

Semantic Vector Space Models

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Outline

1. Semantic Vector Space Models: introduction

2. Case study: classification of verbs depending on their subcategorization frames

3. Exploratory statistics: final comments

Semantic Vector Space Models

- Main inspiration:
 - "You shall know the word by the company it keeps" (Firth 1957)
 - Words that occur in the same contexts tend to have similar meaning (Harris 1959)
- Origins in Computational Linguistics (cf. Deerwester et al. 1990, Schütze 1992, Lin 1998)
- Various applications in lexical and constructional corpus-based semantics (e.g. Levshina & Heylen 2014; Perek 2016)

A compact overview for linguists

 See my paper with Kris Heylen (Levshina & Heylen 2014)



The main steps

- 1. Create the vectors of co-occurrence frequencies of target words and contextual features (other words, subcategorization frames, etc.).
- 2. Normalize the frequencies (usually by transforming them into Poinwise Mutual Information scores), so that more surprising frequencies get more weight.
- 3. Compute the distances between the vectors (usually using the cosine measure).
- 4. Perform cluster analysis, MDS or use another exploratory technique.

What are contextual features?

- Bag-of-words models:
 - Take all words that occur within a certain window around a word (e.g. 5 words on the left and 5 words on the right).

| - | -5 | -4 | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|----|----------|--------|----|----|-------|------|--------|----|------|------|
| | I | wandered | lonely | as | а | cloud | that | floats | on | high | ov'r |

Large window: topic-related information

Topic: hospital



What are contextual features like?

- Bag-of-words models:
 - Take all words that occur within a certain window around a word (e.g. 5 words on the left and 5 words on the right).

| -5 | -4 | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|----|----------|--------|----|----|-------|------|--------|----|------|------|
| 1 | wandered | lonely | as | а | cloud | that | floats | on | high | ov'r |

Small window: semantic relatedness

Some semantic relationships

• Synonyms, e.g. begin – start

• Co-hyponyms, e.g. fox terrier – beagle

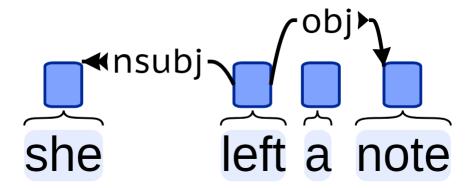




• Hyper- and hyponyms, e.g. dog - beagle

What are contextual features like?

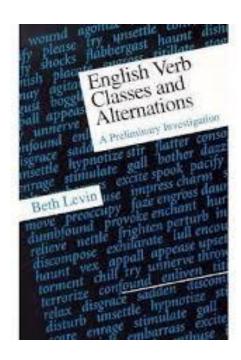
- Syntactically enriched models:
 - Take into account the syntactic dependencies between the targets and other lexemes



Good for capturing semantic similarity.

What are contextual features like?

- Fully syntactic information
 - E.g. subcategorisation frames for verbs, such as Subj_V_Indirect Object_Direct Object.
- Yields classes similar to Levin's (1993)



Of cabbages and kings (COCA)

| | vegetable.n | grow.v | crown.n | royal.adj | make.v | |
|---------|-------------|--------|---------|-----------|--------|-----|
| cabbage | 76 | 43 | 3 | 1 | 109 | ••• |
| king | 11 | 90 | 134 | 236 | 1122 | ••• |
| queen | 3 | 92 | 56 | 127 | 312 | ••• |
| ••• | | ••• | ••• | | ••• | ••• |

Of cabbages and kings (COCA)

| | vegetable.n | grow.v | crown.n | royal.adj | make.v | |
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| ••• | | ••• | ••• | | ••• | ••• |

Weighting: PMI

Pointwise Mutual Information

PMI(target, context) =
$$log_2 = \frac{P \text{ (target, word)}}{P \text{ (target) * P (word)}}$$

Can be expressed as log (Observed / Expected) in a contingency table (Evert 2005).

- Negative values are replaced with zero.
- As a result of this weighting, the co-occurrence frequencies with highly frequent words (e.g. like) are less important, and infrequent events become more prominent.

Positive PMI

| | vegetable.n | grow.v | crown.n | royal.adj | make.v | ••• |
|---------|-------------|--------|---------|-----------|--------|-----|
| cabbage | 76 | 43 | 3 | 1 | 109 | ••• |
| king | 11 | 90 | 134 | 236 | 1122 | ••• |
| queen | 3 | 92 | 56 | 127 | 312 | ••• |
| | | | | | | |



| | vegetable.n | grow.v | crown.n | royal.adj | do.v | ••• |
|---------|-------------|--------|---------|-----------|------|-----|
| cabbage | 3.14 | 0.99 | 0 | 0 | 0 | ••• |
| king | 0 | 0 | 0.07 | 0 | 0.14 | ••• |
| queen | 0 | 0.74 | 0.25 | 0.51 | 0 | ••• |
| | | | | | | |

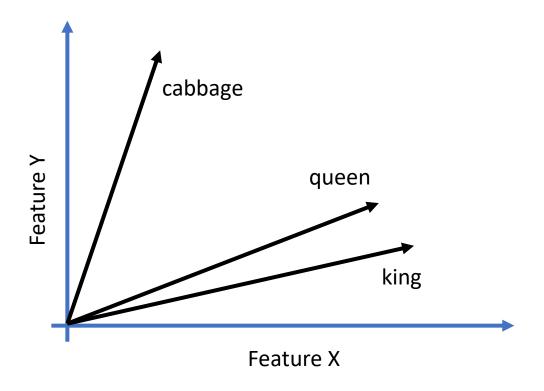
Why vector space?

• We speak about distributional vectors (sequences of PMI scores).

| | vegetable.n | grow.v | crown.n | royal.adj | do.v | |
|---------|-------------|--------|---------|-----------|------|-----|
| cabbage | 3.14 | 0.99 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| king | 0 | 0 | 0.07 | 0 | 0.14 | |
| queen | 0 | 0.74 | 0.25 | 0.51 | 0 | ••• |
| | | | | | | |

Why vector space?

 The weighted frequencies can be seen as coordinates defining the position of a target word in a multidimensional semantic feature space.



What is the cosine measure of similarity?

- If the angle between two vectors is small, the cosine will be large (up to 1), e.g. king and queen.
- If the angle is large, the cosine will be small (around 0), e.g. cabbage and king.
- The greater the cosine of the angle between two vectors, the more similar the corresponding words.

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Data

- Universal Dependencies Corpus
 - http://universaldependencies.org/
- English subcorpus (254K): blogs, social media, reviews
- > 2K verbs (types)
- 28 subcategorization frames with various arguments and adjuncts, e.g.
 - Subject + Verb + Adverbial Modifier (e.g. John runs fast.)
 - Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object (e.g. John gives Mary a book).

Data set verbframes

> dim(verbframes)

[1] 598 28

> verbframes[1:8, 1:8]

| | Intr1 | Intr2 | Intr3 | Intr4 | Intr5 | Intr6 | Intr8 | Trans1 |
|---------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| come | 20 | 22 | 21 | 64 | 67 | 48 | 26 | 2 |
| replace | 0 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| retire | 2 | 6 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| attack | 0 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 7 |
| launch | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 |
| kill | 0 | 4 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 13 |
| have | 188 | 28 | 2 | 14 | 71 | 4 | 5 | 586 |
| found | 2 | 1 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |

Weighting the frequencies

1. Transform frequencies into Pointwise Mutual Information scores

```
> verbframes.exp <-
chisq.test(verbframes)$expected
> verbframes.pmi <-
log2(verbframes/verbframes.exp)</pre>
```

- 2. Transform PMI into Positive PMI
- > verbframes.ppmi <- verbframes.pmi</pre>
- > verbframes.ppmi[verbframes.ppmi < 0] <- 0</pre>

Selecting a smaller list of verbs

```
> verblist <- c("give" ,"send", "offer","hand",
"create", "build", "produce", "jump", "come",
"go", "walk", "tell", "say", "speak", "talk",
"communicate","think","believe","assume",
"understand", "discuss", "expect", "see", "hear",
"feel", "watch", "listen", "start", "begin",
"finish")
> verbframes.short <-
verbframes.ppmi[rownames(verbframes) %in%
verblist,]</pre>
```

Computing the cosine measures

- Function cosine from add-on package Isa. Note that we need to transpose the data (i.e. swap the rows and columns).
- > library(lsa)
- > verbframes.cos <- cosine(t(verbframes.short))</pre>

- We'll assign zeros to diagonal elements (similarity of a word to itself), for convenience:
- > diag(verbframes.cos) <- 0</pre>

Which verbs are the most similar?

```
> max(verbframes.cos)
[1] 0.9557553

> which(verbframes.cos == max(verbframes.cos),
arr.ind = TRUE)
        row col
walk 27 11
go 11 27
```

Which verbs are similar to give?

```
> verbframes.cos[rownames(verbframes.cos) ==
"give", ]
[output omitted]
```

For convenience, round the numbers up to three decimal points:

```
> round(verbframes.cos[rownames(verbframes.cos) ==
"give", ], 3)
```

[output omitted]

Hierarchical cluster analysis

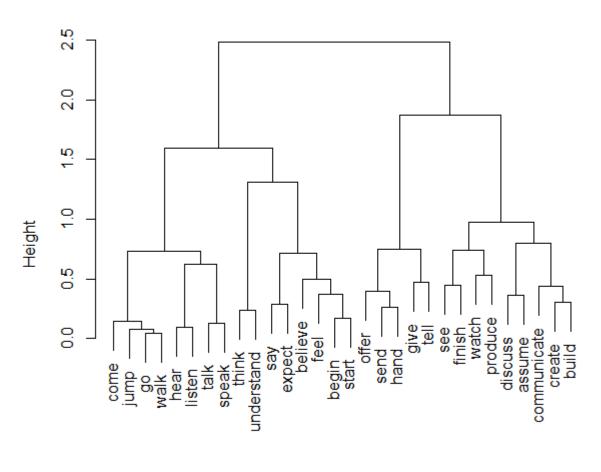
1. Transform the similarity scores into distances by subtracting the cosines from 1:

```
> verbframes.dist <- as.dist(1 - verbframes.cos)</pre>
```

2. Perform HCA (see previous lecture):

```
> verbframes.clust <- hclust(verbframes.dist,
method = "ward.D2")
> plot(verbframes.clust)
```

Cluster Dendrogram



verbframes.dist hclust (*, "ward.D2")

Comparing properties of clusters

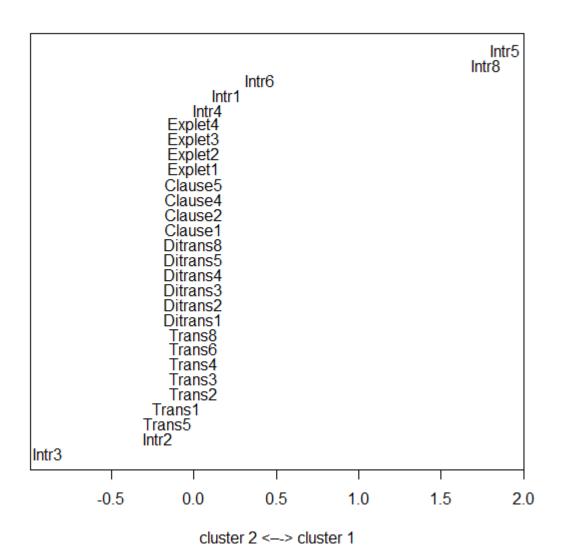
```
> verbs1 <- c("come", "go", "walk", "jump")
> verbs2 <- c("hear", "listen", "talk", "speak")
> cluster1 <-
verbframes.short[rownames(verbframes.short) %in%
verbs1,]
> cluster2 <-
verbframes.short[rownames(verbframes.short) %in%
verbs2,]</pre>
```

Compute the mean PMIs and the differences between them:

```
> cluster1.means <- colMeans(cluster1)
> cluster2.means <- colMeans(cluster2)
> diff <- cluster1.means - cluster2.means</pre>
```

Making a "snake plot"

```
> plot(sort(diff), 1:length(diff), type = "n",
xlab = "cluster 2 <--> cluster 1", yaxt = "n",
ylab = "")
> text(sort(diff), 1:length(diff),
names(sort(diff)))
```



Distinctive subcategorization frames

- Frame Intr3: V + Oblique
 - Talk to your academic adviser, see what they recommend.
- Frame Intr5: Subj + V + AdvMod
 - Now comes the fun part.
- Frame Intr8: V + AdvMod
 - Coming soon!

Divisive clustering

- Splits the data into a pre-defined number of clusters
- Popular options: k-means, partitioning around medoids (more robust)

Divisive clustering with PAM

- > library(cluster)
- > verbframes.pam <- pam(verbframes.dist, k = 3)</pre>
- > verbframes.pam\$clustering

| give | create | hear | come |
|---------|--------|-------|-------|
| 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| believe | expect | think | say |
| 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| see | go | tell | send |
| 2 | 1 | 3 | 3 |
| finish | begin | talk | build |
| 2 | 1 | 1 | 2 |

...

Conclusions

- Most relationships are interpretable semantically. Given the small corpus size, the results are surprisingly good (some people recommend > 50M for SVS).
- The hierarchical and divisive solutions are very similar.

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Take-home messages

- 1. Exploratory methods are only exploratory: their purpose is to help you understand your data better and form hypotheses, which you can test with the help of confirmatory methods.
- 2. While performing your analysis, play around with different exploratory methods and visualization techniques. If the results converge, this means that the pattern is robust. If they diverge, your task is to try to understand why they do.

References

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