

Parallax: Visualizing and Understanding the Semantics of Embedding Spaces via Algebraic Formulae

Piero Molino
Uber AI Labs
San Francisco, CA, USA
piero@uber.com

Yang Wang
Uber Technologies Inc.
San Francisco, CA, USA
gnavvy@uber.com

Jiawei Zhang*
Facebook
Menlo Park, CA, USA
rivulet.zhang@gmail.com

Abstract

Embeddings are a fundamental component of many modern machine learning and natural language processing models. Understanding them and visualizing them is essential for gathering insights about the information they capture and the behavior of the models. In this paper, we introduce Parallax¹, a tool explicitly designed for this task. Parallax allows the user to use both state-of-the-art embedding analysis methods (PCA and t-SNE) and a simple yet effective task-oriented approach where users can explicitly define the axes of the projection through algebraic formulae. In this approach, embeddings are projected into a semantically meaningful subspace, which enhances interpretability and allows for more fine-grained analysis. We demonstrate² the power of the tool and the proposed methodology through a series of case studies and a user study.

1 Introduction

Learning representations is an important part of modern machine learning and natural language processing. These representations are often real-valued vectors also called embeddings and are obtained both as byproducts of supervised learning or as the direct goal of unsupervised methods. Independently of how the embeddings are learned, there is much value in understanding what information they capture, how they relate to each other and how the data they are learned from influences them. A better understanding of the embedded space may lead to a better understanding of the data, of the problem and the behavior of the model, and may lead to critical insights in improving such models. Because of their high-dimensional nature, they are hard to visualize effectively.

*Work done while at Purdue University

¹<http://github.com/uber-research/parallax>

²<https://youtu.be/CSkJGVsFPiI>

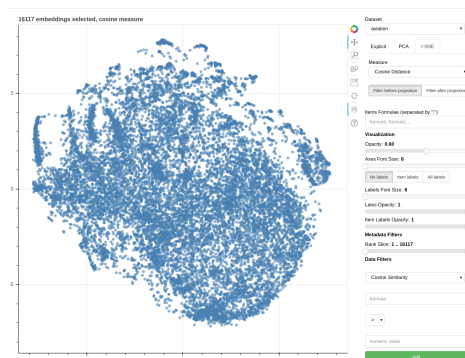


Figure 1: Screenshot of Parallax.

In this paper, we introduce Parallax, a tool for visualizing embedding spaces. The most widely adopted projection techniques (Principal Component Analysis (PCA) (Pearson, 1901) and t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE) (van der Maaten and Hinton, 2008)) are available in Parallax. They are useful for obtaining an overall view of the embedding space, but they have a few shortcomings: 1) projections may not preserve distance in the original space, 2) they are not comparable across models and 3) do not provide interpretable axes, preventing more detailed analysis and understanding.

PCA projects embeddings on a lower dimensional space that has the directions of the highest variance in the dataset as axes. Those dimensions do not carry any interpretable meaning, so by visualizing the first two dimensions of a PCA projection, the only insight obtainable is semantic relatedness (Budanitsky and Hirst, 2006) between points by observing their relative closeness, and therefore, topical clusters can be identified. Moreover, as the directions of highest variance differ from embedding space to embedding space, the projections are incompatible among different embeddings spaces, and this makes them incomparable, a common issue among dimensionality reduction techniques.

t-SNE, differently from PCA, optimizes a loss that encourages embeddings that are in their respective close neighborhoods in the original high-dimensional space to be close in the lower dimensional projection space. t-SNE projections visually approximate better the original embedding space and topical clusters are more clearly distinguishable, but do not solve the issue of comparability of two different sets of embeddings, nor do they solve the lack of interpretability of the axes or allow for fine-grained inspection.

For these reasons, there is value in mapping embeddings into a more specific, controllable and interpretable semantic space. In this paper, a new and simple method to inspect, explore and debug embedding spaces at a fine-grained level is proposed. This technique is made available in Parallax alongside PCA and t-SNE for goal-oriented analysis of the embedding spaces. It consists of explicitly defining the axes of projection through formulae in vector algebra that use embedding labels as atoms. Explicit axis definition assigns interpretable and fine-grained semantics to the axes of projection. This makes it possible to analyze in detail how embeddings relate to each other with respect to interpretable dimensions of variability, as carefully crafted formulas can map (to a certain extent) to semantically meaningful portions of the space. The explicit axes definition also allows for the comparison of embeddings obtained from different datasets, as long as they have common labels and are equally normalized.

We demonstrate three visualizations that Parallax provides for analyzing subspaces of interest of embedding spaces and a set of example case studies including bias detection, polysemy analysis and fine-grained embedding analysis, but additional ones, like diachronic analysis and the analysis of representations obtained through graph learning or any other means, may be performed as easily. Moreover, the proposed visualizations can be used for debugging purposes and, in general, for obtaining a better understanding of the embedding spaces learned by different models and representation learning approaches. We show how this methodology can be widely used through a series of case studies on well known models and data, and furthermore, we validate its usefulness for goal-oriented analysis through a user study.

Parallax interface, shown in Figure 1, presents a plot on the left side (scatter or polar) and controls

on the right side that allow users to define parameters of the projection (what measure to use, values for the hyperparameters, the formulae for the axes in case of explicit axes projections are selected, etc.) and additional filtering and visualization parameters. Filtering parameters define logic rules applied to embeddings metadata to decide which of them should be visualized, e.g., the user can decide to visualize only the most frequent words or only verbs if metadata about part-of-speech tags is made available. Filters on the embeddings themselves can also be defined, e.g., the user can decide to visualize only the embeddings with cosine similarity above 0.5 to the embedding of “horse”.

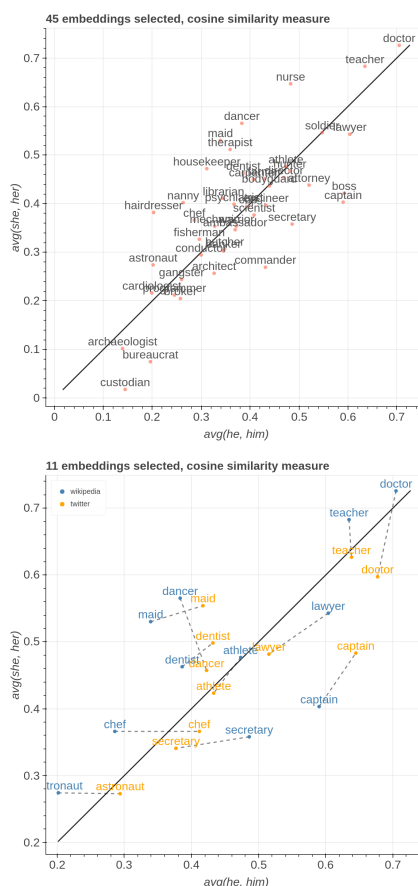


Figure 2: In the top we show professions plotted on “male” and “female” axes in *Wikipedia* embeddings. In the bottom we show their comparison in *Wikipedia* and *Twitter* datasets.

In particular, Parallax’s capability of explicitly defining axes is useful for goal-oriented analyses, e.g., when the user has a specific analysis goal in mind, like detecting bias in the embeddings space. Goals are defined in terms of dimensions of variability (axes of projection) and items to visualize (all the embeddings that are projected, after filtering). In the case of a few dimensions of variability

(up to three) and potentially many items of interest, a Cartesian view is ideal. Each axis is the vector obtained by evaluating the algebraic formula it is associated with, and the coordinates displayed are similarities or distances of the items with respect to each axis. Figure 2 shows an example of a bi-dimensional Cartesian view. In the case where the goal is defined in terms of many dimensions of variability, a polar view is preferred. The polar view can visualize many more axes by showing them in a circle, but it is limited in the number of items it can display, as each item will be displayed as a polygon with each vertex lying on a different axis and too many overlapping polygons would make the visualization cluttered. Figure 5 shows an example of a five-dimensional polar view.

The use of explicit axes allows for interpretable comparison of different embedding spaces, trained on different corpora or on the same corpora but with different models, or even trained on two different time slices of the same corpora. The only requirement for embedding spaces to be comparable is that they contain embeddings for all labels present in the formulae defining the axes. Moreover, embeddings in the two spaces do not need to be of the same dimension, but they need to be normalized. Items will now have two sets of coordinates, one for each embedding space, and thus they will be displayed as lines. Short lines are interpreted as items being embedded similarly in the subspaces defined by the axes in both embedding spaces, while long lines are interpreted as really different locations in the subspaces, and their direction gives insight on how items shift in the two subspaces. The bottom side of Figure 2 shows an example of how to use the Cartesian comparison view to compare embeddings in two datasets.

2 Case Studies

In this section, a few goal-oriented use cases are presented, but Parallax’s flexibility allows for many others. We used 50-dimensional publicly available GloVe (Pennington et al., 2014) embeddings trained on Wikipedia and Gigaword 5 summing to 6 billion tokens (for short *Wikipedia*) and 2 billion tweets containing 27 billion tokens (*Twitter*).

Bias detection The task of bias detection is to identify, and in some cases correct for, bias in data that is reflected in the embeddings trained on such data. Studies have shown how embeddings incorporate gender and ethnic biases ((Garg et al., 2018;

Bolukbasi et al., 2016; Islam et al., 2017)), while other studies focused on warping spaces in order to de-bias the resulting embeddings ((Bolukbasi et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2017)). We show how our proposed methodology can help visualize biases.

To visualize gender bias with respect to professions, the goal is defined with the formulae $avg(he, him)$ and $avg(she, her)$ as two dimensions of variability, in a similar vein to (Garg et al., 2018). A subset of the professions used by (Bolukbasi et al., 2016) is selected as items and cosine similarity is adopted as the measure for the projection. The Cartesian view visualizing *Wikipedia* embeddings is shown in the left of Figure 2. *Nurse*, *dancer*, and *maid* are the professions closer to the “female” axis, while *boss*, *captain*, and *commander* end up closer to the “male” axis.

The Cartesian comparison view comparing the embeddings trained on *Wikipedia* and *Twitter* is shown in the right side of Figure 2. Only the embeddings with a line length above 0.05 are displayed. The most interesting words in this visualization are the ones that shift the most in the direction of negative slope. In this case, *chef* and *doctor* are closer to the “male” axis in *Twitter* than in *Wikipedia*, while *dancer* and *secretary* are closer to the bisector in *Twitter* than in *Wikipedia*.

Polysemy analysis Methods for representing words with multiple vectors by clustering contexts have been proposed (Huang et al., 2012; Nee-lakantan et al., 2014), but widely used pre-trained vectors conflate meanings in the same embedding.

Widdows (2003) showed how using a binary orthonormalization operator that has ties with the quantum logic *not* operator it is possible to remove part of the conflated meaning from the embedding of a polysemous word. The authors define the operator $nqnot(a, b) = a - \frac{a \cdot b}{|b|^2} b$ and we show with a comparison plot how it can help distinguish the different meanings of a word.

For illustrative purposes, we choose the same polysemous word used by (Widdows, 2003), *suit*, and use the *nqnot* operator to orthonormalize with respect to *lawsuit* and *dress*, the two main meanings used as dimensions of variability. The items in our goal are the 20,000 most frequent words in the *Wikipedia* embedding space removing stopwords. In Figure 3, we show the overall plot and we zoom on the items that are closer to each axis. Words closer to the axis negating *lawsuit* are all related to dresses and the act of wearing something,

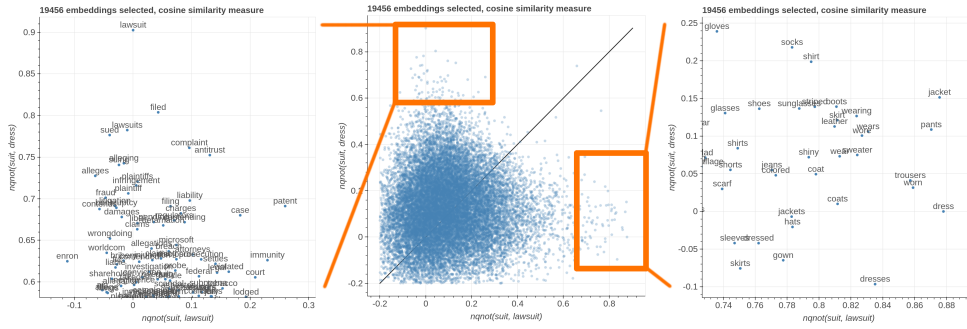


Figure 3: Plot of embeddings in *Wikipedia* with *suit* negated with respect to *lawsuit* and *dress* respectively as axes.

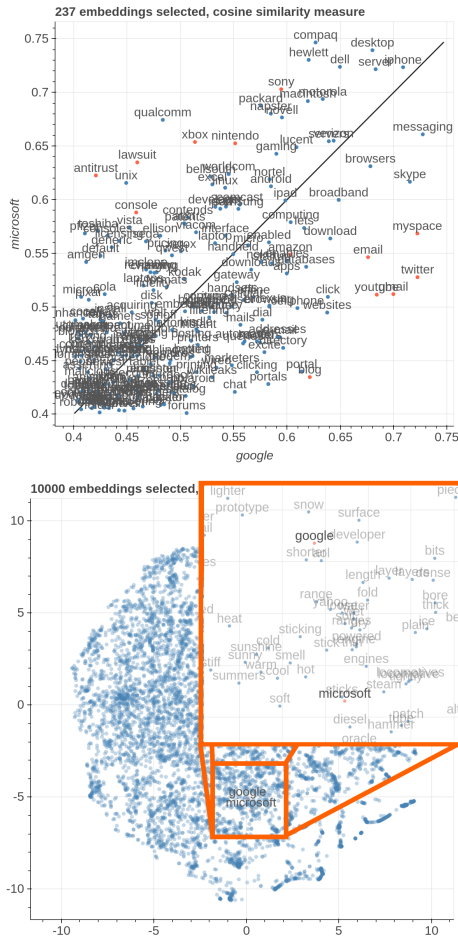


Figure 4: The top figure is a fine-grained comparison of the subspace on the axis *google* and *microsoft* in *Wikipedia*, the bottom one is the *t-SNE* counterpart.

while words closer to the axis negating *dress* are related to law. This visualization clearly confirms the ability of the *nqnot* operator to disentangle multiple meanings from polysemous embeddings.

Fine-grained embedding analysis We consider embeddings that are close to be semantically related, but even close embeddings may have nuances that distinguish them. When projecting in two dimensions through PCA or *t-SNE* we are conflating a multidimensional notion of similar-

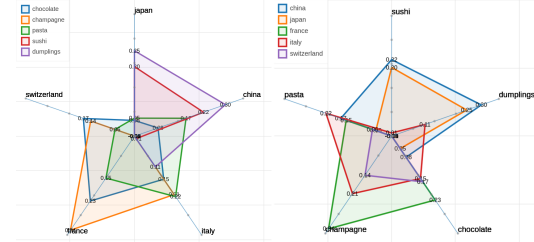


Figure 5: Two polar views of countries and foods.

ity to a bi-dimensional one, losing the fine-grained distinctions. The Cartesian view allows for a more fine-grained visualization that emphasizes nuances that could otherwise go unnoticed.

To demonstrate this capability, we select as dimensions of variability single words in close vicinity to each other in the *Wikipedia* embedding space: *google* and *microsoft*, as *google* is the closest word to *microsoft* and *microsoft* is the 3rd closest word to *google*. As items, we pick the 30,000 most frequent words removing stop-words and remove the 500 most frequent words (as they are too generic) and keeping only the words that have a cosine similarity of at least 0.4 with both *google* + *microsoft* and a cosine similarity below 0.75 with respect to *google* + *microsoft*, as we are interested in the most polarized words.

The left side of Figure 4 shows how even if those embeddings are close to each other, it is easy to identify peculiar words (highlighted with red dots). The ones that relate to web companies and services (*twitter*, *youtube*, *myspace*) are much closer to the *google* axis. Words related to both legal issues (*lawsuit*, *antitrust*) and videogames (*ps3*, *nintendo*, *xbox*) and traditional IT companies are closer to the *microsoft* axis.

For contrast, the *t-SNE* projection is shown in the right side of Figure 4: it is hard to appreciate the similarities and differences among those embeddings other than seeing them being close in the projected space. This confirms on one hand that the notion of similarity between terms in an em-

| Accuracy | Factor | $F_{(1,91)}$ | p-value |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|--------------|----------|
| Projection × Task | Projection | 46.11 | 0.000*** |
| | Task | 1.709 | 0.194 |
| Projection × Obfuscation | Projection × Task | 3.452 | 0.066 |
| | Projection | 57.73 | 0.000*** |
| | Obfuscation | 23.93 | 0.000*** |
| | Projection × Obf | 5.731 | 0.019* |

Table 1: Two-way ANOVA analyses of Task (Commonality vs. Polarization) and Obfuscation (Obfuscated vs. Non-obfuscated) over Projection (Explicit Formulae vs. t-SNE).

bedding space hides many nuances that are captured in those representations, and on the other hand, that the proposed methodology enables for a more detailed inspection of the embedded space.

Multi-dimensional similarity nuances can be visualized using the polar view. In Figure 5, we show how to use Parallax to visualize a small number of items on more than two axes, specifically five food-related items compared over five countries’ axes. The most typical food from a specific country is the closest to the country axis, with *sushi* being predominantly close to *Japan* and *China*, *dumplings* being close to both Asian countries and *Italy*, *pasta* being predominantly closer to *Italy*, *chocolate* being close to European countries and *champagne* being closer to *France* and *Italy*. This same approach could be also be used for bias detection among different ethnicities, for instance.

3 User Study

We conducted a user study to find out if and how visualizations using user-defined semantically meaningful algebraic formulae help users achieve their analysis goals. What we are not testing for is the projection quality itself, as in PCA and t-SNE it is obtained algorithmically, while in our case it is explicitly defined by the user. We formalized the research questions as: Q1) Does Explicit Formulae outperform t-SNE in goal-oriented tasks? Q2) Which visualization do users prefer?

To answer these questions we invited twelve subjects among data scientists and machine learning researchers, all acquainted with interpreting dimensionality reduction results. We defined two types of tasks, namely Commonality and Polarization, in which subjects were given a visualization together with a pair of words (used as axes in Explicit Formulae or highlighted with a big font and red dot in case of t-SNE). We asked the subjects to identify either common or polarized words w.r.t. the two provided ones. The provided pairs were:

banana & strawberry, google & microsoft, nerd & geek, book & magazine. The test subjects were given a list of eight questions, four per task type, and their proposed lists of five words are compared with a gold standard provided by a committee of two computational linguistics experts. The tasks are fully randomized within the subject to prevent from learning effects. In addition, we obfuscated half of our questions by replacing the words with a random numeric ID to prevent prior knowledge from affecting the judgment. We track the *accuracy* of the subjects by calculating the number of words provided that are present in the gold standard set, and we also collected an overall *preference* for either visualizations.

As reported in Table 1, two-way ANOVA tests revealed significant differences in accuracy for the factor of Projection and t-SNE against both Task and Obfuscation, which is a strong indicator that the proposed Explicit Formulae method outperforms t-SNE in terms of accuracy in both Commonality and Polarization tasks. We also observed significant differences in Obfuscation: subjects tend to have better accuracy when the words are not obfuscated. We run post-hoc t-tests that confirmed how the accuracy of Explicit Formulae on Non-obfuscated is significantly better than Obfuscated, which in turn is significantly better than t-SNE Non-obfuscated, which is significantly better than t-SNE Obfuscated. Concerning Preference, nine out of all twelve (75%) subjects chose Explicit Formulae over t-SNE. In conclusion, our answers to the research questions are that (Q1) Explicit Formulae leads to better accuracy in goal-oriented tasks, (Q2) users prefer Explicit Formulae over t-SNE.

4 Related Work

A consistent body of research went into researching distributional semantics and embedding methods ((Lenci, 2018) for a comprehensive overview), but we will focus on the embedding visualization literature. In their recent paper, (Heimerl and Gleicher, 2018) extracted a list of routinely conducted tasks where embeddings are employed in visual analytics for NLP, such as *compare concepts*, *finding analogies*, and *predict contexts*. iVisClustering (Lee et al., 2012) represents topic clusters as their most representative keywords and displays them as a 2D scatter plot and a set of linked visualization components supporting interactively con-

structuring topic hierarchies. ConceptVector (Park et al., 2018) makes use of multiple keyword sets to encode the relevance scores of documents and topics: positive words, negative words, and irrelevant words. It allows users to select and build a concept iteratively. (Liu et al., 2018) display pairs of analogous words obtained through analogy by projecting them on a 2D plane obtained through a PCA and an SVM to find the plane that separates words on the two sides of the analogy. Besides word embeddings, visualization has been used to understand topic modeling (Chuang et al., 2012) and how topic models evolve over time (Havre et al., 2002). Compared to existing literature, our work allows for more fine-grained direct control over the conceptual axes and the filtering logic, allowing users to: 1) define concepts based on explicit algebraic formulae beyond single keywords, 2) filter depending on metadata, 3) perform multidimensional projections beyond the common 2D scatter plot view using the polar view, and 4) perform comparisons between embeddings from different data sources. Those features are absent in other proposed tools.

5 Conclusions

We presented Parallax, a tool for embedding visualization, and a simple methodology for projecting embeddings into lower-dimensional semantically-meaningful subspaces through explicit algebraic formulae. We showed how this approach allows goal-oriented analyses, more fine-grained and cross-dataset comparisons through a series of case studies and a user study.

References

- Tolga Bolukbasi, Kai-Wei Chang, James Y. Zou, Venkatesh Saligrama, and Adam Tauman Kalai. 2016. Man is to computer programmer as woman is to homemaker? debiasing word embeddings. In *NIPS*, pages 4349–4357.
- Alexander Budanitsky and Graeme Hirst. 2006. Evaluating wordnet-based measures of lexical semantic relatedness. *Comput. Ling.*, 32(1):13–47.
- Jason Chuang, Christopher D. Manning, and Jeffrey Heer. 2012. Termite: visualization techniques for assessing textual topic models. In *AVI*, pages 74–77.
- Nikhil Garg, Londa Schiebinger, Dan Jurafsky, and James Zou. 2018. Word embeddings quantify 100 years of gender and ethnic stereotypes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*.
- Susan Havre, Elizabeth G. Hetzler, Paul Whitney, and Lucy T. Nowell. 2002. Themeriver: Visualizing thematic changes in large document collections. *IEEE Trans. Vis. Comput. Graph.*, 8(1):9–20.
- Florian Heimerl and Michael Gleicher. 2018. Interactive analysis of word vector embeddings. *Comput. Graph. Forum*, 37(3):253–265.
- Eric H. Huang, Richard Socher, Christopher D. Manning, and Andrew Y. Ng. 2012. Improving word representations via global context and multiple word prototypes. In *ACL*.
- Aylin Caliskan Islam, Joanna J. Bryson, and Arvind Narayanan. 2017. Semantics derived automatically from language corpora necessarily contain human biases. *Science*, 356:183–186.
- Hanseung Lee, Jaeyeon Kihm, Jaegul Choo, John T. Stasko, and Haesun Park. 2012. ivisclustering: An interactive visual document clustering via topic modeling. *Comput. Graph. Forum*, 31(3):1155–1164.
- Alessandro Lenci. 2018. Distributional models of word meaning. *Annual Review of Linguistics*, 4(1):151–171.
- Shusen Liu, Peer-Timo Bremer, Jayaraman J. Thiagarajan, Vivek Srikumar, Bei Wang, Yarden Livnat, and Valerio Pascucci. 2018. Visual exploration of semantic relationships in neural word embeddings. *IEEE Trans. Vis. Comput. Graph.*, 24(1):553–562.
- Laurens van der Maaten and Geoffrey Hinton. 2008. Visualizing data using t-SNE. *Journal of Machine Learning Research*, 9:2579–2605.
- Arvind Neelakantan, Jeevan Shankar, Alexandre Passos, and Andrew McCallum. 2014. Efficient non-parametric estimation of multiple embeddings per word in vector space. In *EMNLP*, pages 1059–1069.
- Deok Gun Park, Seungyeon Kim, Jurim Lee, Jaegul Choo, Nicholas Diakopoulos, and Niklas Elmqvist. 2018. Conceptvector: Text visual analytics via interactive lexicon building using word embedding. *IEEE Trans. Vis. Comput. Graph.*, 24(1):361–370.
- K. Pearson. 1901. On lines and planes of closest fit to systems of points in space. *Philosophical Magazine*, 2:559–572.
- Jeffrey Pennington, Richard Socher, and Christopher D. Manning. 2014. Glove: Global vectors for word representation. In *EMNLP*, pages 1532–1543.
- Dominic Widdows. 2003. Orthogonal negation in vector spaces for modelling word-meanings and document retrieval. In *ACL*, pages 136–143.
- Jieyu Zhao, Tianlu Wang, Mark Yatskar, Vicente Ordonez, and Kai-Wei Chang. 2017. Men also like shopping: Reducing gender bias amplification using corpus-level constraints. In *EMNLP*, pages 2979–2989.

A Appendix

In this appendix we show all the images presented in the main body of the paper in full size for making reading them easier.

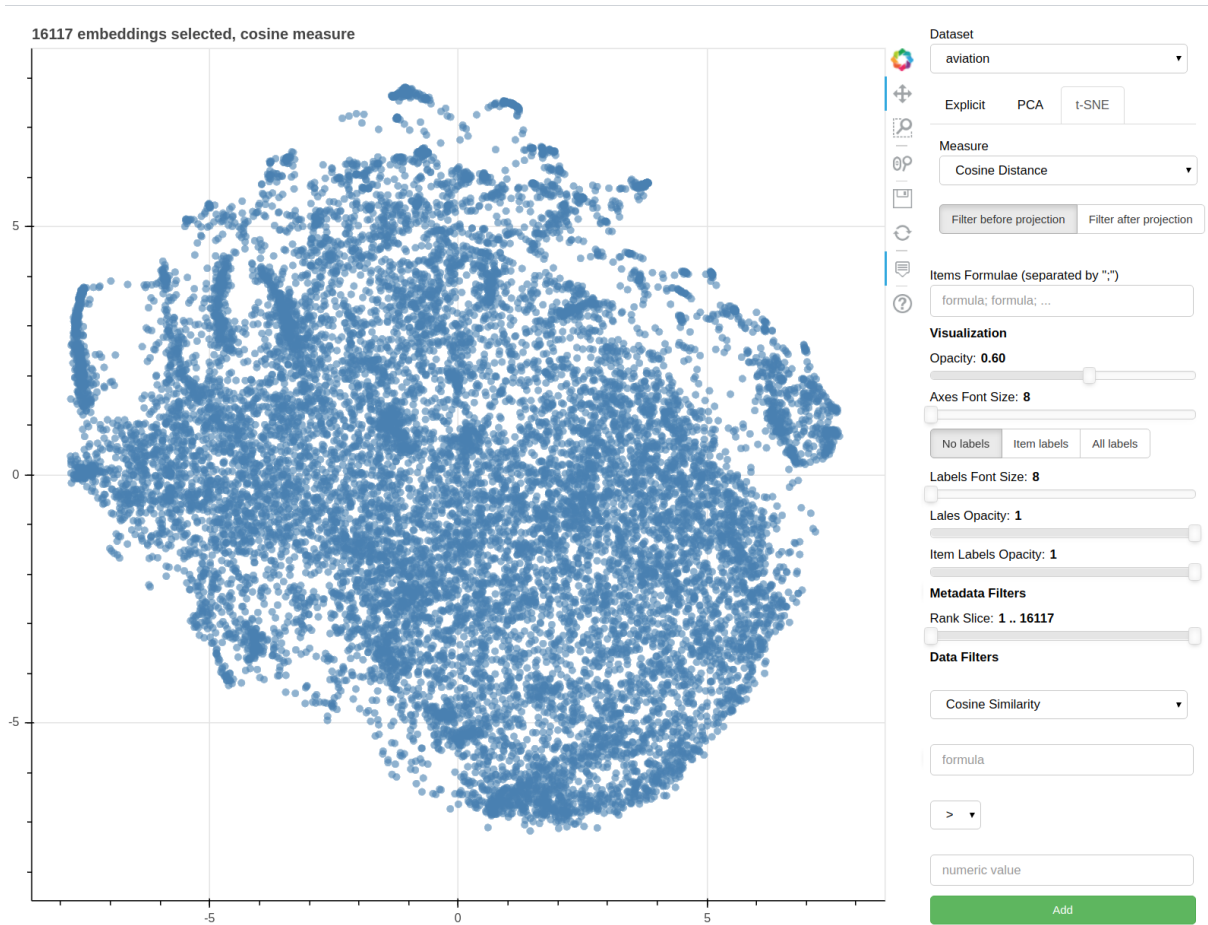


Figure 6: Screenshot of Parallax.

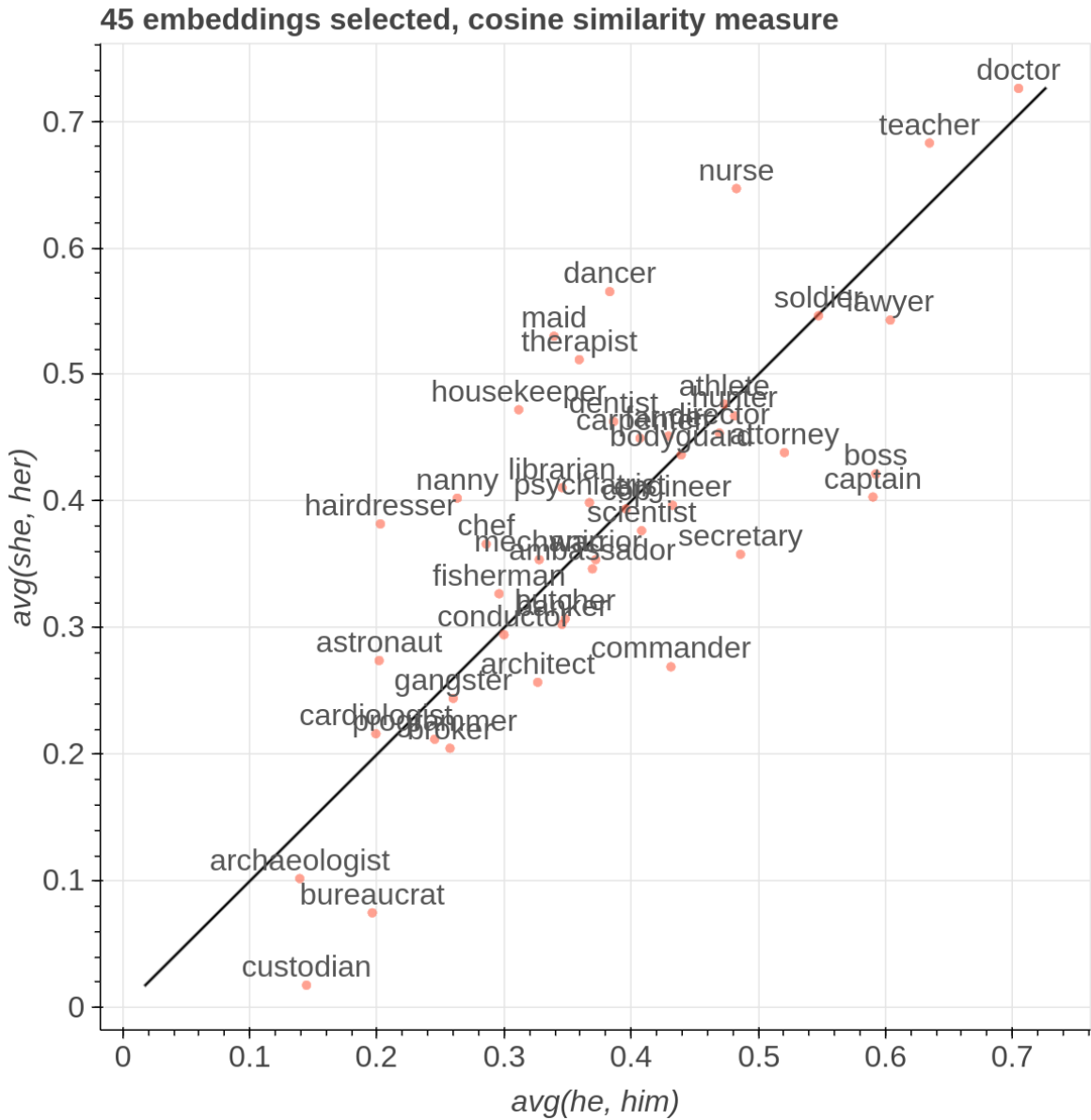


Figure 7: Professions plotted on “male” and “female” axes in *Wikipedia* embeddings.

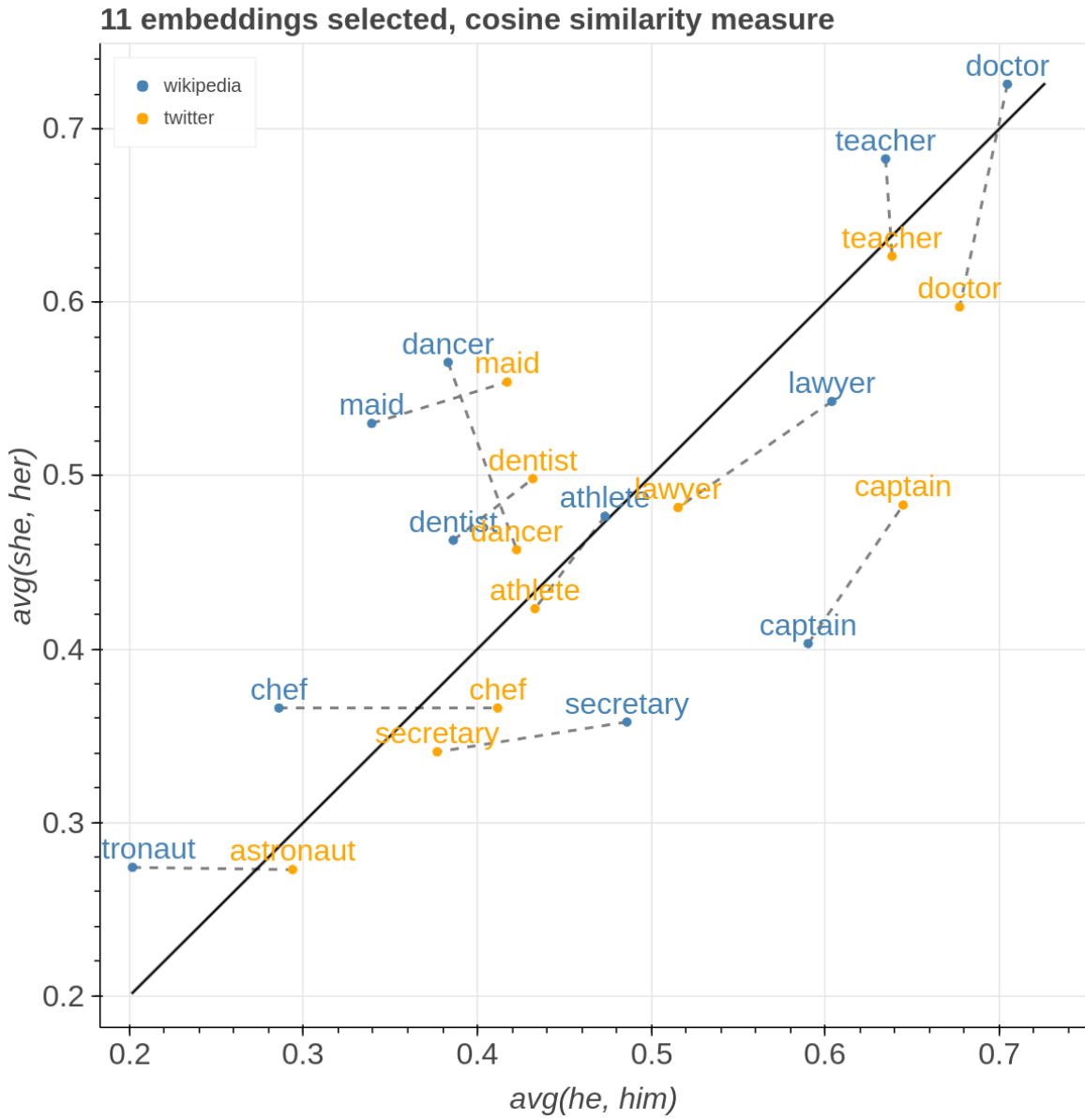


Figure 8: Professions plotted on “male” and “female” axes in *Wikipedia* and *Twitter* embeddings.

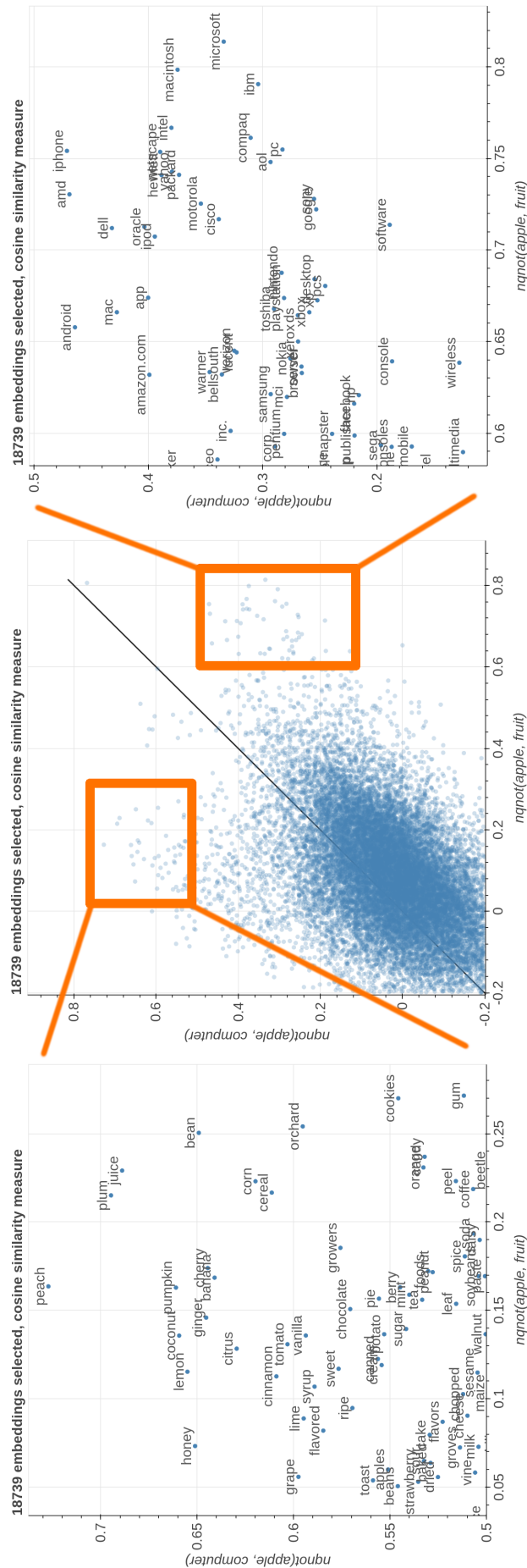


Figure 10: Plot of embeddings in Wikipedia with *apple* negated with respect to *fruit* and *computer* respectively as axes.

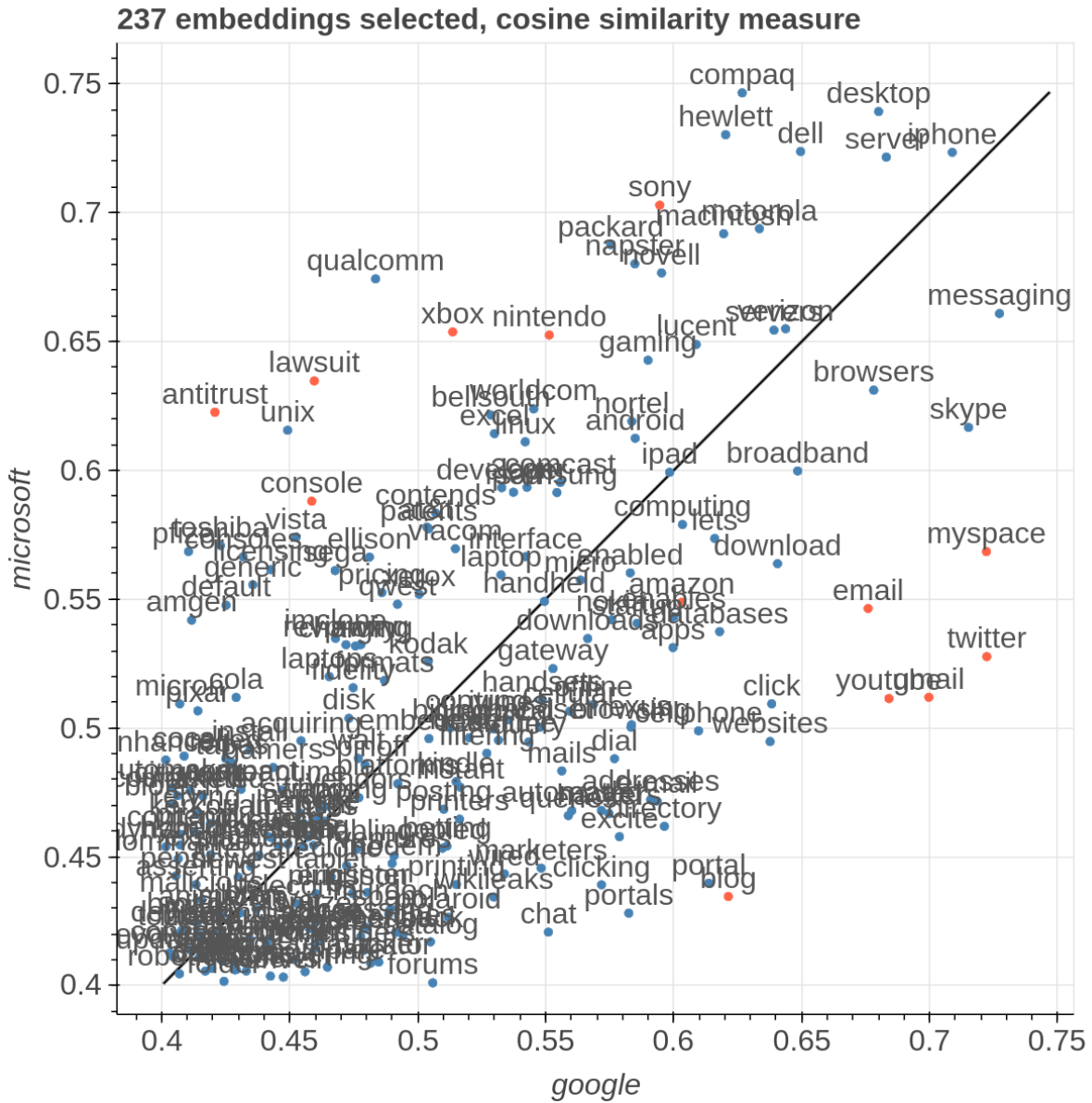


Figure 11: Fine-grained comparison of the subspace on the axis *google* and *microsoft* in Wikipedia.

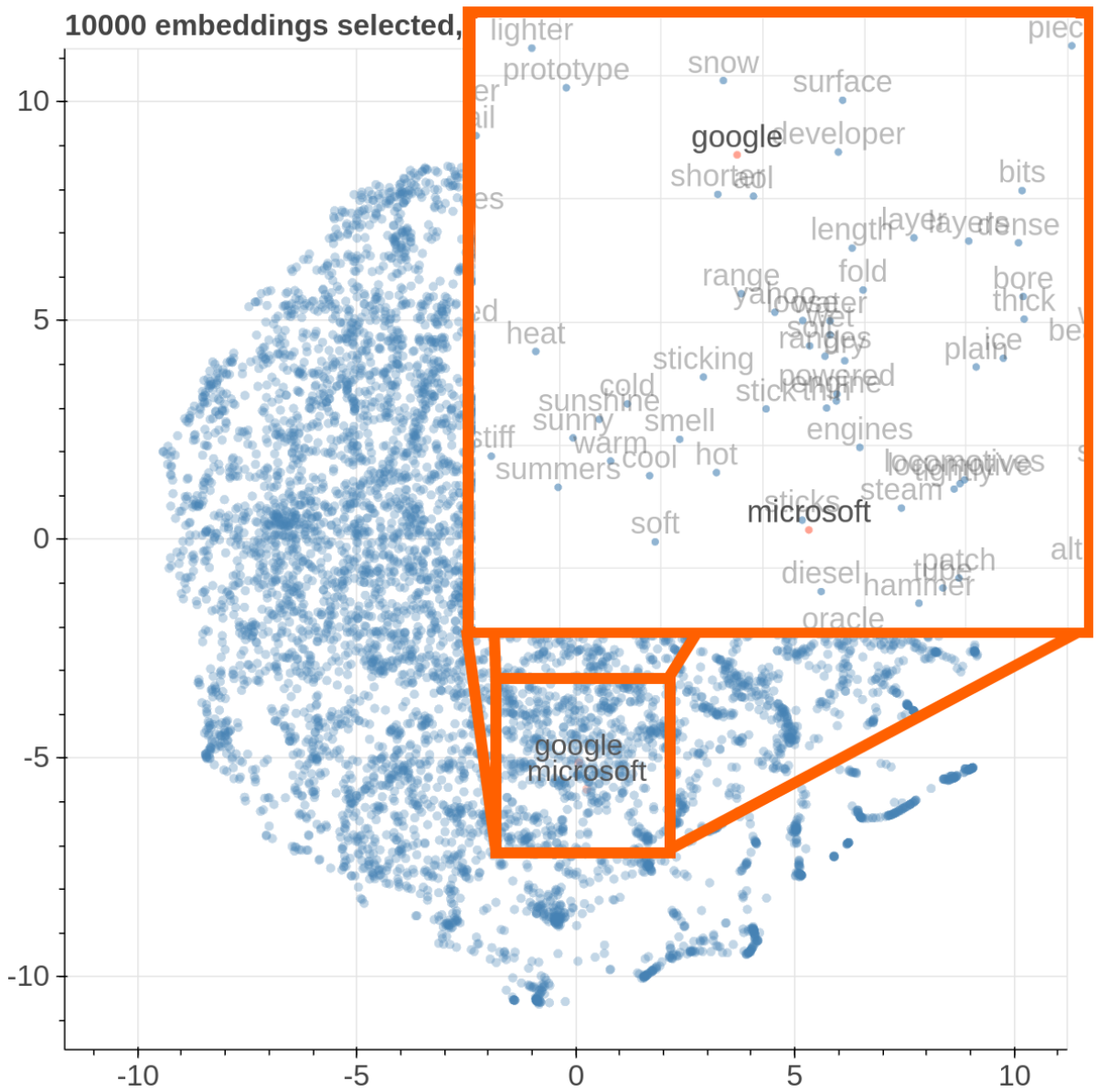


Figure 13: t-SNE visualization of *google* and *microsoft* in *Wikipedia*.

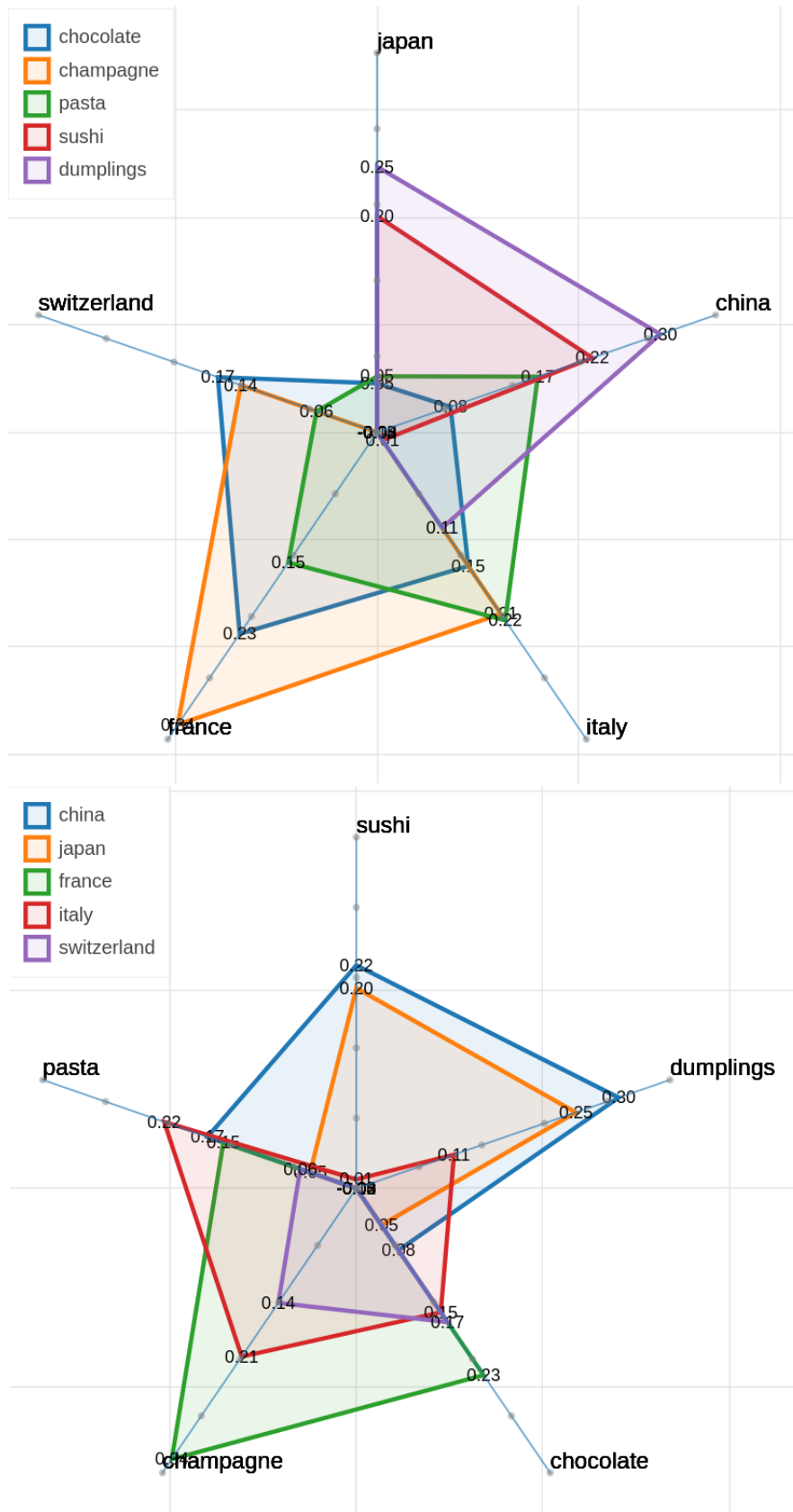


Figure 14: Two polar view of countries and foods in Wikipedia.