

AdvNLP/E Lecture 1

Lexical & Distributional Semantics

Dr Julie Weeds, Spring 2026



Lecture 1 Overview

PART 1

- Lexical semantics
 - word senses
 - semantic relationships
 - WordNet
 - semantic similarity measures based on WordNet
 - evaluation

PART 2

- Distributional Semantics
 - bootstrapping semantics from context
 - cosine similarity
 - (positive) pointwise mutual information
 - evaluation
 - word ambiguity
 - semantic relationships
 - sparsity

This might be revision if you have done Applied NLP!

Lexical Semantics

Lecture 1, part 1

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Word senses

- Words are often **ambiguous**
- Words can have **multiple senses** (i.e., meanings)

*I placed the book on the **counter**.*

vs

*I placed my **counter** on the gameboard.*

- How many more senses of **counter** can you think of?

Dictionaries

- **Lexicographers** produce dictionaries which:
 - enumerate the senses of all of the words in a language
 - provide definitions of different sense
 - provide examples of usage of different senses

WordNet online search:

<http://wordnetweb.princeton.edu/perl/webwn>

Oxford English Dictionary online search:

https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/?utm_source=od-panel&utm_campaign=en

How many different senses do words have?

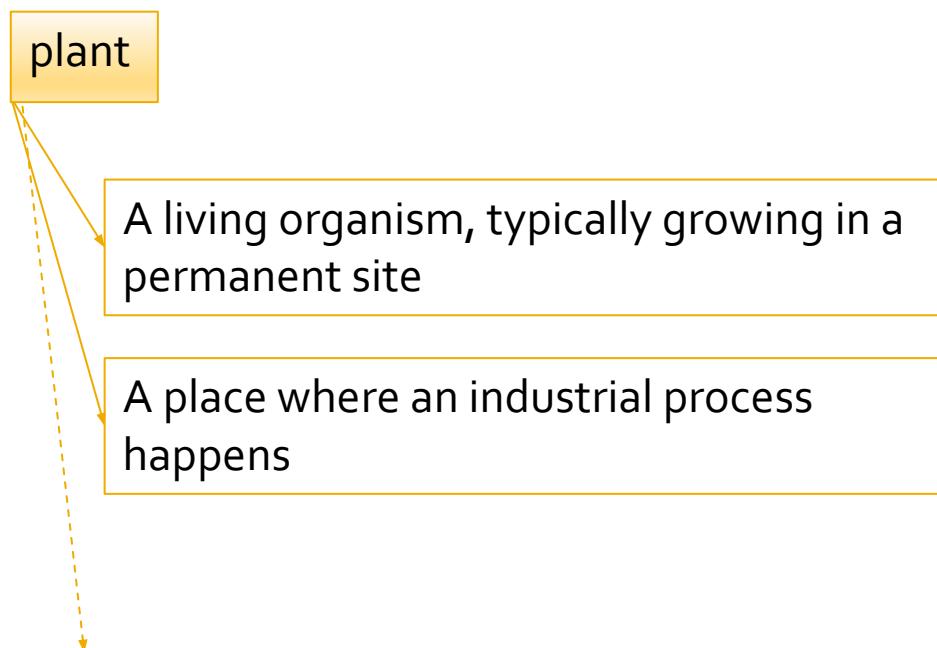
	WordNet	Oxford
plant	Noun:4, Verb:6	N:6, V:11
chicken	Noun:4, adJ:1	N:4, V:1, J: 1
book	Noun: 11, Verb:4	N:14,V:9
twig	Noun:1, Verb: 2	N:2
counter	Noun: 9, Verb:2, adJ:1, adveRb: 1	N:13, V: 3, J: 1, R: 1

Dictionaries do not always agree on this! [Why is it so difficult?](#)

Sense distinctions

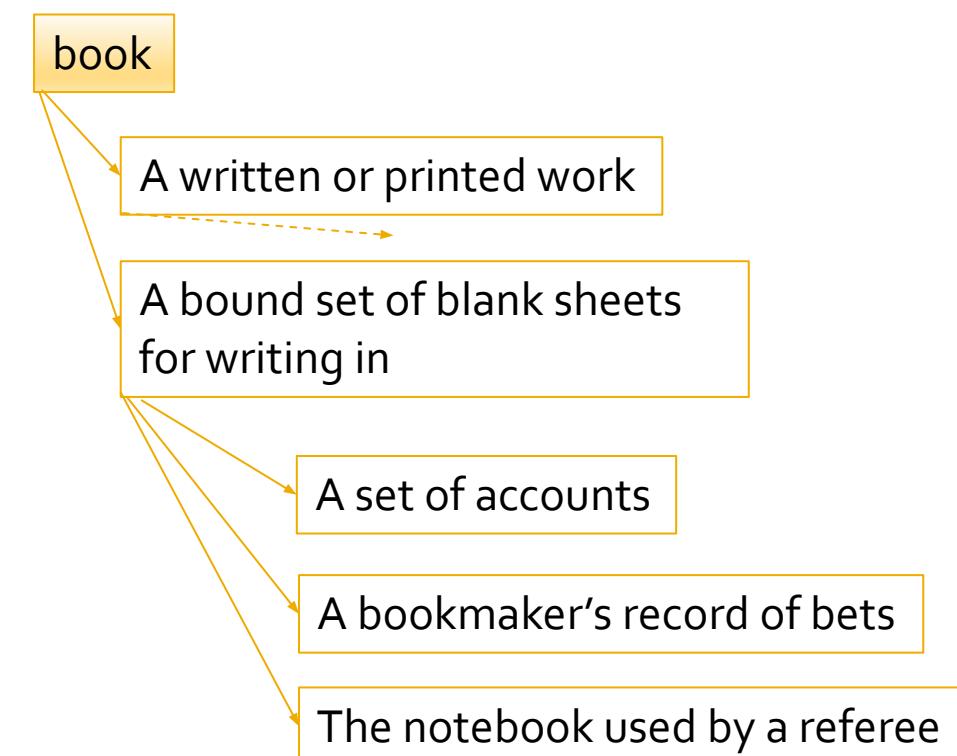
HOMONYMY

- Broad distinctions



POLYSEMY

- fine-grained distinctions



Lexical semantic relationships

- synonymy
- antonymy
- hyponymy / hypernymy
- meronymy / holonymy
- topical relatedness

Synonymy

fast

==

quickly

- Words which mean the same thing
- *Two words are **synonymous** if they can be substituted in all possible contexts without changing the meaning of the utterance.*
- True synonyms are very rare
- Choice of synonym usually gives us some extra information about the situation or speaker e.g., *car* vs *automobile*
- It is often defined as a relationship between word senses rather than between words. e.g., *plant* == *spy* ?

Antonymy

hot

≠

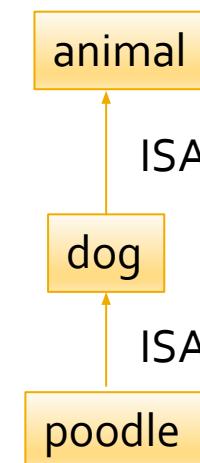
cold

- Words which are opposite in meaning
- Substituting one for the other would often cause a contradiction:
 - *The food is hot.*
 - *The food is cold.*
- Antonyms are actually very similar in meaning
 - *hot* and *cold* both describe the temperature of an object
 - *rise* and *fall* both describe an object which is moving in the vertical plane
- Most antonym pairs are adjectives, verbs or adverbs

Hyponymy and Hypernymy

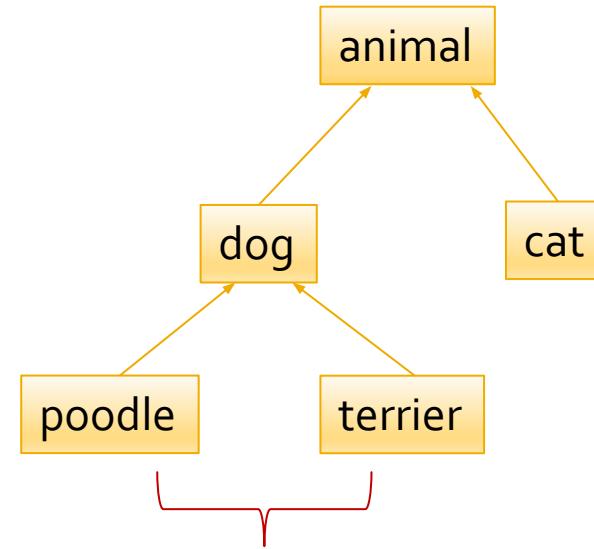


- Linguistic terms which capture the idea of class inclusion
- A *dog* is a type of *animal* so:
 - *dog* is a **hyponym** of *animal*
 - *animal* is a **hypernym** of *dog*
- It's a transitive relationship so
 - If *dog* is a hyponym of *animal*
 - And *poodle* is a hyponym of *dog*
 - *Poodle* is also a hyponym of *animal*



Hyponym Hierarchies

- The hyponymy relationship links together large numbers of concepts in a tree or hierarchy
- Most general superclass at the top
- Most specific types at the leaves



Words which share a common hypernym are called **co-hyponyms**

WordNet

- More than an electronic dictionary!
- See <http://wordnet.princeton.edu> for more general information
- Or see: Christiane Fellbaum (1998, ed.) *WordNet: An Electronic Lexical Database*. MIT Press.

WordNet

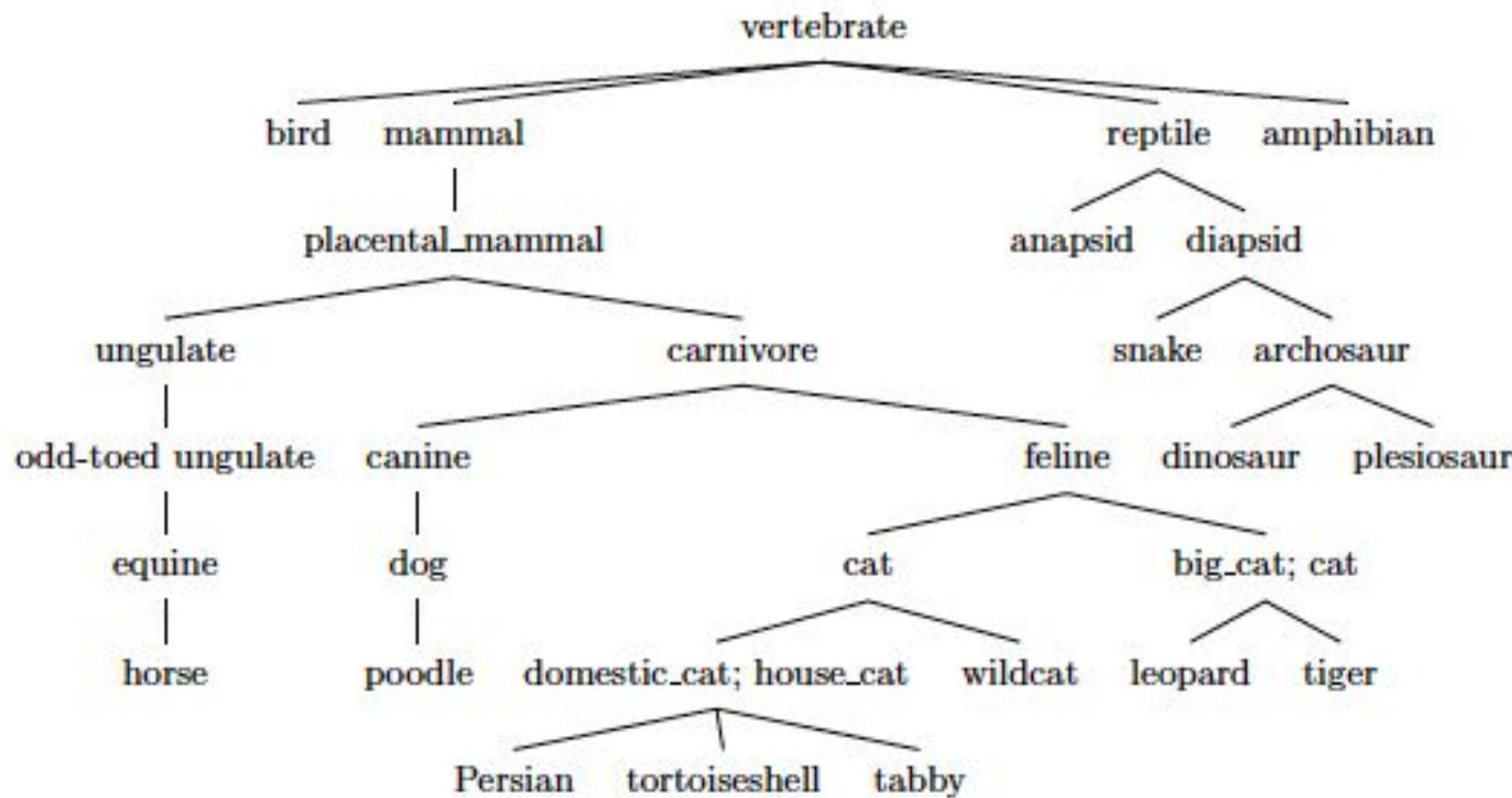
- A linguistic network organized around **synonymy** and **hyponymy**
- Core unit is the **synset**
 - a set of synonymous word senses
 - a set may contain a single word
 - synset items may be bigrams (e.g., “plant life”) as well as unigrams
 - each synset is also associated with a single definition
- Polysemous words appear in multiple synsets
 - One for each sense
- Synsets are then connected via hyponymy.....

{**plant, flora, plant life**} = a living organism lacking the power of locomotion

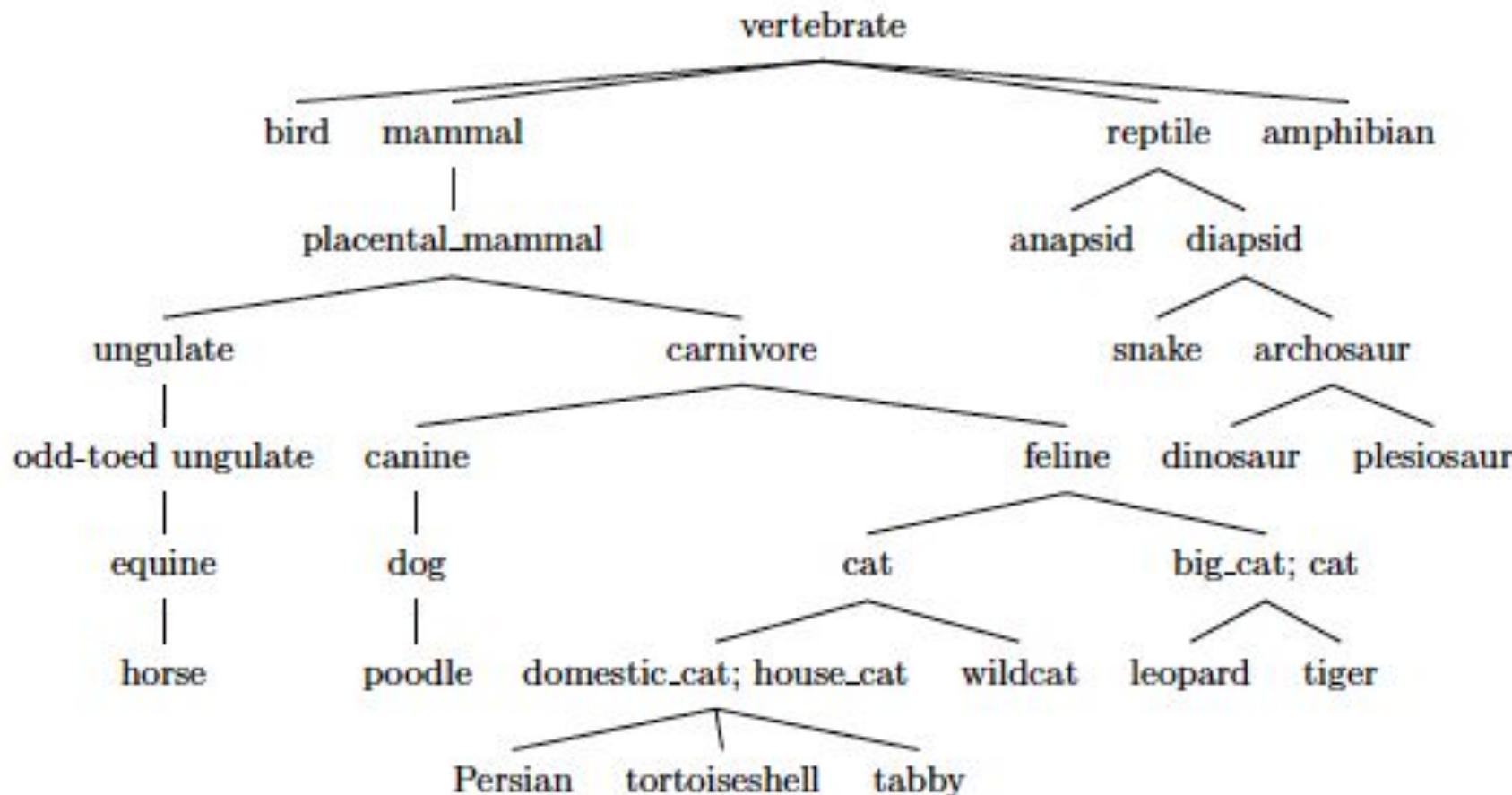
{**plant**} = something planted secretly for discovery by another

{**plant, works, industrial plant**} = buildings for carrying on industrial labour

Extract from the WordNet noun hierarchy

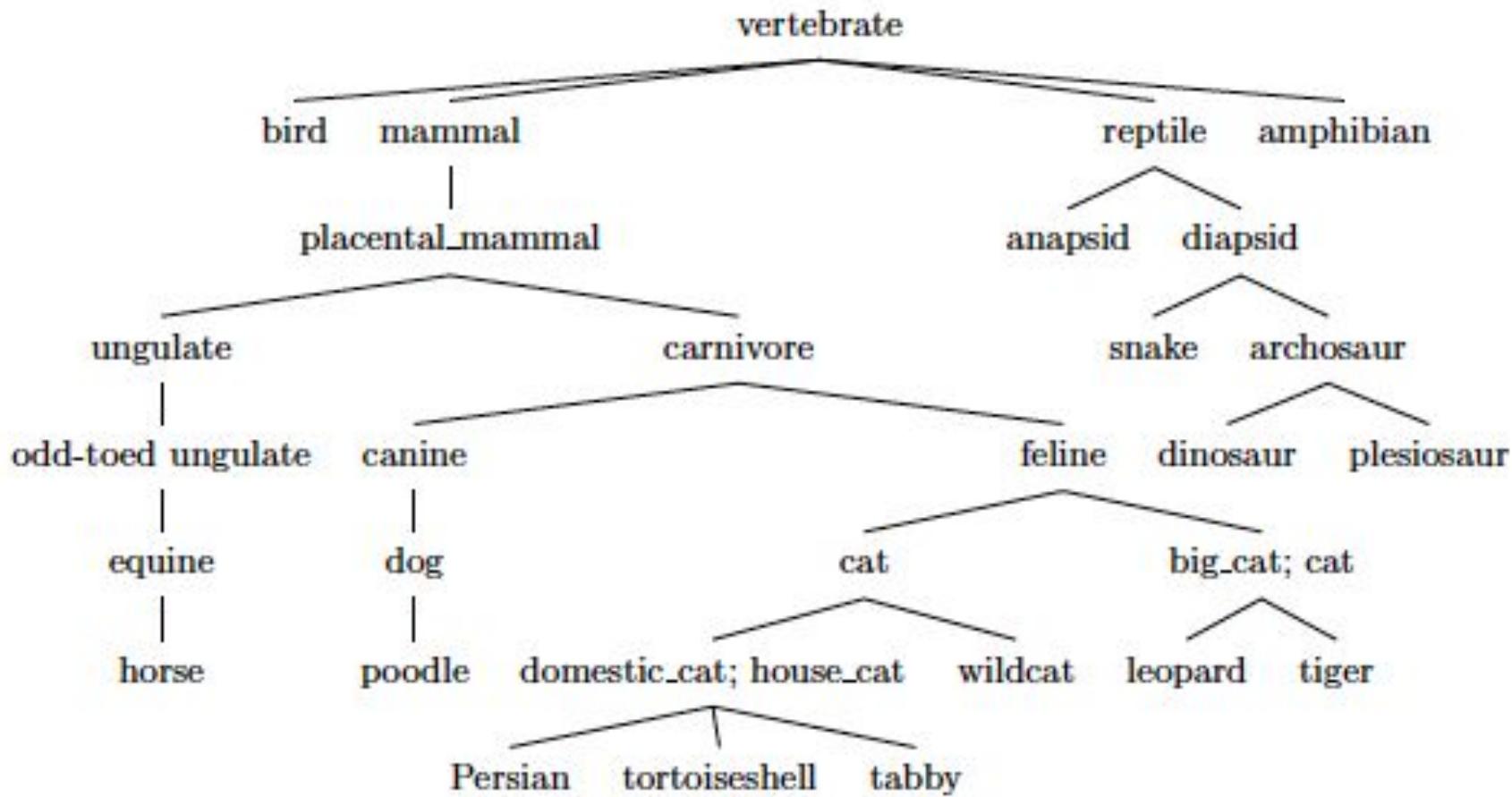


Semantic similarity based on WordNet



Intuition: More similar concepts are closer together in the hierarchy.

Path length: shorter path -> greater similarity

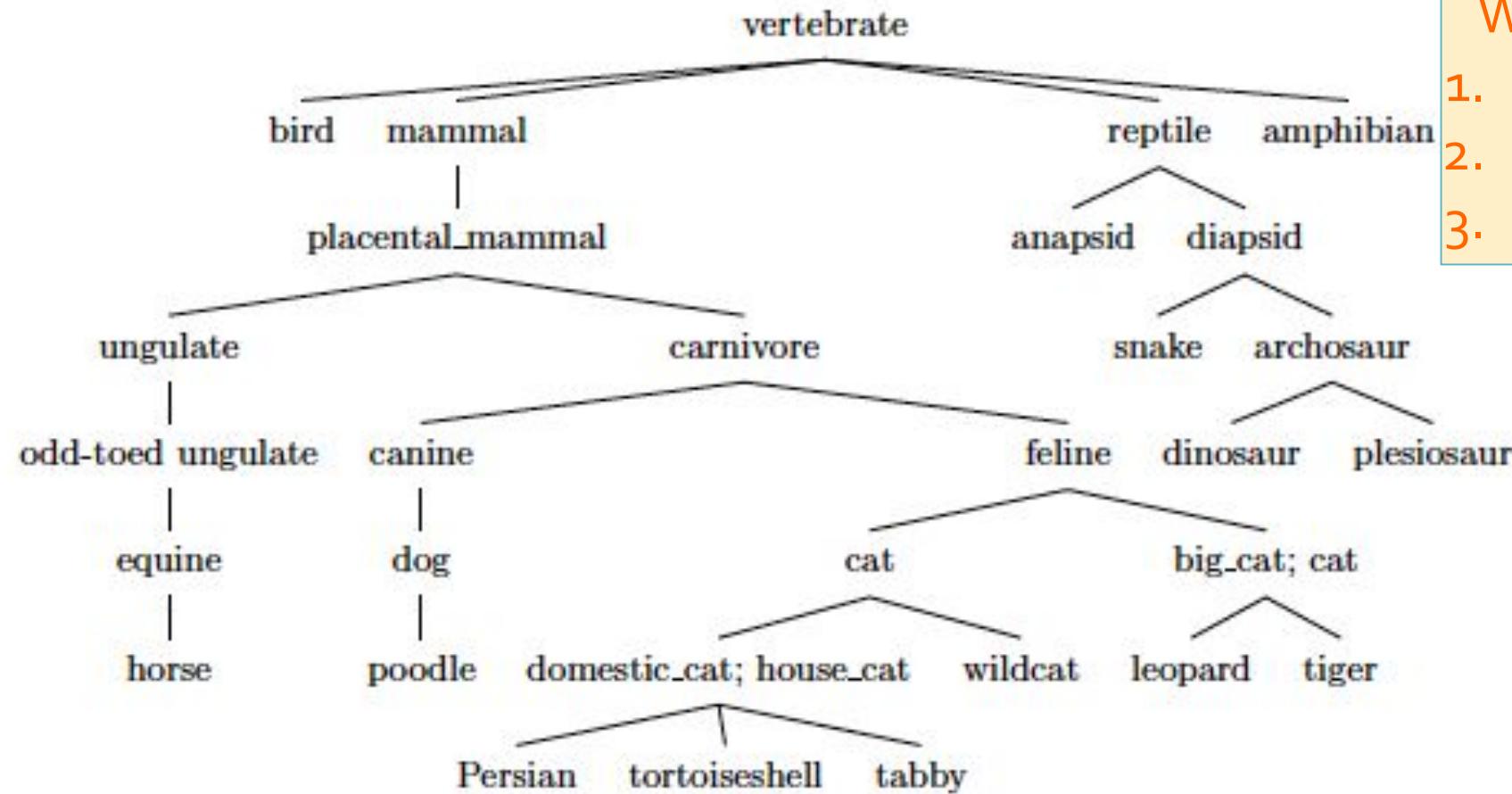


$$\text{sim}_{\text{path}}(c_1, c_2) = \frac{1}{1 + \text{pathlen}(c_1, c_2)}$$

Potential problems with pathlength

- Pathlength does not differentiate between different types of path e.g., *canine* □ ... □ *vertebrate* vs *dog* □ ... □ *cat*
- Intuitively, concepts (separated by same path length) are more dissimilar higher up the tree; but this is not captured by path length similarity measure
- Some parts of tree may be densely populated with rare terminology

Lowest common subsumer: similarity based on what two concepts share



What is the LCS of:

1. tabby and tiger?
2. poodle and carnivore?
3. poodle and tiger?

Information content

- Intuition: concepts which have the LCS *carnivore* are more similar than concepts which have the LCS *vertebrate*
- We gain more **information** when we are told two objects are both *carnivores* than when we are told they are both *vertebrates*.
- We capture this probabilistically via the information content (IC) of a concept
 - Annotate the hierarchy with the frequency of occurrence of each concept in some corpus
 - Remember that the occurrence of a concept implies the occurrence of all of its hypernyms (if something is a *dog*, it is also a *canine* and so on)

$$P(c) = \frac{\text{freq}(c)}{\sum_c \text{freq}(c)}$$

$$\text{IC}(c) = -\log P(c)$$

Question

How do we count the number of times a concept has occurred in a corpus?

WordNet similarity measures based on information content (IC)

$$IC(c) = -\log P(c)$$

Information content in a concept

$$\text{sim}_{\text{res}}(c_1, c_2) = IC(\text{LCS}(c_1, c_2))$$

See Resnik, 1995

Information content in what the concepts share (their lowest common subsumer)

$$\text{sim}_{\text{lin}}(c_1, c_2) = \frac{2 \times \text{sim}_{\text{res}}(c_1, c_2)}{IC(c_1) + IC(c_2)}$$

Ratio of shared information content to total information content

See Lin 1998b

Word similarity

$$\text{wordsim}(w_1, w_2) = \max_{\substack{c1 \in \text{senses}(w_1) \\ c2 \in \text{senses}(w_2)}} \text{sim}(c_1, c_2)$$

- Can you write python code to implement this function?

Evaluation

- How do we evaluate semantic similarity measures?
- What is the right answer?

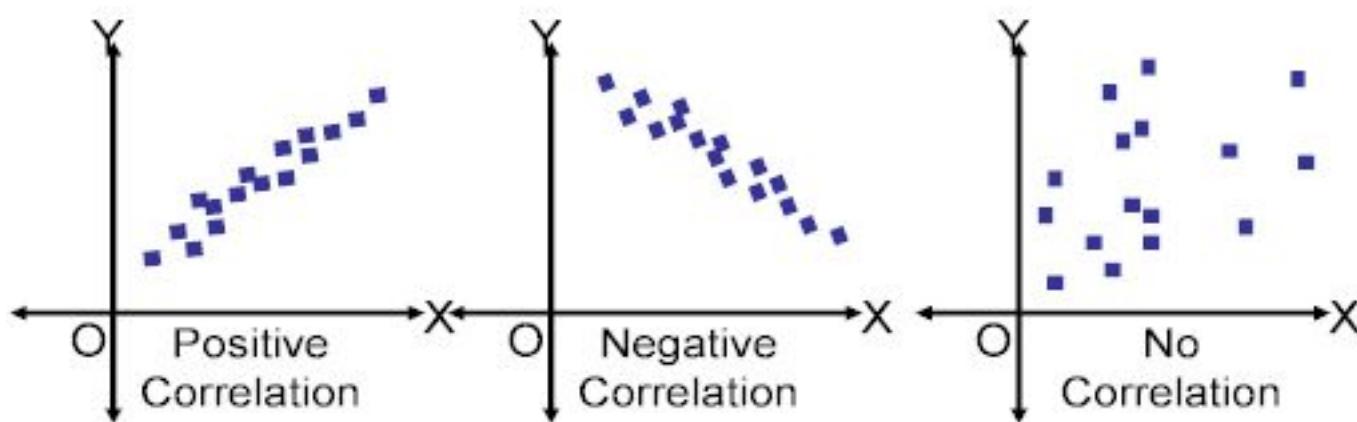
Human synonymy judgements

- Rubenstein & Goodenough 1965 (65 pairs)
- Miller and Charles 1991 (30 pairs)
- WordSim-353 2002 (353 pairs)
- MEN dataset 2012 (3000 pairs)

	M&C	WN
car-automobile	3.92	1.0
magician-wizard	3.5	1.00
journey-car	1.16	0.0
coast-forest	0.42	0.15
noon-string	0.08	0.0

Correlation

SCATTER PLOT EXAMPLES



- Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient X
- Spearman's rank correlation coefficient ✓

Distributional Semantics

Lecture 1, Part 2

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Distributional Semantics

"You shall know a word by the company it keeps."

Firth (1957)

The Distributional Hypothesis: "Words that occur in the same contexts tend to have similar meanings."

Harris (1954)

What does *tezguino* mean?

1. A bottle of *tezguino* is on the table.
2. Everyone likes *tezguino*.
3. *Tezguino* makes you drunk.
4. We make *tezguino* out of corn.

(Lin, 1998)

Bootstrapping the semantics of unknown words

- The **contexts** in which *tezguino* is used suggest that *tezguino* may be:
 - *A kind of alcoholic beverage made from corn mash*
- Similarity plays an important role in word acquisition (Gentner, 1982)
- Can we use corpora to infer similarity between words i.e., infer that *tezguino* is similar to *beer, wine, vodka* etc?

Applications of distributional semantics

- Automatic thesaurus construction
 - For any language, genre, domain ... where we have a corpus
- Overcoming data sparseness in models which require labelled training data

Distributional semantics in document classification

- Imagine we have built a Naïve Bayes document relevancy classifier using a relatively small training sample (e.g., 500 documents)
- A test document contains the word *tezguino* which has not been seen in the training sample
 - so it cannot contribute to the relevancy classification
- But by applying distributional semantics to a very large unlabeled corpus (e.g., the web), we know that *tezguino* is very similar to *beer*
 - *beer* has been seen in the training sample
 - Assume $P(\text{tezguino}|\text{class}) \approx P(\text{beer}|\text{class})$

Facets of meaning

- Tigers **eat** meat.
- The monkey **ate** a banana.
- X17 likes to **eat** falafel.
- My son does not **eat** courgettes.
- The machine **ate** my credit card.

From these examples we can learn:

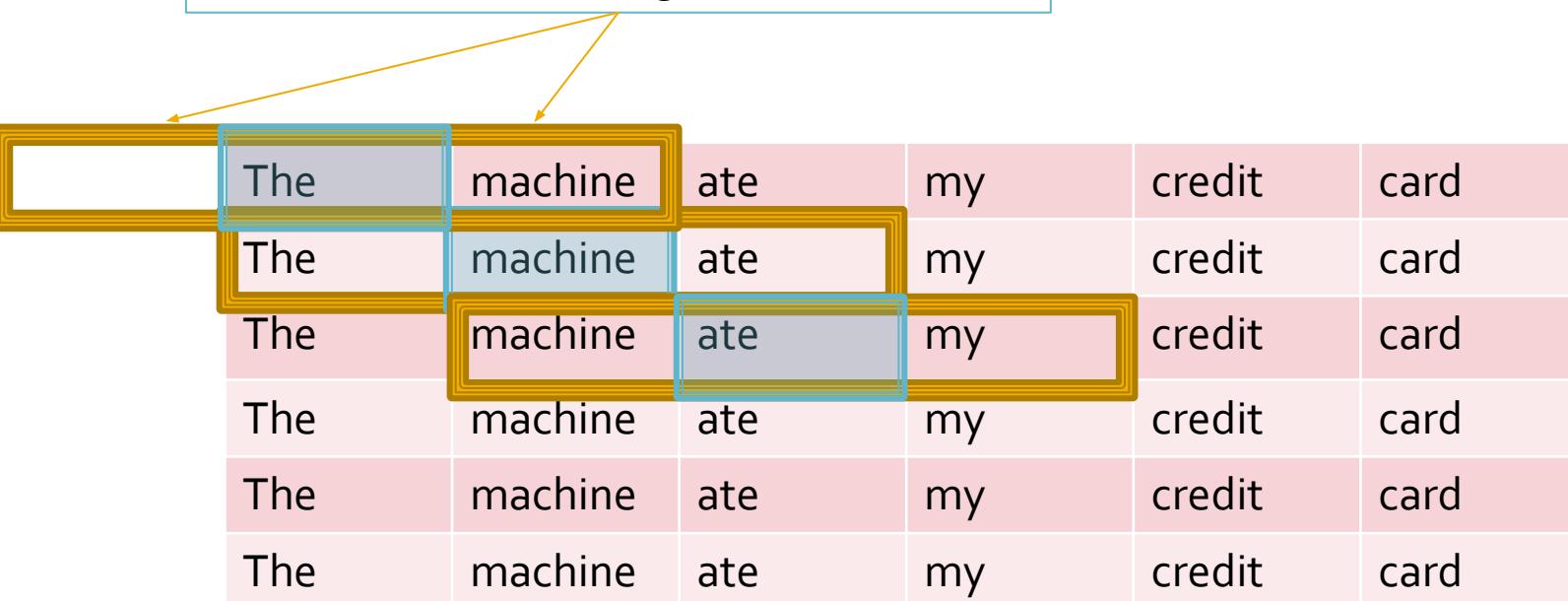
- What can be **eaten**?
- What **eats** things?
- *Meat, banana, falafel, courgettes* and *credit card* all share 1 facet of meaning – that they can be eaten
- *Tigers, monkey, X17, son* and *machine* all share 1 facet of meaning – that they eat things

Features to capture facets of meaning

- Dependency relationships between words:
 - “is subject of *eat*”
 - “is object of *eat*”
- Proximity between words
 - “occurs within a **window of +- m words** either side of the word *eat*”
- Feature values can be Boolean but are usually real-valued
 - strength of association
- Dependency parsing is difficult
- Windows are easy to construct
- Window size can be varied to capture different types of semantic relationships

Context windows

window size around target word = ± 1



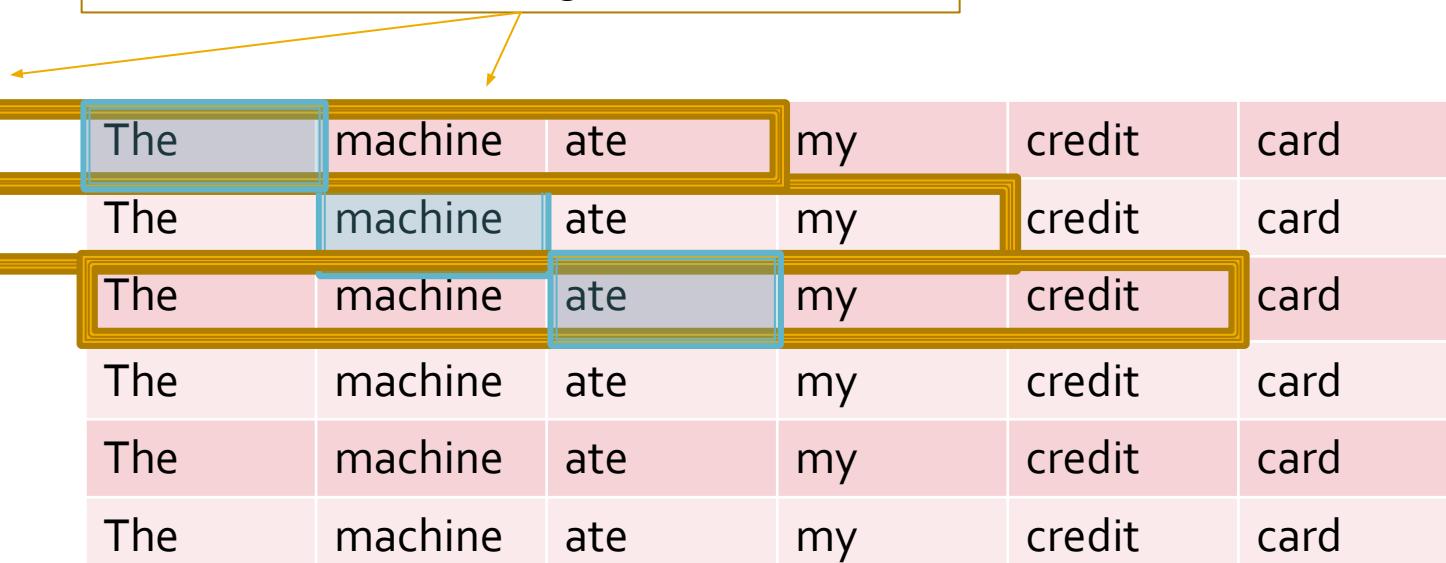
Features added per target word

- the: {machine: 1}
- machine: {the: 1, ate: 1}
- ate: {machine: 1, my: 1}
-
-
-

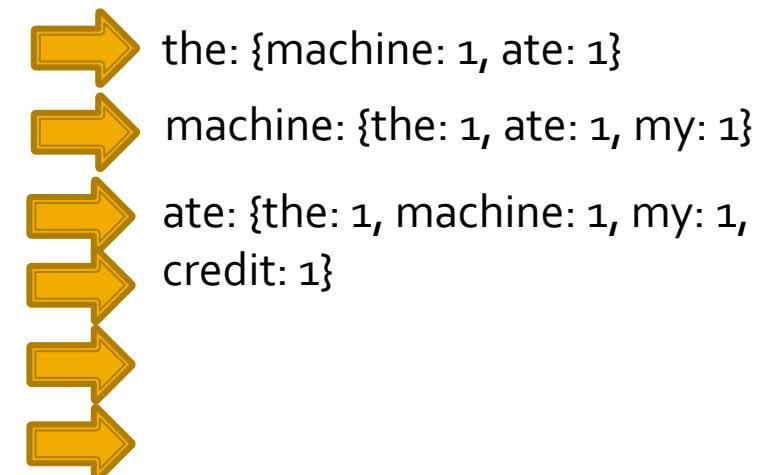
What features will be added for
my, credit and card?

Context windows

window size around target word = +-2



Features added per target word



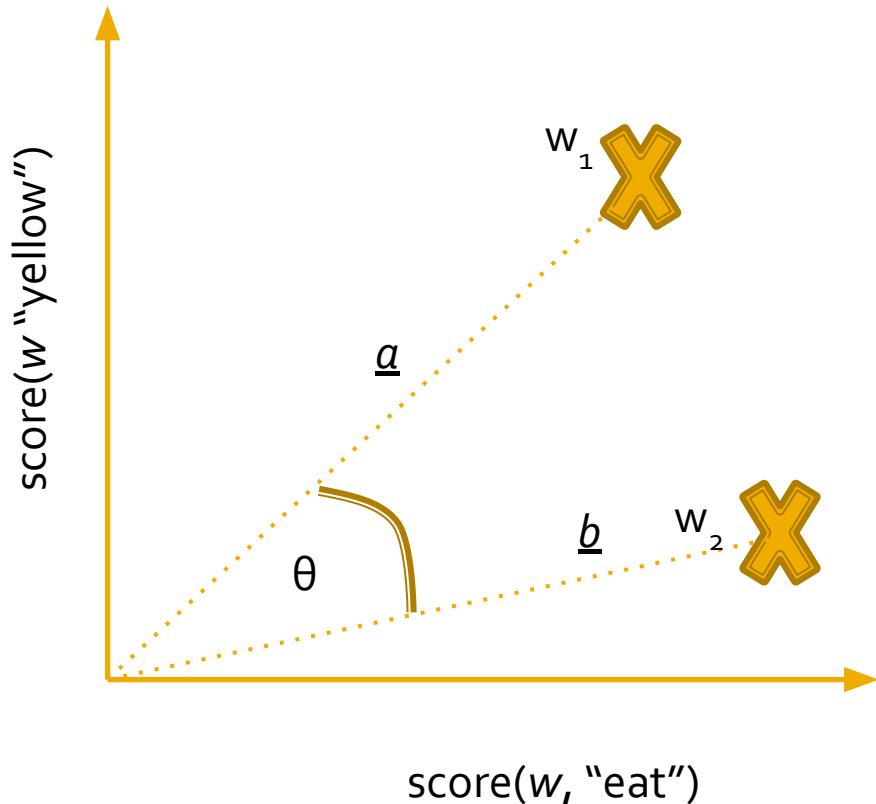
What features will be added for
my, credit and card?

Distributional Representations

Use windowing to extract and count features for all words in a large corpus i.e., distributional representations or vectors

<i>feature</i>	banana	meat	credit	Total
yellow	10	2	3	15
red	2	14	19	35
eat	20	9	1	30
spend	1	2	27	30
card	3	2	50	55
the	25	25	50	100
is	20	20	40	80
tiger	3	17	0	20
man	6	9	10	25
monkey	10	0	0	10
Total	100	100	200	400

Cosine similarity



- The more similar two words are, the smaller the angle θ between their vectors will be.
- So:

$$\text{sim}(w_1, w_2) = \cos(\theta)$$

$$= \frac{\underline{a} \cdot \underline{b}}{\sqrt{\underline{a} \cdot \underline{a} \times \underline{b} \cdot \underline{b}}}$$

Where:

$$\underline{a} \cdot \underline{b} = \sum_i^m a_i b_i$$

$m = \text{number of dimensions}$

Calculating cosine

<i>feature</i>	banana	meat	a.b	a.a	b.b
yellow	10	2	20	100	4
red	2	14	28	4	196
eat	20	9	180	400	81
spend	1	2	2	1	4
card	3	2	6	9	4
the	25	25	625	625	625
is	20	20	400	400	400
tiger	3	17	51	9	289
man	6	9	54	36	81
monkey	10	0	0	100	0
Total	100	100	1366	1684	1684

$$\cos(\text{banana}, \text{meat}) = \frac{1366}{1684} = 0.81$$

Pointwise Mutual information (PMI)

- Frequency and/or simple conditional probability do not capture the intuition that some features are more informative than others
- *the* and *is* appear relatively frequently with all of the words
 - so their contribution to similarity should be smaller
- PMI measures the amount of information gained by seeing a word and a feature together
- A feature which co-occurs with a target word more than we would expect (if words and features occurred independently) has more weight in the similarity calculation

calculating PMI

$$I(w, f) = \log \frac{P(f | w)}{P(f)} = \log \frac{P(f \cap w)}{P(f) \times P(w)}$$

$$I(w, f) = \log \frac{\text{freq}(f, w) \times \text{freq}(*, *)}{\text{freq}(*, w) \times \text{freq}(f, *)}$$

grand total

row total

column total

Representations based on PMI

<i>feature</i>	banana	meat	credit	Total		<i>feature</i>	banana	meat	credit
yellow	10	2	3	15	$\log \frac{10 \times 400}{100 \times 15}$	yellow	1.42		
red	2	14	19	35		red			
eat	20	9	1	30		eat			
spend	1	2	27	30		spend			
card	3	2	50	55		card			
the	25	25	50	100		the			
is	20	20	40	80		is			
tiger	3	17	0	20		tiger			
man	6	9	10	25		man			
monkey	10	0	0	10		monkey			
Total	100	100	200	400					

Positive PMI (PPMI)

- What happens when frequency of co-occurrence is 0?
- PMI = negative infinity!!!
- positive PMI avoids this problem
 - similarity is then also based on shared features rather than the sharing of absent features

$$\text{PPMI}(w, f) = \begin{cases} I(w, f) & I(w, f) > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Representations based on PPMI

<i>feature</i>	banana	meat	credit	Total	$\log \frac{10 \times 400}{100 \times 15}$	<i>feature</i>	banana	meat	credit
yellow	10	2	3	15		yellow	1.42	0	0
red	2	14	19	35		red	0	0.68	0.12
eat	20	9	1	30		eat	1.42	0.26	0
spend	1	2	27	30		spend			
card	3	2	50	55		card			
the	25	25	50	100		the			
is	20	20	40	80		is			
tiger	3	17	0	20		tiger			0
man	6	9	10	25		man			
monkey	10	0	0	10		monkey		0	0
Total	100	100	200	400					



Automatic thesaurus generation

- Extract feature representations based on corpus co-occurrence frequencies
- Convert representations to PPMI
- Calculate cosine similarities for all pairs of words
 - computationally very expensive
 - may want to reduce the number of words considered in vocab
 - e.g., top 10,000 words
- Find nearest neighbours of each word

Evaluation

- Difficult – why?
- Intrinsic evaluation
 - human synonymy judgements
 - manually compiled thesauruses
- Extrinsic evaluation
 - performance gain in an application

Word ambiguity

Here is the distributional thesaurus entry for the noun *bow* (derived using `nltk.lin_thesaurus`)

bow	
ribbon	0.09
machete	0.07
spear	0.07
hull	0.07
sword	0.07
knife	0.07
arrow	0.06
scarf	0.06
rope	0.06
streamer	0.06

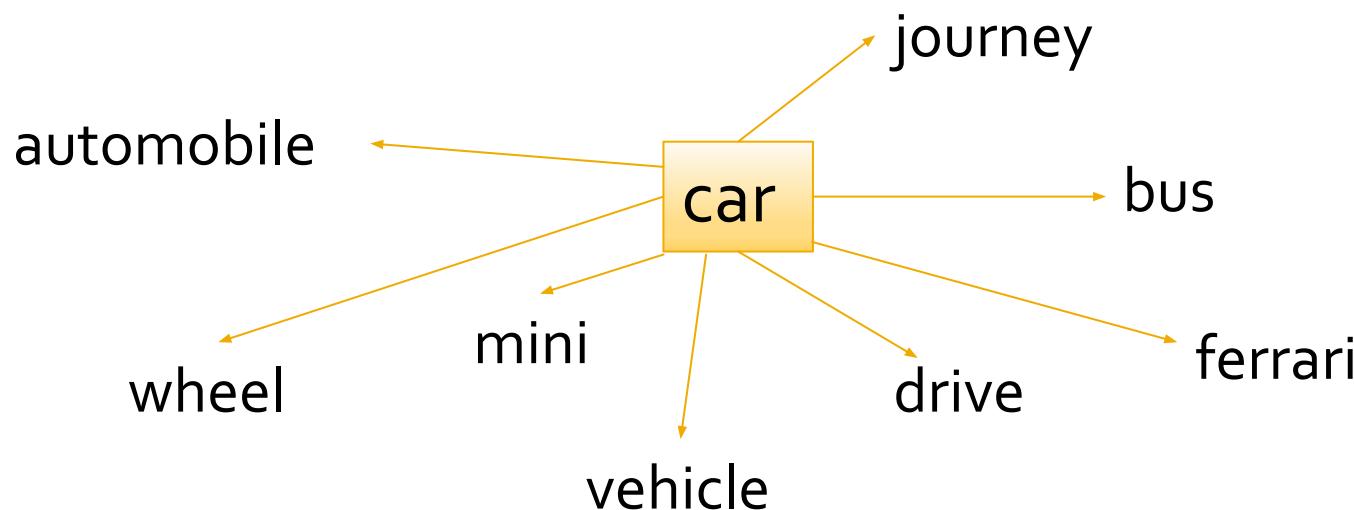
- What different senses of the word *bow* do you think are captured by the thesaurus entry?
- Are the neighbours distributed evenly between the senses or do some senses have more neighbours than others?
- Why do you think this is?

Senses in Distributional Semantics

- Distributional representations are of words not senses
 - mixture of senses in distributional neighbourhoods
 - this can be a problem in some applications.?
 - possible solutions: carry out WSD
 - before finding distributional neighbours
 - after finding distributional neighbours
- Distributional neighbours tend to reflect predominant sense of word
 - how could this be useful?

Semantic relationships

- Similar words are not necessarily synonyms
- Neighbourhoods typically contain:
 - synonyms, antonyms, hypernyms, hyponyms, co-hyponyms, meronyms, topically related words

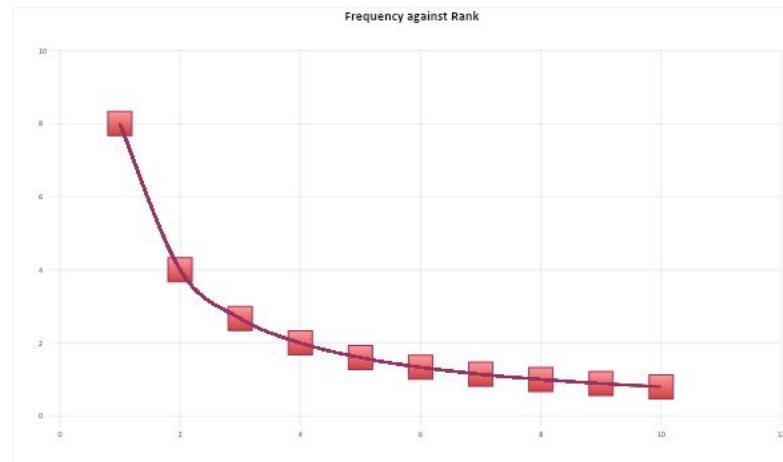


The nearest neighbour of a word is often an antonym (or co-hyponym). Why might this be a problem?

Sparsity

- Zipf's Law: “The product of the frequency of a word and its rank is approximately constant.”

Rank	1/Rank	Freq
1	8	8
2	4	4
3	2.667	3
4	2	2
5	1.6	2
6	1.333	1
7	1.143	1
8	1	1
9	0.889	1
10	0.8	1
	23.43	24



Hapax Legomena : words which only occur once. However large the corpus, these make up approximate half the vocabulary.

Consequences of Zipf's Law

- 100k dimensional co-occurrence vectors will be very sparse (lots of zeros)
- difficult to compare vectors because of all of this unseen stuff
- What can we do?

Coming up

- Solutions to this problem (week 4):
 - Smoothing
 - Dimensionality reduction
 - Language models with fixed dimensionality e.g., recurrent neural network language models (RNNLMs)
- Probabilistic language models (week 2)
 - n-gram modelling
 - evaluation and perplexity
 - generalization and smoothing

Reading

- Week 1 seminar:
 - Pedersen (2010): Information Content Measures of Semantic Similarity Perform Better without Sense Tagged Text

References

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