# **Natural Language Processing**

# Lecture 7 Lexical semantics and Latent Semantic Analysis

# Word meanings

#### Word meanings

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References

As we have seen (in Lecture 1), according to the *principle of compositionality*,

The meaning of a complex expression is determined by the meanings of its constituent expressions and the rules used to combine them. <sup>1</sup>

Although the principle is not without its problems,<sup>2</sup> it suggests that to know the meaning of larger textual units (sentences, paragraphs etc.) it is necessary to know the *meaning of words* they are composed of.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Wikipedia: Principle of Compositionality.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>See, e.g., Szabó [2020].

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Intuitively, several words have more than one meanings, e.g. *mouse* has a different meaning in

A mouse ate the cheese.

and in

Click on the close button with the mouse.

mouse can mean a type of small rodent or an electronic pointing device. The identification and characterization of word meanings or word senses such as these is the task of lexical semantics.

#### **Word senses in dictionaries**

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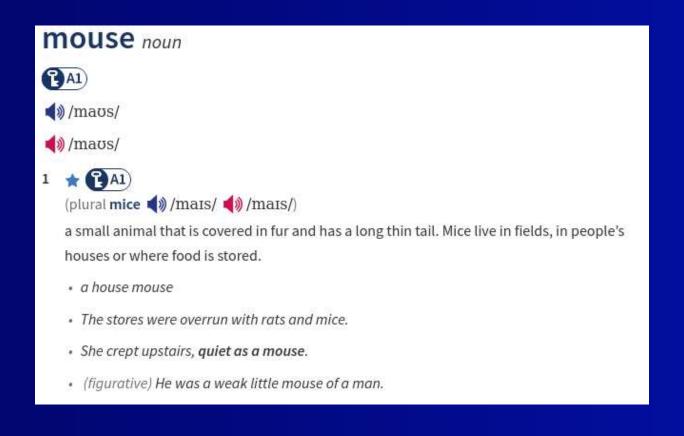
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One way of characterizing word senses is offered by traditional *dictionaries*. E.g., the online version of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* describes these senses as



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(plural mice or mouses)

(computing) a small device that is moved by hand across a surface to control the movement of the cursor on a computer screen

- Use the mouse to drag the icon to a new position.
- · I prefer a wireless mouse.
- · The keyboard and mouse are wireless devices.
- Click the left mouse button twice to highlight the program.
- With simple mouse clicks, the viewer can navigate the room.

#### Word senses in dictionaries cont.

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Notable features of these sense descriptions are that

- word senses have precise identifiers: the surface form *mouse*, the POS-tag *noun* and the sense number together unambiguously identify the senses;
- each sense has a textual definition which is not formal, but
  - uses a relatively small definitional vocabulary,
  - follows certain conventions, e.g., starts with a more general word plus characteristic property (small animal, small device);
- there are several *example sentences* illustrating typical patterns in which the sense is used.

#### **Lexical relations**

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LSA References Dictionaries may contain information about *lexical relations* between senses, especially about

- synonymy: whether two word senses are (close to) identical;
- antonimy: whether two word senses are opposites of each other.

Other important lexical relations include *taxonomical relations*:

- sense  $s_1$  is a *hyponym* of  $s_2$  if it is strictly more specific, e.g.  $mouse_1$  is a hyponym of  $animal_1$ ;
- lacksquare conversely, sense  $s_1$  is a *hypernym* of  $s_2$  if  $s_2$  is more specific than  $s_1$ .

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And, finally, *meronymy*, the *part-whole* relation: e.g., *finger* is a meronym of *hand*.

Collectively, word senses and their lexical relations constitute a *network*, in which

- nodes are sets of synonymous word senses, and
- edges are lexical relations.

Since the hyponymy relation (also called  $is\_a$ ) is transitive, it makes sense to have only direct hyponymy edges in the network, i.e., the have an  $s_1 \xrightarrow{is\_a} s_2$  edge only if there is no node  $s_3$  for which  $s_1 \xrightarrow{is\_a} s_3$  and  $s_2 \xrightarrow{is\_a} s_3$ 

#### **WordNet**

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To be usable for NLP purposes, lexical semantic information has to be accessible as a computational resource with a well defined query API, and, starting from the mid. 1980s a number of projects developed such resources.

The most important has been the *WordNet* English lexical database, which contains a large number of synonym sets with definitions, examples and lexical relations. After its success, WordNets were developed for a large number of other languages, now more than 200 WordNets are available.

## WordNet cont.

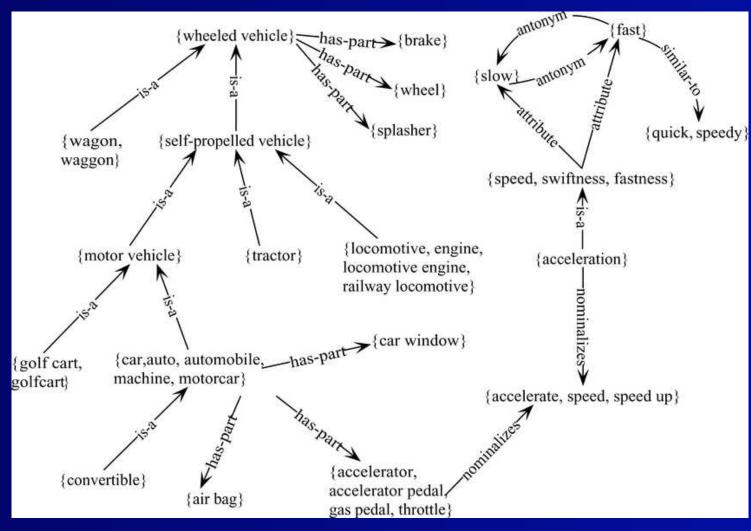
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### A part of the English WordNet network:



## Knowledge bases as lexical resources

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In addition to dedicated lexical databases, *knowledge bases* can also serve as useful lexical semantic resources, since they contain information about *entities* and *concepts*, which can be linked to words in a vocabulary. Important examples include

- Wikis, most importantly the English Wikipedia, here various types of links and references between the entries provide relational information;
- formal ontologies: these describe relationships between concepts in a formal logical language.

# Word sense disambiguation

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To use the information about word senses provided by these lexical resources, NLP applications must be able to determine in which sense words are used in the input, i.e., perform *word sense disambiguation (WSD)*. The details of the WSD task depend on which lexical resource it is based on and how the resource is used. Given a resource containing word senses,

- supervised WSD uses machine learning methods on training data which is annotated with the correct word senses; while
- knowledge-based WSD exploits the information in the lexical resource, e.g. the lexical relations and definitions in WordNet.
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#### **Vector-based lexical semantics**

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The lexical semantic approach we have seen so far has certain features that make it difficult to achieve large coverage and adapt to new languages or domains:

- the lexical databases were manually assembled by highly qualified experts;
- the development of high-performance WSD modules typically requires a large amount of expert-annotated training data.

These problems led to research into alternatives that assign useful word meaning representation in an *unsupervised* fashion, simply learning them from text corpora.

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Although there have been attempts to learn *semantic networks* from text corpora, the first successful unsupervised lexical semantic methods have been learning *word vectors* from text corpora, i.e., embedding functions of the form

$$E:V\to\mathbb{R}^d$$

which assign d-dimensional  $(d \in \mathbb{N})$  vectors to each word in the V vocabulary. Of course, not any such function will do: the obvious requirement is that the learned vectors have to convey useful information about the *meaning* of the words they are assigned to.

#### Vector-based lexical semantics cont.

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LSA References One way of ensuring the connection is to utilize the distributional hypothesis:

- "You shall know a word by the company it keeps." 3
- "Linguistic items with similar distributions have similar meanings." 4

This suggests that if the word vectors reflects the distribution of the words they are assigned to, then they will also reflect the words' meanings.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>J.R. Firth, *Papers in Linguistics 1934–1951 (1957).* 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Wikipedia: Distributional semantics.

#### **Co-occurrence matrices**

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The most direct way of getting word vectors that reflect the words' distribution in a corpus is to consider  $\it co-ocurrence$  matrixes. If there are  $\it D$  documents in the corpus and  $\it V$  is the corpus vocabulary then

- *term-document* matrices are  $|V| \times D$  dimensional matrices in which each row is a word vector whose i-th element is the occurrence count of the word in the i-th document, while
- matrices are  $|V| \times |V|$  dimensional matrices in which each row is a word vector whose i-th element is the co-occurrence count of the word with the i-th *other word*.

# **Latent Semantic Analysis**

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An important problem of using these vectors directly is their huge dimensionality and sparsity. To solve this problem, *Latent Semantic Analysis* methods apply dimension reducing matrix factorization methods, typically *truncated SVD* to find a *low-rank approximation* of the original C co-occurrence matrix. With SVD the factorization is

$$C \approx USV^{\mathsf{T}}$$

with U,V orthonormal and S diagonal. In case of truncated SVD, the rows of the U matrix can be used as low-dimensional, approximate representations of the co-occurrence based original word vectors.

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