anchor word x_i is from x_0 according to the cosine similarity shown in the 4th column, the larger this difference is.

The local maps, 6th column, M^{x_i} in all cases

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Anchor Word	Data, $\mathcal{N}(x_i, s = 0.5)$		x_0 Similarity	Translation Accuracy		
	Train	Test	$\cos(x_0, x_i)$	\mathbf{M}	\mathbf{M}^{x_0}	\mathbf{M}^{x_i}
x_0 :species	1,765	200	1.0	58.0	60.0	60.0
x_1 :genus	1,374	200	0.77	56.4	53.1	56.0
x_2 :laticeps	1,868	200	0.60	81.0	73.4	79.1
x_3 :femoralis	1,689	200	0.52	85.3	76.3	83.4
x_4 :coneflower	1,077	200	0.47	39.6	31.6	43.0
x_5 :epicauta	1,339	200	0.43	53.4	42.1	54.2
x_6 :kristoffersen	1,227	200	0.09	24.3	10.3	57.1

Table 2: Different language pair (en \rightarrow sv) English to Swedish, and different sets of neighborhoods. Train and test is from the FAIR/MUSE word translation lexicons. Accuracy refers to precision at 10.

outperform the global map 4th column.

The 8th column shows the similarity between maps M^{x_i} and M^{x_0} as computed by Equation 2. This column shows that the similarity between these learned maps is highly correlated with the cosine similarity or distance between the words in 3rd column. We also see a correlation with the translation accuracy in the 5th column. This correlation is visualized in Figure 3. Finally, the 9th column shows the magnitudes of the maps. The magnitudes vary somewhat between the maps trained on the different neighborhoods, and are significantly different from the magnitude expected for an orthogonal matrix. (For an orthogonal 300×300 matrix O the norm is $\|O\| = \sqrt{300} \approx 17$).

In order to determine the generality of our results, we carried out the same experiment on a different language pair, as shown in Table 2. Crucially, we see the same trends as those observed in Table 1. This supports the generality of our findings.

4.4 Experiments Summary

Our experimental study suggests the following: i) linear maps vary across neighborhoods, implying that the assumption of a linear map does not hold. ii) the difference between maps is tightly correlated with the distance between neighborhoods.

5 Conclusions

In this paper, we provide evidence that the assumption of linearity made by a large body of current work on cross-lingual mapping for word translation does not hold. We locally approximate the underlying non-linear map using linear maps, and show that these maps vary across neighborhoods in vector space by an amount that is tightly correlated with the distance between the neighborhoods on which they are trained. These results can be used to test non-linear methods, and we plan to use our finding to design more accurate maps in future work.

Acknowledgments

We thank the anonymous reviewers for their constructive comments. We also gratefully acknowledge Amazon for AWS Cloud Credits for Research, and Nvidia for a GPU grant.

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