

Quantitative text analysis: Word Embeddings

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MY 459: Quantitative Text Analysis

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Course website: lse-my459.github.io

1. Overview and Fundamentals
2. Descriptive Statistical Methods for Text Analysis
3. Automated Dictionary Methods
4. Machine Learning for Texts
5. Supervised Scaling Models for Texts
6. *Reading Week*
7. Unsupervised Models for Scaling Texts
8. Similarity and Clustering Methods
9. Topic models
10. Word embeddings
11. Current Topics

Outline

- ▶ Introduction
- ▶ word2vec
- ▶ GloVe
- ▶ Geometry
- ▶ Applications
- ▶ Biases
- ▶ Guided coding

Demo

- ▶ Let us start with a demo of word embeddings

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Word embeddings

- ▶ Bag of word approaches only track the frequency of terms, but ignore context, grammar, word order
- ▶ One alternative to the bag-of-words approach are **word embeddings** (word vectors)
- ▶ **Word embeddings** represent words as **real-valued vectors** in a multidimensional space (often 100–500 dimensions)
- ▶ The goal is to obtain a measure of a word's “meaning” by its position in that space relative to the position of other words
- ▶ “You shall know a word by the company it keeps” (John Rupert Firth, 1957)
- ▶ Algorithms learn the vector representations of words through the context in which the words appear in training texts

Word embeddings

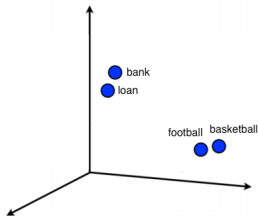
- ▶ Learning vector representations of words has been an area of research for long, not just since 2013. See e.g. Bengio et al. (2003): "A neural probabilistic language model"
- ▶ Yet, *word2vec* (Mikolov, et al. 2013) was able to yield word embeddings of previously unknown quality
- ▶ Other frequently used word embeddings are e.g. *GloVe* (Pennington et al., 2014)
- ▶ Embeddings are used for analysis themselves or as inputs in many machine learning models
- ▶ Very recent work in word embeddings: Contextual embeddings such as e.g. *BERT* (Devlin et al., 2018) which yield different vectors for the same word in different contexts (*word2vec* and *GloVe* in contrast yield a single vector for each word in a corpus)

Word embeddings example

- ▶ After training a model e.g. on the corpus of Wikipedia, four exemplary embeddings with 300 dimensions could look like the following

word	D_1	D_2	D_3	...	D_{300}
bank	0.46	0.67	0.05
loan	0.46	-0.89	-0.08
football	0.79	0.96	0.02
basketball	0.80	-0.58	-0.14

- ▶ You can think of each vector as a point in space
- ▶ Words that tend to appear together in texts should be close in vector space
- ▶ Stylised visualisation in three dimensions:



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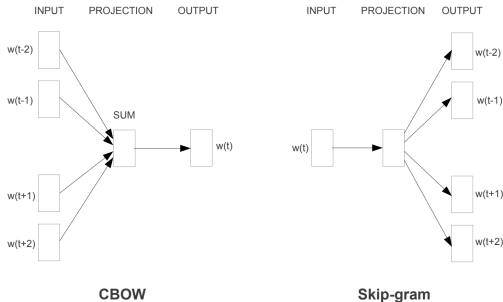
word2vec

- ▶ One very popular way to obtain such embeddings is *word2vec* by Mikolov et al. (2013)
- ▶ Embeddings are obtained from models that predict context or center words
- ▶ Excerpt from some exemplary sentence:

... lemon, a [tablespoon of apricot jam, a] pinch ...
 c1 c2 t c3 c4

- ▶ Center word at position t : “apricot”
- ▶ Context words: “tablespoon”, “of”, “jam”, “a”

- ▶ The paper actually includes two models that learn word embeddings:



- ▶ And two algorithms: Hierarchical softmax and negative sampling
- ▶ We will focus on the skip-gram and negative sampling here
- ▶ Skip-gram is slower but tends to work better for rarer words

Some preliminaries

- ▶ $t = 1, \dots, T$ is a sequence of training word indices, e.g. going from left to right through all concatenated documents of the corpus
- ▶ In the models we discuss here, each unique word i actually is characterised by two word vectors. One vector as a context word u_i , and one vector as a center word v_i
- ▶ We start with randomly initialised vectors
- ▶ These vectors are the parameters of the models and we stack all the u_i 's and v_i 's into one very large vector θ to simplify notation
- ▶ We will furthermore assume a *softmax* structure for probabilities:

$$Pr(x_k) = \frac{\exp(x_k)}{\sum_{j=1}^J \exp(x_j)}$$

Skip-gram model

- ▶ Idea: Build a model that predicts context words from center words at a position t
- ▶ Objective function:

$$\max_{\theta} J(\theta) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \sum_{\substack{-m \leq j \leq m \\ j \neq 0}} \log(\text{Prob}(\underbrace{w_{t+j}}_{\text{context word } c} \mid \underbrace{w_t}_{\text{word at position } t}; \theta))$$

- ▶ Assume for a given context word c and a word t :

$$\text{Prob}(w_{t+j} | w_t; \theta) = \frac{\exp(u_{w_{t+j}}^T v_{w_t})}{\sum_{s \in V} \exp(u_s^T v_{w_t})}$$

- ▶ The u_i 's and v_i 's are learned with gradient descent such that the relative probabilities for the observed context words are maximised also in the model

Model intuition

- ▶ A key question is how a prediction model like this can produce word vectors which are close to each other in vector space when their words also appear in texts together
- ▶ For this note that if we had normalised vectors to be of length one (i.e. divided them by their length $\|x\|$), we could compute cosine similarity simply by the dot product

$$\text{cosine similarity}(x, y) = \frac{x^T y}{\|x\| \|y\|} = \left(\frac{x}{\|x\|} \right)^T \left(\frac{y}{\|y\|} \right)$$

- ▶ Hence, dot product and similarity measures are closely related
- ▶ The predicted probability of a context word is high if the dot product between the vector of the target word and of the content word is high - this is when the similarity of the two vectors tends to be high

Skip-gram model continued

- ▶ Say we have a corpus with 10,000 unique words
- ▶ After optimisation, we would have 20,000 word vectors (two for each word)
- ▶ We could e.g. take the average of each u_i and v_i to obtain a final word vector for each word
- ▶ Unfortunately, however, there is a key problem with the so called *naive softmax* algorithm stated so far: It is impractical because computing the softmax denominator again after each gradient update to u and v is computationally very expensive for large vocabularies
- ▶ One solution presented in the paper: Use the *negative sampling* algorithm instead to learn good word vectors with an approximation

Negative sampling algorithm

Idea: Create a new supervised learning problem

Run the following loop

- ▶ Sample one word at a position t and one word from its context, i.e. in some window of 5 - 10 words around it
- ▶ For a positive case (a true content word) also sample K (e.g. 5) negative words at random from the entire corpus
- ▶ Side note: For this sampling of negative words, some slightly modified empirical distribution over the word frequencies of the corpus is used which makes it relatively more likely to sample rarer words
- ▶ Then update the vectors by training a logistic regression trying to distinguish the positive ($y = 1$) case from the negative cases ($y = 0$) with $Prob(y = 1|c, t) = \sigma(u_c^T v_t)$

After training, use only the v_i vectors as embeddings for each word

Negative sampling: Training data intuition

positive examples +

t	c
apricot	tablespoon
apricot	of
apricot	preserves
apricot	or

negative examples -

t	c	t	c
apricot	aardvark	apricot	twelve
apricot	puddle	apricot	hello
apricot	where	apricot	dear
apricot	coaxial	apricot	forever

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Example of other vector embeddings: GloVe

- ▶ “Global Vectors for Word Representation” or GloVe (Pennington et al. 2014) is another frequently used word embedding
- ▶ It tries to combine ideas from word2vec with older approaches of looking at co-occurrence matrices such as Rohde et al. (2005)
- ▶ Co-occurrence matrix for an exemplary corpus of three documents “I like deep learning”, “I like NLP”, “I enjoy flying” with a window length of 1 (more commonly 5-10)

counts	I	like	enjoy	deep	learning	NLP	flying	.
I	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
like	2	0	0	1	0	1	0	0
enjoy	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
deep	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0
learning	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
NLP	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
flying	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
.	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0

GloVe objective function

- ▶ Intuition: Solve for all word vectors u_i and v_j with gradient descent such that their inner product is a good predictor for log word co-occurrence

$$\min_{\theta} J(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N f(X_{i,j})(u_i^T v_j - \log(X_{i,j}))^2$$

- ▶ $X_{i,j}$: Count in cell i,j of the corpus co-occurrence matrix
- ▶ $f(X_{i,j})$: A weighting function which (i) particularly caps the weight of very frequent pairs and (ii) is zero for pairs that do not co-occur (see next point)
- ▶ If $X_{i,j} = 0$, then the weighting factor will be $f(X_{i,j})$ and we just assume that " $0 * \log(0)$ " = 0 as $\log(0)$ is not defined
- ▶ Use $(u_i + v_i)/2$ as final embeddings

Training word vector models

- ▶ word2vec and GloVe models have been trained on many different corpora, e.g. Wikipedia, GoogleNews, etc.
- ▶ Pretrained GloVe embeddings can e.g. be downloaded [here](#) and word2vec embeddings [here](#)
- ▶ You also can train word vector models with your computer, e.g. on a recent copy of Wikipedia or on any other set of documents

Outlook: Context specific embeddings

- ▶ A limitation of both word2vec and GloVe vectors is that they are context independent
- ▶ This means that the vector for “interest” is the same in the sentences “The bank charges interest.” and “Quantitative text analysis is my main interest.”
- ▶ Recent context dependent embeddings such as e.g. BERT (Devlin et al., 2018) or ELMo (Peters et al., 2018) would yield different vectors in the two cases
- ▶ This means, however, that to utilise their full potential we need the model to get new embeddings for a given context rather than just using a constant set of embeddings such as in the case of word2vec and GloVe
- ▶ BERT and ELMo are obtained from deep transformer models and are particularly useful as inputs in other deep learning language models

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Visualising word vectors

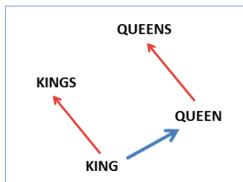
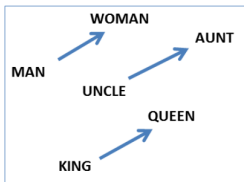
- ▶ Word vectors are often visualised in lower dimensions
- ▶ Common methods to bring vectors down from e.g. 300 to 2 or 3 dimensions are:
- ▶ PCA (principal component analysis)
- ▶ t-SNE (t-distributed stochastic neighbour embeddings) by van der Maaten et al. (2008)
- ▶ t-SNE is a tool specifically for visualisation which tries to preserve clusters from high dimensional space also in lower dimensional plots in the commonly shown plots
- ▶ Yet, its nonlinear mapping from the high to the low dimensional space will distort linear relationships in the low dimensional space
- ▶ In general, it is important to keep in mind that the high dimensional space still has much richer structures which we cannot see
- ▶ Illustration by Tensorflow

Similarities

- ▶ Always use original vectors to compute similarities, not the visualisation ones
- ▶ Similarity between word vectors are usually computed with cosine similarity $\text{similarity}(x, y) = \frac{x \cdot y}{\|x\| \|y\|}$
- ▶ Cosine similarity is the cosine of the angle between the two vectors and therefore normalised on the interval $[-1, 1]$
- ▶ A cosine similarity of 1 implies an angle between the two vectors of 0 degrees, 0 implies 90 degrees, and -1 implies 180 degrees
- ▶ If you want to use Euclidian distance instead, normalise all vectors to the same length as otherwise differences in lengths can mechanically drive differences in semantic similarity (particularly relevant to document vectors with different amount of words but the same shares of words)

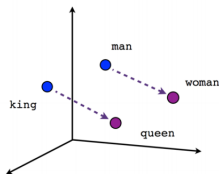
Analogies

- ▶ Among the most widely discussed features of word embeddings is their ability to capture analogies via their geometry

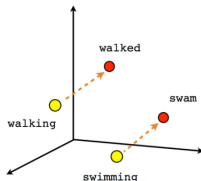


- ▶
$$\begin{aligned} &\text{vector}(\text{'king'}) + (\text{vector}(\text{'woman'}) - \text{vector}(\text{'man'})) \\ &= \text{vector}(\text{'king'}) - \text{vector}(\text{'man'}) + \text{vector}(\text{'woman'}) \\ &\approx \text{vector}(\text{'queen'}) \end{aligned}$$
- ▶ How to find 'queen' in detail:
 1. Compute the new vector $x = \text{vector}(\text{'king'}) - \text{vector}(\text{'man'}) + \text{vector}(\text{'woman'})$
 2. Find the vector most similar to x via cosine similarity (convention to exclude the vectors 'king', 'man', 'women' individually from outcomes)

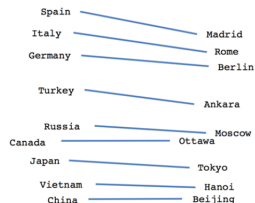
Analogies



Male-Female



Verb tense



Country-Capital

- ▶ Vectors capture general semantic information about words and their relationships to one another
- ▶ Analogies work for a surprisingly wide range of examples (see coding session)

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The Geometry of Culture: Analyzing the Meanings of Class through Word Embeddings

Austin C. Kozlowski,^a  Matt Taddy,^b
and James A. Evans^{a,c} 

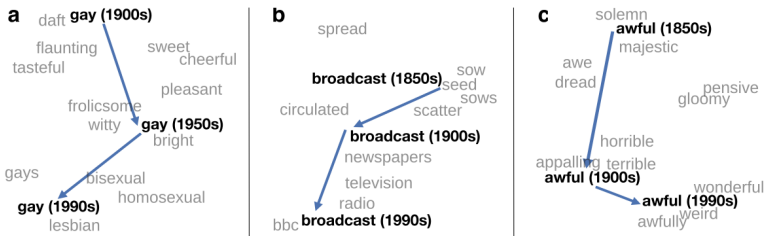
Abstract

We argue word embedding models are a useful tool for the study of culture using a historical analysis of shared understandings of social class as an empirical case. Word embeddings represent semantic relations between words as relationships between vectors in a high-dimensional space, specifying a relational model of meaning consistent with contemporary theories of culture. Dimensions induced by word differences (*rich* – *poor*) in these spaces correspond to dimensions of cultural meaning, and the projection of words onto these dimensions reflects widely shared associations, which we validate with surveys. Analyzing text from millions of books published over 100 years, we show that the markers of class continuously shifted amidst the economic transformations of the twentieth century, yet the basic cultural dimensions of class remained remarkably stable. The notable exception is education, which became tightly linked to affluence independent of its association with cultivated taste.

Kozlowski et al. (2019)

Semantic shifts

Using word embeddings to visualize changes in word meaning:

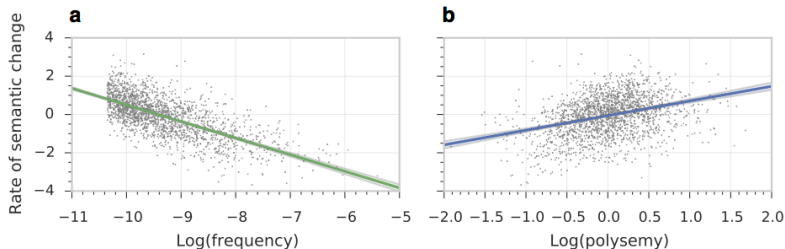


Source: Hamilton et al. (2016) ACL

<https://nlp.stanford.edu/projects/histwords/>

Semantic shifts

Using word embeddings to visualize changes in word meaning:



Source: Hamilton et al. (2016) ACL

<https://nlp.stanford.edu/projects/histwords/>

Dictionary expansion

Using word embeddings to expand **dictionaries** (e.g. incivility)

```
> distance(file_name = "FBvec.bin",  
+         search_word = "libtard",  
+         num = 10)
```

Entered word or sentence: libtard

Word: libtard Position in vocabulary: 5753

	word	dist
1	lib	0.798957586288452
2	lefty	0.771853387355804
3	libturd	0.762575328350067
4	teabagger	0.744283258914948
5	teabilly	0.715277075767517
6	liberal	0.709996342658997
7	retard	0.690707504749298
8	dumbass	0.690422177314758
9	rwnj	0.684058785438538
10	republitard	0.678197801113129

```
> distance(file_name = "FBvec.bin",  
+         search_word = "idiot",  
+         num = 10)
```

Entered word or sentence: idiot

Word: idiot Position in vocabulary: 646

	word	dist
1	imbecile	0.867565214633942
2	asshole	0.848560094833374
3	moron	0.781079053878784
4	asshat	0.772150039672852
5	a-hole	0.765781462192535
6	ahole	0.760824918746948
7	asswipe	0.742586553096771
8	ignoramus	0.735219776630402
9	arsehole	0.732272684574127
10	idoit	0.720151424407959

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Biases in word embeddings

- ▶ Important to be aware that semantic relationships in the embedding space have many biases through the data on which they are trained
- ▶ Neutral example: man – woman \approx king – queen
- ▶ Biased example: man – woman \approx computer programmer – homemaker

Gender stereotype *she-he* analogies.

sewing-carpentry	register-nurse-physician	housewife-shopkeeper
nurse-surgeon	interior designer-architect	softball-baseball
blond-burly	feminism-conservatism	cosmetics-pharmaceuticals
giggle-chuckle	vocalist-guitarist	petite-lanky
sassy-snappy	diva-superstar	charming-affable
volleyball-football	cupcakes-pizzas	hairstresser-barber

Gender appropriate *she-he* analogies.

queen-king	sister-brother	mother-father
waitress-waiter	ovarian cancer-prostate cancer	convent-monastery

Source: Bolukbasi et al. (2016) arXiv:1607.06520

- ▶ See also Garg et al. (2018) PNAS and Caliskan et al. (2017) Science

Guided coding

- ▶ 01-replicating-key-results.Rmd
- ▶ 02-training-word2vec.Rmd

Key references and further reading

- ▶ “CS224n: Natural Language Processing with Deep Learning”, Stanford University, <http://web.stanford.edu/class/cs224n/>, for an in depth discussion of word vectors see particularly lectures 1 & 2 from 2019 [here](#)
- ▶ “Efficient Estimation of Word Representations in Vector Space”, Mikolov et al. 2013, <https://arxiv.org/abs/1310.4546> & <https://code.google.com/archive/p/word2vec/>
- ▶ “GloVe: Global Vectors for Word Representation”, Pennington et al. 2014, <https://nlp.stanford.edu/projects/glove/>