

Dan Jurafsky and James Martin
Speech and Language Processing

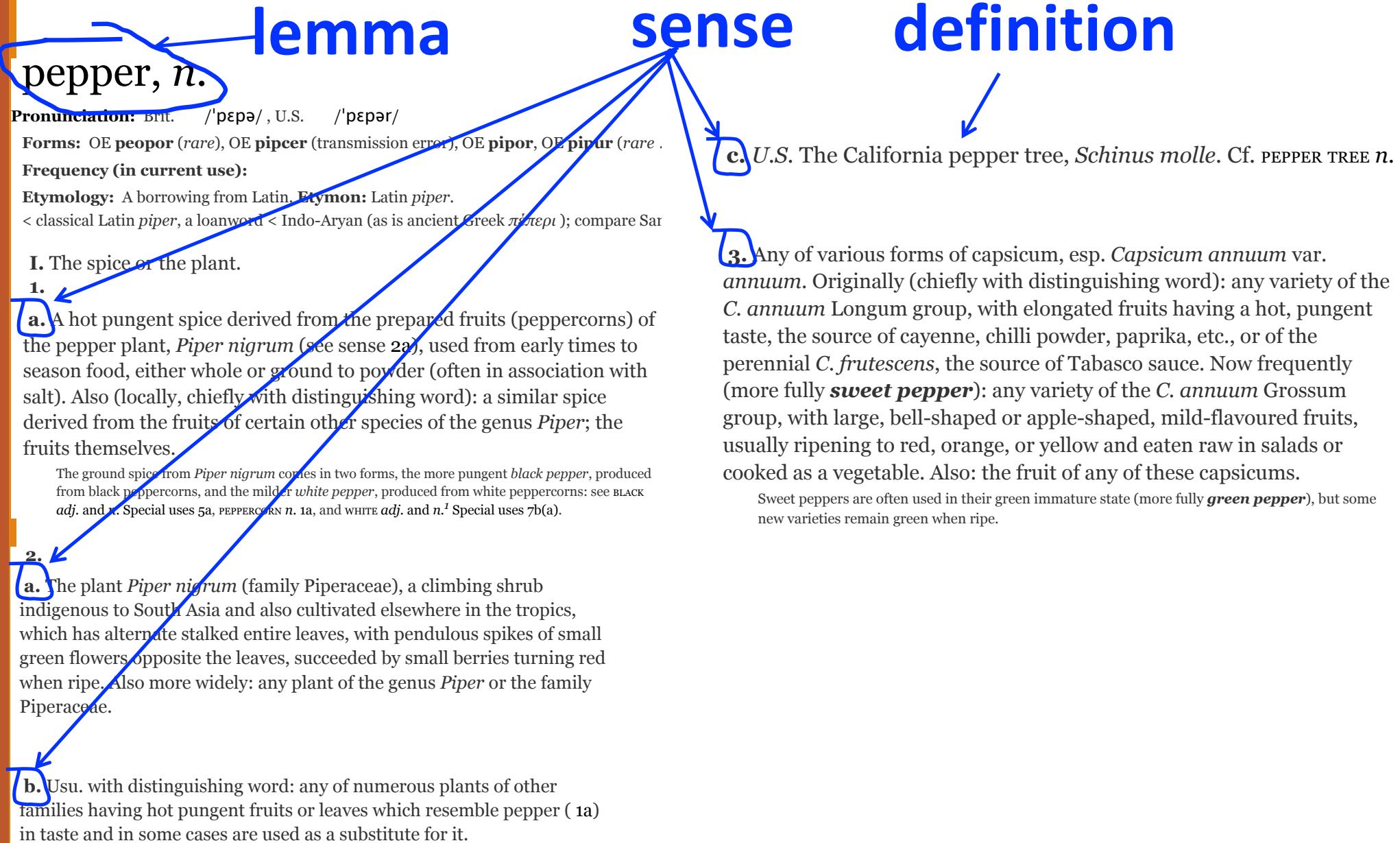
Chapter 6: Vector Semantics

What do words mean?

First thought: look in a dictionary

<http://www.oed.com/>

Words, Lemmas, Senses, Definitions



Lemma pepper

Sense 1: spice from pepper plant

Sense 2: the pepper plant itself

Sense 3: another similar plant (Jamaican pepper)

Sense 4: another plant with peppercorns (California pepper)

Sense 5: *capsicum* (i.e. chili, paprika, bell pepper, etc)



A sense or “concept” is the meaning component of a word



There are relations between
senses

Relation: Synonymity

Synonyms have the same meaning in some or all contexts.

- filbert / hazelnut
- couch / sofa
- big / large
- automobile / car
- vomit / throw up
- Water / H₂O

Relation: Synonymity

Note that there are probably no examples of perfect synonymy.

- Even if many aspects of meaning are identical
- Still may not preserve the acceptability based on notions of politeness, slang, register, genre, etc.

The Linguistic Principle of Contrast:

- Difference in form -> difference in meaning

Relation: Synonymity?

Water/H₂O

Big/large

Brave/courageous

Relation: Antonymy

Senses that are opposites with respect to one feature of meaning

Otherwise, they are very similar!

dark/light short/long
hot/cold up/down

fast/slow rise/fall:
 in/out

More formally: antonyms can

- define a binary opposition
 - or be at opposite ends of a scale
 - long/short, fast/slow
- Be *reversives*:
 - rise/fall, up/down

Relation: Similarity

Words with similar meanings. Not synonyms, but sharing some element of meaning

car, bicycle

cow, horse

Ask humans how similar 2 words are

word1	word2	similarity
vanish	disappear	9.8
behave	obey	7.3
belief	impression	5.95
muscle	bone	3.65
modest	flexible	0.98
hole	agreement	0.3

SimLex-999 dataset (Hill et al., 2015)

Relation: Word relatedness

Also called "word association"

Words be related in any way, perhaps via a semantic frame or field

- car, bicycle: **similar**
- car, gasoline: **related**, not similar

Semantic field

Words that

- cover a particular semantic domain
- bear structured relations with each other.

hospitals

surgeon, scalpel, nurse, anaesthetic, hospital

restaurants

waiter, menu, plate, food, menu, chef),

houses

door, roof, kitchen, family, bed

Relation: Superordinate/ subordinate

One sense is a **subordinate** of another if the first sense is more specific, denoting a subclass of the other

- *car* is a subordinate of *vehicle*
- *mango* is a subordinate of *fruit*

Conversely **superordinate**

- *vehicle* is a superordinate of *car*
- *fruit* is a superordinate of *mango*

Superordinate	vehicle	fruit	furniture
Subordinate	car	mango	chair

These levels are not symmetric

One level of category is
distinguished from the others

The "basic level"

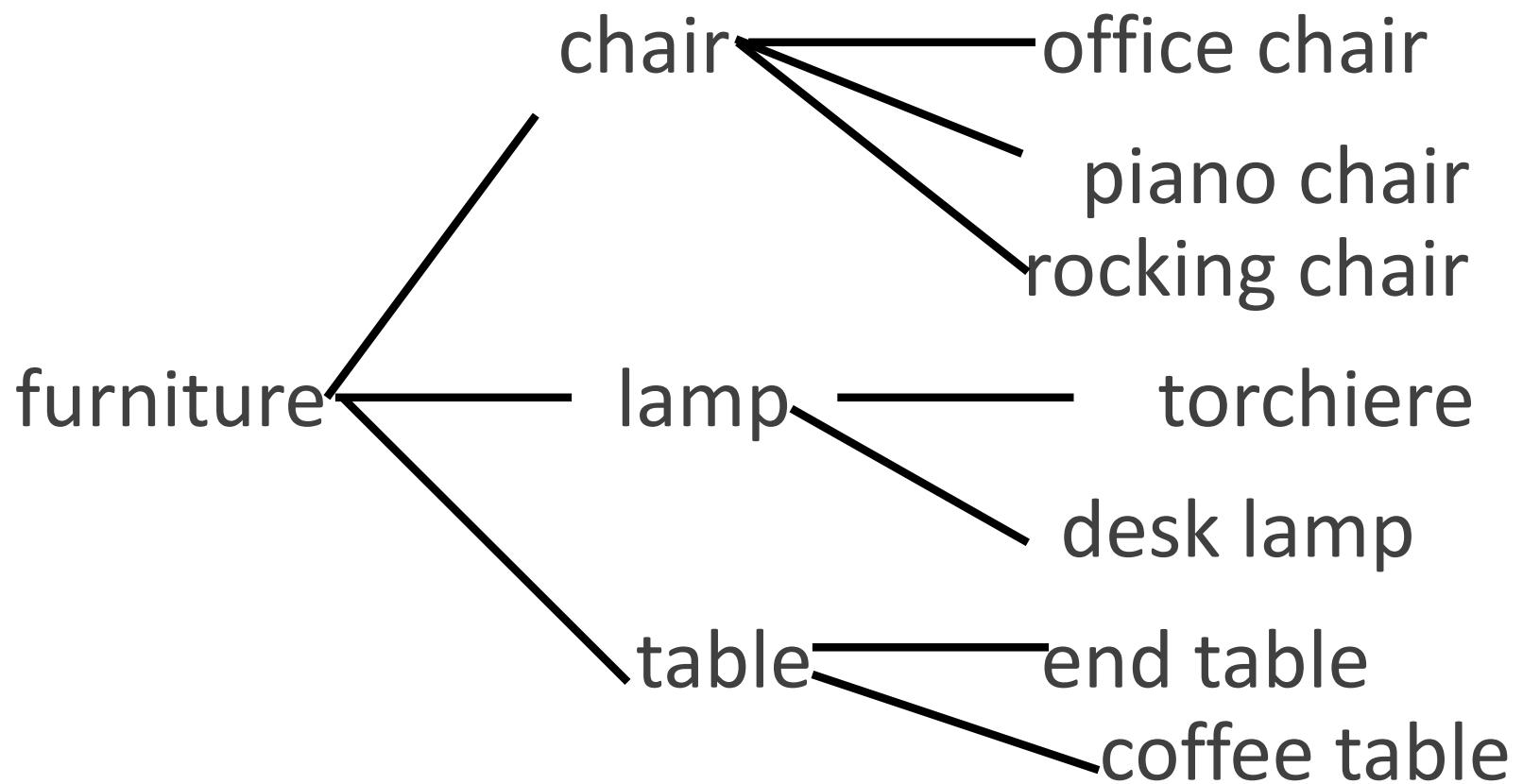
Name these items



Superordinate

Basic

Subordinate



Cluster of Interactional Properties

Basic level things are “human-sized”

Consider chairs

- We know how to interact with a chair (sitting)
- Not so clear for superordinate categories like furniture
 - “Imagine a furniture without thinking of a bed/table/chair/specific basic-level category”

The basic level

Is the level of distinctive actions

Is the level which is learned earliest and at which things are first named

It is the level at which names are shortest and used most frequently

Connotation

Words have **affective** meanings

positive connotations (*happy*)

negative connotations (*sad*)

positive evaluation (*great, love*)

negative evaluation (*terrible, hate*).

So far

Concepts or word senses

- Have a complex many-to-many association with **words** (homonymy, multiple senses)

Have relations with each other

- Synonymy
- Antonymy
- Similarity
- Relatedness
- Superordinate/subordinate
- Connotation



But how to define a concept?

Classical (“Aristotelian”) Theory of Concepts

The meaning of a word:

a concept defined by **necessary** and **sufficient** conditions

A **necessary** condition for being an X is a condition C that X must satisfy in order for it to be an X.

- If not C, then not X
- “Having four sides” is necessary to be a square.

A **sufficient** condition for being an X is condition such that if something satisfies condition C, then it must be an X.

- If and only if C, then X
- The following necessary conditions, jointly, are sufficient to be a square
 - x has (exactly) four sides
 - each of x's sides is straight
 - x is a closed figure
 - x lies in a plane
 - each of x's sides is equal in length to each of the others
 - each of x's interior angles is equal to the others (right angles)
 - the sides of x are joined at their ends

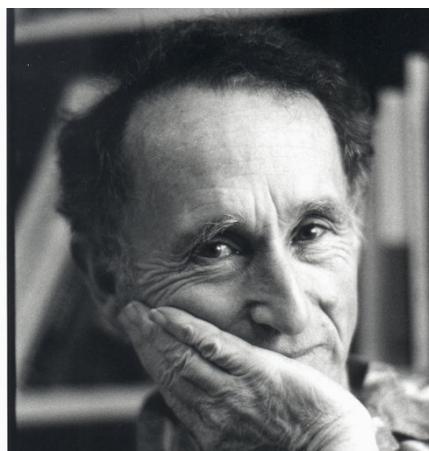
Example
from
Norman
Swartz,
SFU

Problem 1: The features are complex and may be context-dependent

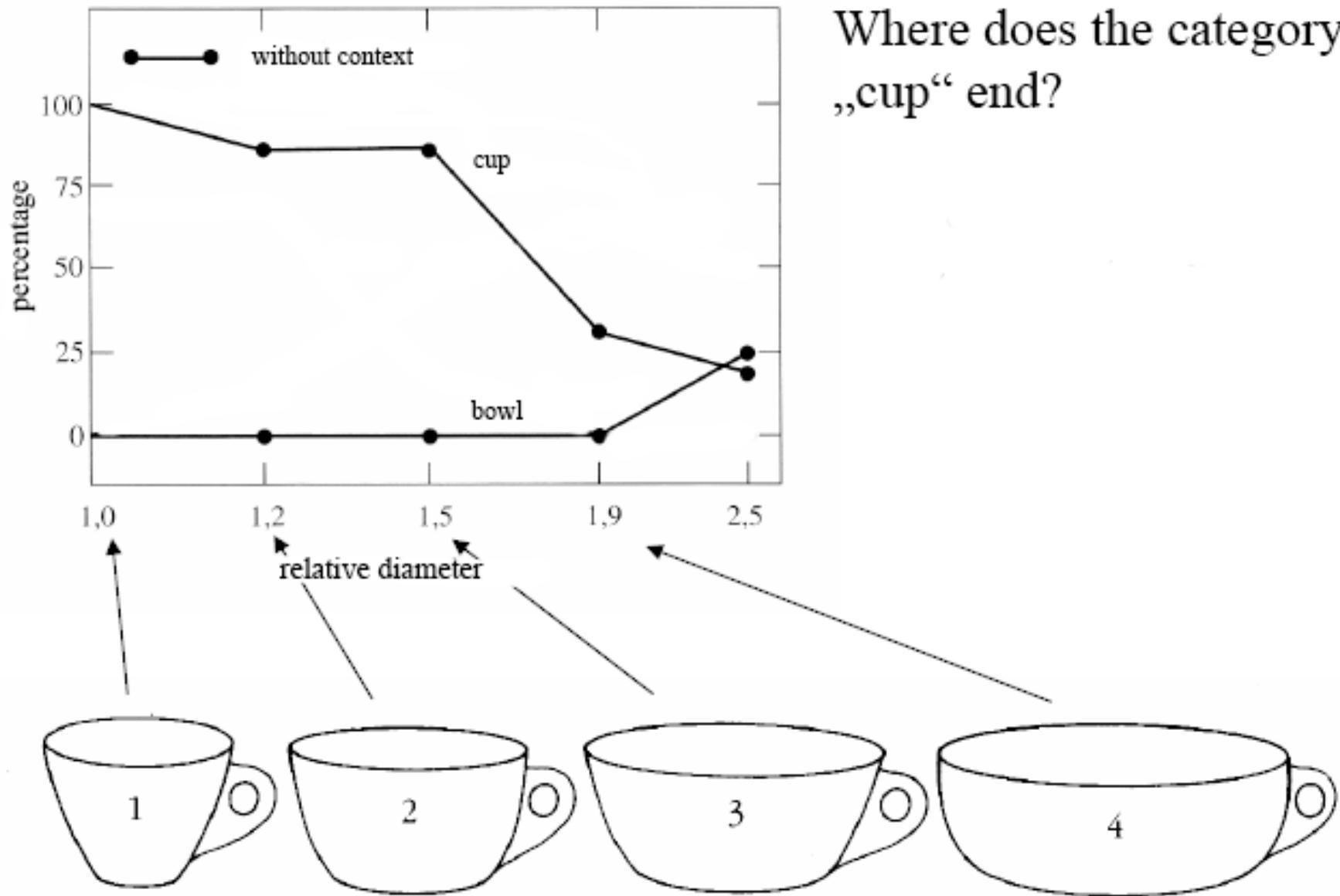
William Labov. 1975

What are these?

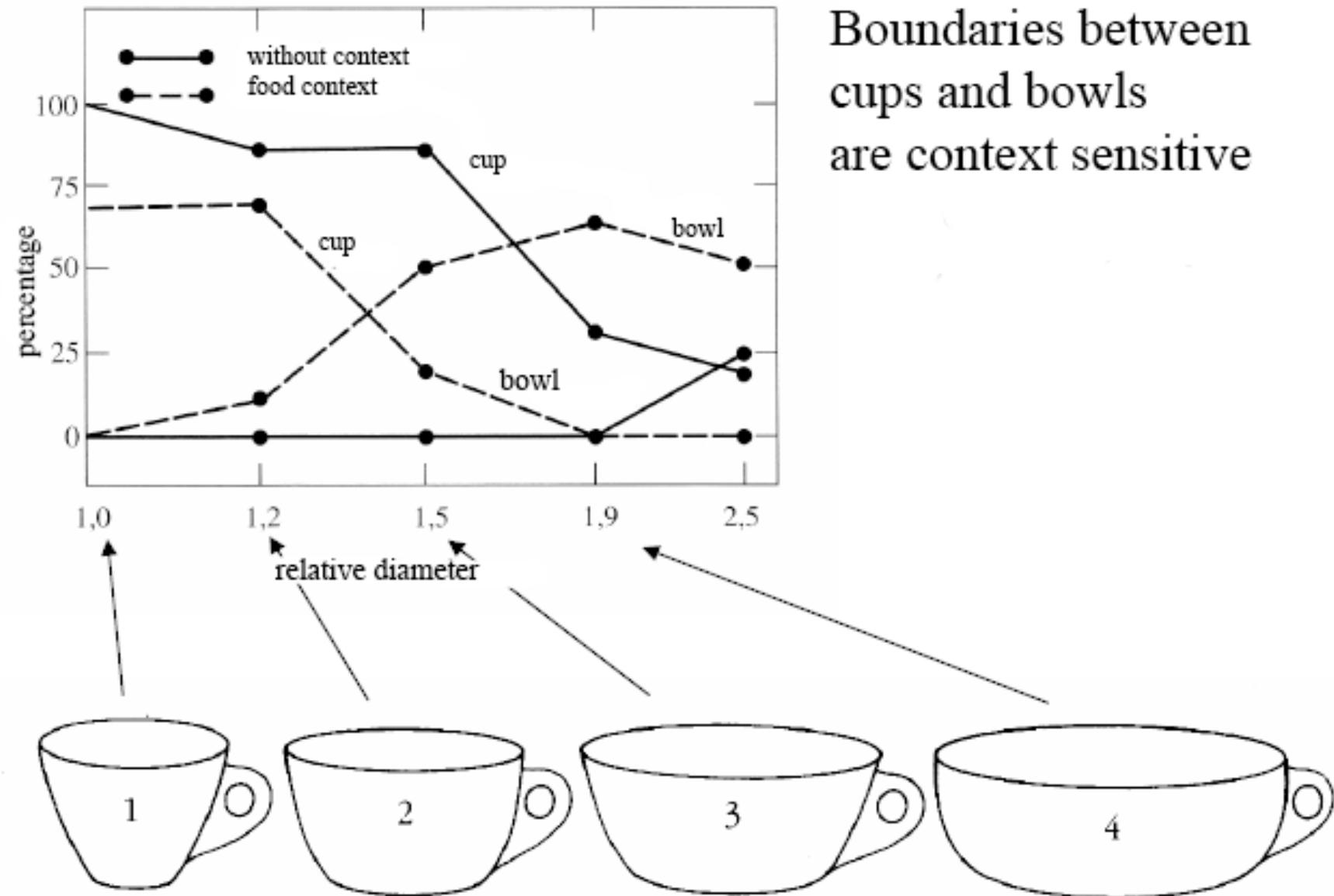
Cup or bowl?



The category depends on complex features of the object (diameter, etc)



The category depends on the context! (If there is food in it, it's a bowl)



Labov's definition of cup

The term *cup* is used to denote round containers with a ratio of depth to width of $1 \pm r$ where $r \leq r_b$, and $r_b = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \dots + \alpha_v$ and α_i is a positive quality when the feature i is present and 0 otherwise.

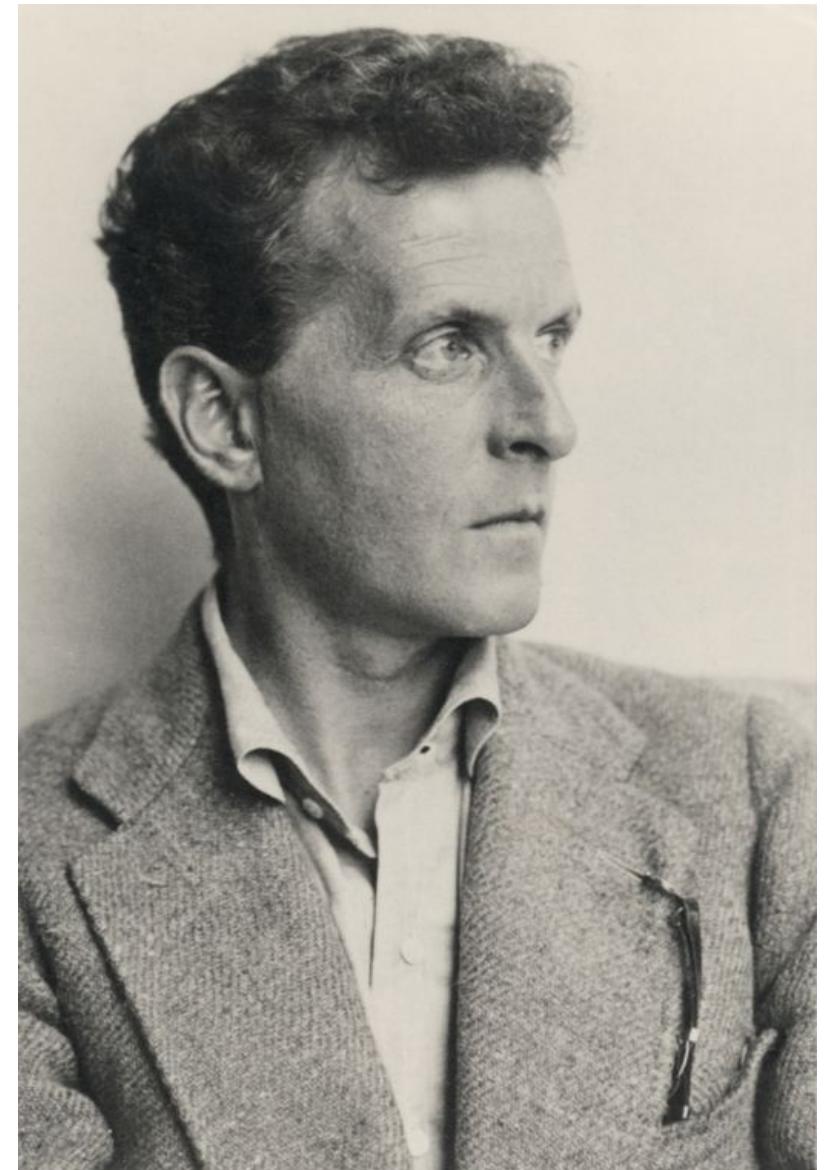
- feature 1 = with one handle
 2 = made of opaque vitreous material
 3 = used for consumption of food
 4 = used for the consumption of liquid food
 5 = used for consumption of hot liquid food
 6 = with a saucer
 7 = tapering
 8 = circular in cross-section

Cup is used variably to denote such containers with ratios width to depth $1 \pm r$ where $r_b \leq r \leq r_1$ with a probability of $r_1 - r/r_t - r_b$. The quantity $1 \pm r_b$ expresses the distance from the modal value of width to height.

Ludwig Wittgenstein (1889-1951)

Philosopher of language

In his late years, a proponent of studying “ordinary language”



Wittgenstein (1945) *Philosophical Investigations.*

Paragraphs 66,67

66. Consider for example the proceedings that we call "games". I mean board-games, card-games, ball-games, Olympic games, and so on. What is common to them all?—Don't say: "There *must* be something common, or they would not be called 'games'"—but *look and see* whether there is anything common to all.—For if you look at them you will not see something that is common to *all*, but similarities, relationships, and a whole series of them at that. To repeat: don't think, but look!—Look for example at board-games, with their multifarious relationships. Now pass to card-games; here you find many correspondences with the first group, but many common features drop out, and others appear. When we pass next to ball-games, much that is common is retained, but much is lost.—Are they all 'amusing'? Compare chess with noughts and crosses. Or is there always winning and losing, or competition between players? Think of patience. In ball games there is winning and losing; but when a child throws his ball at the wall and catches it again, this feature has disappeared. Look at the parts played by skill and luck; and at the difference between skill in chess and skill in tennis. Think now of games like ring-a-ring-a-roses; here is the element of amusement, but how many other characteristic features have disappeared! And we can go through the many, many other groups of games in the same way; can see how similarities crop up and disappear.

And the result of this examination is: we see a complicated network of similarities overlapping and criss-crossing: sometimes overall similarities, sometimes similarities of detail.

67. I can think of no better expression to characterize these similarities than "family resemblances"; for the various resemblances between members of a family: build, features, colour of eyes, gait, temperament, etc. etc. overlap and criss-cross in the same way.—And I shall say: 'games' form a family.

And for instance the kinds of number form a family in the same way. Why do we call something a "number"? Well, perhaps because it has a—direct—relationship with several things that have hitherto been called number; and this can be said to give it an indirect relationship to other things we call the same name. And we extend our concept of number as in spinning a thread we twist fibre on fibre. And the strength of the thread does not reside in the fact that some one fibre runs through its whole length, but in the overlapping of many fibres.

But if someone wished to say: "There is something common to all these constructions—namely the disjunction of all their common properties"—I should reply: Now you are only playing with words. One might as well say: "Something runs through the whole thread—namely the continuous overlapping of those fibres".



What is a game?

Wittgenstein's thought experiment on "What is a game":

PI #66:

"Don't say "there must be something common, or they would not be called 'games'"—but *look and see* whether there is anything common to all"

Is it amusing?

Is there competition?

Is there long-term strategy?

Is skill required?

Must luck play a role?

Are there cards?

Is there a ball?

Family Resemblance

Game 1	Game 2	Game 3	Game 4
ABC	BCD	ACD	ABD

“each item has at least one, and probably several, elements in common with one or more items, but no, or few, elements are common to all items” Rosch and Mervis



How about a radically different approach?

Ludwig Wittgenstein

PI #43:

"The meaning of a word is its use in the language"

Let's define words by their usages

In particular, words are defined by their environments (the words around them)

Zellig Harris (1954): **If A and B have almost identical environments we say that they are synonyms.**

What does ongchoi mean?

Suppose you see these sentences:

- Ong choi is delicious **sautéed with garlic**.
- Ong choi is superb **over rice**
- Ong choi **leaves** with salty sauces

And you've also seen these:

- ...spinach **sautéed with garlic over rice**
- Chard stems and **leaves** are **delicious**
- Collard greens and other **salty leafy greens**

Conclusion:

- Ongchoi is a leafy green like spinach, chard, or collard greens

Ong choi: *Ipomoea aquatica* "Water Spinach"



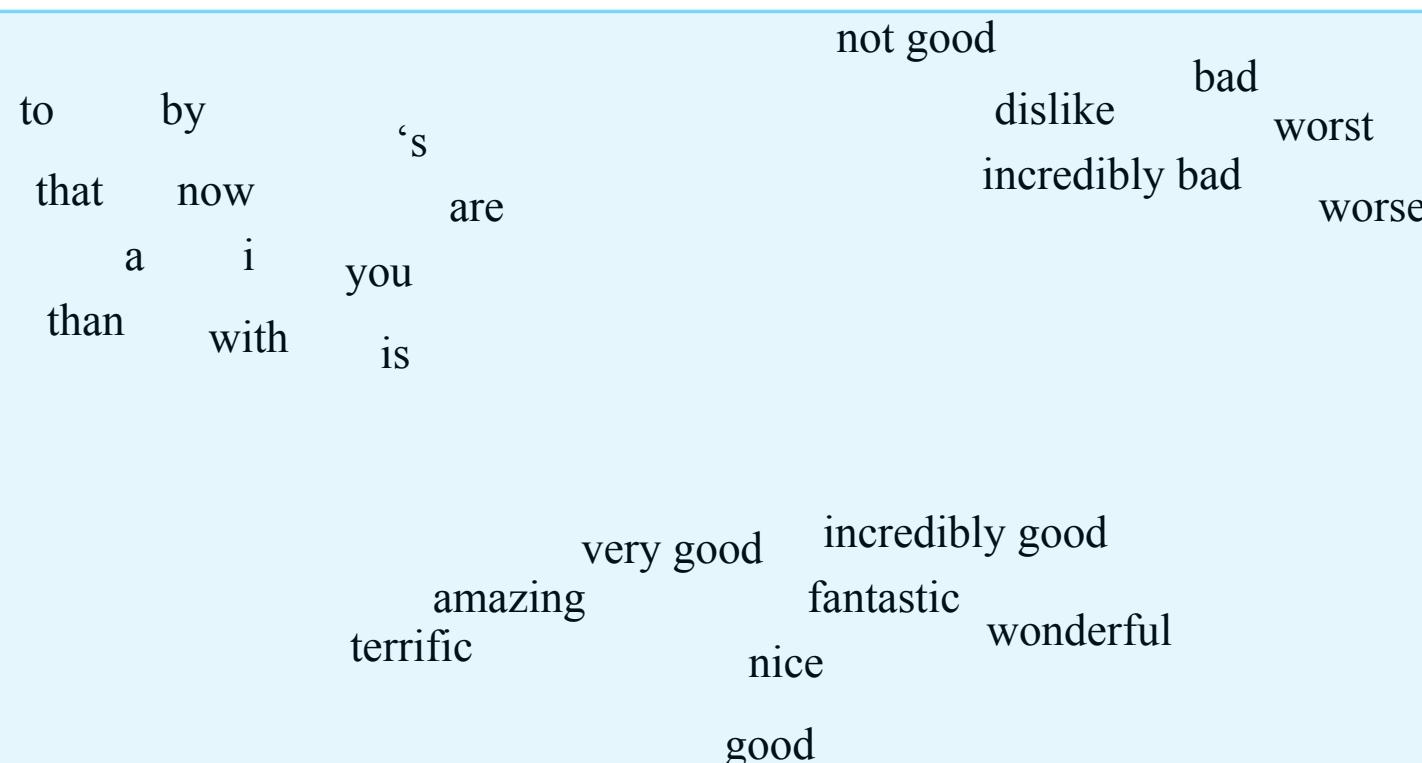
Yamaguchi, Wikimedia Commons, public domain

We'll build a new model of meaning focusing on similarity

Each word = a vector

- Not just "word" or word45.

Similar words are "nearby in space"



We define a word as a vector

Called an "embedding" because it's embedded into a space

The standard way to represent meaning in NLP

Fine-grained model of meaning for similarity

- NLP tasks like sentiment analysis
 - With words, requires **same** word to be in training and test
 - With embeddings: ok if **similar** words occurred!!!
- Question answering, conversational agents, etc

We'll introduce 2 kinds of embeddings

Tf-idf

- A common baseline model
- Sparse vectors
- Words are represented by a simple function of the counts of nearby words

Word2vec

- Dense vectors
- Representation is created by training a classifier to distinguish nearby and far-away words

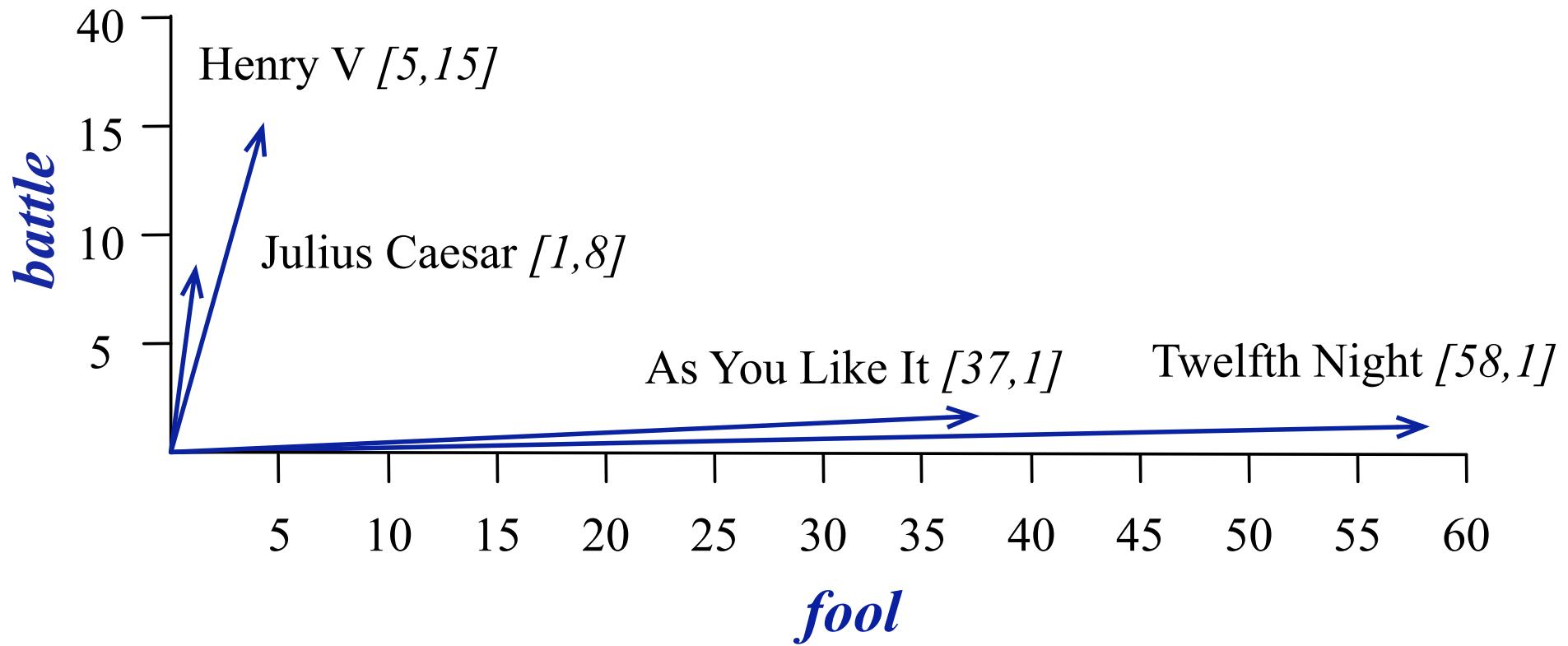
Review: words, vectors, and co-occurrence matrices

Term-document matrix

Each document is represented by a vector of words

	As You Like It	Twelfth Night	Julius Caesar	Henry V
battle	1	1	8	15
soldier	2	2	12	36
fool	37	58	1	5
clown	5	117	0	0

Visualizing document vectors



Vectors are the basis of information retrieval

	As You Like It	Twelfth Night	Julius Caesar	Henry V
battle	1	1	8	15
soldier	2	2	12	36
fool	37	58	1	5
clown	5	117	0	0

Vectors are similar for the two comedies

As You like It [1,2,37,5],

Twelfth Night [1,2,58,117]

Different than the history:

Henry V [15,36,5,0]

Comedies have more fools and clowns and fewer soldiers and battles.

Words can be vectors too

	As You Like It	Twelfth Night	Julius Caesar	Henry V
battle	1	1	8	15
soldier	2	2	12	36
fool	37	58	1	5
clown	5	117	0	0
roor	57	58	1	5
clown	5	117	0	0

Battle is "the kind of word that occurs in Julius Caesar and Henry V"

Clown is "the kind of word that occurs a lot in Twelfth Night and a bit in As You Like It"

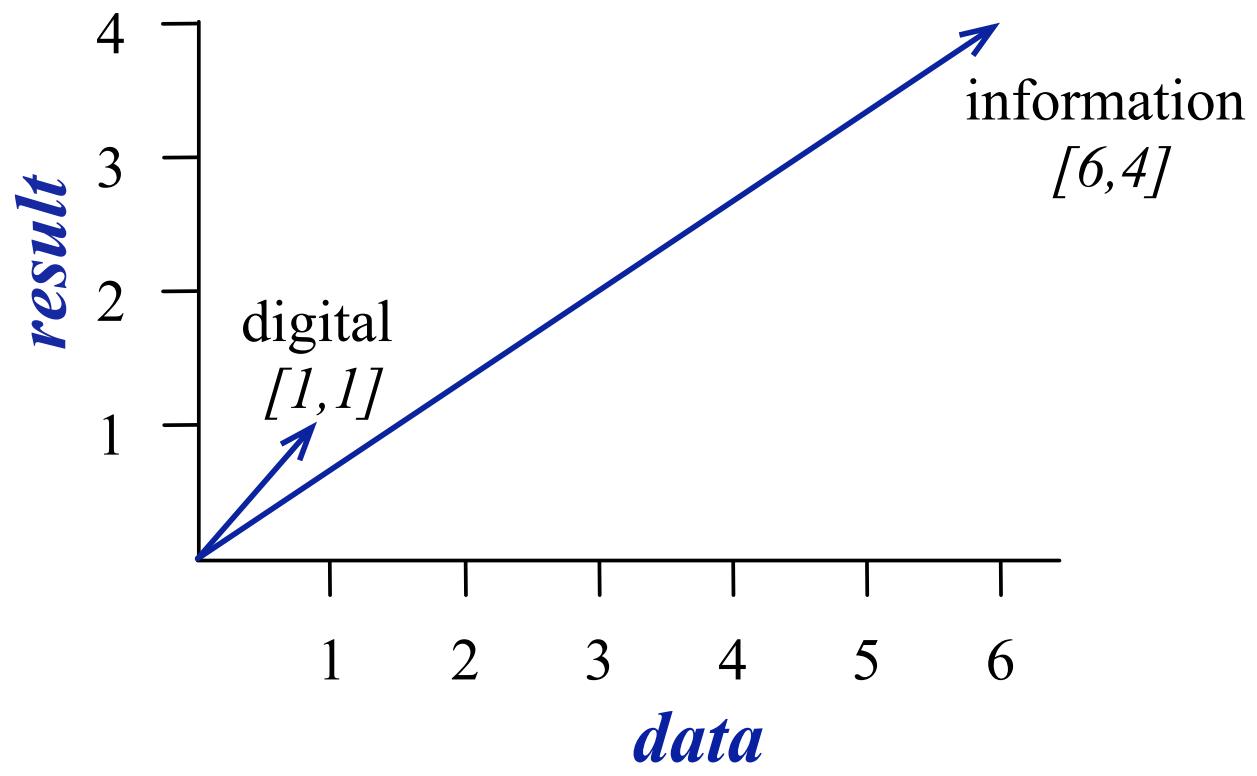
More common: word-word matrix (or "term-context matrix")

Two **words** are similar in meaning if their context vectors are similar

sugar, a sliced lemon, a tablespoonful of
their enjoyment. Cautiously she sampled her first
well suited to programming on the digital
for the purpose of gathering data and

apricot jam, a pinch each of,
pineapple and another fruit whose taste she likened
computer. In finding the optimal R-stage policy from
information necessary for the study authorized in the

	aardvark	computer	data	pinch	result	sugar	...
apricot	0	0	0	1	0	1	
pineapple	0	0	0	1	0	1	
digital	0	2	1	0	1	0	
information	0	1	6	0	4	0	



Reminders from linear algebra

$$\text{dot-product}(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = \sum_{i=1}^N v_i w_i = v_1 w_1 + v_2 w_2 + \dots + v_N w_N$$

$$\text{vector length } |\vec{v}| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N v_i^2}$$

Cosine for computing similarity

Sec. 6.3

$$\text{cosine}(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}}{|\vec{v}| |\vec{w}|} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N v_i w_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N v_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N w_i^2}}$$

v_i is the count for word v in context i

w_i is the count for word w in context i .

$\rightarrow \rightarrow$

$\rightarrow \quad \rightarrow$

$\text{Cos}(v, w)$ is the cosine similarity of v and w

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \cos \theta$$

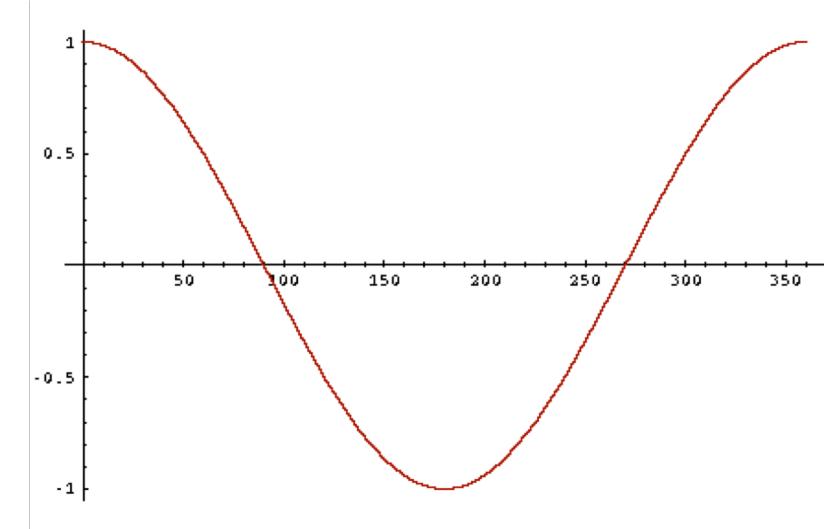
$$\frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{|\vec{a}| |\vec{b}|} = \cos \theta$$

Cosine as a similarity metric

-1: vectors point in opposite directions

+1: vectors point in same directions

0: vectors are orthogonal



Frequency is non-negative, so cosine range 0-1

$$\cos(\vec{v}, \vec{w}) = \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}}{|\vec{v}| |\vec{w}|} = \frac{\vec{v}}{|\vec{v}|} \cdot \frac{\vec{w}}{|\vec{w}|} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N v_i w_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N v_i^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N w_i^2}}$$

Which pair of words is more similar?

$$\text{cosine(apricot,information)} =$$

	large	data	computer
apricot	1	0	0
digital	0	1	2
information	1	6	1

$$\frac{1+0+0}{\sqrt{1+0+0} \sqrt{1+36+1}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{38}} = .16$$

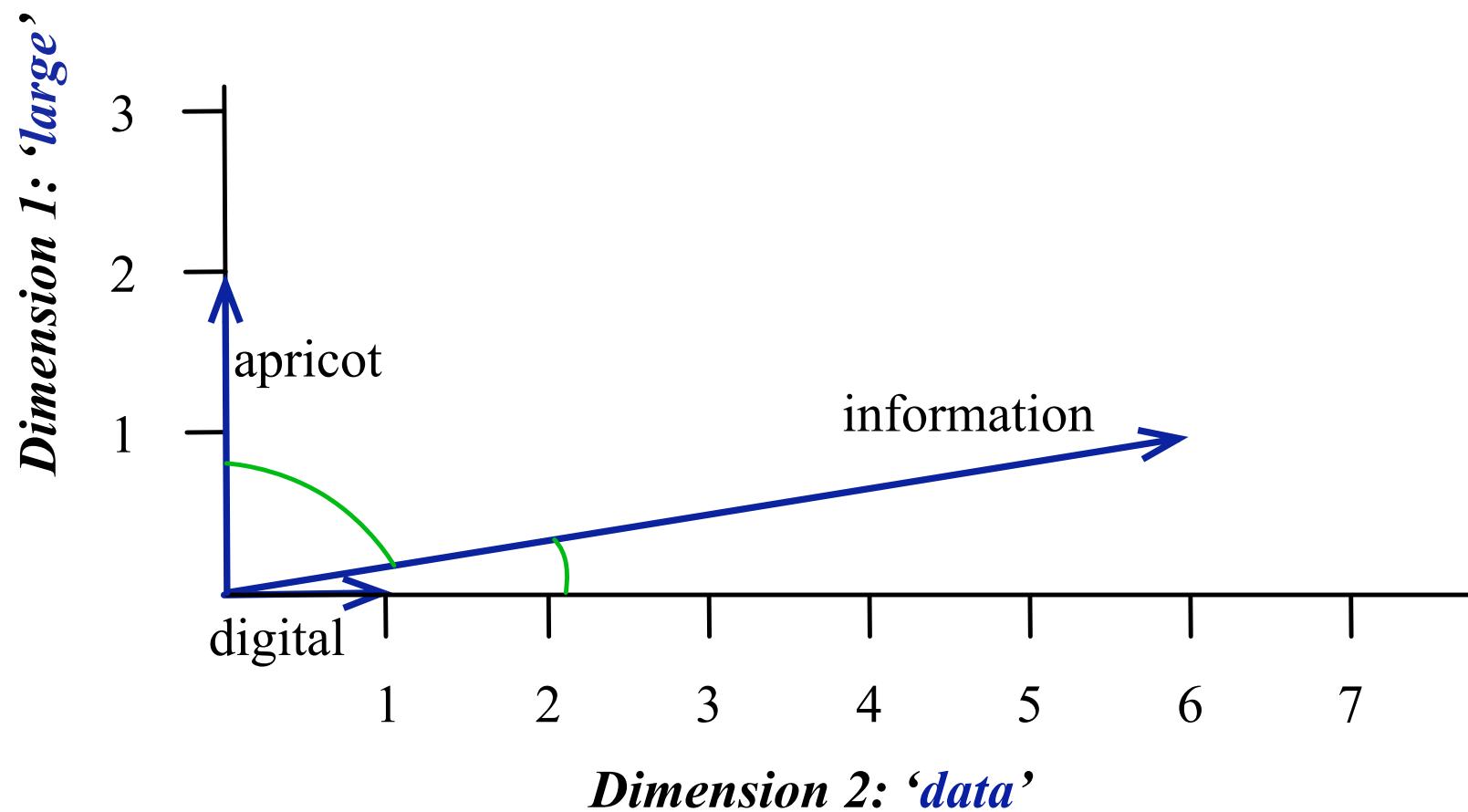
$$\text{cosine(digital,information)} =$$

$$\frac{0+6+2}{\sqrt{0+1+4} \sqrt{1+36+1}} = \frac{8}{\sqrt{38}\sqrt{5}} = .58$$

$$\text{cosine(apricot,digital)} =$$

$$\frac{0+0+0}{\sqrt{1+0+0} \sqrt{0+1+4}} = 0$$

Visualizing cosines (well, angles)



But raw frequency is a bad representation

Frequency is clearly useful; if *sugar* appears a lot near *apricot*, that's useful information.

But overly frequent words like *the*, *it*, or *they* are not very informative about the context

Need a function that resolves this frequency paradox!

tf-idf: combine two factors

tf: term frequency. Just raw frequency count (or possible log frequency)

Idf: inverse document frequency: tf-

Words like "the" have very low idf

$$\text{idf}_i = \log \left(\frac{N}{\text{df}_i} \right)$$

Total # of docs in collection

of docs that have word i

tf-idf value for word i in document j:

$$w_{ij} = \text{tf}_{ij} \text{idf}_i$$

Summary: tf-idf

Compare two words using tf-idf cosine to see if they are similar

Compare two documents

- Take the centroid of vectors of all the words in the document
- Centroid document vector is:

$$d = \frac{w_1 + w_2 + \dots + w_k}{k}$$

Tf-idf is a sparse representation

Tf-idf vectors are

- **long** (length $|V| = 20,000$ to $50,000$)
- **sparse** (most elements are zero)

Alternative: dense vectors

vectors which are

- **short** (length 50-1000)
- **dense** (most elements are non-zero)

Sparse versus dense vectors

Why dense vectors?

- Short vectors may be easier to use as **features** in machine learning (less weights to tune)
- Dense vectors may **generalize** better than storing explicit counts
- They may do better at capturing synonymy:
 - *car* and *automobile* are synonyms; but are distinct dimensions
 - a word with *car* as a neighbor and a word with *automobile* as a neighbor should be similar, but aren't
- **In practice, they work better**

Dense embeddings you can download!

Word2vec (Mikolov et al.)



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

Glove (Pennington, Socher, Manning)

<http://nlp.stanford.edu/projects/glove/>



Word2vec

Popular embedding method

Very fast to train

Code available on the web

Idea: **predict** rather than **count**

Word2vec

- Instead of **counting** how often each word w occurs near "*apricot*"
- Train a classifier on a binary **prediction** task:
 - Is w likely to show up near "*apricot*"?
- We don't actually care about this task
 - But we'll take the learned classifier weights as the word embeddings

Brilliant insight: Use running text as implicitly supervised training data!

- A word s near *apricot*
 - Acts as gold ‘correct answer’ to the question
 - “Is word w likely to show up near *apricot*? ”
- No need for hand-labeled supervision
- The idea comes from **neural language modeling**
 - Bengio et al. (2003)
 - Collobert et al. (2011)

Word2Vec: Skip-Gram Task

Word2vec provides a variety of options. Let's do
◦ "skip-gram with negative sampling" (SGNS)

Skip-gram algorithm

1. Treat the target word and a neighboring context word as positive examples.
2. Randomly sample other words in the lexicon to get negative samples
3. Use logistic regression to train a classifier to distinguish those two cases
4. Use the weights as the embeddings

Skip-Gram Training Data

Training sentence:

... lemon, a **tablespoon** of **apricot** jam a pinch ...

c1 c2 **target** c3 c4

Asssume context words are those in +/- 2
word window

Skip-Gram Goal

Given a tuple (t,c) = target, context

- (*apricot, jam*)
- (*apricot, aardvark*)

Return probability that c is a real context word:

$$P(+ | t, c)$$

$$P(- | t, c) = 1 - P(+ | t, c)$$

How to compute $p(+ | t, c)$?

Intuition:

- Words are likely to appear near similar words
- Model similarity with dot-product!
- $\text{Similarity}(t, c) \propto t \cdot c$

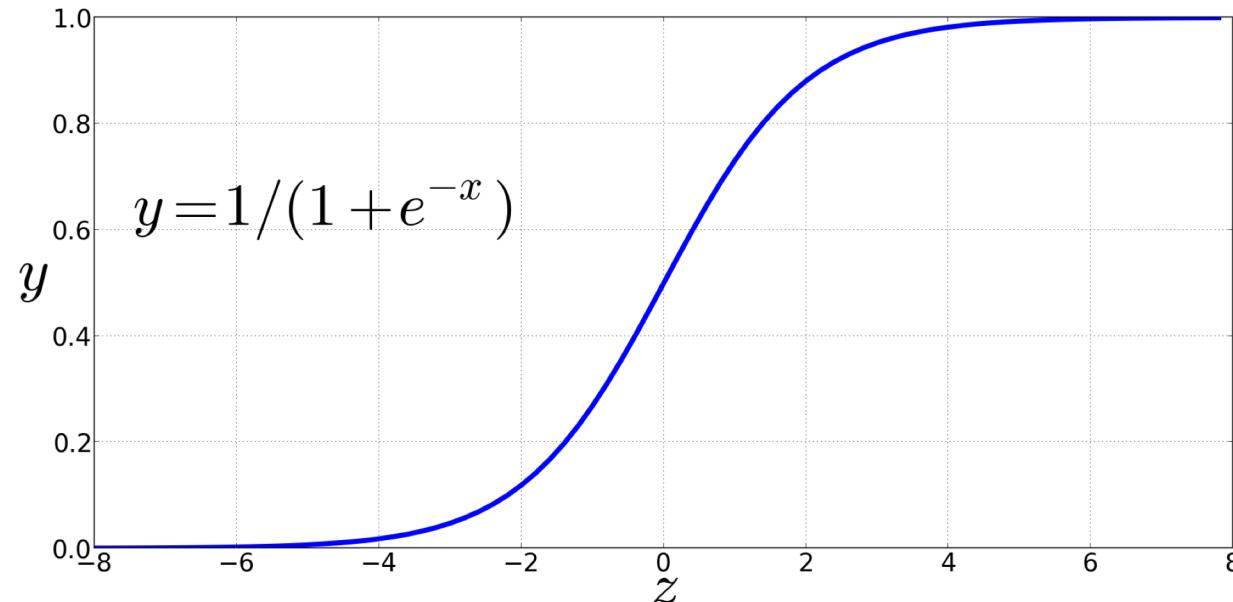
Problem:

- *Dot product is not a probability!*
- *(Neither is cosine)*

Turning dot product into a probability

The sigmoid lies between 0 and 1:

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$



Turning dot product into a probability

$$P(+|t, c) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-t \cdot c}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P(-|t, c) &= 1 - P(+|t, c) \\ &= \frac{e^{-t \cdot c}}{1 + e^{-t \cdot c}} \end{aligned}$$

For all the context words:

Assume all context words are independent

$$P(+) | t, c_{1:k}) = \prod_{i=1}^{\kappa} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-t \cdot c_i}}$$

$$\log P(+) | t, c_{1:k}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \log \frac{1}{1 + e^{-t \cdot c_i}}$$

Skip-Gram Training Data

Training sentence:

... lemon, a **tablespoon of apricot jam** a pinch ...

c1 c2 t c3 c4

Training data: input/output pairs centering
on *apricot*

Asssume a +/- 2 word window

Skip-Gram Training

Training sentence:

... lemon, a tablespoon of **apricot** jam a pinch ...

c1

c2 t c3 c4

positive examples +

t c

apricot tablespoon

apricot of

apricot preserves

apricot or

- For each positive example, we'll create k negative examples.
- Using *noise* words
- Any random word that isn't t

Skip-Gram Training

Training sentence:

... lemon, a tablespoon of **apricot** jam a pinch ...

c1

c2

t

c3 c4

positive examples +

t c

apricot tablespoon

apricot of

apricot preserves

apricot or

negative examples -

$k=2$

t c t c

apricot aardvark apricot twelve

apricot puddle apricot hello

apricot where apricot dear

apricot coaxial apricot forever

Choosing noise words

Could pick w according to their unigram frequency $P(w)$

More common to chosen then according to $p_\alpha(w)$

$$P_\alpha(w) = \frac{\text{count}(w)^\alpha}{\sum_w \text{count}(w)^\alpha}$$

$\alpha = \frac{3}{4}$ works well because it gives rare noise words slightly higher probability

To show this, imagine two events $p(a)=.99$ and $p(b) = .01$:

$$P_\alpha(a) = \frac{.99^{.75}}{.99^{.75} + .01^{.75}} = .97$$

$$P_\alpha(b) = \frac{.01^{.75}}{.99^{.75} + .01^{.75}} = .03$$

Setup

Let's represent words as vectors of some length (say 300), randomly initialized.

So we start with $300 * V$ random parameters

Over the entire training set, we'd like to adjust those word vectors such that we

- Maximize the similarity of the target word, context word pairs (t,c) drawn from the positive data
- Minimize the similarity of the (t,c) pairs drawn from the negative data.

Learning the classifier

Iterative process.

We'll start with 0 or random weights

Then adjust the word weights to

- make the positive pairs more likely
- and the negative pairs less likely

over the entire training set:

Objective Criteria

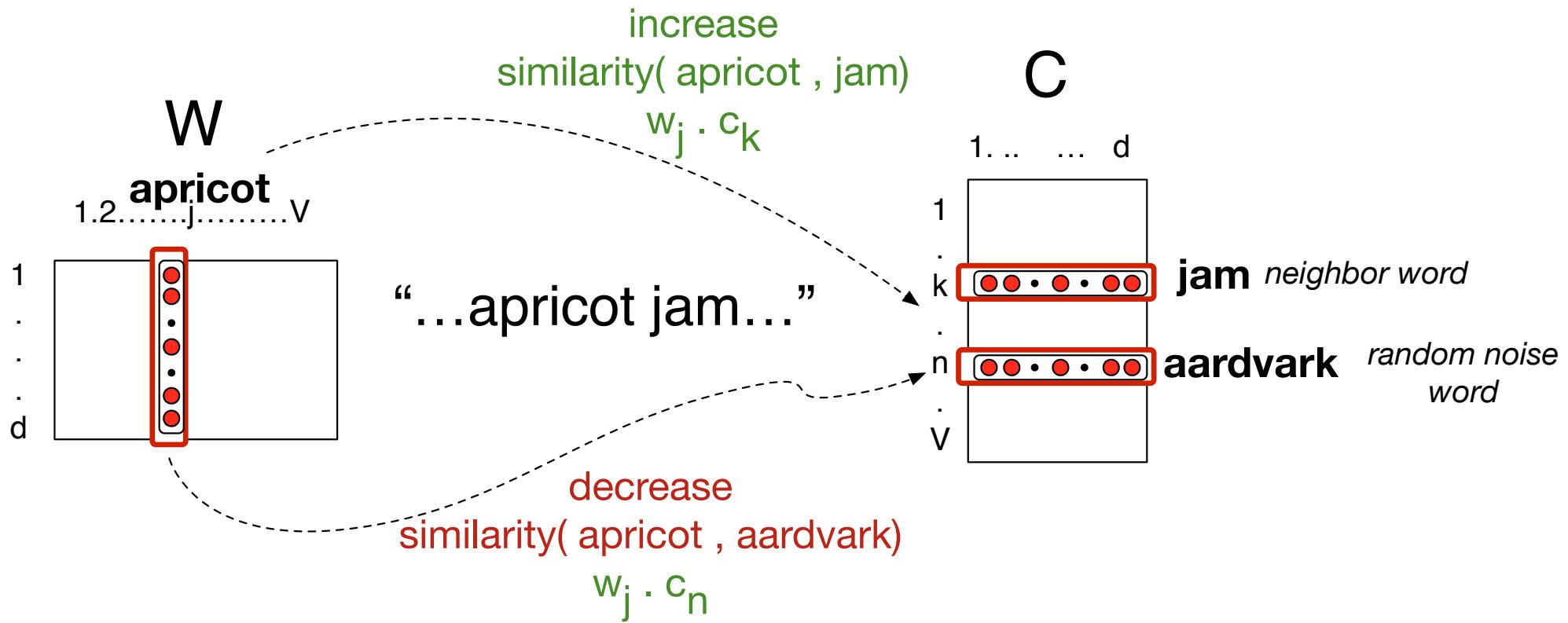
We want to maximize...

$$\sum_{(t,c) \in +} \log P(+|t, c) + \sum_{(t,c) \in -} \log P(-|t, c)$$

Maximize the + label for the pairs from the positive training data, and the – label for the pairs sample from the negative data.

Focusing on one target word t :

$$\begin{aligned} L(\theta) &= \log P(+) | t, c) + \sum_{i=1}^k \log P(- | t, n_i) \\ &= \log \sigma(c \cdot t) + \sum_{i=1}^k \log \sigma(-n_i \cdot t) \\ &= \log \frac{1}{1 + e^{-c \cdot t}} + \sum_{i=1}^k \log \frac{1}{1 + e^{n_i \cdot t}} \end{aligned}$$



Train using gradient descent

Actually learns two separate embedding matrices W and C

Can use W and throw away C , or merge them somehow

Summary: How to learn word2vec (skip-gram) embeddings

Start with V random 300-dimensional vectors as initial embeddings

Use logistic regression, the second most basic classifier used in machine learning after naïve bayes

- Take a corpus and take pairs of words that co-occur as positive examples
- Take pairs of words that don't co-occur as negative examples
- Train the classifier to distinguish these by slowly adjusting all the embeddings to improve the classifier performance
- Throw away the classifier code and keep the embeddings.

Evaluating embeddings

Compare to human scores on word similarity-type tasks:

- WordSim-353 (Finkelstein et al., 2002)
- SimLex-999 (Hill et al., 2015)
- Stanford Contextual Word Similarity (SCWS) dataset (Huang et al., 2012)
- TOEFL dataset: *Levied is closest in meaning to: imposed, believed, requested, correlated*

Properties of embeddings

Similarity depends on window size C

C = ± 2 The nearest words to *Hogwarts*:

- *Sunnydale*
- *Evernight*

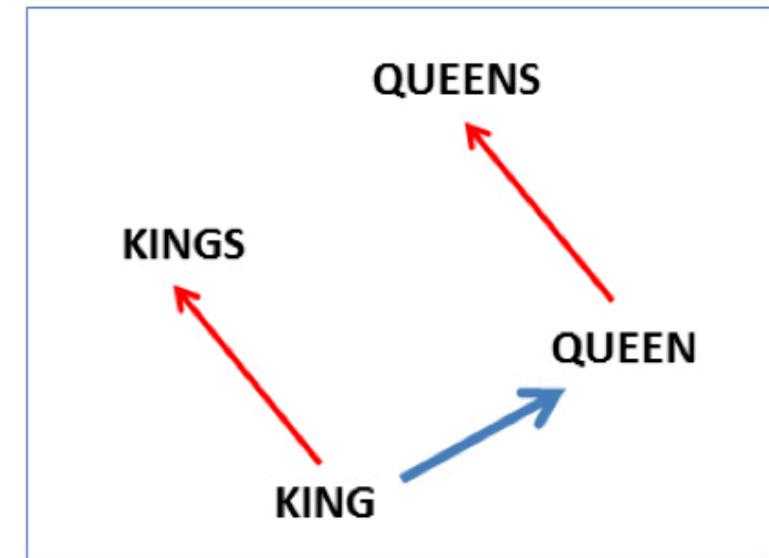
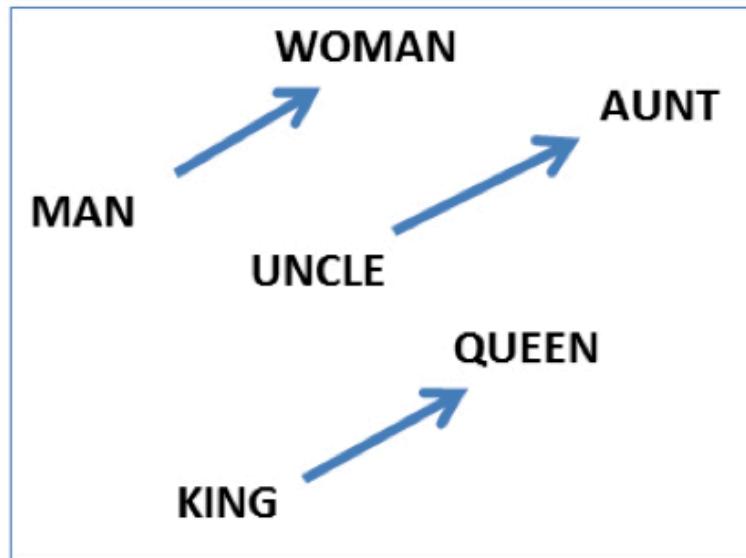
C = ± 5 The nearest words to *Hogwarts*:

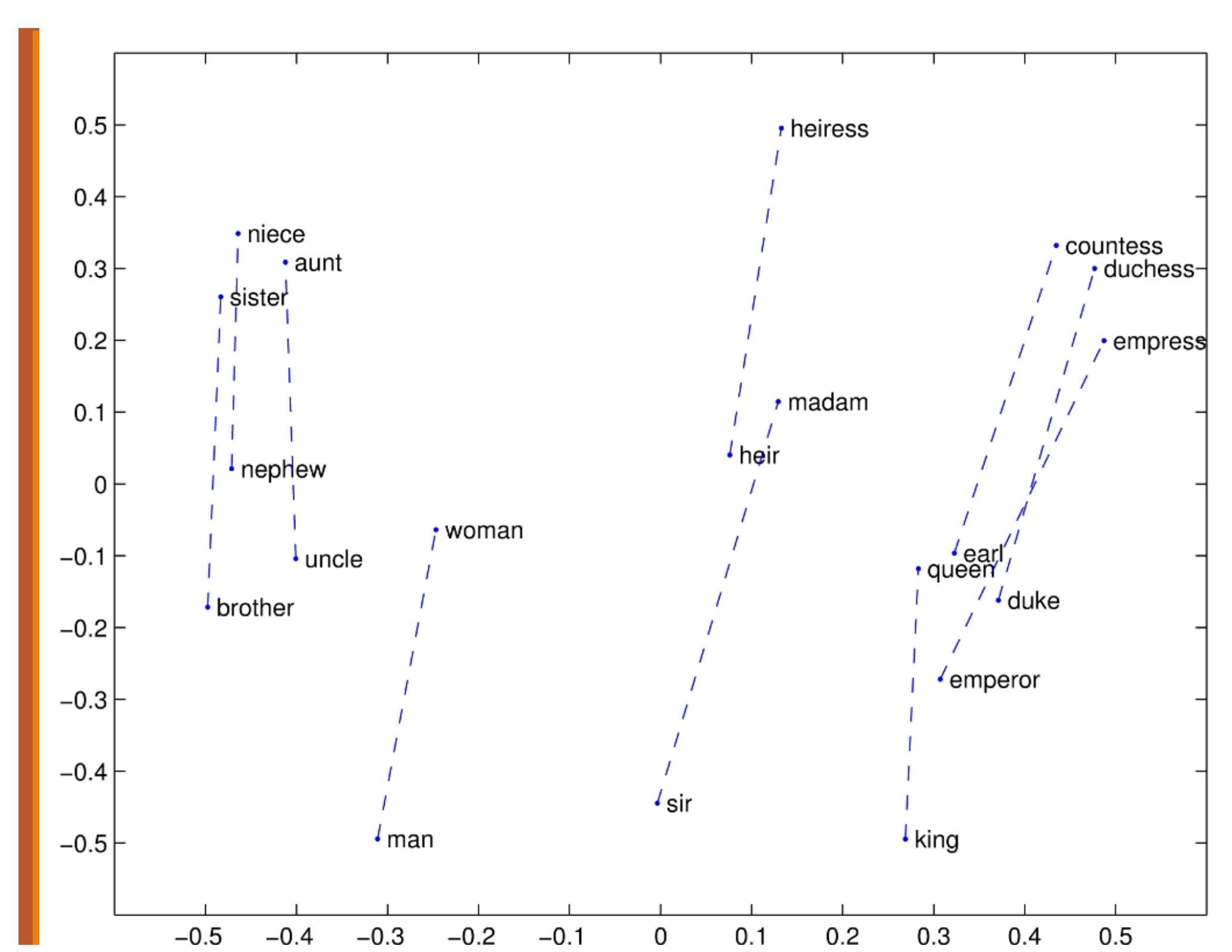
- *Dumbledore*
- *Malfoy*
- *halfblood*

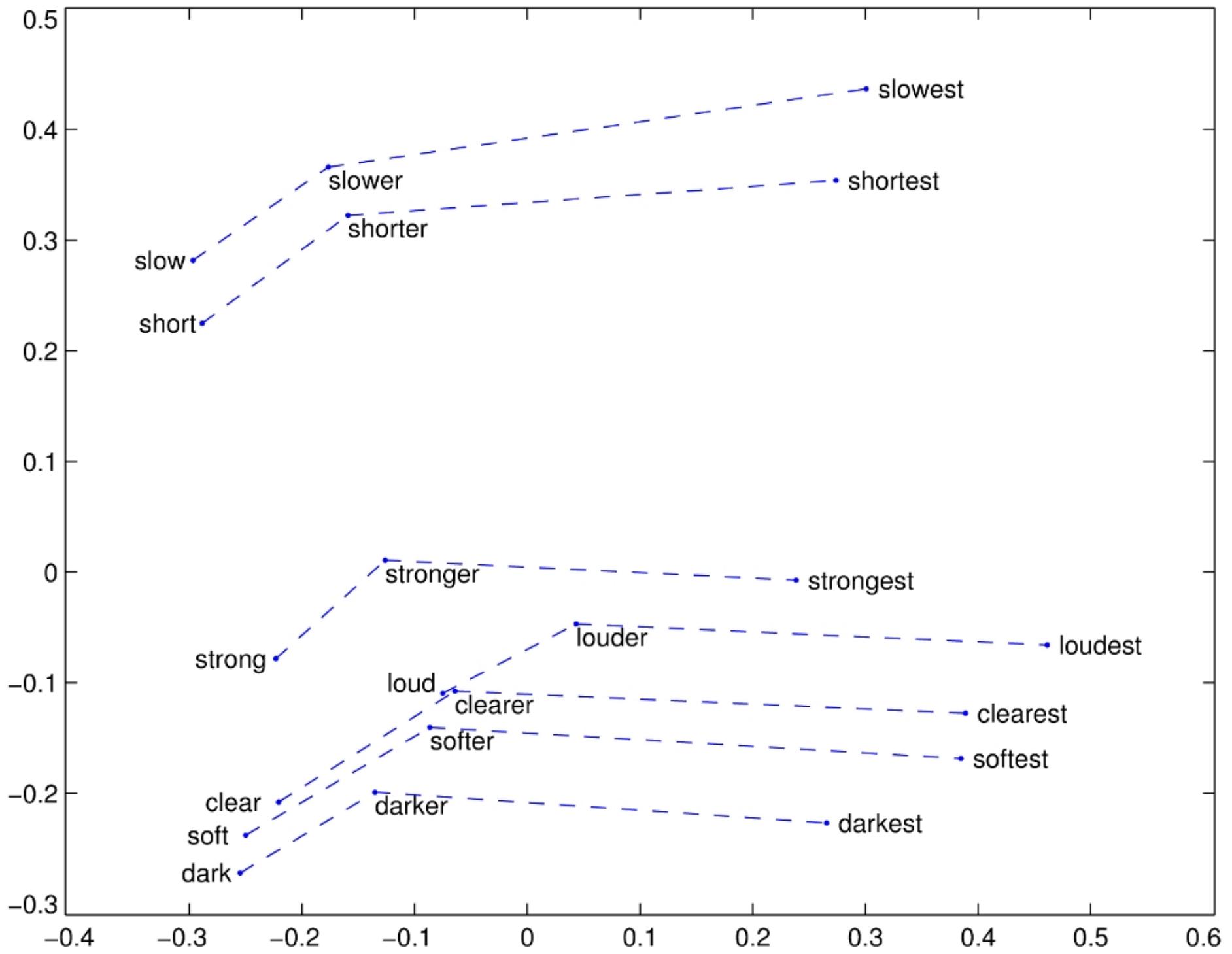
Analogy: Embeddings capture relational meaning!

$\text{vector('king')} - \text{vector('man')} + \text{vector('woman')} \approx \text{vector('queen')}$

$\text{vector('Paris')} - \text{vector('France')} + \text{vector('Italy')} \approx \text{vector('Rome')}$







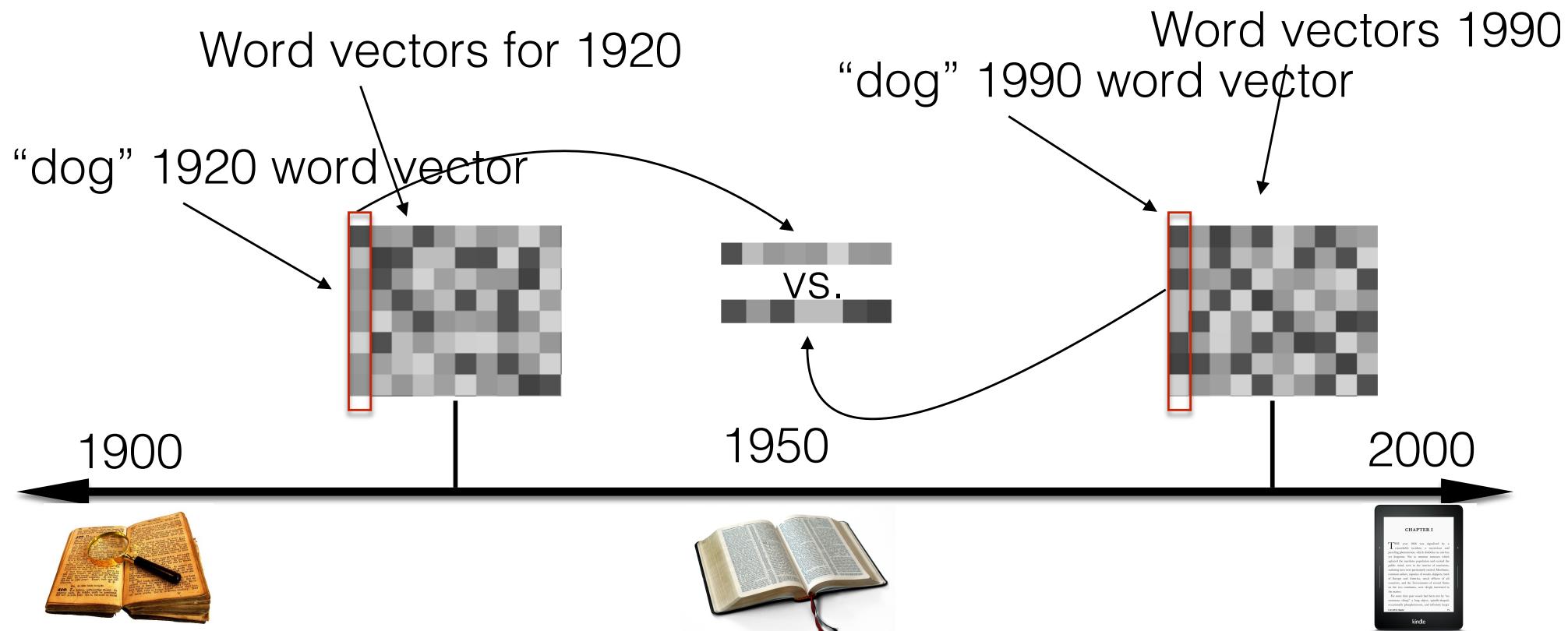
Embeddings can help study
word history!

Train embeddings on old books to study
changes in word meaning!!



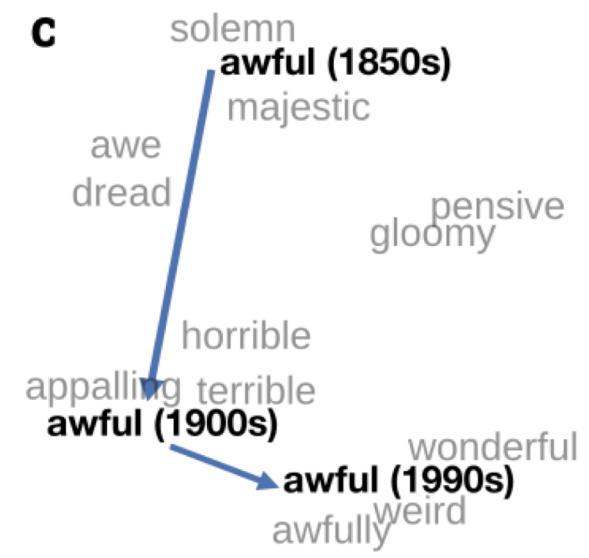
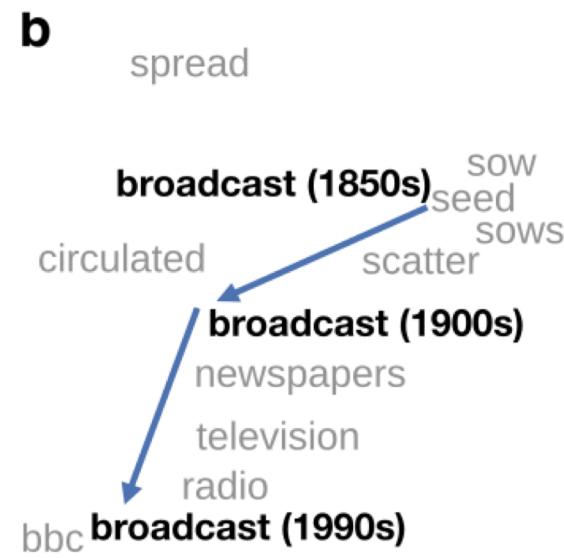
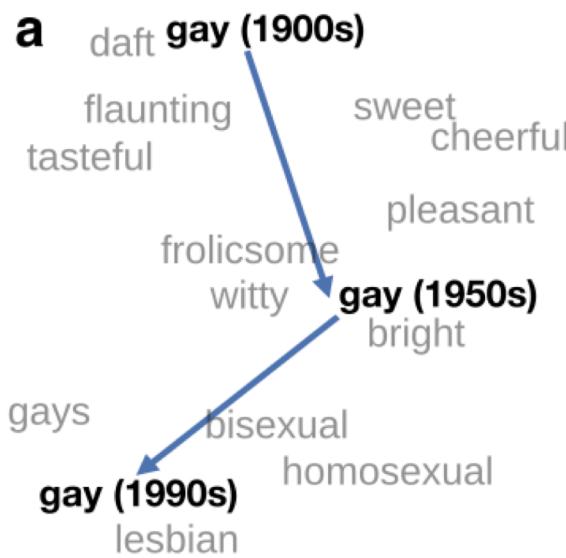
Will Hamilton

Diachronic word embeddings for studying language change!



Visualizing changes

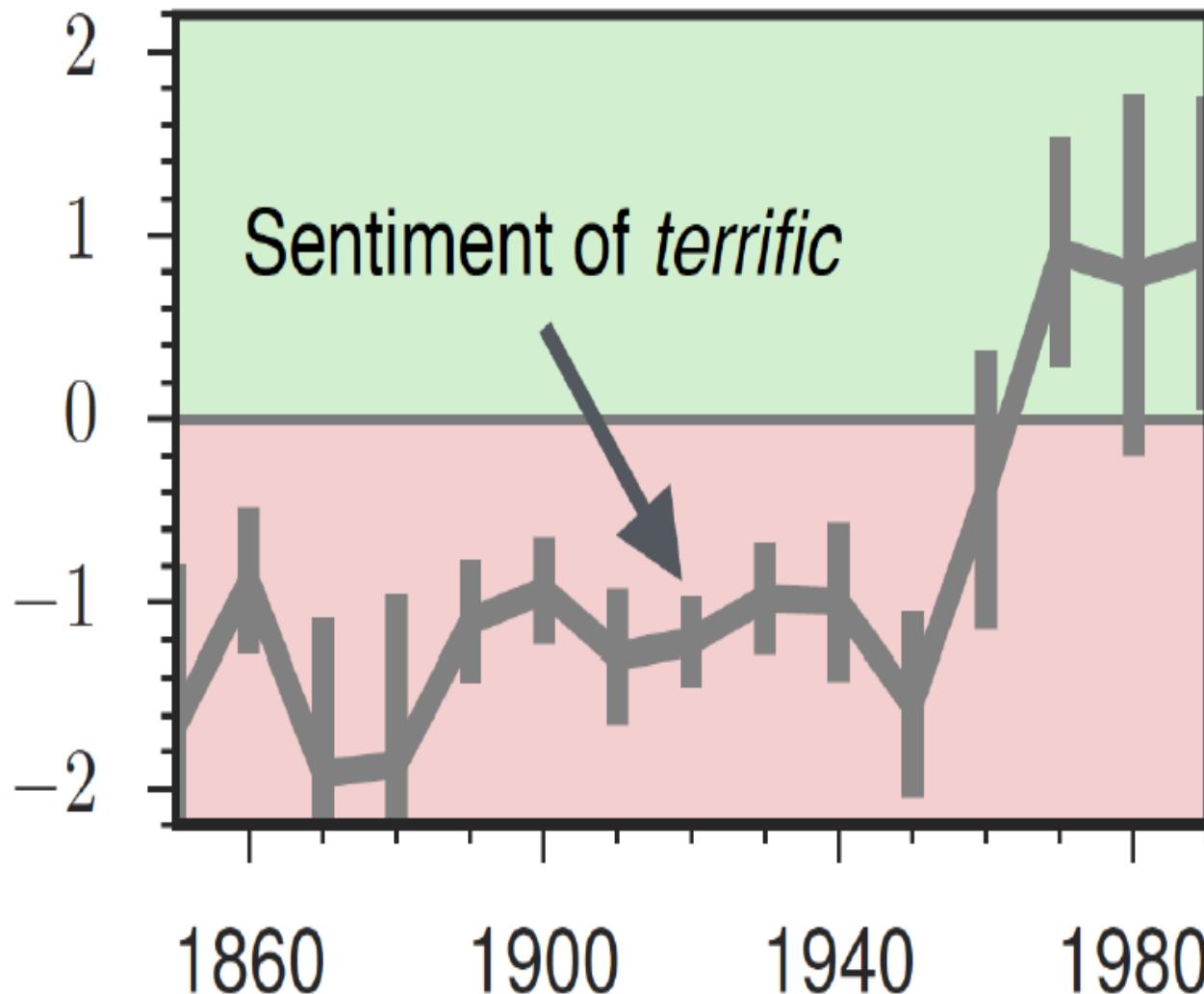
Project 300 dimensions down into 2



~30 million books, 1850-1990, Google Books data

The evolution of sentiment words

Negative words change faster than positive words



Embeddings and bias

Embeddings reflect cultural bias

Bolukbasi, Tolga, Kai-Wei Chang, James Y. Zou, Venkatesh Saligrama, and Adam T. Kalai. "Man is to computer programmer as woman is to homemaker? debiasing word embeddings." In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pp. 4349-4357. 2016.

Ask “Paris : France :: Tokyo : x”

- x = Japan

Ask “father : doctor :: mother : x”

- x = nurse

Ask “man : computer programmer :: woman : x”

- x = homemaker

Embeddings reflect cultural bias

Caliskan, Aylin, Joanna J. Bruson and Arvind Narayanan. 2017. Semantics derived automatically from language corpora contain human-like biases. *Science* 356:6334, 183-186.

Implicit Association test (Greenwald et al 1998): How associated are

- concepts (*flowers, insects*) & attributes (*pleasantness, unpleasantness*)?
- Studied by measuring timing latencies for categorization.

Psychological findings on US participants:

- African-American names are associated with unpleasant words (more than European-American names)
- Male names associated more with math, female names with arts
- Old people's names with unpleasant words, young people with pleasant words.

Caliskan et al. replication with embeddings:

- African-American names (*Leroy, Shaniqua*) had a higher GloVe cosine with unpleasant words (*abuse, stink, ugly*)
- European American names (*Brad, Greg, Courtney*) had a higher cosine with pleasant words (*love, peace, miracle*)

Embeddings reflect and replicate all sorts of pernicious biases.

Directions

Debiasing algorithms for embeddings

- Bolukbasi, Tolga, Chang, Kai-Wei, Zou, James Y., Saligrama, Venkatesh, and Kalai, Adam T. (2016). Man is to computer programmer as woman is to homemaker? debiasing word embeddings. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, pp. 4349–4357.

Use embeddings as a historical tool to study bias

Embeddings as a window onto history

Garg, Nikhil, Schiebinger, Londa, Jurafsky, Dan, and Zou, James (2018). Word embeddings quantify 100 years of gender and ethnic stereotypes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(16), E3635–E3644

Use the Hamilton historical embeddings

The cosine similarity of embeddings for decade X for occupations (like teacher) to male vs female names

- Is correlated with the actual percentage of women teachers in decade X

History of biased framings of women

Garg, Nikhil, Schiebinger, Londa, Jurafsky, Dan, and Zou, James (2018). Word embeddings quantify 100 years of gender and ethnic stereotypes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(16), E3635–E3644

Embeddings for competence adjectives are biased toward men

- *Smart, wise, brilliant, intelligent, resourceful, thoughtful, logical, etc.*

This bias is slowly decreasing

Embeddings reflect ethnic stereotypes over time

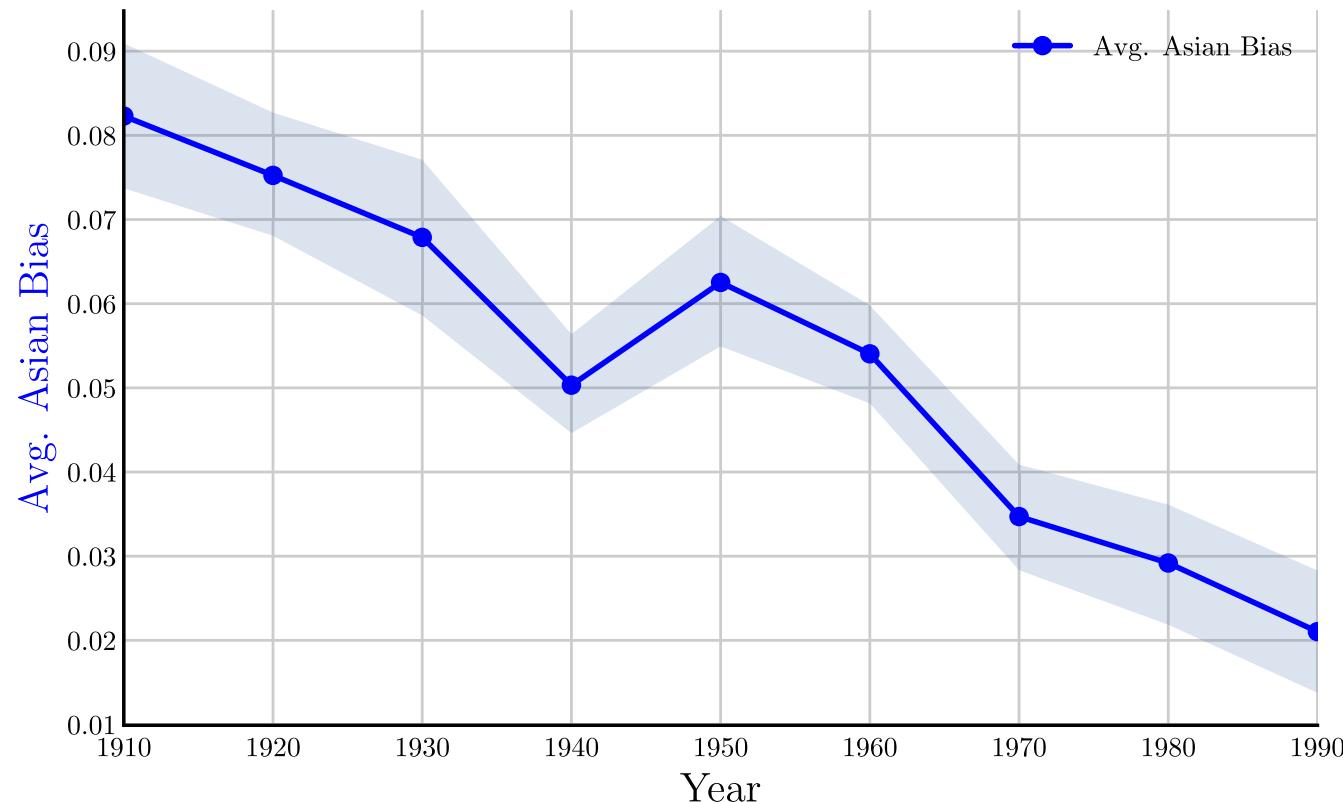
Garg, Nikhil, Schiebinger, Londa, Jurafsky, Dan, and Zou, James (2018). Word embeddings quantify 100 years of gender and ethnic stereotypes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(16), E3635–E3644

- Princeton trilogy experiments
- Attitudes toward ethnic groups (1933, 1951, 1969) scores for adjectives
 - *industrious, superstitious, nationalistic*, etc
- Cosine of Chinese name embeddings with those adjective embeddings correlates with human ratings.

Change in linguistic framing 1910-1990

Garg, Nikhil, Schiebinger, Londa, Jurafsky, Dan, and Zou, James (2018). Word embeddings quantify 100 years of gender and ethnic stereotypes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(16), E3635–E3644

Change in association of Chinese names with adjectives framed as "othering" (*barbaric, monstrous, bizarre*)



Changes in framing: adjectives associated with Chinese

Garg, Nikhil, Schiebinger, Londa, Jurafsky, Dan, and Zou, James (2018). Word embeddings quantify 100 years of gender and ethnic stereotypes. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(16), E3635–E3644

1910	1950	1990
Irresponsible	Disorganized	Inhibited
Envious	Outrageous	Passive
Barbaric	Pompous	Dissolute
Aggressive	Unstable	Haughty
Transparent	Effeminate	Complacent
Monstrous	Unprincipled	Forceful
Hateful	Venomous	Fixed
Cruel	Disobedient	Active
Greedy	Predatory	Sensitive
Bizarre	Boisterous	Hearty

Conclusion

Concepts or word senses

- Have a complex many-to-many association with **words** (homonymy, multiple senses)
- Have relations with each other
 - Synonymy, Antonymy, Superordinate
- But are hard to define formally (necessary & sufficient conditions)

Embeddings = vector models of meaning

- More fine-grained than just a string or index
- Especially good at modeling similarity/analogy
 - Just download them and use cosines!!
- Can use sparse models (tf-idf) or dense models (word2vec, GLoVE)
- Useful in practice but know they encode cultural stereotypes